

ISSN 1605-2021

লোক-প্রশাসন সাময়িকী

সংখ্যা: ৪০

সেপ্টেম্বর ২০০৬/ভাদ্র ১৪১৩

২২/১১/০৬/২০১৭

লোক প্রশাসন সাময়িকী



বাংলাদেশ লোক-প্রশাসন প্রশিক্ষণ কেন্দ্র
সাভার, ঢাকা

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লোক-প্রশাসন সাময়িকী

(বাংলাদেশ লোক-প্রশাসন প্রশিক্ষণ কেন্দ্রের ত্রৈমাসিক জার্নাল)

সংখ্যা: ৪০, সেপ্টেম্বর ২০০৬/ভাদ্র ১৪১৩

প্রকৃত প্রকাশকাল: ফেব্রুয়ারি ২০১০/মাঘ ১৪১৬

সম্পাদক : মোঃ সানোয়ার জাহান ভূঁইয়া

টেলিফোন : ৭৭১০০১০-১৬ (পিএবিএক্স)

ফ্যাক্স : ৭৭১০০২৯

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ওয়েব সাইট : <http://www.bpatc.org.bd>

বিপিএটিসি গ্রন্থাগার : ৩৫১.০০০৫

প্রচ্ছদ : নারায়ন সরকার

মূল্য : ১৮০ টাকা

US \$ 10

মুদ্রণ : তিথী প্রিন্টিং এন্ড প্যাকেজিং

২৮/সি-১, টয়েনবি সাকুলার রোড, মতিঝিল, ঢাকা-১০০০

ফোন : ৯৫৫০৪১২, ৯৫৫৩৩০৩

LOK PROSHASON SAMOEKEY

(Quarterly Journal of Bangladesh Public Administration Training Centre)

Vol. 40, September 2006/Bhadra 1413

Actual Time of Publication : February 2010/Magh 1416

Editor : Md. Sanwar Jahan Bhuiyan

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Fax : 7710029

Editor's e-mail : sanwarsamia@gmail.com

Website : <http://www.bpatc.org.bd>

BPATC Library : 351.0005

Price : Tk. 180

US \$ 10

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

সূচিপত্র

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(*Skilled Youth Manpower in Economic and Youth Development
in Bangladesh: A Review*)

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Abstract: Youth is an inexhaustible resource in the society. They are the owners of strength and human resource and also they are the users and producers of resource and power. Economic and comprehensive development of a country mostly depends on the youths, who can transform into skilled manpower. In Bangladesh, youths are earning huge amount of foreign currency by involving themselves in various sectors of productive and service sectors. Moreover, they also play vital role in social development. For achieving the desired goals of youth development, it is necessary to increase their awareness and also to provide skill development training and credit support among the urban and rural youths. Furthermore, by determining their needs, employment opportunity could be created both in government and private sectors, which will change the youths into skilled human resource and thus contribute to economic development of the country. In the present context, the government and private institutions as well as the Department of Youth Development need to play a vital role in involving the youths in the mainstream of development. As the youths are the one-third of total population of the country, it is difficult for the Department of Youth Development to involve them in all spheres of development activities. As a focal point, the Ministry of Youth and Sports can shoulder the responsibility avoiding the overlapping of the programmes of youth development, which are being implemented by various government/private institutions. By realizing the present problems, it is necessary to give emphasis on entrepreneurship development training, micro credit support and networking between the national and local institutions to involve the youths in development activities. The work area of the Department of Youth Development along with Bangladesh Small and Cottage Industries Corporation (BSCIC) could initiate realistic and pragmatic programmes on small entrepreneurship development. To achieve the desired target, it is necessary to increase the allocation of budget in youth development sector in the Annual Development Plan (ADP). Moreover, it is also necessary to establish a mechanism for effective co-ordination and networking between the concerned ministries/departments and different private institutions for better/smooth implementation of the national programmes on youth development.

ভূমিকা

জাতিসংঘের সংজ্ঞানুযায়ী যাদের বয়স ১৫-২৪ বছরের মধ্যে বা যারা এ বয়সের প্রতিনিধিত্ব করছেন তারাই যুব। বর্তমানে বাংলাদেশে মোট লোকসংখ্যা ১৪ কোটি যার মধ্যে মোট শ্রম

^১ পরিচালক (পল্লী অর্থনীতি ও ব্যবস্থাপনা), বার্ড, কুমিল্লা

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শক্তি হলো প্রায় ৫০.০৭ মিলিয়ন (বিবিএস, ২০০৪)। জাতীয় যুব নীতি ২০০৩ অনুযায়ী ১৮-৩৫ বছর বয়সী জনগোষ্ঠী যুব শ্রেণীর আওতাভুক্ত। দেশে এ বয়সী জনগোষ্ঠী মোট জনসংখ্যার প্রায় এক-তৃতীয়াংশ (৪ কোটি ৫০ লক্ষ)। বাংলাদেশের যুব জনগোষ্ঠির প্রায় দুই-তৃতীয়াংশের অধিক গ্রাম অঞ্চলে বাস করে (Ali. Easin et al, 2006 and Sutradhar, 2005)। বর্তমানে দেশে শিক্ষিত ও অশিক্ষিত মোট যুব সংখ্যার প্রায় এক-তৃতীয়াংশ বেকার/অর্ধ-বেকার। দেশে সীমিত কর্মসংস্থানের সুযোগ থাকায় প্রতিবছর প্রায় ২৫ লক্ষ নতুন বেকার যুবর সংখ্যা বৃদ্ধি পাচ্ছে। কৃষি নির্ভর এ দেশের কৃষি সেক্টরে কর্ম-সংস্থানের সুযোগ সীমিত হওয়ায় গ্রামীণ বেকার যুবদের সংখ্যাও ক্রমাগতভাবে বৃদ্ধি পাচ্ছে। গ্রামীণ বেকার যুবরা অধিকাংশই দরিদ্র হওয়ায় তাদের তেমন শিক্ষা, কারিগরী দক্ষতা এবং প্রশিক্ষণ নেই। দেশের উন্নয়নের জন্য যুবদেরকে দক্ষ মানব সম্পদে পরিণত করা একটি অতীব প্রয়োজনীয় কাজ। কেননা যুব সম্প্রদায়কে দক্ষ মানব সম্পদে রূপান্তরের মধ্যেই অন্তর্নিহিত রয়েছে দেশের অর্থনৈতিক উন্নয়নসহ সার্বিক উন্নয়ন। যুব উন্নয়নের লক্ষ্যে যুব উন্নয়ন অধিদপ্তর, মহিলা বিষয়ক অধিদপ্তর, সমাজসেবা অধিদপ্তর, জনশক্তি, কর্মসংস্থান এবং প্রশিক্ষণ ব্যুরো, বাংলাদেশ ক্ষুদ্র ও কুটির শিল্প কর্পোরেশন (বিসিক), বিআরডিবি প্রভৃতি সরকারি দপ্তর প্রতিষ্ঠানসহ অনেক বেসরকারি প্রতিষ্ঠানে যুবদেরকে সংগঠিত, সচেতন ও উদ্যোগী করা, তাদের দক্ষতা উন্নয়নমূলক প্রশিক্ষণ ও ক্ষুদ্র ঋণ সহায়তা প্রদান এবং পরামর্শ সহযোগিতা প্রদান করে যাচ্ছে। এ সকল কর্মকাণ্ডকে আরো বেগবান ও শক্তিশালী করার লক্ষ্যে দেশের পরিচালিত বর্তমান কার্যক্রমসমূহের অবস্থা মূল্যায়ন, সমস্যা চিহ্নিতকরণ এবং করণীয় পদক্ষেপ নির্ধারণ করা প্রয়োজন। এ নিবন্ধটি মূলত জাতীয় যুবদিবস ২৮ ডিসেম্বর ২০০৬ উপলক্ষে যুব উন্নয়ন অধিদপ্তরে অনুষ্ঠিত সেমিনারে উপস্থাপিত “অর্থনৈতিক উন্নয়নে দক্ষ যুব শক্তি: প্রেক্ষাপট বাংলাদেশ” শীর্ষক কর্মপত্রের ভিত্তিতে রচনা করা হয়েছে এবং তা হালনাগাদ করে উপস্থাপন করা হলো।

নিবন্ধের উদ্দেশ্য

এ নিবন্ধের মূল উদ্দেশ্য হলো দেশের অর্থনৈতিক উন্নয়নে দক্ষ যুবশক্তির ভূমিকা তুলে ধরা এবং যুব উন্নয়নের লক্ষ্যে যুব উন্নয়ন অধিদপ্তরের অতীত ও বর্তমান কার্যক্রম পর্যালোচনা এবং বিদ্যমান সমস্যা ও সীমাবদ্ধতা সনাক্তকরণ। নিবন্ধটির অপর উদ্দেশ্য হলো অর্থনৈতিক উন্নয়নে যুব শক্তির যথার্থ ব্যবহারের লক্ষ্যে সরকারি ও বেসরকারি প্রতিষ্ঠানসমূহের করণীয় পদক্ষেপ বিষয়ে সুপারিশ প্রদান।

তথ্য সংগ্রহের পদ্ধতি

এ নিবন্ধটি প্রকাশিত বিভিন্ন গবেষণা প্রতিবেদন, সরকারি ডকুমেন্ট, জার্নাল নিবন্ধ, বিভিন্ন মূল্যায়ন প্রতিবেদন এবং যুব উন্নয়ন অধিদপ্তরের সংরক্ষিত রেকর্ডপত্রের ভিত্তিতে লেখা হয়েছে। এ ছাড়া যুব উন্নয়ন বিষয়ক কার্যক্রম পরিচালনা, বিদ্যমান সমস্যাবলী এবং করণীয় পদক্ষেপ বিষয়ে যুব উন্নয়ন অধিদপ্তরের সংশ্লিষ্ট কর্মকর্তাদের নিকট থেকে অনানুষ্ঠানিক আলোচনার মাধ্যমে গৃহীত মতামত এ নিবন্ধে সন্নিবেশন করা হয়েছে।

যুবশক্তি ও অর্থনৈতিক উন্নয়ন

একটি সমাজ তথা দেশের কাংখিত ইতিবাচক পরিবর্তনই হলো উন্নয়ন। আর অর্থনৈতিক উন্নয়ন হলো এমন একটি প্রক্রিয়া যার দ্বারা একটি দেশের জনগণের মাথা পিছু আয় দীর্ঘকাল ধরে ক্রমবর্ধমান হারে বৃদ্ধি পেয়ে থাকে, যার ফলশ্রুতিতে দারিদ্র্য-সীমার নিচে বসবাসকারী জনগণের সংখ্যা হ্রাস, আয় উপার্জন বৃদ্ধি এবং আয়ের মধ্যে সমতা রক্ষা অব্যাহত থাকবে। এ পরিবর্তনের ধারাকে অব্যাহতভাবে চালু রাখতে বিশেষত বাংলাদেশের মত একটি দ্রুত পরিবর্তনশীল সমাজ ব্যবস্থায় দক্ষ যুবশক্তির গুরুত্বপূর্ণ ভূমিকা রয়েছে। কারণ অর্থনৈতিক উন্নয়নের সংগে ব্যক্তির সামাজিক অবস্থা, দক্ষতা, কাঠামো, উৎপাদন সম্পর্ক, আয়-উপার্জন এবং রাজনৈতিক ব্যবস্থার সম্পর্ক রয়েছে, যেখানে একটি দক্ষ ও শিক্ষিত যুবশক্তির ভূমিকা খুবই অপরিসীম। সাধারণ একজন মানুষ যখন যৌবনে পদার্পন করে তখনই তাকে যুব ধরা হয়। যৌবনই হলো একজন মানুষের আত্মবিকাশ ও সৃষ্টিশীল কাজের সর্বোত্তম সময়। তাই যুব শ্রেণী যে কোন দেশের সর্বাপেক্ষা গুরুত্বপূর্ণ শক্তি। তবে শুধুমাত্র যুব হলেই এবং শরীরে শক্তি ও উদ্যম থাকলেই দক্ষ যুবশক্তি হয় না, অর্জন করতে হয় দক্ষতা, থাকতে হয় আত্ম-প্রত্যয় এবং নিয়োজন করতে হয় উৎপাদনমুখী ও সৃজনশীল কাজে। জ্ঞান-বিজ্ঞান, তথ্য প্রযুক্তির সাথে নিজদের জ্ঞান/দক্ষতা ও যোগ্যতাকে খাপ খাইয়ে কাজে লাগানো হলো দক্ষ যুব শক্তি। যুবরা তাদের কর্মস্পৃহা ও কর্মোদ্দীপনাকে কাজে লাগিয়ে কোন কাজ বা দেশ/জাতির উন্নতির চরম শিখরে পৌঁছে দিতে পারে যদি দক্ষ যুবরা নিজেদেরকে আলোকিত মানুষ হিসেবে বিকশিত করার সহায়ক পরিবেশ ও সুযোগ পায়। যার কারণে বাংলাদেশে যুবদের কর্মসংস্থান, আত্ম-কর্মসংস্থান এমনকি যুবদের বাস্তবতার নিরিখে চাহিদাভিত্তিক কর্মকাণ্ড চিহ্নিত করে দেশের উন্নয়নের মূলস্রোত ধারায় সম্পৃক্তকরণের প্রক্রিয়া উত্তরোত্তর বৃদ্ধি পাচ্ছে। যুব কর্মের প্রাথমিক এবং প্রধান শর্ত হলো 'যুব গোষ্ঠীর জন্য সুনির্দিষ্ট কর্মসূচি পরিচালনা করা এবং যুবগোষ্ঠীর চাহিদা ও প্রয়োজনকে অগ্রাধিকার দেয়া'। যার কারণে যুবদের সামাজিক, মানসিক ও অর্থনৈতিক চাহিদার প্রেক্ষিতে বাংলাদেশ এবং বিশ্বের অন্যান্য উন্নয়নশীল দেশে যুব উন্নয়ন কার্যক্রমের গুরুত্ব ও এর পরিব্যাপ্তি বিগত কয়েক দশকে সর্বাধিক বৃদ্ধি পেয়েছে।

বাংলাদেশের অর্থনৈতিক উন্নয়নে যুব কার্যক্রম: সাম্প্রতিক পর্যালোচনা

যুবরা অত্যন্ত সচেতন, বলিষ্ঠ এবং গতিশীল নেতৃত্বের অধিকারী। এ দেশের যুবরা সামাজিক পরিবর্তন, বৈষম্য দূরীকরণ বিভিন্ন অন্যা-অবিচারের বিরুদ্ধে বিভিন্ন সময়ে গণ-আন্দোলন এবং স্বাধীনতার যুদ্ধে সক্রিয়ভাবে অংশগ্রহণ করে এ দেশের ইতিহাসে গুরুত্বপূর্ণ স্থান দখল করে রেখেছে। তবে স্বাধীনতা পরবর্তী সময়ে এ যুবদেরকে উৎপাদনমুখী উন্নয়ন কর্মকাণ্ডে সম্পৃক্তকরণের লক্ষ্যে জাতীয়ভাবে বাস্তবভিত্তিক উল্লেখযোগ্য কোন কর্মসূচি গৃহীত না হওয়ায় জাতীয় উন্নয়নে তাদের ভূমিকা সীমিত হয়ে পড়ে। স্বাধীনতাগত উৎপাদনমুখী কর্মকাণ্ডে যুবদের সম্পৃক্ততা না থাকার কারণে ক্ষুধা, দারিদ্র্য, বেকারত্বের কষাঘাতে আশাহত যুব সমাজের একটি বৃহৎ অংশ অনিশ্চিত ধ্বংসের পথে ধাবিত হচ্ছিল। এরূপ প্রেক্ষাপটে পরিকল্পিত ও গঠনমূলক উপায়ে দেশের উৎপাদন ও উন্নয়ন কর্মকাণ্ডে যুবদেরকে সম্পৃক্ত করার প্রয়োজনীয়তা তীব্রভাবে অনুভূত হয়। যার ফলশ্রুতিতে স্বাধীনতাগত সময়ে বাংলাদেশ পল্লী উন্নয়ন একাডেমী (বার্ড) যুব উন্নয়ন বিষয়টি অত্যন্ত গুরুত্ব সহকারে বিবেচনা

করে এবং যুবদের উন্নয়ন কর্মকাণ্ডে সম্পৃক্তকরণের লক্ষ্যে ১৯৭৪ সালে 'যুব উন্নয়ন কর্মসূচি' নামে একটি প্রায়োগিক পরীক্ষামূলক প্রকল্প শুরু করে যার প্রথম পর্যায় ১৯৭৪-১৯৭৬, দ্বিতীয় পর্যায় ১৯৭৭-১৯৮১ সময়ে বাস্তবায়িত হয়। বার্ডের প্রায়োগিক গবেষণা-লব্ধ ফলাফলের উপর ভিত্তি করে ১৯৭৮ সালে ঢাকায় একটি জাতীয় সেমিনার অনুষ্ঠিত হয়। এ সেমিনারে সর্বসম্মতভাবে যুব উন্নয়নের লক্ষ্যে একটি পৃথক বিভাগ/মন্ত্রণালয় স্থাপনের সুপারিশ করা হয় (গুপ্ত, ১৯৭৯ঃ৫৪)। প্রথম পঞ্চ-বার্ষিক পরিকল্পনা (১৯৭৩-৭৮) এর অধীনে যুব উন্নয়নের সম্মিলিত প্রয়াস হিসেবে যুব হোস্টেল ও যুব কল্যাণ কেন্দ্র (কমপ্লেক্স) স্থাপন করা হয়। দেশের দ্বি-বার্ষিক পরিকল্পনা (১৯৭৮-৮০) সময়ের মধ্যে ৭০ মিলিয়ন টাকা ব্যয়ে ৩৬,২০০ জন যুবককে প্রশিক্ষণ প্রদান করা হয়। মাঠ পর্যায়ে যুব ও ক্রীড়া মন্ত্রণালয়ের কার্যক্রম বাস্তবায়নের লক্ষ্যে ১৯৮১ সালে যুব উন্নয়ন অধিদপ্তর প্রতিষ্ঠা করা হয়। যুব সমাজকে সুশৃংখল ও সুসংগঠিত করে জাতীয় উন্নয়ন প্রক্রিয়ায় সম্পৃক্তকরণ এবং সঠিক দিক-নির্দেশনা, জ্ঞান ও দক্ষতা বৃদ্ধির মাধ্যমে মানব সম্পদে পরিণত করার লক্ষ্যে বর্তমানে যুব উন্নয়ন অধিদপ্তর নিম্নবর্ণিত কর্মসূচিসমূহ চালু করে। যথা:

- ◆ বেকার যুবদের দক্ষতা বৃদ্ধিমূলক প্রশিক্ষণ কর্মসূচি
- ◆ প্রশিক্ষিত যুবদের আত্ম-কর্মসংস্থান ও যুব ঋণ কর্মসূচি
- ◆ দারিদ্র বিমোচন কর্মসূচি
- ◆ বিভিন্ন গুরুত্বপূর্ণ বিষয়ে উদ্বুদ্ধকরণ ও সচেতনতা বৃদ্ধিমূলক কর্মসূচি, যেমন- এইচআইভি/এইডস/এসটিডি প্রতিরোধ, জনসংখ্যা নিয়ন্ত্রণ, পরিবার কল্যাণ ইত্যাদি
- ◆ সরকারি বেসরকারি পার্টনারশীপ কর্মসূচি
- ◆ যুব নেতৃত্ব বিকাশের জন্য প্রশিক্ষণ কর্মসূচি
- ◆ স্বৈচ্ছাসেবী সংগঠনের মধ্যে নেটওয়ার্কিং জোরদারকরণ
- ◆ স্বৈচ্ছাসেবী যুব সংগঠনসমূহকে বিভিন্ন জাতীয় উন্নয়নমূলক কর্মকাণ্ডে সম্পৃক্তকরণ কর্মসূচি
- ◆ জনসংখ্যা এবং পরিবার কল্যাণ কর্মকাণ্ডে যুবদের সম্পৃক্তকরণ কর্মসূচি
- ◆ ইনোভেটিভ ম্যানেজমেন্ট অব রিসোর্স ফর পভারটি এলিভিয়েশন থ্রো টেকনোলজি প্রকল্প
- ◆ যুব বিষয়ক গবেষণা কার্যক্রম পরিচালনা কর্মসূচি।

দ্বিতীয় পঞ্চ-বার্ষিক পরিকল্পনা (১৯৮১-১৯৮৫) মেয়াদে যুব উন্নয়নের জন্য ২৫৫.০০ মিলিয়ন টাকা বরাদ্দ রাখা হয়, যার মধ্যে ১৯৬.০০ মিলিয়ন টাকা ব্যয় হয়। এ পরিকল্পনা সময়ে লক্ষ্যমাত্রা ২,২০,১২৪ জনের বিপরীতে মোট ১,৬৩,০৭০ জন যুবকে বিভিন্ন বিষয়ে বৃত্তিমূলক প্রশিক্ষণ যেমন: পশু ও মুরগীর খামার পরিচালনা, যন্ত্রকৌশল, কৃষি, মৎস্য, অটোরিক্সা চালনা ইত্যাদি বিষয়ে প্রশিক্ষণ পরিচালনা করে। প্রশিক্ষণ প্রাপ্ত প্রায় ৩০০০ জন যুব কৃষি, রেশম চাষ এবং পরিবহণ খাতে আত্ম-কর্মসংস্থানমূলক কার্যক্রম গ্রহণ করে (আহমাদ, ২০০৬ঃ৬৫)। এ প্রশিক্ষণ কর্মসূচি তৃতীয় পঞ্চ-বার্ষিক পরিকল্পনা (১৯৮৫-১৯৯০) সময়েও বাস্তবায়িত হয়।

চতুর্থ পঞ্চ-বার্ষিক পরিকল্পনা (১৯৯০-১৯৯৫) মেয়াদে বিভিন্ন প্রকল্পের আওতাধীনে স্বেচ্ছাসেবী যুব সংগঠনের মাধ্যমে যুবদের আত্ম-কর্মসংস্থান, দারিদ্র্য বিমোচন, দক্ষতা উন্নয়ন প্রশিক্ষণ এবং কমিউনিটি উন্নয়নের জন্য ৭২২.৫৫ মিলিয়ন টাকা ব্যয় করা হয় এবং ১৯৯০-৯৫ ও ১৯৯৫-৯৬ সালে ৩,০৪,৩৮৮ জনকে প্রশিক্ষণ দেয়া হয় (পূর্বোক্ত, ২০০৬ঃ৬৬)। এই সময়ে এশীয় উন্নয়ন ব্যাঙ্কের সহযোগিতায় থানা সম্পদ উন্নয়ন ও কর্মসংস্থান প্রকল্প (টিআরডিইপি) এর দারিদ্র্য বিমোচন কর্মসূচির কার্যক্রম ৩২টি থানায় সম্প্রসারিত হয় এবং ৩০৬.৯০ মিলিয়ন টাকা ঋণ তহবিল হিসেবে ব্যবহার করা হয় এবং ১,৯২,০০০ জন সুফলভোগীকে ক্ষুদ্র ঋণ কর্মসূচির আওতায় আনা হয়। টিআরডিইপি প্রকল্পের দারিদ্র্য বিমোচন কর্মসূচি মূল্যায়নের সফলতার প্রেক্ষিতে দেশের নির্বাচিত ৫০টি থানায় ১২৫০.০০ মিলিয়ন টাকা ঋণ তহবিল নিয়ে “পরিবারভিত্তিক কর্মসূচি” গ্রহণ করা হয় (পূর্বোক্ত, ২০০৬ঃ৬৬)। পঞ্চম পঞ্চ-বার্ষিক পরিকল্পনা (১৯৯৭-২০০২) মেয়াদে যুবদের দক্ষতা উন্নয়ন প্রশিক্ষণ, আত্ম-কর্মসংস্থাপন কর্মসূচি, কমিউনিটি উন্নয়ন কর্মসূচি, যুব নেতৃত্বের উন্নয়ন, জন সংখ্যা ও স্বাস্থ্য পরিচর্যায় যুবদের অংশগ্রহণ, আনসার ও ডিডিপিদের জন্য কমিউনিটি উন্নয়ন ও স্ব-কর্মসংস্থান কর্মসূচি, প্রযুক্তি হস্তান্তর কর্মসূচি, প্রশিক্ষণপ্রাপ্ত যুবদের উপকরণ সরবরাহ এবং যুব কেন্দ্রে যুব উন্নয়নে তথ্য ও উপাত্ত সংগ্রহ এবং যুব উন্নয়ন বিষয়ে সেমিনার/কর্মশালা আয়োজন ইত্যাদি কার্যক্রম গ্রহণ করা হয়।

যুব উন্নয়ন অধিদপ্তর প্রতিষ্ঠা লগ্ন থেকেই দারিদ্র্য বিমোচনে নীতিমালা প্রণয়নসহ বিভিন্ন কর্মসূচি বাস্তবায়ন করে যাচ্ছে। যুব উন্নয়ন অধিদপ্তর প্রতিষ্ঠা লগ্ন থেকে জুন ২০০৮ পর্যন্ত বিভিন্ন বিষয়/ট্রেডে ৩০,০৯৭০৬ জন বেকার যুবকে প্রশিক্ষণ প্রদান করেছে যার মধ্যে ৫৬% (১৬,৯৩,২২৫) জন আত্ম-কর্মসংস্থানমূলক কর্মকাণ্ডে নিয়োজিত হতে পেরেছে এবং অধিকাংশ যুবই প্রতিষ্ঠানের ঋণ সহায়তা গ্রহণ করেছে। বর্তমানে যুব উন্নয়ন অধিদপ্তরের ঋণ তহবিলের পরিমাণ ১৬৬৮৬.৫১ লক্ষ টাকা (অধিদপ্তরের কার্যক্রম, ২০০৮ঃ৪৮)।

বর্তমানে যুব উন্নয়ন অধিদপ্তর ছাড়াও সরকারি বেসরকারি পর্যায়ে বিভিন্ন সংস্থা প্রশিক্ষণ, উদ্বুদ্ধকরণ ও ক্ষুদ্র ব্যবসায়/আয়বর্ধক কর্মকাণ্ডে ক্ষুদ্র ঋণ প্রদানের মাধ্যমে: দরিদ্র ও বেকার যুবদের উন্নয়নের লক্ষ্যে বিভিন্ন কর্মসূচি বাস্তবায়ন করে যাচ্ছে। আন্তর্জাতিক শ্রম সংস্থার সমীক্ষা অনুযায়ী যে সকল সরকারি ও বেসরকারি সংস্থা এ বিষয়ে গুরুত্বপূর্ণ অবদান রেখে চলেছে সেগুলোর মধ্যে নিম্নোক্ত প্রতিষ্ঠানগুলো বিশেষভাবে উল্লেখযোগ্যঃ

সারণি-১ : যুব উন্নয়ন কর্মকাণ্ডে নিয়োজিত সরকারি/বেসরকারি সংগঠনসমূহ

সরকারি সংস্থা	বেসরকারি সংস্থা
১) মহিলা বিষয়ক অধিদপ্তর	১) ব্র্যাক
২) জনশক্তি কর্মসংস্থান ও প্রশিক্ষণ ব্যুরো	২) স্বনির্ভর বাংলাদেশ
৩) বাংলাদেশ ক্ষুদ্র ও কুটির শিল্প কর্পোরেশন (বিসিক)	৩) প্রশিকা
৪) বাংলাদেশ পল্লী উন্নয়ন বোর্ড (বিআরডিবি)	৪) আরডিআরএস
৫) সমাজসেবা অধিদপ্তর	৫) গ্রামীণ ব্যাংক
৬) কর্মসংস্থান ব্যাংক	৬) আশা
৭) পল্লী কর্ম সহায়ক ফাউন্ডেশন (পিকেএসএফ)	

উল্লিখিত সংস্থাসমূহ ছাড়াও মৎস্য ও পশু সম্পদ মন্ত্রণালয়, পরিবেশ ও বন মন্ত্রণালয়, স্বাস্থ্য ও পরিবার কল্যাণ মন্ত্রণালয়, ভূমি মন্ত্রণালয় যুবদের প্রশিক্ষণ ও ক্ষুদ্র ঋণ বিতরণের মাধ্যমে দারিদ্র্য বিমোচনসহ বিভিন্ন কর্মসূচি বাস্তবায়ন করে যাচ্ছে।

