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**Contents**

<b>Articles</b>	<b>Page No.</b>
1. Achieving Sustainable Social Safety Nets in Bangladesh <b>Nahid Sultana Mallik</b>	1-14
2. Relevance of Culture in Contemporary Public Policy Implications with Special Reference to Social Capital <b>Md Akbar Hossain</b>	15-27
3. Mapping Good Governance in Service Delivery: A Study on Some Selected Upazila Land Offices <b>Moyeenul Islam &amp; Parimal Sarker</b>	28-41
4. Educational Status in Bangladesh: Whether Right or Not? <b>Dr. Md. Aminur Rahman</b>	42-53
5. Can we Formulate English Education Policies Which Respond to Ground Level? Comparative Study between Sub-urban & Remote Rural Areas in Bangladesh <b>Azam Md Golam &amp; Kusakabe Tatsuya</b>	54-66
6. Good enough Governance Matters for Development: A Critical Overview <b>Mohammad Abdul Salam &amp; Mohammad Ashraful Afsar</b>	67-80
7. Good Governance in the Perspective of Attitude, Mindset, Administrative Ethics and Values <b>Tapan Kumar Biswas</b>	81-87



## **Achieving Sustainable Social Safety Nets in Bangladesh**

Nahid Sultana Mallick<sup>1</sup>

### **Abstract**

Government of Bangladesh has been distributing cash, food or both through different social safety net programs since the independence in 1971. This article is an attempt to discuss whether those safety net programs are achieving socio-economic sustainable development or not for the vulnerable people of the country. The study has been done based on the information gathered from secondary sources like articles of different scholars, government publications, and study reports of NGOs and so on. Most of the studies followed the quantitative methods for assessing successes and failures of the safety net programs. However, this article is dedicated to assess the current social security policies, to analyse the budget and performance of the social safety net programs, to find out the effectiveness safety net programs in reducing the poverty and ensuring social security for the vulnerable and poor people of Bangladesh and also to make suggestions for the successful implementation of the programs and sustainable policy design.

**Keywords:** Social protection, safety net program, inclusion/exclusion errors, means test and proxy means.

### **1.0 Introduction**

#### **1.1 Statement of the problem**

Over the last few decades, the concept and practice of Social Safety Nets (SSN) under social protection scheme has gained enormous popularity in policy level in order to address the poverty and vulnerability in developing countries and which has become an essential component of national development strategies (Barrientos and Hulme, 2008). Despite recent socio-economic progress, around 24.3 percent population of Bangladesh still live under the national poverty line<sup>2</sup>. Moreover, vulnerability is increasing due to different types of risks such as individual or household affected by accidents; frictional unemployment, illness, economic disparity; impacts of climate change like river erosion, draughts, floods, cyclones etc.; breaking down of traditional joint family structure; lack of family and social supports etc. (Rahman and Choudhury, 2012). Like many other developing countries, the government of Bangladesh has been implementing a number of social safety net programs as the Constitution of the country make it obligatory for the as it mentioned that State shall provide public assistance in cases of undeserved want

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2. World Bank; Bangladesh Country Profile; <https://goo.gl/Fv1pk1> (Accessed on 30 January 2018)

arising from poverty, unemployment, illness or disablement, or widowhood, or orphan hood or in old age, or in other such cases (Articles 15 [c]).

## **1.2 Significance of the study**

In order to fulfil its commitment for ensuring the ever-increasing social security needs of the vulnerable population to cope up with poverty and vulnerability the government currently expending 13.54% of Budget and 2.44% of GDP in the FY 2017-18 for 145 social safety net programs implement by 23 ministries. However, the success and sustainability of these programs remain questionable as Masud-All-Kamal and Saha (2014) say that higher budget could not play significant role for eliminating the chronic poverty. The authors also state that the effectiveness of the programs are being challenged by issues such as administrative complications, high rates of leakage, mis-targeting of beneficiaries, corruption, manipulation of program funds, low accountability, weak governance, and elite and political capture etc.

On the other hand, Pradhan, Mohd & Sulaiman (2013) examined whether higher budget allocations for SSNs is linked to poverty reduction. The study shows, through analysis of statistical data, that higher budget allocations have been associated with decreases in poverty rates during recent decades in Bangladesh. However, as a disaster prone country, different types of vulnerabilities are creating new types of poverty in Bangladesh. As a whole it can be said that, safety net programs are uplift the poverty condition of the poor. In addition, BIDS study (2013) claimed that, social safety net program named Old Age Allowance (OAA) work as effective tools for food insecurity in later age of the poor. Ahmed, Jahan and Zohura (2014) discussed the issue of regional disparity of budget allocation of SSNPs. The study also showed that, benefits could not reach to the actual poor due to regional disparity of distributing the safety net budget in Bangladesh.

There is a limitation in the implementation of the SSNPs, that is, a single window for monitoring and evaluation of the SSN programs could not be possible to establish as the programs implementing by different ministries. In addition, new form of vulnerability in ages is causing different problems due to climate change, migration, urbanization, increasing nuclear families and many other factors. Moreover, there is contradictory opinion among many social scientists that the safety net programs should be for only chronic poor to eliminate poverty and inequality or all citizens as basic needs to ensure equity (Masud-All-Kamal, M & Saha, CK, 2014). Rahman (2012 and 2014) also focuses on the effects of SSNPs on calorie consumption within poor households in Bangladesh. He argues that SSNPs play a vital role to protect the vulnerable from food insecurity. In his later study he

3. The Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS) has been conducting the HIES, a cross section survey, on Bangladeshi households every five years since 1991 with the financial support from the World Bank.

analysed quantitatively the data of the HIES<sup>3</sup> (BBS 2010) and concluded that SSNPs have a high impact on calorie consumption of the target group (Rahman 2014, p.14). He further suggested continuation of the SSNPs as effective tools for alleviating food insecurity with strong grounds to increase the budget allocation.

Corruption, nepotism, lack of transparency and digital data, inclusion/exclusion errors, means test and proxy means, community selection process, influence of the political/elite people and other factors interrupt the selection process of the actual beneficiaries of the programs identified by many scholars in different countries including Bangladesh.

### **1.3 Scope of the study**

This paper is an attempt to analyse the current state of social safety net programs in Bangladesh. Firstly, it provides a conceptual framework; secondly, it presents historical background of SSNPs in Bangladesh; thirdly, findings and data analysis; fourthly, it presents discussion and finally the article draws conclusion some recommendations.

### **1.4 Objective of the study**

In light of the above discussion, the objectives of the study are as follows:

- To find out the problems in implementing of the safety net programs of Bangladesh.
- To analyze the relation between the budget and information constraints of the SSNPs.
- To provide the recommendation to achieve the goals in sustainable manner.

## **2.0 Research methodology**

This article attempted to analysis different findings of the different scholars in this area. The study analysis is based on secondary data like articles of different scholars, government publications, and study reports of NGOs by using different search engines like Google scholar, Flinders University Library online, Sage etc. Endnote software was used for referencing. Simultaneously, some case studies are used from qualitative research of the researcher's own Master's thesis done in Australia.

## **3.0 Conceptual frameworks**

### **3.1 Social protection and social safety net**

Many researchers identified the Social Safety Net (SSN) concept is related to the scheme or programs for a short-term safeguard while social protection or security means long term interventions. According to Barrientos (2011), social protection has emerged as a policy framework employed to address poverty and vulnerability

in developing countries in the last decade. According to AusAID, social protection is “Publicly funded initiatives that provide regular and predictable cash or in-kind transfers to individuals, households and communities to reduce poverty and vulnerability and foster resilience and empowerment” (AusAID 2012).

Koehler (2011) says that social protection issue is frequently linked with the global economic crisis of 1998. Many developing countries are adopting social protection strategies within their poverty reduction planning after the economic recession. The main issue for the emergence of social protection is to eliminate poverty and vulnerability. For the first time, UN General Assembly MDG Meeting declared the policy recommendations for social protection in 2010. Recently, social protection issue has become a pressure for the governments for targeting the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) after the performance of the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) agenda. The performance of the programs is positive in some countries but the progress of the MDG goals is not being achieved due to the lack of well targeting and occurrence of inclusion/exclusion errors in many countries.

