

৩৮

ISSN 1605-2021

লোক-প্রশাসন সাময়িকী
অষ্টাত্রিংশতম সংখ্যা
মার্চ ২০০৬/ফাল্গুন ১৪১২

লোক প্রশাসন সাময়িকী



বাংলাদেশ লোক-প্রশাসন প্রশিক্ষণ কেন্দ্র
সাভার, ঢাকা

লোক-প্রশাসন সাময়িকী

অষ্টাতিংশত্তম সংখ্যা, মার্চ ২০০৬/ফাল্গুন ১৪১২

সম্পাদনা পরিষদ

মুহাম্মদ হারুন চৌধুরী

মোঃ সিরাজুল ইসলাম

মোঃ মাহামুদ-উল-হক

কঙ্কা জামিল

মোঃ শফিকুল হক

মোঃ কায়েসুজ্জামান

সম্পাদক

মোঃ সানোয়ার জাহান ভূঁইয়া

লোক-প্রশাসন সাময়িকী

(বাংলাদেশ লোক-প্রশাসন প্রশিক্ষণ কেন্দ্রের ত্রৈমাসিক জার্নাল)

অষ্টাত্রিংশত্তম সংখ্যা, মার্চ ২০০৬/ফাল্গুন ১৪১২

প্রকৃত প্রকাশকাল : জুন ২০০৯/জ্যৈষ্ঠ ১৪১৬

সম্পাদক : মোঃ সানোয়ার জাহান ভূইয়া

টেলিফোন : ৭৭১০০১০-১৬ (পিএবিএক্স)
ফ্যাক্স : ৭৭১০০২৯
সম্পাদকের ই-মেইল : sanwarsamia@gmail.com
ওয়েব সাইট : http://www.bpatc.org.bd
বিপিএটিসি গ্রন্থাগার : ৩৫১.০০০৫
প্রচ্ছদ : নারায়ন সরকার
মূল্য : ১৮০ টাকা
US \$ 10

মুদ্রণ : তিত্তী প্রিন্টিং এন্ড প্যাকেজিং

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

ফোন : ৯৫৫০৪১২, ৯৫৫৩৩০৩

LOK PROSHASON SAMOEKY

(Quarterly Journal of Bangladesh Public Administration Training Centre)

Vol. 38, March 2006/Falgun 1412

Actual Time of Publication : June 2009/Jaisthya 1416

Editor : Md. Sanwar Jahan Bhuiyan

Telephone : 7710010-16 (PABX)
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

Future of Trade Unions: A Study on the United Kingdom and Lessons for Bangladesh	১
<i>Md. Sharif Hasan</i>	
Necessity of Leadership Skills for Project Manager	২৩
<i>Sayed Farrukh Ahmed</i>	
<i>Mohammad Ahshanullah</i>	
<i>Dewan Niamul Karim</i>	
Problems, Factors and Consequences Associated with South Asian Women in Realising Their Rights to Sexual and Reproductive Well-being	৩৩
<i>Anisur Rahman Khan</i>	
Application of e-Governance in Development Administration: A Study of Prospects and Challenges in Bangladesh	৪৯
<i>Mohammad Shafiqul Islam</i>	
<i>Mohammad Nashir Uddin</i>	
একক ও দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের বৈবাহিক সমৃদ্ধি: একটি সমীক্ষা ড. নিয়াজ আহমেদ	৬৩
Education Streams in Bangladesh Parents' Thinking and Students' Performance	৮৩
<i>Mallick Anwar Hossain</i>	

Future of Trade Unions: A Study on the United Kingdom and Lessons for Bangladesh

Md. Sharif Hasan*

Abstract: Trade union movement has been playing a significant role in the fields of British employment relations as well as national politics. But trade unions have been conceding decline in respect of their membership, density and role in the political arena since the Conservative government was sworn on in power in 1979. Historically, the British Labour Party has been originated from the combine of a number of trade unions in 1906. But after the return of the Labour Party to power in 1997, the trade unions have not been able to regain their strength as expected but the declining trend has been slowed down. A number of factors e.g. governmental policies, decline in British manufacturing sector, emergence of virtual organisations, increase of flexi time and part time workers, etc. have led to the weakening of the trade unions. On the other hand, a number of factors including urgency of a common platform for protecting employees' interest specially, against unemployment, merger among unions, training and development, economic emancipation, feminisation of workforce are keeping the hope for trade unions alive. In this article, attempts have been made to analyse the current trend as well as to predict the future trend of trade union movement in Britain. Attempts have also been made to have glimpse on the nature and growing trends of trade unions in Bangladesh.

1.0 Introduction

In this era of global competition, competitive advantage lies in the quality of the products/services, not just in price (Deakin and Wilkinson 1995)). A trained and motivated workforce willing to accept change is the pre-condition to produce high quality goods. Minimum labour standards prevent employers from competing on the basis of a wage reduction strategy. They provide incentives for employers to have competitive advantage by improving the quality of the products and services by introducing new technology, improving the labour utilisation and enhancing workforce's skills (Gennard, 1998). Employee participation in management decision making is believed to increase employees' commitment to their employer. It improves co-operation with employers (TUC, 1997). Employees can participate in management activities through trade union. Trade unions aim to protect and advance the interests of its members by negotiating with employers on pay and work

* Assistant Director, Bangladesh Public Administration Training Centre, Savar, Dhaka.

conditions. In some cases it also provides legal advice, financial assistance, sickness benefits and educational facilities (www.acas.org.uk/faqs/trade_union.html).

2.0 History of Trade Union

There is a popular belief that trade unions are the products of the factory system. But they were in existence much earlier, in the mediaeval craft guilds, established to control entry to crafts and ensure that artisans were not overwhelmed by numbers; and to ensure a degree of price control. In short, they were about controlling the market. Guilds were also concerned with providing mutual aid to dependents; in the absence of state protection in case of illness, they were forerunners of friendly or mutual societies. With the expansion of the market in the eighteenth century, a number of craftsmen began to employ others that led to the launching of journeymen's organisations to provide mutual aid, support for widows and orphans, and to assist those who had fallen on hard times. There are many recorded instances of strikes in various localities for increased wages, decreased working hours during this period that led to employers' pressure to ban what were known as 'combinations'. As many as 30 pieces of legislation were prevailing between 1720 and 1799 to ban combinations among specific groups of workers, culminating in two General Combination Acts in 1799 and 1800 outlawing combinations and strikes in England and Wales. Therefore, it can be said that the journeymen's societies in the long run had developed into trade unions (Cannell, 2007).

3.0 Decline in Trade Union

3.1 Pressure from employers

Until the mid-1980s, UK Governments of all complexions have promoted collective bargaining as the most appropriate means of bringing consensus into industrial relations (Tuckman, 1998). Within the voluntary natured UK system - except within the public sector - the state could only prescribe the merits of collective bargaining to harmonise the employment relationship. Although it was argued by the pluralism and collective bargaining theorists that management can regain control by sharing it (Flanders, 1970). This view was expressed in the context of the lack of legitimacy among management in a period of full employment

and relatively strong union organisation at workplace level. But with unprecedented levels of unemployment, this continuous support for collective bargaining came to a sudden halt since early 1980s (Tuckman, 1998). Since the mid-1980s, trade unions have been increasingly marginalised with the emergence of a particularly UK variation of HRM. The state and employers began excluding them from collective relations (Smith and Morton, 1994). In this process, the concern of trade union has moved from how new management mechanisms - such as quality circles (TGWU, 1989) - might introduce direct communication which bypasses collective bargaining to individual contracts and performance-related pay that challenges their very recognition for collective bargaining purposes (Wood, 1997).

3.2 Conservative government's assault

The clearest indication of a change in Government attitude towards trade unions became clear in 1984 with the Government's attack on the "enemy within" of the miners union - when it was decided, for supposed national security reasons, to rid British intelligence agency Government Communication Headquarters- GCHQ in Cheltenham of trade union members. Already there was the indication that instrumentalism would be the bait for workers to withdraw from collective bargaining. GCHQ was a highly publicised dispute which undoubtedly began to legitimate the process of de-recognition. The process was relatively slow following the post-1987 recession. Economic circumstances influenced the employers to realise that, even with Government encouragement, the frontier of control within especially traditional workplaces had not substantially shifted in their direction (Tuckman, 1998).

Despite the raft of employment legislation which had sought to contain industrial action by trade unions, employers began to come out with their own assault on workplace relations, although - as with the de-recognition of white-collar workers at British Petroleum - the pattern was already set. In 1992, the Secretary of State for Employment termed the traditional patterns of industrial relations, at least on collective bargaining and collective agreements inappropriate. They were also in decline (Wood, 1997).

3.3 Labours come back: pendulum moves?

Historically, British Labour Party was created in 1906 consisting of trade unions following the formation of a Parliamentary Committee during TUC conference in 1900 (Tuckman, 1998). After the end of Thatcher and John Major regimes, the Labours returned to power in 1997. But their return to government in was never going to mean a return to the seventies. Although since 1997, however, the pendulum has swung again and unions have partially regained influence, if not as much as previously. A number of changes were brought about. The Employment Relations Act 1999 enables unions claiming recognition, while others brought in changes sought by unions such as a National Minimum Wage, and new rights to maternity leave and for part-time workers. Some of the pressure for such rights comes from the European Union that was embraced by the British unions enthusiastically in the nineties. The unions realised that bringing about positive changes in the employment relations through the European Union is more likely than through domestic policies (Cannell, 2007). The Labour Government published a White Paper titled 'Fairness at Work' (FW) in May 1998 that outlines its proposals on employee representation and trade union recognition. This fulfils a promise which was first made in a policy document drawn up in preparation for the manifesto (Tuckman, 1998), as: 'Where a majority of the relevant workforce vote to be represented by a trade union, there should be a legal obligation on employers to recognise a union for collective bargaining on issues of pay, hours and holidays, and training. The bargaining agenda could be extended to other issues by mutual agreement' (Labour, c.1996). It has been suggested that the introduction of the statutory recognition procedure under the Employment Relations Act 1999 (ERA) has encouraged a proliferation of voluntary trade union recognition agreements under the umbrella of the law (Wood et al., 2003). A recent research found evidence of dynamic relationships following the recognition and in most cases there has been collective bargaining on the core issues like pay, hours and holiday. There was less likely to have been negotiation over the non-core issues such as pensions, equal opportunities and training. There are clear differences between employers' reports of the nature of discussions with the union and what was set out in the written recognition agreements. A proportion of voluntary agreements have been formally limited to the core issues suggests the influence of the

law in shaping both the scope and depth of voluntary recognition and subsequent practice (Moore, 2006). It can be said that the new law has already have positive impact on the influence of trade unions.

3.4 Nature of decline

Since the last two decades, British trade unionism has been suffering from crisis and discontinuity. It confronted greatest challenges and suffered greatest reverses since the inter-war period. Trade unions exercised significant influence in the power politics during a decade of rapid growth. Then they experienced a sharp decline in their membership and remarkable erosion in their ability to influence national politics even the affairs of the Labour Party. Trade unions seemed to lost confidence to act on the national scene as well as the industrial arena. In fact, they appeared to become increasingly confused over their role (Gallie et al, 1996). The number of trade union membership reached its peak to 13,289,000 in 1979. But it had fallen by over 3 million to 8.031 million in 1995. Trade union density fell from 54.2 percent of the workforce in 1979 to 32.9 percent in 1995. But compared to private sector, trade union density is much higher in UK public sector, specially, in service sector (Kessler and Bayliss, 1998). Moreover, in terms of international ranking, the British union position has changed only marginally, from 11th place in 1970 to 12th position among the rank order of OECD countries (Salmon, 1994). It appears that the fall in trade union membership and density is a common issue of the industrialised countries not only Britain. And compared to other nations it is not much alarming in Britain.

4.0 Factors Responsible for Decline

4.1 Complex factors

It is argued that the decline in trade union membership during 1990s was the result of a complex interaction of five factors namely, the macro-economic climate, the composition of the workforce, the state policy, employers' conduct and attitudes, and the stance taken by the trade unions themselves (Metcalf, 1991). The economic recession of the first half of 1980s and 1990s resulted in decline in trade union membership. But the substantial reduction in unemployment and the increased number of workers did not result in increased number of trade union members. Changes in the composition of workforce such as major decline in manufacturing and manual male employment and increase in service

sector, part time employment for female in professional, managerial and highly skilled work significantly contributed to the decline in union membership and density (Kessler and Bayliss, 1998). The changing structure of the British economy is termed the main reason behind the decline of trade unions in this country. UK trade unions have traditionally been strongest in the old manufacturing industries like steel, coal, printing, the docks, and engineering such as car manufacturing. But by the 1970s these were all industries in decline, and the recession of the 1980s accelerated their demise, with millions of manufacturing jobs lost (Schifferes, undated). At present, only 15 percent of the UK workforce is engaged in the manufacturing sector. In light of the declining trend, Mr. Ian Greaves, a leading UK industrialist, has commented that manufacturing sector should be considered as the industry of the past not of the future. However, in a recent development, there is an indication of positive growth in this sector unlike the downward trend of the past few decades (Clark, 2002). Such a trend is likely to create a little bit optimism about the growth of trade unions in terms of membership and bargaining power.

4.2 Feminisation of workforce

In 1954 women constituted only 29.8 percent of the UK workforce. But it had risen to 43.8 percent by the end of 1980s. It is believed by some researchers that female workers are less interested to join unions. But in practice, the decline in trade union membership is higher in male workers than their female counterparts (Kessler and Bayliss, 1998). Therefore feminisation of workforce may be an effective safeguard for unions' survival. The anti-union legislation by the Conservative Party, particularly outlawing closed shop, ending of statutory recognition procedures and the obligation to renew the check-off every three years resulted in decline in union membership and density. Unions needed to extend recognition and avoid de-recognition although de-recognition did not take place in a large scale. Securing recognition became very difficult and employers took much harder line in 1980s than in 1970s (Kessler and Bayliss, 1998).

4.3 Globalisation

As a result of globalisation, attracting foreign investment, increasing exports and developing international alliances to penetrate new markets, has become a worldwide trend. Some developing countries could

perceive it as undesirable and as a threat. Globalisation does not mean elimination of differences, imitating others, or allowing developed nations to impose their models. It means integrating differences, putting together individual strengths, building from the differences and ability to join efforts for a win-win process. Globalisation is a worldwide pressure for change (Granell, 2000). In a recent study, data were collected from seven regions, interviewing 232 Chief Executive Officers, HRM academics and consultants. In the findings, globalisation was seen as one of the most important and frequent external trends and a pressure for change in the employment relations (42 per cent). The other factors identified include technology advances (40 per cent), skill shortages (36 per cent) and competition (33 per cent). However, the order of importance of globalisation is different in various regions. Globalisation is seen as one of the strongest trends in European, Japanese and American companies. On the other hand, other trends such as domestic and global instability, technology and competition have the first places in Asia-Pacific, Canadian and Venezuelan Companies (Wright, et al., 1999).

Globalisation seemed to offer the Western world a new horizon of business opportunities during 1980s. The negative impact on the labour market became evident since 1990s. Firms contend with heightened international competition and low wages in the former Eastern bloc and Asia and they have turned to cost-cutting through shedding labour inside developed countries including the UK. Jobs either disappear altogether or are relocated. The predictions of Karl Marx about capitalism are eventuating in a process by which firms become ever more profitable at a cost of large-scale unemployment. The process of rationalisation and wage reduction proceeds at an alarming pace through computerisation, strategic alliances, the manipulation of trade unions and so on (Bloch, 1998).

4.4 Virtual organisations

It is evident that business practice, management, organisation studies and other sociological and business-related discourses have exhibited a fascination with virtuality in the form of the virtual organisation as the only response to the challenges of the highly competitive environment of this global village. Such a trend towards virtuality has given rise to a new explanation. It is argued in this explanation that a theoretical and practical vacuum developed and it could not be filled by prevailing definitions, concepts and examples commonly associated with critical political

economy with the approaching of the new millennium. Political economy seemed incapable to establish a befitting response to global capitalism following the perceived demise of Marxism and socialist economy. Moreover it was not capable to grasp the emerging possibilities for human transcendence. This vacuum has been taken over by neo-liberalism - with its fiction of the triumph of flexible, global capitalism that has sloughed off all earthly, physical constraints and postmodernism - with its fantasy that global, technological capitalism is about fragmentation, multiple identities, images and surfaces. The traditional rational, hierarchical, authoritarian organisation, representative of the previous that represented industrial capitalism, is replaced by the benevolent, boundary-less, flexible, networked, information and communication technology-driven, empowering, virtual organisation (Thorne, 2005).

Strong information technology platform is required by virtual organisations (Venkatratnam and Henderson, 1998). Such organisations are held together by partnership, collaboration and networking rather than formal structure and physical proximity of people (Johnson and Scholes, 2003). It is a temporary network of companies aimed to exploit fast-changing opportunities. The examples include Ford, Nike and Reebok. They do very little of their own production and shift the major share of the production to mainly Asian firms (Luthans, 2002). Flexible, technology-driven, virtualising work arrangements arguably have adverse impacts on social interaction and personal identity and extend and sustain existing and new disciplinary arrangements (Bunzel, 2001).

From the above discussion, it is evident that the concept of virtual organisations is an emerging reality and traditional collective bargaining is not likely to exist in such organisations because of their technology driven and eventually capital-intensive nature. The emergence of virtual organisations in a large scale will have a negative impact on the density and bargaining power of the trade unions in Britain as well as the technologically developed countries throughout the globe.

4.5 Changing social attitude

It is observed that the changing social attitude towards trade union has a negative impact on its membership and density (Martinez and Simpson, 1992). But it is difficult to quantify its actual impact upon membership

recruitment and retention (OECD, 1991). Inflation and the operation of the business cycle influence the rate of union density. The attitudes of Employers and public policy endeavours are of profound importance. The view of the former may be evident through the extent of the wage premium of unionised workers over their non-union counterparts (Lipset, 1986).

4.6 Public policy attempts

In countries of advance economies including Britain and except the US, there was a major public policy attempt to de-collectivise industrial relations. During 1980s, the integrity of the Donovan reforms for collective bargaining institutions underwent constant review. It was feared that collective industrial relations was being disorganised through an excessive programme of legal regulation or marginalised by new forms of managerial strategies based on the human resource management practices based on the union avoidance policies in a number of leading US large corporations (Salmon, 1994). Extensive inward investment transforming domestic industrial relations and patterns of work organisation by adoption and emulation are claimed to be the by-products of the Japanisation of UK industries (Lipletz, 1992). Emphasizing employee involvement, commitment and empowerment as a way to overcome adversarial tensions between employer interest and worker solidarity through a reconstruction of work relations is prominent in recent management literature (Salmon, 1994).

4.7 Shift from collectivism to individualism

The up-grading of personnel managers' status and the integration of HRM functions into business strategies appear as major features to promote a more strategic approach towards labour relations. Emphasis on individualism, direct forms of organisational communication, small group activities, individualised appraisal systems and more sophisticated recruitment and selection, projected in the HRM model are largely contrasting to collectivism based on strong allegiances towards trade unionism (Lewis and Simpson, 1982). Therefore, procedural arrangements with single union agreements and strike-free deals are identified as the institutional crisis of the new industrial relations (Turnbill, 1988).

It is often emphasized that new management techniques like Individual Performance Related Pay (IPRP) may disorganise trade union (Kessler and Purcell, 1995). It is informed that Performance Related Pay (PRP) is a method of remuneration that links pay progression to an assessment of individual performance, usually measured against pre-agreed objectives and 'classic' PRP is also known as IPRP. Pay increases awarded through PRP are normally consolidated into basic pay although sometimes they involve the payment of non-consolidated cash lump sums. In a broader sense, PRP can be defined to include many differing systems that link individual and group performance to pay, for example bonus schemes. PRP has been originated during 1980s. Many employers have embraced the model enthusiastically as the holy grail of driving high performance. There was a desire to move away from service-related pay progression increments (for 'just being there') towards an ethos where individual or group employee performance goals, often linked to pay, were used to support business performance objectives (Janet, 2008).

Now-a days, the notion that links pay to a wider definition of employees' 'contribution' rather than simple 'performance' is gaining much acceptance. This emphasises not only performance in the sense of the output i.e. the end result that is achieved but also the input i.e. what the contribution of the employee in a more holistic sense (Janet, 2008).

The effect IPRP on trade unions may come in different ways. First, they might generate a new level of organisational commitment, so that employees come more closely with management rather than union. Second, if the new techniques successfully address the needs and aspirations of employees, they will diminish grievances at work without union involvement. Third, employee interests can be fragmented, so a perception of shared interests and the need for solidarity through trade union fades (Heery, 1997a). They have excited considerable concern within the trade union movement (Heery, 1997b). It is argued that collective bargaining in Britain is drawing to a close and the future of trade unionism is gloomy unless issues like new individualism of its membership are dealt with properly (Trevor, 1988).

On the other hand, the new management techniques may not necessarily diminish the relevance of unions (Snape et al., 1993). Rather, IPRP may provide unions with fresh opportunities to organise and represent employees. The opportunities may arise where techniques diminish

workers' organisational commitment or generate grievances among them (Heery, 1997a). New management methods help "union renewal" as employees react against harsh management with support for militant workplace trade unionism (Fairbrother, 1994). It is argued that there may be costs to exclude unions. IPRP schemes seem less rigorous, less participative, more threatening, and worse managed in union's absence. In seeking to help members and preserve their institutional interests, unions may exert influence on management. As unions may be compatible with new management techniques, therefore, they may positively reinforce them (Heery, 1997b).

4.8 Training related issues

It is argued that training is a part of employment package. Employees need to undertake training as part of their obligations to their employer and employers may provide training as a benefit for employees. The main purpose of trade unionism is to secure influence over conditions of employment through collective bargaining including negotiations with state bodies when training is regulated by the state (Ironside and Seifert, 1999). In the emerging "new" UK political and economic climate as a source of increased legitimacy for workplace training, pushed by the theme of "social partnership", trade unions can promote training strategies for members and offer an appealing role to employers (Dundon, 1998). In 1992 the Trades Union Congress (TUC) issued a "call to all unions to bargain for skills" and "raise trade union awareness of training issues" given a lower level of investment in skill formation (TUC, 1992). UK investment in training and development compared to company turnover (0.5%) lags behind other developed nations like Japan (2%) and Germany (2%) (Finegold and Soskice, 1990). Individual trade unions have sought to promote a "strategic" focus to the issue of training in response to a lack of training investment and low skills equilibrium. It is suggested that both policy-makers and government agencies have misplaced the vital role offered by trade unions in formulating both a coherent labour relations and ultimately a training strategy which can utilise employee skill formation (Dundon, 1998). By advocating more and better training trade unions have played a role in increasing general awareness of training needs and issues. But the influence exercised by trade unions on the volume of training provision through representation on policy-making bodies has been waning. It is also observed that trade unions have achieved limited success

in the fields of training and development (Claydon and Green, 1994). It appears that the success of trade unions in training and development is questioned but their involvement in this process is beneficial for both employers and employees.

4.9 Financial crisis

The British trade unions faced financial crisis as a result of loss of membership. Compared with many West European countries and the USA, they were never in a good financial condition. Low subscription is one of the reasons. Declining membership during 1980s is said to have worsened the situation. On the other hand it is termed as 'financial health and stability from 1950 to 1966; period of financial decline during membership growth during 1967-1981, some financial recovery during membership decline in the 1980s (Kessler and Bayliss, 1998). Research shows that 24 per cent of the surveyed trade unions were in deficit (i.e. less income than expenditure) in 1992 and only 24 per cent had a surplus of 10 per cent. The same time, unions' efforts to tighten expenditure through centralising resource management was also visible (Morris and William, 1994).

5.0 How to Regain Strength

5.1 Generating own income

Trade unions generate own income through investment. Two surveys were conducted in this regard in 1989 and 1993. In the 1989 survey, TUC affiliates were more likely to have an investment policy and avoiding certain types of politically sensitive investments such as in newly privatised businesses and in South Africa. In 1989, 94 per cent of respondents that they would avoid these investments, 75 per cent viewed this as part of an overall investment policy. In the 1993 survey, the figures were 82 per cent and 79 per cent respectively. There was consistency in the avoidance of investment income to generate finance for new projects. Concern with security of funds was vital. But the ranking of this concern was lower in 1993 than in 1989; more unions in the latter sample were likely to emphasize income and capital growth (Morris and William, 1994). It indicates that trade unions are gradually emphasizing more to strengthen their financial condition by enhancing own income through investment.

5.2 Internal reorganisation

In order to strengthen their position for the future, the union movement has responded by internal reorganisation to face perceived external threats successfully. Such reorganisation process continued: more troubles were visible, particularly in the form of new legislation on check-off, proposed by the then Conservative administration (Morris and William, 1994)). According to the law of 1993, prior written consent from the worker is mandatory if an employer wants to make check-off deductions from his/her pay. The consent should be renewed every three years. In case of increased deduction, one month's notice should be given to the worker by the employer. The aim of this act was to ensure a reduction in union membership. It resulted in a loss of membership between 10 and 20 percent. The unions succeeded in keeping losses to a minimum level. Even it is suggested that unions recruited new members in the process of renewal and the estimated overall loss of membership was 5 percent (Kessler and Bayliss, 1998). Thus trade unions can use 'check-off' system to enhance their membership too.