যুব উন্নয়নে বিভিন্ন সংস্থার কার্যক্রমের অগ্রগতি মূল্যায়ন

যুব উন্নয়নে জড়িত বিভিন্ন মন্ত্রণালয়/সংস্থা কর্তৃক পরিচালিত কর্মসূচির মধ্যে সুষ্ঠু সমন্বয়ের অভাব রয়েছে। বিভিন্ন মন্ত্রণালয়/সংস্থাসমূহ তাদের নিজস্ব নীতি অনুযায়ী কর্মসূচি বাস্তবায়ন করার কারণে এদের কার্যক্রমে দ্বৈততা ও সমন্বয়ের অভাব রয়েছে। অর্থনৈতিক উন্নয়ন কর্মকাণ্ডে বিভিন্ন সরকারি/বেসরকারি সংস্থার আওতায় কর্মসংস্থান ও আয়-বৃদ্ধিমূলক কর্মকাণ্ডে যুবদের অংশগ্রহণ এবং তাদের সহায়তার ধরনের মধ্যেও ভিন্নতা রয়েছে। একটি তুলনামূলক সমীক্ষায় দেখা যায় যে, যুব উন্নয়ন অধিদপ্তরের আওতায় সুফলভোগীগণের ঋণ প্রাপ্তির যোগ্যতার ক্ষেত্রে প্রশিক্ষণ একটি পূর্বশর্ত যা অন্যান্য সংস্থা যেমন: বিআরডিবি, সমাজ সেবা ও মহিলা বিষয়ক অধিদপ্তরের সুফলভোগীদের বেলায় এরূপ শর্ত পূরণ আবশ্যিক নয়। আবার যুব উন্নয়ন অধিদপ্তরের সাথে অন্যান্য সংস্থার লক্ষ্য গোষ্ঠী (Target Group) চিহ্নিতকরণেও ভিন্নতা রয়েছে। অধিকাংশ সংস্থার ক্ষেত্রে দলীয় পদ্ধতি (Group Approach)-কে অনুসরণ করা হয়। যুব উন্নয়ন অধিদপ্তরের আওতায় সুফলভোগী হিসেবে ব্যক্তি, পরিবার এবং দলও হতে পারে।

যুব উন্নয়ন অধিদপ্তরের প্রশিক্ষণ ও আর্থিক কার্যক্রম পরিচালনা

যুবদের দক্ষতা বৃদ্ধিমূলক প্রশিক্ষণ, প্রশিক্ষণোত্তর আত্ম-কর্মসংস্থানে উদ্বুদ্ধকরণ এবং ঋণ সহায়তার উদ্দেশ্যে যুব উন্নয়ন অধিদপ্তর কর্তৃক বাস্তবায়িত কার্যক্রমসমূহের জুন ২০০৮ পর্যন্ত অগ্রগতি পর্যালোচনায় দেখা যায় যে, দেশের ৬৪টি জেলার ৪৭৫টি (১০টি মেট্রোপলিটন ইউনিট থানাসহ) উপজেলায় যুব কার্যক্রম চালু রয়েছে। তাছাড়া ৬৯টি কারিগরী প্রশিক্ষণ কেন্দ্র, ঢাকা, রাজশাহী, যশোহর ও সিলেট জেলায় ৪টি আঞ্চলিক মানব সম্পদ উন্নয়ন কেন্দ্র, ঢাকায় কেন্দ্রীয় মানব সম্পদ উন্নয়ন কেন্দ্র, সাভারে জাতীয় যুব কেন্দ্র এবং বগুড়ায় একটি আঞ্চলিক যুব কেন্দ্র রয়েছে। বাংলাদেশ অর্থনৈতিক সমীক্ষা ২০০৫-এ প্রকাশিত তথ্যে দেখা যায় যে, যুব উন্নয়ন অধিদপ্তর বিভিন্ন ট্রেডে ডিসেম্বর ২০০৪ পর্যন্ত ২৪ লক্ষ ৩১ হাজার ৭ শত ৩৫ জনকে দক্ষতা বৃদ্ধিমূলক প্রশিক্ষণ দিয়েছে এবং যার মধ্যে ১৩ লক্ষ ২৩ হাজার ৬ শত ৭৯ জন (৫৪%) আত্ম-কর্মসংস্থানে সক্ষম হয়েছে। তন্মধ্যে স্বকর্ম/আত্ম-কর্মে নিয়োজিতদের সংখ্যা ১৪,৭৯,০৭৮ জন (৫৫%)। যুব কর্মসংস্থান ত্বরান্বিত করার লক্ষ্যে ১৯৯৭ সালে অনুষ্ঠিত আন্তঃমন্ত্রণালয় সভার সিদ্ধান্ত অনুযায়ী ২০ একর পর্যন্ত খাস ও বদ্ধ জলাশয় যুব উন্নয়ন অধিদপ্তরের তালিকাভুক্ত যুব সমবায় সমিতিতে ইজারা দেয়ার জন্য ভূমি মন্ত্রণালয়, যুব ও ক্রীড়া মন্ত্রণালয়কে দায়িত্ব দেয়া হয়। যার ফলশ্রুতিতে জুন ২০০৬ পর্যন্ত ১১ হাজার ৯৫০টি জলাশয় যুব সমবায় সমিতিতে ইজারা প্রাদান করা হয় এবং ইজারা বাবদ ২৪ কোটি ৫৩ লক্ষ ৬৯ হাজার টাকা সরকারের রাজস্ব আয় হয় যা দেশের অর্থনৈতিক উন্নয়নে সরাসরি অবদান রেখেছে।

দেশের সকল উপজেলায় ৫০০টি যুব ক্লাবের মাধ্যমে ইউএনএফপিএ-এর সহযোগিতায় জেভার ইস্যু, এইচআইভি এইডস, সেনিটেশন, পরিবেশ উন্নয়ন ও প্রজনন স্বাস্থ্য ইত্যাদি

বিষয়ক বিভিন্ন উদ্বুদ্ধকরণ প্রশিক্ষণ প্রদান করা হয়। তাছাড়াও নিরাপদ মাতৃত্ব ও কিশোরীদের প্রজনন স্বাস্থ্য সচেতনতা বৃদ্ধির জন্য দেশের ৩০টি উপজেলায় ৬০টি যুব ক্লাবের মাধ্যমে ২৯,০৭৯ জনকে প্রশিক্ষণ দেয়া হয়েছে। এ পর্যন্ত মোট ৬৮৩৮টি যুব সংগঠনকে অধিদপ্তরের তালিকাভুক্ত করা হয়েছে এবং তন্মধ্যে ৪৮৬১টি সংগঠনকে অনুদান প্রদান করা হয়েছে। ২০০৬ সালে পরিচালিত গবেষণা সমীক্ষা (আলী, ২০০৬)-এতে দেখা যায়, দেশের যুবক ও যুব মহিলাকে কর্মঠ, আত্ম-প্রত্যয়ী ও স্বনির্ভর করে গড়ে তুলতে জাতীয় যুব নীতির আওতায় যুব কার্যক্রমকে অধিকতর সম্প্রসারণের উদ্যোগ নেয়া হয়েছে এবং এর আওতায় প্রশিক্ষণ অবকাঠামোর সম্প্রসারণ, যুব সংগঠনের নিবন্ধীকরণ, যুব সংগঠনের মধ্যে কার্যকর নেটওয়ার্ক স্থাপন এবং জাতীয় ও আন্তর্জাতিক যুব কার্যক্রমের সংগে পরিচিত, গবেষণা, প্রশিক্ষণ ইত্যাদি বিষয়ের উপর গুরুত্ব দেয়া হয়েছে। যুবদের দক্ষতা উন্নয়নে বর্তমানে দেশের ৪৬টি যুব প্রশিক্ষণ কেন্দ্রে (১৮টি কেন্দ্র প্রক্রিয়াধীন) ৩ মাস মেয়াদী গবাদি পশু, হাঁস-মুরগী, মৎস্য চাষ ও কৃষি উন্নয়ন বিষয়ক প্রশিক্ষণ কোর্স চালু করা হয়েছে। তাছাড়া পোশাক তৈরী, ব্লক ও বাটিক প্রিন্টিং, মৎস্য চাষ, সাঁট মুদ্রাক্ষরিক, উল নেটিং বিষয়ে ১৭৮টি প্রশিক্ষণ কেন্দ্রের মাধ্যমে সুনির্দিষ্ট কোর্স কারিকুলামের আওতায় যুবদের প্রশিক্ষণ দেয়া হচ্ছে এবং স্থানীয় চাহিদার ভিত্তিতে ৪৭৫টি উপজেলায় ডাম্যমান প্রশিক্ষণ কেন্দ্রের মাধ্যমে বিভিন্ন ট্রেডে স্বল্পমেয়াদী প্রশিক্ষণ দেয়া হচ্ছে। শিক্ষিত বেকার যুবদের কারিগরী প্রশিক্ষণ কর্মসূচির আওতায় দক্ষ মানব সম্পদ উন্নয়নে কম্পিউটার, ইলেকট্রিক্যাল এন্ড হাউজওয়্যারিং, রেফ্রিজারেশন এন্ড এয়ার কন্ডিশনিং এবং ইলেকট্রনিক্স ট্রেডে ৬ মাস মেয়াদী প্রশিক্ষণ প্রদান করা হচ্ছে। যুব উন্নয়ন অধিদপ্তর জুন ২০০৮ পর্যন্ত প্রশিক্ষণ-উত্তর দক্ষতা ও জ্ঞানকে কাজে লাগিয়ে আত্ম-কর্মসংস্থান সৃষ্টির লক্ষ্যে ১৬ লক্ষ ৯৩ হাজার ২২৫ জনকে ৮১,০৮৭.০০ লক্ষ টাকা ঋণ হিসেবে বিতরণ করেছে এবং যার আদায়ের হার হচ্ছে ৮৯.৪২%।

চট্টগ্রাম বিভাগের চারটি উপজেলায়, ২০০৩ সালে পরিচালিত 'মানব সম্পদ উন্নয়নে যুব উন্নয়ন কর্মসূচির প্রভাব' শীর্ষক এক মূল্যায়ন সমীক্ষায় দেখা যায় যে, ৭টি দক্ষতা উন্নয়ন ট্রেডে প্রশিক্ষিত ৪০১ জন উত্তরদাতার মধ্যে (পুরুষ ২৭৩, মহিলা ১২৮) ৩৯৯ (৯৯%) উত্তরদাতাই কোন না কোন আয়বর্ধক কর্মকাণ্ডে সম্পৃক্ত রয়েছেন। যার মধ্যে প্রশিক্ষণের পূর্বে ১৬০ জন (৪০%) যুব ছিল সম্পূর্ণ বেকার। বর্তমানে তাঁরা ২০%-৯০% পরিবারের আয় বৃদ্ধিতে অবদান রাখছে। অপরপক্ষে, ২৯০ জন (৭২%) প্রশিক্ষিত যুবরা অতিরিক্ত ৬৮০ জনের কর্মসংস্থানের সুযোগ সৃষ্টি করেছেন এবং শতকরা ৫০ জন প্রশিক্ষিত যুব স্বনির্ভর হয়েছেন এবং পরিবারের মৌলিক চাহিদা পূরণসহ জীবনযাত্রার মানোন্নয়নে অবদান রেখেছেন (আলী, ২০০৩ঃ৩১)। ২০০৬ সালে যুব উন্নয়ন অধিদপ্তরের চলমান কর্মসূচিসমূহের কার্যকারিতা নিরূপণ শীর্ষক অপর একটি গবেষণা সমীক্ষায় দেখা যায় যে, ৩টি চলমান কর্মসূচির আওতায় বিগত তিনটি অর্থ বছরে (২০০২-০৫ অর্থ বছর) প্রায় ১২টি ট্রেডে মোট ১৭,৩৯০ জন যুবকে দক্ষতা বৃদ্ধিমূলক প্রশিক্ষণ প্রদান করা হয়, যার মধ্যে ১১১০ জন প্রশিক্ষিত যুবদের উপর সমীক্ষা পরিচালনা করা হয়। সমীক্ষায় দেখা যায় যে, ৫৮১ জন (৫২%) প্রশিক্ষিত যুব সংশ্লিষ্ট বিষয়ে/ট্রেডে স্বকর্মে নিয়োজিত হয়েছেন এবং ৪৪ জন (৪%) ট্রেড-ভিত্তিক চাকুরি লাভ করেছেন। প্রশিক্ষণোত্তর লব্ধ জ্ঞান ও দক্ষতা ব্যবহারের হার ৫৬% আত্মকর্মে এ সকল দক্ষ যুবগণ মাসে কমপক্ষে ২০০০.০০ হতে ২০০০০.০০ টাকা পর্যন্ত আয়-উপার্জন করেছেন এবং পরিবারের মৌলিক চাহিদা পূরণসহ আর্থিক উন্নয়নে ইতিবাচক ভূমিকা রেখেছেন (আলী, ২০০৬ঃ৩৯)।

বার্ষিক উন্নয়ন কর্মসূচিতে যুব উন্নয়ন খাতে বরাদ্দ

কৃষি বাংলাদেশের অর্থনীতিয় প্রাচীন উপখাত হিসাবে গণ্য হয়ে আসছে। এ দেশের জনশক্তির প্রায় ৫২% কৃষি কাজে নিয়োজিত রয়েছে (বিবিএস, ২০০২-২০০৩)। একক খাত হিসাবে জিডিপিতে কৃষির অবদান প্রায় ২১%। কর্মসংস্থানের সর্ববৃহৎ খাত হিসাবে সনাতনী কৃষিসহ হাঁস-মুরগী ও গবাদি পশু পালন, মৎস্য চাষ, বৃক্ষরোপণ ইত্যাদিতে আধুনিক ধারার সূচনা করেছে যুবগোষ্ঠী। উল্লেখযোগ্য পরিবর্তনগুলোর মধ্যে রয়েছে ক্ষেতে-খামারে চাষাবাদের বিকল্প কার্যক্রম হিসেবে পোল্ট্রি ফার্ম স্থাপন, গবাদি পশু-পালন, ধান ক্ষেত/পুকুরে মাছ চাষ, নার্সারী স্থাপন ইত্যাদি। এ সকল আত্ম-কর্মসংস্থানমূলক কর্মকাণ্ড গ্রামাঞ্চলে দারিদ্র্য বিমোচনসহ জাতীয় উৎপাদন ও জাতীয় আয় বৃদ্ধিতে ভূমিকা রাখছে।

ষাটের দশকে তদানীন্তন পূর্ব পাকিস্তান তথা বাংলাদেশের শিল্পোন্নয়নের নূতন ধারা সূচনা এবং বিকাশ ঘটলেও স্বাধীনতাত্তোর শিল্প জাতীয়করণের কারণে শিল্প উন্নয়ন বাধাগ্রস্ত হয়। কিন্তু আশির শেষ দিকে এবং নব্বই এর দশকে সীমিতভাবে বিভিন্ন শিল্প প্রতিষ্ঠা এবং গার্মেন্টস জাতীয় শিল্পের ব্যাপক প্রসারের ফলে রপ্তানীমুখী শিল্পের বাজার সৃষ্টি ও বৈদেশিক মুদ্রা উপার্জন বহুগুণ বৃদ্ধি পায়। বাংলাদেশের রপ্তানীমুখী শিল্পের সিংহভাগ উদ্যোক্তা ও শ্রমিক (Labour Force) যুব শ্রেণীর অন্তর্ভুক্ত। আর্থিক প্রতিষ্ঠানসমূহ যুব শিল্প উদ্যোক্তাদের মধ্যে ২০০২-২০০৩ অর্থ বছরে ২৮ বিলিয়ন টাকা ঋণ হিসাবে বিতরণ করেছে যা গার্মেন্টস সেক্টরে ২০ লক্ষ যুব শ্রমিকের কর্মসংস্থানের সুযোগ সৃষ্টি করেছে যার অধিকাংশই হলো মহিলা। ফলে ১৯৯০ সাল থেকে বাংলাদেশ আর্থিক সামাজিক ও মানব সম্পদ উন্নয়নের ক্ষেত্রে অগ্রগতি হয়েছে। বাংলাদেশের তিন বছর মেয়াদী দারিদ্র্য নিরসন কৌশলপত্রে মানব সম্পদ উন্নয়নের মাধ্যমে জীবন মান উন্নয়নের বিষয়টি অন্তর্ভুক্ত হওয়ায় মানব উন্নয়ন ও সামাজিক খাতে উন্নয়ন ও অনুন্নয়ন বাজেটে এ খাতে মোট বাজেট বরাদ্দের পরিমাণ ক্রমাগতভাবে বৃদ্ধি পাচ্ছে। বর্ণিত ৫টি অর্থ বছরে তথা ২০০১-০২ হতে ২০০৫-০৬ইং পর্যন্ত যুব ও ক্রীড়া এবং সাংস্কৃতিক মন্ত্রণালয়ের (রাজস্ব ও উন্নয়নসহ) মোট বরাদ্দ ছিল ১৬৬৭.৫৯ কোটি টাকা (বাংলাদেশ অর্থনৈতিক সমীক্ষা, ২০০৬ঃ ১২৩)। নিম্নে (সারণি-২) বাংলাদেশের বিভিন্ন মেয়াদী পরিকল্পনায় যুব উন্নয়ন খাতে বরাদ্দ দেয়া হলো:

সারণি-২: বিভিন্ন মেয়াদী পরিকল্পনাসমূহের যুব উন্নয়ন খাতে বরাদ্দ

পরিকল্পনা মেয়াদ	পরিকল্পনার আকার	যুব উন্নয়ন খাতে বরাদ্দ	শতকরা হার
প্রথম পঞ্চ-বার্ষিক পরিকল্পনা (১৯৭৩-৭৮)	৪৪৪৫.০০	--	--
দ্বি-বার্ষিক পরিকল্পনা (১৯৭৮-৮০)	৩৮৬১.০০	৯.৫০	০.২৪%
তৃতীয় পঞ্চ-বার্ষিক পরিকল্পনা (১৯৮০-৮৫)	১৭২০০.০০	২৬.০০	০.১৫%
চতুর্থ পঞ্চ-বার্ষিক পরিকল্পনা (১৯৮৫-৯০)	৩৮২০০.০০	১৭.০০	০.০৪%
পঞ্চম পঞ্চ-বার্ষিক পরিকল্পনা (১৯৯০-৯৫)	৬২০০০.০০	৮০.০০	০.১৩%
অন্তর্বর্তীকালীন সময় (১৯৯৭-২০০২)	৩৮৬১.০০	১৩৩.৭১	৩.৪৬%
ষষ্ঠ পঞ্চ-বার্ষিক পরিকল্পনা (১৯৯৭-২০০২)	১৯৬০০০.০০	৬২৮.০০	০.৩২%

উৎসঃ বিভিন্ন পরিকল্পনা ডকুমেন্টস, পরিকল্পনা কমিশন।

সারণি-২ তে দেয়া তথ্য থেকে দেখা যায় যে, বাংলাদেশের বিভিন্ন মেয়াদী পরিকল্পনাসমূহে যুব উন্নয়ন খাতের বরাদ্দ ক্রমাগতভাবে বৃদ্ধি পেলেও পরিকল্পনা আকারে তা ছিল খুবই সামান্য। পাঁচটি পঞ্চ-বার্ষিক পরিকল্পনায় যুব উন্নয়ন খাতে বরাদ্দের পরিমাণ ০.১৩% হতে ০.৩২%-এতে উন্নীত হয়। শুধুমাত্র ১৯৯৫-৯৭ অন্তর্বর্তীকালীন সময়ে উক্ত বরাদ্দের পরিমাণ বৃদ্ধি পেয়ে ৩.৪৬% এ দাঁড়ায়।

বাংলাদেশের যুব উন্নয়ন খাতে সার্বিক বাজেট বরাদ্দের পরিমাণ খুব বেশি না হওয়া সত্ত্বেও উৎপাদনশীল কর্মসংস্থানের মাধ্যমে বাংলাদেশ প্রচুর বৈদেশিক মুদ্রা আয় করছে এবং প্রতি বছর বিদেশে জনশক্তি রপ্তানীর হার বৃদ্ধি পাচ্ছে। ২০০৩-০৪ অর্থ বছরে জনসংখ্যা রপ্তানী ২ লক্ষ ৭৭ হাজার জন যা পূর্ববর্তী বছরের তুলনায় ১৩.৩৬% বেশি এবং ২০০৪-০৫ অর্থ বছরে এ সংখ্যা ২ লক্ষ ৫০ হাজার বা পূর্ববর্তী বছরের তুলনায় ৯.৭৫% কম। ১৯৭৬ সাল হতে এপ্রিল ২০০৬ ইং পর্যন্ত জনশক্তি রপ্তানী হয়েছে প্রায় ৪২ লক্ষ ৭৩ হাজার জন (বাংলাদেশ অর্থনৈতিক সমীক্ষা, ২০০৫ঃ২৩)। ফলে প্রবাসী বাংলাদেশীদের প্রেরিত অর্থ (রেমিটেন্স) প্রবাহ উত্তরোত্তর বৃদ্ধি পাচ্ছে। ২০০৪-০৫ অর্থ বছরে প্রেরিত অর্থের পরিমাণ দাঁড়ায় ৩৮৪৮.২৯ মিলিয়ন এবং কর্মজীবী জনশক্তির প্রায় দুই-তৃতীয়াংশ যুব শ্রেণীর অন্তর্ভুক্ত। ১৯৯৫-৯৬ হতে ২০০৪-০৫ইং সময়ে বাংলাদেশের যুব জনশক্তির মাধ্যমে বৈদেশিক মুদ্রা উপার্জনের তথ্য নিম্নে সারণি-৩-এ তুলে ধরা হলো:

সারণি-৩: বাংলাদেশ জনশক্তির মাধ্যমে উপার্জিত বৈদেশিক আয়

আর্থিক বছর	বিদেশে কর্মসংস্থানের সংখ্যা	প্রেরিত অর্থ (Remittance) এর পরিমাণ			
		মিলিয়ন ডলার	পরিবর্তনের হার	কোটি টাকায়	পরিবর্তনের হার
১৯৯৫-৯৬	১৮১	১২১৭.০৬	১.৬২	৪৯৭৭.৮	৩.৪০
১৯৯৬-৯৭	২২৮	১৪৭৫.৪০	২১.২৩	৬৩০৪.৩	২৬.৬৫
১৯৯৭-৯৮	২৪৩	১৫২৫.৪২	৩.৩৯	৬৯৫১.২	১০.২৬
১৯৯৮-৯৯	২৭০	১৭০৫.৭৪	১১.৮২	৮২১৩.০	১৮.১৫
১৯৯৯-০০	২৪৮	১৯৪৯.৩২	১৪.২৮	৯৮২৫.৪	১৯.৬৩
২০০০-০১	২১৩	১৮৮২.১০	-৩.৪৫	১০২৬৬.০	৪.৪৮
২০০১-০২	১৯৫	২৫০১.১৩	৩২.৮৯	১৪৩৭৭.০	৪০.০৮
২০০২-০৩	২৫১	৩০৬১.৯৭	২২.৪২	১৭৭২৮.৮	২৩.৩১
২০০৩-০৪	২৭৭	৩৩৭১.৯৭	১০.১২	১৯৮৪২.০	১১.৯২
২০০৪-০৫	২৫০	৩৮৪৮.২৯	১৪.১৩	২৩৬৯৪.০৬	১৯.৪১

উৎস: ব্যুরো অব ম্যান পাওয়ার, এমপ্লয়মেন্ট এন্ড ট্রেনিং এন্ড বাংলাদেশ ব্যাংক

যুব উন্নয়নের ক্ষেত্রে সরকারি ও বেসরকারি প্রতিষ্ঠানের ভূমিকা

- ১। উদ্যোক্তা উন্নয়ন ও বিপণন নেটওয়ার্ক স্থাপন: বাংলাদেশের মত উন্নয়নশীল দেশে অর্থনৈতিক সমৃদ্ধির ক্ষেত্রে উদ্যোক্তা উন্নয়ন ও আত্ম-কর্মসংস্থানের সুযোগ সৃষ্টির গুরুত্ব অপরিহার্য। যুব উদ্যোক্তাগণ নিজ বা সংগৃহীত পুঁজি বিনিয়োগ, সম্পদ ও উৎপাদন উপকরণের যথার্থ ব্যবহার করে কর্মসংস্থানের সুযোগ সৃষ্টির মাধ্যমে জাতীয় উৎপাদন বৃদ্ধিতে তাৎপর্যপূর্ণ অবদান রাখতে পারে। উদ্যোক্তা ও

যুব আত্ম-কর্মসংস্থান সৃষ্টির লক্ষ্যে আয়বর্ধনমূলক কর্মকাণ্ড ও দক্ষতা উন্নয়নমূলক বিষয়ে সরকারি বিভাগ/দপ্তর/সংস্থার উদ্যোগে বিষয়ভিত্তিক তাত্ত্বিক ও ব্যবহারিক প্রশিক্ষণ নিয়মিত কর্মসূচির অধীনে আয়োজন করা প্রয়োজন। এতদলক্ষ্যে এনজিও ও বেসরকারি কারিগরি প্রতিষ্ঠানসমূহের উদ্যোগেও প্রশিক্ষণ কর্মসূচি বাস্তবায়ন করা যেতে পারে। এ ক্ষেত্রে সরকারি বিভাগসমূহের বিশেষ করে যুব উন্নয়ন অধিদপ্তর, বাংলাদেশ ক্ষুদ্র ও কুটির শিল্প কর্পোরেশন (বিসিক) ও অন্যান্য সরকারি সংস্থার সমন্বিত প্রচেষ্টা অব্যাহত রাখা।

- ২। **দক্ষতা বৃদ্ধিতমূলক প্রশিক্ষণ:** যুব উন্নয়ন, দারিদ্র্য বিমোচন তথা যুব বেকারত্ব দূরীকরণের লক্ষ্যে সরকারি ও বেসরকারি সংস্থার উদ্যোগে দক্ষতা উন্নয়ন প্রশিক্ষণসহ ক্ষুদ্র ব্যবসা/আয়-বর্ধনমূলক কর্মকাণ্ডে সহজ শর্তে ঋণ প্রদানের কর্মসূচি গ্রহণের বিষয়ে গুরুত্ব প্রদান করা প্রয়োজন। এছাড়া তাদের উৎপাদিত দ্রব্যাদি যাতে ন্যায্য মূল্য পায় সে লক্ষ্যে বাজারজাতকরণের সহায়ক সহযোগিতা প্রদান নিশ্চিত করা।
- ৩। **কার্যকর সমন্বয় ও নেটওয়ার্কিং স্থাপন:** যুব উন্নয়নে নিয়োজিত সকল মন্ত্রণালয়/সংস্থা কর্তৃক পরিচালিত কর্মসূচির মধ্যে সমন্বয় সাধনের ব্যবস্থা প্রবর্তন এবং বিভিন্ন কর্মসূচির দ্বৈততা যতদূর সম্ভব কমানোর ব্যবস্থা গ্রহণ করা প্রয়োজন। যুব উন্নয়নের লক্ষ্যে বিভিন্ন সংস্থা/বিভাগ/মন্ত্রণালয় কর্তৃক বাস্তবায়িত কর্মসূচিসমূহের কেন্দ্রীয়ভাবে সমন্বয়ের (Co-ordination) ব্যবস্থা নিশ্চিতকরণ বিশেষ করে দারিদ্র্য বিমোচন ও আয়-সৃষ্টিকারী কর্মসূচির জন্য ঋণ প্রদান এবং উন্নয়ন কর্মকাণ্ড বাস্তবায়নে এনজিওদের সাথে কাজের সমন্বয় সাধন এবং পারস্পরিক অভিজ্ঞতা ও তথ্য আদান-প্রাদানের জন্য নেটওয়ার্কিং স্থাপন করা।
- ৪। **অনুসরণ ও পরিবীক্ষণ:** যুব উন্নয়নের লক্ষ্যে বিভিন্ন মন্ত্রণালয়/সংস্থার প্রশিক্ষণ শেষে যাতে প্রশিক্ষণ-লব্ধ জ্ঞান ও দক্ষতা কাজে লাগিয়ে উদ্যোক্তা হিসেবে আত্ম-প্রকাশ লাভ করতে পারে সেজন্য প্রশিক্ষণ পরবর্তী ফলো-আপ ও পরিবীক্ষণ (Monitoring) এর জন্য কেন্দ্রীয়ভাবে একটি সেল গঠনপূর্বক এর কার্যক্রম বাস্তবায়ন নিশ্চিত করা। অধিকন্তু, যুব উন্নয়নের লক্ষ্যে বিভিন্ন প্রতিষ্ঠান ও যুব সংগঠনের মধ্যে কার্যকরী সম্পর্ক/নেটওয়ার্কিং এর ব্যবস্থা গ্রহণ করা প্রয়োজন।

যুব উন্নয়নের সামগ্রিক অবস্থা এবং সমস্যাবলী

- ক) **বেকারত্ব বৃদ্ধি:** যুবদের (পুরুষ) মধ্যে বেকারত্ব বৃদ্ধি পাওয়ায় যুব শ্রেণীর অনেকে মাদক দ্রব্য সেবনসহ বিভিন্ন অপরাধমূলক কর্মকাণ্ড, চুরি/ডাকাতি, ছিনতাই/সন্ত্রাস, চাঁদাবাজি ইত্যাদি কর্মকাণ্ডে জড়িয়ে পড়েছে। মাদক দ্রব্যের ব্যবহার বৃদ্ধির ফলে যুব সমাজের শারীরিক ও মানসিক কর্মক্ষমতা হ্রাস পাওয়ায় জাতীয় উৎপাদন বৃদ্ধির উপরও তা বিরূপ প্রভাব ফেলছে।
- খ) **সমন্বয় ও নেটওয়ার্কিং এর অভাব:** যুব উন্নয়ন কাজে নিয়োজিত বিভিন্ন মন্ত্রণালয়/বিভাগ, সরকারি প্রতিষ্ঠান এবং বেসরকারি সংস্থার কর্মক্রম বাস্তবায়নের