Barrientos *et al.* (2011) in their report for the Chronic Poverty Research Centre (CPRC) described that more than 860 million people in the world are covered under social protection programs. A World Bank report titled ‘Conditional cash transfers: reducing present and future poverty’ by Fiszbein & Schady (2009) mentioned that social assistance programs have been spreading rapidly in over 30 countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America. Bangladesh, Indonesia and Turkey have initiated large-scale programs. The report discussed and compared social protection programs of many Asian countries including Bangladesh and according to the report social transfer in developing countries has two functions: it ensures basic levels of consumption and it eliminates chronic and intergenerational poverty.

Barrientos and Nino-Zarazua (2011) discussed three policy questions related to social assistance programs:

Is chronic poverty addressed by program objectives such as reducing poverty, access to education, access to health care and nutrition and promoting human development interventions?

Are the benefits of the programs properly reaching poor households through effective implementation of the program?

Are the chronically poor receiving social assistance program benefits in the form of nutrition, health and schooling?

Addressing the first policy question, Barrientos and Nino-Zarazua identified microcredit program of BRAC in Bangladesh helps to rebuild and strengthen the productive capacity of ultra-poor households. The main conclusion from the first policy question is that the programs are designed to rebuild the productive capacity of households in terms of human capital investment and to secure and/or establish physical assets for those who are facing longer term poverty.

Addressing the second policy question, the report shows means tests (categorical and geographical methods of identification along with community based selection) and proxy means tests (effective targeting of households on the basis of income or wealth) are methods used for the selection of beneficiaries in most developing countries. They give an example of the Primary Education Stipend Project in Bangladesh which follows ‘means tests’ and ‘proxy means tests’ methods for selecting the beneficiaries. Around 47% of beneficiaries are identified as non-poor and misuse of resources by elite groups causes inclusion errors (2005 cited in Barrientos & Nino-Zarazua 2011). The study indicated that for the duration of transfer there is no principle to guide policy. Households that are facing chronic poverty may need longer periods of assistance and programs like old age and disability pensions or schooling related programs may need long term assistance. They conclude that targeting of social assistance programs aims to reduce chronic poverty although it depends on programs and country specific situations.

Addressing the third policy question, related to nutrition, health and schooling, Barrientos and Nino-Zarazua (2011) mentioned that the future earning capacity of a person depends on his/her childhood nutritional condition. By giving examples of transfer programs in Mexico, Columbia, South Africa, Ethiopia, India and Bangladesh, they have shown that income transfer, food consumption and improvements in child nutrition are interrelated. Malnourishment declined from 97% to 27% after integrated poverty reduction programs were initiated in Bangladesh. The authors identified that securing good health for the mother and children is a necessity for better growth of future generations and that proper utilisation of health care support affects morbidity rates. Similarly, support programs for education increased school enrolments in some countries including in Chile, Bangladesh and Columbia. According to them, social transfer can be a way to strengthen asset protection and asset promotion of the chronically poor. They concluded that social transfers can contribute to building human capital as well as protecting and promoting physical assets. As a whole, the main aim of social assistance programs is to eradicate chronic poverty.

Correspondingly, Subbarao and Smith (2003, p 1) reported on the role of safety net transfers in very low income countries where absolute poverty and lack of fund transfers is very common. According to them, some of the possible roles for safety nets are to decrease the poverty gap, to arrange programs for all, and to protect against major shocks. The authors identified three main constraints for the successful implementation of social transfers:

- information constraints (lack of accurate data about the actual beneficiaries);
- administrative constraints (to target the beneficiary); and
- fiscal constraints (affordability of designing the program and providing benefits).

### **3.2 An overview of social protection in Bangladesh since the independence (1971)**

In Bangladesh, social safety nets had historically been associated with natural shocks (causing disruption in production) and structurally determined poverty; and the Government and non-government agencies had significant roles to play in the past. After the Independence of Bangladesh in 1971 and until the famine of 1974, huge relief and rehabilitation programs were undertaken with the support of foreign aid (Clunies-Ross & Huq 2013). From 1974 famine to floods in the 1980s, safety net programs were based on only public works and other food aid programs supported by different foreign agencies. Since the Famine in 1974, the Bangladesh government initiated different social safety net programs for the vulnerable including Five Years Plans and expanding the budget on a regular basis for different SSN programs. There were only a few programs until the mid-1990s, and most of them were designed for income support, but from the second half of the 1990s new program types have been initiated almost every year. The government started to initiate different food based programs those addressed poverty in the lifecycle of the poor like school stipend programs, Food-for Education program. Cash based programs like allowance for the elderly (1998), people with disabilities and widows were the major initiatives at late 1990s. To reduce unemployment, the government introduced a number of food based programs since Independence like, the Vulnerable Group Feeding (VGF) program (1974), the Food-for-Works (FFW) Program (1975), Rural Maintenance Program (RMP), Vulnerable Group Development (VGD) in late 1980s, and the 100-days Employment Generation Program. Foreign food assistance was picked off and replaced by food transfers from local tax in the mid-2000s for geographic targeting like ‘Monga’ affected area (‘Monga’ is different type of famine exist for few months in the year due to lack of agricultural production and unemployment in northern part of Bangladesh). Launched initially in 1972, SSN programs impact on 11.6 percent of the population and 30 percent of the poor (The World Bank, 2008). The budget allocation for social safety nets increased from 1.3 percent of GDP in 1998 to 2.3 percent in FY 2011 (NSSS 2015, p.xix). Both NGOs and government initiated small schemes of social security during this tenure.

Since the prolong flood of Bangladesh in 1998, there has been a gradual shift of different safety net programs either directly commissioned by external partners or in partnership with the GO-NGOs or international agencies. Different housing projects like ‘*Guchcho Gram*’/ ‘*Asrayan Prokolpo*’, food relief programs like ‘Food for Work’ are some of the initiatives for ensuring safeguards of the vulnerable. Due to the price hike of food during 2007-08, concepts of safeguard significantly shifted from the past norm. The crisis did call for urgent attention to the needy with relief in kind during late 2000s. These are two types:

- Open Market Sale (OMS) distributed at spots close to clusters with poor people helped keeping prices affordable for some urban poor.

- Cash for employment and cash transfers under other SSNPs helped the beneficiary groups.

There was a significant role of donors in various programs operated by non-government organizations (NGOs) and they operated a range of social services including social transfer.

### 3.3 Results and data analysis

There are different types of programs in Bangladesh such as cash transfer programs, food security programs and social empowerment programs (Ministry of Finance [MoF] 2014). Allowances (a fixed and small amount of money different among the programs) are distributed among the beneficiaries of the SSN programs on a monthly basis. The government of Bangladesh is operating nearly 145 SSN programs by 23 Ministries/Divisions and spending Tk 306.4 billion which is equivalent to 2.02 percent of GDP in FY2014-15 (NSSS 2015, p.7). In the HIES survey (2010) total 11 SSN programs were estimated in 2005 while total 30 SSN programs were estimated in 2010. The HIES (2010, p 129) study estimated that 31.5 percent of the population of the country are poor using upper poverty line and 17.6 percent of the population living below the lower poverty line are extreme poor. Currently (HIES 2010) 24.57 percent households are receiving benefits from SSN programs which was 13.02 percent in 2005 (HIES 2010, P 129). Moreover, 64 percent of the poor households still are not included to any social safety net programs though the budget and coverage are increased over time (NSSS 2015, p. xix). Expenditure of the Pension for retired government employees is the largest social protection scheme in Bangladesh, although it pays generally high benefits to few people. The government is spending 24.0 percent of total SSNP budget for the pension scheme for retired government employees. The Old Age Allowance (OAA) program started in 1998 has been reached 2.4 million people now and spent 3.9 percent of total SSNP budget (NSSS 2015, p.9). 1.6 percent of total SSNP budget is spending for the Honorarium for Insolvent Freedom Fighters who are also older people, and 1.4 percent of total SSNP budget is spending for the Widow Allowance (started in 1998) who are elderly also.