5.3 Merger

Many small unions have disappeared or merged with larger unions. Mergers also took place between medium -sized and between large unions. Some of the notable mergers include that of ASTMAS (390000 members) and TASS (241000 members) to form MSF; GMB (80000 members) and APEX (80000 members); and the Civil Service Union (30000 members) and SCPS (89000 members) to form NUCPS etc (Kessler and Bayliss, 1998). It is found that in 2007 the TUC had 66 affiliated unions, compared with 109 in 1979. Amalgamation is one of the reasons behind such a fall in the number of affiliated unions (Cannell, 2007). The motives of most of the mergers are termed defensive or consolidatory rather than expansionist. The unions aim to recover lost membership, bargaining power and overcome financial problems through merger. It is predicted that unions will be much leaner and fitter, with more effective and improved services and bargaining power by merger (TUC, 1991). Although merger negatively influences union density.

6.0 Gloomy Future?

Moreover, Chartered Institute of Personnel Development (CIPD), a leading think tank of the UK has predicted the year 2000 as a gloomy year

for employment, with prospects the worst they have been for a decade. In its annual end-of-year barometer report on the state of the workplace and the outlook for employment, it is forecasted that there will be only a 0.25 per cent rise in the number of jobs this year. Therefore, 2008 may be the worst year for the British economy since Labour took power in 1997. CIPD chief economist John Philpott said that the bleak outlook was a result of reduced hiring and uncertainty in the private sector, accompanied by government efforts to downsize public-sector workforce. He stated that relatively slower growth in private-sector employment were overshadowed by relatively rapid growth in public-sector jobs and a downward trend in public-sector employment in the past two years has been more than offset by rising numbers of private-sector jobs. But 2008 is likely to be the first year for a decade of spluttering right across the economy by the job creation engine. Many HR professionals could be faced with making large-scale redundancies for the first time in their careers and others will be in search of best practice for downsizing employees. Although it is warned that older staff were the worst victims of job cuts in the early 1980s and early 1990s. Therefore, the possible redundancy practice in 2008 will have to take care not to violate age discrimination legislation (www.cipd.co.uk). The prediction is by no means a positive signal for the trade union of Britain.

7.0 Bangladesh and Trade Unions

In Developing countries, the economic importance of trade unions is not commensurate with the size of membership. In Bangladesh, the share of the active trade union workers was officially estimated between 3 and 4 % in 1992. However, this figure is largely irrelevant for an evaluation of their power, as the urban population accounts for only 18 % of the total Bangladeshi population in 1995, and virtually no trade unions exist in rural areas. Within the urbanite working population, and especially in the formal sector, the picture is quite different. Almost 100 % of the workers and employees of the public sector are unionized, while one out of six of the wage earners in the private formal sector are unionized. The jute and cotton sectors, which were nationalized in 1971, in the wake of the struggle for independence, and then privatized to some extent in the 1980s, are the most unionized sectors. Unions are also important in the transport sector and in various services (Azam and Salmon, 2003). Between 1990 and 2000 it experienced an increase in trade union

membership. During this period, the rate of growth of membership was 1.63 per cent and that of registered trade unions 5.3 per cent (Sukti, 2002).

According to Pencavel (1995), unions in developing countries get power from their privileged relationship with political parties, and in many cases with the government. The Bangladeshi trade unions are no exception. They are well known for their lobbying the government rather than acting vis-à-vis the private sector. In the public sector, the government fixes the wage schedule. The minimum wages for the private sector is also determined by the government like the developed countries. In the private sector, collective bargaining takes place officially at the firm level, but the powerful SKOP, an umbrella of unions, deals directly with the government, and has eventually the determinant influence on wage settlements.

The influence of unions goes beyond the standard reach of industrial relations, and extends to the political arena. All the political parties, even the smallest ones, exert some control over a trade union. The three main political parties have their own trade union federation, which accounts for 64 % of the unionised workers. The unions have played an active role in most major political events of this country, like the massive demonstrations (hartals) that compelled General Ershad to step down in 1990, or those which forced the democratically elected government of Begum Khaleda Zia to resign in 1996. According to the World Bank (2001), an average of 21 working days were lost annually due to hartals in the 1980s, and an average of 47 full working days per year in the 1990s. This report estimates that about 5 % of GDP is lost on average in the 1990s.

Therefore, the behaviour of the Bangladeshi trade unions seems quite distant from the standard approach to the theory of trade unions, as surveyed for example by Oswald (1985) or by Booth (1995), which emphasizes the relationships between the union and the firms that employ its members. Its analysis is thus especially interesting, as a way to broaden our conception of the scope of trade union activity, with a view to take explicitly into account its political economy dimension. The massive demonstrations organized by the unions, called the hartals, are aimed at affecting the government much more than the firms. This type of political activism of the trade unions seems fairly widespread in

developing countries, as well as in some developed countries, like France for example. One can remember the role of Solidarnosc in Poland for bringing communism down. In Britain, the conflict between Margaret Thatcher and the miners' union in the late 1970s was a major political event, rather simple industrial dispute (Azam and Salmon, 2002).

Bangladesh is undergoing emergency since 11 January 2007 amid political violence and since then all outdoor political activities including trade unionism were banned. In a recent development, the government has relaxed ban on trade union activities on a nine conditions. These include taking permission from the competent authority i.e. concerned Commissioner of Metropolitan Police, District Magistrate, Upazila Nirbahi Officer 48 hours (in case of up to 100 participants) or 72 hours (in case of up to 500 participants) before holding any gathering in indoor venue; no live telecast of these programmes by electronic media; discussion on issues related to the organisation and the labour class rather than politics; etc. (Ittefaq, 2008).

It is evident that trade unions throughout the world are facing serious assault from the state machinery as well as the corporate bodies. In order to survive, the trade of Bangladesh can take a number of lessons from their counterparts of the United Kingdom. These include giving more emphasis on professional issues (wage and salary, working conditions, safeguard from unemployment, etc.) than political issues; strengthening position as pressure groups; playing active role in various areas such as training, professional development and research ; merging with similar unions (if needed); and campaigning for social partnership.

8.0 Conclusion

There is no doubt that trade union movement in Britain is passing through a critical stage due decline in membership and density. Financial crisis is one of the by-products of declining membership. Income barely covers expenditure, which in the long run will put them in a disadvantageous position during prolonged dispute or sudden large losses of membership. Efforts are also made to curtail their role in decision making. But this is not the whole story. There are some predictions about the future of the financial management of the unions and there is not only pessimism but also optimism. The asset base of trade unions is slim and income barely covers expenditure. Declining membership will continue to put pressure

on finances because subscription income is the major source of revenue. The future looks gloomy without continued financial support from the employer. Unions' administrative efficiency has gradually increased over the years. They are now rather centralised. Local control of resources is unlikely to exist in the future. Most unions have become relatively well-organised at the centre in gathering in revenue and controlling expenditure. Many unions which are heavily-reliant on check-off do not plan to shift away from it. Therefore, most unions will respond in an ad hoc fashion to the loss of check-off, gradually trying to move members to forms of income collection such as direct debit (Morris and Williams, 1994). Trade unions may also go for further investment for strengthening their financial condition. New management techniques like Individual Performance Related Pay may curtail unions' role, but unions can also use such techniques in their favour as mentioned earlier. Feminisation of workforce may be dividend for trade unions in future because the decline in union membership is lower among female workers than male workers. Inadequate training is an important contributor to Britain's industrial decline. Therefore, increasing the amount and quality of training is essential to any process of regeneration. A growing body of analysis has shown training as an area of market failure (Stevens, 1993). In future, trade unions can come with enhanced training programmes for retaining the workforce and ultimately their membership.

It can be said that tougher time is coming for British trade unions. But the negative features are not strong enough to bring to an end to the trade unions in Britain. Trade unions can improvise some features (feminisation, IPRP, finance, training, etc) in their favour through pragmatic strategies. Still they have a future. Other factors remaining unchanged, in future, the British trade unions are likely to loss their influence partially.

Trade unions of Bangladesh can strengthen their position and bargaining by taking lessons from the experience of Britain. But replicating others' experience cannot solve any problem completely. Models, experiences of other countries should be tailored in accordance with the social, cultural and political realities of the recipient country.

References

- Azam, J.P. and Salmon, C. (2003), 'Strikes and Political Activism of Trade Unions : Theory and Application to Bangladesh', Forthcoming in Public Choice, February (Available at: ideas.repec.org/p/ide/wpaper/617.html - 14k -, accessed on 03/09/2008).
- Booth, A. L. (1995), 'The Economics of the Trade Unions', Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.
- Bloch, B. (1998), 'Globalisation's assault on the labour market: a German perspective', *European Business Review*, Volume 98, Number 1, pp. 13-24.
- Bunzel, D. (2001), 'Towards a virtualization of social control? Simulation and seductive domination in an Australian coastal hotel', *Administrative Theory and Praxis*, Vol. 23, No. 3, pp. 363-82.
- Cannell, M. (2008), 'Trade unions: a short history', available at: www.cipd.co.uk (accessed on 10/04/2008).
- Claydon, T. and Green, F. (1994), 'Can Trade Unions Improve Training in Britain?' *Personnel Review*, Volume 23, Number 1, pp. 37-51.
- Clark, E. (2002), 'The death of British Manufacturing?' available at news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/business/1871493.stm (accessed on 10/02/2008).
- Deakin, S. and Wilkinson, F. (1995), 'Labour Standards Essential to Economic and Social Progress', *The Institute of Employment Rights*.
- Dundon, T. (1998), 'Trade unions and bargaining for skills', *Employee Relations* Volume 20, Number 1, pp. 57-72.
- Fairbrother, P. (1994), 'Privatization and local trade unionism', *Work Employment and Society*, Vol. 8, No.3, pp.339-56.
- Finegold, D. and Soskice, D. (1990), 'The failure of training in Britain: analysis and prescription', in Gleeson, D. (Eds), *Training and Its Alternatives*, Milton Keynes, Open University Press.
- Flanders, A. (1970), 'Collective bargaining: prescriptions for change', in Flanders, A. (Eds), *Management and Unions: The Theory and Reform of Industrial Relations*, London, Faber & Faber.

- Gallie, D., Penn, R. and Rose, M. (1996), 'The British Debate in Trade Unionism: Crisis and Continuity', in Trade Unionism in Recession (eds), Oxford, Oxford University Press.
- Gennard, J. (1998), 'Labour Government: change in employment law', Employee Relations, Volume 20, Number 1, pp. 12-25.
- Granell, E. (2000), 'Culture and globalisation: a Latin American challenge', Industrial and Commercial Training, Volume 32, Number 3, pp. 89-94.
- Heery, H. (1997a), 'Performance-related pay and trade union de-recognition' Employee Relations, Volume 19 Number 3, pp. 208-221
- Heery, E. (1997b), 'Performance-related pay and trade union membership', Employee Relations, Volume 19, Number 5' pp. 430-442.
- Ironside, M. and Seifert, R. (1999), 'Training and collective bargaining in European public services: a study of training-related issues in French, Finnish and UK health services', Industrial and Commercial Training, Volume 31, Number 5, pp. 182-189.
- Ittefaq (2008), General News Item, Ittefaq online edition, 08 September, available at: www.ittefaq.com.
- Janet, E. (2008), 'General Appraisal and feedback Appraisal training Business performance Competencies Performance related pay Training and learning needs' available at www.cipd.co.uk/subjects/perfmangmt/appfdbck/perfapp.htm (accessed on 25/03/2008).
- Johnson, G. and Scholes, K. (2003), 'Exploring Corporate Strategy' (Sixth edition). New Delhi, Prentice-Hall of India Private Limited.
- Kessler, S. and Bayliss, F. (1998), 'Contemporary British Industrial Relations' (3rd edition), McMillan Business.
- Kessler, I. and Purcell, J. (1995), 'Individualism and collectivism in theory and practice: management style and the design of pay systems', in Edwards, P. (Eds), Industrial Relations: Theory and Practice in Britain, Blackwell, Oxford.
- Labour Party (1996), 'Building Prosperity: Flexibility, Efficiency and Fairness at Work', The Labour Party, London.

- Lewis, R. and Simpson, B. (1982), 'Disorganising Industrial Relations: An Analysis of Sections 2-8 and 10-14 of The Employment Act 1982, *Industrial Law Journal*, No. December.
- Lipletz, A. (1992), 'Towards A New Economic Order', Oxford, Blackwell.
- Lipset, S.M. (1986), 'Labour Unions in the Public Mind', in Lipset, S.M. (Eds), *Unions in Transition*, San Fransisco, Institute for Contemporary Studies.
- Luthans, F. (2002), 'Organizational Behavior'. Ninth Edition, New York, McGraw-Hill Higher Education.
- Martinez, L. M. and Simpson, D. (1992), 'The Politics and Complexity of Trade Union Responses to New Management Practices', *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, No. September.
- Metcalf, D. (1991), 'British unions: dissolution or resurgence?' *Oxford Review of Economic Policy*, Vol. 7, No. 1, pp. 18-32.
- Moore, S. (2006), 'The relationship between legislation and industrial practice A study of the outcome of trade union recognition', *Employee Relations*, Volume 28, Number 4, pp. 363-373.
- Morris, T. and William, P. (1994), 'The Union of the Future and the Future of Unions', *Employee Relations*, Volume 16 Number 2, pp. 100-108.
- OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development) (1991), *Employment Outlook*, No. July.
- Oswald, A. J. (1985), 'The Economic Theory of Trade Unions : An Introductory Survey', *Scandinavian Journal of Economics*, 87 (2), pp. 160-193.
- Pencavel, J. (1995) , 'The Role of Labor Unions in Fostering Economic Development', *Policy Research Working Papers*, No.1469, World Bank, Washington, D.C.
- Salmon, J. (1994), 'Unions on the Brink? Themes and Issues', *Employee Relations*, Volume 16, Number 2, pp. 8-23.
- Schifferes, S. (Undated), 'The trade unions' long decline', available at news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/business/3526917.stm (accessed on 10/02/2008).

- Smith, P. and Morton, G. (1993), 'Union exclusion and the decollectivisation of industrial relations in contemporary Britain', *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, Vol. 31, No.2, pp.97-114.
- Snape, E., Redman, T. and Wilkinson, A. (1993), 'Human resource management in building societies: making the transformation', *Human Resource Management Journal*, Vol. 3 No.3, pp.43-63.
- Stevens, M. (1993), 'Transferable Training and Market Failure', paper presented to CEPR Conference, The Skills Gap and Economic Activity, London.
- Sukti, D. (2002), 'Attitudes towards trade unions in Bangladesh, Brazil, Hungary and Tanzania (Available at goliath.ecnext.com/coms2/gi_0199-3011904/Attitudes-towards-trade-unions-in.html-84k, accessed on 02/09/2008).
- TGWU (1989), 'Employee Involvement and Quality Circles', Transport & General Workers Union, London.
- Thorne, K. (2005), 'Designing virtual organizations? Themes and trends in political and organizational discourses', *Journal of Management Development*, Volume 24 Number 7, pp. 580-607.
- Trades Union Congress (1991), *Collective Bargaining Strategy for the 1990s*, TUC, London.
- Trades Union Congress (1997), 'Partners for Progress: Next Steps for New Unionism'.
- Trevor, M. (1988), 'Toshiba' New British Company: Competitiveness through Innovation in Industry', Policy Studies Institute, London.
- TUC (1992), *Bargaining for Skills: A Call to Action*, Trades Union Congress, London.
- Tuckman, A. (1998), 'Individual contracts, collective bargaining and trade unionism: a case for the union voice', *Personnel Review*, Volume 27, Number 6, pp. 448-459.
- Turnbull, P. (1988), 'The Limits to Japanization - Just in Time Labour Relations and The Automotive Industry', *New Technology, Work and Employment*, No.3, pp.7-20.
- Venkatratnam, N. and Henderson, J. (1998), 'Real Strategies for Virtual

- Organizing', Sloan Management Review, Fall, pp. 33-48.
- Wood, S. (1997), 'Statutory Union Recognition', Institute of Personnel and Development, London.
- Wood, S., Moore, S. and Ewing, K. (2003), 'The impact of the trade union recognition procedure under the Employment Relations Act, 2000-2002', in Gospel, H., Wood, S. (Eds), *Representing Workers; Union Recognition and Membership in Britain*, London, Routledge .
- World Bank (2001): Bangladesh, Periodic Economic Update, July.
- Wright, P.M., Dyer, L.D. and Tackla, M.G. (1999), 'State of the art/practice 1999', San Diego, CA.
- www.cipd.co.uk (accessed on 11/02/2008).
- [www.acas.org.uk/faqs/trade union.html](http://www.acas.org.uk/faqs/trade%20union.html) (accessed on 11/04/2006).

Necessity of Leadership Skills for Project Manager

Sayed Farrukh Ahmed¹
Mohammad Ahshanullah²
Dewan Niamul Karim³

Abstract: Leadership and leadership skills of a project manager are essential for successful implementation of a project. A project manager has to deliver quality outputs in time through efficient utilization of allocated resources for a project. A project manager has to resolve diverse complex implementation issues which need sound knowledge and proven skills. Some key skills include relationship and communication, adaptability to change initiative, negotiation and conflict resolution, building team spirit and morale, managing corporate culture and matrix management, credibility and cared responsibility, above all full commitment to achieve project objectives.

1.0 Introduction

Leadership is a process by which a person influences others through personality action to accomplish an objective. By applying leadership attributes, such as values, knowledge and skills a leader directs the organisation effectively and efficiently (Maylor, 2003). Although the leadership position gives the leader authority to accomplish certain tasks, this power does not make one necessarily a leader. Leadership makes followers wanting to achieve high goals and give their best¹. This paper focuses on leadership skills that a project manager ought to have to ensure that the project's objectives are achieved by always considering the responsibility towards the project, the organisation and the team.

2.0 Objective of the Study

The objective of the study is to highlight the leadership skills of project manager required for the implementation of a project successfully and to understand the necessity of leadership skills for the project manager.

3.0 Literature Review

Black (2000) has stressed that the best project managers are outstanding leaders. They have vision, they motivate, they bring people together, and, most of all, they accomplish great things. The leader should guide the

¹ Senior Lecturer, School of Business, United International University, Bangladesh

² Senior Lecturer, School of Business, United International University, Bangladesh

³ Lecturer, Department of Management Studies, School of Business, Comilla University, Kotbari, Comilla

team members by identifying their roles and responsibilities for the project. In addition, he should inspire the team members to successfully complete the project tasks for the betterment of the project. On the other hand, Burke (2003) has pointed out that project managers must have integrity-honesty and trustworthiness. A key success factor is getting members of a team to trust each other and trust the project manager in order to work well with each other. When indecision or conflict arises, if the project manager is considered to have integrity, the others will accept his actions more easily.

Knutson (2001) has highlighted that a project manager must have leadership skill so that he can inspire others to create a vision and strive to achieve the goals, has the ability to provide valuable information related to the project status in a timely and effective manner and assisting in resolution of any project conflicts so that the project team members all feel part of the process and want to remain involved in the project. Leadership is crucial for a project manager who must motivate people who are on the project teams. A project manager must exercise his leadership subtly so that he stimulates eager and constructive support for the project and the project team without causing attitudes toward home departments to weaken. The leadership needs to foster strong positive loyalties both to the project and to the functional organization. (Maylor, 2003)

Toney (2002) has mentioned that to accomplish the project goals, it is necessary to assemble the right team and leader. The leader has to believe in the project and be ready to drive it forward. The project leader ensures that the concept/planning phase results in a project supported by a sound business case for the company. He leads the team in developing the project definition; getting the right team members involved, etc.

A project manager is responsible for achieving the project's overall objectives and leading the project team. People sense that a really good project is an opportunity to excel. Goals are clearly visible, freedom of action is greater, and superior performance will be applauded and rewarded. Under enlightened leadership, this environment can stimulate creative talents to achieve goals that had seemed hardly attainable. Projects must be managed to achieve this extraordinary success. (Mantel and Meredith, 2004).

4.0 Methodology

In this paper, the leadership skills of project manager in successful implementation of a project has been discussed and a framework has been developed that will allow researchers and managers to understand the necessity of leadership skills for project manager. This paper is mainly based on secondary information. Available literatures including relevant books and articles on project management have been studied. Also, relevant published and unpublished documents have been consulted. Moreover, eminent line consultant namely, Michael Topple, working as a project officer in Wembley Stadium, England, had been consulted in conducting the study.

5.0 Leadership Skills in the Project Environment

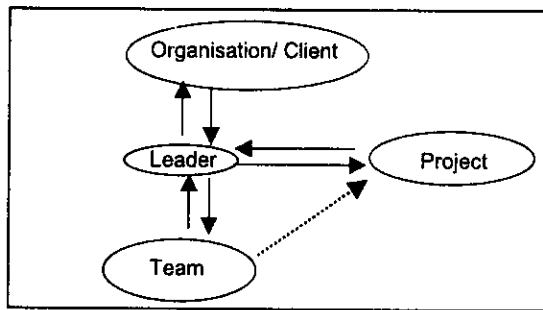
The skills required in terms of leadership in project environment are highly depending upon the circumstances and the situation. Furthermore, the project manager should be recognised as a leader not only by the team but also by everybody else who is involved in the whole process (including clients and/or the organisation). The project manager as a leader basically needs to fulfil the requirements such as determination of the firm's purpose or vision, exploitation or maintenance core competencies, development of human capital, sustain an effective organizational culture, emphasize ethical practices, establish balanced organisational controls and provide mechanism to transfer knowledge across all parts in the project (Knutson, 2001).

A project manager is the organiser of the project who discusses with the organisation to establish progress and direction of the project and to assure that goals are achieved, problems are solved, risks are mitigated, and that the project is delivered on time and within the given budget. He keeps the spotlight on the vision, inspires the team, promotes teamwork and collaboration, champions the project, removes obstacles to progress and makes the call and burdens responsibility (Ghattas & McKee, 2004). The project manager has to become an adaptive leader - if he or she can relinquish the reliance on old-fashioned, inflexible management styles.

The higher the degree of uncertainty encountered on a project - whether in terms of changes in project scope, technological stalemates, breakdowns in coordination between people, and so forth - the more leadership is required. For example: strong leadership is required for a

software development project in which parameters are always changing to meet developments in the industry, which is forcing a project manager to be highly flexible and to react appropriate to any given changes. He has to be aware of his responsibility in terms of costs, duration of the project, allocating and handling of the resources etc. - all the time. Obviously, He is the linkage between the project, the project's team and the organization. He or she receives input from each of these categories that has to be handled and transformed. This can be shown in the following figure:

Figure 1: Interconnections



6.0 Leadership Skills of Project Mmanager

Apart from general skills like personality, experience, formal (informal) education and training, there are further leadership skills that a project manager has to possess to resolve diverse complex implementation issues. Some important skills have been discussed below:

6.1 Building relationships and communication: The project manager must have the ability to communicate in three channels such as facts, emotions and symbols to build better relationships and strengthen teamwork (Boyd & Crossland, 2002). He must have the skills that ensure that project objectives, challenges or problems, scope changes, and regular project status have been appropriately communicated or transmitted and correctly received. The ability to interact will determine how smoothly the project progresses as it determine the degree of acceptance regarding the position as leader. Positive relationships with the individuals will help the project manager to achieve consensus between the team and the organization when needed, and understand and resolved sources of conflict during the project.

6.2 Adaptability to change initiative: Sometimes projects are subject to significant changes. This might include various factors like scope changes, a change in duration and/or costs etc. Thus, the project manager should have the skill of steering the organization, the team and the project itself through any change in the process (Marchewka, 2006). In this situation, he needs to be prepared as the motivator that generates enthusiasm for the project and continually obtains buy-in, support, commitment and participation from the various stakeholders.

6.3 Resolving the conflict: The project manager has to work carefully to resolve the conflicts which may arise in situations where opinions widely differ about what can be done and what not, within a given time budget. He must be prepared to deal with situations where interests conflict, relying on his/her instincts to know when it is time to capitulate or to continue negotiating in order to reach an agreement that meets everybody's needs and that doesn't have a negative impact on the project.

6.4 Leading the project team: The project manager should have the skills to lead a group. In order to develop a high-performing team, He has to motivate individual team members and the team as a whole, i.e. he or she has to build team spirit. Appropriate techniques have to be used to enhance individual and team motivation. For example, scheduling regular and ad hoc feedback sessions for individual team members, rewarding of good performance, giving public recognition for team contributions, and creating team spirit. The project manager has to keep in mind that every team member is an individual. Thus, the leadership style should be flexible and adaptive in order to address all the individuals. The project manager has to make a conscious attempt to integrate all members of his projects team through open communication and social activities.

6.5 Managing corporate culture: Embracing culture is about understanding the context in which the project will be executed. It means that the project manager has to understand the value system of the organization and act accordingly. (Vera and Crossan, 2004)

6.6 Credibility and responsibility: The project manager should be credible at his work and should demonstrate cared responsibility towards the organization, the team and the project. Thus, he can fulfill all of his tasks within the given time and so on.