সমস্বয়ীীনতা এবং নেটওয়ার্কিং এর অভাব রয়েছে। নিবন্ধিত যুব সংগঠনগুলোর মধ্যে কার্যক্রম গ্রহণ ও অভিজ্ঞতা বিনিময়ের জন্য কোন ফলপ্রসূ নেটওয়ার্কিং এর ব্যবস্থা নেই।

- গ) **সীমিত কর্মসংস্থান:** কর্মসংস্থানের সীমিত সুযোগ তথা বেকারত্ব যুব উন্নয়নের অন্যতম অন্তরায়। এশীয় উন্নয়ন ব্যাংকের ২০০২ সালের রিপোর্ট অনুযায়ী যুবদের শতকরা ৩৯ ভাগই বেকার বা অর্ধ-বেকার, যার মধ্যে যুব মহিলাদের সংখ্যা সর্বাধিক। কর্মযোগ্য যুব জনসংখ্যার শতকরা ২৪ ভাগ সম্পূর্ণ বেকার (তন্মধ্যে যুবকের হার ১৩ শতাংশ এবং যুব মহিলার সংখ্যা ৫৫ শতাংশ)। দেশে শ্রমিকের সংখ্যা কর্মসংস্থানের হারের চেয়ে অধিক হারে বৃদ্ধি পাওয়ায় যুব সমস্যা আরও প্রকট আকার ধারণ করছে।
- ঘ) **দক্ষতা বৃদ্ধিমূলক প্রশিক্ষণ ও ঋণের স্বল্পতা:** যুব উন্নয়নের অন্যতম সমস্যা হলো স্ব-কর্মোদ্যোগ বা আত্ম-কর্মসংস্থানের জন্য উপযুক্ত প্রশিক্ষণ ও প্রতিষ্ঠানিক উৎস হতে ঋণের অপ্রতুলতা ও ঋণ সুবিধা প্রাপ্তির ক্ষেত্রে বিদ্যমান জটিলতা। তাছাড়া যুব উন্নয়নে কর্মসূচি গ্রহণকারী প্রতিষ্ঠান/সংস্থা এবং ঋণ প্রদানকারী প্রতিষ্ঠানসমূহের মধ্যে যোগাযোগ ও সমস্বয়ের অভাব রয়েছে। ফলে প্রশিক্ষণোত্তর পৃষ্ঠপোষকতা, সহায়তা এর উপযুক্ত পরিবেশের অভাবে যুবদের বিরাট অংশ স্বকর্ম উদ্যোগ গ্রহণ করতে পারছে না।
- ঙ) **সীমিত আয়বর্ধক কর্মসূচি:** যুব উন্নয়ন অধিদপ্তরের আওতাধীন জাতীয় যুব কেন্দ্র কর্তৃক পরিচালিত বিভিন্ন গবেষণা সমীক্ষায় আত্ম-কর্মসংস্থানের ক্ষেত্রে কতিপয় সমস্যা মোকাবেলার বিষয় উপস্থাপিত হয়। প্রধান সমস্যাগুলো হলো- (ক) স্ব-কর্মোদ্যোগ অব্যাহত রাখার জন্য প্রয়োজনীয় কাঁচামাল ও উপকরণের অভাব; (খ) গবাদি পশু, হাঁস-মুরগী পালন, মৎস্য চাষের ক্ষেত্রে প্রায়ই রোগ-বালাইয়ের আক্রমণ এবং এজন্য় প্রয়োজনীয় ঔষধ ও চিকিৎসার সুযোগ-সুবিধার অভাব; (গ) লাগসই প্রযুক্তির অভাব; (ঘ) ঋণ সুবিধা ও ঋণের আর্থিক স্বল্পতা; (ঙ) সীমিত/অপর্যাপ্ত বিপণন সুবিধা (আলী ও অন্যান্য, ২০০৩, ২০০৫ এবং ২০০৬)।
- চ) **সংগঠন নিবন্ধনে জটিলতা:** বিভিন্ন বিভাগ/দপ্তরের অধীনস্থ যুব সংগঠন প্রতিষ্ঠা ও নিবন্ধনের ক্ষেত্রে বিদ্যমান জটিলতা যুব সংগঠনের মাধ্যমে যুব উন্নয়ন কর্মসূচি বাস্তবায়নের ক্ষেত্রে আর একটি অন্যতম অন্তরায়। অধিকন্তু, যুব কার্যক্রম বাস্তবায়ন তদারকি ও সাপোর্ট সার্ভিসেরও অপ্রতুলতা রয়েছে।

অর্থনৈতিক উন্নয়নে যুবশক্তির ব্যবহারের লক্ষ্যে কতিপয় সুপারিশ

বাংলাদেশে সম্পদ সীমিত হলেও যেখানে বাংলাদেশের মোট জন সম্পদের এক-তৃতীয়াংশ যুব সমাজ সেখানে যুব সম্পদকে কাজে লাগিয়ে দেশের উন্নয়ন পরিকল্পনা প্রণীত হওয়া আবশ্যিক। সমাজ বিজ্ঞানী পল্লী উন্নয়ন বিশেষজ্ঞ ডঃ আখতার হামিদ খানের মতে, “অর্থ নয়, মানুষই দেশের প্রকৃত সম্পদ। মানুষের হাত দিয়ে টাকা তৈরী হয়, তাই দেশ গঠনের জন্য

সকলের আগে চাই উপযুক্ত মানুষ” সে বিবেচনায় যুব সমাজ অফুরন্ত সম্পদের ভাণ্ডার। যুবরা একদিকে শক্তি/সম্পদের অধিকারী আবার অন্যদিকে তারা শক্তি/সম্পদের ব্যবহারকারী এবং নিজেরাই সম্পদ সৃষ্টিকারী। যেহেতু, বাংলাদেশে যুবশক্তির সর্বোত্তম ব্যবহারের মধ্যেই দেশের প্রকৃত উন্নয়ন নির্ভরশীল সেহেতু, যুব সম্প্রদায়কে দেশের অর্থনৈতিক উন্নয়নসহ সার্বিক উন্নয়নের লক্ষ্যে দক্ষ যুবশক্তিতে পরিণত করা অপরিহার্য। দেশের যুব সমাজকে দক্ষ যুবশক্তিতে রূপান্তরের লক্ষ্যে নিম্নোক্ত সুপারিশগুলো বিবেচনা করা যেতে পারে।

ক) সাধারণ সুপারিশ

- ১) বর্তমান কর্মবিমুখ এবং প্রশাসনমুখী ঔপনিবেশিক আমলের শিক্ষানীতির উত্তরসূরী গতানুগতিক আনুষ্ঠানিক/প্রাতিষ্ঠানিক শিক্ষা ব্যবস্থার সাথে চাকরি বা কর্মের যোগসূত্র খুবই কম। এ শিক্ষা ব্যবস্থার আমূল পরিবর্তন এনে কারিগরী, বৃত্তিমূলক, বাস্তবভিত্তিক কর্মমুখী শিক্ষানীতি প্রণয়ন ও বাস্তবায়নপূর্বক দক্ষ মানবসম্পদ উন্নয়নের মাধ্যমে বেকার সমস্যা হ্রাসকরণ।
- ২) বর্তমান বেকার সমস্যার সমাধানের অন্যতম উপায় হলো আত্ম-কর্মসংস্থানের সুযোগ সৃষ্টি করা, যাতে বেকার যুবকেরা স্থানীয় চাহিদা ও তাঁদের কর্মক্ষেত্রে চিহ্নিতপূর্বক নিজেকে উদ্যোক্তা হিসেবে প্রতিষ্ঠিত করাসহ আত্ম-কর্মসংস্থানে নিয়োজিত করতে পারে। এজন্য প্রয়োজন বৃত্তিমূলক/দক্ষতা বৃদ্ধি উন্নয়ন প্রশিক্ষণ প্রদান। প্রশিক্ষণোত্তর পুঁজি, উপকরণ সরবরাহ করে দক্ষ যুবশক্তিকে স্ব-কর্মে নিয়োজন নিশ্চিত করা। যে সকল পরিবারে বেকার যুব রয়েছে সে সকল পরিবার হতে কমপক্ষে একজন করে যুবকে প্রাতিষ্ঠানিক উদ্যোগে আত্ম-কর্মসংস্থানের আওতায় প্রশিক্ষণের ব্যবস্থা করা।
- ৩) যুব উন্নয়নে নিয়োজিত সংশ্লিষ্ট সরকারি/আধা-সরকারি শায়ত্বশাসিত বেসরকারি সংস্থা কর্তৃক পরিচালিত কার্যক্রমসমূহ যুব মন্ত্রণালয়ের মাধ্যম কেন্দ্রীয়ভাবে সমন্বয়ের ব্যবস্থা করা এবং দ্বৈততা পরিহার করে দ্রুত অতীষ্ট লক্ষ্য অর্জন নিশ্চিত করা।
- ৪) প্রশিক্ষিত দক্ষ যুবদের স্ব-কর্মে নিয়োজনের সুবিধার্থে সহজ শর্তে প্রয়োজন মাফিক (need-based) ঋণ সরবরাহ নিশ্চিত করা এবং মধ্য-মেয়াদী বাজেটে দক্ষ যুব শক্তির বিকাশের জন্য পর্যাপ্ত বরাদ্দ রাখা।
- ৫) কৃষি নির্ভর ক্ষুদ্র ও মাঝারী শিল্প বিকাশে বেকার যুবদের কারিগরী প্রশিক্ষণসহ ঋণ প্রদানের ব্যবস্থা করা। এসএমই ফাউন্ডেশন এবং বিসিকের সাথে সমন্বয় সাধনের প্রয়োজনীয় পদক্ষেপ গ্রহণ করা।
- ৬) যুবরা যাতে রাজনৈতিক হাতিয়ার হিসেবে ব্যবহৃত না হতে পারে সেজন্য যুব সংগঠনগুলোকে উৎপাদনমুখী কর্মকাণ্ডে অধিকতর সম্পৃক্ত করা এবং আয়বর্ধক কার্যক্রমে আর্থিক সাহায্য/অনুদান/ঋণ/প্রারম্ভিক মূলধন সহায়তা প্রদান করা।

- ৭) দক্ষ যুবশক্তি বিকাশের লক্ষ্যে জাতীয় যুবনীতিতে (২০০৩) উল্লিখিত নীতি নির্ধারণী বিষয়সমূহ দ্রুত বাস্তবায়নের পদক্ষেপ নেয়া।

খ) সুনির্দিষ্ট সুপারিশ

- ১) কারিগরী ট্রেডের প্রশিক্ষার্থীদের জন্য আবাসিক প্রশিক্ষণের ব্যবস্থা করা এবং প্রশিক্ষণ-লব্ধ জ্ঞান ও দক্ষতা ব্যবহার করছে কি না তা পর্যবেক্ষণ ও মূল্যায়ন করা।
- ২) যুগের ও দেশের চাহিদা অনুসারে নতুন নতুন ট্রেড সনাক্তকরণের গবেষণা করা এবং যুগোপযোগী সিলেবাস অন্তর্ভুক্ত করে চিহ্নিত ট্রেডগুলোকে অগ্রাধিকার দিয়ে দক্ষতা উন্নয়নমূলক প্রশিক্ষণ প্রদান অব্যাহত রাখা।
- ৩) যুব সংগঠনগুলোর পারস্পরিক সম্পর্ক স্থাপন ও কার্যকর সমন্বয় সাধনের লক্ষ্যে বিভিন্ন স্তরে নেটওয়ার্ক প্রতিষ্ঠায় সহায়তা প্রদান করা এবং উপজেলা, জেলা ও জাতীয় পর্যায়ে শক্তিশালী ও কার্যকর ফোরাম প্রতিষ্ঠা করা।
- ৪) সুযোগ-সুবিধা ও সম্মানী বৃদ্ধি করা, বিদ্যমান কারিগরী/অপ্রাতিষ্ঠানিক/ভ্রাম্যমান প্রশিক্ষণের কোর্স কারিকুলাম হালনাগাদ (Update) করা এবং প্রশিক্ষণ কোর্সগুলো ফলপ্রসূ করার লক্ষ্যে তাত্ত্বিক ও ব্যবহারিক দিক থেকে দক্ষ ও অভিজ্ঞ প্রশিক্ষক নিয়োগ করা এবং তাঁদের জন্য উন্নত প্রশিক্ষণের ব্যবস্থা করা।
- ৫) প্রশিক্ষণ শেষে যুবরা যাতে প্রশিক্ষণলব্ধ জ্ঞানকে কাজে লাগিয়ে উদ্যোক্তা হিসেবে প্রতিষ্ঠা লাভে অনুপ্রাণিত হয় সেজন্য প্রশিক্ষণোত্তর ফলো-আপ ও মনিটরিং করার লক্ষ্যে স্থানীয় ও কেন্দ্রীয় পর্যায়ে মূল্যায়ন ও মনিটরিং সেল গঠন করা।
- ৬) সে কোন পেশায় নিয়োজিত আত্ম-কর্মী যুবদের সামাজিক সম্মান ও মর্যাদা বৃদ্ধির লক্ষ্যে রাষ্ট্রীয়ভাবে তাঁদের সম্মান প্রদান এবং জনগণের গ্রহণযোগ্যতা বৃদ্ধির লক্ষ্যে সচেতনতামূলক কর্মসূচি গ্রহণ।
- ৭) আত্ম-কর্মী যুবদের উৎপাদিত পণ্য সামগ্রীর সুষ্ঠু বিপণনের জন্য সহায়ক বীমার ব্যবস্থা চালুকরণসহ বাজারজাতকরণের সুযোগ-সুবিধা নিশ্চিত করা।
- ৮) বিভিন্ন ট্রেডের প্রশিক্ষণের বিষয়বস্তু ও মেয়াদকাল যুগোপযোগী করা এবং প্রয়োগধর্মী ট্রেড/কারিগরী প্রশিক্ষণগুলো আবাসিক করা। প্রশিক্ষণ কোর্সে তাত্ত্বিক বিষয়ের পাশাপাশি ব্যবহারিক সেশনের সংখ্যা আরো বৃদ্ধি করা এবং শিক্ষানবিস কাল কোর্সের মধ্যে অন্তর্ভুক্ত করা। প্রশিক্ষিত যুব যারা কর্মে নিয়োজিত তাদের কর্মে উপযুক্ত প্রযুক্তির ব্যবহার নিশ্চিত করা এবং প্রশিক্ষিত সকল যুবকে উৎপাদনমুখী ও সফল উদ্যোক্তা শক্তিতে পরিণত করার উদ্যোগ নেয়া।
- ৯) কর্মে নিয়োজিত যুবদের আরো বাস্তব জ্ঞান অর্জনের লক্ষ্যে উচ্চতর প্রশিক্ষণ প্রদান এবং যুবদের মধ্যে অভিজ্ঞতা বিনিময়ের ব্যবস্থা প্রবর্তন করা।

- ১০) যুব উন্নয়ন অধিদপ্তর ও অন্যান্য সংস্থা কর্তৃক পরিচালিত বিভিন্ন উন্নয়ন কর্মসূচির মধ্যে সমন্বয় সাধন করা এবং গুরুত্বপূর্ণ কর্মসূচি/প্রকল্পের দক্ষ জনবলকে রাজস্ব খাতে স্থানান্তর করে কার্যক্রমের ধারাবাহিকতা অব্যাহত রাখা।

উপসংহার

একটি দেশে আর্থ-সামাজিক উন্নয়ন ত্বরান্বিত করতে হলে সে দেশের যুব সমাজকে অবশ্যই দক্ষ যুবশক্তিতে পরিণত করতে হবে। দেশের উন্নয়ন বাজেটে যুব উন্নয়ন খাতে বরাদ্দ প্রয়োজনের তুলনায় অপ্রতুল হওয়ায় যুব উন্নয়নে অতীষ্ট লক্ষ্য অর্জনের জন্য বার্ষিক উন্নয়ন কর্মসূচিতে এ খাতে বরাদ্দ বৃদ্ধি করা অসম্ভব। যুবদেরকে প্রশিক্ষণসহ ঋণ সহায়তা প্রদান করা হলে প্রশিক্ষিত যুবরা স্ব-কর্মে/আত্মকর্মে নিয়োজিত হয়ে দক্ষ যুবশক্তি হিসেবে অর্থনৈতিক উন্নয়নে অবদান রাখবে। যা যুবদের সুন্দর ভবিষ্যৎ ও উন্নত দেশ গড়ে তুলতে সহায়তা করবে।

গ্রন্থপঞ্জি

জাতীয় যুবনীতি (২০০৩), যুব ও ক্রীড়া মন্ত্রণালয়, গণপ্রজাতন্ত্রী বাংলাদেশ সরকার, ঢাকা।

জাতীয় যুব দিবস ২০০৬, ২০০৮ যুব উন্নয়ন অধিদপ্তর, ঢাকা।

বাংলাদেশ অর্থনৈতিক সমীক্ষা (২০০৫), অর্থ মন্ত্রণালয়, গণপ্রজাতন্ত্রী বাংলাদেশ সরকার, ঢাকা।

বাংলাদেশ অর্থনৈতিক সমীক্ষা (২০০৬), অর্থ মন্ত্রণালয়, গণপ্রজাতন্ত্রী বাংলাদেশ সরকার, ঢাকা।

আহমাদ, এ জে মিনহাজ উদ্দীন (২০০৬), যুব উন্নয়ন অধিদপ্তর ও বেসরকারি স্বেচ্ছাসেবী যুব সংগঠনের মধ্যে কর্মসূচিভিত্তিক নেটওয়ার্কিং এর সম্ভাবনা চিহ্নিতকরণ, পল্লী উন্নয়ন, জুলাই ২০০৬ সংখ্যা।

গুপ্ত, দেবব্রত দত্ত (১৯৭৯), যুব উন্নয়ন কর্মসূচি (১৯৭৭-৭৮), চতুর্থ বার্ষিক প্রতিবেদন (১৯৭৭-৭৮), বোর্ড, কুমিল্লা।

Ali. M. Easin et. al. (1995), Impact of Skill Development Training on Pro-active Rrual Youths for their Self-employment in CVDP Villages. Comilla, BARD.

Ali. M. Easin (2003), Impact of Youth Development Programmes on Human Development in CHT Division: An Evaluation, NYC, DYD, Savar, Dhaka.

Ali, M. Easin (2005), Utiliization Status of Financial Grants Given by the Ministry of Youth & Sports to the Youth Organizations and Identification of Possible Linkage Networking, NYC, DYD, Savar, Dhaka.

Ali, M. Easin et. al. (2006), An Assessment of the Effectiveness of the Ongoing Programmes of DYD, NYC, DYD, Savar, Dhaka.

BBS (Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics) (2004), Bangladesh Labour Force Survey 2002-2003, Dhaka.

Growth Trend and Structural Changes in Foreign Trade of Bangladesh in the Post-Independence Twentieth Century

Md. Moniruzzaman*

Abstract: Since independence Bangladesh has been facing chronic trade deficit. The main reasons for this trade imbalance are increasingly large dependence on import of capital goods and machineries, industrial raw materials, fuel, food grain and a wide variety of consumer items on import side and low volume of few traditional export items, low valued products, high concentration on traditional markets, and low level of product diversification on the export front. Though the Government started trade policy reform in mid 1980s but it gained the real momentum in 1990s when the government started initiating a series of reforms. In the earlier years of independence Bangladesh adopted import substitution strategy but in the backdrop of frustrated results and changing global economic scenario Bangladesh switched to outward oriented trade strategy. The reforms include denationalization of public enterprises, simplification of private investment procedure, tax holidays, reduction of quantitative restriction, and removal of import licensing, simplification of custom procedure, eliminating quantitative restriction on import, decreasing tariff rates, bonded warehouse, and duty drawback facilities etc. The compound growth rate of export is estimated higher than that of import during 1972-2000. It is also observed that substantial changes occurred in the structure of export and import in terms of commodity compositions and directions of trade. The paper analyses the growth trend and structural changes in Foreign Trade of Bangladesh in the post independence twentieth century from 1972 to 2000.

1.0 Introduction

Foreign trade plays very important and crucial role in economic development of a country. Economic theories suggest that it reduces the dependence of foreign aid, augments the base of industrialization, increases foreign exchange earnings, creates employment opportunities, helps in transformation of the economic structure etc. Empirical evidences support that there exist positive correlation and strong causality between foreign trade and economic growth and development of many countries.¹ Bangladesh emerged as sovereign and independent country on 16 December 1971. Since independence Bangladesh has been facing with chronic deficit in the balance of trade. The main reasons have been

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¹ B. Balassa, 'Exports and Economic Growth: Further Evidence', Journal of Development Economics, Vol. 5, 1978 and P.C.Y. Chow, 'Causality Between Export and Industrial Performance: Evidence from NICs', Journal of Development Economics, Vol. 18, 1987.

identified as increasingly large dependence on import of capital goods and machineries, industrial raw materials, fuel, food grain and a wide variety of consumer items on import side and low volume of few traditional export items, low valued products, high concentration on traditional markets, and low level of product diversification on the export front. The paper is an attempt to analyse the growth trend and structural change in Foreign Trade of Bangladesh from 1972 to 2000.

The paper is organized into five sections where section one deals with introduction, section two highlights objectives and methodology, brief literature review, section three deals with export scenario with its growth trend and structural changes, section four analyses import scenarios with its growth trend and structural changes and section five is conclusion.

2.0 Objectives

The broad objective of the study is to examine the growth trend and structural changes of foreign trade Bangladesh during 1972-2000. The specific objectives of the study are to:

- ☐ Analyse the export scenario of Bangladesh during the study period.
- ☐ Determine the trend growth rate of export and the structural changes.
- ☐ Analyse the import scenario of Bangladesh during the study period.
- ☐ Determine the trend growth rate of import and the structural changes.

3.0 Methodology

The proposed study is both explanatory and evaluative type of research in nature. It has empirically examined the trend growth rate and structural change of foreign trade of Bangladesh from 1972 to 2000. Annual Time Series Data for the period from 1972-73 to 1999-2000 for export and import of Bangladesh at aggregate level and disaggregate level has been used to estimate the trend growth rate and to show the structural changes in the composition of export and import as well as its destination. The secondary sources of data included books, journals, published and

unpublished documents, various publications of the Export Promotion Bureau (EPB), Bangladesh Bank, Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS), Ministry of Finance, World Tables of World Bank, International Financial Statistics of IMF etc. Data were processed and presented by MS-Excel and SPSS software.

4.0 Specifications of Export and Import Trend Functions

Specifications of Export and Import Trend Functions

A. The Export Trend Function:

$$\text{Log } X = \beta_0 + \beta_1 T + \varepsilon_t$$

[Log X = Exports in logarithm, T = Year, ε_t = Error Term, β_1 = Coefficient]

B. The Import Trend Function:

$$\text{Log } M = \beta_0 + \beta_1 T + \varepsilon_t$$

[Log M = Imports in logarithm, T = Year, ε_t = Error Term, β_1 = Coefficient]

The above two are log-linear models and using OLS method of linear regression we get the estimate of β_1 which are the coefficients of time variable. Once β_1 are estimated then we take anti-log of β_1 . Then 1 is subtracted from the anti-log of β_1 and the results are multiplied by 100 to get the compound growth rates of exports and imports.² The formula for Compound Growth Rate (CGR) takes the following form:

$$\text{CGR} = [\text{Anti-log of estimated } \beta_1 - 1] \times 100.$$

5.0 Review of Literature

There are very few systematic and in-depth studies so far to examine the growth trend and structural changes of foreign trade of Bangladesh. The existing literatures, related to this study, are briefly reviewed in this section.

Reza (1981)³ 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

² D. N. Gujrati, Basic Econometrics, 4th edition, (Singapore: McGraw Hill Book Co. 2004), p 180.

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

implications of export oriented strategy of development. He also suggests for export-led growth strategy instead of import substitution growth strategy as a policy option. He also emphasizes on the production of manufactured goods for the promotion of exports as well as for industrial growth.

Bhuyan (1982)⁴ 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-sector. He does not give details about the transformation and diversification of non-traditional exports.

Kabir (1988)⁵ estimates 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 of export and imports.

Mahmood (1982)⁶ 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 products. He argues that traditional exports suffer from supply inelasticity in the world market.

Talukdar (1983)⁷ 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

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", *Bangladesh Institute of Development Studies*, Vol. 16, No. 4, (Dhaka: December 1988).

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*, Dhaka, Vol.8, No.3,4, (September and December, 1983).

export earnings could be enhanced through promotion of RMG. This study places more weights only one export items. But other developing countries have been enjoying comparative advantage in RMG. So, in order to face global challenges Bangladesh should diversify export base.

Roy (1991)^৮ 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 stability.

Ahmed (2001)^৯ 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 it has significant role in improving the trade performance of Bangladesh.

Haseen (2007)^{১০} examines the policy shifts, structural change and growth performance of export and import of Bangladesh since independence. Analyzing annual export and imports figures she tries to determine the growth of export and import and to find out the change in composition of

^৮ Dilip Kumar Roy. "Determinants of Export Performance of Bangladesh". The Bangladesh Institute of Development Studies, Vol. 19, No. 4. (Dhaka: December 1991).

^৯ Nasiruddin Ahmed. Trade Liberalization in Bangladesh: An Investigation into Trend. Dhaka: The University Press Limited, 2001.

^{১০} Laila Haseen. 'Foreign Trade in Bangladesh: Policy Shifts, Structural Change and Growth Performance', Th: Jahangirnagar Economic Review, vol. 18, June 2007.

export and import. She also highlights the direction of foreign trade, openness of economy, policy regimes etc. She finds that despite different policy regimes and strategies Bangladesh foreign trade has gained chronic trade deficit and import has dominated over export.

Choudhury (2001)¹¹ estimates export demand function of total exports of Bangladesh and exports to fifteen major trading partners over the period 1972-73 to 1997-98. She shows growth, performance, structural change of export sector.

6.0 Export Scenario of Bangladesh during 1972-2000

It has been revealed from the history of foreign trade of the then Bengal that the economy was an export-oriented one since the beginning of the eighteenth century. The low price of raw Silk, Textiles and Food-grains attracted many traders of other parts of Asia and of Europe. However, the export-oriented foreign trade of Bengal did not put substantial impact on the domestic economy in terms of development of a local market or production base to meet increasing demands for export products. Due to the Industrial Revolution in England and the advancement of science and technology in other parts of the world, the products of Bengal gradually lost its international market. On the other hand the territory became dependent on import of manufactured products from abroad. This process had been continuing throughout the British period and East Pakistan. The government of Pakistan emphasized on exporting raw materials, primary and agricultural products while pursuing Import Substitution Strategy (ISS). But proper attention was not put in place to develop domestic manufacturing base and to increase domestic demand.

After independence Bangladesh continued the ISS policy. As a war devastated newly born country Bangladesh experienced very low exports for the first couple of years of its independence. The annual export growth rates were volatile with negative rate in some year upto 1986-87. Since then Bangladesh continued to achieve substantially high and positive growth rates in exports with few exceptions. The export earnings, growth rates and its share in GDP have been shown in table-1:

¹¹ Riffat Zaman Choudhury, 'Export Demand Function of Bangladesh: An Econometric Exercise', *The Bangladesh Development Studies*, vol. xxvii, 2001, pp 67-88.

Table-1: Exports of Bangladesh during 1972-73 to 1999-2000

Year	Exports (in M.US\$)	Growth Rate (%)	Exports as % of GDP	Remarks
1972-1973	369.7	4.37	4.0	First Decade of Independence (1972-1973 to 1981-1982). Bangladesh could not reach even at US\$ 1billion level of Exports.
1973-1974	369.7	4.37	4.0	
1974-1975	344.0	-6.95	2.4	
1975-1976	371.9	8.12	5.0	
1976-1977	404.6	8.74	5.7	
1977-1978	489.8	21.04	5.0	
1978-1979	609.7	24.69	5.3	
1979-1980	722.3	18.47	5.5	
1980-1981	711.0	-1.56	5.0	
1981-1982	626.0	-11.94	4.8	
1982-1983	686.0	9.58	5.6	Second Decade of Independence (1982-1983 to 1991- 1992). Bangladesh reached at US\$ 1billion level of Exports and it grew at closer to US\$ 2 billion.
1983-1984	811.0	18.21	5.7	
1984-1985	934.0	15.24	5.9	
1985-1986	819.0	-12.37	5.2	
1986-1987	1074.0	31.14	6.1	
1987-1988	1231.0	14.61	6.4	
1988-1989	1286.0	4.47	6.3	
1989-1990	1524.0	18.50	6.9	
1990-1991	1718.0	12.79	7.3	
1991-1992	1993.0	15.94	8.4	
1992-1993	2383.0	19.56	9.9	8 Years of Third Decade of Independence (1992- 1993 to 1991-1992). Bangladesh reached at closer to US\$ 6 billion level of Exports.
1993-1994	2600.0	9.10	9.9	
1994-1995	3473.0	33.54	11.8	
1995-1996	3884.0	11.83	12.2	
1996-1997	4427.0	13.83	13.5	
1997-1998	5172.0	16.82	15.2	
1998-1999	5324.0	2.94	14.7	
1999-2000	5762.0	8.22	15.2	

Source: Export From Bangladesh 1972-73 to 1999-2000, Export Promotion Bureau.