**Table -1:** The Broad Categories of SSNPs in Bangladesh

Cash Transfer	Food transfer	Price subsidy	Job generating	Others
Old Age Allowances	Vulnerable Group Feeding	Agricultural inputs Subsidy	Vulnerable Group Development (VGD)	Housing for the Homeless

Maternity allowance for Retard/Disable Person	Test Relief, Food for Works	Subsidy for Marginal Farmers to cope with the Fuel Price Hike	Rural Employment Opportunities for Public Assets	Efficiency Development Fund for Expatriate Workers
Allowance to the Widowed	Gratuitous Relief	Food Subsidy	100 days Employment Generation Program	Ekti Bari EktiKhamar
Honorarium for the Insolvent Freedom Fighters	Primary education Stipend Project	Power Subsidy	Employment Project for Beggars	Microcredit
Female Secondary School Assistance	Community Nutrition Program	health care	National Service	Free schooling

**Table 2:** The following table shows the distribution of budget for SSNPs in different years:

Fiscal Year	% of Total Budget	% of GDP
2009-10	15.22 %	2.52 %
2010-11	14.75 %	2.50 %
2011-12	13.79 %	2.51 %
2012-13	11.87 %	2.18 %
2013-14	11.40 %	2.13 %
2014-15	12.28 %	2.01 %
2015-16	12.72%	2.19%
2016-17	13.28%	2.31%
2017-18	13.54%	2.44%

Source: Ministry of Finance, Bangladesh Govt. Website ([http://: www.mof.gov.bd](http://www.mof.gov.bd))

Historically, disbursement for social safety net has been less than 1% of GDP till the late 1990s. However, this expense has been increasing in recent years, due to unprecedented economic growth of above 6%. Social safety net expenditure was 1.21% of GDP during 2006-07 and about 1.60% of GDP for the 2007-08 fiscal year. But it is stand for 2.5% of GDP in FY2009-10 (*Bangladesh Economic Review*, 2012). In recent years, the GoB has increased budgetary allocation and identified various types of vulnerability in striving to improve social safety net during the current fiscal years. Launched in 1972, SSNPs now cover nearly 30 percent of the

poor households (NSSS 2015). The programs leave out 35 million poor people and around 31.5 percent of Bangladeshi households live in poverty (HIES, 2010).

## **4.0 Discussion**

### **4.1 Literature review**

Many scholars have tried to correlate with the issue that increase of monetary allotment could not decrease the poverty ratio during last decades in Bangladesh. They found that as a disaster prone country different types of vulnerabilities are creating new types of poverty in Bangladesh. They opined that improvement of social indicators like infant mortality rate, life expectancy, literacy rate, per capita income remains a vital problem for the bottom level people of the country. Traditional joint and extended family structure has been breaking down due to rapid urbanization, social mobilization, increasing the number of nuclear families which ultimately causing individualistic society and weaken social ties. Elderly poor are affected by this changing situation (Pradhan *et al.* 2013).

Again, the study (Pradhan *et al.* 2013, p. 140) has also shown whether the higher budget allocation for SSNs is linked with poverty reduction or not. The study shows through the graphical analysis by using different statistical data that higher budget allocations have been associated with decreases in poverty rates during last decades in Bangladesh. Currently, the Bangladesh government spent USD 2,450 million, 13.28 per cent of its annual budget and 2.31 per cent of real GDP, in 2016–2017. The World Food Program (WFP) and other agencies, in general, spent twice as much as the government (Rahman, 2014, p. 4).

Rahman (2012) argues that SSN Programs play a vital role to protect the vulnerable from food insecurity. In his later study he quantitatively analyzed the data of HIES\* (2005) of BBS and concluded that SSNPs have a high impact on calorie consumption of the target group (2014, p. 14). He further suggested continuing the social safety net programs as effective tools for food insecurity and there is a strong ground to increase the allocation. BIDS evaluation study on Old Age Allowance of Bangladesh also statistically indicated that the food and health related supports are the top most priority to the elderly poor.

Moreover, there is long-established debate on how social policy should be designed to eliminate poverty and inequality. There is contradictory opinion among social scientists whether safety net programs should be for only chronic poor to eliminate poverty and inequality or all citizens as basic needs (Masud-All-Kamal and Saha, 2014, pp. 196-197). New dimension of social protection strategy is needed to think for them. Besides SSNPs, government needs to initiate new strategies and budget for sustainable social protection strategies.

In particular, it is necessary to reduce system leakage and improve targeting in order to realize greater benefits from the existing social safety-net programs.

Currently, only 25%-30% of eligible beneficiaries are getting benefit from the programs. Besides, findings of the different studies are that- corruption, nepotism, lack of transparency and digital data, inclusion/exclusion errors, community selection, influence of the political people and other factors interrupt the selection process of the actual beneficiaries of the programs. Safety net system of Bangladesh still need to improve transparency and accountability in selection procedure, to establish digital database for proper data of the actual eligible poor beneficiaries, to strengthen administrative system free from political influences. Community selection process needs reformation in order to eliminate inclusion and exclusion errors and the safety net budget should be increased through proper collection of taxes in Bangladesh. In this regard, digital database should be initiated and activated immediately. Some sort of invisible problems like corruption, nepotism can possible to avert by initiating those actions. Furthermore, safety net programs being implemented with different ministries of Bangladesh. Sometimes lack of coordination creates the causes about missing data and information gaps related to the programs. Therefore, there is an urgent need to develop an integrated social safety net policy for effective implementation, monitoring and evaluation. Strong monitoring and evaluation cell should be established to oversee or supervise SSN programs.

Barrientos (2011) discussed policy design, implementation process, challenges and opportunities for social pensions in low income countries like Bolivia, Lesotho and Bangladesh. According to him, policy design of social pensions in low-income countries is well structured but there are large knowledge gaps regarding the incidence and impact of the program. Beneficiaries in Bangladesh and Lesotho who are eligible for benefit from one program cannot receive benefits from other programs. In Bolivia, beneficiaries can also enjoy their pension facilities. Allowances are distributed annually in Bolivia, quarterly in Bangladesh and monthly in Lesotho. Barrientos finds that community selection processes increase the power of local elites in Bangladesh, which is also found in the BIDS (2013) study. He also finds that many low income countries are not able to collect revenues properly.

In conclusion, besides budget constraints, community based selection processes face problems such as nepotism and lack of data on the actual needy in implementing SSNPs in developing countries, as discussed by Barrientos (2009), Adato and Haddad (2002), and Sumarto *et al.* (2002). Barrientos (2011) identified the main challenges, other than budget constraints, for expanding safety net programs in developing countries are: capacity to study and analyse poverty; capacity to design and implement the appropriate policies; and capacity to evaluate the safety net programs. Monitoring systems and digital databases, mentioned by Adato and Haddad (2002) and Sumarto *et al.* (2002), should be launched immediately in order to better support SSNP implementation in Bangladesh.

#### **4.2 Case studies**

The researcher had been conducted a qualitative research on “Social Protection for Elderly as a Development Strategy: The Case of Ageing Population in Rural Bangladesh” while she was doing her Master by Research in Australia. The Study was based on performance of two safety net programs of Bangladesh named Old Age Allowances (OAA) and Widow Allowances (WA). Three constraints like fiscal, administrative and information (Subbarao and Smith, 2003) are found within the implementation process of the programs.

The study found that there is wrong targeting (inclusion/exclusion errors) in the selection process of beneficiaries and, quite often, prospective beneficiaries must pay a bribe to be selected. Other factors affecting the fair and impartial selection of beneficiaries include: a lack of information or a common database about the actual needy; often eligible elderly are unaware the SSNPs exist; and, anomalies with the date of birth recorded on NID cards and the actual ages of the card holders. Although the allowance is not a significant amount of money, beneficiaries can at least buy food and medicine. Many use the money for other purposes like repair of homes, paying dowry for daughters, payment of loans, giving to others and supporting habits like chewing betel leaf or smoking.