6.7 Individual motivation: The project manager has to keep the employees highly motivated even in bad times when, for instance, the

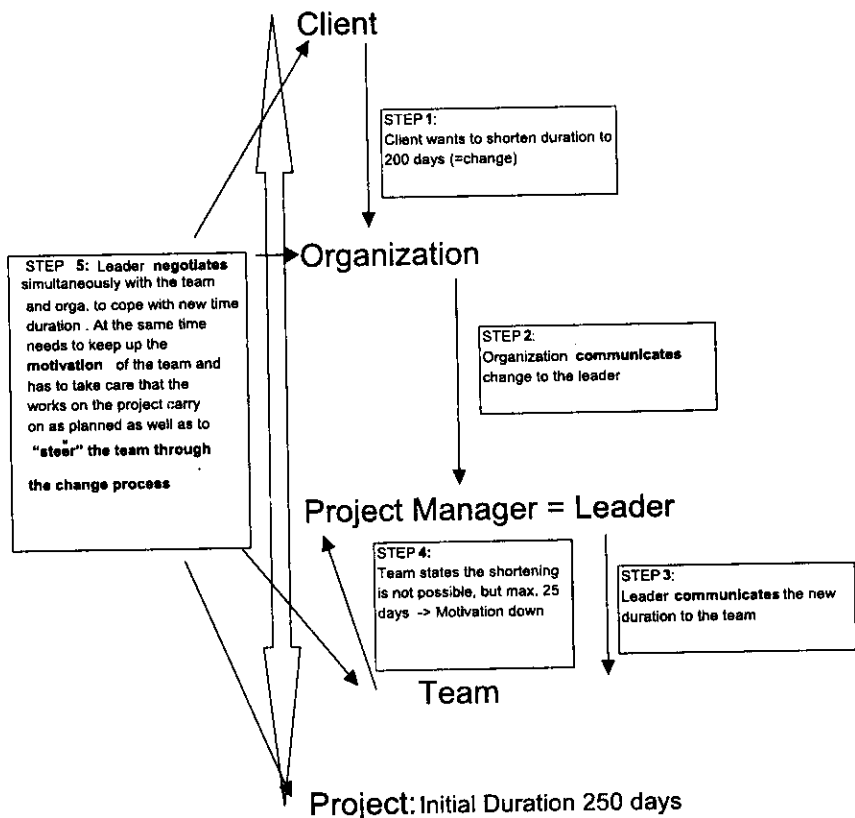
whole project is hopeless behind schedule and any bonus is depending on an on-time delivery. He has to enforce the motivation of his team to still give their best. (Popper & Zakkai, 1994)

6.8 Commitment to achieve project objectives: The project manager should be committed to achieve project objective. In dealing with the project, he may face critical situations. He has to lead the project to resolve the complexities with his proven skills and go forward to achieve the project objectives.

7.0 Challenge

The project manager may face challenges in utilizing the skills in an appropriate way when necessary. This is illustrated in a small example in figure 2 in the later page:

Figure 2: Required skills of leadership - An example



Obviously the project manager is facing several challenges at the same time, i.e. he or she needs various skills at once. Although the example is fictitious, situations like this do

happen all the time in project management. Furthermore, an effective project manager has to develop existing skills and strengthen his weaknesses.

8.0 Problems of Leading Project in Bangladesh

In Bangladesh, from the beginning of project, the major problem is the documentation problem as the regulatory authority is not well-efficient to provide all the required documents at the right time. Lack of coordination between the project team and the higher authority is another problem which leads to delay decision making. Moreover, at the inception of the project, the project team requires some loan from bank. But, banks take long time and require huge documentation which has contributed to the delay of the project for several weeks. Another challenge for the project manager is to find out the right quality of project raw materials, as required. The machineries used in the projects can not be used for optimum capacity because of frequent repairs required during the project time. It takes long time to get environmental clearance certificate from the respective authority. The project team members may reluctant to actively participate in the work because of financial dissatisfaction, etc.

9.0 Conclusion and Recommendation

According to us, there are no perfect definitions which are the required leadership skills, as this is significantly depending upon the situation and the given circumstances. The event or the situation is an important factor in utilizing the skills appropriately. Thus, the project manager to lead the project and the team in a positive and distinctive way, at the highest level possible, by always considering that leadership should be considered as a process rather than as an end state.

References

- Belbin, R. M. (2004). *Management Teams*, Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Black, R. (2000). *The Complete Idiots Guide to Project Management with Microsoft*
- Project 2000, Pearson Professional Education.
- Bono, J.E. and Judge, T.A. (2003). *Self-concordance at work: towards understanding*
- Motivational effects of transformational leaders, *Academy of Management Journal*.
- Boyd, C. and Crossland, R. (2002). *The Leader's Voice*, Prentice- Hall.
- Burke, R. (2003). *Project Management*, 4th Edition, John Wiley and Sons Ltd.
- Ghattas, R.G. and McKee, S.L. (2004). *Practical Project Management*, 5th Edition, Pearson Education, Inc.
- Gray, C.F. and Larson, E.W. (2006). *Project Management: The Managerial Process*, 3rd Edition, McGraw-Hill/Irwin.
- Knutson, J. (2001). *Project Management for business professionals: a comprehensive guide*, John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Lockyer, K. and Gordon, J. (2005). *Project Management and Project Network Techniques*, 7th Edition, Financial Times Prentice Hall.
- Mantel, S.J. and Meredith, J. R. (2004). *Core Concepts: Project Management in Practice*, 2nd Edition, John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Marchewka, J. T. (2006). *Information Technology Project Management*, 2nd Edition, John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Maylor, H. (2003). *Project Management*, 3rd Edition, Prentice Hall.

- Meredith, J. R. (2005). Project Management, 6th Edition, McGraw-Hill/Irwin.
- Pawar, B. and Eastman, K. (1997). The Nature and Implications of contextual influences on transformational Leadership: A conceptual examination, Volume 22, Oklahoma State University.
- Popper, M. and Zakkai, E. (1994). Transactional, Charismatic and Transformational Leadership: Conditions Conducive to their Predominance, Leadership & Organization Development Journal, Vol. 15 No. 6, pp.468-80.
- Rooke, D. and. Torbert, W.R. (2005). Seven Transformations of Leadership, Harvard Business Review, Vol.5 No.2, pp.91-94.
- Stanley, P. (2000). Project Management for Dummies, McGraw-Hill/Irwin.
- Stone, A., Russel, R., and Patterson, K., (2004). Transformational versus servant Leadership, The Leadership & Organization Development Journal, Vol. 25 No. 4, pp.17-43.
- Toney, F. (2002). The Superior Project Manager: Global Competency Standards and Best Practices, Marcel Dekker/Center for Business Practices.
- Vera, D. and Crossan, M. (2004). Strategic Leadership and Organizational Learning, Academy of Management Review, Vol.23 No. 3, pp.23-56.

Problems, Factors and Consequences Associated with South Asian Women in Realising Their Rights to Sexual and Reproductive Well-being

Anisur Rahman Khan*

***Abstract:** Sexual and reproductive rights are the integral parts of women's human rights. Women's ability to exercise sexual and reproductive rights has a significant impact on the level of women's empowerment in a society. But many women in the world cannot exercise their sexual and reproductive rights since patriarchal ideologies and regulations do not allow them to even realise those rights. As a result, women cannot make independent decisions about their own sexual and reproductive rights and they have to confront many difficulties with their bodies and lives. Such a situation is very much phenomenal in South-Asia. In this essay attempts have been made to examine the main problems that many South-Asian women face in realising their rights and consequently, the difficulties they face.*

1.0 Introduction

Every human being irrespective of gender, age, class and creed, has the right to live in safety and to have access to healthcare. However, women sometimes find it difficult to enjoy the benefits of fundamental human rights, including rights related to sexual and reproductive well-being. Sexual and reproductive well-being is essential for all dimensions of our lives (Cornwall and Welbourn, 2002: 2). The neglect and denial of sexual and reproductive health and rights create many health-related problems throughout the world (Butler, 2004: 2). In the context of any poverty-stricken patriarchal social structure the issue is even more alarming. In a patriarchal social structure many women's economic dependency contributes directly to their inability to gain control over their reproductive and sexual lives (Freedman, 1995: 7). On the other hand, the value of women in such social systems is primarily determined by the services they provide as wives, sexual partners to men and as producers of and carers for children. The control over women's sexual and reproductive lives in this context is justified by the cultural and religious systems that prevail in patriarchal society (Freedman, 1995: 7). Women under such circumstances have to face many harsh realities throughout their lives. Hence, it becomes difficult for them to realise their rights to sexual and reproductive well-being since they are not free to exercise

* Assistant Director, Bangladesh Public Administration Training Centre, Savar, Dhaka

their rights. In this essay, I shall try to identify the problems many women face in realising their rights as well as the difficulties that confront them as a result. I shall discuss the issues particularly in the context of Bangladesh. In addition, I shall try to relate the situation prevailing in Bangladesh to two other South Asian countries namely, India and Pakistan, since Bangladesh bears a strong socio-cultural resemblance to them. It is to note that most of the South Asian people live in these three countries.

2.0 Women's Rights to Sexual and Reproductive Well-being

Sexual and reproductive rights have recently received considerable attention internationally, particularly after the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) held in Cairo in 1994. This Conference recognised that all aspects of reproductive health, including sexual health, are important to improve the quality of life for women, children and communities (Glasier and Gulmezoglu, 2006: 1550). For women, complete wellness is impossible without a state of trouble free sexual and reproductive health. Sexual and reproductive rights are, thus, the integral parts of universal human rights (UNFPA, 2000a: 2).

The International Planned Parenthood Federation (IPPF) Charter on Sexual and Reproductive Rights, published in 1996, has set out twelve rights as key human rights issues. These rights, which are particularly important for women living anywhere in the world, have been summarised below.

i) *The Right to Life* ensures that women who are currently at risk by reason of pregnancy must be protected; ii) *The Right to Liberty and Security of the Person* recognises that all persons must be free to enjoy and maintain their sexual and reproductive lives. Women have the right to be free from genital mutilation and should not be subjected to forced pregnancy, sterilisation or abortion; iii) *The Right to Equality, and to be Free from all Forms of Discrimination* aims to protect one's sexual and reproductive life from any forms of discrimination on grounds such as sex, race, religion, age etc.; iv) *The Right to Privacy* recognises that all sexual and reproductive health care services should be confidential, and all women have the right to their own reproductive choices, including abortion; v) *The Right to Freedom of Thought* states that all persons have the right to freedom of thought and speech related to sexual and

reproductive health and they must be protected from restrictive interpretation of religion, beliefs and customs; vi) *The Right to Information and Education* preserves the right of all persons to have information and education about the issues like the risks and effectiveness of methods of fertility regulation and prevention of unplanned pregnancies; vii) *The Right to Choose Whether or Not to Marry and to Found and Plan a Family* protects persons from marriages that are forced upon them; viii) *The Right to Decide Whether or When to Have Children* preserves women's right to regulate their fertility process; ix) *The Right to Health Care and Health Protection* includes the rights to information, access to the highest quality of health care, and protection from harmful traditional health care practices; x) *The Right to the Benefits of Scientific Progress* includes the rights of access to new, safe and acceptable reproductive technologies; xi) *The Right to Freedom of Assembly and Political Participation* states the rights to form an association to promote sexual and reproductive health and rights; xii) *The Right to be Free from Torture and Ill Treatment* includes the rights of children, women and men to be protected from sexual exploitation, abuse and harassment (IPPF, 2003: 8-22).

3.0 Women's Problems in Realising Rights to Sexual and Reproductive Well-being

It is a matter of great regret that various socio-economic and cultural barriers do not allow women to realise their right to sexual and reproductive well-being. I shall now discuss some of the common problems which many South Asian women face in this regard.

3.1 Lack of Education: Education is indispensable in improving sexual and reproductive well-being. Better educated women are more likely to have a greater say in their sexual and reproductive rights and well-being. However, inequality exists in access to education. South Asia as a region has the largest gender gap in the world, 62% of young women can read and write compared to 72% of young men (World Bank, 2007: np). In Bangladesh girls' dropout rate from school by the age of 16 is five times that of boys (Field and Ambras, 2005: 4). Moreover, the education system in South Asia itself also tends to be ambivalent about sex education and teachers often find sexual and reproductive issues very embarrassing and shameful to discuss (Bott and Jejeebhoy, 2003: 21). In Bangladesh women are at risk of facing catastrophe because of an AIDS epidemic

since they have limited access to sexual information (Cash et al. in Hadi and Parveen, 2003: 38). Sex education through schools is not offered in Bangladesh (Islam et al. 1999 in Hadi and Parveen, 2003: 39) and communication between parents and children on topics of sexuality and reproduction is very limited (Bott and Jejeebhoy, 2003: 21). Cultural set-up of South Asian society is as such, issues like sex, reproduction, pregnancy, contraception, sexually transmitted diseases are not normally discussed among the adult members of the family. In fact, girls and women in this region lack adequate formal and informal education on issues of sexual and reproductive well-being. As a result, it becomes very difficult for them to realise and to exercise their rights to sexual and reproductive well-being.

3.2 Practise of Early Marriage: Early marriage is a cause of the early dropout of girls from formal education. In such marriages females have little power or sense of self-reliance and this directly affects their sexual and reproductive well-being. Compelled by the cultural norms, girls in Bangladesh usually marry well before their eighteenth birthday (Burket, Mary K et al, 2006: 2). A study reveals that many Bangladeshi girls are married soon after puberty, partly to free their parents from an economic burden and partly to protect the girls' sexual purity. Poor girls may be taken as a third or fourth wife of a much older man and spend their lives as sexual and domestic servants (UNICEF, 2001: 2). In Bangladesh girls are married off early because of tradition and also because dowry prices double if they are older when they enter the marriage market (Mamhud, 2000; Bangladesh Observer, 1999; The Independent, 1999 in Forum on Marriage and Rights of Women and Girls, 2000: 12). Poverty forces many parents to have their daughters marry as soon as possible since it is very difficult for them to manage a huge dowry for grown-up girls. Marriage before the age of 18 is practised in South Asian countries and in both India and Pakistan very early marriage (before 15 years) is also practised (Singh and Samara, 1993: 151). Any form of early marriage is a violation of human rights and makes young women extremely helpless since, in most of the cases, they are not allowed to make their own decisions about their sexual and reproductive rights such as when and whom to marry, whether or when to have sexual relations and when to bear a child (Bott and Jejeebhoy, 2003: 11). After marriage a young woman only learns to use her labour in the household activities and to use her body for her husband's sexual pleasure (Barakat and Majid, 2003: 5).

3.3 Inequality between Genders: Women's sexual and reproductive health is affected by existing gender inequality in society. Gender inequality pressurises women to marry early, to begin child bearing immediately and to engage in sexual activity as an obligation (Butler, 2004: 3). Gender inequality is a fact of life in South Asian societies where women are subordinated to men and are socially, culturally and economically dependent on them (Narayan et al., 2000 in Fikree and Pasha, 2004: 823). Although women in Bangladesh constitute nearly half of the population but they have less participation in economic, political and decision making processes which is very important in making decisions about reproductive and sexual well-being. In many societies preference for males is very powerful, and it results in long lasting neglect, deprivation and discriminatory treatment of the females throughout their lives (Hersh, 1998: np). From a South Asian perspective sons are perceived to be social, economic and religious utilities and daughters are seen as an economic burden (Arnold F. et al., 1998 in Fikree and Pasha, 2004: 823). A boy is treated as an asset to the family since it is expected that he will shoulder the familial responsibilities and honour of the family. Conversely, a daughter is simply a burden (Zaman, 1999: 41) says. Women, therefore, try to secure their position in the family by producing male children (Ahmad, 1991: 37). But it is women who are actually blamed if girls are born in the families. In India, every sixth infant death is a result of practises arising from preferences for sons (Heise LL. et al, 1994 in Hersh, 1998: np) that lead to the cruel practise of female infanticide (Singh J, 2000; Bindra S, 2003 in Fikree and Pasha, 2004: 824). In fact, women in South Asia rarely have any say about their sexual and reproductive well-being since, in terms of social and cultural expectations, women are always expected to be sexually available and compliant for their husbands (Rashid, 2006: 37) and to act as a production industry for male offspring.

3.4 Poor Healthcare Provision: Health care provision has a direct impact upon women's sexual and reproductive health. Most of the Bangladeshi women start child-bearing at an early age and despite the high risks, very few seek modern and professional health care during pregnancy or at childbirth (Khanam, 1994: 20). Poor quality health services, difficulties in transportation and great cost have prevented many Bangladeshi women from seeking medical care and from reaching a medical facility

(Pitchforth et al., 2006: 224). A study in Bangladesh reveals that even in a public hospital where maternity services are supposed to be free, a poor family has to pay an average of 7% of its annual household income to cover the substantial cost of a single case (Khan, 2005:1). This money covers many expenses, including items that the hospital is supposed to provide free, such as tests, medicine and food (Khan, 2005, 3). This is one of the reasons why poor people in Bangladesh opt for indigenous reproductive practises. In India women's medical services have a lower priority within the structure of health service provision than services for children and men (Jeeffry et al., 1989: 216). The public reproductive health service is very poor in Pakistan (NIPS, 2001 in Sattar et al.: 221) and the majority of Pakistani women do not use public reproductive health services since their mobility is very restricted (NIPS, 2001 in Sattar et al.: 222). In rural areas where most South Asian people live, only 8.8% of deliveries are attended by a skilled attendant in Bangladesh, in India the figure is 33.5%, and in Pakistan it is 24.1% (UNFPA, 2005: np). Moreover, the doctor to patient ratio is also a significant indicator of the level of health care facilities for sexual and reproductive illness. Physician density per 1000 population is only 0.26 in Bangladesh, in India it is 0.60 and in Pakistan it is 0.74 (WHO 2007: np). In addition, only 5% of government expenditure is allocated to the health sector in Bangladesh, 3% in India and only 1% in Pakistan (Bhutta, 2004: 818). With such poor health care provision it is difficult for women and girls to have a healthy reproductive and sexual life. Poor healthcare provision does not give them the opportunity to realise their rights and stands as an obstacle to enjoy healthy sexual and reproductive life.

3.5 Problems with Using Contraceptive Methods: A woman needs to protect her body from infection, unwanted pregnancy and unsafe abortion. It is an essential part of her sexual and reproductive well-being. The use of contraception by both a woman and her husband can help in this regard. According to the report of 'Women of the World-South Asia', approximately 54% of married women aged 15-49 use some sort of contraception in Bangladesh. The figure is around 48% in India and only 27.6% in Pakistan (Centre for Reproductive Rights, 2004: 29, 69, 153). This means that most women in these countries do not use contraception. In Bangladesh and Pakistan religious misinterpretation always forms an obstacle to effective family planning programmes. In Bangladesh the

introduction of contraception methods for family planning faced aggressive opposition from many religious fundamentalists, and the fear of religious reprisals continues to make many women unwilling to accept certain contraceptive services, particularly sterilisation (Amin and Hossain, 1995: 3). The preference for sons also restricts women in using contraception. In India, a study reveals that women's future contraceptive use is connected with the number of living sons among their surviving children (Malhei and Jerath, 1997: np). A similar practise also prevails in Bangladesh where a couple who has only daughters tends to be less receptive to family planning and contraceptive use (Ullah and Chakrabarty, 1993: np). Gender based power inequalities lead to the belief that men should control women's sexuality and childbearing capacity. If women practise family planning by adopting contraceptive methods such control is curtailed (Blanc, 2001: 196). This is a fact of life for many women in South Asia since they have lower social status and less autonomy than men and such lower status is associated with lower fertility control (Saleem and Bobak, 2005: 2). In these circumstances it is difficult for women to realise and exercise their rights to sexual and reproductive well-being because they cannot make independent decisions about when to use contraceptives and when to not, which methods to adopt and which not to adopt.

If women are unable to realise and exercise their sexual and reproductive rights the consequences will be very serious. I shall now try to explore some of the factors and consequences related to their sexual and reproductive well-being in the context of these countries.

4.0 Factors and Consequences

Following major difficulties are faced by many women in Bangladesh, Pakistan and India since they are not in a position to realise their rights to sexual and reproductive well-being.

4.1 Early Marriage and its Impact on Young Females' Sexual and Reproductive Well-being: Early marriage is a very common phenomenon in these countries. It is a great bar for women to realise their sexual and reproductive rights. It results in early motherhood and has severe consequences for young mothers and their babies. The maternal mortality rate in South Asian countries is too high for women aged between 15 and 19 years (Hersh, 1998: np). In recent years adolescent childbearing has become an issue of increasing concern in Bangladesh where early

marriage, combined with low levels of contraceptive use, has resulted in children being born early (Maitra and Pal, 2007: 1). Around 30% of adolescent females in Bangladesh are already mothers. In Bangladesh, pregnancy and motherhood occur before adolescents are fully developed physically and this leads them to particularly acute health risks during pregnancy and childbirth (Barakat and Majid, 2003: 9). A UNICEF study revealed that in India and Pakistan young married women are under considerable societal and familial pressure to prove their fertility (Chatterjee and Lambert, nd: np). During 1992-93, 48.6% of Indian women gave birth to at least one child by the age of 20. The figure was 30.5% in Pakistan between 1990 and 1991 (Sing, 1998:121). It is due to extreme social pressure which not only forces young girls to marry early but also to bear children early and such South Asian mothers are twice as likely as older women to die from pregnancy related problems (World Bank, 2007: np). If it is the situation young married females' sexual and reproductive lives are extremely vulnerable.

4.2 Multiple Child-bearing and its Impact on Women's Sexual and Reproductive Well-being: The rate of multiple child-bearing among women of all ages in South Asia is still very high and it creates many complicated problems. On average, Bangladeshi women have nearly 3.46 pregnancies in their lifetime. Indian and Pakistani women have 3.01 and 5.08 pregnancies respectively (Centre for Reproductive Rights, 2004: 29, 69, 153). It is a fact that frequent pregnancies for women in this region is due to the pressure for giving birth to male offsprings. That is why women in these countries have to sacrifice their sexual and reproductive rights by producing children at frequent intervals, which is a leading cause of maternal mortality. One in every forty two women in Bangladesh, one in every fifty-five women in India and one in every eighty women in Pakistan are at risk of maternal death (Centre for Reproductive Rights, 2004: 30, 69, 116, 154). In Bangladesh, 25% of all deaths of women are caused by maternal death. Most of the deliveries are conducted by untrained hands and many of the deaths are due to obstetric complications such as haemorrhage and infection, lack of antenatal care, septic abortion etc. (Chowdhury, 1994: 31). On the other hand, as women are the most deprived members of the families, little emphasis is given to their nutritional needs, calorie intake or medical care (Farouk, 2005: np). About 45% of Bangladeshi mothers are malnourished and 70% of

pregnant women suffer from anaemic (Centre for Reproductive Rights, 2004: 44). Multiple childbearing, in fact, brings a lot of harm to women's sexual and reproductive well-being.

4.3 Unwanted Pregnancy and its Impact on Women's Sexual and Reproductive Well-being: Unwanted pregnancy creates many problems for South Asian women. Many women in this region do experience unwanted pregnancies because they are not allowed to independently exercise their sexual and reproductive rights. Globally about 48% of women aged 15-44 have experienced one unwanted pregnancy during their lifetime. The consequences of unwanted pregnancy are serious and impose burdens on children, women, men, families, and their societies (Moos, 2003; Brown and Eishenberg, 1995; Klima 1998 in Khan et al. 2006: 1, 2). Abortion is one of the leading causes of death of women in Bangladesh who want to end pregnancies which are unplanned, consequences of non-marital relations or of marriages that are yet to be recognised by the family members and pregnancies caused by sexual abuse (Barakat and Majid, 2003: 10). Abortion is illegal in Bangladesh unless the pregnancy is life-threatening, but menstrual regulation is allowed. To receive such services a woman needs her husband's consent and unmarried women do not have access to such services. Since they have no other alternative they opt for risky abortions (Chowdhury, 1994: 32). However, all sorts of abortion practises are still very unsafe in Bangladesh and 14% of all obstetric deaths are due to abortion complications (Barakat and Majid, 2003: 10). In Pakistan abortion is severely restricted and women are liable to prosecution (Bott and Jejeebhoy: 2004: 17). Pakistan allows abortion only if pregnancy is life threatening. Even such abortion services are rarely available in government establishments and many doctors are unwilling to offer it because of religious and personal beliefs (Centre for Reproductive Rights, 2004: 171). Hence, Pakistani women who really need it find themselves in an extremely disadvantaged position. A study revealed that in 1997 almost two-thirds of all abortions were done by poorly trained individuals in Pakistan (Centre for Reproductive Rights: 171). Abortion is legalised in India. However, in India abortion is done even in the fifth month of pregnancy and many of them are done by untrained practitioners (Shanti, 2005: 158). It is estimated that 20% of India's maternal mortality is due to unsafe abortion (Mira Shiva, 1991 in Centre for Reproductive Rights, 2004: 158).