From table: 1, it appears that Bangladesh failed to achieve even US\$ 1 billion level of export during the first decade of independence with highest export earnings at US\$ 722.30 in 1979-1980. We can observe the phenomenal growth rates achieved in this decade were 21.04% in 1977-1978, 24.69% in 1978-1979 and 18.47 in 1979-1980. The export earnings decreased to US\$ 711.0 and US\$ 626.0 for the next two fiscals with negative growth rates at (-)1.56% and (-)11.94% in 1980-1981 and 1981-1982 respectively.

During second decade of independence Bangladesh achieved highest export earnings at US\$ 1993.0 million with registering 15.94 growth rate in 1991-1992. In this decade the only negative growth rate (-12.37%) was happened in 1985-1986. But this set back was overshadowed by

immediate overwhelming success in achieving 31.14% increase of export in the next fiscal 1986-1987. The remaining part of twentieth century and the eight years of third decade of independence Bangladesh experienced tremendous success in export earnings which is marked by US\$ 5762.0 million in 1999-2000 with 8.22% growth rate. The highest ever growth rate was recorded as 33.54% in 1994-1995 during the post-independence Bangladesh in the twentieth century. Bangladesh achieved commendable performance in export growth because of the overwhelming growth of RMG and knitwear exports over 1981-2000. The annual average growth rate of this sub sector was 37% over 1981-2000 and 29% for the period 1990-2000.¹²

6.1 Compound Growth Rates of Exports

The compound growth rates of exports are estimated for the entire study period from 1972-1973 to 1999-2000 along with the same for first decade (1972-1973 to 1981-1982), second decade (1982-1983 to 1991-1992) and the remaining eight years of twentieth century of our independence. The results are shown below:

Table-2: Compound Growth Rates for Exports

Period	Estimated Trend Equation	CGR (%)
1972-1973 to 1981-1982	$\log X = 2.48 + .039T$	9.40
1982-1983 to 1991-1992	$\log X = 2.29 + .049T$	11.94
1992-1993 to 1999-2000	$\log X = 2.18 + .058T$	14.29
1972-1973 to 1999-2000	$\log X = 2.40 + .047T$	11.43

Source: Author's own calculation.

In the above table it is observed that the compound growth rate of exports in the first decade of independence i.e. 1972-1973 to 1981-1982 is 9.40% while the same is 11.94% in the second decade i.e. 1982-1983 to 1991-1992 and 14.29% in the next eight years of third decade i.e. 1992-1993 to 1999-2000. It indicates that the growth rates of exports are higher in the subsequent decades meaning that our export trade is on increasing trend. The overall compound growth rate for 1972-1993 to 1999-2000 is estimated as 11.43%.

¹² Ibid, p.69

6.2 Structural Changes of Exports

In this section we shall show the structural changes taken place in the exports of Bangladesh during 1972-1973 to 1999-2000. The changes are characterized mainly by the changes in commodity compositions and direction of export destinations. Table 2 shows the commodity composition of exports while the destination of exports is depicted in table-3.

Export literatures and studies show that jute and raw jute were traditionally the main export items after independence. In 1973-1974 jute and raw jute contributed to about 90% of total exports while the remaining 10% was contributed by mainly leather, tea and chemical products. Gradually the share of jute and raw jute decreased due to less demand in world market. Its shares in total exports became 70% in 1977-1978, 73.9 in 1979-1980, 57.8% in 1984-1985, 29.7% in 1989-1990, 11.5% in 1994-1995, 7.06% in 1998-1999 and 5.87% in 1999-2000. Traditional export items contributed to 97.04% in 1973-1974, 88.4% in 1977-1978, 87.8% in 1979-1980, 71.8% in 1984-1985, 44.0% in 1989-90. So it is evident that the shares of traditional exports are falling. It becomes only 12.14% in 1994-1995, 7.76% in 1998-1999 and 6.12% in 1999-2000.

On the other hand the shares of non-traditional exports increased substantially over the years. In 1973-1974 the share was recorded as 2.96% which increased to 11.6% in 1977-1978, 12.2% in 1979-80, 28.2 in 1984-1985. Basically the growth of non-traditional exports could be explained by the Ready Made Garments (RMG) and Knitwear as new export items. The contribution of non-traditional exports boosted fast in subsequent years which were 56% in 1989-1990, 87.83% in 1994-1995, 92.24% in 1998-1999, and 93.88% in 1999-2000. The share of RMG was 0.1% in 1979-1080 which increased to 12.4% in 1984-1985. The total share of RMG and Knitwear together was recorded as 40.90% in 1989-1990 which rose to 64.1% in 1994-1995, 75.67% in 1998-1999 and in 1999-2000.

Table-3: Percentage Shares of Exports of Major Items

Year	(in %)				
	Jute and Jute Goods	Tea	Leather and Leather Goods	Frozen food	RMG
1972-1973	90.7	2.7	4.6	1.3	-
1981-1982	66.2	6.3	10.6	8.8	1.2
1991-1992	21.6	1.8	8.3	7.3	59.3
1999-2000	6.3	0.3	3.7	6.4	81.5

Source: Export From Bangladesh 1972-73 to 1999-2000, Export Promotion Bureau.

If we classify the export items as primary commodities and manufactured commodities, we observe that the share of primary commodities gradually decreased and the same for manufactured commodities increased over the years. The share of primary commodities was recorded as 41.41% in 1973-1974 which was decreased in the subsequent years as 34.45% in 1977-1978, 30.75% in 1979-1980, 33.88% in 1984-1985, 21.20% in 1989-1990, 13.02% in 1994-1995, 7.95% in 1998-1999 and 8.16% in 1999-2000. On the other hand the share of manufactured items of total exports was recorded as 58.54% in 1973-1974 which was subsequently recorded as 65.55% in 1977-1978, 69.25% in 1979-1980, 66.12% in 1984-1985, 87.80% in 1989-1990, 86.98% in 1994-1995, 92.05% in 1998-1999 and 91.84% in 1999-2000. The structural change in the composition of exports is a major breakthrough in our export sector over the period 1981-2000. The share of RMG and Knitwear in total exports increased from less than 1% in 1981 to about 40% in 1990 and 76% in 2000. The share of traditional export declined from 74% in 1981 to 33% in 1990 and only 6% in 2000. The share of manufacturing exports in total exports increased from 57% in 1972-1973 to 66% in 1977-1978, 77% in 1987-1988, 88% in 1995-1996 and 90% in 1997-1998.¹³

6.3 Direction of Exports of Bangladesh

Traditionally the USA is main destination of our exports followed by European countries, Canada, Australia, Japan and other Asian countries. The share of total exports directed to the USA was 16.15% in 1973-1974, 13.70% in 1983-1984, 28.99% in 1993-94, 37.38% in 1997-1998, and 39.52% in 1999-2000. The UK imported 6.75% of our total exports in 1973-1974, 5.25% in 1983-1984, 10.23% in 1993-94, 8.35% in 1997-

¹³ Ibid, pp. 70-71.

1998, and 8.69% in 1999-2000. Germany imported 1.90% in 1973-1974, 1.65% in 1983-1984, 10.86% in 1993-94, 9.90% in 1997-1998, and 11.45% in 1999-2000. We exported to Italy 2.97% of our total exports in 1973-1974, 8.52% in 1983-1984, 6.73% in 1993-94, 5.24% in 1997-1998, India is also seen as one of the major destinations of our exports. We exported 4.38% of our total exports to India in 1973-1974, 2.61% in 1983-1984, 0.66% in 1993-94, 1.27% in 1997-1998, 1.12% in 1999-2000. If we look at the direction of Exports by major regions we observe that the American region and EU countries are the major sources of our export destination followed by Asian, Middle East and African regions. Regional distribution of our exports is shown in table-4:

Table-4: Distribution of Exports by Regions

Region	Share of Exports by Year (in percentage)				
	1972-1973	1982-1983	1994-1995	1997-1998	1999-2000
American	27.30	13.00	36.72	40.00	41.80
EU Countries	26.40	18.60	40.14	43.47	44.50
Asian	07.50	27.70	13.43	08.95	07.50
Middle East	03.70	13.10	03.17	02.78	02.20
African	12.60	13.10	02.39	1.02	00.70
Others	22.50	14.50	04.15	03.78	03.30

Source: Export From Bangladesh 1972-73 to 1999-2000, Export Promotion Bureau.

It is evident from the table that EU countries and American region are the two major destinations of our exports which reflect the higher degree of market concentration and this type of dependency is always vulnerable and may pose external shocks.

7.0 Import Scenario of Bangladesh during 1972-2000

The annual import figures from 1972-1973 to 1999-2000 are shown in the following table. In the first decade of our independence the highest import was US\$ 2572 million in 1981-1982. In the second decade the same was recorded highest as US\$ 3759million in 1989-1990. The import rose to US\$ 8403million in 1999-2000. The annual growth rates of import were found more volatile in the first decade of independence as it - 31.37% in 1976-1977 and 54.17% in 1977-1978. During the second decade of independence the import growth rates were moderate and fairly stable which was recorded highest as 13.46% in 1987-1988 and lowest as -0.20% in 1991-1992. Since 1992-1993 there was no negative growth of import. Import was in on increasing trend and the growth was 37.27% in

1994-1995 and 3.09% in 1996-1997. The shares of imports in GDP were in between 8.7% and 22.2 % during 1972-1973 to 1999-2000¹⁴. Since 1995-1996 the share of imports in GDP remained more than 16%. The more share of import in GDP compared to export share indicates more trade deficit.

Table-5: Imports of Bangladesh during 1972-73 to 1999-2000

Year	Imports (in M. US\$)	Growth Rate (%)	Imports as % of GDP	Remarks
1972-1973	780	-	8.7	First Decade of Independence (1972-1973 to 1981-1982). Bangladesh Import reached at US\$ 2.5 billion level.
1973-1974	925	18.58	10.0	
1974-1975	1403	51.67	9.8	
1975-1976	1275	-9.12	17.1	
1976-1977	875	-31.37	12.3	
1977-1978	1349	54.17	13.8	
1978-1979	1556	15.34	13.6	
1979-1980	2372	52.44	18.3	
1980-1981	2533	6.78	17.7	
1981-1982	2572	1.54	19.8	
1982-1983	2309	-10.22	18.6	Second Decade of Independence (1982-1983 to 1991-1992). Bangladesh reached at US\$ 3.4 billion level of imports.
1983-1984	2353	01.90	16.4	
1984-1985	2647	12.49	16.9	
1985-1986	2364	-10.69	15.1	
1986-1987	2620	10.82	14.9	
1987-1988	2986	13.46	15.6	
1988-1989	3375	13.02	16.5	
1989-1990	3759	11.33	16.8	
1990-1991	3470	-7.68	14.8	
1991-1992	3463	-0.20	14.6	
1992-1993	3986	15.10	16.6	8 Years of Third Decade of Independence (1992-1993 to 1991-1992). Bangladesh reached at closer to US\$ 8.4 billion imports.
1993-1994	4250	6.62	16.2	
1994-1995	5834	37.27	19.9	
1995-1996	6947	19.08	21.8	
1996-1997	7162	3.09	21.8	
1997-1998	7524	5.05	22.0	
1998-1999	8018	6.56	22.1	
1999-2000	8430	4.80	22.2	

Source: Economic Trends, Bangladesh Bank, Foreign Trade Statistics, BBS, various issues.

7.1 Compound Growth Rates of Imports

The compound growth rates of imports are estimated for the entire study period from 1972-1973 to 1999-2000 along with the same for first decade (1972-1973 to 1981-1982), second decade (1982-1983 to 1991-1992) and the remaining eight years of twentieth century of our independence. The results are shown below:

¹⁴ Nabi Maruf Ashraf, Growth and Diversification of Foreign Trade: Impact on the Performance of External Sector of Bangladesh, unpublished PhD thesis submitted to Institute of Bangladesh Studies, (University of Rajshahi, October 2006).

Table-6: Compound Growth Rates(CGR) for Imports

Period	Estimated Trend Equation	CGR (%)
1972-1973 to 1981-1982	$\log M = 2.85 + .056T$	13.76
1982-1983 to 1991-1992	$\log M = 2.95 + .025T$	5.93
1992-1993 to 1999-2000	$\log M = 2.95 + .048T$	11.69
1972-1973 to 1999-2000	$\log M = 2.95 + .035T$	8.39

Source: Author's own calculation.

In the above table it is observed that the compound growth rate of imports in the first decade of independence i.e. 1972-1973 to 1981-1982 is 13.76% while the same is 5.93% in the second decade i.e. 1982-1983 to 1991-1992 and 11.69% in the next eight years of third decade i.e. 1992-1993 to 1999-2000. It indicates that the growth rates of imports are fluctuating and it becomes lower than the first decade meaning that our domestic production is on increasing trend. The overall compound growth rate of imports for the period 1972-1993 to 1999-2000 is estimated as 8.39% whereas the compound growth rate of export for the same period is found as 11.43%. It indicates that our export sector has performed well compared to that of import sector during 1972-1993 to 1999-2000.

7.2 Structural Changes of Imports

In this section we shall show the structural changes taken place in the import of Bangladesh during 1972-1973 to 1999-2000. The changes are characterized mainly by the changes in commodity compositions of imports and sources of imports. Table- 3 shows the commodity composition of imports while the sources of import are depicted in table-4.

Table-7: Percentage Shares of Imports by Economic Classifications

Years	Consumer Goods	Materials for Consumer Goods	Capital Goods	Materials for Capital Goods
1973-1974	57.3	18.4	18.1	6.2
1978-1979	18.8	42.0	18.4	20.8
1983-1984	28.8	36.6	26.6	10.0
1988-1989	34.5	33.0	11.8	20.7
1993-1994	41.48	28.89	12.0	17.63
1998-1999	39.1	29.2	13.30	18.4
1999-2000	40.0	28.2	11.9	19.9

Source: Economic Trends, Bangladesh Bank, Bangladesh Economic Review, various issues.

It is evident from the above table that consumer goods and the raw materials for consumer goods dominated as principal import item. The share of capital goods and raw materials for capital goods in total imports was 24.2% in 1973-1974, 39.2% in 1978-1979, 32.5% in 1988-1989 and 31.8% in 1999-2000. On the other hand the share of consumer goods and raw materials for consumer goods declined gradually as it was 75.7% in 1973-1974, 60.8% in 1978-1979, 68.3% in 1988-1989 and 68.2% in 1999-2000.

The relative share of principal import commodities is shown in table-8. At the earlier years of independence food grain was our main import items but gradually its share in total imports decreases over the years as domestic production substantially increased.

The import of cotton and textiles increases over the years because of higher domestic demand in local RMG and Knitwear manufacturing. The import of capital goods and materials for capital goods remained a large portion of our total import indicating positive sign of domestic industrialization and expansion of manufacturing base.

Table-8: Relative Share of Principal Imported Commodities.

Year	Food Grain	Crude Petroleum and Petroleum Products	Cotton and Textiles	Fertilizer	(in %)
					Capital Goods and Materials
1973-1974	36.0	9.8	7.1	2.6	17.0
1978-1979	12.7	12.2	6.1	8.6	26.7
1983-1984	15.3	15.1	6.4	3.2	28.4
1988-1989	11.12	8.33	7.36	3.19	32.29
1993-1994	4.05	8.37	18.13	3.5	33.34
1998-1999	8.89	4.85	16.76	1.5	24.59
1999-2000	4.53	7.59	17.02	0.95	25.38

Source: Sultan Hafeez Rahman¹⁵, Economic Trends, Bangladesh Bank, various issues.

¹⁵ Sultan Hafeez Rahman, 'The External Economy of Bangladesh: Trends, Structure and the Terms of Trade, BIDS Research Report No. 120, (Dhaka, BIDS, 1990), p. 27.

Table-9 : Sources of Imports by Regions

(in %)

Region	Share of Imports by Year (in percentage)				
	1973-1974	1985-1986	1994-1995	1997-1998	1999-2000
American	31.71	12.40	6.48	6.23	12.44
EEC Countries	19.45	11.96	7.57	10.22	8.90
East Europe	15.45	3.50	0.87	1.73	2.63
Asian	19.70	50.88	63.20	64.68	60.96
Middle East	2.88	14.98	03.17	5.59	7.69
African	1.20	0.76	0.37	0.75	1.00
Oceania	7.21	1.57	14.92	5.60	3.61
Others	2.4	3.95	3.42	5.2	2.77

Source: Economic Trend of Bangladesh Bank, Bangladesh Economic Review(various issues)

Form the above table it is clear that Asian countries become major source of our imports. This is because of bulk import from India and China due to the geographical proximity. In 1973-1974 American regions was our main source of imports followed by Asian, EEC and East European countries. Asian countries become the source of 50 per cent imports in 1985-1986. In 1999-2000 the share of import of Asian countries was recorded as 60.96%.

8.0 Conclusion

Though Bangladesh has been suffering chronic trade deficit since independence but there are a number of remarkable achievement in improving trade-gdp ratio, export diversification in terms of items and markets, increase imports of capital goods and raw materials for capital goods. The significant increase in trade-gap ratio of Bangladesh reflects greater degree of openness of the economy to the external world. The structure of export has changed significantly, shifting from primary goods to manufacturing goods and from traditional to non-traditional items. The structure of imports also changed significantly in terms of commodity and sources. The government initiated extensive trade reform programs to increase of export of newly developed non-traditional and higher value added products. The major elements of the policy reforms included liberalization of imports and simplification of import procedures, rationalization of tariff structure, reduction in tariff rates and quantitative restrictions, pursuit of a flexible exchange rate policy, allowing IMF-

consistent counter trade, and provision of specific and transparent export promotion measures. The Five Year Export Policy and Five Year Import Policy Order were adopted by the government during the Fifth Five-Year Plan period (1997-2002) to improve the foreign trade sector of Bangladesh with emphasis on product diversification and quality improvements, backward linkages, foreign investment etc on export side and import of raw materials, capital machinery on the import side.

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'Business Tourism' and 'Tourism Business' A Study on Bangladesh-Italy Tourism Prospects

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Amena Khatun²

A. K. M Shameem Akhter³

***Abstract:** Business and tourism trend throughout the world, as well as in Bangladesh, not only enhances the possibilities of national financial stature; but also depicts the prospect of intellectual and cultural exchange, technology transfer, overseas employment, export promotion of human resources and many others. Although tourism in developed countries has started emerging as a thrust revenue sector entailing national economic development agenda in the late fifties in compliance to new economic order approach; this is quite new for most developing countries in South Asia. In Bangladesh, tourism seems to have started gaining momentum since the late eighties only. Comparative study findings suggest that business and tourism have become the timeliest global economic adaptation. Embedding of business and tourism appear to become a universal global trend too. In both Italy and Bangladesh, business expansion prospects lie in the sectors like- jute and jute goods, apparel, pharmaceuticals, glass and glass products, information technology and telecommunications, computers and office equipment, and a plethora of accessories. The prospect discussed in this paper calls for proper coordination between country's commerce and finance ministry for simplifying institutional procedures and systems to anticipate and respond to the expanding global economy; along with, attempts to assess the extent of Bangladesh's prospect in formation of effective economic tourism alliance with Italy.*

Introduction: Global Perspectives of Business-Tourism Intersection

In this era of globalization, the 'global village' metaphor captures the essence of bridging the gaps between global citizens; narrowing down of physical and attitudinal distances between them; as well as expansion in human interaction through spatial mobility, transmigration, overseas fortune-hunting and sharing of livelihood stakes (MacCannell 1999, Weaver 2006, Jenkins 1994). By and large, this has become expedited along people's sharing of stakes through expansion of tourism network and people's continued strive for innovative business ventures (Hart 2007, Hawken, et. al., 1999, Harris et al., 2002).

Two essential elements of business and tourism have emerged throughout

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the above process. These are 'business tourism' and 'tourism business' (Brewer 1978, Beech & Chadwick 2006, Bond & Ladman. 1972, 1974). Multi-lateralism and bilateralism thus far have been becoming a mutually inclusive consequence of global tourism economic adaptation. At the same time, it is playing an active role in bridging the gap between the North and the South-the developed and developing countries striving towards economic prowess (Böröcz 1992, Bosselman et al., 1999, Chambers 2000).

The first and foremost concern for the developing countries of the South, hence, is to identify the most suitable countries befitting for their 'business tourism' and 'tourism business' ventures. In 2004, Italy has been identified as the most perfect place for the Third World Countries' tourism-based economic partnering (Hansen 2004). In this backdrop, this analytical paper attempts to examine the extent of Bangladesh's prospect in formation of effective tourism economic alliance with Italy.

Rationale, Objective and Methodology of the Paper

The rationale of this paper is to dig deep into underlying prospects of mutually benefiting business and tourism ventures between Italy and Bangladesh. The objective, in this respect, is to aid policy planners and stakeholders in 'business tourism' and 'tourism business' to concretely understand cross-country facts. The methods and techniques of this study is constituted of extensive and intensive document review and content analysis towards recording a plethora of prospects in economic tourism between the countries. It is hypothesized that Italy could constitute one of the most prospective business and tourism frontiers for Bangladesh. As well, Bangladesh could provide a unique space to Italy for its business and tourism expansion. A glimpse of the global business and tourism scenario is worth presenting at the very outset of this discussion.

⁴ Business tourism means anyone traveling in a business or official capacity for purposes related to their work/profession or in some cases other official capacity. 'Business' implies a continuation of the respondent's normal/ main occupation during the visit. The respondent do not become part of the labor force of the region during tours. It cannot be considered business tour when tourists enjoy working holiday unless business, whenever work is not the main reason for visit, whenever weekly or fortnightly commuters returning to or from their main occupation, whenever people are identified as military/ embassy personnel/ merchant navy/ aircrews; wherever people visit overseas for voluntary work; and wherever temporarily stay with a religious community but not a priest.

Global Business and Tourism Situation: A Brief Reflection

As presented in the global business tourism almanac (2004), world business tourism has marked a three-fold rise by the year 2000 in compared to that in 1980 (Harris et al., 2002, Goeldner & Ritchie 2003, Hart 2007). Recent studies present that the United States (US) alone doubled outsourcing its industries and multinational corporations to developing countries in every yearly basis during 1990-2000 (Cooper 1993, Cross 1993, Mohiuddin 2006). Eighty percent of such outsourcing is made to the developing countries like Bangladesh, India, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Indonesia, Malaysia, and Philippines, Heiti and other Caribbean states. Although European countries remained much lagged behind in outsourcing compared to that of the US, they also seem to have grown greater interest of similar ventures in recent days (Bakalis 1994, Bandy 1996). This is because conventional top-down and bureaucratic trade diplomacy tends to be replaced by more people-centered entrepreneur-level bilateral arrangements towards creating congenial business environment (Bennett 1994).

Bangladesh instance is worth depicting in this context. Immediately before inception of the gradual phasing out of multi-fibre agreement since 2000, the Bangladesh garment sector drew huge positive attention of the overseas buyers of the US and Europe (Absar 2001, 2001a). This is not only because of the advantages of cheap labour, but also for Bangladesh's efficiency in quality control; favorable water, weather and climate for fabric processing to preservation (Bhattachariya 1994, 1996, 1999; Bhattachariya & Rahman 2001), and serving the global clothing market with the commitment to remain uncompromising about best quality product supply (Quddus and Rashid 2002, Mohiuddin 2004).

Now comes the point of tourism. In reality, business and tourism constitutes two sides of a coin. For instance, the garment sector in Bangladesh resulted in establishment of about one-thousand buying houses of different sizes and magnitude; visits of about half million foreigners for business, research, consultancy, internship, training and journalism every year; construction of a large number of international quality hotels, inns, hostels, dormitories, restaurants, parks, commuter transportation, aviation, cruise services and tourist sites; sprouting of thousands of tours and travel farms, rise of eco-sensitivity and notions of eco-tourism etc (Mohiuddin 2004). All these instances indeed represent that tourism and business retain the potentials of bringing out various

layers of backward and forward linkages of development.

These processes give rise to humane and human development discourses too. Despite some academic-arena criticism of women's wage-exploitation in the garment sector-there is a growing acknowledgement of the fact that Bangladesh has become the best role model in women's empowerment in South and South-east Asia in part due to embedding with business principles influence, urge, insistence, campaign and lobbying of the overseas buyers and human rights activists the agenda of elimination of child labour from factories, and conditions of ensuring just environment for workers (Zaman 1995, 2000, Zohir 1998, 2000; Zohir & Paul-Majumder 1996).

It is worth noting that the fastest emerging and the second biggest foreign revenue-earning sector in Bangladesh-the pharmaceutical sector-is also thought to invoke a further boost in tourism and business (VanDuzer 2006).

Business and tourism trend throughout the world, as well as in Bangladesh, not only enhances the possibilities of national financial stature; but also depicts the prospect of intellectual and cultural exchange, technology transfer, overseas employment, export promotion of human resources, life-skill and capacity building of people, strengthening of higher study opportunities for promising students, formation of overseas research networks, outreach expansion of humanist projects, sharing of aesthetics, literature, arts and craftsmanship; attainment of globality in culinary and costume adaptation, and above all growing interaction between people of diverse cultural backgrounds (Angell 1967, Anzola-Betancourt 1974, Archer & Sadler 1976, Armstrong 1972).

Although tourism in developed countries has started emerging as a thrust revenue sector entailing national economic development agenda in the late fifties in compliance to new economic order approach; this is quite new for most developing countries in South Asia. In Bangladesh, tourism seems to have started gaining currency since the late eighties only. Beforehand, tourism had been being considered through the lenses of amateurism, not with professionalism. It scantily created an image of viable occupation option for youth-as well as in the mindset of national policy planners. New university graduates hardly chose tourism as career option. A study⁵ of the first author conducted in late Nineties revealed that

only 0.5% Chittagong University fresh graduates (1 in 200 respondents) preferred hospitality management as their career option. At that time, tourism was commonly perceived as an exclusive and fancy venture of the well-off people, and treated as synonym of pleasure trip, leisure and relaxation, and nomadic obsession of a few finger-countable travelers by instinct.

However, a recent-most follow-up of that study⁶ conducted in this year reveals a considerable reversal in occupational preference of fresh graduates. By now, 20.5% (41 in 200) fresh graduates prefer tourism and related activities⁷ as occupation. It constitutes the second top-most preference of the top-ten⁸ preferences. Most interestingly, "business"-the other discussion topic of this paper tops the ladder. Business as occupation is the preference of 20% fresh graduates by now. However, in 1989, only 5% students preferred business as their desired occupation, and it stood as the seventh of the top-ten choices at that time.

These comparative study findings suggest that business and tourism have become the timeliest global economic adaptation. Embedding of business and tourism appear to become a universal global trend too. Once hospitality and care provisions have been being considered as service delivery options. By now, they are considered as institutions. Once they were based on the principle of 'guaranteed customer satisfaction'. Now they embody the principles of skill, efficiency, delicacy and sophistication. This is evident in opening of tourism and hospitality management higher degree courses in most leading universities throughout the world. About twenty new tourism discourses (for inst. a few of them are ecotourism, business tourism, sport tourism, culinary tourism, accessible tourism etc.) are already developed and much more are being emerged in recent time university curricula. In respect to business, mushrooming of independent business schools in universities and ten-fold rise of business graduates⁹ in only a decade (1995-2005)

⁵ The study titled "Job Preference of the Chittagong University Graduates in Arts and Social Sciences" was conducted in 1999.

⁶ The research report is under preparation.

⁷ Hospitality and caring management, chef, airhostess, travel agency jobs, package tour management etc.

⁸ Top ten preferences are business (22%), tourism (20.5%), government jobs (19.5%), NGO and development related jobs (12%), teaching (7%), journalism and media occupation (5.5%), politics (3%), film and drama (2.5%), legal practice (1.5%) and expatriation (1%). "Other" occupations constitute the rest 1.5% job preference."

Business Graduate Chronicle, Vol 3, N. 3, p.2. Chicago.

throughout the world prove the reality of interdependence of business and tourism. This statistics also refers that business and tourism inclination is growing fast even among the people of non-business disciplines (Saliba 2004).

Tourism and Business: Italian and Bangladesh Experience

A rough global tourism prevalence estimate of the Sommersett Foundation, US is that during the period 2002-2004, Italian residents made about 2.3 million overseas business tours per year. Their staying for business during tours accounted about 6.7 million bednights per year. They spent an annual average of about £7.8 million every year. In 2002, overnight business tourism income in Italy totaled about £150 million. About half million people made their business tour to Italy. Their staying solely for business purposes amounts about 2.1 million bed-nights. Besides business tourism, it was projected through global average trend that all other forms of tourism revenue earned and spending incurred would be at least three times more from this estimate.

While tourists from the USA constitute the largest portion of visitors in Italy, Germany and the Netherlands are other tourist bases for Italy. Among South Asian countries, Indian tourists outnumber any other countries. Tourism from Bangladesh to Italy is minimal. Although some business tourism of Bangladeshis in Italy takes place every year, eco-tourism and tourism for leisure and recreation, and filmmaking takes place with insignificant frequency.