Administrative barriers in the proper functioning of the SSNPs for older persons were identified, such as: misuse of community targeting; lack of a monitoring and evaluation system; political influence; tendency for elected representatives to recoup money spent to get elected from the SSNPs; bribery; lack in announcing and circulation of program details; absence of a publicly monitored selection process; no door to door verification of eligibility; and lack of vehicles and manpower in the local social services office.

#### **5.0 Conclusions and recommendations**

In relation to information constraints raised by Smith and Subbarao (2003), there is a lack of proper data/information about the poor in Bangladesh. Different scholars, like Sumarto *et al.* (2002), Smith and Subbarao (2003), BIDS (2013), Masud-All-Kamal and Saha (2014), emphasized the proper listing of eligible poor or an up-to-date database of the beneficiaries of the SSNPs in order to eliminate targeting errors in the programs. Like in other developing countries, in Bangladesh there is a need to improve transparency in the procedure of selecting beneficiaries in order to eliminate corruption and nepotism. In order to ensure accurate selection of beneficiaries, a digital database that allows clear identification of the eligible poor based on program criteria should be initiated nationally. This would allow verification of information about the poor in an area as well as being able to check whether there is anyone receiving several safety net allowances or not.

In relation to fiscal constraint raised by Smith and Subbarao (2003), Bangladesh Govt. expending a good number of safety net budget, as described before that is 13.54 percentages of the national budget and of 2.44 precents of GDP in FY 2017/18. Moreover, it could not be possible to reach the benefits to the actual needy due to lack of digital data, regional disparity in distribution the safety net budget, inclusion/exclusion errors, means test (categorical and geographical methods of identification along with community based selection) and proxy means (effective targeting of the households on the basis of income or wealth), different administrative constraints etc. With the support of existing budget, only 30 precents of actual needy are getting benefits. The BIDS study (2013) also identified inclusion/exclusion errors, nepotism and corruption in the selection process and misuse of power by local authorities.

A single window for monitoring and evaluation of the SSN programs could not be possible to established as the programs implementing by different ministries. There should be a strong Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) Cell within the Ministry of Social Welfare (MoSW) at each level of government from the Upazila level to the National level in order to ensure a fair selection process of beneficiaries for SSNPs and to evaluate the impact of the programs on the lives of the poor. The monitoring system should be transparent. Information about the eligible poor for the SSNPs should be gathered by visiting households door to door in the villages. For this, a committee could be formed including government officials and civil society members. In order to select the eligible beneficiaries, a proxy means test (effective targeting system of the households on the basis of income or wealth) in conjunction with a means test (categorical and geographical methods of identification along with community based selection) should be clearly indicated in the policy.

There is a general lack of qualitative studies on the sustainability of the social safety net programs in Bangladesh. Very few studies focused on the strengths and weaknesses of the social safety net programs. Some NGOs who work or deal with related SSN programs are trying to analyse the social safety net programs in their publications. MoSW initiated to evaluate the performance of the Old Age Allowance by BIDS in 2013. Like Australia, we should give emphasis on multi-disciplinary researches and make policy to find out the actual results or problems, steps to be needed further and other areas needed to keep on eye etc. SSN programs (Department of Health and Aged Care,1999).

In conclusion it can be said that, Government has to give emphasis to make sustainable social protection strategies or policies for the social development of the country. New areas or issues of social protection like healthy ageing issue, new dimensions of vulnerability and poverty, climate changes, different vulnerabilities arise from global warming affects should be included in preparation of new strategies. Bangladesh as a developing country has been achieving different social development indicators in aspects of low birth rate, low mortality rates, increase of

life longevity, education rates etc. Per capita income and GDP growth is also uprising. Now the country needs sustainable policies for achieving SDGs for the poor as well as all citizens in aspects of social and economic welfares, education, heath, environmental issues and food security. Poverty and vulnerability are the main issues for sustainable social protection strategy. For achieving this, the role of safety net has had an immense effect on the life of poor.

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## **Relevance of Culture in Contemporary Public Policy Implications with Special Reference to Social Capital**

**Md Akbar Hossain <sup>1</sup>**

### **Abstract**

The concept of 'social capital' is gaining momentum all over the world. Putnam popularized the idea. He considers social capital as networks and norms of reciprocity, and trustworthiness that arise from them. Therefore, its usage is growing day by day in the domains of social scientists, policy makers, intellectuals, think-tanks, pandits and analysts. This paper attempts to explore the types, trends and roles of social capital in enhancing economic growth, democratic values, social cohesion as well as social development. It is based on secondary sources of literature and data. It tries to show the theoretical and analytical relationship between social capital and economic growth. It also cites some examples of utilizing social capital towards sustainable development based on the research of Putnam. Finally, this paper attempts to put some policy implications in reinforcing social development. Policy analysts suggest that social capital has a potential role in enhancing economic growth and ensuring sustainable development.

**Keywords:** Social capitalism, Network capitalism, Chinese capitalism, Guanxi.

### **1.0 Introduction**

Hofstede (1980) defines culture as "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group to another", and as its building blocks includes "systems of values" (p. 21). In fact, it is the culture that plays a pivotal role in managing people and in conducting their everyday life. That's why cultural differences invite differences in management practices and policy issue (Newman, Nollen 1996). Many scholars argue that management practices are the products of cultural diversity (Stone- Romero, 2008). This is because cultural differences shape different individual perceptions, preferences and ideologies by producing diverse modes of mission and vision, motivation, work orientation, communication pattern, rewarding system, decision making process and overall management styles (Hofstede, 1980; Broadfield, 2002). While economic theories consider that culture has the impact in shaping economic institutions and individual behaviour, cultural socialization influences the governance structures (Wolff and Pooria, as cited in Festing 2006, p. 456). In fact, culture plays important roles in shaping public policy discourses.

Culture is a dynamic concept that encompasses broader issues in terms of definitions and measurement. Geert Hofstede (1980) defines culture in the following way;

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“Culture is not a characteristic of individuals; it encompasses a number of people who were conditioned by the same education and life experience. When we speak of the culture of a group, a tribe, a geographical region, a national minority, or a nation, culture refers to the collective mental programming that is different from that of other groups, tribes, regions, minorities or majorities, or Nations (p. 12).”

### **1.1 Objectives**

The article attempts to explore the roles of social capital in enhancing social development.

### **2.0 Methodology**

It is based on secondary resources and literature review.

### **3.0 Theoretical analysis**

#### **3.1 Social capital**

The concept of social capital is gaining momentum in the present day world. It has taken off like a bushfire in the field of social sciences (Field 2006, p.1). Besides, it is increasingly acknowledged in the field of public policy and administration. Structural and attitudinal components of social capital like organizational culture, political affiliation, and interpersonal trust are remarkable in shaping public policy discourse.

Putnam has popularised the concept of ‘social capital’. Social capital includes the institutions, norms, values, attitudes and relationships that govern people in interaction and contribute to enhance economic and social improvement. It not only expresses the totality of institutions but also acts as glue that binds the society together (World Bank 1988). In fact, connectivity and cohesion within the families, communities are vital for holding societies together (Orchard 2001, p.232).

#### **3.2 Bridging, bonding and linking social capital**

Social capital is recognized as a multidimensional concept. Woolcock (2000) mentions three different dimensions of relationship: bonding, bridging, and linking.

Bonding refers to face to face relationship that we have with people who are like us, for example members of family and ethnic groups. Under bonding networks are outward looking and cover people across diverse social cleavages. Bonding social capital denotes a kind of sociological superglue (Putnam 2000, pp.22-23).

Bridging indicates indirect relationship that we have with people who are not like us, for example people from different generation or different ethnic group. In bridging, social networks are inward looking and limited to those from a similar social background. Putnam argues;

Bonding social capital can be better understood for undergoing specific reciprocity and mobilizing solidarity. For example, dense networks in ethnic enclaves provide crucial social and psychological support for poor members of their community. On the other hand, bridging networks are understood for linkage to external assets and for information dissemination.