4.4 Sexually Transmitted Diseases (STDs) and Their Impact on Women's Sexual and Reproductive Well-being: Sexually transmitted diseases are the second most common reason for loss of health in women around the world (Glasier et al., 2006: 1596). South Asia is no exception. Indian women are in the most vulnerable position in the region in terms of sexually transmitted diseases. If one considers only the statistics of HIV/AIDS, a very alarming picture is revealed. In 2001, 1.5 million Indian women had HIV/AIDS, and 16,000 Pakistani women were infected by HIV/AIDS in 2002 (Centre for Reproductive Rights, 2004: 87 172). In countries like Bangladesh and Pakistan where polygamy is widely practised women are more likely to be sexually infected by their husbands. However, it is very difficult for a woman to ask her husband to be tested, to seek treatment, or even to use a condom (Chowdhury, 1994: 34). In the context of Bangladesh a condom is viewed as a tool for fertility control rather than safe sex. Therefore, if a wife insists that her husband uses a condom, it may imply that she is unfaithful to her husband (Rashid, 2006: 73). A study in Bangladesh reveals that, in exchange of security and respectability, women overlook their husbands' behaviour and tolerate extramarital relations and co-wives (Rashid, 2006: 72). For most of the Bangladeshi women the risk of being beaten, divorced or abandoned and the fear of losing a source of emotional and financial support exceed the health risk of acquiring an STD (Chowdhury, 1994: 34). This is a form of violence against women. Sexually transmitted diseases are dangerous since they can cause permanent damage to women's sexual and reproductive systems.

5.0 Conclusion

The exercise of sexual and reproductive rights is very important for every woman in the world in order to have a healthy and safe life. It helps women to gain confidence and to make individual decisions about their own bodies and lives. The above discussion demonstrated that women's sexual and reproductive rights might sometimes be curtailed and they might not be allowed to exercise them on various grounds. Such practises are also increased when gender-discriminatory practises prevail in a particular society. South Asian women from Bangladesh, India and Pakistan face many problems in realising their rights to sexual and reproductive well-being and accordingly suffer from different physical and psychological difficulties. It should be noted that, in these countries,

women's sexual and reproductive lives are often controlled by men, and women have to lead their sexual and reproductive lives in the ways men desire since the practises of patriarchy are traditionally embedded in the nature of these societies. Moreover, women's economic dependency on men has limited their scope to gain control over their bodies and rights. This is a violation of human rights, a practise of humiliating human dignity and, as such, should not be allowed to continue. The declarations of international conventions in regard to women's sexual and reproductive well-being should be properly implemented at the state level, and people must be motivated about the core value of women's sexual and reproductive well-being since healthy women is a reflection of a healthy nation.

References:

- Ahmad, Alia (1991) *Women and Fertility in Bangladesh*. London: Sage Publications.
- Amin, Sajeda and Hossain, Sara (1995) *Women's Reproductive Rights and the Politics of Fundamentalism: A View from Bangladesh*. Available at: <http://waf.gn.apc.org/journal7p8.htm>. [Accessed May 26, 2007].
- Barakat, Abul and Majid, Murtaja (2003) *Adolescent Reproductive Health in Bangladesh. POLICY*. Available at: http://www.policyproject.com/pubs/countryreports/ARH_Bangladesh.pdf. [Accessed April 09, 2007].
- Bhutta, Zulfiqar A et al. (2004) *Maternal and Child Health: Is South Asia Ready for Change*. *British Medical Journal (BMJ)*, 328 (7443): 816-819.
- Blanc, Ann K (2001) *The Effect of Power in Sexual Relationships on Sexual and Reproductive Health: An Examination of the Evidence*. *Studies in Family Planning*, 32 (3): 189-213.
- Bott, Sarah and Jejeebhoy, Shireen J (2003) *Adolescent Sexual and Reproductive Health in South Asia: An Overview of Findings from the 2000 Mumbai Conference*. Geneva: World Health Organisation (WHO). Available at: http://www.who.int/reproductive-health/publications/towards_adulthood/towards_adultwood.pdf. [Accessed May 26, 2007].
- Burket, Mary K et al. (2006) *Raising the Age of Marriage of Young Girls in Bangladesh*. Dhaka: Pathfinder International. Available at http://www.phishare.org/files/4260_PF_Bangladesh_FINAL.pdf. Accessed December 18, 2006.
- Butler, Patricia A. (2004) *What Constitutes Sexual Health. Progress in Reproductive Health Research*, 67. Available at: <http://www.who.int/reproductive-health/hrp/progress/67.pdf>. Accessed May 26, 2007.
- Centre for Reproductive Rights (2004) *Women of the World: Laws and Policies Affecting their Reproductive Rights-South Asia*. New York, NY: The Centre for Reproductive Rights. Available at:

- http://www.reproductiverights.org/pub_bo_wowsa.html. [Accessed April 05, 2007].
- Chatterjee, Meera and Lambert, Julian (nd) Women and Nutrition: Reflections from India and Pakistan. Available at: <http://www.unsystem.org/scn/archives/npp06/ch16.htm#TopOfPage>. [Accessed April 09, 2007].
- Chowdhry, Sadia Afroze (1994) 'Women's Health in Bangladesh and Role of NGOs'. In Roushan Jahan et al, (ed.), Reproductive Rights and Women's Health. Dhaka: Women for Women.
- Cook, Rebecca J (1993) International Human Rights and Women's Reproductive Health. Studies in Family Planning, 24 (2): 73-86.
- Cornwall, Andrea and Wellbourn, Alice (2002) 'Introduction'. In Andrea Cornwall and Alice Wellbourn (eds), Realising Rights: Transforming Approaches to Sexual and Reproductive Well-being. London: Zed Books Ltd.
- Farouk, Sharmeen A. (2005) Violence Against Women: A Statistical Overview, Challenges and Gaps in Data Collection and Methodology and Approaches for Overcoming Them. Paper prepared for the United Nations
- Division for the Advancement of Women (UNDAW) in collaboration with ECE and WHO, Expert Group Meeting, 'Violence Against Women: A Statistical Overview, Challenges and Gaps in Data Collection and Methodology and Approaches for Overcoming Them'. Geneva: UN Division for the Advancement of Women (UNDAW), 11-14 April 2005. Available at: <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/egm/vaw-stat-2005/docs/expert-papers/Farouk.pdf>. [Accessed 4 May 2007].
- Field, Erica and Ambras, Attila (2005) Early Marriage and Female Schooling in Bangladesh. Available at: <http://www.economics.harvard.edu/faculty/field/papers/EarlymarEducation-1205.pdf>. [Accessed December, 25, 2006].
- Fikree, Fariyal F and Pasha, Omrana (2004) Role of Gender in Health Disparity: The South Asian Context. British Medical Journal (BMJ), 328 (7443): 823- 826.

- Forum on Marriage and Rights of Women and Girls (2000) *Early Marriage: Whose Right to Choose*. London: The Forum on Marriage and the Rights of Women and Girls. Available at: http://www.eenet.org.uk/key_issues/gender/emarriage_choose.pdf. [Accessed April 03, 2007].
- Freedman, Lynn P (1995) 'Censorship and Manipulation of Reproductive Health Information'. In Sandra Coliver (ed.), *The Right to Know: Human Rights and Access to Reproductive Health Information*, Pennsylvania: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Glasier Anna and Gulmezoglu, A Metin (2006) Putting Sexual and Reproductive Health on the Agenda. *The Lancet* 368 (9547): 1550-1551.
- Hadi, Abdullahel and Parveen, Roxana (2003) Promoting Knowledge of Sexual Illness among Women in Bangladesh: Can Non-Government Organisations Play a Role. *Asia Pacific Journal*, 16 (4): 17-30.
- Hersh, Lauren (1998) *Giving Up Harmful Practices, Not Culture*. Washington DC: Advocates For Youth. Available at: <http://www.advocatesforyouth.org/PUBLICATIONS/iag/harmprac.htm>. Accessed April 02, 2007.
- IPPF (2003) *IPPF Charter on Sexual and Reproductive Rights*. London: International Planned Parenthood Federation (IPPF). Available at: <http://www.ippf.org/NR/rdonlyres/6C9013D5-5AD7-442A-A435-4C219E689F07/0/charter.pdf>. [Accessed April 02, 2007].
- Jeefry et.al. (1989) *Labour Pains and Labour Power*. London: Zed Books Ltd.
- Khan, MMH et al. (2006) *Unintended Pregnancy in Bangladesh*. World Health and Population. Available at: <http://www.longwoods.com/product.php?productid=17894&page=163>. [Accessed April 10, 2007].
- Khan, Shohila H (2005) Free Does Not Mean Affordable: Maternity Patient Expenditures in a Public Hospital in Bangladesh. *Cost Effectiveness and Resource Allocation*, 3 (1): 1-7.
- Khanam, Sadiqa Tahera (1994) 'Available Health Care for Women in Public Sector'. In Roushan Jahan et al. (ed.), *Reproductive Rights and Women's Health*, Dhaka: Women for Women

- Maitra, Pushkar and Pal, Sarmistha (2007) Early Childbirth, Health Inputs and Child Mortality: Recent Evidence from Bangladesh. Available at: <http://129.3.20.41/eps/hew/papers/0411/0411004.pdf>. [Accessed April 12, 2007].
- Malhi, Prahbjot and Jagat, Jerath (1997) Is Son Preference Constraining Contraceptive Use in India? *Guru Nanak Journal of Sociology*, 18 (2). Available at: <http://www.gendwaar.gen.in/contraceptive/contral5.htm#5>. [Accessed April'04, 2007].
- Pitchforth E et al. (2006) Getting Women to Hospital is not Enough: A Qualitative Study of Access to Emergency Obstetric Care in Bangladesh. *Quality and Safety in Health Care*, 15: 214- 219.
- Rashid, Sabina Faiz (2006) Small Powers, Little Choice: Contextualising Reproductive and Sexual Rights in Slums in Bangladesh. *IDS Bulletin*, 37 (5): 69-76.
- Saleem, Shabana and Bobak, Martin (2005) Women's Autonomy, Education and Contraception Use in Pakistan: A National Study. *Reproductive Health*, 2 (8). Available at: <http://www.reproductive-health-journal.com/content/pdf/1742-4755-2-8.pdf>. [Accessed April 08, 2007].
- Sattar, Zeba et.al (2005) Introducing Client-centered Reproductive Health Services in a Pakistani Setting. *Studies in Family Planning*, 36 (3): 221-234.
- Singh, Susheela (1998) Adolescent Childbearing in Developing Countries: A Global Review. *Studies in Family Planning* 29 (2): 117-136.
- Singh, Susheela and Samara, Reese (1996) Early Marriage among Women in the Developing Countries. *International Family Planning Perspectives*, 22 (4): 148- 157.
- Ullah, Md. Shahid and Chakrabarty, Nitai (1993) Factors Affecting the Use of Contraception in Bangladesh: A Multivariate Analysis. *Asia Pacific Population Journal*, 8(3), Available at: <http://www.unescap.org/esid/psis/population/journal/1993/v08n3a2.htm>. [Accessed April 04, 2007].

UNFPA (2000) *Women's Empowerment and Reproductive Health: Links Throughout the Life Cycle*, New York NY: UNFPA Interactive Population Centre.

UNFPA (2005) *Population, Health and Socio-economic Indicators/Policy Implications*. New York, NY: UNFPA. Available at: <http://www.unfpa.org/profile/compare.cfm>. [Accessed April 02, 2007].

UNICEF (2001) *Early Marriage: Child Spouses*. Florence: UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre. Available at: <http://www.unicef-icdc.org/publications/pdf/digest7e.pdf>. [Accessed April 03, 2007].

World Health Organisation (2007) *Countries*. Geneva: World Health Organisation (WHO). Available at: <http://www.who.int/countries/en/>. [Accessed April 04, 2007].

World Bank (2007) *Some Key Statistics on Youth in South Asia*. Washington DC: The World Bank. Available at: <http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/COUNTRIES/SOUTHASIAEXT/0,contentMDK:20827027~pagePK:146736~piPK:146830~theSitePK:223547,00.html>. [Accessed April 10, 2007].

Zaman, Habiba (1999) *Violence Against Women in Bangladesh: Issues and Responses*. *Women's Studies International Forum*, 22 (1): 37-48.

Application of e-Governance in Development Administration: A Study of Prospects and Challenges in Bangladesh

Mohammad Shafiqul Islam¹

Mohammad Nashir Uddin²

Abstract: E-Governance and development are interrelated and interdependent issue in the process of development administration. The necessity of e-governance is recognised at every step of human life in administration and it works to make socio-economic development in the country. This article is an attempt to discuss on e-Governance and development in the process of administrative works in Bangladesh. In the study a framework has been presented to discuss the e-Governance and development and how it is related to development administration of Bangladesh. Different factors of development are considered as tools in analysing e-Governance and development administration. The factors are explained based on concepts of e-Governance in the context of development administration of Bangladesh. The final part of the study highlights various problems of e-Governance in Bangladesh relating to development administration and makes a concluding remark on overall concepts.

1.0 Introduction

Governance refers to exercise of political, economic, and administrative authority in the management of a country. It aims to serve the citizen and preserves their legal rights and obligation. e-Governance means the performance of the governance via electronic medium in order to facilitate efficient, speedy and transparent performance of the administrative activities. E-Governance helps to bring good governance in the country and it is a process of development administration. In general sense, good governance means participation, transparency and accountability in administration and it is a vital issue for ensuring development in the administration. Development administration is an empirical process and its role is important in politics and administration of a country. In administration, E-Governance is no longer a matter of choice, but an absolute need of the day. The socio-economic development is a crucial issue in the administration of a country and it is only possible by using e-Governance.

1 Assistant Professor, Department of Public Administration, Shahjalal University of Science & Technology, Sylhet, Bangladesh - E-mail: sislam_psa@yahoo.co.in

2 Assistant Professor, Department of Public Administration, Shahjalal University of Science & Technology, Sylhet, Bangladesh- E-mail: mnuddin_pa@yahoo.com

The process of e-Governance is a vital issue in development administration and it plays a significant role in administration. Presently, it is being used as a modern technique in administration. The techniques of e-Governance and its way of working in development administration are the main subject matter of the study. The application of e-Governance and its prospects to development administration are analyzed on the basis of a conceptual framework in the study.

2.0 Concept of e-Governance

Policy makers of the developed countries envisioned that new developments in ICT and especially the TCP/IP protocol would make a significant contribution in achieving the objectives of good governance. E-governance is a new concept in the development literature and now a day it is a buzzword to the development scholars and even in the conscious people throughout the world. With the advent of Internet technology in the early part of the last decade, the developed countries coined the concept of e-governance. There is an ambiguous idea amongst the common people that e-governance is governance through computerization of the administrative functionaries. What really means is the delivery of government services to the public by using electronic means, the use of information and communication technologies to promote more efficient government by allowing better access to information and making government more accountable to citizens. Now a-days Information Technology (IT) has been looked at as a tool for solving problems in developed and developing countries. It is a new concept into the government officials of Bangladesh involving a fear and unfounded resistance while government is taking some steps for implementation of it in order to extract possible benefit from it (Taifur 2003:3-4).

Sometimes e-governance and e-government are mistakenly used interchangeably. The fact is that the two terms bear distinction. E-governance deals with the whole spectrum of the relationship and administration of networks of government with the wider society while e-government deals with the development of online services to the citizens. So, it is clear that e-governance encompasses a series of necessary steps for government agencies to develop and administer to ensure successful implementation of e-government services to the public (Sheridan & Reily 2006:1).

So, the term e-Governance can be defined as efficient and effective use of modern ICT technology with a view to establishing good governance for any country. From the management and technological perceptions, the e-governance can also be defined as Electronic State Management System based on information and communication technologies (ICT), including the Internet technology (Kabir 2007).

3.0 Development Administration

Development administration is a new branch of public administration and it is considered as strategic tools in development of a country. It is innovative, dynamic, and proactive in nature. According to Edward W. Weidner development administration is concerned with maximizing innovation for development (Sapru 1994:123). In general sense development administration means the administration for development and development of administration. It indicates that socio-economic development of a country is highly dependent on proper functions in administration. On the other hand, development of administration is emphasized on administrative development which means the efficiency and effectiveness in administration.

Development administration is a process of planned social change and innovation in the process of administrative actions. E-governance is an innovative aspect of social change and development, used as tools in development administration. The connectivity of e-governance in administration facilitates to ensure development. So the access of e-governance make easier and faster in the process of development as well as development administration.

4.0 Objectives of the Study

Development and e-governance are very interrelated issue in the administration of developed and developing countries. E-governance is used in developed countries for bringing about socio-economic development and other challenging areas. The uses of e-governance make positive changes in the society like Bangladesh. It is considered as a potential area in the process of development in Bangladesh. In the study the following objectives are mainly focused:

- a. The concept of e-Governance and its relation to development administration of Bangladesh.
- b. To identify different indicators of development and how e-Governance ensures development in the process of administration.
- c. Highlighting prospects and problems of e-Governance in development administration through analysing different issues of development.

5.0 Sources of Data

The study is mainly conducted by using secondary data. Besides, the sources of data are from different books, journals, and daily news papers, relevant documents from government and non government organizations. Internet websites are used to conduct the study.

6.0 Framework in the Study

Development Administration refers to dynamism, decentralization, participation, and changing process in administration. And e-governance is a new dimension to make public services speedy and efficient. Now-a-days administration is to be called development if there is a usage in effective information technology. E-governance is a new chapter in administration of Bangladesh and its proper practice makes the administration more dynamic and service- oriented, and the ultimate goal is to achieve development.

The analytical framework in the study is a combination of four basic components of e-governance involving interaction of individual citizens with government (G2C), interaction of business entities and communities with government (G2B), and interaction among officials within the government office/s (G2G). This combination of functioning through information and communication technology (ICT) makes government something that may be termed as e-Government although some scholars named third category as it.

In order to ensure the G2C and G2B interaction of e-governance it is of a great necessity to install international submarine cable (optical fibre link with global network), strengthen ICT infrastructure and set up Internet Exchange (IX) along with national security. If one of these activities is absent, the ultimate goal of the e-governance will remain unfulfilled.

Government is committed to deliver its services in a SMART (Simple, Moral, Accountable and Transparent) manner and it is possible through ICT based e-governance.

The G2G component of e-governance will require access to ICT by the actors, increased awareness among them, accessibility of IT systems, proper incentive structure, adequate training facilities, reliable maintenance of equipments, sustainability of the systems etc (Taifur 2003:5-6). It is also important to establish necessary legal framework for effective regulation, capacity building of the officials, and user-friendly software by local companies, expertise professionalism, and continuous supply of electricity across the nation, ensure low cost high reliability of internet access (Taifur 2003:8). The ultimate objective of e-governance is to establish good governance, which will eventually lead to development of administration as well as administration of development. The important aspect of e-Governance is to be interconnected with all government organizations towards providing services to people. This connectivity facilitates exchanging information among different organs of the government through electronic devices. It also makes the government officials more active, aware of their defined goals and responsibilities.

On the other hand, the framework shows various issues of development administration, which are expected to be achieved through successful implementation of e-governance in developing countries trying to reap benefits from this networking governance process. The application of ICT promoting e-governance surmounts some of the social, political, and administrative challenges and may ensure delivery of health, education, and other social services through this a viable technology (Sharma 2006)

The whole process may be shown in the following figure:

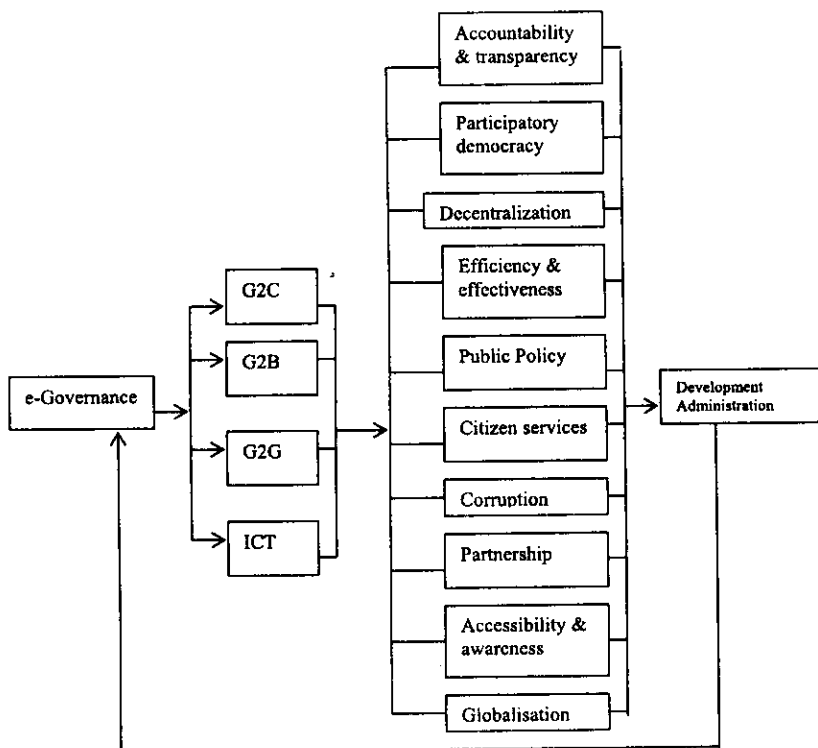


Figure: E-governance and development administration

6.1 Accountability and Transparency

Accountability brings transparency in administration and the ultimate goal of administration is to ensure good governance. It is part of development administration. In the administration, superior-subordinate relationships are based on exchanging information and e-Governance works as a helping tool to make it easier. This relationship helps to accountable to each-other. Government officials must be accountable to people if the access of information is available. It is called that e-Governance is network based governance, so policy maker are indirectly accountable to people for their activities.

Through the introduction of e-governance, government can practice its greater openness, transparency and accountability in performance.

Performance appraisal system will be more authentic by using modern technique of e-Governance in administration. The authorities will be able to evaluate their subordinates in an objective manner and to scrutinize it if felt to be needed. Red-tapism is the main barrier in the process of development administration and it is possible to remove by applying e-Governance in the administration.

6.2 Participatory democracy

The economic development of the country depends on democratic political environment and it is possible by using e-Governance in administration. E-Governance leads to e-Democracy and it is a process of political development. In the process of e-Governance, any political party can be able to select the possible candidate for the election democratically if it has its own website (this is also a component of e-Governance) by seeking opinion through website. This selection will reflect the opinion of the common people and thus will reduce the impact of black money in the selection of the candidature (Kabir 2007).

It is necessary to conduct a free, fair and credible election for institutionalisation of democracy. The first and foremost of this process is to produce an authentic voter-list but we were observing enormous wastage of public money in preparing politically biased error-prone voter list. The election commission of Bangladesh is now doing the job by applying scientific technology. If this voter list is presented through website, the voters may claim for necessary correction if needed, the duplication can be avoided, the time, money and labour can be saved. However, in e-Governance environment, as the citizens' basic record database is one of the vital components, it is easily possible to generate a flawless unbiased voter list with the latest status of the citizen (e.g. age, present address) in any time without spending any additional money (Kabir 2007).

6.3 Decentralization

Decentralization is the latest fashion of development administration in developing countries like Bangladesh. The process of e-Governance makes decentralization more dynamic and people oriented. Democratic form of local government is the vital and crucial part in ensuring good governance. Upazila administration is a part of decentralized administration in Bangladesh and the initiative of e-Governance at this

unit play vital role in the process of development administration. Perhaps, this bottom up approach (i.e. starting from upazilla) strategy for e-governance is the most appropriate in country like ours, where the majority of the population lives in villages under Upazilla administrations (Kabir 2007). If a central database and a communication network were maintained, central-local relation would be more effective; problems would be solved within a shortest possible time. The most effective unit of local government in Bangladesh is union parishad. By using e-Governance at this unit local people can get services within shortest time. E-governance makes services speedy which is one of the important indicators of development administration. Information flow from central to local may thus pave the way for establishing main spirit of decentralization.

6.4 Efficiency and Effectiveness

The adoption of a complete integrated e-government system speeds up performance in terms of time, reliability, efficiency and effectiveness. For instance, issuance of a new passport requires many processes (e.g. police verification, validation of Birth certificate) whereas had a proper e-governance system implemented then a person would have easily applied for a new passport using his digital signature and citizenship identifier and got the passport ready within 24 hours without paying any urgent/very urgent fee or taking any other hassle. In the process of e-governance, all the departments of government are virtually integrated, when the person applies for a passport through website of the passport and immigration department, the specific data stated by the applicant will be sent to the relevant departments instantly for cross checking and validation. As for example, for getting police clearance, data provided by the applicant will be cross checked with police department's data and a report (either positive or negative) will be generated automatically and sent to the server of the Passport and Immigration department office. Subsequently in the server of the Passport and Immigration department receiving the person's application and report as required from various departments system will decide automatically whether the person is eligible to receive the new passport or not. Unfortunate incidence could be avoided if e-Governance environment prevailed here. For example, an unexpected incidence occurred in Phulbari, centring the coalmine contract with the Asia Energy. The government could take opinion from

the local people through website on this issue. On the same issue a website discussion group could have been formed which would make the government transparent in decision-making. By the people's active participation, some pro-people positive decision would come out considering the country's resource constraints, local environment, and other socio-political issues (Kabir 2007).