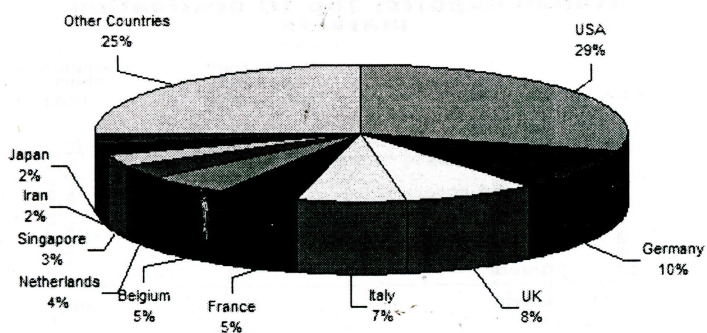
However, business thrusts it Italy and Bangladesh are circled around common stakes. In both Italy and Bangladesh, business expansion prospects lie in the sectors like jute and jute goods, apparel, pharmaceuticals, glass and glass products, information technology and telecommunications, computers and office equipment, radio, TV and telecommunications equipment, software and IT consulting, data processing and hardware maintenance, jewellery and goldsmith, leather - bags and luggage - leather goods, machinery and mechanical appliances such as automatic packaging machinery, bearings and gears, cooling and ventilation equipment (non-domestic use), electric household appliances (and non-electrical appliances for domestic use), equipment for animal rearing, fishing and fish farming, food, drink and tobacco processing

⁹ Business Graduate Chronicle, Vol 3, N. 3, p.2. Chicago.

machinery, means of transport (cars, industrial vehicles, aircraft, ships), metallurgy and metalworking, musical instruments, oil and mineral extracting and salt production, other materials - cement - plaster - marble - stone, paper and paper products and cardboard, printing, rubber and plastics, sporting and hunting goods, sundry items (brooms and brushes, costume jewellery, equipment for amusement parks, linoleum and floor coverings, material for thermoacoustical insulation, prams and pushchairs, stationery and gift items, umbrellas - buttons - zip fasteners etc.), toys and games (incl. video games), water - collecting, purification and distribution, wood and wood products (excl. furniture) - parquet flooring etc. For Bangladesh, importing and exporting chains of these sectors require enrichment and expansion of indenting business and international freight forwarding communication.

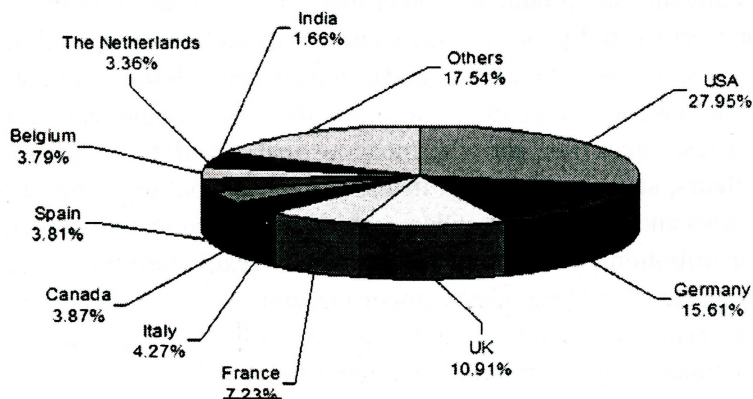
Figure 1

Major Importing Countries of Bangladesh Exportables During 1990-1991



Source: Bangladesh Export Promotion Bureau (EPB)

Bangladesh exported to Italy 7% of its exportable goods (Figure 1) in 1990-91. However, the volume decreased to 4.27% in 2004-05 (Figure 2). Although Bangladesh's export to European region is the largest (53.40%) in compared to that in the American region (32.29%), the volume decrease in export earning to Italy requires an immediate reversal.

Figure 2**Major Importing Countries of Bangladesh Exportables During 2004-2005**

Source: Bangladesh Export Promotion Bureau (EPB)

Figure 3**Italian exports: Top 10 destination markets**

Rank	Countries	Percentage changes 2003-2004	Percentage shares 2004
1	Germany	2,6	13,6
2	France	4,8	12,3
3	United States	1,8	8,0
4	Spain	7,1	7,2
5	United Kingdom	3,8	6,9
6	Switzerland	17,9	4,2
7	Belgium	-2,8	2,5
8	Austria	9,1	2,4
9	Netherlands	3,2	2,3
10	Greece	7,0	2,2
World		6,1	100,0

Source: ICE calculations on ISTAT data

In case of Italy until 2004, major exports remained confined into ten developed countries (Figure 3). South and Central Asia was able only to entertain 2.2% shares of total Italian exports (Figure 4). Although her food and beverage export prospect is much higher than any other countries in the world, it could secure only 5.5% weight of total export (Fig 5).

Figure 4

**Italian exports by geographical areas
in 2004***(weights on Italian exports and shares on world exports)*

	% weights	% shares
European Union	59,2	5,7
Other European countries	12,4	8,9
North Africa	2,5	11,7
Other African countries	1,2	3,3
North America	8,8	1,8
Latin America	2,9	2,5
Middle East	3,8	5,2
South and Central Asia	0,9	2,2
East Asia	6,7	1,2
Oceania and other territories	1,6	2,8
World	100,0	3,8

Source: ICE calculations on Istat and IMF-Dots data

Figure 5

**Italian exports by industry of specialization
(2004)**

	% weight	% change
Food and beverages	5,5	4,2
Textiles, clothing, shoes and accessories	15,8	-1,1
Household appliances, furniture and building materials	13,6	4,5
Mechanics	17,9	8,3
Made in Italy	52,8	4,0
Total	100,0	6,1

Source: ICE calculations on Istat data

However, the balances of revenue earning in 'made in Italy' tagged export goods increased from 22% in 2002 to 31% in 2004 (Figure 6). Its business sector expanded even under the threat of increased industrial deficits between 2002-2004 (Figure 7).

Figure 6

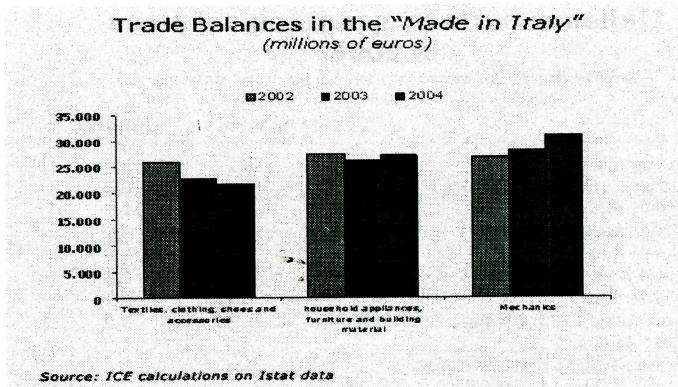
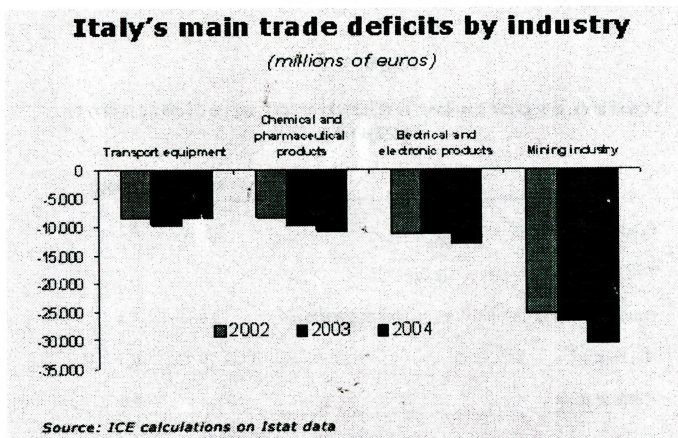


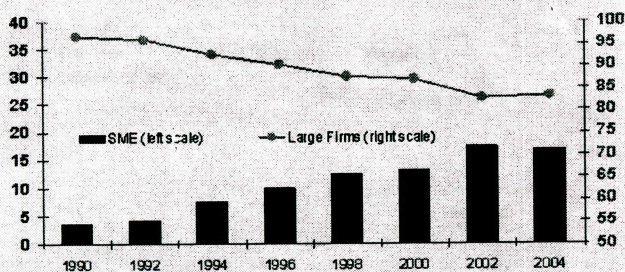
Figure 7



Distribution of foreign workers in Italian affiliates abroad marked differential consequence in small and medium enterprises (SMEs) and large firms. In SMEs, numbers of foreign workers increased, with a slight downward trend in 2004. In large affiliate enterprises abroad, intensity of foreign workers reduced gradually. This might have caused due to introduction of computer-assisted manufacturing (CAM)[figure 8]. Yet, in 2004, its position in the global business market was fourth among ten advanced economic regions (figure 9). As well, it secured seventh position among both the top-ten exporting and importing countries of the world (Figure 10 & Figure 11).

Figure 8

Distribution of foreign workers in Italian affiliates abroad by size class of the investing firm
(percentage share on January 1st of every year)



Source: Reprint, Politecnico di Milano - ICE

Figure 9

Size of markets and their contribution to the change of world imports in 2004, in volume
(at 2001 prices)

	1995	2003	2004	1995-2004	2004
	shares			contribution	
Advanced economies	77.7	76.6	75.7	77.0	66.6
European Union	37.5	37.0	36.0	37.5	26.2
France	5.1	4.9	4.8	5.0	3.7
Germany	7.9	7.4	7.2	7.5	5.4
Italy	3.9	3.3	3.1	3.5	1.0
United Kingdom	6.1	6.3	6.1	5.3	2.9
Spain	1.9	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.1
Newmembers	2.0	2.8	2.8	2.5	3.6
Japan	7.1	6.8	6.6	5.9	3.8
United States	17.3	18.8	18.9	18.0	19.2
NIEs ⁽¹⁾	8.6	8.0	8.4	7.0	11.8
Developing countries	19.5	20.4	21.4	19.8	30.6
Africa	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.7
Asia	8.4	9.9	10.9	8.8	19.9
China and India	3.1	6.1	7.0	4.8	15.6
Middle East	2.7	3.1	3.1	3.0	2.6
Central/South America	6.3	5.6	5.6	6.2	6.4
Other countries	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.1	2.8
World	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

(1) Taiwan excluded

Source: ICE calculations on IMF, WTO and European Commission - april 2005 data

Figure 10

10 leading exporters in world merchandise trade (2004)

Rank	Countries	values (billions \$)	% change 2003-2004
1	Germany	915	21,7
2	United States	819	13,0
3	China	703	32,8
4	Japan	565	19,9
5	France	451	15,0
6	Netherlands	359	21,2
7	Italy	346	15,6
8	United Kingdom	346	13,1
9	Canada	322	18,0
10	Belgium	309	20,9
	World	9.124	20,9

Source: ICE calculations on WTO, Eurostat and national institutes for statistics data

Figure 11

10 leading importers in world merchandise trade (2004)

Rank	Countries	values (billions \$)	% change 2003-2004
1	United States	1,526	17,1
2	Germany	717	18,7
3	China	561	36,0
4	France	464	16,4
5	United Kingdom	462	17,9
6	Japan	455	18,7
7	Italy	349	17,3
8	Netherlands	320	20,8
9	Belgium	287	22,3
10	Canada	276	12,6
World		9,458	21,0

Source: ICE calculations on WTO, Eurostat and national institutes for statistics data

Thus far, Italy's foreign policy and trade policy are supportive to business promotion and franchise expansion in developing countries. Therefore, Bangladesh's revenue to Italy is stronger than import spending. From July 2005 to December 2005, Bangladeshi exports to Italy were 176.78 Million US Dollar while imports from Italy was 63 million US dollars. This information was delivered in a Press Conference of Italy-Bangladesh Trade Promotion Center (IBTPC) on 21 July 2006. The Independent (a Bangladesh daily) of 22 July 2006 reported of this press conference outlining the prospect of Bangladesh's business to Italy titling "Goods worth several million Euro can be exported to Italy". It writes referring to the assertion of the IBTPC spokespersons-"bilateral trade volume between the two countries will increase further if Bangladesh avails greater opportunities of exports to Italy". It was outlined that many Bangladeshi products like textile articles, scarves and foulards, ethnic costume, jewelry, hair accessories, T-shirts, ethnic crafts, furnishing items, jute handicrafts, boutique products, Nakshi Kantha and bed cover have huge demands in the Italian market because of quality and reasonable price.

Uniqueness and specialty of Italian food business also deserve a special note in line with prospective export-import relations between Bangladesh and Italy. Bangladesh middle class and upper middle class people have considerable interest in Italian cuisine. "Good Italian food and good

living" is a slogan that has already been established in the US and most European neighboring countries of Italy. Parma is already being recognized as the "best food capital" throughout the universe. The following cursory description is worth placing in this regard-

"The food supply chain in Emilia involves Parma and 29 bordering council districts, 2070 companies and around 10,500 jobs, for a carnet of products ranging from the famous ham to salami and vegetable conserves, pasta, baked products and, last but not least, Parmesan and Grana cheese. Much of the success is due to exports, where the main market is the US, even if lately Germany, Spain and France have proved to be interesting marketplaces. Exports of cheeses from the area are estimated to be around 206,000 tonnes, up by 4.5% in 2006, and specifically - according to the data of the Parmigiano Reggiano Consortium - the famous cheeses have seen foreign sales rise by 15.1%. More in general, however, the entire food sector in the current year has showed an increase in exports. It is also thanks to the technological system that it has been possible to achieve the current levels of market penetration: always at the forefront both in terms of production and safety and hygiene, technology has guaranteed the essential components that have brought lasting success and customer loyalty. The area around Parma, moreover, is home to numerous companies connected to each other to which products are directed, both to be transformed and already processed. This has made it possible for the companies to keep under almost total control every instant of the production process, which means placing safe and certified goods on the market" .¹⁰

This is to draw Bangladeshi importers' attention toward Italian food import. This may require adequate orientation with Italian franchise rule. As well, there remains the need of modification of franchise rule in Bangladesh towards compliance with international franchise rule without compromising Bangladesh's business interest. A strong business organization for bilateral friendly business ventures between Bangladesh and Italy is another timely need in the present global context.

¹⁰ Source: Internet: Italtrade

Conclusion

It can be said in conclusion that if necessary assistances are provided, and coordination with different trade bodies is established, Bangladesh can rapidly increase her exports to Italy within a very short period of time. Thus, the Independent (22 July 2006) reflects on the need of frequent facilitation of bilateral business and investment growth between Italy and Bangladesh through all stages of each country's economic advantage. The commentary also referred to the instance seven Bangladeshi companies in participating at the Fiera Milano International (CHIBIMART--which was held in Milan from May 26 to 29, 2006), and getting around half million Euro spot and potential order. These participating organizations urged other local exporters and manufactures to utilize similar opportunities for Bangladesh's economic betterment.

There is a proven need of advocacy for escalating professionalism and dynamism in the works of Bangladeshi mission abroad to increase bilateral trade relation with Italy and Bangladesh. The prospect discussed in this paper also calls for proper coordination between country's commerce and finance ministry for easing institutional procedures and systems to anticipate and respond to the expanding global economy. It is also suggested that provision of mutual consultation and dialogue facilities within the prospective economic project circles must be initiated. Such consultations are expected to be beneficial in fostering and cementing relationship between the two countries. As well, there persists an acute need for putting significant emphasis on the needs of arranging business seminars periodically on existing and emerging issues in major business locations of Italy and Bangladesh. These innovative exchanges among cross-section of business executives, media, academics and public policy makers would certainly bring about mutual business and tourism benefit for Italy and Bangladesh.

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Basic Concepts of Motivation with Reference to Public Servants

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Abstract: Motivation is gaining more popularity in this competitive world. Because organisations are facing tougher competition and challenges from their counterparts for survival and effective employee motivation enables them to ensure survival by improving productivity. Motivating public servants is important as well as difficult as their separate job nature and commitment to the society should be taken into consideration while formulating and implementing motivational programmes. In this article, attempts have been made to critically analyse the major theories of motivation, the importance of motivating public servants giving due emphasis on their distinct job nature and mindset.

1.0 Introduction

The importance of productivity and motivation are ever increasing in this globalised world. It is argued that most of the productivity improvement measures are characterised by restructuring of the organisation; rationalising the product/service range; introducing financial incentive schemes; introducing more sophisticated technology to reduce staff; redesigning products and/or processes; outsourcing/sub-contracting; implementing a quality improvement programme; conducting of productivity audits; and changing the management information system. But no measure for productivity improvement can achieve success without incorporating motivational issues like recognition for achievement, work environment, fairness in treatment etc (Baines, 1997).

2.1 What is Motivation?

Most of the human resource management strategies are ultimately aimed to the optimal utilisation of individual and group capabilities towards the achievement of organisational objectives (Hodgetts & Luthans, 2003). Motivation refers to a number of forces that energise, direct and sustain workers' efforts (Bateman and Snell, 2004). This willingness to act, and to behave is called motivation (Ratnam & Srivastava, 1999). Motivation influences the intensity, duration and direction of an action- coupled with experience and ability that leads to effective performance (Jindal-Snape and Snape, 2006). Motivation theories for the workplace emerged during the middle of the twentieth century. The main theme of the theory was

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that managers should find a way to take workers' 'minds and hearts' along with them for achieving organisational goals (Crawther & Green, 2004).

Now a days, most people including practitioners and scholars have developed and defined 'motivation' in their own ways. The common words found in most of the definitions include desires, wants, wishes, aims, goals, needs, drives, motives, and incentives. The term 'motivation' originates from Latin word *movere*, which means 'to move'. The mentioned meaning of motivation is found in the following definition: motivation is a process which starts with physiological or psychological deficiency (need) which activates a behaviour or drive which is aimed at a goal or incentive (Luthans, 2002). Therefore, the key to understand the motivational process lies in the meaning of, and relationships and various factors such as needs, drives and incentives. A physiological or psychological imbalance creates needs (Hodgetts & Luthans, 2003). For example, when cells of the body are in short of food and water or a person is deprived of other people (friends or companions), physiological needs emerge. Sometimes such needs exist without deficiency. In order to alleviate needs drives or motives are set up. A psychological drive is a deficiency with direction. Physiological and psychological drives are action oriented. They provide energising thrust towards reaching the incentives. Incentives are at the end of the motivation cycle. Anything that will alleviate a need and reduce a drive is incentive. The attainment of an incentive will try to restore physiological or psychological strength and thus reduce or cut off drive (Luthans, 2002). Motivation originates from a systematic analysis of how personal, task and environmental characteristics influence behaviour and job performance. Motivation is not a fixed trait and it refers to a dynamic internal state resulting from the influence of personal and situational factors. Motivation may change with changes in personal, social or other factors. It is argued that motivation affects behaviour, rather than performance (Nicholson, 1995).

2.2 Basic Principles of Motivation

Motivation is largely determined by the differences in the total amount of potential energy; basic needs or motives of individuals are considered the valves or outlets which channelise and regulate the flow of potential energy from this reservoir; most adults may have the same set of motives or energy outlets within a given socio-cultural system, and they differ

significantly in relative strength or readiness of various motives; actualisation of motives is determined by the specific situation in which a person finds himself/herself; different motives are originated from the characteristics of different situation; each motive leads to a different type of behaviour; and different motives are actualised by changing the nature of the situational characteristics, resulting in the energising of different behaviour patterns (Ratnam & Srivastava, 1999).

It is argued that if an employee lacks ability, appropriate and sustainable training can be imparted to that employee to improve individual and organisational productivity (Bateman & Snell, 2004). If there is an environmental problem, ensuring work-friendly environment to promote higher performance is the remedy (Dunham, 1984). However, if motivation is the problem, the solution is more complex as well as more challenging. In case of motivational problems, the best source of information is the employee. Employees must be asked on a regular basis what motivates and de-motivates them to work. Their responses are likely to lead the employer to redesign jobs, increase pay, change the working environment, or give more credit for better performance. But in many cases, managers avoid the assumption that what motivates them as well as their employees (Wessler, 1984).

It is revealed that there has been a paradigm shift in the outlook of employees regarding the importance of motivating factors. In 1946, the top motivator selected by employees revealed their need to be appreciated for work done. On the other hand, interesting work was the top concern in 1980 and 1990s. The focus was on changing the job to make it more interesting by 1980s. A national random sample (UK) of 845 job holders by the non-profit Public Agenda Foundation confirms this paradigm shift. Its findings indicate an impressive shift in attitudes towards work, from work as a means of survival to work as a means to enhance self-development and self-expression (Wiley, 1997). It is argued that initiatives designed to enhance job performance by increasing employee motivation may not be successful if the link between job performance and an employee's efforts is weak (Wiley, 1999).

Motivation theories are broadly categorised into two major groups, namely, content theories (need theory, two-factor theory, achievement theory etc.) and process theories (reinforcement theory, expectancy theory, equity theory etc.) (Tosie, et al., 1994).

2.3 Content Theories

(a) Maslow's Need Hierarchy

It is argued that all the motivation theories have been constructed on the need hierarchy developed by Abraham Maslow. He divided general human needs into five groups. The first or lowest level was physiological needs like food, clothing, shelter etc. The second and third were safety and social (acceptance, friendship) respectively. The fourth level was esteem (self-worth, respect from others). The final level was self-actualisation- full achievement of one's potential. According to Maslow, the achievement of this need was not easy. It is argued that one need appears after the previous level need has been fulfilled (Crowther & Green, 2004). It is recognised by psychologists that needs have a certain priority. As the more basic needs are satisfied, a person then goes for the higher needs. If the basic needs are not fulfilled, they claim priority, and efforts to satisfy the higher needs must be postponed. It is observed that although the exact order of priority may vary somewhat from person to person, the above catalogue of needs represents the normal order of priority for most people. Maslow's work has been termed 'complex' by some writers (Dye et al., 2005). Maslow's need hierarchy has been criticised for its bias towards western mindset that contrasts eastern culture (Nevis, 1983). For example, Chinese hierarchy of needs consists of belonging (social), psychological, safety and self-actualisation (Hodgetts & Luthans, 2003).

Maslow's need hierarchy is being used to guide the implementation of Customer Relations Management systems (Gentle, 2003) or to explain the limitation of money as an insufficient motivating tool for information systems (IS) professionals (Santosus, 2004). It is also used to support various perspectives for change management (Lucey et al., 2004), or to explain why industrial societies have discontinued to use certain manufacturing and materials practices (Luke, 2004). It is a tool used to measure the potential results of shifting immigrant demographics and the subsequent impact on a nation's workforce culture (Nicholson-Lord, 2004), or to theoretically distinguish between cultural populations in psychological studies (Kickul et al., 2004) and motivational differences (Kuo & Chen, 2004). It is an effective tool for the comparison of the main streams of literature concerning corporate reputation (Berens & von Riel, 2004), or to lower recidivism in convicted felons (Jones, 2004). It has

been used to define customer needs in marketing (Ritson, 2004), or to segment individuals based on those needs (Pincus, 2004), as well as to explain the mechanics of motivation to senior management personnel (Senter, 2004) and to facilitate the motivation of employees from a specific generation i.e. Gen Y workers (HR Focus, 2004).

(b) Herzberg's Two Factor Theory

Frederick Herzberg argued that an employee's motivation to work is best understood when the respective attitude of that employee is understood. In fact, the internal concept of attitude which originates from a state of mind, when probed, should reveal the most pragmatic information for managers regarding the motivation of workers (Tietjen & Myers, 1998). In his two-factor theory he found that motivating and de-motivating factors at workplace are not the same. He identified recognition; achievement; possibility of growth; advancement; responsibility; work itself as motivators. Issues identified as 'hygiene factors' are salary; interpersonal relations - supervisor; interpersonal relations - subordinates; interpersonal relations - peers; supervision - technical; company policy and administration; working conditions; factors in personal life; status; job security (Tietjen & Myers, 1998). The existence of motivators motivates people but their absence does not de-motivate people much. On the other hand the existence of 'hygiene factors' do not provide high motivation but their absence de-motivate employees seriously (Tosi, et al., 1994)). It is argued that the opposite of job satisfaction is not dissatisfaction, but rather a simple lack of satisfaction. On the other hand, the opposite of job dissatisfaction is not satisfaction, but rather "no dissatisfaction". For instance, consider the hygiene factor, work conditions. If the air conditioner breaks in the middle of a hot summer day, workers will be greatly dissatisfied. However, if the air-conditioner works throughout the day as expected, the workers will not be particularly satisfied by taking notice and being grateful (Herzberg, 1968). Recent research work also agrees with Herzberg's proposition that, beyond a minimum threshold, money does not motivate (Bassett-Jones, 2005). Herzberg's assertion that money was more likely to act as a hygiene factor was termed 'mystifying'. Although there has been some support for Herzberg's thesis, most empirical studies contradict the predictions based on his theory. Needs for salary, recognition and responsibility, for example, have been shown to operate both as motivators and as hygiene factors (Maidani, 1991). It was concluded that

there was no substantial support for a so-called differential role for money in leading to job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction (Opsahl & Dunnette, 1966). In response to criticism, Herzberg differentiated hygiene factors and motivators. He argued that movement (hygiene factors) stems from the animal nature of the humankind - the built-in drive to avoid pain from the environment as well as the learned needs that become conditioned as a result of the need to serve basic biological needs. To reinforce the distinction, He termed motivation as an internal self-charging battery. For an employee to be motivated, the energy or desire to move must come from within. In fact motivators are internally generated drives, not externally stimulated incentives (Bassett-Jones, 2005). Therefore, in order to extract optimal performance from the workers, they (workers) must be given recognition so that their internal drives are generated from within themselves (Hodgetts & Luthans, 2003).

(c) Achievement Theory

In the achievement theory, McClelland and associates focused on the need for achievement. Recently, the power motive has been emphasized much (Tosie, et al., 1994). Motive and the force of motives on behaviour are the foundations of this theory. Motives are defined as "effectively toned associated networks arranged in a hierarchy of strength and importance in a person (McClelland, 1965). There is a close relation between the level of achievement and entrepreneurial success because high achievement motives play a 'one man game' that need not involve other people (McClelland, 1975).

One of the criticisms of these theories is that they are based on the assumption that everyone's psyche works in the same way and is motivated or de-motivated by the same factors (Crowther & Green, 2004).

2.4 Process Theories

(a) Reinforcement Theory

Reinforcement is based on the correlation of extrinsic rewards to behaviour. Rewards like pay, benefits, praise and recognition are given when a person performs well. The effect of extrinsic rewards on people's intrinsic motivation has been questioned. Intrinsic motivation is termed as the drive to perform those results from a person's internalised values and beliefs that the task is rewarding in or of itself (Tosie, et al., 1994). It is also argued that the use of extrinsic rewards might have a negative effect

on intrinsic motivation (Staw, 1976). Because, if a person is rewarded for an intrinsically motivated task the value of the motivation will decrease (Tosie, et al., 1994).

It is argued that people's (employees) behaviour is encouraged or discouraged by four consequences of behaviour. These are: positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, punishment and extinction. The person gains something positive and avoids something negative from positive reinforcement and negative reinforcement and thus motivated to behave in a particular way. Therefore, these are positive for the person concerned. On the other hand punishment and extinction have a negative impact on the behaviour of that person. Therefore, these are negative reinforcement (Bateman & Snell, 2004).

It is observed that managers very often reinforce the wrong behaviors (Kerr, 1975). For example, instead of motivating the executives to create real value to the stock price managers often motivate them manipulate these (Pearlstein, 2002).

It is suggested that behaviours to be reinforced and discouraged must be identified by the managers in objective manners. The reward system has to be supportive towards the achievement of the strategic ends of the organisation (Lawler, 2000). Creativity of the managers is vital for the successful reinforcement of employees' behaviour (Weber, 1990). In some organisations, people are awarded for recruiting talented people (Leonard, 2000). It is informed that non-monetary rewards such as intellectual challenge, greater responsibility, autonomy, recognition, flexible benefits and staff involvement in decision making are used as effective motivation tools by creative and innovative managers. Such tools are more effective in reinforcing employee behaviour when there is scarcity in pay and promotion (Bannett, 1990).

(b) Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theory (introduced by Vroom and developed by Lawler) is based on comparing outcomes with preferences, based on behaviour. People will expect certain outcomes (reward) if they perform in certain ways. It is involved in predicting people's behaviour and the assumption that people's behaviour will be thought-through and rational. Lawler stated that motivation would be possible if a person can combine his or her expectation to complete the task and the value attached personally to the task by him or her (Crowther & Green, 2004).

(c) Equity Theory

According to the equity theory, people are motivated for maintaining fair relationships with others and for rectifying unfair relationships by making those fair (Baron, 1983). Motivation is explained by interpersonal comparisons rather than intra-personal comparisons (Tosie, et al., 1994). Three key factors are used to explain and understand motivation. These are inputs, outcomes and references (Adams, 1965). It was found that morally mature people were more likely to respond to inequitable situations (Vecchio, 1981).

(d) Goal Setting Theory

In goal setting theory, it is assumed that conscious goals within the people energise them and their thoughts and behaviours are directed towards the desired goals by those conscious goals (Locke, 1968). While setting goals for subordinates, managers always keep it in mind that goals have impact on the mind-set of the employees. In order to ensure effective employee motivation by setting goals, the following conditions should be fulfilled by the managers: the goals set by the managers should be acceptable to the employees; the goals should be challenging but attainable; the goals should be specific quantifiable and measurable (Bateman & Snell, 2004).

It is argued that expectancy, equity, goal setting and reinforcement theory have resulted in the development of a simple model of motivational alignment. It is suggested by the model that once employees' needs are identified, and organisational objectives are defined, the next step is determining rewards and linking these to behaviours that both serve the organisational objectives as well as satisfy employee needs. If these are aligned properly, high motivation will result in; if poorly aligned, the outcome will be low motivation. However it is observed that the model fails to separate motivators from movers (hygiene factors). As a result, many organisations become over-reliant on extrinsic rewards that absolve managers of any responsibility to enrich work by creative and imaginative job design or recognition of individual growth needs (Bassett-Jones, 2005).