Woolcock argues linking social capital as the relationships people have in relation to power, status and wealth. Linking enhances people and community groups to leverage resource, ideas and information from formal institutions to immediate community circle.

Table : 1. Examples of Bonding, Bridging and Linking

<b>Bonding:</b> with family, neighbours and close friends.
<b>Bridging:</b> with a wider network of distant friends, associates and colleagues.
<b>Linking:</b> with formal institutions, government and business.

### 3.3 Sources of social capital

It is considered that social capital yields to originate and operate from a variety of different sources within the community. Families, schools and other educational institutions, businesses, civic institutions, firms, civil society, the public sector, and the local community are the important sources of social capital.

### 4.0 Theoretical perspective: Relationship among cultural values, social capital and economy

Culture is defined as ‘the undivided property of the whole society’ (Bourdieu 1977, p.73). It has both explicit and implicit roles in developing economy. In his famous book on the Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism, Max Weber argued that the teachings of Calvinism had encouraged emerging capitalism what he called an ethic of ‘this worldly asceticism. For example, Catholic countries in Europe became industrialised later and had lower per capita incomes than that of Protestant countries. Similarly, many analysts have identified ‘functional equivalents’ to the Protestant ethic in Japanese Buddhism and variants of Japanese Islam. They argue that these traditional values foster the same kind of this worldly asceticism that Weber saw in the Protestant ethic. The main assumption is that economic development depends upon the ability of individuals to work hard and to save money and reinvest it rather than to spend it.

Francis Fukuyama argues the low level of trust as a critical weakness of East Asian countries. He believes economic success is ascertained by the moral bonds of social trust within a culture. He mentions that mistrust (and lack of delegation), prevailing in East Asian countries, originated from the Confucian hierarchy which lacks superior- to-subordinate obligations. He argues this is a particular and distinctive characteristic of East Asian hierarchies, one that differentiates them from

other cultures. Yamakishi Toshio from the University of Hokaido, Japan, explains that trust-building requires risk-taking, and people living in the collectivist societies of Confucian culture are not prepared for this (Milner and Quilty 1996).

#### **4.1 Benefits of social capital**

Putnam argues that social capital enhances good government and economic progress in many ways.

1. It can reduce the cost of transaction for everyday doings including business
2. It can spread knowledge, innovation and attitudes quickly among the group
3. It can promote cooperation, collaboration and socially sustainable relation
4. It invites citizens to resolve collective problems effectively.
5. People with social capital are more hired, happy, and healthy and housed than people without it (cited in Australian Productivity Commission p.11).

#### **4.2 Some pragmatic experiences of social capital**

Social capital has potential implications for contemporary public policy. The Saguaro group, a U.S think tank of academics, policymakers has argued in the following way:

It is becoming increasingly clear that social capital has an enormous array of practical benefits to individuals and to communities. What is more, social capital has what economists call ‘positive externalities’. That is, networks of trust and reciprocity not only benefit those within them, but also those outside them. (Saguaro Group 2000, 4, cited in productivity commission)

#### **4.3 Marketing area**

Some Australian researches suggest that people can locate job through using social capital especially using recommendations of family, friends, and relatives (Stone, Gray and Hughes 2003).

#### **4.4 Governmental entity**

Social capital can facilitate the transaction of diamond markets centered in New York following social trust and ties between merchants (Coleman 1988). Unlike south, governments in north have been adjudged successful in managing public’s business efficiently and satisfying constituents (Putnam 1993).

#### **4.5 Social sector**

In Victoria, maternal and child health agencies provide parent education for first time parents. It gives an opportunity to build networks among the new parents, which becomes helpful for child and parent (Scott 2000).

#### **4.6 Education and child welfare**

Putnam (2000) explored that some aspects of social capital are positively associated with educational development in U.S.A. He mentioned that informal information and social trust play an important role in student achievement than formal institutionalized social capital. He also found that school size and religious views were vital to educational outcome. For example, catholic schools in Chicago outperform the public school.

#### **4.7 Health**

Some studies suggest that social capital has important policy implications in the field of health and well being outcome, such as mortality rates, reported happiness, and rates of depression and heart disease.

The most exciting evidence of social capital underlines the issue of personal health. Sociologist Emile Durkheim explained a relationship between suicide rates and level of integration into society. Thus, suicide rates increased in the context of massive social change. This occurs because of weak social solidarity, social connectedness. Similarly, Putnam found association between personal health and social connectedness. OECD (2001, p.52) noted:

*i) social networks furnish tangible assistance and care which reduce psychological and physical stress; and ii) social capital might trigger a physiological mechanism stimulating individual's immune systems to fight disease and defense stress.*

#### **4.8 Crime and violence**

Numbers of studies show that lower rates of crimes and violences are the outcome of higher levels of social capital. In a study of Chicago, Sampson and Raudenbush (1997) found that social cohesion was linked with lower rates of violence.

Using data from an International Crime Victims Survey Halpern concluded that around two-thirds of crime rates could be explained by level of economic inequality, self-centered behavior and social trust. He also synthesized that three variables could ascertain the variation in crime rates, such as motive, opportunity and means. Inequality yields to motive, social trust provides opportunity. And self interested values provide the means psychologically allowing (Happern 2001, 248).

#### **4.9 Equality and social capital**

Contemporary policy makers are drawing much attention for achieving equality and greater inclusion in the society. Social capital is a pivotal indicator in attaining equality in the society. OECD (2001) notes the following contribution of social capital in bringing equality:

1. Countries having high level of trust and social engagement seem to be more equal on the basis of income , adult literacy etc.

2. Lower level of trust and engagements lead to extreme form of exclusion.

#### **4.10 Rural development and social capital**

There is significant influence in rural development by social capital formation. In Bangladesh it is evident that NGOs have had better success in this field. Collective awareness along with mobilization is provided by the NGOs. Rural women are forming various social groups based on social capital. Especially rural women are participating in poverty reduction strategy in Bangladesh. They form a group with likeminded members; take training and money from the NGOs. Finally they are playing important roles in rural development (Mondal 2000, cited in /www.socialcapitalgateway.org).

#### **4.11 Subjective wellbeing and social capital**

There are important implications of social capital in attaining subjective wellbeing. Some studies show that failed growth of happiness is the result of the decline of social capital especially the decline of its relational component (cited in /www.socialcapitalgateway.org).

#### **4.12 Social capital and environmental management**

There has been a significant negative impact on the environment over the past few decades. In spite of that, social capital is enhancing environmental management in some areas. Jeffrey (2004) shows in south East Asia, especially in Bangkok and Ho Chi Minh City, women are playing important roles in bio-diversity protection and forestation. Women are trying to become forehand in environmental management based on mutual support and trust (Jeffrey 2004 cited in /www.socialcapitalgateway.org).

#### **4.13 Polices to enhance social capital**

Social capital contributes a lot to the societal development. So it is necessary to build social capital for getting greater benefit. The following three items are important in this regard;

- a. assessing policies to build or support social capital;
- b. incorporating social capital considerations into other policy assessments; and
- c. redesigning policies to utilize existing stocks of social capital.

### **5.0 Some policy ideas to build or support social capital**

1. The idea of public campaigns, and more flexible work arrangements, to increase greater civic participation; and government support for community groups, events and volunteering.

2. To encourage neighbourliness, and to enhance ‘mingling’ between social groups.
3. Changes in school size, governance and curriculum; and compulsory community service for students.
4. Introduction of the devolution of responsibilities from central agencies to local governments, the non-government sector and families and individuals.
5. The utilization of ‘citizens juries’ and ‘deliberative polls’ in policy formulation to enhance greater community participation and building trust in government.
6. Government’s proactive role for household and public internet and telecommunications services in order to overcome the ‘digital divide’ and to have better access to networks and information, especially for the poor.
7. The idea of ‘Corporate social responsibility’ can be potential to provide a pathway to build social capital between business and civil society and to increase levels of trust.

## 6.0 Some empirical research on Social Capital

In *Bowling Alone*, based on a study in USA, Putnam constructed a composite focusing on some major dimensions of social capital, namely; community life; engagement in public affairs; community volunteerism; informal sociability; and social trust.