6.5 Public Policy

Public policy is a crucial issue of any develop or developing country in the world to ensure socio-economic development. Government has to take different policies on the basis of demand of people. Policy formulation as well as implementation is vital stage in the management of public policy. The formulation of public policy is to be appropriate if the supply of information and process have done accurately and properly. The application of e-Governance helps to manage input of policies within a very shortest period from reliable sources. To formulate public policy in developing countries like Bangladesh the comparative policies of developed countries also make easier through using e-Governance in government administration. The policy implementation is very important issue in development administration and managerial functions of government are facilitating to implement the policies. The e-governance can work as a facilitating role in managerial functions of government. So the usage of e-Governance play important role in policy formulation as well as implementation.

6.6 Citizen Services

Introduction of e-governance may serve as a tool to enhance productivity and improve the quality of government services (Sobhan 2004:5). Service to people is the main goal of e-Governance in development administration and make it nearer to people. It makes decentralization of government services and decision making easier. Through using e-Governance in different sectors citizen of the country can get maximum services and it is a vital issue in the process of development administration. Different ministry of governments have bought new dimension to the efficient provision of government service to citizen. It serves as a model for citizen-focused government services in Bangladesh. E-Governance is a easy way to get services like pay fees, download forms and necessary information from various private and public organizations.

The services of e-Governance enhance standard and quality of life to citizen which is important indicator to development administration.

6.7 Corruption

The degree of corruption in the public sector dramatically falls in the countries where e-governance has been initiated. A survey in India in 2000 has revealed that the states where e-governance has been established even partially, the corruption rate has dramatically reduced. Even in Bangladesh we may observe that due to computerization of Railway Reservation System, the number of black-marketers (middle men who used to involve in illegal ticket selling) has reduced significantly. Elimination of the middlemen in citizen-government interaction, in fact, is the major factor that acts in eradicating corruption levels. Again in the government offices, if the people interact with the government organs through web-page then colonial red tapes practices will be totally removed. This in turn will reduce the pervasive bribery practices in government offices (Kabir 2007).

6.8 Partnership

By introducing e-governance, a PPP (Public Private Partnership) framework to strengthen information flow among different category of partners like Government, Private sector or NGOs and civil society may work together for achieving hared goals and objectives which also would save time, money, expertise and other resources for ensuring sustainable development. Access of partnership may have the knowledge and process of functionaries of the factor related with this through information flow over information technology.

6.9 Accessibility and Awareness

Easy accessibility to information for all citizens is the prime concern for development, as we know that information is power in today's world. In fact, gap between availability and non-availability of information creates the major causes of non-equity and social injustice among different segments of the people in a society. If everybody gets the same extent of accessibility to e-governance then the class distance among the different groups in the society will be minimized abruptly(Kabir 2007). On the other hand, access to information raises awareness and knowledge of people to gain their dues. E-governance creates enabling conditions for national development and prosperity through accelerated economic

growth; it also facilitates the increased flow of information about the existing resources and public services. Process of e-education (online education) can be introduced like distance education (Sobhan 2004:5) . Ultimate e-governance will bring equity, social justice by reducing the digital gap among different segments of the society.

6.10 Globalisation

The development of a country is highly dependent on impact of globalization. The world is changing at every moment and the thinking and acting of people have been dramatically changed because of globalization. The changes have been occurred by bringing e-governance in administration. The relationship of e-governance and globalization is interrelated with each other and without its positive impact development cannot be ensured. The trade and commerce is an important aspect in economic development of a country and it is very much connected to globalization. The balance of commerce in developed and developing countries largely depend on impact of globalization. Bangladesh, as a Least Developed Country (LDC) the impact of globalization plays significant role in its economic development. So, e-governance would be used as a helping tool to ensure its economic development as well as balanced trade and commerce.

7.0 Problems and Challenges

In developed countries e-Governance is used as a factor to solve everyday actions and it is part and parcel of administration. Bangladesh is a developing country and the application of e-Governance is also challenging in administration. The usage of e-Governance is limited in the administration of Bangladesh due to several reasons. It hampers to make socio-economic development.

Politics is very much involvement in the implementation of e-Governance in Bangladesh. Political commitment is mandatory in ensuring e-Governance of a country. But the culture of politics in Bangladesh impacts negatively in the process of e-Governance. It hampers development process of the country. The nature of bureaucracy in Bangladesh is rigid and traditional. The red-tapism is one of the important feature bureaucratic management. It is difficult to bureaucrats to adjust innovative technology in the everyday work. So the bureaucratic norms in administration work negatively in development functions.

In society level, problems may be occurred regarding public opinion as people are skill in an ambiguous situation for their ignorance of reality about e-Governance. Moreover, participation of the people is also essential which is really a problem for a country like ours where a large portion of population is either illiterate or partially so. Proper delivery of e-Governance requires human resources having higher level technical know how about information about information and communication technologies. It also needs handsome initial investment at very outset as instalment cost. The managerial level also has to be acquainted with the up to date techniques and technologies to maximize the benefits of e-Governance.

Use of electronic media for e-Governance requires a sound legal framework to maintain and control free flow of information. There should be appropriate rule become and law to ensure intellectual properly rights, illegal in penetration ethical issues like privacy and protection of properties and goodwill of the stakeholders. For e-Governance, a strong base of infrastructure and logistic support is essential at very beginning. One it becomes possible it only requires maintenance and managerial support. In a developing country like Bangladesh the government may share private sector, media, phone etc for their purpose.

8.0 Conclusion

The e-Governance is a dynamic and contemporary issue in the process of development administration of Bangladesh. It is working as a helping instrument in delivering services to different sectors and the ultimate focused on development administration. As a developing country like Bangladesh, it is very essential to apply e-Governance at every sphere of life. Application of e-Governance is limited in Bangladesh still now due to different constraints in administration but it is considered as thrust sector. It is a changing agent of socio-economic development in the country leads development administration in different way. The efficiency and effectiveness of administration are ensured by using e-Governance, an ingredient factor of development administration. Another important factor of development administration is ensuring accountability and transparency in administration and it is to be sustained through e-Governance.

References

- Kabir, M. A. (2007), E-Governance Discourse: Bangladesh reality, the Dhaka Courier, Dhaka, Jan 5.
[http:// www.topics.developmentgateway.org](http://www.topics.developmentgateway.org)(accessed on June 2007)
- Prabhu, C.S.R(2005).e-Governance Concepts and Case Studies, Prentice Hall of India Private Limited,New Dehli-11001.
- Rahman L.M (2008).e-Governance: Its Many Benefits, The Daily Star, February 18,(Special Issue on 17th Anniversary,p.29
- Chowdhury, A. (2008).e-Governance: Myth or Reality for Bangladesh, The Daily Star, February 18,(Special Issue on 17th Anniversary,p.33
- Sapru, R.K (1994). Development Administration, Sterling Publishers Private Limited, L-10, Green Park Extension, New Delhi-110016.
- Sharma, C.(2006).Background paper on Service Delivery Models by Existing e-Governance and ICT4D Projects in India & Their Reliance, Integration with the CSE scheme of the Government of India.
- Sheridan, W. & Reily, T. B. (2006), "Comparing E-government vs. E-governance" <http://www.rileyis.com> (accessed on July 2007)
- Sobhan, F. (2004), Study of e-Government in Bangladesh, Bangladesh Enterprise Institute, Dhaka
- Taifur, SASM (2003), "Problems of e-governance in Bangladesh and Possible Steps towards Solutions" presented at brainstorming seminar on "Road Map to ICT Development in Bangladesh, June 31, 2003, IDB Bhaban, Dhaka,
- Zaman, F (2007). Addressing e-Governance interoperability Issues, The Daily Star, August 11, Editorial page.

References

- Kabir, M. A. (2007), E-Governance Discourse: Bangladesh reality, the Dhaka Courier, Dhaka, Jan 5.
- [http:// www.topics.developmentgateway.org](http://www.topics.developmentgateway.org)(accessed on June 2007)
- Prabhu, C.S.R.(2005).e-Governance Concepts and Case Studies, Prentice Hall of India Private Limited,New Dehli-11001.
- Rahman L.M (2008).e-Governance: Its Many Benefits, The Daily Star, February 18,(Special Issue on 17th Anniversary,p.29
- Chowdhury, A. (2008).e-Governance: Myth or Reality for Bangladesh, The Daily Star, February 18,(Special Issue on 17th Anniversary,p.33
- Sapru, R.K (1994). Development Administration, Sterling Publishers Private Limited, L-10, Green Park Extension, New Delhi-110016.
- Sharma, C.(2006).Background paper on Service Delivery Models by Existing e-Governance and ICT4D Projects in India & Their Reliance, Integration with the CSE scheme of the Government of India.
- Sheridan, W. & Reily, T. B. (2006), "Comparing E-government vs. E-governance" <http://www.rileyis.com> (accessed on July 2007)
- Sobhan, F. (2004), Study of e-Government in Bangladesh, Bangladesh Enterprise Institute, Dhaka
- Taifur, SASM (2003), "Problems of e-governance in Bangladesh and Possible Steps towards Solutions" presented at brainstorming seminar on "Road Map to ICT Development in Bangladesh, June 31, 2003, IDB Bhaban, Dhaka,
- Zaman, F (2007). Addressing e-Governance interoperability Issues, The Daily Star, August 11, Editorial page.

একক ও দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের বৈবাহিক সন্তুষ্টি: একটি সমীক্ষা

ড. নিয়াজ আহমেদ*

Abstract: The present study aims at investigating marital satisfaction of single and dual earner couples. The sample of the study consisted one hundred taking fifty-five from single and fifty-five from dual earners. The subject was selected based on purposive sampling. The study was conducted in Sylhet City. To measure the marital satisfaction of both the couples, a structured questionnaire is used. The importance was given on various aspects of marital satisfaction like social, economical, psychological and emotional. The result indicates that dual earner couples have more marital satisfaction than the single earners. Some factors have influence on satisfaction of marital life over couples' lives. Result also indicates that differences of age and educational qualifications between husband and wife are wider among single earners as compared with their counterparts. However, dual earners enjoy more influence on many matters over their lives as compared with single earners. Mutual understanding is more among dual earners than the single earners. In order to increase the marital satisfaction in couples' lives, respect from each other, free consultation, exchanging views and ideas on family matters, spending maximum time for each other, polite behaviour can be considered effectively. Consequently, changing social attitude, prepare oneself based on fast-changing society and become responsible for each other are also be considered in this connection.

১.০ ভূমিকা

মানব সমাজে বিবাহ একটি সামাজিক বন্ধন হিসেবে স্বীকৃত। আবার আইনগত ও ধর্মীয় দৃষ্টিকোণ থেকে প্রায় সকল ধর্মেই বিবাহ একটি দেওয়ানী চুক্তি (civil contract)। প্রকৃতপক্ষে বিবাহ একটি সামাজিক প্রপঞ্চ (social phenomenon)। বিবাহকে বিবেচনা করে না এমন কোন দেশ কিংবা সমাজ পৃথিবীতে বিরল। যদিও বিবাহের ধরন ও প্রকৃতির মধ্যে বিভিন্ন সমাজ এবং দেশের মধ্যে ভিন্নতা লক্ষ্য করা যায়। প্রাচীনকালে বিবাহের অস্তিত্ব ছিল না। কালের পরিক্রমায়, সময়ের পরিবর্তন এবং সামাজিক উৎকর্ষতার জন্য বিবাহ প্রথার শুরু হয়। আর এ প্রথার জন্য সমাজ ব্যবস্থা একটি শৃংখলাপূর্ণ অবস্থানে পৌঁছায়। আমাদের সমাজে প্রধানত একগামী বিবাহ (monogamy) প্রথার প্রচলন সমাদৃত, তথাপিও বহুগামী বিবাহ (polygamy) ব্যবস্থার সংস্কৃতি লক্ষ্য করা যায়। সামাজিক দৃষ্টিভঙ্গি ও ধর্মীয় অনুশাসনের জন্য সাধারণত পারিবারিক সম্মতিতেই বিবাহ কার্য সম্পন্ন হয়ে থাকে। তবুও পারিবারিক অসম্মতিতে বিবাহের সংখ্যা তুলনামূলকভাবে কম নয়।

বিবাহের মাধ্যমে পরিবার গঠন আমাদের দেশে সমাজ স্বীকৃত। যেখানে প্রাত্যহিক জীবনের সুখ, শান্তি, আনন্দ-বেদনা, প্রাপ্তি ও সন্তুষ্টির একটি বিরাট অংশ জড়িত। এর মাধ্যমে শুরু হয় দাম্পত্য জীবন। দাম্পত্য জীবনের সাথে বৈবাহিক সন্তুষ্টির বিষয়টি ওতপ্রোতভাবে জড়িত। প্রকৃতপক্ষে দাম্পত্য জীবনের বিভিন্ন কার্যাবলীর মধ্যেই নিহিত রয়েছে সন্তুষ্টির মাত্রা। এর মধ্যে অর্থনৈতিক কার্যাবলী অন্যতম। পরিবারের এ কাজ সাধারণত পরিবারের পুরুষ বা কর্তা ব্যক্তির উপর ন্যস্ত থাকত। কিন্তু বর্তমানে এর কিছুটা ভিন্নতা লক্ষ্য করা যায়। সাধারণত এ ধারণা পোষণ করা হয় যে, মেয়েরা গৃহের আভ্যন্তরীণ কাজকর্ম যেমন- সন্তান

* সহযোগী অধ্যাপক, সমাজকর্ম বিভাগ, শাহজালাল বিজ্ঞান ও প্রযুক্তি বিশ্ববিদ্যালয়, সিলেট

লালন-পালন, রান্না-বান্না ইত্যাদি কাজগুলো করবে। কিন্তু শিক্ষার ব্যাপক প্রসারের মাধ্যমে মেয়েরা কর্মক্ষেত্রে প্রবেশ করছে এবং পারিবারিক ও সামাজিক উন্নয়নে অবদান রাখছে। বর্তমানে মেয়েদের বহুবিধ ভূমিকায় অবতীর্ণ হতে হচ্ছে যা তাদের বৈবাহিক জীবনে প্রভাব ফেলছে।

পুরুষশাসিত সমাজ ব্যবস্থায় পুরুষদের কর্তৃত্ব অবিসংবাদিতভাবে সর্বত্র স্বীকৃত হয়ে থাকে। এ সমাজ ব্যবস্থায় নারীদের ক্ষমতা সাধারণত নিয়ন্ত্রিত হয় পুরুষদের কর্তৃত্বের বলয়ে। বৈবাহিক সম্পর্কের ক্ষেত্রে কতগুলো উৎসের কথা Strong and Devault (1986) উল্লেখ করেছেন, যেগুলো সম্পর্কের মাত্রা নির্ধারণে সহায়তা করে। যেমন- আইনগত অধিকার, অর্থ, শারীরিক শক্তি এবং ভালবাসা।^১ এগুলো একদিকে যেমন স্বামী-স্ত্রীর সম্পর্ক সুদৃঢ়করণে সহায়তা করে, পাশাপাশি দ্বন্দ্ব সৃষ্টিতেও কোন কোন উৎস কাজ করে। এই উৎসগুলোর সাথে আবার একক ও দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের সম্পর্ক রয়েছে। অর্থাৎ দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে অর্থিক অবদান অনেক ক্ষেত্রে সমান থাকে বিধায় সম্পর্কের মাত্রার ক্ষেত্রে সমস্যা দেখা দেয়। কর্তৃত্ব প্রতিষ্ঠার ক্ষেত্রেও একই ধরনের সমস্যা দেখা দেয়। আবার, একক চাকুরিজীবী পরিবারের ক্ষেত্রে স্বামী যদি চাকুরিজীবী হন, তাহলে সংসারের কর্তৃত্ব তার উপর থাকে। অর্থাৎ স্বামীর হাতে অর্থ ও ক্ষমতা দুটোই থাকে যার মাধ্যমে পারিবারিক সিদ্ধান্ত গ্রহণে স্বামীর একক আধিপত্য বজায় থাকে। আবার দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী পরিবারে স্ত্রীর হাতে অর্থ ও ক্ষমতা দুটোই থাকে বিধায় মনস্তাত্ত্বিক ও অর্থনৈতিক সন্তুষ্টি পরিপূর্ণ মনে করা হয় বলে পরিবারে স্ত্রীর সিদ্ধান্ত গ্রহণে বিশেষ ভূমিকা পালনের ক্ষেত্র তৈরী হয়।

সম আর্থ-সামাজিক অবস্থার সাথে বৈবাহিক সন্তুষ্টির যোগসূত্র রয়েছে। বৈবাহিক ভূমিকার সমতা (equality in marital role) বৈবাহিক সামঞ্জস্য বিধানে সহায়তা করে। Keith and Schefer (1985) মত প্রকাশ করেছেন যে, Middle aged and elderly wives who perceived the division of task such as cooking and housekeeping as unequal were more depressed and dissatisfied with their roles than wives who perceived the division of those tasks as equalitarian.^২ আবার অবসর সময় কাটানোর সাথেও বৈবাহিক সন্তুষ্টির সম্পর্ক রয়েছে। Holman and Tacquart (1988) তাদের গবেষণায় দেখিয়েছেন যে, “the family (or couple) that plays together, stays together should be amended to include:..... if they have a great deal of communication while they play. With our couples, at least joint leisure without high levels of perceived communication has at best no association with, and at worst a negative association with, marital satisfaction.”^৩

এমন ধারণা পোষণ করা হতে পারে যে, স্বামী-স্ত্রী উভয়েই যখন চাকুরি করেন তখন উভয়েই সংসারে কম সময় দিতে পারেন। নিজেদের মধ্যে মানসিক দূরত্ব বৃদ্ধি পায়, সন্দেহের প্রবণতা বাড়ে যার জন্য বৈবাহিক জীবনে একটি নেতিবাচক প্রভাব ফেলে। পাশাপাশি একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের ক্ষেত্রে সংসারে সন্তানদের সঠিকভাবে লালন পালন ও অন্যান্য কর্মকাণ্ড যথাযথভাবে সম্পন্ন করার ক্ষেত্রে সমস্যা তুলনামূলকভাবে কম হয়। সেক্ষেত্রে বৈবাহিক সম্পর্ক একটি ইতিবাচক দিকে প্রভাবিত হয়।

২.০ প্রাসঙ্গিক সাহিত্য পর্যালোচনা

বৈবাহিক সন্তুষ্টির মতো একটি সংবেদনশীল বিষয়ের উপর গবেষণা আমাদের দেশে নিতান্তই কম যেখানে গবেষণায় তথ্য সংগ্রহে অনেক জটিলতা দেখা দেয়। অবশ্য উন্নত দেশসমূহে এ সংক্রান্ত গবেষণার ক্ষেত্রে সমস্যা তুলনামূলকভাবে কম। এ সংক্রান্ত গবেষণার পর্যালোচনা নিম্নে তুলে ধরা হলো-

২.১ স্বামী-স্ত্রীর বয়সের সাথে বৈবাহিক সম্পর্কের একটি সম্পর্ক লক্ষ্য করা যায়। Sunita and Dave (1982) 'A Comparative Study of Conjugal Relationship in Young, Middle-aged and Elderly Couples' শিরোনামে একটি গবেষণা কর্ম পরিচালনা করেছেন। গবেষণায় সাধারণ দ্বৈবচয়িত নমুনায়নের মাধ্যমে ষাট জোড়া দম্পতিকে নির্বাচন করে প্রশ্নপত্রের মাধ্যমে তথ্য সংগ্রহ করা হয়। গবেষণায় দেখা যায় যে, তরুণ বয়সী দম্পতিরা তাদের দায়িত্ব ও কর্তব্য সম্পাদনে মধ্যবয়সী এবং বয়স্ক দম্পতিদের চেয়ে শারীরিকভাবে বেশি সক্ষম। এজন্য তাদের বৈবাহিক সন্তুষ্টির মাত্রাও তুলনামূলকভাবে বেশি। অধিকাংশ তরুণ ও মধ্য বয়সী স্ত্রীরা তাদের স্বামীদের বান্ধবী (girl friend) থাকা আপত্তিকর বলে মনে করেন যা বৈবাহিক সম্পর্কের ক্ষেত্রে নেতিবাচক প্রভাব ফেলে। গবেষণায় আরও দেখা যায় যে, বেশির ভাগ স্ত্রী দাম্পত্য জীবনে স্বামীর প্রাধান্য আকাজকা করেন, তবে স্বামীরা স্ত্রীদের আন্তঃসম্পর্কে সমকক্ষ হিসেবে চান। সবগুলো দম্পতি জৈবিক চাহিদার ক্ষেত্রে পুরোপুরি সন্তুষ্ট। বয়স বৃদ্ধির সাথে সাথে দম্পতিদের বাইরের জগতের প্রতি আকর্ষণ কমে যায়। প্রকৃতপক্ষে এ প্রবণতা মানুষে মানুষে ভিন্ন হয়। দেখা যায় যে, বাইরের জগতের আকর্ষণ কমে যাওয়ায় পরিবারের প্রতি আকর্ষণ বাড়ে যা বৈবাহিক সন্তুষ্টি বৃদ্ধি করে। বিয়ে-পরবর্তী দাম্পত্য জীবন যৌথ পরিবারের শৃংখলে বাঁধা। অতিমাত্রার রক্ষণশীলতা বৈবাহিক সন্তুষ্টির প্রতিবন্ধক। এখানে দ্বিমুখী বক্তব্যের অবতারণা করা হয়। প্রথমত, বয়স বাড়ার সাথে সাথে দম্পতি সংসারে বেশি সময় দিতে পারে যা তাদের বৈবাহিক সন্তুষ্টি বৃদ্ধি করে। পক্ষান্তরে, বিয়ের পরে রক্ষণশীলতার জন্য সংসারে অধিক সময় দিতে হয়, যার ফলে অনেক দম্পতি নিজেদের অসুখী মনে করেন। এতে প্রতীয়মান হয়, বৈবাহিক সন্তুষ্টির সাথে বয়স একটি গুরুত্বপূর্ণ প্রত্যয়^৪।

২.২ বৈবাহিক অস্থায়িত্বের জন্য স্বামী-স্ত্রীর চরিত্রগত বৈশিষ্ট্য দায়ী যা বিবাহ বিচ্ছেদকে উৎসাহিত করে। Bumass and Sweet (1970) তাঁদের "Differentials in Marital Instability" শীর্ষক গবেষণায় দেখিয়েছেন যে, বৈবাহিক অস্থায়িত্বের জন্য স্বামী-স্ত্রী উভয়েরই চরিত্রগত বৈশিষ্ট্য দায়ী, যার মূল কারণ হলো বৈবাহিক অসন্তুষ্টি। এখানে চরিত্রগত বৈশিষ্ট্য বলতে স্বামী-স্ত্রীর বয়স, শিক্ষা, ধর্ম, আচার-আচরণ, স্বামীর পেশা, বিবাহের পরে স্ত্রীর চাকুরি, পড়াশুনা ইত্যাদি বুঝিয়েছেন^৫। পারিবারিক জীবনে বৈবাহিক সন্তুষ্টির সাথে শ্রম বিভাজনও অঙ্গাঙ্গিভাবে জড়িত। Suttor (1991) তাঁর Marital Quality and Satisfaction with the Division of Household Labour across the Family Life Cycle -শীর্ষক গবেষণায় দেখিয়েছেন যে, পরিবারে স্বামী-স্ত্রী দুজনেই যদি শ্রমের সুষম বণ্টন করে কাজ করেন তাহলে তাদের বৈবাহিক সম্পর্কের ক্ষেত্রে ইতিবাচক প্রভাব ফেলে। কিন্তু বেশিরভাগ ক্ষেত্রে দেখা যায় যে, চাকুরিজীবী স্ত্রীকে বাইরে কাজ করে এসেও ঘরে শ্রম দিতে হয়। কিন্তু

অধিকাংশ স্বামীর ক্ষেত্রে তার উল্টোটা দেখা যায়। যার ফলে কেউ কারো মতামতের গুরুত্ব দিতে চায় না। এরূপ অবস্থার পরিবর্তনে নারী-পুরুষ নির্বিশেষে সকল স্তরের সচেতনতা, সুস্থ শ্রম বন্টন ও অর্থনৈতিক স্বাবলম্বন আনয়ন প্রয়োজন ৬।