2.5 Why to Motivate Public Servants?

It is suggested that public sector managers need to focus more attention on employee development and motivation if they are to achieve high levels of performance. Transforming HR in the Public Sector is based on continuing research investigating the challenges public sector

organisations face in transforming their HR function because the public sector has to manage a significant change agenda. At the same time it is required to deliver "more for less" by making substantial reductions in manpower (CIPD, 2007). Moreover, Public sector organisations appear to be the place to work with employees generally more trusting and feeling more satisfied, committed and motivated than their private sector counterparts. A recent survey into employee attitudes from the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) reveals that motivation amongst public sector employees has been steadily increasing over the years and employees are now 8% more motivated than private sector staff (CIPD, 2004).

2.6 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)

It is believed by many management thinkers that public sector employees are motivated by a sense of service, which is not found among private sector employees (Houston, 2000; Perry & Wise, 1990). Employees of government-run organisations are seen as motivated by a concern for the community and a desire for serving the public interest, and are more likely to be characterized by an ethic that places more importance on intrinsic rewards than extrinsic rewards (Crewson, 1997). The concept of public service motivation is used for explaining the different outlook of public and private employees regarding their jobs (Perry & Wise, 1990). It can be guessed that public employees will place a high value on pro-social job behaviour such as organisational citizenship behaviour - OCB (Kim, 2006).

It is observed that there is substantial support for the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB, and between organisational commitment and OCB (Murphy et al., 2002; Schappe, 1998). However, in the public sector, public service motivation might be more predictive of OCB compared with either job satisfaction or organisational commitment (Kim, 2006).

It is informed that the concept of public service motivation developed by the American academic James Perry is one of the most widely known ideas, which addresses these issues. His work is based on that of Elmer Staats who described public service as a concept, an attitude, a sense of duty and a sense of public morality. This public service ethic Perry and Wise chose to describe as 'public service motivation' or 'an individual's

predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations'. These motives are described as psychological deficiencies or needs, which can be satisfied by working in the public sector. Again building on Knoke and Wright-Isak's work Perry distinguishes three analytically distinct categories of motives - rational, norm-based and affective. Rational motives are grounded in individual utility maximisation, norm-based motives refer to actions generated by efforts to conform to values and affective motives refer to triggers that are grounded in emotional responses to different social contexts. Perry proceeded to identify six needs or motives. The first (rational) motive is the attractiveness of politics and policymaking; the second, (normative) motive is commitment to the public interest; the third (normative) motive is a sense of civic responsibility. The fourth, fifth and sixth motives are social justice (normative) compassion (normative) and self-sacrifice (emotive) (Horton and Hondeghem, 2006). Perry subsequently reduced these six factors to four in the process of operationalising the concept. The four are, the attractiveness of politics and policymaking; involvement with the public interest and civic responsibility; compassion; and self-sacrifice. Perry went on to develop his model in later articles and to test its theoretical merits (Perry, 2000).

It is suggested that having public employees with a high level of public service motivation is important for enhancing OCB among public sector employees. The ethos of service to a public good is a distinct feature of public service officials. They feel greater responsibility for the society compared with their private sector counterparts. Sometimes, metaphoric terms are used in this regard. For example, a chief executive claims that he/she hangs on to a thin silver line (symbolising) a public good and ethic; an ideal that is worth pursuing, the ideal of service. Another chief executive uses a metaphor of "lighting the flame" both within and through her staff and then to the wider community through her staff. Some of them prefer to be known as advocates for the stakeholders (workers and beneficiaries). The other issues related to the public service ethos include importance of ideals, ethics, integrity, transparency, and the need to be a role model to the peers and subordinates (Olsson & Pringle, 2004).

It gives several implications for public sector managers. Selection and retention of public employees with high public service motivation is important. Government organisations need to examine applicants with the

perspective of public service motivation in the selection process. Effective employee orientation and education programmes are also vital for retaining public employees with high public service motivation because the programmes can introduce the mission, goals, objectives, and norms of public sector organisations and narrate the ways to serve the public interest through formulating public policies and delivering public services. Public service motivation can be enhanced through appropriateness in the selection process and socialisation to the values of the organisation (Kim, 2006). Moreover, public sector managers need to recognise that public sector incentive structures must provide an opportunity for employees to satisfy their public service motives (Houston, 2006). Public employees are more likely to place a higher value on the intrinsic reward of work (delivering service to the nation) that is important and it provides a feeling of accomplishment, and they are less likely to place a high value on extrinsic reward motivators such as high income and short work hours. The managers need to give public service employees opportunities to experience a sense of accomplishment and achievement or to feel that they are doing something worthwhile to the nation. Public organisation managers also need to manage better and promote the relationship between organisational commitment and OCB. They should also recognise that the feelings of the employees for their organisations may manifest themselves in the form of pro-social job behaviours. Effective commitment (motivation) can be influenced through a strategic use of intrinsic incentives in the public sector (Kim, 2006).

It has been argued that the performance of the public sector in most of the countries is not satisfactory because unlike the private sector - which operates in an open market and has a decentralised model of decision-making- public sector lack proper incentive (motivational) programmes (Bhatta, 2001). Moreover, public sector (in the current environment) aims to achieve seemingly paradoxical objectives - ensuring welfare to public and a sustainable competitive advantage (Mathews & Shulman, 2005). Therefore, in order to survive in this competitive environment, public servants need to be motivated for their own survival through improving the level of efficiency (Argus et al., 2007).

2.7 Public Service Motivation (PSM)

Public Service Motivation (PSM) has been defined by Perry and Wise (1990) as the predisposition of the individual to respond to motives primarily or uniquely grounded in public institutions and organisations. Therefore, this definition is directly applicable to the unique and specific mission of government. Moreover, research studies reveal that public sector organisations are more likely to employ individuals who nurture the values and needs compatible with the public service mission of the organisation (Baldwin, 1984; Perry & Wise, 1990; Perry, 1997; Crewson, 1997). It is argued that the composition of the public sector workforce has been expected to reflect the nature of the work in the public sector by attracting employees who desire greater opportunities to fulfill higher-order needs and altruistic motives by performing public service. Moreover, it is these individual attributes often viewed as the key to motivate the behaviour of public sector employees (Wright, 2003). It is suggested that understanding the values and reward preferences of public managers is a prerequisite to reshape organisational environments and incentive systems to satisfy those preferences (Wittmer, 1991).

It is argued that PSM is closely linked to motivation, productivity, improved management practices, accountability, and trust in government, making it one of the major current topics of investigation in public administration (Brewer et al., 2000). The relevance of PSM is relatively high for government. Although it is not limited to this sector, as employees in the private and non-profit sectors also exhibit PSM to varying degrees (Wittmer 1991). PSM therefore not only helps us to understand the traditional differences between the public, non-profit and private sector, but given the increasing blurring of the boundaries between sectors, PSM is useful in understanding public behaviour at workplace (Bozeman, 1987). Although some empirical work shows no evidence of difference between public and private organisations on extrinsic and intrinsic motivators (Buchanan 1975; Gabris & Gloria 1995). A number of the empirical evidence demonstrates support for the existence of public service ethic among public employees. (Brewer et al., 2000; Coursey & Pandey, 2004; Perry 1996; 1997). Support for PSM is also found in cross-section comparisons. Significant differences have been found among public and private service managers in the perceptions of the importance of different types of rewards. Unlike private managers,

public managers considered service and work that is helpful to others as important and higher pay, status and prestige as less important (Rainey, 1982).

PSM therefore provides a theory of motivation that links the pursuit of public interest with administrative behaviour. Perry and Wise (1990) argue that individuals with a high sense of the public interest are more likely to select public service careers (Houston 2000; Rainey 1982; Wittmer 1991). Having joined the organisation, members with high levels of PSM appear to contribute in positive ways: they are more willing to engage themselves to protect the public interest (Brewer et al., 1998); they exhibit higher levels of organisational commitment (Crewson 1997); they believe that their jobs are important, which in turn leads to employees working harder (Wright, 2003); they are more likely to be high performers, enjoy higher job satisfaction and less likely to leave their jobs (Naff & Crum 1999). There has been some research into PSM and individual employee performance but Brewer (2008) concludes that there is little solid evidence to support such a link. A section of researchers demonstrated that employees with a high level of PSM perform better, but others came up with contradictory results. Various sorts of measurement problems also haunt these studies. An interesting study of organisational performance was carried out by Kim in 2005. He showed that while PSM did have a positive effect on organisational performance, three other factors namely, job satisfaction, affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour influenced it more. However, Brewer notes that this study also has its limitations, including incomplete measures of PSM and self-reporting measures of performance (Leisink and Steijn, 2009).

A recent study reveals that public service motivation increases with age. Thus it appears that older public sector workers are more likely to demonstrate such motivation. It also enhances with educational level. Gender, too have a significant role in the analyses of affective commitment, willingness to exert effort and job performance. Women report significantly higher scores on affective commitment and willingness to exert effort compared with men. Gender studies suggest that women are more relation-oriented and supportive than men, and both of these aspects can be related to affective commitment and willingness to exert effort. On the other hand, men report significantly higher scores on job performance than women. It appears that men are more inclined to

boast of their own performance than their women counterparts (Leisink and Steijn, 2009).

It is suggested that to make the PSM a success, the employees must be provided with clear unequivocal goals and prioritisation of goals irrespective of whether employees receive their instructions from one or more sources. Furthermore, the employee-leader relations antecedents have a positive outcome on PSM, however this influence is indirect. Managers should provide the following in order to develop and enhance PSM: allow the employees to influence the decisions being made by being more approachable and inviting them to provide their input; take the role of a facilitator by clarifying expectations, assigning specific tasks and identify procedures to be followed, thus minimising the negative effect of the role states; and regular feedback to the employees regarding their performance and how well they are doing on the workplace (Camilleri, 2007).

It is argued that employees with greater public service motivation are expected to be more satisfied with their jobs and therefore perform better because they value the opportunities to serve the public that government employment provides. Consequently, employees with high public service motivation are more likely to see their work not only as rewarding but also compensating for the limited availability of economic rewards often associated with public employment. In other words, public employees are expected to work harder, perform better, and be more satisfied with their jobs because they are working to provide services that they see as important and therefore rewarding (Pandey and Wright, 2008).

It is argued that content theories of motivation narrate behaviour as the outcome of intrinsic psychological characteristics, such as, needs. On the contrary, it is expressed that process theories of motivation attempt to describe how behaviour is energised, directed, and sustained. Therefore, as PSM basically explains behaviour in terms of intrinsic psychological needs it may be concluded that the basis of PSM lies within the content motivation theories domain. Moreover, it is held that content motivation theories are more receptive to the identification of a multiple dimensional construct compared with process theories. The main reason behind this is that a multiple dimensional construct of motivation, such as Public Service Motivation, has the objective of identifying the factors that plays

a decisive role in building the construct (the what) rather than explaining the operations of the individual decision making system as it relates to his/her behaviour (Camilleri, 2007).

It is suggested that the following factors should be considered while formulating motivational programmes for employees: individual needs with complex combination; financial benefits is not the only means for ensuring effective management of motivation and retention; the broader potential predictors of motivation and/or dissatisfaction must not be overlooked; and the importance of the regular measurement of the impact of the predictors of motivation and/or dissatisfaction on employee performance and as a whole on the effectiveness of the organisation. A comprehensive matrix, consisting of the following factors is developed for facilitating the managers to motivate their employees in an appropriate manner : establishing different profiles at different levels' organisational process; role challenge; values; work-life balance; information; key/leverage/reward/recognition; management; work environment; and product/service (Glen, 2006).

From the above discussion, it is evident that Public Service Motivation is vital for extracting the optimal performance from the employees and thus ensuring organisational development. Moreover, motivating public servants is not an easy task. Public sector managers should possess the necessary traits and skills to achieve this objective for creating the environment needed for Public Service Motivation (PSM).

2.8 Customers' Satisfaction, 'Burnout' and 'Empowerment'

It is argued that researchers have focused almost exclusively on the underlying causes of burnout, without adequate attention given to the consequences of burnout. It has become common to assume that burnout has significant negative consequences. Moreover, what research does exist on the consequences of burnout generally finds very little shared variance between burnout and its consequences. Finally, for the most part, burnout researchers have limited their investigations of burnout consequences to outcomes associated with the individual experiencing burnout e.g., their performance, job satisfaction, or commitment and have done little to explore the manner in which an employee's burnout influences other people (Halbesleben et al., 2008).

Compared with other professions, burnout is more common in the service professions (Yagil, 2006). Burnout has been manifested as a syndrome consisting of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and a reduced sense of personal accomplishment (Maslach et al., 2001). The constant contact with customers along-with the nature of the interpersonal encounters give rise to major causes of service provider burnout, which has a negative impact on the service quality and customer satisfaction. A potential remedy to overcome the stress involved in service roles is thought to be the empowerment of service providers through increasing the employees' control of the situation, which enhances their ability to provide satisfactory service. Empowerment has been defined as 'the process of gaining influence over events and outcomes of importance to an individual or group'. It is argued that the service provider's need for power influences the buffering effect of empowerment, as well as the stressful effect of unsuccessful relationships with customers (Yagil, 2006).

Empowerment is termed as a fundamentally motivational process by which individuals experience a sense of enablement (Yagil, 2006). It is considered an effective safeguard against stress because it provides individuals with necessary resources like autonomy, participation in decision-making and a sense of competence, which help them cope with stress (Spreitzer et al., 1997). Moreover, empowerment affects employees' appraisal of various stressful organisational events, such as downsizing and problem-focused coping. It enhances the employees' evaluation of their ability to cope with threats (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998). It is found that job autonomy negatively influences service providers' appraisal of the stress involved in customer aggression, and thus indirectly influences emotional exhaustion. As empowerment neutralises the effect of stress, it may be expected to be negatively related to service providers' burnout as well as moderating the relationship of burnout with service outcomes (Grandey et al., 2004). Moreover, empowerment has a positive impact on employees' performance both directly (Bradley & Sparks, 2000) and through its effect on service providers' sense of job-related control and thus it has a close relation with customers' satisfaction (Yagil, 2006). On the other hand employee empowerment is not a very easy process. Any plan for empowering employees will become unsuccessful if the organisation is unaligned. If people do not share the common vision, mental models about business reality, employee

empowerment will have a negative impact on the performance of the entire organisation (Senge, 2006). It is argued that empowerment attempts become successful when employees intend to attain more power and a large proportion of such attempts failed because the employees were not willing to have more power (Foster-Fishman & Keys, 1997).

3.0 Conclusion

There is abundant theoretical support regarding employee particularly public servant motivation. In this regard theories as well as some real issues such as organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), public service motivation (PSM), empowerment, burnout, gender, age and education should be taken care of. If these issues are given due importance public service managers can harvest the optimal benefit from the motivational programmes.

A recent research suggests that the followings should be done to motivate public servants effectively: more efforts on addressing the hygiene factors (i.e. removing the negatives) rather than introducing new incentives; ensuring opportunities for setting up national and international networks to meet the need for affiliation with the stakeholders; evaluating the effectiveness of present incentive schemes and use them in a differential manner with different levels of public servants; managers should be proactive in providing constructive feedback; organisational structure needs to be well understood and roles clearly defined; non-financial methods for recognising success and hard work should be investigated; consideration to the physical layout of the organisation to facilitate communication and avoid groups and individuals feeling isolated; the criteria for appointing managers should be whether they want to manage, know how to manage and how to get maximum output from minimum input; Judging managers on their ability to manage; and managers should spend more time talking to their staff and understanding their needs and motivations (Jindal-Snape and Snape, 2006).

As motivation is a dynamic process there will be changes in this regard in course of time and managers need to update them with the ever changing scenario to extract better performance from their subordinates.

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Importance of Eco-tourism in Respect of Economic Development of Bangladesh

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Abstract: In this paper, efforts have been made to identify the possible economic benefits of eco-tourism. Bangladesh with her inundated scopes of being one of the most significant nations having lots of eco-spots can have impending prospects in eco-tourism industry. A World Tourism Organization (WTO) initiated a study which concludes that in developing countries, particularly in the least developed countries like Bangladesh, tourism is almost universally one of the leading sources of economic growth, foreign exchange, investment and job creation. Revenue from eco-tourism is an important economic benefit at national and local levels. Taxes can provide valuable financial resources for developing infrastructure, tourist attractions and other public facilities and service and tourism marketing and training required for developing tourism as well as to help finance poverty alleviation programs by the Bangladesh Governments. Eco-tourism in Bangladesh, thereby, can play the most vital role in development of the socio-economic status of the root level and hence fight against poverty at the origin. The demand of nature and eco-tourism is increasing day by day. In Bangladesh, Sundarbans is one of the centers of eco-tourism. Globally it is well known as a famous tourist spot. It is found in this study that 45000 tourists visit this place annually. On the other hand 300000 people are indirectly dependent on Sundarbans resources.

1.0 Introduction

Tourism has many faces; eco-tourism is one of them. The term "eco-tourism" blends "ecology" and "tourism" and covers the scope of tourism that draws upon natural, manmade and cultural environment. (Firoz, 2007: 8) It is comparatively a new term in tourism literature. Eco-tourism came into prominence in the 1980s as a strategy for reconciling conservation with development in ecologically rich areas. Recognizing its global importance, the United Nations (UN) designated the year 2002 as the International Year of Eco-tourism (IYE). (Islam, 2003: 108) The United Nations has effectively recognized the economic and social importance of this activity which is increasing globally.

2.0 Objectives of the Study

The study attempted to achieve the following objectives:

- 1) To identify the possible benefits of eco-tourism.
- 2) To analyze the economic impacts of eco-tourism in Bangladesh.
- 3) To focus the role of eco-tourism in Bangladesh economy.

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3.0 Methodology

The present study is mainly based on secondary data. The secondary data were collected from published official statistics, reports, documents, books, articles, daily newspapers, theses, dissertations, statistics and publications of Bangladesh Parjatan Corporation (BPC) and the Ministry of Civil Aviation and Tourism, web-sites of related local and international institutions.

4.0 Eco-tourism

a. Definition of Eco-tourism

Eco-tourism is basically nature-based tourism. Eco-tourism has originated from conscience of environment. It does not harm environment. On the other hand, the local people earn money through eco-tourism. Eco-tourism is defined as environmentally and culturally sustainable tourism that provides and ensures social and economic benefits primarily to the local people and then to the nation as a whole, which interacted with each other and live within a definable area. (Haque, 2004: 10)

According to the Encyclopedia of Eco-tourism, the term eco-tourism is nature based, environmentally friendly and sustainably managed. (Islam, 2003: 112)

Finally, eco-tourism is a nature-based tourism that involves interpretation of natural and cultural environment and ecologically sustainable management of natural areas. (Bashar, 2007: 10)

b. Characteristics of Eco-tourism

While there is no universal definition of eco-tourism, its general characteristics can be summarized as follows by the World Tourism Organization (WTO).

- (1) All nature-based forms of tourism in which the main motivation of the tourists is the observation and appreciation of nature as well as the traditional cultures prevailing in natural areas.
- (2) It contains educational and interpretation features.
- (3) It is generally, but not exclusively organized for small groups by specialized and small, locally owned businesses. Foreign operators of varying sizes also organize, operate and/or market eco-tourism tours generally for small groups.

- (4) It minimizes negative impacts upon the natural and socio cultural environment.
 - (5) It supports the protection of natural areas by generating economic benefits for host communities, organizations and authorities managing natural areas with conservation purposes.
 - (6) Increasing awareness towards the conservation of natural and cultural assets, both among locals and foreign tourists.
 - (7) Providing alternative employment and income opportunities for local communities. (Islam, 2003: 113)
7. The Principles of Eco-tourism

c. Principles of Eco-tourism:

- (1) It should not degrade the resource and should be developed in an environmentally sound manner.
- (2) It should provide long-term benefits to the resource, to the local community and industry.
- (3) It should involve education among all parties, local communities, government, non-government organizations, industry and tourists.
- (4) It should encourage all-party recognition of the intrinsic value of resources.
- (5) It should involve acceptance of the resource in its own terms, and in recognition of its limits, which involve supply-oriented management.
- (6) It should promote moral and ethical responsibilities and behavior towards the natural and cultural environment by all players. (Islam, 2003: 114)

d. Objectives of Eco-tourism

Eco-tourism has the following objectives.

- (1) Generate greater awareness among public authorities and the private sector regarding eco-tourism's capacity to contribute to the conservation of the natural and cultural heritage in natural and rural areas, and the improvement of standard of living in those areas.
- (2) Disseminate methods and techniques for the planning, management, regulation and monitoring of eco-tourism to guarantee its long-term sustainability.
- (3) Promote exchanges of successful experiences in the field of eco-tourism.

- (4) Increase opportunities for the efficient marketing and promotion of eco-tourism destinations and products on international markets. (Siddiqi 2003:8)

5.0 Eco-tourism Products in Bangladesh

Bangladesh is a combination of verdant forests, riverine countryside, and long stretches of sunbathed beaches, fearsome wildness, meandering rivers and magnificent world's largest mangrove forest. Bordering the mighty Bay of Bengal stands this magical tapestry in green with all the glory of its past and the splendid colors of its natural present. (Morshed, 2006: 23)

Bangladesh enjoys a unique position, being easily accessible from many popular destinations in South Asia. Bangladesh has a fairly large number of virgin eco-tourism spots to offer.

5.1 The Sundarbans: The Single Largest Mangrove Forest and the Abode of the Royal Bengal Tiger

Approximately located about 320 kilometer south-west of Dhaka and spread over an area of about 6000 square kilometer of deltaic swamps along the coastal belt of Khulna, is the single largest mangrove forest on the earth, the Sundarbans- the home of the Royal Bengal Tiger. These deeply dense mangrove forests are criss-crossed by a network of rivers and creeks. Tourists find here tides flowing in two directions in the same creek and often tigers swimming across a river or huge crocodiles basking in the sun. Other wild lives in this region are cheetahs, spotted deer, monkeys, pythons, and wild-boars. The forest is accessible by river from Khulna or Mongla. There are rest-houses for the visitors to stay and enjoy the unspoiled nature with all its charm and majesty.

The World Heritage Site, declared by the UNESCO, the Sundarbans is an immaculate place for eco-tourism. Main tourist spots inside the Sundarbans include Hiron Point (Nilkamal), Katka and Tin Kona Island to view tigers, deer, monkey, crocodiles, birds and natural beauty. Herds of spotted deer are often found to graze here. Another major attraction inside the Sundarbans is Dublachar (island), mainly a fishermen's village. (Morshed, 2006: 28)

5.2 Sylhet - The Land of Two Leaves and a Bud

Immediately nestled in the picturesque Surma Vally amidst scenic tea plantations and lush green tropical forests, Sylhet is a prime attraction for all tourists. Its terraced tea gardens, eye-soothing orange groves and

pineapple plantations and hills covered with tropical forests form a beautiful landscape. A number of haors (big marshy land) provide sanctuary to the millions of migratory birds flying from Siberia across the Himalayas to avoid the severe cold of winter.

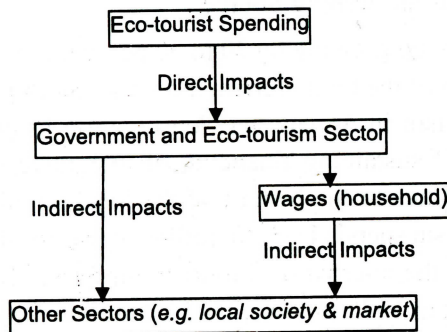
5.3 The Hill Districts- Paradise for Nature Lovers

The three hill districts of Rangamati, Bandarban and Khagrachhari offer dazzling beautiful spots where nature has been least disturbed. Far from the madding crowd, the scenic and calm spots of these areas offer rare opportunities to the tourists to have holiday in tranquility. The ethnic minority groups like Chakma, Marmas, Tripuras and Murangs are famous for their music and dances. The highest peak of Bangladesh Tahjing Dong (4632 feet) is located in the Bandarban district. (Murshed, 2006: 29) Rangamati Hill District is a wonderful repository of scenic splendors with flora and fauna of varied descriptions and the largest artificial lake (Kaptai) in Asia is a fascinating tourist spot.

6.0 Economic Impacts of Eco-tourism

Economic impact refers to the change in sales, income, jobs, or other parameters generated by eco-tourism. Eco-tourism plays a particularly important role because it can create jobs in remote regions that historically have benefited less from economic development programs than the more populous areas. (Siddiqua, 2006: 138) The impacts of eco-tourism can be grouped into three categories: direct, indirect and induced. Figure 1 illustrates some of these impacts.

Figure 1
Economic Impact of Ecotourism



6.1 Direct Impacts

Direct impacts are those arising from the direct initial tourism spending. Under this concept, revenues from tourists, in the form of entrance fees, domestic airfares, accommodation and food, hiring charges of the guide, sale of local goods such as handicrafts and souvenirs and tax revenues levied on the above are distributed among the population that is most likely to exploit the natural areas. Such a transfer of revenue establishes a direct link between conservation and personal income.

6.2 Indirect Impacts

The complex economic linkages transmit the impacts from those who sell goods and services to tourists to others in the local economy (who sells goods and services to the agents.) For example, hotels, restaurants and bars hire local workers, pay rents to locals, and purchase local "intermediate inputs" like fruits and vegetables, fish, meat etc. from the local markets and producers. Payments for these goods and services enter the economy, influencing the incomes of local agents who may not have any direct contact with tourists and also the local society who may be directly involved in the subject. These agents, in turn, stimulate new rounds of local expenditures that influence the income of still more local agents.

6.3 Induced Impacts

Outside agents, including operators of boats also purchase locally supplied goods and hire local workers and the restaurant employees spend part of their wages to buy various goods and services from the local market, thereby generating induced impacts.

6.4 Eco-tourism as an Earning Source

Eco-tourism, although growing by 20 to 30 percent a year, still represents less than one-tenth of the total tourism industry. (Siddiqua, 2006: 139) In Asia, the eco-tourism in Annapurna Conservation Project have allowed for a basically self-sustaining financing of integrated conservation and development activities to the benefit of the local population. (Siddiqua, 2006: 139) Malaysia spends US\$ 30 million a year for the publicity of its tourist products in the international tourism markets. The Government of Indonesia spent from 1975 to 1982, US\$ 21 million for the restoration of the 9th century Borobudur Buddhist Temple in Java, one of the eco-tourist spots in the country. Now Borobudur attracts more than one million tourists every year, and earns no less than US\$ 500 million per annum for that country (Siddiqua, 2006: 140).

7.0 Role of Eco-tourism in Bangladesh Economy

Bangladesh with her inundated scopes of being one of the most significant nations having lots of eco-spots can have impending prospects in eco-tourism industry. Currently Bangladesh attracts about 4.5 percent of tourists who visit South Asian countries. Over 50 percent of the tourists travel to India, from where 62-65 percent visits Bangladesh. (Siddiqua, 2006: 142) A World Tourism Organization (WTO) initiated a study which concludes that in developing countries, particularly in the least developed countries like Bangladesh, tourism is almost universally the leading source of economic growth, foreign exchange, investment and job creation.

7.1 Job Creation in Remote Locality

In rural areas, even a few new jobs can make a big difference. Eco-tourism related goods and services can not only provide local people with additional income but also create new jobs for them. Tourism provides employment opportunities by diversifying and increasing incomes that help reduce the vulnerability of the people.

7.2 Generation of Revenues

Eco-tourism is associated with the generation of revenues substantial enough to contribute significantly to the destination's economic development. Revenue from eco-tourism is an important economic benefit at national and local levels. Taxes can provide valuable financial resources for developing infrastructure, tourist attractions and other public facilities and services and tourism marketing and training required for developing tourism as well as to help finance for poverty reduction programs by the Bangladesh Governments.

7.3 Poverty Reduction

Eco-tourism has immense potential to help the global fight against poverty. Most of the eco-spots of the country are located in remote rural areas. Tourism depends not only on financial productive and human capital but also largely on natural and cultural capital which are often assets possessed by the poor. Eco-tourism being labor intensive provides opportunities for the poor of Bangladesh. Eco-tourism in Bangladesh, thereby, can play the most vital role in development of the socio-economic status of the root level and hence fight against poverty at the origin.

Eco-tourism in Bangladesh may provide a means of empowerment to disadvantaged groups such as many native people (including women) by

opening an economic and management role for them in eco-tourism. Eco-tourism provides important employment opportunities for the women of the locality surrounding the eco-spots of the country.

7.4 Economic Development of Local Community

Eco-tourism is accepted as a means that can satisfy both local people in need of gainful economic activity as well as conservationists. Local people are those most immediately benefited by the emerging market for international eco-tourism. Eco-tourism might bring both direct and indirect economic impacts to the local communities. Eco-tourism operations typically tend to be small-scale and sensitive in terms of their impacts on the local environment and culture, involving the participants of local communities as major stakeholders.