Table : 2. Putnam’s indicators of social capital for the United States:

<b>Measures of community or organizational life</b>
Percentage of individuals who served on a committee of a local organisation in the last year (0.88a)
• Percentage of individuals who served as an officer of some club or organisation in the last year (0.83)
• Civic and social organisations per 1000 population (0.78)
• Mean number of club meetings attended in the last year (0.78)
• Mean number of group memberships (0.74)
• Percentage of individuals who attended public meeting on town or school affairs in last year (0.77)

*Source:* Putnam (2000) cited in Productivity Commission.

## 7.0 Asian values based on social capital and economic development

### 7.1 Network capitalism

Networking and information exchange are vital for enhancing economy. It is true for Asia. In Japan, networks among businessmen first established in college. It

continued after they entered in to their business playing a pivotal role in high level corporate managers (Hamilton 1998, p.12). On the other hand, Chinese capitalism is considered, first and foremost, as the network capitalism. It is laid upon the ground up rather than on the legal contract and supervisory authority of the state but on particularistic relationship of trust (Clegg and Redding 1990, p.2, Hefner 1998, p.12). Hamilton distinguishes two kinds of relationship for exploring Chinese business pattern likely

- a. hierarchical relationship of family
- b. guanxi.

### **Family resources**

Chinese family is patrilocal and patriarchal where men control the family property. This authority has implications to enlarge the Chinese economy. Elder patriarchs depend on loyalty and unpaid labor of the juniors that help to establish and flourish a firm. The sons gradually become engaged in the business.

### **Guanxi**

It refers to the egalitarian, reciprocal and broader network. Generally this relationship is manifested with gifts, dinners, and other social exchanges. Hefner said “In non Chinese Southeast Asian countries, where Chinese constitutes as little as 1.5 percent of the population (in the Philippines) ...these same networks serve not only to facilitate business but to provide political leverage...”

### **7.2 Negative aspects of social capital**

Although social capital plays some important roles in societal development but it has some limitations. Woolcock (1998, 158) argues it as unqualified good.

#### **Impact on outside**

Social capital enhances the benefits to the members of that group. But its success depends on the goals of that group. Gangs and mafia use social capital for the formation of their group. But for individual members, it does not bring good.

#### **Impact on insider**

Social capital has some negative impacts on insider as well. It restricts personal freedom and thinking sometimes. As social capital pursues to stand in uniformity, individuals sacrifice their own freedom.

Social capital places heavy mutual obligation within smaller groups. By doing this, it discourages and looses greater networks and benefits from it. For example, in developing countries sanction against education of girls, and ostracism of members disrespect the values and norms of the Amish communities in the USA.

## 8.0 The ultimate policy debates

The two major streams regarding policy debate for social capital are communitarian and left liberal and social democrats. On the one hand, Putnam, under the label of communitarian, emphasizes the reconciliation of bridging, bonding the social capital. So, it is necessary to encourage civic renewal and engagement at the local level. On the other hand, left liberals and social democrats took a conflicting sense of community. Fukuyama focuses on to refine government institutions for getting success of liberal capitalism. Sennett and other left liberals see social capital as the expression of values of openness and equality and the embodiment of curbing conflict. So, there is a great need for enhancing robust public institutions and policies for attaining equality and openness.

Orchard (2001) shows the role of social capital for policy implications in the following way:

Table: 3 Role of Social Capital

Representative dysfunction	Major instance	Spontaneous regenerative trends	Solution
Putnam-disengagement	Loss of social capital	Less formal civic associations	Better community: reduced role of interest groups, more reciprocity
Fukuyama-disruption	Loss of social capital	Liberal capitalism itself	Better restorative capitalism and spontaneous cohesion from market exchange
Senett – erosion	Loss of moral character	none	Better government and proper political choice: increased security and political communication

### Policy implications of social capital in Bangladesh: a country of informal trust

As we all know, Bangladesh belongs to ethno-linguistic region of Bangla with west Bengal of India that underwent famines, natural disaster and widespread poverty. Today, Bangladesh is a democratic and secular country, enlisted in ‘next eleven’ economies.

### Political culture versus social capital

Bangladesh as a nation represents collectivism but since the independence there developed some unique political culture including extreme political vendetta, political obduracy, extreme political intolerance, retrogressive politics, and politics of division rather than social cohesion that impede economic growth. There is

enough mistrust among political parties that is absolutely unhygienic. One report cites that corruption has accounted for around TK 540 billion in three sectors of economy like privatization of industries, banks and insurance and upazila parishad (Transparency International 1999, p.2). The opposite party usually calls for strike, closed down of industry and business, locked up government offices, blockade of every economic activity that discourages the foreign investment and so, slows down the economic growth (Jalil 2007). People cast their votes on the basis of regionalism, locality, community, religion rather than honesty, expertise and skill of the candidate. However, in exercising deepening democracy in Bangladesh the role of social capital is critical.

### **Industrial culture versus social capital**

Bangladesh is showing certain progress in respect of industrialization and women participation in achieving economic growth. Lots of young women are working in the garment factories, living almost two hours walk away from workplace and spending the whole (at least twelve hours) day in work (cut, stitch, package}. But their recruitment is based on informal trust and references. There is no formal procedure to recruit garment workers. On the other hand, the story of ‘microfinance’ unit of Grameen Bank, BRAC is mentionable. Women lend loans, sometimes in group, to capital for micro business like food processing, dairy or poultry, small industry and trading.

Women form many groups in order to loan money on the basis of social capital. Thus, women engagement in economic activities not only shows progress the economic growth but shows a significant improvement in the area of women’s right and independence and empowerment by reducing the infant mortality rate at 48 in 2002. Besides, per capita income almost has become doubled, life expectancy has risen from forty four to sixty two (Sachs 2005 and BANBEIS 2010). Religious beliefs and restriction (to some extent) were also the cause of women’s regression.

Bangladesh has a lot of population where a good many are unemployed. The level and duration of unemployment levels is partly a function of search costs. The networks and contacts that make up social capital can provide highly cost-effective mechanisms for facilitating job search. Bridging social capital (networks and contacts with friends of friends’ and acquaintances) is particularly important since a number of studies have shown that more unemployed people find employment through friends and personal contacts rather than through any other single route (Perri 1997).

### **Ethnic group and social capital**

In Bangladesh, there are around thirty three ethnic groups. They were excluded from the mainstreaming society following their distinct cultural values. Recently, policy makers are intervening to include in the mainstreaming development

activities through social capital. For example, in Sylhet, some ethnic people (Khasia ) live for a long time. Earlier they had no knowledge of using modern technology, equipment and fertilizer for production. Through social capital, they are using technology and modern equipment for better production of betel leaf. It reduces the total cost of production as well as physical labor (Kariuki & Place 2005, pp. 3-4). Thus policy makers in Bangladesh are using social capital to uplift the livelihood of people from diverse ethnic groups.

### **Some empirical study on Asian values**

According to Hofstede, 1983, collectivism and power distance indexes constitute high for Latin America, Africa and Asian countries and low for Germanic countries. In the individualistic society, the ties between individuals seem to be weak and loose. Every individuals look after his /her own interest. In collectivism individuals consider the collective interest like extended family, community, clan etc.

### **9.0 Critical analysis**

In developing economy, only cultural values alone are not the ultimate factors. Rather it invites other institutional arrangements, structural processes etc. for example, sound policies, and governmental leaders committed to enforcing them. Development in Korea accelerated during Park Chung Hee's administration. Rapid development arose in a previously unproductive society with the same culture and values only when leadership changed.

Similarly the roles of technology are important for enhancing economic development. For example, Japan is developed because it accepted the pathways of technology from the west.

### **10.0 Conclusion**

Social capital is the important glue that makes societal web. People can act here based on intrinsic values, attitudes, institutional obligations, trust, cooperation etc. The roles of political, social and legal arrangements are vital in enhancing societal network and trust. Social capital not only yields sustainable governance but also effective and efficient political institutions. According to Peter Self (2000), social capital and community should be regarded as part of a mix of market, public and community units in order to enhance wide democratic distribution of ownership, participation, accountability centering equality. Orchard (2001 p.243) argues that robust political and public institutions associated with integrated liberty, equality and fraternity are essential. So, government should provide an effective and enabling framework for social and economic exchanges.