২.৩ সমাজের সকল ক্ষেত্রে সামঞ্জস্য বিধানের বিবাহিতরা অবিবাহিতদের চেয়ে বেশি ভূমিকা পালন করে। Srivastava (১৯৯৫) কলেজ ছাত্রদের উপর একটি গবেষণা করেন। ছাত্র-ছাত্রীদের মধ্যে বিবাহিত ও অবিবাহিত উভয় ধরনের ছিল। শিক্ষার্থীদের যেসকল বিষয়ে সামঞ্জস্য বিধানের কথা বলা হয়েছিল সেগুলো হলো- পারিবারিক, স্বাস্থ্যগত, সামাজিক, আবেগীয় এবং সমাজের সার্বিক ক্ষেত্রে। ফলাফলে দেখা যায় যে, পারিবারিক ক্ষেত্রে অবিবাহিতরা বিবাহিতদের চেয়ে বেশি সামঞ্জস্য বিধান করতে পারে। অন্যদিকে স্বাস্থ্যগত, সামাজিক, আবেগীয় ও সার্বিক ক্ষেত্রে বিবাহিতরা অবিবাহিতদের চেয়ে বেশি সামঞ্জস্য বিধান করতে পারে^৭। Tabassum Khan (1999) দ্বৈত উপার্জনকারী ও দম্পতিদের মধ্যকার বৈবাহিক অস্থায়িত্বের উপর গবেষণা পরিচালনা করেন। ঢাকা শহরকে তিনি গবেষণার জন্য নির্বাচন করেন। তাঁর অনুকল্প (hypothesis) ছিল- Married women's involvement in job market has some negative effects on their marital disharmony. তাঁর গবেষণার ফলাফল হলো – The working women favouring sharing housework at all times between spouses have less conflict and maximum mal-adjustment than who are in favour of sharing domestic workers occasionally^৮। Rahman and Sorcar (1981) অনুসন্ধান করেছেন যে, Whether there is any difference between dual career women and full time in housewives in terms of marital satisfaction in Dhaka city. গবেষণায় নব্বইজন দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতি এবং একশত ছয়জন একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের (মহিলারা অ-চাকুরিজীবী) কাছ থেকে প্রশ্নপত্রের মাধ্যমে তথ্য সংগ্রহ করা হয়। ফলাফলে দেখা গেছে যে, There is no significant difference between dual career women and fulltime housewives in terms of marital satisfaction.^৯

উপর্যুক্ত প্রাসঙ্গিক সাহিত্য পর্যালোচনা শেষে এ কথা প্রতীয়মান হয় যে, বৈবাহিক সন্তুষ্টির সাথে অনেকগুলো প্রত্যয় জড়িত যেমন, বয়স, পেশা, দম্পতিদের চারিত্রিক বৈশিষ্ট্য, জীবনের বিভিন্ন পর্যায় ইত্যাদি। পাশাপাশি শ্রমবিভাজনও কম গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয়। অবশ্য উপার্জনের ক্ষেত্রে বৈবাহিক সম্পর্কের মাত্রার সরাসরি সম্পর্ক কোন গবেষণায় ফলাফলে পাওয়া যায়নি। প্রকৃতপক্ষে, বৈবাহিক সন্তুষ্টির মাত্রার ক্ষেত্রে একক কর্মজীবী ও দ্বৈত কর্মজীবী দম্পতিদের সন্তুষ্টির মাত্রার কোন ব্যবধান রয়েছে কিনা তা নিরূপণ করার লক্ষ্যে গবেষণা কর্মটি পরিচালনা করা হয়।

৩.০ গবেষণার যৌক্তিকতা

পারিবারিক জীবনে বৈবাহিক সন্তুষ্টি বিষয়টি চিরন্তন। ক্রমাগত নগরায়ন ও আধুনিকীকরণের প্রভাবে বস্তুগত ও অবস্তুগত পরিবর্তন সাধিত হচ্ছে। কর্মজীবী মহিলাদের সংখ্যা বাড়ছে। বাড়ছে চাওয়া পাওয়া এবং নিত্য নতুন চাহিদার। পরিবারের চাহিদা, কার্যাবলী ও ভূমিকার মধ্যে পরিবর্তন লক্ষ্য করা যাচ্ছে। এর মধ্যে দ্বন্দ্ব কিংবা কখনও কখনও সংঘাত সৃষ্টি হচ্ছে।

সামাজিক এই ভূমিকার ভিন্নতার জন্য একক চাকুরিজীবী পরিবার পরিবেশ, পরিস্থিতি এবং সংকটে সামঞ্জস্য বিধানের ক্ষেত্রে সাধারণত কম ঝুঁকির মধ্যে থাকে। যেহেতু স্বামী বা স্ত্রী উভয়ের মধ্যে একজন গৃহে অবস্থান করেন, যেহেতু পারিবারিক কার্যাবলী সম্পাদনে দ্বন্দ্বের অবস্থান কম থাকে। কিন্তু যেখানে স্বামী-স্ত্রী উভয়েই বাইরে কাজ করেন সেখানে পারস্পরিক বোঝাপড়া অনেক ক্ষেত্রে খুব বেশি হতে পারে, আবার ক্ষেত্র বিশেষে ব্যক্তিত্বের দ্বন্দ্বের জন্য সমস্যাও দেখা দিতে পারে, যা বৈবাহিক সন্তুষ্টির জন্য নেতিবাচক প্রভাব ফেলতে পারে। এ দুধরনের দম্পতির মধ্যে সন্তুষ্টির মাত্রা জানার জন্য গবেষণা কর্মটি গুরুত্বপূর্ণ। প্রাসঙ্গিক সাহিত্য পর্যালোচনায় দেখা যায় যে, বৈবাহিক জীবন ঘটনাবহুল ও বৈচিত্র্যে ভরপুর। দম্পতিদের বয়স, শিক্ষা, স্বাস্থ্য, পেশাগত অবস্থান, একে অন্যের প্রতি যত্নশীলতা, সহনশীলতা ও সহযোগিতা ইত্যাদি বিভিন্ন বিষয় বৈবাহিক সন্তুষ্টির সাথে জড়িত। দম্পতিদের চারিত্রিক বৈশিষ্ট্য, চারিত্রিক উৎকর্ষ, পরিবেশের সাথে সামঞ্জস্য বিধানের সক্ষমতা, দম্পতিদের মধ্যে নিবিড় আবেগ অনুভূতি প্রভৃতিও বৈবাহিক জীবনের সুখ সমৃদ্ধির ধারক ও বাহক হিসেবে কাজ করে। তাছাড়া নানাবিধ অপ্রীতিকর ঘটনা যেমন- যৌতুক, প্রতিহিংসা, আর্থিক সংকট, পারিবারিক দ্বন্দ্ব ইত্যাদি বিষয়ও বৈবাহিক সন্তুষ্টির সাথে সরাসরি জড়িত। বৈবাহিক জীবনের সাথে সংশ্লিষ্ট উপর্যুক্ত বিষয়াবলীর বাস্তব অবস্থা উদ্ঘাটনের জন্যও বর্তমান গবেষণার গুরুত্ব রয়েছে।

৪.০ গবেষণার উদ্দেশ্যাবলী

গবেষণার সাধারণ উদ্দেশ্য হলো সিলেট শহরে বসবাসরত একক এবং দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের বৈবাহিক সন্তুষ্টি সম্পর্কে জানা। সাধারণ উদ্দেশ্য অর্জনের জন্য কতগুলো বিশেষ উদ্দেশ্যে গবেষণা কর্মটি পরিচালিত হয়-

- ক) একক ও দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের আর্থ-সামাজিক অবস্থা সম্পর্কে জানা।
- খ) একক ও দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের পারিবারিক জীবনের সামাজিক সন্তুষ্টি সম্পর্কে অবগত হওয়া।
- গ) উভয় দম্পতিদের অর্থনৈতিক, ও মানসিক সন্তুষ্টি সম্পর্কে জানা।
- ঘ) একক ও দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের বৈবাহিক সন্তুষ্টির প্রতিবন্ধকতাসমূহ চিহ্নিতকরণ ও তা দূরীকরণের পস্থা উদ্ভাবন করা।

৫.০ গবেষণার ব্যবহৃত প্রত্যয়সমূহের কার্যকরী সংজ্ঞায়ন

একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতি: একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতি বলতে বুঝানো হয়েছে যে পরিবারে কেবল স্বামী/স্ত্রী চাকুরিজীবী।

দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতি: দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী বলতে সেই দম্পতিকে বুঝানো হয়েছে যেখানে স্বামী-স্ত্রী উভয়েই চাকুরিরত।

বৈবাহিক সন্তুষ্টি: Atchley (1982) বৈবাহিক সন্তুষ্টি সম্পর্কে বলেছেন যে, Marital satisfaction is generally defined as an individuals perception of the quality of his or her marriage.^{১০} আলোচ্য গবেষণায় বৈবাহিক সন্তুষ্টি বলতে পরিবারের স্বামী-স্ত্রীর

মধ্যকার সামাজিক, অর্থনৈতিক, মনস্তাত্ত্বিক ও আবেগীয় প্রয়োজন পূরণকে বুঝানো হয়েছে।
সিলেট শহর: সিলেট শহর বলতে সিলেট সিটি কর্পোরেশনের আওতাধীন এলাকাকে বুঝানো
হয়েছে।

৬.০ গবেষণার পদ্ধতিসমূহ

গবেষণাটি একটি তথ্য উদঘাটনমূলক সামাজিক জরিপ যার মূল লক্ষ্য হলো বিদ্যমান তথ্য উদঘাটন করা। এখানে বর্ণনামূলক গবেষণা পদ্ধতি (descriptive research method) ব্যবহার করা হয়েছে। পাঠ্যপাঠি এটি একটি সমস্যা নির্ণায়ক গবেষণা (diagnosis research)। সিলেট সিটি কর্পোরেশনের আওতাভুক্ত এলাকাকে গবেষণা এলাকা হিসেবে নির্বাচন করা হয়েছে। সিলেট শহরে বসবাসরত সকল একক ও দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতি গবেষণার সমগ্রক হিসেবে বিবেচিত হয়েছেন। উদ্দেশ্যমূলক নমুনায়ন কৌশল ব্যবহার করে নমুনা নির্বাচন করা হয়েছে। পঁচিশজন একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতি এবং পঁচিশজন দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতি গবেষণার নমুনা হিসেবে নির্বাচন করা হয়েছে এবং নমুনার প্রতিটি ব্যক্তিকে উত্তরদাতা হিসেবে বিবেচনা করা হয়েছে। গবেষণায় প্রাথমিক উৎসের মাধ্যমে তথ্য সংগ্রহ করা হয়েছে। প্রাথমিক তথ্যের উৎসসমূহের মধ্য থেকে প্রশ্নমালা-কৌশল অবলম্বন করা হয়েছে কেননা উত্তরদাতার মধ্যে সকলেই কম-বেশি লেখাপড়া জানত। বাংলাভাষায় লিখিত আবদ্ধ ধরনের প্রশ্নপত্র সম্বলিত প্রশ্নপত্র ব্যবহার করা হয়েছে। প্রশ্নপত্রের শুদ্ধতা নিরূপণের জন্য এবং নিশ্চিত করার লক্ষ্যে প্রশ্নপত্রকে পূর্ব-পরীক্ষণপূর্বক মানসম্মত করে প্রয়োজনীয় তথ্য সংগ্রহ করা হয়েছে। সমাজকর্ম বিভাগের চতুর্থ বর্ষের প্রথম সেমিস্টারের ছাত্র-ছাত্রীরা তথ্য সংগ্রহের কাজে নিয়োজিত ছিলেন। প্রাপ্ত তথ্যাবলীকে প্রথমত যথাযথভাবে সম্পাদন করা হয়েছে। এরপর বিভিন্ন বৈশিষ্ট্যের ভিত্তিতে শ্রেণীকরণ করে সারণীবদ্ধ করা হয়েছে। প্রাপ্ত তথ্যাবলীকে বিশ্লেষণ ও ব্যাখ্যার মাধ্যমে উপস্থাপন করা হয়েছে।

৭.০ গবেষণার সীমাবদ্ধতা

বর্তমান গবেষণার উল্লেখযোগ্য সীমাবদ্ধতাসমূহ নিম্নে উল্লেখ করা হলো-

ক) গবেষণার ক্ষেত্রে 'সম্ভাবনা নমুনায়ন কৌশল' একটি অতি বৈজ্ঞানিক নমুনায়ন কৌশল। কিন্তু বর্তমান গবেষণায় এ কৌশল ব্যবহার করা যায়নি। সিলেট শহরে একক এবং দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের কোন পরিসংখ্যান পাওয়া যায়নি। যার জন্য উদ্দেশ্যমূলক নমুনায়ন পদ্ধতি ব্যবহার করা হয়েছে। এক্ষেত্রে তথ্যের নির্ভরযোগ্যতা প্রশ্নসাপেক্ষ।

খ) গবেষণা কর্মটি কেবলমাত্র সিলেট শহরের সীমিত সংখ্যক একক ও দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের উপর পরিচালিত হয়েছে বিধায় গবেষণা ফলাফল দেশের সামগ্রিক অবস্থার প্রতিফলন ঘটাতে সক্ষম নাও হতে পারে। আর এ কারণে গবেষণার ফলাফল সাধারণীকরণে সীমাবদ্ধতা রয়েছে।

৮.০ গবেষণার ফলাফল উপস্থাপন ও বিশ্লেষণ

৮.১ বয়স

বিবাহের ক্ষেত্রে বয়স একটি গুরুত্বপূর্ণ উপাদান। Lee (১৯৭৭) বৈবাহিক সন্তুষ্টির সাথে বয়সের সম্পর্কের কথা উল্লেখ করে বলেছেন, There is a significant positive relationship remains between age at marriage and marital satisfaction. There is also a small positive correlation between age of marriage and marital satisfaction for females.^{১১} আমাদের দেশের সাধারণ সংস্কৃতি হলো ছেলেরা তার চেয়ে কম বয়সী মেয়েদের বিবাহ করে। গবেষণায় প্রাপ্ত ফলাফলে দেখা যায় যে, একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের স্ত্রীদের মধ্যে ৩৬.০০ শতাংশের বয়স ২৫-৩০ বছরের মধ্যে, তুলনায় ৪৪.০০ শতাংশ স্বামীদের বয়স ৩০-৩৫ বছরের মধ্যে। আবার ৪৫ কিংবা তদূর্ধ্ব বয়সের স্বামীদের সংখ্যা ২৪.০০ শতাংশ অথচ একই বয়সের স্ত্রীদের সংখ্যা মাত্র ১৬.০০ শতাংশ। একক চাকুরিজীবী স্বামীরা যেহেতু বিবাহের ক্ষেত্রে চাকুরিকে প্রাধান্য দেননি সেহেতু তারা তাদের চেয়ে কম বয়সী মেয়েদের সাথে বিবাহ বন্ধনে আবদ্ধ হয়েছেন। পাশাপাশি স্ত্রীদের প্রতি কর্তৃত্ব আরোপও এক্ষেত্রে সহায়ক ভূমিকা পালন করতে পারে। দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে দেখা যায় যে, ৪০.০০ শতাংশ স্বামীদের বয়স ৩০-৩৫ বছরের মধ্যে যেখানে ৩২.০০ শতাংশ স্ত্রীদের বয়স একই পরিসরের মধ্যে। গবেষণায় প্রাপ্ত ফলাফলে এটাই প্রতীয়মান হয় যে, একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের বয়সের ব্যবধান দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের বয়সের ব্যবধানের চেয়ে বেশি। চাকুরির ক্ষেত্রে শিক্ষাগত যোগ্যতা একটি বড় বিষয়। বাংলাদেশের আর্থ-সামাজিক অবস্থার প্রেক্ষাপটে লেখাপড়া শেষ করে চাকুরিতে প্রবেশ করতে অনেক সময় ব্যয় হয়। যার জন্য হয়তো দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের বয়সের ব্যবধান তুলনামূলকভাবে কম বলে ধারণা করা হয়েছে।

সারণি-১ : উত্তরদাতাদের বয়স সংক্রান্ত তথ্যের বিন্যাস

বয়স (বছরে)	একক চাকরিজীবী দম্পতি				দ্বৈত চাকরিজীবী দম্পতি				মোট
	স্বামী		স্ত্রী		স্বামী		স্ত্রী		
	গণসংখ্যা	শতকরা	গণসংখ্যা	শতকরা	গণসংখ্যা	শতকরা	গণসংখ্যা	শতকরা	
২৫-৩০	৩	১২.০০	৯	৩৬.০০	২	৮.০০	৬	২৪.০০	২০ (২০.০০)
৩০-৩৫	১১	৪৪.০০	৬	২৪.০০	১০	৪০.০০	৮	৩২.০০	৩৫ (৩৫.০০)
৩৫-৪০	৩	১২.০০	৩	১২.০০	৭	২৮.০০	৩	১২.০০	১৬ (১৬.০০)
৪০-৪৫	২	৮.০০	৩	৮.০০	১	৪.০০	২	৮.০০	৮ (৮.০০)
৪৫+	৬	২৪.০০	৪	২৪.০০	৫	২০.০০	৬	২৪.০০	২১ (২১.০০)
মোট	২৫	১০০.০০	২৫	১০০.০০	২৫	১০০.০০	২৫	১০০.০০	১০০ (১০০.০০)

৮.২ শিক্ষাগত যোগ্যতা

গবেষণায় প্রাপ্ত ফলাফলে দেখা যায় যে, একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে অধিকাংশ (৭২.০০ শতাংশ) মাধ্যমিক ও উচ্চ মাধ্যমিক স্তরের শিক্ষার অধিকারী। পক্ষান্তরে, তাদের

স্বামীদের মধ্যে এ স্তরে কাউকে পাওয়া যায়নি অর্থাৎ সকলেই স্নাতক বা তার চেয়ে বেশি শিক্ষা অর্জন করেছেন। পাশাপাশি দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে প্রায় সকলেই স্নাতক কিংবা স্নাতকোত্তর ও এম.ফিল বা পি.এইচ.ডি ডিগ্রীধারী। চাকুরির ক্ষেত্রে শিক্ষাগত যোগ্যতা একটি বড় বিষয়। যেহেতু একক চাকুরিজীবী স্বামী বিয়ের ক্ষেত্রে চাকুরিকে প্রাধান্য দেয়নি, সেহেতু বিয়ের ক্ষেত্রে শিক্ষাগত যোগ্যতার প্রাধান্য তুলনামূলকভাবে কম। পক্ষান্তরে, দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে স্ত্রীদের শিক্ষাগত যোগ্যতা বেশি হওয়ায় তারা বেশি সংখ্যক চাকুরি করছেন। সাধারণত মনে করা হয় যে, উচ্চ শিক্ষিত ছেলেরা উচ্চ শিক্ষিতা মেয়েদের পছন্দ করে। আবার চাকুরিকে প্রাধান্য দিলে শিক্ষাগত যোগ্যতা সামনে চলে আসে। পাশাপাশি একজন কর্মজীবী নারী তার চেয়ে কম বয়স কিংবা কম মর্যাদাসম্পন্ন পুরুষকে বিয়ে করতে পারে না। সামাজিক দৃষ্টিকোণ থেকেও একটি বাধা থাকতে পারে। এসকল প্রেক্ষাপটে দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের শিক্ষাগত যোগ্যতার ব্যবধান একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের তুলনায় কম বলে ধারণা করা হচ্ছে।

সারণি- ২ : উত্তরদাতাদের শিক্ষাগত যোগ্যতা সংক্রান্ত তথ্যের বিন্যাস

শিক্ষাগত যোগ্যতার স্তর	একক চাকরিজীবী দম্পতি				দ্বৈত চাকরিজীবী দম্পতি				মোট
	স্বামী		স্ত্রী		স্বামী		স্ত্রী		
	গণসংখ্যা	শতকরা	গণসংখ্যা	শতকরা	গণসংখ্যা	শতকরা	গণসংখ্যা	শতকরা	
মাধ্যমিক	-	-	৯	৩৬.০০	-	-	-	-	৯ (৯.০০)
উচ্চ মাধ্যমিক	-	-	৯	৩৬.০০	-	-	৬	২৪.০০	১৫ (১৫.০০)
স্নাতক	১৩	৫২.০০	৫	২০.০০	৬	২৪.০০	৭	২৮.০০	৩১ (৩১.০০)
স্নাতকোত্তর	৯	৩৬.০০	২	৮.০০	১৫	৬০.০০	৯	৩৬.০০	৩৫ (৩৫.০০)
অন্যান্য	৩	১২.০০	-	-	৪	১৬.০০	৩	১২.০০	১০ (১০.০০)
মোট	২৫	১০০.০০	২৫	১০০.০০	২৫	১০০.০০	১৫	১০০.০০	১০০(১০০.০০)

৮.৩ পেশার ধরন

গবেষণার ফলাফলে প্রতীয়মান, একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে সকলেই গৃহিণী। ধর্মীয় ও সামাজিক দৃষ্টিকোণ থেকে ব্যাখ্যা করলে দেখা যায় যে, স্বামী হলো পরিবারের আর্থিক যোগানদাতা। প্রকৃতপক্ষে স্বামীদের দায়িত্ব হলো স্ত্রীদের ভরণপোষণের ব্যবস্থা করা। বাস্তবেও এর মিল খুঁজে পাওয়া যায় কেননা এমন কোন দম্পতি পাওয়া যায়নি যেখানে স্ত্রী চাকুরিজীবী, স্বামী চাকুরিজীবী নয়। দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে দেখা যায় যে, স্বামী-স্ত্রী উভয়েই প্রায় একই ধরনের পেশায় কর্মরত। শতকরা ১৬.০০ স্বামী যেখানে ডাক্তারী পেশায় কর্মরত সেখানে ১২.০০ শতাংশ স্ত্রী ডাক্তারী পেশায় কর্মরত। আবার অন্যান্য পেশার দিকে লক্ষ্য করলে দেখা যায় যে, স্বামী-স্ত্রী উভয়ের মধ্যে শতকরা ২৮.০০ শতাংশ বিভিন্ন পেশায় কর্মরত। পারস্পরিক বোঝাপড়া, প্রেমঘটিত বিবাহ ইত্যাদি কারণে হয়তো জীবনসঙ্গী নির্বাচনের ক্ষেত্রে উভয়েই একই ধরনের পেশাকে বেছে নিয়েছেন যা তাদের সুন্দর, সুশৃঙ্খল জীবন যাপন এবং সর্বোপরি বৈবাহিক সম্ভূতির ক্ষেত্রে সহায়ক ভূমিকা রাখবে।

সারণি- ৩ : উত্তরদাতাদের পেশা সম্পর্কিত তথ্যের বিন্যাস

পেশার ধরণ	একক চাকরিজীবী দম্পতি				দ্বৈত চাকরিজীবী দম্পতি				মোট
	স্বামী		স্ত্রী		স্বামী		স্ত্রী		
	গণসংখ্যা	শতকরা	গণসংখ্যা	শতকরা	গণসংখ্যা	শতকরা	গণসংখ্যা	শতকরা	
শিক্ষক	৯	৩৬.০০	-	-	৭	২৮.০০	১০	৪০.০০	২৬ (২৬.০০)
ডাক্তার	-	-	-	-	৪	১৬.০০	৩	১২.০০	৭ (৭.০০)
ব্যংকার	৪	১৬.০০	-	-	৬	২৪.০০	৪	১৬.০০	১৪ (১৪.০০)
এ্যাডভোকেট	-	-	-	-	১	৪.০০	১	৪.০০	২ (২.০০)
গৃহিণী	-	-	২৫	১০০.০০	-	-	-	-	২৫ (২৫.০০)
অন্যান্য	১২	৪৮.০০	-	-	৭	২৮.০০	৭	২৮.০০	২৬ (২৬.০০)
মোট	২৫	১০০.০০	২৫	১০০.০০	২৫	১০০.০০	২৫	১০০.০০	১০০ (১০০.০০)

৮.৪ সামাজিক সন্তুষ্টি: মূল্যায়ন, সামাজিক অনুষ্ঠানে অংশগ্রহণ ও একত্রে বেড়ানো সংক্রান্ত

একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে স্ত্রী কর্তৃক স্বামীর মূল্যায়নে দেখা যায়, অধিকাংশ (৮৪.০০ শতাংশ) স্ত্রী কর্তৃক খুব বেশি মূল্যায়িত হচ্ছে। কিন্তু স্বামী কর্তৃক স্ত্রীর অধিকাংশ ক্ষেত্রে বেশি এবং মোটামুটি মূল্যায়ন পাচ্ছেন। পক্ষান্তরে, দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে উভয়ের অর্থাৎ একে অপরের মূল্যায়নের মাত্রা প্রায় সমান। গবেষণায় এটা প্রতীয়মান, সাধারণত একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের ক্ষেত্রে স্বামী একা চাকুরী করেন এবং এককভাবে অর্থনৈতিক অবদান রাখেন। পারিবারিক কর্মকাণ্ড এখানে ভাগ করা থাকে। পাশাপাশি স্ত্রীদের বয়স এবং শিক্ষাগত যোগ্যতা স্বামীদের চেয়ে তুলনামূলক কম। একারণে তাদের একে অপরের প্রতি স্বীকৃতিদানের প্রবণতা কম। পক্ষান্তরে, দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে সমান অর্থনৈতিক অবদান, পারিবারিক কাজে সমান অংশগ্রহণ, পারস্পরিক মান সম্মত আন্তঃ সম্পর্কের কারণে মূল্যায়নের মাত্রা সমান সমান। শিক্ষা ও বয়সও এক্ষেত্রে সহায়ক ভূমিকা পালন করে বলে ধারণা করা হচ্ছে। একারণে দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের বৈবাহিক সন্তুষ্টি একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের চেয়ে বেশি বলে ধারণা করা হচ্ছে। গবেষণায় প্রাপ্ত ফলাফলে বিভিন্ন সামাজিক ও সাংস্কৃতিক কর্মকাণ্ডে অংশগ্রহণ একক দম্পতিদের চেয়ে দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে কিছুটা বেশি লক্ষ্য করা যায়। অর্থাৎ এক্ষেত্রে ব্যবধান খুব কম। সামাজিক ও সাংস্কৃতিক কর্মকাণ্ডে অংশগ্রহণ সামাজিকতার একটি বড় নিয়ামক। প্রকৃতপক্ষে, সামাজিক সম্পর্ক সুদৃঢ় করার জন্য এ ধরনের কর্মকাণ্ডে দম্পতিদের অংশগ্রহণ অপরিহার্য। এক্ষেত্রে পারস্পরিক দ্বন্দ্বকে অনেক ক্ষেত্রে বিবেচনায় আনা হয় না।