7.5 Reduction of Rural Out Migration

One of the main problems in city areas in Bangladesh is the huge pressure of population due to more availability of employment and works with respect to peripheral rural areas. As eco-tourism can increase opportunities for the rural poor in their own communities, it has the potential to help reduce rural out migration to urban areas, increase employment opportunities for the urban people, give them additional income to provide for their families in the rural areas and therefore diminish the overburden of population of big cities like Dhaka, Chittagong, Khulna, etc. Also, tourism related skills gained by the urban poor can be applied in rural areas helping to reverse the migration process.

7.6 Future of Eco-tourism in the Sundarbans and Benefits for its Inhabitants

There is no doubt that tourism has an impact on the environment both natural and manmade. But if it is planned tourism and properly defined eco-tourism, we can consider its impact in a positive way. The Sundarbans play a vital role in developing the entire regional economy and national economy. (Islam, 2003: 145)

Globally people are interested in enjoying nature. The demand of nature and eco-tourism is increasing day by day. In Bangladesh, Sundarbans is one of the centers of eco-tourism. Globally it is well known as a famous tourist spot. At present 45000 tourists visit this place annually. On the other hand 300000 people are indirectly dependent on Sundarbans resources. (Islam, 2003: 145)

There is a good chance of developing eco-tourism in Sundarbans and obviously it will be profitable. It is the only alternative to use Sundarbans' resources and landscapes in a properly planned way. The philosophy is minimum use and maximum profit without destruction of the tourist. The Sundarbans landscapes and plants and animals are the real raw materials of tourism and for the near future. (Islam, 2003: 146)

Local people's participation is for the benefits of the locals. They can create employment opportunities and can earn money from the eco-tourism industry. They can change their life styles if they can earn money. Some private organizations such as Sundarbans tourism, Bengal Tours and Travels, Surma Travel Agency are making eco-tours privately and expecting a good chance and bright future for eco-tourism in Sundarbans. (Islam, 2003: 147)

Finally, Sundarbans has economic and ecological chance for eco-tourism development. For the preservation of Sundarbans culture and tradition, long-term conservation and forest management, biodiversity and ecosystems protection, local employment creation and socio economic development for the inhabitants, there is no alternative way without eco-tourism development. So the future of eco-tourism in the Sundarbans is very positive and it will bring benefits for the locals.

8.0 Findings of the Study

- Economic impact refers to the change in sales, income generation, job opportunity or other parameters generated by eco-tourism. It is found in this study that eco-tourism plays a particularly important role because it can create jobs in remote regions that historically have benefited less from economic development programs than the more populous areas.
- The impacts of eco-tourism can be grouped into three categories: direct, indirect and induced. Direct impacts are those arising from the direct initial tourism spending. Under this concept, revenues from tourists, in the form of entrance fees, domestic airfares, accommodation and food, hiring charges of the guide, sale of local goods such as handicrafts and souvenirs and tax revenues levied on the above products are distributed among the population that is most likely to exploit the natural areas. Such a transfer of revenue establishes a direct link between conservation and personal income.

- The complex economic linkages transmit the impacts from those who sell goods and services to tourists to others in the local economy (who sells goods and services to the agents.) For example, hotels, restaurants and bars hire local workers, pay rents to locals, and purchase local "intermediate inputs" like fruits and vegetables, fish, meat etc. from the local markets and producers. Payments for these goods and services enter the economy, influencing the incomes of local agents who may not have any direct contact with tourists and also the local society who may be directly involved in the subject. These agents, in turn, stimulate new rounds of local expenditures that influence the income of still more local agents.
- Outside agents, including operators of boats also purchase locally supplied goods and hire local workers and the restaurant employees spend part of their wages to buy various goods and services from the local market, thereby generating induced impacts.
- Eco-tourism can be a tool not only to reduce poverty but also for the economic emancipation of local communities and the country as a whole. This study reveals that the future of eco-tourism in the Sundarbans is very positive and it will bring benefits for the locals as well as the whole economy.

9.0 Conclusion

Eco-tourism can generate economic benefits at local and national levels and thus promotes incentives to conserve the resources on which it depends on. In this context, the focus should be given on sustainable planning to flourish eco-tourism as a great potential for the economic development.

The goal of eco-tourism development in Bangladesh should be to capture a portion of the enormous global tourism market by attracting visitors to natural areas and by using the revenues, it is possible to fund local conservation and fuel economic development.

Eco-tourism can be a tool not only to reduce poverty but also for the economic emancipation of local communities and the country as a whole. It can also help addressing various dimensions of poverty and complement conservation efforts. Bangladesh, being easily accessible from many popular destinations in South Asia, enjoys a unique position to attract eco-tourists and can change the socio-economic scenario of the nation in near future.

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Socio-Economic Dimensions of Dowry as Matrimonial Function A Study on Three Selected Union Parishads of Bangladesh

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Abstract: This article is an attempt to focus on the extent of socio-economic dimensions of dowry as matrimonial function with special reference to three union parishad (UP) of Rural Bangladesh. The article is an abridged form of a study conducted under the revenue budget of BPATC. Different socio-economic dimensions related to dowry have been highlighted in this study. It is needless to mention that in Bangladesh, poor parents face several problems to marry their adult girls, since most of the problems related to marriage are the outcome of dowry. It is very difficult to appreciate the nature of dowry related problems without any proper empirical study and investigation. In this article the existing practices and provisions of dowry, its nature, justification for demanding dowry, sources of dowry money/items, social reactions towards dowry, spending pattern of the value of dowry and views of the civil society about dowry, causes and consequences have been examined. At the end of the report some ways and means have been suggested to improve the overall situation of this bad practice.

1.0 Introduction

Bangladesh is inheriting with economic, political, social and other complex problems. But social problems are very much distinctive, and dowry is one of the severe problems in this regard. In our society, dowry becomes an indication of social problems, which causes barrier to development. Population by sex counts almost 50% women in the country. However, most of the women in rural area become the victims of dowry, which is termed as social evil. In fact we can't imagine a society without the presence of women. Women of Bangladesh are in a vulnerable position in terms of marriage. Degradation of social value system, economic and educational disparities between men and women and poverty caused a lot of pressure to the poorer parents of adult girls in Bangladesh regarding marriage. A good number of people in the society are practicing dowry by ignoring social and religious values and obligations. Lack of women education and social security, lack of social awareness, lack of implementation of existing laws and rules, existing social customs, more dependency of women and business attitudes of the groom are some of the general causes of dowry in our society. Apart from these, the rich parents of bride become interested to have an established groom even at the cost of sufficient money and valuable goods and

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articles. The above-mentioned situation strongly prevails in rural society. To ensure a happy and peaceful future life of the daughter, parents offer dowry to the groom in the form of liquid cash and items at the cost of their tangible and intangible assets/property. But these do not ensure peaceful life and in most cases torture to bride becomes a common phenomenon. Even in some cases the bride becomes the victim of death. Physical torture, acid throwing, burning in fire, provocation to suicide, separation and divorce- remind us of the vulnerable position of women in our society.

Marriage is a bond of family; in the context of the continuity of "family" it is an institution. In rural Bangladesh, the poor parents face several problems to marry off their adult girls, since most of the problems are the outcomes of dowry. The poor parents of our country are often bound to meet the demand of the groom for settling marriage of their girls. In the above context, dowry has been approved as integral component of marriage. However, its modes of expressions vary from people to people depending on their educational, occupational, cultural and regional backgrounds.

Dowry refers to a marriage practice in our society where gifts of cash or other valuable items are given to the family of groom. This is a social practice carried out both in urban and rural areas in different manners according to the expectation and demands; however, in rural area reflection of dowry is more severe. Without understanding the problems related to marriage; it is virtually impossible to appreciate the nature of the problems related to marriage. For better understanding of the study the "conceptual issues" may be useful in this context. These are highlighted below:

2.0 Conceptual Issues

Marriage and Dowry in Different Religion: The curse of dowry is the outcome of various forms of marriage in different communities in this sub-continent.

2.1 Islamic Concept

Muslim marriage is a contract of civil nature with proposal (Izab) and acceptance (kabul) of which Mohar or dower is the consideration. Dower is recognized as one of the essential requirements of Mahamadan marriage while there is no system of dower in the marriage of the people

of other faiths. Islam has enjoined honourable status of woman almost equal to man so proportionate and dignified, those are till now unknown to the civilized world. It expelled out the ancient cruel attitude to woman and placed them in a position of honour and dignity². Allah has ordained in the Holy Quran:

"O mankind! Be careful of your duty to your Lord Who created you from a single soul and from it created its mate and from them twain hath spread abroad a multitude of men and women. Be careful of your duty toward Allah in Whom you claim (your rights) of one another, and towards the wombs (that bear you). Lo ! Allah hath been a Watcher over you"(4-1)." The Women are raiment for you (men) and you are raiment for them" (2-187). The prophet Mohammad (peace be on him) also laid much emphasis on the dignity of women which is evident from the following Hadiths: "The world and all things in the world are precious but the most precious thing in the world is a virtuous woman" (Muslim). "The best of you are they who behave best to their wives" (Tirmizi).

Marriage is a right of every adult man and woman. This is a holistic religious and social approach to lead the society to achieve desired goals. Marriage is a bond between two human beings of opposite sex. All sexual relations in Islam are within the framework of marriage. Thus, marriage has a forward link to children, a backward link to the parents of the brides/grooms, and a horizontal link with so many other in-laws. Marriage is not merely a "contract", because those who want their relationship to go beyond this life, for them they would be blessed with the eternal companionship of the ones they cherish [Farooq, 2000].

Islam provides comprehensive guidance for humanity to lead their lives both at personal and collective levels. The functionality of Islam is based on its holistic balance. Picking and choosing certain aspects for personal or social preference, without regard to the whole, may not produce the desired result. Sometimes such pick and choose approach may actually be counter-productive [2: al-Bakara: 208; 3: al-Imran: 7,20; 2: al-Bakara: 85]. Islam is based on mutual consultation (Shura) and choice of all the parties affected. This is applicable at family, social, national levels. [42/al-Shura/38]³. The essential sources of Islamic guidance are the Qur'an and the Sunnah. We are to be respectful to the opinions of our

² Khondaker Md. Abu Bakr, A Hand Book on The Dowry Prohibition Act, 1980 and The Cruelty to Women (Deter. ent Punishment) Ordinance, 1983, P. 5-6.

³ Farooq, Mohammad Omar, Ph.D. Women and Divorce in Bangladesh: An Islamic Perspective-2000, [for more details please see, <http://www.globalwebpost.com/farooq/writings/Islamic/divorce.html>].

pious and capable ancestors and their valuable contributions. However, we are not to imitate or follow them, we need fresh thinking and solutions. [2:al-Bakara: 170]⁴. Human experiences are valuable - no, indispensable - in understanding, interpreting and practicing Islam. There might be many autonomous contributions emanating from human experience that might not be in conflict with Islam. Many such human experiences may even help us to deal with our own incoherence or misunderstanding of Islam; for example, current system of popular or mass electoral system.[3:Al-Imran:137]. Islam is based on Fitrah (innate human nature). In understanding Islam, also common sense is an essential tool⁵. In Bangladesh as well as South Asia, in general, the Hanafi Fiqh (jurisprudence) is overwhelmingly predominant. However, Muslims, individually or as a community, are not required to adhere to any particular school, as long as any cross-school adjustment is not motivated by mix-and-match for mere convenience.⁶

A lot of the contents of Islamic Fiqh is written or analyzed from men's viewpoint. As in the last few centuries, there has been virtual absence of women scholars/experts in Islam, their input and perspective are absent in the development and formulation of Islamic laws and codes. This is a must for healthy Islamic development. In another respect Islamic Fiqh is seriously lacking: the problem-solving emphasis on seeking solution to "problems", the general orientation of Islamic Fiqh has remained dogmatic- deductive. This is especially true, if not more so, in our contemporary time. For example, Islamic scholars/experts formulating Fiqh regarding marriage and divorce might not have any exposure to the nature and extent of problems related to marriage and divorce. Such experts most likely would not or have not undertaken any study to ascertain the nature and extent of the problem before formulating or articulating the laws and office orders. Empiricism is a must for effective and empathetic solutions. Contemporary Islamic laws, i.e., human enunciation of Qur'anic and Prophetic provisions, might be grossly out of touch with the contemporary reality. One can consider, for example, the issue of the apostates (murtad).⁷

Another related problem is brides/grooms not knowing or seeing each

⁴ Ibid

⁵ Ibid

⁶ Ibid

⁷ Ibid.

other. There are some cases when bride/grooms don't see each other at all before their marriage. It is done for them. This is against the Islamic guidance. While Islam does not allow the western dating system, an important problem area is inadequate room for the prospective bride/groom to see and know each other. To see bride (kone dekha) the way it is done in our society is one-sided, which does not necessarily have any religious sanction. It is not that prospective groom will examine and interview the prospective bride, but not vice versa. Both sides have the right to be equal participant in the mutual examination and interview. It also seems that those who want to follow the Islamic guidance, don't want the prospective groom/bride to meet privately during the Kone Dekha. While it is a general Islamic guidance that non-Mahram (those among whom marriage is Islamically prohibited) men and women should not be alone by themselves, the practice of this in this context of marital decision process may have been overstretched. The basic religious parameter or concern about such issue is illicit physical contact among the non-Mahrams. Parents or families can work out a supervised environment (may be even in more than one sessions) to let the prospective men and women to get to be better acquainted. Once again, this is a voluntary matter. No coercion should be involved in this process.⁸

Mahar, mutually agreed upon by parties to marriage, is an Islamic requirement. Mahar is to be offered by the groom. There is no restriction on what or how much Mahar can/should be. However, it is desired that it should be according to groom's ability, and subject to bride's consent. Mahar can also serve as an economic protection for the wife.

2.2 Hindu Concept

Hindu marriage is regarded as a sacrament, which is a union of a man and woman for the whole life with no provision for separation from each other. This concept of marriage as such induced the widow to die with the husband in the same pyre known as "Satidaha." This cruel practice abolished and stopped by the Regulation number XVII of 1929. The condition of women was perhaps the worst of its type under the Hinduism. How the womanhood was being dealt with under the Hindu faith will be understood in the following verse of Manu⁹: "In childhood a female must be subjected to her father, in youth to her husband, when her lord is dead, to her sons; a woman must never be independent" (Manu V. 140).

⁸ Ibid.

⁹ Op.cit. (Khondaker Md. Abu Bakar), P. 6-7.

The Hindu marriage enjoins the characteristics of both the sacrament and a gift. The position of the husband in Hindu society in relation to the wife is most unequally high. A Hindu husband is considered to be in the position of lord and under such a conception a Hindu wife is said to have been a gift to the husband. At the time of the marriage a Hindu wife used to bring some presents for her lord, the husband which was known as 'Jautuk.' With the passage of time, this system of 'Jautuk' took the shape of dowry in the various forms of marriage among the different communities.¹⁰

2.2.1 Vedic Concept

The Vedas prescribe that dowry be given by the bride's family to the groom. Kakshivat in Rig Veda, for instance, says he became rich by his father-in-law giving him 10 Chariots and maids and 1060 cows during his marriage ceremony (Rig Veda 1. 126). Dowry is referred to as 'Streedhana' and is an ancient practice. This custom implied that women, in addition to being viewed as mere sex objects, were severe economic liabilities for the parents. The ancient Vedic custom of 'Kannyadan' where the father presented his daughter with jewelry and clothes at the time of her marriage, the 'Vardakshina' where the father presented the groom with cash and kind. The enormity of wealth bestowed to a daughter at the time of her marriage was a clear indication of the concern of her family in her and her children's future welfare.

3.0 Existing Laws Regarding Dowry in Bangladesh

The Dowry Prohibition Act, 1980 came into force on first October, 1981 vide notification number S.R.O. 276-6/81/JVII/77-2/81 dated 28.8.1981.¹¹ This act is very concise in form having only 9 sections enacted for a particular purpose of which section 6 has now been omitted. It is prohibitory in nature, the contraventions of the provisions of which have been made punishable under sections 3 and 4 of the Act. When a husband neglects his wife left uncared for elsewhere or ill behaves with her or tortures or threatens to divorce her for the purpose of realization of some money, property or valuable security after marriage, then this Act may be one of the check and balance tools to protect the bad practice. Details of the Act are stated below:

¹⁰ Ibid, P 7.

¹¹ Khondaker Md. Abu Bakar, A hand Book on The Dowry Prohibition Act, 1980 and The Cruelty to Women (Deterrent Punishment) Ordinance, 1983, P. 1-40.

The evils of dowries increased so enormously that it necessitated the passing of certain prohibitory laws. To check the threat of dowry, in India the Dowry Prohibition Act, 1961 and in Bangladesh, the Dowry prohibition Act, 1980 have been enacted. The definition of "dowry" under section 2 of Dowry Prohibition Act, 1980 is exactly the same as defined under section 2 of the Indian Dowry Prohibition Act, 1961.

This Act received the assent of the President and was published in the official Gazette on the twenty-sixth day of December 1980. It came into force on and from the 1st day of October, whereas it is expedient to make provision to prohibit the taking or giving of dowry in marriage;

It is hereby enacted as follows:

Section-1: Short Title and Commencement-

- a. This Act may be called the Dowry Prohibition Act, 1980.
- b. It shall come into force on such date as the Government may, by notification in the official Gazette, appoint.

Section 2 of The Dowry Prohibition Act, 1980 defines dowry as, "In this Act, unless there is anything repugnant in the subject or context, "dowry" means any property or valuable security given or agreed to be given either directly or indirectly -

- a. by one party to a marriage to the other party to the marriage; or
- b. by the parents of either party to a marriage or by any other person to either party to the marriage or to any other person; at the time of marriage or at any time before or after the marriage as consideration for the marriage of the said parties but does not include dower or Mahar in the case of persons to whom the Muslim personal law (Shariat) applies".

Section-3 of the Dowry Prohibition Act, 1980 reserves Penalty for Giving or Taking Dowry: If any person, after the commencement of this Act, gives or takes or abets the giving or taking of dowry, he shall be punishable with imprisonment which may extend to 'five years and shall not be less than one year, or with fine or with both.

Section-4 of the Dowry Prohibition Act, 1980 states Penalty for Demanding Dowry: If any person, after the commencement of this Act, demands, directly or indirectly, from the parents or guardian of a bride or bridegroom, as the case may be any dowry, he shall be punishable with imprisonment which may extend to five years and shall not be less than one year, or with fine, or with both.

Section-5 of the Dowry Prohibition Act, 1980 also states Agreement for Giving or Taking Dowry to be Void: Any agreement for the giving or taking of dowry shall be void.

4.0 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are to know the magnitude of the problem of marriage of rural poor girls, to document the nature and extent of payment of dowry, to learn about the sanctions and punishment systems against non-compliance of dowry, to understand the pattern of spending the money received as dowry and to make recommendations and suggestions to prevent payment of dowry and overcome the problems.

5.0 Methodology of the Study

This study was undertaken in selected three unions namely Nizra, Ulpur and Durgapur of Gopalganj Sadar Upazila, Gopalganj. The respondents including 60 parents of bride & grooms, 60 young men, 30 young women and 60 local people [local representatives/members of the civil society (imams, teachers & others)] were interviewed. The total number of respondents was 210. Data have been collected during November 2006 to February 2007. Number of different categories of respondents including the study areas may be seen in table-1.

Table-1: Location of the Sample Area and Corresponding Respondents

Sample Area				Categories and Number of Respondents				
District	Upazila	Union	Village	Parents	Youn Men (Groom)	Young Women (Bride)	Local People	Grand Total
Gopalganj	Gopalganj Sadar	Nizra	W.Nizra, Mol lakandi & Narikelhari	20	20	10	20	70
	Gopalganj Sadar	Ulpur	Ulpur, R. Khamar, Malenga, Tetulia & Paddabila	20	20	10	20	70
	Gopalganj Sadar	Durgapur	Durgapur & Khatiasgor	20	20	10	20	70
Total				60	60	30	60	210

6.0 Data Analysis

In this article analysis has been arranged into different categories. These are (i) demographic characteristics of the respondents, (ii) general opinions of the respondents, which include: a. extent of payment, perception/nature, justification and method of dowry, b. sanctions and punishment systems against non-compliance of dowry, c. the pattern of spending the money received as dowry d. measures to prevent payment of dowry (iii) report of the workshop and (iv) analysis of the court case.

Demographic Characteristics: The highest percentage (22.38%) of the respondents belonged to the age group of 30-39 years followed by the respondents of the 40-49 and 50-59 years age group (20.95% and 17.62 %). 95.23% of the respondents belonged to the active age group i.e., 15 to 59 years. 18% young men married at the age of less than 20 years, and for the young women this figure is 26.67%, which is a direct violation of the existing government acts and rules (Table-2, Appendix-I). Majority of the respondents (52.93%) belonged to the illiterate and junior high school level of education followed by 21.90% & 14.76% secondary & higher secondary level respectively. It was revealed that a significant number of young women and men (46.67% & 38.345 respectively) not even crossed the secondary level of education (Table-3, Appendix-II). Most of the respondents (51.67%) had the primary level of occupation. Young women mostly (33.33%) acted as housewife and 10% of them did not make any reply in this connection, 13.33% of the young men were unemployed (Table-4, Appendix-III). It is evident that more than one-third of the young women had no mentionable income (<Tk.2000/-). On the other hand, most of the young men (55%) had the income between Tk. 3,000/- to Tk. 6,000/- (details may be seen in Table-5, Appendix-IV).

Extent of Payment, Perception/Nature, Justification and Method of dowry: 38.33% young men received dowry amounting Tk. 15,000/- followed by 30% and 28.33% received Tk. 20,000/- & Tk. 30,000/- respectively. None of the young women respondents endorsed the view of men that the initial slab of dowry was Tk. 15,000/- and 13.33% of the bride informed that Tk. 45,000/- was given as dowry to the groom which was not acknowledged by none of the counter part (Table-6, Appendix-V). 93.33% young men, 90% of young women, 91.67 % local people and 86.67% parents viewed that cash should be treated as good provision of dowry, while 93.33% young women, 88.33% of parents and young men and 86.67% of local people considered gold as equally important as a form of dowry. Details may be seen in table-7, Appendix-VI. The opinions of parents, young men and local people for justifications for demanding dowry were "to set up a life of bride- grooms" and "to follow tradition of the society" respectively. But the young women identified "bride's share in parental property" as top justification of dowry (Table-8, Appendix-VII). All groups of the respondents preferred to "loan from relatives /friends and others" as the first method of mobilizing money of dowry (Table-9, Appendix-VIII).

Sanctions and Punishment Systems against Non-Compliance of Dowry: The brides were asked about their consent of providing dowry. Four situations were explored in this regard. Eighty-seven percent respondents opined that they have not given consent even they were not at all aware about this matter. However, 63.33% of them told that they were aware and not given consent. It was evident that some of them (43.33%) replied that they were unwilling to face this situation, but they had nothing but to accept the proposal, they were forced to sacrifice their cherished wishes-not to provide dowry in marriage even they were fully aware of the malpractice. Majority of them told that they have given consent, in spite of their awareness and surrendered to the evil condition, as it has been established as a social norm (Details in Table-10).

Table-10: Opinion of the Bride about the Dowry Given

Opinion	No. of respondents in %
No awareness and no consent	86.67
Is aware of, but does not give consent	63.33
Is aware of, but consent was obtained by coersive methods	43.33
Very well aware of and free consent was given by concerned women in full agreement as it is a established truth method of the society	53.33

Sources: Field Survey

Social responses towards marriage, where dowry is not paid are presented in Table-11, Appendix-IX. In this regards, 73.33%-parents viewed that "society would appreciate" and 75.00% of them opined that "status of grooms would be raised" if dowry is absent as a condition of marriage, more than 80% of young men and women also endorsed the views of the parents. On the other hand more than 80% young men, young women and local people acknowledged, "status of grooms would be raised" where dowry would not be paid. However, a good number (>50%) of the respondents thought that groom's fame would not be significantly affected for taking dowry. It is noticed that a large number of respondents were quite silent in this aspect. The table revealed that most of the respondents did not favour dowry as a feature of marriage.

The researchers tried to explore the probable consequences where dowry is not paid. In reality, it is often possible that women/ their parents/ guardians were not in a position to cope with the amount promised/ agreed upon to pay as dowry. If the promised amount was not given in full, or the money was delayed or deferred, in such cases, question was asked 'what could happen to the bride'. In such situations, respondents told that stay in the parent's house till demand are met, physical and

mental torture, threats of divorce & desertion, neglect in the family, use of abusive language, etc. might be faced by the bride. The young women strongly endorsed most of these consequences followed by the parents of bride and local people. Most of the young women replied that divorce could be one of the resulting factors in this situation. It is revealed that more than 66% of young women expressed: they were subject to deprivation from groom's love and affection, physical torture, overloading of household work, neglect by family members in case of non-payment of dowry. More than 76% of the bride opined that 'threat of desertion and divorce' is the frequent consequences for non-payment of dowry; a significant percent of other categories of respondents also endorsed this view. It was viewed by more than 60% respondents except young men that 'stay in the parent's house till demand are met' is one of the worse consequences the brides generally face in case of non-payment of dowry. It was revealed from the study that none of the respondents mentioned any event of suicide on account of non-payment of dowry. However, a good percentage of the respondents told that they do not know about the consequences of the dowry. Details in percentage may be shown in Table-12, Appendix-X.

It was found that both the girls and parents were telling same thing with same intensity of concern through out the study. The family faces lots of problems and hardship for providing dowry. Details may be shown in Table-13, Appendix-XI. 'Economic condition of the family became worse and they faced financial bankruptcy and its adverse consequences' due to dowry viewed by more than 80% of the respondents except young men. In this regard, 'lost of land property and other assets', 'negative consequence on future younger generation' and 'loss of honour in the society' were also opined by majority of the respondents. A fewer percentage of the respondents replied that they do not know the consequences.

The Pattern of Spending the Money Received as Dowry: It is revealed that 80% of the young men told that money received as dowry was used for 'purchase land, house & other properties'. 70% of the young women and 66.67% of local people also endorsed the similar views. Money of dowry was used for 'paying-back loans' was replied by 75% young men. However, only 30% young women endorsed their views. According to young women, the dowry amount is also used to 'invest in small business',

'deposit for future', 'buy household articles' and 'bribe for job security' etc. 68.33% of the local people opined that money given as dowry was used for 'unnecessary expenditure', 60% young women held the same opinion in this aspect. 65% young men replied that dowry money was spent for meeting the expenditure of marriage. It is evident from the table that most of local people endorsed the views of young women. A detailed account of the patterns of spending the dowry amount is illustrated in Table-14, Appendix-XII.

Measures to Prevent Dowry: The respondents suggested comprehensive measures to prevent dowry from the locality. It is revealed that 90% young women, 86.67% local people and 81.67% young men advocated for 'strict implementation of existing laws and rules' as a measure of prevention of dowry. 85% parents of bridegroom opined, it is important that 'young person should feel strongly that dowry is not relevant to marriage i.e. awareness creation' to prevent dowry. 86.67% local people and 81.67% young men endorsed their views. It was experienced that in some cases common citizens are not aware about the negative consequences of dowry due to lack of publicity. Hence, 'massive publicity of dowry laws and regulations among citizens' may be one of the pertinent ways to prevent dowry, were viewed by more than 80% young women, local people, parents and young men. And they also suggested to minimize the marriage expenditure to achieve the same. More than two-thirds parents, local people and young women respondents suggested to 'empower women through education', as one of the measures of dowry prevention. The information showed that a significant number of respondents are in favour of 'social isolation of the family giving/accepting dowry' as tools for the same. It was also revealed that in between 83.33%-86.67% parents, young women & local people and 78.33% young men advocated to 'follow religious obligation regarding dowry' for prevention it from the society. A significant number of respondents also viewed that motivational program should be launched by Union Parishad to reduce this bad practice. Details may be seen in Table-15 of Appendix-XIII.

Report of the Workshop: A Workshop was arranged as part of the study in the study area on 16 March 2007 at the Ulpur Union Parishad Hall Room. There were sixty-one participants who were personally invited to the workshop. The participants of the workshop were invited in consideration

to their long association and involvement with the problem of the localities and their commitment to the cause of women. This workshop was supposed to provide supplementary information for the project report. Since the purpose of the workshop was to critically assess and evaluate the study report and compare the data made available during the study period. A brief account of the study on the dowry with objectives, facts and figures, observations and existing legislative measures and legal protection against dowry were presented before the participants. All the participants were invited to join an open discussion/debate on the following aspects of the issues:

- a. To identify the major causes of practicing dowry and
- b. To take suggestions to prevent dowry from the locality.

The participants were invited to critically analyze and evaluate the procedure of the study and the findings as well. There was a very strong opinion among the participants that an imposition of social isolation on the man who kills his wife for dowry, he shall not be permitted to remarry. Participants opined that both the bride and groom should ethically and morally be well educated in terms of religious and existing education of marriage. The participants raised serious doubt about the eradication and elimination of dowry through proper legislative procedures, since every such step would be interfered by different influential sections of the society.