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## **Mapping Good Governance in Service Delivery: A Study on Some Selected Upazila Land Offices**

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### **Abstract**

Land is an indispensable instrument of human survival. In Bangladesh, Upazila Land Offices are designated to provide land related services to the people. As a part of improving the state of public service delivery, government plans to extend the National Integrity Strategy networks to Upazila Levels. Hence, it deems necessary to know the current status of governance in Upazila Land Offices and the factors affecting it. The study tried to gather the respondents' perception on institutional and operational capacity, legal framework, participation and trust on Upazila Land Offices. Besides, a statistical model was developed based on the assumption that good governance is a function of 'political commitment, efficiency of the service providers, peoples empowerment and digitization'. The findings suggest that inefficiency and insincerity of the staffs are serious concern; but the trend shows slower progress in different components. Performance of the civil society members in different land related committees is not satisfactory and trustworthy to common populace; hence participation or empowerment is not a concern to them. However, political commitment, efficiency of the service providers and digitization significantly affect the level of good governance in Land Offices. The current state of good governance practices in the land offices is depressing and suggests policy intervention.

**Keywords:** Upazila Land Office, Governance, Service Delivery, Empowerment, Political Commitment

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### **1.0 Introduction**

Land is very important for any nation since it is related with birth, survival and death of all its species and development of the human society. Government of Bangladesh has also given adequate importance on our land administration and management system. But unfortunately the land administration and management system in Bangladesh has not attained the expected momentum; it is still characterized by inefficiencies and corrupt practices. People experience harassment, maltreatment

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and non-cooperative attitude from the service providers in the Upazila Land Offices (ULOs). The Government of Bangladesh has already undertaken efforts to provide quality land related services to people through improved land administration and management system. Although there are signs of improvement, land governance suffers from challenges such as poor institutional and operational capacity, dearth of concrete rules and regulations, non-accommodating attitude from service providers, inefficient and inadequate resources or logistic supports.

### **1.1 Statement of problem**

Land is the most important endowment for economic growth. The service delivery system in land offices is conventional, manual and time intensive. Poor quality of land record and land management is the principal obstacle to improving public service delivery. Complicated and ambiguous land records creates tenure related dispute and incite malpractices (Hossain 2015). As a result, the government is deprived of land revenue and land ‘grabbers manipulate ownership through forged documents’ (Barakat 2001). Citizens find land related law, rules, regulations and official procedure as complex, confusing and the minute formalities act as a repulsive force to keep them away from land office. Hence, access to land related service has become complicated, middlemen dependent and bribery oriented. Different studies detected lack of institutional and operational capacity, lack of clear cut rules and regulations, lack of trust and lack of effective participation of service seekers are the main impediments for promoting quality land related services to citizens in Bangladesh.

### **1.2 Significance of the study**

Good governance in service delivery of land offices is important for efficient and effective land administration. As an endeavor to improve public service delivery (PSD), the government plans to extend the National Integrity Strategy (NIS) networks up to Upazila Levels. For better intervention and policy making, it is imminent to understand the present status, the loopholes, the bottlenecks and potentials (Besley and Ghatak 2007) beforehand. The findings, based on the perception of the respondents, put some light on the existing realities of land governance and might suggest appropriate policy intervention.

### **1.3 Scope of the study**

Poor performances of service delivery in the ULOs are widely criticized. Improvement of service delivery is the ultimate outcome of good governance. Simplified and efficient public service delivery has far reaching impact on poverty alleviation (Besley and Ghatak 2007). However, there has been a paucity of studies on governance and service delivery related issues in ULOs. So, knowing of the prevailing condition helps in effective intervention. In order to keep the study simple and doable only four ULOs were selected purposefully from two Divisions.

## **1.4 Objectives of the research**

Compared to overall scenario of PSD across the government, land offices rank lower. Hence, the study aims to (a) make an assessment of the status of Governance in service delivery of land offices; (b) identify factors that affect good governance in service delivery of land offices; and (c) suggest measures for improving service delivery in the land offices.

## **1.5 Limitations**

The most important limitation is the sample size as it is not representative enough to generalize the observations for whole of the country. In fact, it could not cover adequately representative number of ULOs in assessing the problem of good governance in service delivery in the Upazila Land Offices (ULO). Respondent's bias is another important limitation of the study. Some respondents may agree with all the questions/statement. In order to address the respondent's bias 'repetition' of asking questions has been maintained.

## **1.6 Structure of the paper**

The paper comprises six sections. Second section incorporates a precise description of relevant literature. Third section outlines the methodologies used in the research. Information collected during the field study is presented in fourth section and analyzed as well. Fifth section presents some policy recommendations. And last but not least, the final chapter concludes the report based on the findings of the study.

## **2.0 Literature review**

Governance is defined "as the exercise of political, economic, and administrative authority to manage a nation's affairs (UNDP 2002). It is the complex mechanisms, processes, relationships and institutions, through which citizens and groups articulate their interests, exercise their rights and mediate their differences. Kettani (2009) identified eight indicators of good governance such as participation, rule of law, effectiveness and efficiency, equitable and inclusiveness, responsiveness, transparency, accountability and consensus orientation.

Delivering public services efficiently and effectively is a great challenge Worldwide. Public Services are 'delivered by a nexus of relationships between beneficiaries, politicians and service providers' (Besley and Ghatak 2007). Goetz and Gaventa (2000) propose supply side (better equipment, improvements in quality, staffing and user charges) and demand side approaches for its improvement. Mehrotra (2006) identifies poor quality, low performance, limited responsiveness and weak accountability as the systematic problems of effective service delivery. These malpractices do not result from financial resources constraints and allocative inefficiencies alone, but also from bureaucratic and organizational context. The

study also argues that deep democratic decentralization i.e. political commitment leads to effective service delivery. Fiszbein et al. (2011) emphasize on appropriate diagnosis of shortfall to focus on key problems.

White (1996) uses participation as synonymous to ‘empowerment’. Because, participatory governance improves efficiency and sustainability of public service delivery, empowers citizens and deepens democracy through holding the service providers or public officials accountable (Hickey and Mohan 2004). Speer (2012) found mixed benefits of participatory governance. He suggests strong motivation of public officials rather than participatory governance for improvements in performance, service quality and well-being. However, Transparency and Accountability Initiatives (TAIs) are very important in this regard (Joshi 2013). The idea behind the grassroots approach is that community members are the people who benefit from a successful program and so may have better incentives to monitor than disinterested central government bureaucrats (Stiglitz 2002). However, grassroots monitoring may also be prone to capture by local elites (Bardhan and Mookherjee 2006). Sen’s (2005) ‘rights and capability approach’ tells that people should be free to choose what they want to do, have the functional ability to put those choices into action, and have an enabling environment that allows them to actually perform those actions. Thus community participation controls directly the quantity and quality of services provided (Joshi 2010; McGee and Gaventa 2010).

Trust is a better and humane tool for managing organizational life than the hierarchical authority or direct surveillance (Sydow 1998). It develops out of commonly shared norms among the members of the community and act as lubricant for smooth functioning of the society (Fukuyama 2000). The more the actors trust each other, the better they cooperate (Hardin 2006). In this study *trust* is explained in terms of cooperative behavior and positive attitude from service providers and satisfaction from service recipients in respect of service delivery. Establishment of better relationships among the players is essential for strengthening institutional capability. Trust and better relationship promotes customer satisfaction. Satisfaction, in turn, emanates from ownership, information sharing, competence, openness, dependence, communication, trust and respect on two parties concerned (Sanzo et al. 2003 cited in Tuladhar and Molen 2003). Echoing almost the same Knutson (1988) mentions that cleanliness and comfort, security and value for money i.e. prompt service and courtesy of the staff influence the human side of customer satisfaction.