সারণি ৪ : সামাজিক সম্ভ্রুতিঃ মূল্যায়ন, সামাজিক অনুষ্ঠানে অংশগ্রহণ এবং একত্রে বেড়ানোর মাত্রা সংক্রান্ত তথ্যের বিন্যাস

সামাজিক সম্ভ্রুতির মাত্রা	মূল্যায়ন								সামাজিক অনুষ্ঠানে অংশগ্রহণ								একত্রে বেড়ানো							
	একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতি				দ্বৈতচাকুরিজীবী দম্পতি				একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতি				দ্বৈতচাকুরিজীবী দম্পতি				একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতি				দ্বৈতচাকুরিজীবী দম্পতি			
	স্বামী		স্ত্রী		স্বামী		স্ত্রী		স্বামী		স্ত্রী		স্বামী		স্ত্রী		স্বামী		স্ত্রী		স্বামী		স্ত্রী	
	গণ সংখ্যা	শত করা	গণ সংখ্যা	শত করা	গণ সংখ্যা	শত করা	গণ সংখ্যা	শত করা	গণ সংখ্যা	শত করা	গণ সংখ্যা	শত করা	গণ সংখ্যা	শত করা	গণ সংখ্যা	শত করা	গণ সংখ্যা	শত করা	গণ সংখ্যা	শত করা	গণ সংখ্যা	শত করা	গণ সংখ্যা	শত করা
খুব বেশী	৯	৩৬	২	৮	১১	৪৪	১১	৪৪	২	৮	২	৮	৩	১২	২	৮	২	৮	২	৮	৩	১২	৩	১২
বেশী	১২	৪৮	১৪	৫৬	১০	৪০	১০	৪০	৬	২৪	৪	১৬	৯	৩৬	৯	৩৬	৪	১৬	৫	২০	৯	৩৬	১০	৪০
মোটামুটি	৪	১৬	৯	৩৬	৪	১৬	৪	১৬	১৫	৬০	১৮	৭২	১৩	৫২	১৪	৫৬	১৭	৬৮	১৪	৫৬	১২	৪৮	১২	৪৮
কখনও না	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	২	৮	১	৪	-	-	-	-	২	৮	৪	১৬	১	৪	-	-
মোট	২৫	১০০	২৫	১০০	২৫	১০০	২৫	১০০	২৫	১০০	২৫	১০০	২৫	১০০	২৫	১০০	২৫	১০০	২৫	১০০	২৫	১০০	২৫	১০০

একক ও দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের বৈবাহিক সম্ভ্রুতি: একটি সমীক্ষা
ড. নিয়াজ আহমেদ

স্বামী-স্ত্রীদের মধ্যকার পারস্পরিক সম্পর্ক বৃদ্ধি এবং টেকসই হয় একত্রে বেড়ানো, খোলামেলা আলোচনা ইত্যাদির মাধ্যমে। Crawford and others (2002) তাঁদের গবেষণার ফলাফলে দেখিয়েছেন যে, spouses joint pursuit of leisure activities enhance their satisfaction with marriage, a dictum that has been accorded a level of legitimacy quite disproportionate to the evidence supported it.^{১১} গবেষণার ফলাফলে দেখা যায়, দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে বেশি ও মোটামুটি মাত্রায় একত্রে বেড়ানোর প্রবণতা রয়েছে। পক্ষান্তরে যদিও একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে একত্রে বেড়ানোর প্রবণতা রয়েছে তথাপিও একটি উল্লেখযোগ্য সংখ্যক দম্পতি কখনও একত্রে বেড়াতে যাননি। দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতির চাকুরি করার পরও যতটুকু সময় পান একত্রে বেড়াতে পছন্দ করেন। হয়তো কাজের মধ্যে মাঝে মাঝে অস্বস্তি অনুভব থেকেও একত্রে বেড়ানোর মনোবৃত্তি জাগতে পারে। আবার তাদের মধ্যকার দূরত্ব কমানো কিংবা পারস্পরিক সম্পর্ক বৃদ্ধির জন্য একত্রে বেড়ানোর প্রবণতা বেশি লক্ষ্য করা যেতে পারে। সর্বোপরি, পরিপূর্ণ বৈবাহিক সম্বন্ধি থেকেও এ ধরনের মনোভাব গড়ে উঠা অস্বাভাবিক নয়।

৮.৫ আর্থিক সম্বন্ধি

একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে অধিকাংশ (৯২.০০ শতাংশ) স্বামী আর্থিক দিক দিয়ে সম্বন্ধি। পক্ষান্তরে, ১৬.০০ শতাংশ স্ত্রী আর্থিক দিক থেকে আদৌ সম্বন্ধি নয়। পরিপূর্ণ এবং মোটামুটি সম্বন্ধি স্ত্রীদের সংখ্যাও স্বামীদের চেয়ে কম। স্বামী একা আয় করেন বিধায় আর্থিক সংকট থাকা অনেকটা স্বাভাবিক। আর একারণে হয়তো সম্বন্ধির মাত্রাও কম। এর সাথে বৈবাহিক সম্বন্ধিরও একটি যোগসূত্র রয়েছে। পক্ষান্তরে, দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে প্রায় সমান সংখ্যক স্বামী-স্ত্রী আর্থিক দিক থেকে মোটামুটি সম্বন্ধি। গবেষণায় আরো দেখা যায় যে, ৮.০০ শতাংশ স্ত্রী আদৌ আর্থিক দিক থেকে সম্বন্ধি নয়। পক্ষান্তরে ২০.০০ শতাংশ স্বামী আদৌ আর্থিক দিক থেকে সম্বন্ধি নয়। যদিও দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতির উভয়ই আয় করেন তথাপিও দম্পতিদের মধ্যে আর্থিক অসম্বন্ধির মাত্রা একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের চেয়ে কম নয়। বেতন কাঠামো, উন্নত জীবনযাত্রার আকাঙ্ক্ষার জন্য এধরনের মনোভাব থাকা স্বাভাবিক। ধারণা করা হচ্ছে যে, দ্বৈত উপার্জনকারীদের চেয়ে একক উপার্জনকারী স্বামী আয় কম করেন না বিধায় আর্থিক সম্বন্ধির মধ্যে তেমন কোন ব্যবধান লক্ষ্য করা যায়নি।

সারণি - ৫ : উত্তরদাতাদের আর্থিক সম্বন্ধির মাত্রা সংক্রান্ত তথ্যের বিন্যাস

আর্থিক সম্বন্ধির মাত্রা	একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতি				দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতি				মোট
	স্বামী		স্ত্রী		স্বামী		স্ত্রী		
	গণসংখ্যা	শতকরা	গণসংখ্যা	শতকরা	গণসংখ্যা	শতকরা	গণসংখ্যা	শতকরা	
পরিপূর্ণ সম্বন্ধি	৬	২৪.০০	৬	২৪.০০	৬	২৪.০০	৮	৩২.০০	২৬ (২৬.০০)
মোটামুটি সম্বন্ধি	১৭	৬৮.০০	১৫	৬০.০০	১৪	৫৬.০০	১৫	৬০.০০	৬৬ (৬৬.০০)
আদৌ না	২	৮.০০	৪	১৬.০০	৫	২০.০০	২	৮.০০	১৩ (১৩.০০)
মোট	২৫	১০০.০০	২৫	১০০.০০	২৫	১০০.০০	১৫	১০০.০০	১০০ (১০০.০০)

দাম্পত্য জীবনে নিজেদের চিন্তা, চেতনা ও মতামতকে সঠিক মনে করা একটি গুরুত্বপূর্ণ উপাদান। যা দাম্পত্য জীবনের সন্তুষ্টির ক্ষেত্রে প্রভাব বিস্তার করে। গবেষণার ফলাফলে দেখা যায় যে, বিতর্কে নিজেদের সঠিক মনে করার ক্ষেত্রে একক চাকুরিজীবী স্বামী-স্ত্রী নিজেদের মোটামুটি সঠিক মনে করে যথাক্রমে ৫২.০০ শতাংশ ও ৪৪.০০ শতাংশ। আর বেশি সঠিক মনে করে যথাক্রমে ২৮.০০ শতাংশ ও ৪০.০০ শতাংশ। অপরদিকে দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে নিজেদের মোটামুটি সঠিক মনে করেন স্বামীদের ক্ষেত্রে ৫২.০০ শতাংশ এবং স্ত্রীদের ক্ষেত্রে ৬৪.০০ শতাংশ। আর নিজেদের বেশি সঠিক মনে করেন স্বামীদের ক্ষেত্রে ৩২.০০ শতাংশ এবং স্ত্রীদের ক্ষেত্রে ২৪.০০ শতাংশ। বিশেষভাবে দেখা যায় যে, মোটামুটি নিজেদের সঠিক মনে করার ক্ষেত্রে একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের চেয়ে দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের সংখ্যা বেশি। দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে সকলেই উচ্চ শিক্ষিত, তাদের বেশিরভাগেরই ধারণা থাকে যে, তারা উভয়ই পরিপক্ব এবং সমান আর্থ-সামাজিক অবস্থার অধিকারী। আর একারণে বিতর্কের ক্ষেত্রেও একই ধারণা পোষণ করছেন বলে ধারণা হচ্ছে।

স্বামী-স্ত্রী একে অপরের উপর প্রভাব বিস্তারের ক্ষেত্রে গবেষণার ফলাফলে দেখা যায় যে, একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের স্বামী ও স্ত্রী একে অপরের ক্ষেত্রে মোটামুটি প্রভাব বিস্তারের মাত্রা যথাক্রমে ৬৪.০০ শতাংশ ও ৪০.০০ শতাংশ। আর বেশি প্রভাব বিস্তারের মাত্রা যথাক্রমে ২০.০০ শতাংশ ও ৪৪.০০ শতাংশ। অপরদিকে দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে মোটামুটি প্রভাব বিস্তারের মাত্রা স্বামীর ক্ষেত্রে ২৪.০০ শতাংশ এবং স্ত্রীদের ক্ষেত্রে ৪০.০০ শতাংশ এবং বেশি প্রভাব বিস্তারের মাত্রা যথাক্রমে ৩২.০০ শতাংশ এবং ৩৬.০০ শতাংশ। দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে প্রভাব বিস্তারের মাত্রা তুলনামূলকভাবে একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের চেয়ে বেশি, কেননা উভয়ই শিক্ষিত ও চাকুরি করার ফলে তাদের মধ্যে একটি উত্তম আন্তঃসম্পর্ক থাকে। দু'জনে চাকুরিতে সম্পৃক্ত থাকার ফলে তারা একে অপরকে সহজে বুঝতে পারে, সুবিধা অসুবিধা ভাগাভাগি করে নিতে পারে এবং কোন সমস্যায় পতিত হলে দু'জন চিন্তা ভাবনা করে তার সমাধানের পথ বের করতে পারে। ফলে তাদের মধ্যে বিশ্বাস, অধিকারবোধ, পারস্পরিক আস্থা সুদৃঢ় হয়। যার কারণে প্রভাব বিস্তারের মাত্রা দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে বেশি বলে ধারণা করা হচ্ছে।

৮.৭ আবেগীয় সন্তুষ্টি: নিজেদের নিরাপদ মনে করা ও সিদ্ধান্তে অটল থাকা সংক্রান্ত

গবেষণার ফলাফলে দেখা যায় যে, নিজেদের নিরাপদ মনে করার ক্ষেত্রে একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে স্বামীর ৪৮.০০ শতাংশ বেশি এবং ২৮.০০ শতাংশ খুব বেশি বলে মত দিয়েছেন এবং স্ত্রীদের মধ্যে ৬০.০০ শতাংশ বেশি এবং ২৮.০০ শতাংশ খুব বেশি বলে জানিয়েছেন। তুলনায় দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে ৪৪.০০ শতাংশ স্বামী বেশি এবং ২৮.০০ শতাংশ স্বামী মোটামুটি এবং স্ত্রীদের মধ্যে ৫২.০০ শতাংশ বেশি এবং ৪৪.০০ শতাংশ খুব বেশি বলে মত দিয়েছেন। একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের নিরাপদ মনে করার মাত্রা দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের চেয়ে তুলনামূলকভাবে বেশি। পরিবারে স্বামী বা স্ত্রী একজন চাকুরি করলে এমনিতেই অপরজনের নির্ভরশীলতা চলে আসে। ফলে স্বামী বা স্ত্রী একে অপরের কাছে সবচেয়ে বেশি অবলম্বন হয়ে দাঁড়ায় এবং স্বামী বা স্ত্রীই তার একমাত্র

দম্পতিদের মধ্যে কোন সিদ্ধান্তে অটল থাকার ক্ষেত্রে দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের চেয়ে একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে বেশি মাত্রার প্রবণতা গবেষণার ফলাফলে দেখা যায়। পরিবারে একক আর্থিক অবদানের জন্য একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে স্বামীর একচ্ছত্র আধিপত্য জোগ করে থাকেন। তাদের ধারণা পরিবারের সকল ক্ষমতা তাদের হাতে। পাশাপাশি সনাতন মন মানসিকতা, ও পুরুষতান্ত্রিক চিন্তা চেতনাও এক্ষেত্রে বড় নিয়ামক হিসেবে কাজ করে বলে ধারণা করা হচ্ছে।

৮.৮ মনস্তাত্ত্বিক সন্তুষ্টি: বিশ্বস্ততার পরিমাণ, বোঝা মনে করা এবং যত্নবান হওয়া সংক্রান্ত

স্বামী-স্ত্রীর একে অপরের প্রতি বিশ্বস্ততা বৈবাহিক সন্তুষ্টির মাত্রা বৃদ্ধি করে। দম্পতিদের মনস্তাত্ত্বিক সুস্থতা (well-being) বৈবাহিক সন্তুষ্টির একটি বড় নিয়ামক। Beach, Whisman and O'leary (1994) উল্লেখ করেছেন, Marital satisfaction appears to be an important determinant of psychological well being. Marital distress has been associated with a host of psychological difficulties.^{১৩} বর্তমান গবেষণায় প্রাপ্ত ফলাফলে দেখা যায় যে, একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে ৫৬.০০ শতাংশ স্বামী তাদের স্ত্রীদের এবং ৪৪.০০ শতাংশ স্ত্রী তাদের স্বামীদের বেশি মাত্রায় বিশ্বস্ত মনে করেন। অপরদিকে দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে ৪৮.০০ শতাংশ স্বামী তাদের স্ত্রীদের এবং ৪৮.০০ শতাংশ স্ত্রী তাদের স্বামীদের বেশি মাত্রায় বিশ্বস্ত মনে করেন। একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে স্ত্রীগণ বেশি মাত্রায় স্বামীর উপর নির্ভরশীল। এক্ষেত্রে স্বামীদের বিশ্বস্ততার পরিমাণ তুলনামূলকভাবে বেশি। পক্ষান্তরে, দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে পেশার ধরন এবং সমান শিক্ষাগত যোগ্যতার অধিকারী হওয়ায় বিশ্বস্ততার মাত্রা একই ধরনের।

দম্পতিদের মধ্যে ঝগড়া, পারস্পরিক বোঝাপড়ার অভাব দেখা দিলে দম্পতিরা একে অপরকে বোঝা মনে করতে পারেন। গবেষণার ফলাফলে দেখা যায় যে, একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে ৮০.০০ শতাংশ স্ত্রী তাদের স্বামীদের এবং ৬০.০০ শতাংশ স্বামী তাদের স্ত্রীদের কখনও বোঝা মনে করেন না। অপরদিকে দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের ক্ষেত্রে ৭২.০০ শতাংশ স্ত্রী তাদের স্বামীদের এবং ৮৮.০০ শতাংশ স্বামী তাদের স্ত্রীদের কখনও বোঝা মনে করেন না। একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের স্ত্রীগণ তাদের স্বামীদের উপর অতিমাত্রায় নির্ভরশীল হওয়ায় একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের স্বামী কর্তৃক স্ত্রীদের বোঝা মনে করার প্রবণতা বেশি বলে ধারণা করা হয়। পাশাপাশি দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে উভয়ই স্বাবলম্বী হওয়ায় এ প্রবণতা তুলনামূলকভাবে কম।

সারণি ৮ : মনস্তাত্ত্বিক সঞ্জ্ঞা: উত্তরদাতার বিশ্বস্ততারমাত্রা, বোঝা মনে করা ও যত্নবান হওয়ার মাত্রা সংক্রান্ত তথ্যের বিন্যাস

সাধাৰিক সঞ্জ্ঞাৰ মাত্রা	বিশ্বস্ততা								বোঝা মনে করা								যত্নবান হওয়া							
	একক চাকুরিজীৱী দম্পতি				ঝৈতচাকুরিজীৱী দম্পতি				একক চাকুরিজীৱী দম্পতি				ঝৈতচাকুরিজীৱী দম্পতি				একক চাকুরিজীৱী দম্পতি				ঝৈতচাকুরিজীৱী দম্পতি			
	ষাৰী		স্ত্রী		ষাৰী		স্ত্রী		ষাৰী		স্ত্রী		ষাৰী		স্ত্রী		ষাৰী		স্ত্রী		ষাৰী		স্ত্রী	
	পূৰ্ণ সংখ্যা	শত করা	পূৰ্ণ সংখ্যা	শত করা	পূৰ্ণ সংখ্যা	শত করা	পূৰ্ণ সংখ্যা	শত করা	পূৰ্ণ সংখ্যা	শত করা	পূৰ্ণ সংখ্যা	শত করা	পূৰ্ণ সংখ্যা	শত করা	পূৰ্ণ সংখ্যা	শত করা	পূৰ্ণ সংখ্যা	শত করা	পূৰ্ণ সংখ্যা	শত করা	পূৰ্ণ সংখ্যা	শত করা	পূৰ্ণ সংখ্যা	শত করা
পূৰ্ণ বৈশী	৩	২৪	৭	২৮	৮	৩২	১০	৪০	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	৩	১২	১	৪	৮	৩২	৬	২৪
বৈশী	১৪	৫৬	১১	৪৪	১২	৪৮	১২	৪৮	১	৪	৩	১২	-	-	-	-	১৬	৬৪	১৭	৬৮	১১	৪৪	১০	৪০
মোটসঞ্জ্ঞা	১৭	৬৮	১৮	৭২	২০	৮০	২২	৮৮	৮	৩২	৭	২৮	৭	২৮	৩	১২	১৯	৭৬	১৮	৭২	২২	৮৮	২০	৮০
কৰণও না	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	২০	৮০	১৫	৬০	১৮	৭২	২২	৮৮	-	-	১	৪	-	-	১	৪
মোট	২৫	১০০	২৮	১০০	২৫	১০০	২২	১০০	২৮	১০০	২৫	১০০	২৫	১০০	২৫	১০০	২৫	১০০	২৫	১০০	২৫	১০০	২৫	১০০

ষাৰী-স্ত্রী পৰস্পৰ পৰস্পৰেৰে ঐতি নিৰ্ভৰশীল। পৰস্পৰিক সেৱাযত্ন একেধাৰে বৈবাহিক সঞ্জ্ঞা বৃদ্ধিতে সহায়ক। ষাৰী-স্ত্রীৰ একে অপৰেৰে ঐতি যত্নবান হওয়াৰ মাত্রাৰ ক্ষেত্ৰে একক চাকুরিজীৱী দম্পতি ঝৈত চাকুরিজীৱী দম্পতিৰেদৰে চেয়ে বেশি মাত্রাৰ ভৱণতা লক্ষ্য কৰা যায়। ঝৈত চাকুরিজীৱী দম্পতিৰেদৰে চেয়ে একক চাকুরিজীৱী পৰিৱাৰে উভয়েৰেই ব্যক্ততা সমান নয় বিধায় পৰিৱাৰে বেশি সময় দিতে পাৰে। আৰ যেকোন ষাৰী-স্ত্রী একে অপৰেৰে ঐতি বেশি যত্নবান হতে পাৰে বলে ধাৰণা কৰা যায়।

৯.০ সুপারিশমালা

বর্তমান গবেষণাটি সিলেট শহরের পঁচিশজন একক এবং পঁচিশজন দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের উদ্দেশ্যমূলক নমুনায়নের মাধ্যমে নির্বাচন করে প্রশ্নপত্র কৌশল ব্যবহার করে বৈবাহিক সম্ভূতির বিভিন্ন দিকের প্রয়োজনীয় তথ্য সংগ্রহ করা হয়। গবেষণায় প্রাপ্ত উল্লেখযোগ্য ফলাফলের ভিত্তিতে নিম্নোক্ত সুপারিশ করা হলো-

ক) গবেষণার ফলাফলে দেখা যায় যে, একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের বয়স এবং শিক্ষাগত যোগ্যতার ব্যবধান দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের চেয়ে তুলনামূলকভাবে বেশি। যার জন্য তাদের মধ্যকার বৈবাহিক সম্ভূতির ক্ষেত্রে সমস্যা দেখা দেয়। এক্ষেত্রে দম্পতিদের বয়স ও শিক্ষাগত যোগ্যতার ব্যবধান কমানোর প্রতি সর্বাত্মক গুরুত্ব প্রদান করতে হবে। সামাজিক দৃষ্টিভঙ্গির পরিবর্তনের মাধ্যমে এ অবস্থা থেকে উত্তরণ সম্ভব। সম-বয়স এবং সম-শিক্ষাগত যোগ্যতাসম্পন্ন স্বামী-স্ত্রী হলে পারস্পরিক সম্পর্ক উন্নত হয়। পাশাপাশি নারীশিক্ষা বৃদ্ধির প্রতিও গুরুত্ব দিতে হবে। শিক্ষা বিস্তারে নিয়োজিত ব্যক্তিবর্গ ও প্রতিষ্ঠানের ভূমিকা এখানে অগ্রগণ্য।

খ) একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে স্বামী কর্তৃক স্ত্রীদের মূল্যায়নের মাত্রা দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের চেয়ে তুলনামূলকভাবে কম। যার জন্য তাদের মধ্যকার বৈবাহিক সম্ভূতির মাত্রাও ভাল নয়। নারীর প্রতি সম্মান ও মর্যাদা প্রদানের মাধ্যমে নারীদের প্রতি মূল্যায়নের মাত্রা বৃদ্ধি পেতে পারে। নারী অর্থনৈতিক অবদান রাখতে পারুক বা না পারুক, তাদের প্রতি অবমূল্যায়ন তাদেরকে হেয় প্রতিপন্ন করার সামিল। পাশাপাশি নারীশিক্ষার সাথে নারীকে অর্থনৈতিক কর্মকাণ্ডে সম্পৃক্ত করতে হবে। এক্ষেত্রে পারিবারিক পর্যায়ে থেকে ভূমিকা পালনের প্রতি গুরুত্ব প্রদানের দাবি রাখে।

গ) গবেষণার ফলাফলে দেখা যায় যে, দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের মধ্যে একে অপরের প্রতি প্রভাব বিস্তারের মাত্রা একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের চেয়ে তুলনামূলকভাবে বেশি। এতে করে তাদের মধ্যকার আন্তঃসম্পর্ক উন্নত হয়। দাম্পত্য জীবন সুখের হয়। কিন্তু একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের ক্ষেত্রে এটা বেশি লক্ষ্য করা যায় না। এক্ষেত্রে একে অপরের প্রতি সহনশীল হওয়া, মতামতের গুরুত্ব দেয়া এবং যৌথভাবে সিদ্ধান্ত গ্রহণের প্রতি গুরুত্বের দাবি রাখে।