The workshop indicated the major role of media can bring the changes and improvements in society. Dowry related different problems might easily be checked and monitored by proper and timely media interventions. As an effective solution to the problem, a good number of participants suggested economic empowerment of female and their financial autonomy that will help them to be self supported, and these may be facilitated through educating women. The participants viewed their anxieties that now-a-days dowry is a common practice that went beyond the ritual of marriage. It was reflected that due to the dowry given to her, she loses her relationship with her parental family. The workshop also pointed out that degradation of the status of women becomes very influential factor in this respect; any attempt to remove the evil of dowry system, therefore, must start with raising the status and dignity of women in terms of women empowerment through awareness generation, education and skill development to achieve the goals. The participants of

the workshop unanimously recommended that both the women and men should be motivated and organized to get involved in this process. It was revealed that the lowest-income groups of the society became the worst victim of dowry. The workshop also recommended with a strong call to continue the campaign against dowry.

The participants of the workshop highlighted that one of the worst problems related to marriage in Islam in the context of our society is the issue of 'dowry'. "The common people do not know the very sharp difference between Dowry and Mahar. All the religious leaders should take the responsibility to make it clear to the people, so that they might not take and advocate for dowry at marriage". This was viewed by the participants.

Recommendations of the Workshop: The following recommendations were emerged from the workshop participants:

- i. Every girl should be given a minimum level of education so that they may understand the meaning of life,
- ii. Anti-dowry campaign should be made as a part of school curriculum,
- iii. Imam of Mosque in the 'Friday's Juma Khutba' may clarify the people that Mahar is a mandate for legalizing marriage and dowry is strictly prohibited in this regard, it is fully unislamic.
- iv. Mohaddes of madrashas should pursue to expand the campaign against dowry,
- v. Anti-dowry struggle should be made as part of the mainstream political struggle.
- vi. All political parties should incorporate total eradication of the dowry system from the country into their election manifesto,
- vii. Media should take initiatives against the consequences of giving and taking dowry, viii. Special programmes against dowry may be launched to motivate the young generation and thus it may bring the changes and improvements in society.

Analysis of Court Cases: The ten cases filed before the Cognizance Court of the Magistrate First Class, Gopalganj are briefly examined in this regard. Going through the facts of the cases, it becomes clear that torture-physical and mental, inhuman behaviour are always linked with a dispute of dowry. Most of the cases highlighted that it is not only the groom alone

- who played important role for claiming dowry and inflicting torture, but also the nearest family members of the groom (father & mother, sisters and brothers) are also responsible for this mal-practices. Most of the cases revealed that these were ultimately settled by arbitration, mutual agreement between two parties and the cases were withdrawn from the court for bi-lateral disposal. The magistrate of the court mentioned that most of the females in our society are financially insolvent and it is very difficult for them to run the cases. Hence they withdraw the case when the counter part shows simple sympathy to them. A good number of findings of the study have been confirmed and proved in the ten instances of dowry related cases taken from the court records.

7.0 Findings

a. Findings of the Study Areas

1. It is observed from the study that 18.34% young men got married at the age of less than 21 years and for the young women this figure is 26.67%, who got married at the age of less than 18 years which is a direct violation of the existing Act and Rules; where the permitted age of marriage for the bride and groom is 18 and 21 years respectively .
2. A significant number of young women and men (46.67% & 38.34% respectively) did not even cross the secondary level of education at the time of marriage. But fact is, practice of dowry and level of education are inversely related in our society.
3. None of the young women holds the occupation of government service and most of them are housewife, on the other hand more than one-third of the young men depend on primary level of occupation (agriculture, agriculture day labour, construction labour, rickshaw/van pulling etc.), 13.33% of them are unemployed and 5% did not make any reply in this regard. It indicates the both the groups may not be well aware of the adverse consequences of dowry. It is depicted that more than one-third of the young women had no mentionable income. On the other hand, most of the young men (55%) had the income between Tk.3,000/- to 6,000/- only which is insufficient to maintain their family and it may be one of the causes of existence of dowry in the society.

4. None of the young women respondents endorsed the view of men that the initial slab of dowry was Tk. 15,000/- and 13.33% of the bride informed that Tk. 45,000/- was given as dowry to the groom, which was not acknowledged by any of the counter part.
5. It has been observed that all types of respondents prefer ornaments and liquid cash as dowry followed by household articles and marriage expenses. Parents prefer to give their girls ornaments rather cash in hand.
6. Eighty-seven percent respondents opined that they have not given consent of practicing dowry even they were not at all aware about this matter. About two-thirds of them informed that they were aware and not given consent. It was evident that two-fifths replied that they were unwilling to face this situation, but they had nothing but accept the proposal, they were forced to sacrifice their cherished wishes-not to provide dowry in marriage even they were fully aware of the mal practice. Majority of them told that they surrendered to the evil condition as it has been established as a social norm.
7. It was opined by most of the respondents that "society would appreciate" and "status of grooms would be raised" if dowry is absent as a condition of marriage. More than eighty percent young men, young women and local people acknowledged that "status of grooms would be raised" where dowry would not be paid.
8. The respondents told that stay in the parents house till demands of dowry are met, physical and mental torture, threats of divorce & desertion, neglect in the family, use of abusive language, etc. might be faced by the bride if the promised amount of dowry was not given in full, or the money was delayed or deferred due to insolvency of the bride's parents/ guardian..
9. It was found that the family faces lots of problems and hardship for providing dowry. 'Economic condition of the family became worse and they faced financial bankruptcy and its adverse consequences', 'loss of land property and other assets', 'negative consequence on future younger generation' and 'loss of honour in the society' as a consequence to meet the demand of dowry.
10. Most of the respondents replied that items of dowry (cash and kind) were used for 'purchase of land, house & other properties', 'paying-back loans'. However, most of the young women did not endorse

these views. The young women opined that the dowry amount was used for 'investment in small business', 'deposit for future use', 'buying household articles' and 'bribes for job security' etc. More than two-thirds of the local people opined that money given as dowry was used for 'unnecessary items of expenditure', and most of the parents and young women held the same opinion in this aspect. Most of the parents, local people and young men replied that dowry money was spent for meeting the expenditure of marriage, which may be avoided.

11. Suggestions of the respondents to prevent dowry are reflected in study. These include, 'strict enforcement of existing laws and rules', 'young person should feel strongly that dowry is not relevant to marriage i.e. awareness creation', 'massive publicity of dowry laws & regulations among citizens', 'empower women through education', 'social isolation of the family giving/accepting dowry', 'follow religious obligation regarding dowry'. Apart from the above suggestions most of the respondents advocated that motivational program should be launched by union parishads to reduce this bad practice as a measure of prevention of dowry.

b. Findings of the Workshop

Every girl should be educated so that they may understand the real meaning of life through awareness generation, education and skill development. Both the bridegroom should ethically and morally be well educated in terms of religious and existing education of marriage. Anti-dowry campaign should be made as a part of school curriculum. A national campaign to abolish dowry system is mandatory. Anti-dowry struggle should be made as part of the mainstream political struggle. All political parties should incorporate total eradication of the dowry system from the country into their election manifesto. Women and men should be motivated and organized to get involved in the process of anti-dowry practices. Religious groups and leaders must devote themselves and take steps in the awareness building and motivation against dowry. The imams of mosques and mohaddes of madrasahs should pursue to expand the campaign against dowry. Media should take initiatives against the consequences of giving and taking dowry, special programmes against dowry may be launched in television and radio to motivate the young generation and thus it may bring the changes and improvements in society.

c. Findings of the Cases of the Court

Torture- physical and mental, inhuman behaviors are always linked with a dispute of dowry. Most of the cases were ultimately settled by arbitration, mutual agreement between two parties and the cases were withdrawn from the court for bi-lateral disposal. The concerned Magistrates viewed that due to economic insolvency, poor status & position of the petitioners and earnest request of the respondents, the petitioners ultimately agreed to withdraw the cases. Average required time for disposal the cases was 18.1 months; and the maximum & minimum required time for the same was 37 and 7 months respectively. It was evident from the file that out of 10 annotated cases, concerned Magistrate approved to withdraw 5 cases as per the request/ prayer of the petitioners. The reason of withdrawn of cases by the petitioners could not be found out in the files. It may so happen that the local arbitrary board/union parishad took the responsibility to settle the matter and the result might favour the petitioner. The magistrate of the court endorsed this view.

For 3 cases, out of 10, it was proved that the allegation was quite true and the accused was given rigorous imprisonment from 1 to 4 years, and for 2 cases it was proved that the allegation was false.

8.0 Recommendations and Conclusion

8.1 Recommendations

The following recommendations/suggestions have been made in the light of the study on dowry as policy measures. Government, local bodies, religious institutes, non-governmental organizations and law enforcing agencies may find these useful as action strategies:

1. Awareness Creation: To prevent dowry it is necessary to create social awareness among all sections of people, 'young person should feel strongly that dowry is not relevant to marriage, 'massive publicity of dowry laws & regulations among citizens', 'empower women through education' may be important tools of increasing awareness against dowry in the society.
2. Appreciation of Non-dowry Marriage: Bill boards, banner, poster etc. should be displayed in the open spaces indicating, "society would appreciate" and "status of grooms would be raised" if dowry is absent as a condition of marriage.

3. Birth Certificate for Bridegroom should be an Obligatory During Marriage: The concerned department of the government specially the local bodies should strictly maintain and supervise the minimum age requirement for marriage. And in this connection, producing birth certificate both for the bride and the groom should be an obligation during marriage registration. Local bodies should come forward to issue birth certificate in the localities.
4. Education for Girls: Every girl should be educated so that they may understand the meaning of life through awareness generation. Anti-dowry campaign should be made as a part of school curriculum. Girls should be given at least secondary level of education before marriage, so that they can understand the real meaning of marriage and conjugal life. Both the bride and the groom should ethically and morally be well educated in terms of religious and existing education of marriage. This will help to protect the practice of dowry.
5. Role of Religious Leaders: Religious groups and leaders must devote themselves and take steps for the awareness building and motivation against dowry. The imams of mosques and Mohaddes of madrasahs should pursue to expand the campaign against dowry. Religious leaders should take interest to spread the lessons/teachings of the evil of dowry in the light of religious books.
6. Recognition of Bride's Share in Parental Property: The society should recognize that "bride's share in parental property as her right" and this right should be offered by the family members as general practice and norm; concerned girl and every body else should have a clear idea of how much she would be entitled to receive. During this period, from the date of her marriage to the date of the transfer of the property in her name, she should be entitled to the income from the property, if so applicable; it will help to reduce the mentality of groom's family to hanker after dowry.
7. Execution of Dowry Prohibition Act: Government should take necessary steps to enforce the Dowry Prohibition Act effectively and efficiently. Physical separations, torture, assaults, mental torture, threats, suicides, neglect in the family, hard work, abusive language, starvation etc. may be treated as severe criminal offences

under this Act. Strict implementation of existing laws and rules is a mandate and punishment must be enforced.

8. Introduce Anti-dowry and Pro-mahar National Campaign: A national campaign to abolish dowry and evil social system is mandatory, public protest should be organized against dowry. Social isolation of the family giving/accepting dowry should be standard norm and steps should be taken to encourage and promote non-dowry marriages.

In the 'Friday's Juma Khutba', 'imams of mosques' may brief the people that mahar is a mandate for legalizing marriage and dowry is strictly prohibited in this regard, it is fully unislamic.

9. Role of Political Parties: Political parties should stand against dowry. All political parties may launch such programmes so that practice of dowry would be dishonoured in the society. And this should be incorporated in their election manifesto.
10. Proper Role of Media: Media should take initiatives against the consequences of giving and taking dowry, special programmes against dowry may be launched in television and radio to motivate the young generation and thus it may bring the changes and improvements in society.
11. Provide Legal and Financial Assistance: The petitioner (bride) should be given legal and financial assistance to run the case. Because, it was evident that most of the cases were withdrawn from the court for bi-lateral disposal at the time of final verdict and cases were ultimately settled by arbitration, in spite of the merit of the cases. In most of the cases economic insolvency, poor status & position, the petitioners ultimately agreed to withdraw the cases. Hence, to overcome this unexpected and unwilling behaviour of the brides, government should come forward to assist them in terms of legal (appointing government lawyers without fee) and financial support, so that proper justice could be ensured in this regard.

8.2 Conclusion

Dowry is a curse and evil. But in fact, it has been approved as an integral component of marriage. However its modes of expressions vary from people to people, depending their educational, occupational, cultural, regional and ethnic backgrounds. Dowry in cash and gold (ornaments) occupy either first or second priority for all sections of society - young and old, women and men, rural and urban, higher and lower education groups as well.

As dowry has been recognized as an integral part of marriage in rural poor families, consensus among all a sections of people is a must to escape from this. Hence, awareness building, strong publicity against dowry, female education and empowerment, role of religious leaders, execution of the related laws and rules should be a mandate to come out from the inhuman term -dowry.

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Appendix-I

Table-2: Age Distribution Pattern of the Respondents

Age in year	Respondnets				Grand Total
	Parents of bride-groom	Young Men	Young women	Local People	
15-17	-	4(6.67)	8(26.67)	-	12(5.71)
18-20	-	7(11.67)	10(33.33)	-	17(8.10)
21-25	-	10(16.67)	7(23.33)	-	17(8.10)
26-29	-	14(23.33)	3(10.00)	9(15.00)	26(12.38)
30-39	13(21.67)	17(28.33)	2(6.67)	15(25.00)	47(22.38)
40-49	24(40.00)	8(13.33)	-	12(20.00)	44(20.95)
50-59	19(31.67)	-	-	18(30.00)	37(17.62)
60-69	3(5.00)	-	-	6(10.00)	9(4.29)
70+	1(1.67)	-	-	-	1(0.48)
Grand Total	60(100.00)	60(100.00)	30(100.00)	60(100.00)	210(100.00)

Sources : Field Survey

*Figures in the parenthesis indicate percentage.

Appendix-II

Table-3: Educational Status among Different Groups

Level of Education	Respondnets				Grand Total
	Parents	Young Men	Young women	Local People	
Illiterate	6(10.00)	3(5.00)	2(6.67)	5(8.33)	16(8.11)
Can Sing only	7(11.67)	4(6.67)	3(10.00)	6(10.00)	20(9.52)
Primary	9(15.00)	6(10.00)	5(16.67)	10(16.67)	30(14.28)
Junior High	18(30.00)	10(16.67)	4(13.33)	11(18.33)	43(20.48)
Secondary	9(15.00)	19(31.67)	8(26.67)	10(16.67)	46(21.90)
Higher Secondary	6(10.00)	12(20.00)	5(16.67)	8(13.33)	31(14.76)
Bachelor/Degree	2(3.33)	5(8.33)	1(3.33)	6(10.00)	14(6.67)
No Response	3(5.00)	1(1.67)	2(6.67)	4(6.67)	10(4.76)
Grand Total	60(100.00)	60	30	60	210(100.00)

Sources : Field Survey

*Figures in the parenthesis indicate percentage

Appendix-III

Table-4: Occupational Status of the Respondents

Occupation	Respondents				
	Parents	Young Men	Young women	Local People	Grand Total
Agriculture	8(13.33)	5(8.33)	-	6(10.00)	19(9.05)
Agriculture day labour	7(11.67)	3(5.00)	1(3.33)	5(8.33)	16(7.62)
Wage(Construction labour)	6(10.00)	5(8.33)	3(10.00)	5(8.33)	19(9.05)
Rickshaw/ Van Pulling	7(11.67)	9(15.00)	-	4(6.67)	20(9.52)
Service(Govt.)	3(5.00)	1(1.67)	-	7(11.67)	11(5.24)
Service(Pvt.+NGO)	2(3.33)	2(3.33)	1(3.33)	9(15.00)	14(6.67)
Business(Commerce/ Small Business	9(15.00)	11(18.33)	4(13.33)	12(20.00)	36(17.14)
Fishing	3(5.00)	4(6.67)	-	-	7(3.33)
Unemployed	-	8(13.33)	2(6.67)	-	10(4.76)
Self-employee	6(10.00)	7(11.67)	4(13.33)	9(15.00)	26(12.38)
Housewife	3(5.00)	-	10(33.33)	-	13(6.19)
No response	4(6.67)	3(5.00)	2(6.67)	1(1.67)	10(4.76)
Others	2(3.33)	2(3.33)	3(10.00)	2(3.33)	9(4.29)
Total	60(100.00)	60(100.00)	30(100.00)	60(100.00)	210(100.00)

Sources: Field Survey

*Figures in the parenthesis indicate percentage

Appendix-IV

Table-5: Monthly Income of the Respondents

Income (In Tk.)	Young Men	Young women
Less than 2000	3(5.00)	11(36.67)
2000-3000	4(6.67)	5(16.67)
3000-4000	11(18.33)	4(13.33)
4000-5000	12(20.00)	2(6.67)
5000-6000	10(16.67)	-
6000-7000	5(8.33)	-
7000-8000	3(5.00)	-
8000-9000	2(3.33)	-
9000-10,000	3(5.00)	-
10,000+	2(3.33)	-
No response	5(8.33)	8(26.67)
Grand Total	60(100.00)	30(100.00)

Sources: Field Survey

Figures in the parenthesis indicate percentage.

Appendix- V

Table-6: Dowry Received and Given by the Respondents

Dowry in Taka	No. of Respondents	
	Young Men (Groom) Received Dowry	Young Women (Bride) Given Dowry
15,000/-	23(38.33)	0 (00.00)
20,000/-	18(30.00)	7(23.33)
30,000/-	17(28.33)	8(26.67)
35,000/-	1(1.67)	6(20.00)
40,000/-	1(1.67)	5(16.67)
45,000/-	-	5(13.33)
Total	60(100.00)	30(100.00)

Sources: Field Survey

*Figures in the parenthesis indicate percentage

Appendix- VI

Table-7: Perception about Components of Dowry

Component	Respondents											
	Parents n=60			Young Men(Groom) n=60			Young Women (Bride) n=30			Local People n=60		
	Yes	No	Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know
Liquid cash	86.67	8.33	5.00	93.33	5.00	1.67	90.00	6.67	3.33	91.67	5.00	3.33
Ornaments	88.33	6.67	5.00	88.33	8.33	3.33	93.33	3.33	3.33	86.67	8.33	5.00
Marriage expenses	71.67	13.33	15.00	63.33	21.67	15.00	80.00	23.33	16.67	60.00	25.00	15.00
Households articles, Khat, TV, Freez etc	73.33	15.00	11.67	66.67	21.67	11.67	73.33	20.00	6.67	63.33	23.33	13.33
Cloths for relatives and bride	55.00	23.33	21.67	50.00	36.67	13.33	56.67	26.67	16.67	51.67	35.00	13.33
Job/offer of job	48.33	26.67	25.00	58.33	25.00	16.67	50.00	26.67	23.33	60.00	21.67	18.33
To meet Educational Expenses	36.67	31.67	28.33	40.00	35.00	25.00	40.00	36.67	23.33	36.67	36.67	26.67
Agriculture, land/Property	33.33	35.00	31.67	50.00	21.67	28.33	36.67	33.33	30.00	46.67	23.33	30.00
Cow for cultivation	31.67	33.33	35.00	56.67	25.00	18.33	43.33	40.00	16.67	53.33	26.67	20.00
Home/Home stead land	28.33	35.00	36.67	45.00	40.00	15.00	40.00	50.00	10.00	40.00	41.67	18.33
Fixed deposit	25.00	33.33	41.67	18.33	48.33	33.33	30.00	56.67	13.33	15.00	50.00	35.00
Vehicles	30.00	28.33	38.33	40.00	31.67	28.33	33.33	46.67	20.00	33.33	35.00	31.67
To meet the demand for certain period	26.67	30.00	43.33	23.33	41.67	35.00	16.67	60.00	23.33	20.00	43.33	36.67

Sources: Field Survey

Appendix- VII

Table-8: Justification of Demanding Dowry

Responses	Young Men n=25			Young Women n=6			Local People n=30		
	Yes	No	Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know
Groom's sister was paid dowry to getback what was lost	56.00	24.00	20.00	33.33	50.00	16.67	60.00	26.67	13.33
To follow tradition of the society	64.00	20.00	16.00	50.00	33.33	16.67	73.33	16.67	1.00
It is bride's share in Parental property	44.00	36.00	20.00	66.67	16.67	16.67	43.33	40.00	16.67
To compensate educational/ job expenses of the groom	32.00	40.00	28.00	33.33	50.00	16.67	40.00	43.33	16.67
To maintain regular expenses of their first life	52.00	28.00	20.00	50.00	16.67	33.33	33.33	43.33	23.33
To set up a life of bride- grooms	60.00	24.00	16.00	33.33	33.33	33.33	46.67	40.00	13.33
To have a good groom (educated & established)	48.00	28.00	24.00	50.00	33.33	16.67	70.00	20.00	10.00

Sources: Field Survey

Appendix- VIII

Table-9: Methods of Mobilizing the Money of Dowry

Methods	Parents of bride n=30			Young Men (groom) n=60			Young Women n=30			Local People n=60		
	Yes	No	Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know
Self deposited money	16.65	66.70	16.65	11.67	56.67	31.66	10.00	56.67	33.33	18.33	55.00	26.67
Loan from relatives /friends and others	70.03	13.32	16.65	68.33	13.33	18.34	73.33	13.33	13.34	68.33	13.33	18.34
Loan against land	19.99	66.69	13.32	20.00	70.00	10.00	20.00	73.33	6.67	23.33	66.67	10.00
Loan against interest (non-institutional)	66.70	23.30	10.00	63.33	26.67	10.00	60.00	13.33	26.67	61.67	28.33	10.00
Loan against interest (institutional)	16.65	70.03	13.32	15.00	70.00	15.00	10.00	73.33	16.67	20.00	65.00	15.00
Sales of assets (livestock/poultry) gold & etc.	56.61	33.39	10.00	51.67	36.67	11.66	46.67	40.00	13.33	53.33	35.00	11.67
Dowry received for brother	23.30	43.40	33.30	16.67	46.33	35.00	13.33	50.00	36.67	25.00	41.67	33.33
Corruption/theft and other unlawful means	6.67	80.00	13.33	5.00	76.67	18.33	6.67	80.00	13.33	11.67	75.00	13.33
Land saling	10.00	73.35	16.65	6.67	75.00	18.33	3.33	80.00	16.67	13.33	75.00	11.67

Sources: Field Survey

Appendix-IX

Table-11: Social Responses Towards Marriage, where Dowry is not Paid

Response	Parents n=60			Young Men n=60			Young Women n=30			Local people n=60		
	Yes	No	Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know
Society appreciates	73.33	11.67	15.00	83.33	6.67	10.00	80.00	6.67	13.33	58.33	30.00	11.67
Society does not appreciate	33.33	35.00	31.67	23.33	61.67	15.00	20.00	50.00	30.00	28.33	38.33	33.24
There may be alternative arrangement if not dowry	56.67	23.33	20.00	35.00	51.67	13.33	26.67	56.67	16.67	38.33	41.67	20.00
Groom's fame has fallen	18.33	51.67	30.30	13.33	65.00	21.67	13.33	66.67	20.00	15.00	58.35	26.67
Groom's status raised	75.00	11.67	13.33	81.67	8.33	10.00	83.33	10.00	6.67	80.00	10.00	10.00
Groom's social status diminishes	15.00	68.33	16.67	11.67	73.33	15.00	6.67	35.00	8.33	10.00	70.00	20.00

Sources: Field Survey

Appendix-X

Table-12: Consequences of Non-payment of Dowry, a Bride may Face

Consequences	Parents of Bride n=30			Young Women n=30			Local people n=60		
	Yes	No	Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know
Divorce	53.29	26.65	20.06	53.33	26.67	20.00	50.00	13.33	21.67
Stay in the parent house till demand are met	70.00	16.66	13.34	63.33	23.33	13.34	61.67	21.67	16.66
Physical torture	63.35	23.31	13.34	70.00	13.33	16.67	56.67	23.33	20.00
Overloading of household work to bride	60.00	26.65	13.34	66.67	20.00	13.33	51.67	28.33	20.00
Mental torture	50.02	33.32	16.66	56.67	23.33	20.00	50.00	33.33	16.67
Non-cooperation from family members	30.00	46.69	23.31	60.00	16.67	23.33	40.00	28.33	31.67
Deprives from groom's love and affection	56.69	26.65	16.66	73.33	10.00	16.67	55.00	21.67	23.33
Looses love & affection of the groom's family	50.02	26.65	23.31	63.33	20.00	16.67	38.33	20.00	21.67
Can't express opinion in the family affairs	56.69	30.00	13.34	66.67	13.33	20.00	60.00	26.67	13.33
Murder	26.65	56.69	16.66	46.67	30.00	23.33	30.00	41.67	28.33
Loosing status in the family	60.01	26.65	13.34	63.33	23.33	13.33	65.00	13.33	21.67
Neglected by family members	50.02	36.64	13.34	70.00	16.67	13.33	51.67	25.00	23.33
Neglected by members of the society (neighbour & relatives)	26.65	56.69	16.66	56.67	20.00	23.33	20.00	60.00	20.00
Threat of desertion and divorce	66.69	23.31	10.00	76.66	13.33	10.00	71.67	13.33	15.00

Sources: Field Survey

Appendix-XI

Table-13: Consequences Faced by Family for Giving Dowry

Consequences	Parents n=60			Young Men n=60			Young Women n=30			Local people n=60		
	Yes	No	Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know
Lost of land proeprty and other assets	65.00	15.00	20.00	56.67	11.67	31.66	76.67	10.00	13.33	70.00	8.33	21.67
Economic condition became worse, financial bankruptcy and its consequences	85.00	6.67	8.33	76.67	10.00	13.33	83.33	6.67	10.00	80.00	11.67	8.33
Negative consequence on future younger generation	75.00	13.33	11.67	61.67	13.33	25.00	73.33	10.00	16.67	81.67	5.00	13.33
Disharmomy in the brides family	61.67	15.00	23.33	43.33	33.33	23.33	66.67	13.33	20.00	50.00	33.33	16.67
Disharmomy in the grooms family	36.67	41.67	21.66	35.00	46.67	18.33	30.00	53.33	16.67	40.00	38.33	21.67
Loss the social status	43.33	36.67	20.00	46.67	35.00	18.33	63.34	13.33	23.33	58.33	13.33	28.33
Loss the honour in the society	61.67	11.67	26.66	53.33	31.67	15.00	70.00	10.00	20.00	65.00	8.33	26.67
Emotional stress And its consequences	73.33	11.67	15.00	68.33	13.33	18.34	76.67	6.67	16.67	80.00	11.67	8.33

Sources: Field Survey

Appendix-XII

Table-14: Spending Pattern of Dowry

Spending Pattern	Young Men n=60			Young Women n=30			Local people n=60		
	Yes	No	Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know
Pay-back loans	75.00	11.67	8.33	30.00	53.33	16.67	60.00	26.67	13.33
Buy ornaments for bride	38.33	33.33	28.34	36.67	40.00	23.33	33.33	45.00	21.67
Purchase land house & other proeprties	80.00	11.67	8.33	70.00	13.33	16.67	66.67	23.33	10.00
Investment in small business	51.67	28.33	20.00	40.00	23.33	36.67	40.00	36.67	23.37
Deposited for future	45.00	40.00	15.00	33.33	20.00	46.67	45.00	36.67	18.33
Purchase vehicle	61.67	23.33	15.00	53.33	26.67	20.00	53.33	21.67	25.00
Buy household articles	40.00	46.67	13.33	43.33	23.33	33.33	45.00	35.00	20.00
Bribe for job security	48.33	23.33	28.33	40.00	33.33	26.67	35.00	41.67	23.33
Meeting marriage expenditure	65.00	20.00	15.00	66.67	20.00	13.33	53.33	31.67	15.00
Purchase customary gift for relatives	20.00	46.67	33.33	20.00	43.33	36.67	20.00	55.00	25.00
Unnecessary Expenditure	50.00	30.00	20.00	60.00	16.67	23.33	68.33	20.00	11.67

Sources: Field Survey

Appendix-XIII

Table-15: Suggestions of the Respondents to Prevent Dowry

Responses	Parents n=60			Young Men n=60			Young Women n=30			Local people n=60		
	Yes	No	Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know
Massive publicity of dowry laws & regulations among citizens	81.67	5.00	13.35	80.00	6.67	13.33	86.67	3.33	10.00	83.33	5.00	11.67
Strict implementation of existing law & rules	78.33	8.33	13.34	81.67	3.33	15.00	90.00	3.33	6.67	86.67	5.00	8.33
Social isolation of the family giving/accepting dowry	71.67	13.33	15.00	68.33	20.00	11.67	80.00	6.67	13.33	81.67	6.67	11.66
Minimize wedding expenses formalities	83.33	5.00	11.67	76.67	16.67	6.66	86.67	6.67	6.67	85.00	5.00	10.00
Young person should feel strongly that dowry is not relevant in case of marriage/ awareness creation	85.00	6.67	8.33	81.67	8.33	10.00	86.67	3.33	10.00	86.67	3.33	10.00
Education for Women Empowerment	81.67	5.00	13.33	71.67	11.67	16.66	86.67	6.67	6.67	81.67	5.00	13.33
Modify existing culture etc. among parents/couple	80.00	8.33	11.67	75.00	10.00	15.00	83.33	6.67	10.00	83.33	6.67	10.00
Follow religious obligation regarding dowry	83.33	-	16.67	78.33	3.33	18.34	86.67	3.33	10.00	85.00	5.00	10.00
Provide motivational program by Union parishad representatives against dowry	71.67	15.00	13.33	66.67	15.00	18.33	70.00	13.33	16.67	78.33	10.00	11.67

Sources: Field Survey