ঘ) একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতির মধ্যে একে অপরের প্রতি যত্নবান হওয়ার মনোভাব দ্বৈত চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের চেয়ে তুলনামূলকভাবে কম। অথচ বিষয়টি বৈবাহিক সম্ভূতির ক্ষেত্রে একটি বড় উপাদান। এক্ষেত্রে একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের স্বামীদেরকে মুখ্য ভূমিকা পালনা করতে হবে। তাদের স্ত্রীগণ তাদের প্রতি অধিক মাত্রায় নির্ভরশীল। এ নির্ভরশীলতার সুযোগ নিয়ে তাদের প্রতি অযত্নবান হওয়া উচিত হবে না। এক্ষেত্রেও দৃষ্টিভঙ্গির পরিবর্তন একান্ত জরুরী।

১০.০ উপসংহার

বাংলাদেশ তৃতীয় বিশ্বের একটি জনসংখ্যাবহুল দেশ। বাংলাদেশ অর্থনৈতিকভাবে তখনই স্বাবলম্বী হবে যখন নারী-পুরুষ সমানভাবে কর্মে নিয়োজিত হবে। কিন্তু আমাদের দেশে কর্মজীবী নারীদের সংখ্যা তুলনামূলকভাবে অনেক কম। যেসকল পরিবারে স্বামী-স্ত্রী উভয়েই চাকুরিজীবী সেসকল পরিবারে বৈবাহিক সম্বন্ধির ক্ষেত্রে ইতিবাচক মনোভাব লক্ষ্য করা যায়, কেননা এখানে স্বামী স্ত্রীর মধ্যে সামাজিক মর্যাদাবোধ, সচেতনতা, আর্থিক নিরাপত্তা সহায়ক হিসেবে কাজ করে। এমনকি বিভিন্ন বিষয়ে সঠিক সিদ্ধান্ত গ্রহণের ক্ষেত্রে উভয়ের সমান অংশগ্রহণ পরিলক্ষিত হয়। কিন্তু একক চাকুরিজীবী দম্পতিদের ক্ষেত্রে স্ত্রীরা এক ধরনের হীনমন্যতায় ভোগেন। যার জন্য স্বামীরা তাদের উপর এক ধরনের প্রভাব বিস্তারের সুযোগ পেয়ে থাকেন। অনেক সময় একারণে পারিবারিক বিশৃঙ্খলা দেখা দিতে পারে। আমাদের দেশে নারীশিক্ষার হার তুলনামূলকভাবে কম। কম বয়সে মেয়েদের বিবাহ হওয়ার কারণে স্বামীর সংসারে ভিন্ন পরিবেশ এবং পরিস্থিতির সাথে সামঞ্জস্য বিধান করতে পারে না যা বৈবাহিক সম্বন্ধির ক্ষেত্রে নেতিবাচক প্রভাব ফেলে। বৈবাহিক সম্বন্ধির মাত্রা বৃদ্ধির জন্য প্রয়োজন স্বামী-স্ত্রীর মধ্যে সুসম্পর্ক নিশ্চিতকরণ, আস্থা অর্জন, নারীশিক্ষার প্রসার এবং অর্থনৈতিক স্বাবলম্বন; পাশাপাশি পুরুষদের বিরূপ মনোভাব পরিবর্তন। সরকার ও নীতি নির্ধারকদের এক্ষেত্রে প্রয়োজনীয় ব্যবস্থা গ্রহণ করা দরকার যা নারী-পুরুষের সম অধিকার প্রতিষ্ঠা ও মর্যাদা বৃদ্ধিতে সহায়ক হতে পারে এবং বৈবাহিক সম্বন্ধির ক্ষেত্রেও ইতিবাচক প্রভাব ফেলতে পারে।

গ্রন্থপঞ্জি

১. Strong, Bryan and Christine Devault (1986) The Marriage and Family Experience, West Publishing Company, New York.
২. Keith, P.M and Schafer R.B (1985) "Equity, Role Strains and Depression among Middle-aged and other Men". In W.A Peterson and J Quadagno (eds) Social Bonds in Later Life. Beverly Hills. CA: Sage.
৩. Holmen, Thomas B and Mary Jacquart (1988) "Leisure Activity Patterns and Marital Satisfaction": A Further Test, Journal of Marriage and the Family, Vol- 50, No-1 pp- 69-77.
৪. Sunita Jain Ms and Mrs Parul Dave (1982) "A Comparative Study of Conjugal Relationships in Young. Middle-Aged and Eldarly Couples". The Journal of Family Welfare, Vol- 18, No-4.
৫. Bumpass, Larry L. and James A. Sweet (1972) "Differential in Marital Instability", American Sociological Review, University of Wisconsin, December, Vol-37, No- 6.
৬. Suttor Jill. J (1982), "Marital Quality and Satisfaction with the Division of Household Labour across the Family Life Cycle", Journal of Marriage and the Family, Vol- 53, pp- 221-230.
৭. Srivastava, Prabha (1995) 'Effect of Marriage on Adjustment of Male and Female Students', Indian Psychological Review, Vol- 44, No. 3- 4, Jan-Feb pp-34-40.
৮. Tabassum Khan, Lubna (1999) "Marital Instability in Dhaka, Bangladesh with Special Reference to Dual-earner Couples", Northern Arizona University, USA.
৯. Rahman, Mahbubur and Sorcar Nihar Ranjen (1981) "Working Women, Job Pressure and Marital Satisfaction", The Dacca University Studies, vol- 35 (Part A) pp- 112-124.
১০. Atchley R. (1982) "The Process of Retirement: Comparing Women and Men". In M. Szinovacz (ED) Women's Retirement: Policy In placation of Recent Research, Beverly Hills, Sage, pp- 153-168.

১১. Lee, Gary R. (1977) Age at Marriage and Marital Satisfaction: A Multivariate Analysis with Implications for Marital Stability, Journal of Marriage and the Family, Vol- 5 .No- 4 pp- 493-504.
১২. Grawford, Duane W. and Others (2002) "Compatibility, Leisure, and Satisfaction in Marital Relationships", Journal of Marriage and the Family Vol- 64, No- 2, pp- 433-449.
১৩. Beach, S.R.H, Whisman, M.A and O. Leary K.D, (1994) "Marital Therapy for Depression: Theoretical Foundation, Current Status and Future Directors, Behavior Therapy, 25, pp- 153-168.

Education Streams in Bangladesh Parents' Thinking and Students' Performance

Mallick Anwar Hossain*

Abstract: Selection of appropriate education streams is one of the important factors for student. But at the entry level students have no capacity to select any one of the education streams out of three such as Bengali Medium, English Medium and Religious Education. At this stage parents mainly play the role of selection. The selection procedure depends on the availability of education institutes, parents' economic condition and their creative decision regarding the future of students. Selection of education streams mainly depend on three factors: most of rural parents select the nearest government primary school, religious people put priority on Religious Education and urban based high income parents select English Medium education. There are some deviations among the three streams. Some parent put emphasis on good institute rather than education stream because of carrier development of their children according to the future needs. But in socio-economic perspective majority of parents are not well aware for children's future. So some students could not continue the entry level education streams. This tendency is highly observed in English medium education and that is why after 3 to 4 years most of the students change their education streams from English medium to Bengali medium. It is also found that some students shift from Bengali medium to Religious education or technical education for gaining a certificate. The education system in our country creates physical, mental and social differences among students of different streams. So the ways of thinking of students are also different. Education streams, social trends, parents' and teachers' attitudes sometime hindered the mental development of students. As a result, most of the students could not perform as a universal citizen in future. The study focuses on the thinking of parents who primarily way out the path of entrance in education stream. The study also highlighted the performances of students of different education streams in their real life.

1.0 Introduction

Education is the basis of human resource development which leads to an important prerequisite for ensuring sustainable development of Bangladesh. By 2020 Bangladesh should have achieved a strong system of basic education with virtually all children enrolled and completing primary education with at least minimum levels of competency directly related to life skills. The content of education will stress life skills and problems solving rather than mainly the rote memorization that prevails at present. Rote memorization helps instill a solid foundation in a child's

* UNO, Manirampur, Jessore

learning but children also need to acquire the ability to learn on their own, so they can continue to learn after completion of schooling. In the past education was primarily an English controlled upper class affair with all courses given in English and a very little being done for the common people. Government has taken steps to leave such practices in the past and is looking forward to education as a way to provide a somewhat poverty-stricken nation with a brighter future. In the recent years some innovative and effective programs of basic education have been initiated in the country to tackle the overwhelming problem of literacy. The government launched the Compulsory Primary Education program in 1992 in 68 upazilas and extended nation wide in 1993 (A. M. Sharafuddin, 2003). The government made rural primary education free for girls up to grade 10 and also introduced food for education program at primary level. In 1980s many NGOs began basic education program in support of their poverty alleviation activities. The education system in Bangladesh is divided into 4 levels: primary from grades 1 to 5, secondary from grades 6 to 10, higher secondary from grades 11 to 12 and tertiary. Alongside national educating system, English Medium education is also provided by some private enterprises. They offer 'A' level and 'O' level courses. There is also Religious Education system which emphasizes on Arabic medium Islam-based religious education (Bangladesh, 2000).

The present study highlighted on the main education streams in Bangladesh. The information presented in the paper is generated by a qualitative empirical survey. The study is conducted in selected a Government primary school and an Ebtadae madrasa and an English medium school. The primary data are collected with the help of discussion schedule from students, teachers and parents. A total of 45 respondents were interviewed from three institutes where students (15), teachers (15) and parents (15) are interviewed. Collected data are analyzed by using simple statistical tools like mean and percentage.

2.0 Education Streams in Bangladesh

After the liberation war of Bangladesh in 1971, the People's Republic of Bangladesh became an independent nation free to choose its own educational destiny. The country constitution obligates the state to provide basic education to citizens and eradicates illiteracy within a given

time frame. Article 17 of the Constitution assures that all children between the ages of six and ten years are to be provided basic education free of charge. As a result of both government and private efforts over the last three decades, some important improvements have occurred in primary education sector. More than 95% of children aged 6 to 10 years are admitted to primary school and drop out rates are now only 28% (BBS, 2003). The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were officially established at the Millennium Summit in 2000 and 189 member nations have agreed to try to achieve those by the year 2015 (Wikipedia, on-line). Goal 2 indicates to achieve universal primary education. Every child should have access to primary education by 2015. The government of Bangladesh fully conforms to the objective of education for all and the MDGs' and international declarations. Bangladesh is a secular state; many forms of education are permitted to co-exist. The main streams of education in Bangladesh are divided into three different branches (<http://sanisoft.tripod.com>). Students are free to choose anyone of them provided that they have the means. These branches are: (a) Bengali Medium, (b) English Medium, and (c) Religious education.

2.1 Bengali Medium General Education

In the Bengali Medium, all the courses are offered in Bengali with the exception of English courses and the Religious course. The tuition fee is minimal compared to English schools but they still vary largely between schools. After three years of pre-school, students in the Bengali medium do five years of primary school. Primary education refers to education, as determined by the government, for the children of age group of 6 to 10 years in grades 1 to 5 having prescribed national curriculum, text books and school hours. After completion of primary level students move to high school for grade five to grade ten. At the end of the tenth grade, one must pass the SSC Examination, which is common to everybody. These exams are divided in regional boards to be administered and students pass the exams in different schools as indicated by their respective boards.

2.2 English Medium

The British rule in Indian Subcontinent is still very influential as English is still the second official languages of India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, etc. Students in Bangladesh have the right to attend schools in the English medium where courses are taught in English using English books with the

exception of the Bengali courses and the Religious course. However, English medium schools are mainly private and thus reserved for the wealthy class. After three years of pre-school, students must successfully pass through ten grades and then to be eligible for writing the Ordinary Level Exams, also called the O-Levels. Then after one more year of studies, students can write the Advanced Level (A-Level) Exams. Both these routines are offered for Arts students and to Science students. The O-Levels and A-Levels are both prepared in England and are common to every country in the world at the same time. Once the exams are written, they are sealed in envelopes and sent to England for corrections. After the A-Levels, students are free to choose their subjects in the Universities but many of them tend to leave the country to study abroad.

2.3 Religious Education

Religion is the experience and expression of faith (Religious Education, online). In the Bangladesh perspective religious education is one of the important streams which deal with Islamic religious education. In the sub continent madrasa education was started in 1780 during the period of Warren Hasting in Calcutta with Dars Nizamia Curriculum. This curriculum, which historically serves as a model for many madrasa throughout the world, was developed in its original form for the Nizaamia Madrasa in Bagdad (Sha Abdul Hannan, 2002). The first madrasa in Bengal followed traditional courses such as Arabic Grammar, Arabic Language, Philosophy, Logic Fiqh, Kalam etc. At present this education system extended up to tertiary top level but the students have limited scope in job market due to absent of recognition at government level. Madrasa derived from an Arabic word Darsun' meaning lesson. It is a Muslim educational institute. The primary stage of madrasa is called Maqtab or Nurani madrasa or Furkania madrasa. These education centres giving lessons on reading and reciting the Holy Quran are known as Darse Quran. Usually the local mosque serves as the centres for primary education for boys and girls of nearby families. The imams and muazzins of local mosques work as teachers. Other kinds of primary level madrasa are called Ebtadae madrasa, which is fully or partially carried out by local and government supports. Stages of education in the system are: Ebtadaee, Dakhil, Fazil, Alim and Kamil. These education centres are giving lesson on Quran, Sunnah, Fiqh etc in addition to Bangla, English etc according to the madrasa curriculum. In the late 1980s, efforts

were being made to modernize the madresa education system and to introduce to secular subjects in the madrasa curriculum under the Maderasa Education Board. The objective of the madrasa education during the Third Five-Year plan was to modernize the system through the introduction of science course. Under the present Religious education stream there are 12000 institutions with about 3.5 million students who receive a combination of religious and temporal education from more than 150 thousand teachers (MoE, on-line). Islam plays a very dominant role in the education systems of Bangladesh. In all the branches, it is required by the government since 1983 to teach Islamic studies. Hence, children learn to read Arabic from a very early age. Nevertheless, non-Moslem students are never forced to learn the Quran and can regularly be excused from Islamic courses.

3.0 Students in Education Streams

3.1 Freedom of Choice and Parents Role

It is not possible to select an education stream by a student at the entry level. In the most of the cases the parents perform the role of selecting a certain education stream. Free primary education, free education for girls up to class ten, food-for educational program encourage people to select Bengali medium education. Urban based economically solvent parents' primarily select English medium education due to availability of English medium institutes. Parents of Madrash students believe that Religious education promotes the spiritual, moral, social and cultural development. Learning about religion and learning from religion are important, as Religious education helps to develop an understanding of themselves and others. Generally socio-economic conditions of parents influence on the decision making process to select specific education stream. Sometimes parents are motivated to the surrounding environment or influenced by the relative to shift from general education stream to English medium or Religious education.

Table 1 shows the parents' reactions on the selection of education stream. It is observed that free education (69%), development of strong English base (55%), and spiritual and moral development (67%) mostly encourages parents to select Bengali medium, English medium and Religious education streams respectively. It is also observed that the thinking of homogeneous group is different from heterogeneous group.

Table 1 : Factor Affecting on Selection of Education Streams

Streams of education	Factor affecting on the selection of education stream	% of Parents Reactions	
		Homogeneous (same stream)	Heterogeneous (other streams)
Bengali Medium	Free education facility	10 (66.67)	9 (60.00)
	Availability of institutes	3 (20.00)	2 (13.33)
	Parents poverty	2 (13.33)	4 (26.67)
English Medium	To develop English base	8 (53.33)	8 (53.33)
	Suitable environment	4 (26.67)	5 (33.33)
	Present day needs	3 (20.00)	2 (13.33)
Religious Education	Spiritual & moral development	10 (66.67)	9 (60.00)
	Learning about religion	4 (26.67)	2 (13.33)
	Not fit for general education	1 (06.67)	4 (26.67)

[Figures in parenthesis indicate percentage]

Source: Field survey 2006

3.2 Students Performance

3.2.1 Teachers' Opinions

Three indicators are identified to evaluate the student performance of different institutes with students under grade four and five. It is observed that 72% student of Bengali medium have excellent friendship like attitudes, 65% students of English medium have excellent self expression capacity and 70% students of Religious education have excellent behaviour (Fig. 1). This information is given by their respective class teachers.

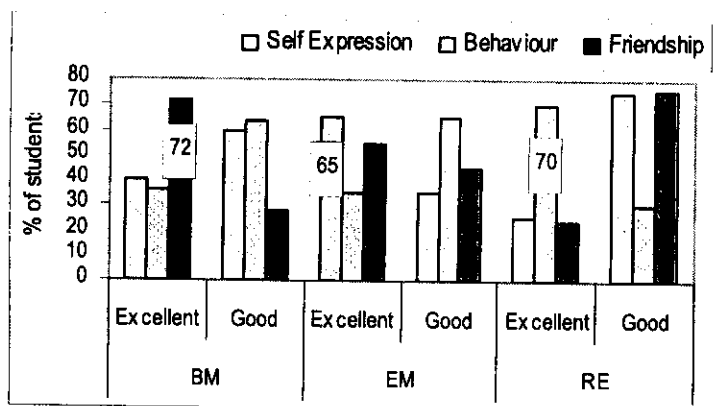


Fig 1: Teachers' Opinions about their Students

3.2.2 Parents' Opinions

According to the opinion of parents it is found that Bengali medium students have capacity to manage interaction and sensory difficulties efficiently than those of English medium and Religious education students (Table 2). English medium student could not perform well to manage interaction and emotional difficulties and Religious education student could not perform well to manage interaction and sensory difficulties.

Table 2 : Management Capacity of Difficulties by the Student

Performance	Parents Opinion		
	BM	EM	RE
Social difficulties	B	B	B
Interaction difficulties	A	C	C
Sensory difficulties	A	A	C
Emotional difficulties	C	C	A
Majority	A	C	C

Note: A for manage efficiently, B for not clear to us C for not perform well

3.2.3 Parents' and Teachers' Opinions

Table 3 shows that all students from different education streams have positive reaction about their parents which is followed by the teachers. But the issues regarding "speak the truth" and "be kind to every one" are found 4.6 and 4.2 in Religious education. In this regard the overall performances of students from Religious education is found better (4.36) than the others.

Table-3 : Issues of Importance to Students

Issues	Ranking Scale 1-5 (from lowest to highest)		
	BM	EM	RE
to be good to parent	5.0	5.0	5.0
to be good to teacher	4.0	4.8	4.2
to be kind to everyone	3.4	3.0	4.2
to speak the truth	3.2	3.4	4.6
to be honest with everyone	4.2	4.4	3.8
Mean	3.96	4.12	4.36

3.2.4 Aims of Students

Most of the students are not well aware about the aim. They are partially convinced by their parent to select future profession. However, majority of student in Bengali medium put emphasis on business (40%) which is followed by service (20%) and teacher (20%). Whereas majority of student in English medium put emphasis on service (60%), this is followed by teacher (20%). But most of students in Religious education put emphasis on the profession of teacher (Fig 2). It is observed that student from Religious education are mentally more suppressed than those of Bengali medium and English medium students and they do not select service as an aim. Some students are found that they have no idea about the aim of life.

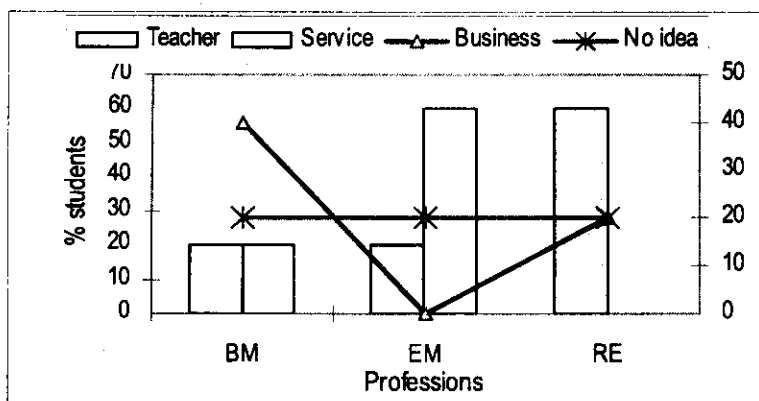


Fig 2 : Aims of Students

4.0 Parents' Thinking

4.1 Fathers' Positions

It is found that father's education level of English medium students is relatively better than that of Bengali medium and Religious education students' fathers. It is also found that most of fathers of English medium students are businessmen and service holder, which is followed by Bengali medium students' fathers. Majority of them have more than 50,000 taka income/yearly (Table 4). Fathers' educational level and yearly income of Religious education student are lower than that of English medium and Bengali medium students' fathers and they are

mainly unemployed. Most of the Religious education students come from poor family and some of them come from religious family. Their family economy is not good and they need help from others. Their parents are always busy in work for daily necessity. Some students of Bengali medium also belong to poor economic condition but which is totally absent for the students of English medium. So, family economy, parents' education level and their professions significantly contributed to select the education stream.

Table -4: Demographic Characteristics of Father

Categories	Education Level		Professions			Income Level (000'tk/yr)		
	SSC & Below	HSC & above	Service	Business	Other	< 25	25-50	>50
Bengali Medium	10 (66.67)	5 (33.33)	2 (13.33)	6 (40)	7 (46.67)	5 (33.33)	7 (46.67)	3 (20)
English Medium	2 (13.33)	13 (86.67)	4 (26.67)	9 (60)	2 (13.33)	0 (0)	3 (20)	12 (80)
Religious Education	12 (80)	3 (20)	1 (6.67)	4 (26.67)	10 (66.67)	7 (46.67)	5 (33.33)	3 (20)

[Figures in parenthesis indicate percentage]

Source: field study (2006)

4.2. Parents' Arguments in Favour of Respective Education

It is observed that majority of the parents put some arguments in favour of their choice in education streams. They also mentioned some reasons for disliking of other education streams and those are shown in the Table 5. Majority of Bengali medium students' parents put emphasis on job security but parents of English medium students put emphasis on development of self-confidence and awareness. Where as parents of Religious education students put emphasis for maintaining life according to the direction of the Quran and the Sunnah.

Table 5 : Types of Education liked by the Parents and the Reasons

ES	Parents Opinion		
B M	Why like BM Ensure job security Reflect on own values Effective medium Fulfill economic need	Why not RE No future at all Teaching quality is not good Emphasis given on religious matter	Why not EM Expensive Minimum Institute No specific job in future
E M	Why like EM Develop self-confidence and awareness Greater job opportunities	Why not BM Environment is not so good Lack of good institute Concise job opportunity	Why not RE Lack of good teacher May be demoralized No recognition
RE	Why like RE Maintain life according to the direction of the Quran and the Sunnah Good for present and also for the next life Increasing knowledge of religious beliefs	Why not BM Not possible to maintain character Reduces norms and values Establish as a corrupt people in future Teachers are not aware about student	Why not EM Religious matter are totally absent Not respecting beliefs on Islam Create social distance Develop proudness

Source: Field survey (2006)

5.0 Suggestions

The education system in our country creates physical, mental and social differences among students of different streams. So the ways of thinking of students are also different. Education streams, social trends, parents' and teachers' attitude sometimes hinder the mental development of the students. As a result, most of the students could not perform as a universal citizen in future. So, it is necessary to improve the education system with participation of parents, teachers, students and the people involved in educational management.

6.0 Conclusion

Education is the basis of development. No country can achieve its development without need based education. But education arena in Bangladesh is not so developed. Literacy rate is low and there is a significant disparity among education streams. Bangladesh has mainly three education streams. Each of the streams has separate identity. Thinking of parents of students in different education streams, their social positions and economic conditions make difference among students. Moreover, education streams make differences of skill of students. As a result, there are found clear distinction of performances in their real life.

References

- Achieve Universal Primary Education, nd. Millennium Campaign.
Retrieved on 11 September, 2007 from <http://cc.msnsnscache.com>.
- Bangladesh 2000: Education of Bangladesh, Retrieved on 3 February 2008 from <http://www.discoverybangladesh.com/meetbangladesh/education.html>
- Bangladesh 2000: Education Sector Review, vol. II, the UPL, Dhaka
- Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS). 2003. Statistical Yearbook, 2003, Education Systems <http://sanisoft.tripod.com/bdeshedu/systems.html>
- Hannan, S. A. 2002: The religious education of Muslim women in Bangladesh. Retrieved from <http://nation.ittefaq.com/35/21726> on 12 August, 2007.
- Ministry of Education (MoE) on-line, nd. Retrieved on 28 February 2008 from http://www.moedu.gov.bd/about_moe__organizations_mtti.htm
- Mostak, A. and Chowdhury 1999: A review of Primary Education Development Bangladesh. The UPL, Dhaka.
- One-line: Madrasha Education- A Religious tools of Elite to control the poor? Retrieved from <http://blog.imtiaz.info/2005/> on 07 September 2007
- Religious Education: Responding to pupils' needs, Retrieved from http://www.qca.org.uk/qca_1939.aspx on 7 February 2008
- Sharafuddin, A. M. 2003: Innovations in primary education in Bangladesh. Retrieved from http://www.ignca.nic.in/cd_06022.htm on 02 July 2007.
- Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia, nd. Retrieved on 3 March 2008, from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Education_in_Bangladesh
- Wikipedia: Education in Bangladesh. Retrieved on 13 September 2007, from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Education_in_Bangladesh date 7.9.07).