TIB (2015) study identifies lack of strong political will, coordination gaps, inadequate budget, poor accountability, lack of digitization and poor records maintenance as the main challenges of land governance in Bangladesh. It also recommended training for the officials, one-stop service, public hearing and educating people on land related laws and procedures for improved service delivery. In addition lack of trust, reluctance of the service provider, lack of awareness about rights and low demand of redressal for unruly behavior and low bargaining power are the main obstacles to service delivery in rural Bangladesh (Aminuzzaman 2013).

There has been a dearth of studies on good governance in respect of land service delivery in Bangladesh. Most studies are mainly concerned with public sector governance policies, regimes, reality and performance. However, the literature reveals that lack of political will, fragile participation, poor accountability, inadequate budget, poor land records, lack of coordination among departments involved in land services are the main challenges of good governance in service delivery.

This study focuses on institutional and operational capacity, regulatory framework, and participation and trust to assess good governance in service delivery of ULOs. Therefore, the proposed study can be of great use to fill the existing gaps in the literature of good governance and service delivery in ULOs from the perspectives of both service providers and service recipients in Bangladesh.

### 3.0 Research methodology

It is estimated that almost 76.58% (Barakat and Roy 2007) of court cases in Bangladesh are originated out of land litigation. Hence, Upazila land office is an important frontline service providing public office. Hence, the study aims to know-

- a. What is the current status of good governance in ULOs?
- b. What factors contribute to good governance (in terms of efficient service delivery) in ULOs?

In order to focus on key issues, the number of independent variables was restricted into those four namely institutional and operational capacity, concrete and simplified legal framework, active and positive participation of the stakeholders, mutual trust between service recipients and service providers against dependent variable 'good governance' which ultimately signifies the level of 'improved service delivery'.

### 3.1 Description of model

It is assumed that good governance<sup>3</sup> is a function of political commitment, efficiency of the service providers, citizen empowerment and digitization of the services of the ULOs.

So, it can be formulized below-

$$GG_i = f_{i=1}^{50} (\text{pol}_{com}, \text{efi}_{sp, p-emp}, \text{digit})$$

$$\text{Or, } GG_i = \alpha_i + \beta_{1i} \text{pol}_{com} + \beta_{2i} \text{efi}_{SP} + \beta_{3i} \text{p}_{emp} + \beta_{4i} \text{digi} + \delta_i$$

Here,  $\alpha$  = constant term

GG = Good Governance

pol\_com = Political Commitment

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3. Good Governance has eight well-recognized indicators (Kettani 2009). However, depending on the context and target of this study the above mentioned four variables/indicators are used to fathom the status of good governance in ULOs.

efi\_SP= Efficiency of the Service Providers

p\_emp=Empowerment of Citizenry

digi=Digitization of the services in the Upazila Land Office

$\delta$ =Error term

In order to run the regression on the above mentioned model, the respondents' perception on good governance in the land offices and how far the selected independent variables affect the dependent variable was measured at a scale of five. From the literatures consulted, it is assumed that all the independent variables individually affect the dependent variable positively. However, the small sample size and scale could be insufficient; hence there is possibility of some sort of biasness or statistical problem influence the result.

The hypothesis here is (holding all other things constant)

$H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta_3 = \beta_4 = 0$  (the independent variables have no effect on dependent variable)

$H_1: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta_3 = \beta_4 \neq 0$  (at least one of the independent variables affects the dependent variable)

### **3.2 Sample and data**

The study basically focuses on first hand data from the field. For harnessing the better result, one of the best and one of the weak performing ULOs from Rangpur Division and the same from Khulna Division were selected for the study and a total of 50 respondents were interviewed by using a semi-structured questionnaire. For service recipients, different classes were focused to capture the maximum diversity in opinion.

Only 10% of the respondents were female and the rest of them were male. Most of those females were service providers. It is evident that very low number of women, as service recipient, visits ULOs. Minimum age of the respondents was 27 and the maximum was 71 years with an average of almost 46 years. Around 62% of them having at least graduation degree and about 20% of them had SSC or lower educational qualification. By profession, 48% of them were in public service and the rest were from diverse background ranging from elected representatives, teacher, farmer to housewives.

A mixed approach of qualitative and quantitative had been used to interpret the data. For quantitative analysis correlation and simple/multiple linear regression were run by using SPSS and STATA 13.

## **4.0 Data analysis and findings**

### **4.1 Institutional and operational capacity**

Institutional and operational capacity is explained in terms of human resources, efficiency of staff, citizen charter, budget allocation and management style of Upazila land offices.

#### 4.1.1 Human resources

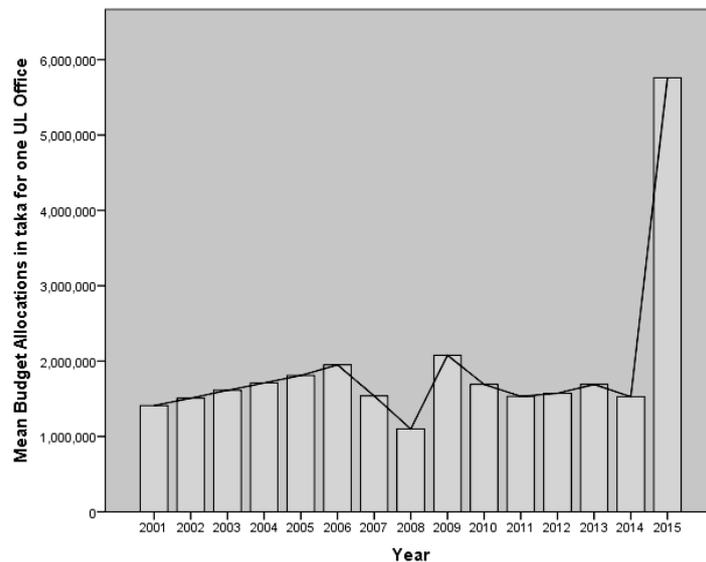
Human resource is an important area for ‘measuring the quality of governance’ (Fiszbein et al. 2011). The information of the ULOs indicates presence of adequate manpower against the sanctioned posts. But the Service Providers find existing manpower set-up insufficient to cope up with the increasing work load in the recent time. Thus, the responses push for the right sizing of the prevailing human resources set-up in the ULOs.

#### 4.1.2 Efficiency

Efficiency of the officers and staffs of ULO play pivotal role in improving governance through rendering quick, quality and reliable services. Majority of the respondents (58%) evaluated the level of efficiency of the staff as moderate; whereas only 30% claimed it as good. However, it varies considerably in two Divisions. Interestingly, around 36% of the Service Recipients mention the efficiency of the Service Providers as very good whereas for the Service Providing respondents, it is only about 4.5%. It is encouraging that service providers evaluate themselves hard and feel the necessity of improvement. About 96% of the responses are in favour of need of training for the ULO staffs for improving their knowledge, skills, efficiency and professionalism.

#### 4.1.3 Budget

Need-based budgetary allocation is an important component for promoting good governance in service delivery (Besley and Ghatak 2007). Around 81% respondents opined that allocated budget for ULOs was insufficient. The following graph explains the trend of budget allocation in one Upazila land office.



Graph 1. Trend in Budget Allocation in a ULO

Financial resource is an important component for improved basic services delivery (Joshi 2006). Insufficient budget allocation restricts the ULOs to introduce best practices, innovations and new style of management. The budget allocation shows an upward trend since 2001 to 2006 and falls to lowest during the non-party caretaker government in 2008. After 2009, it shows decreasing tendency till 2014. However, in 2015 budget allocation had a jumping increase to keep pace with the countrywide innovation, refurbishment and improved service delivery campaign.

#### **4.1.4 Use of ICT tool**

Use of ICT tools produce quality public services by reducing time, cost and visit and promote innovation, convenience, responsiveness. In this context ULOs of Khulna Division are in a better position by offering at least one digital service to the clients. It points to the requirement of policy intervention, budget and skilled manpower in promoting digitization.

#### **4.1.5 Citizen charter**

Citizen Charter informs the clients about documents, time and fees required for the services, and process as well. The ULOs set the citizen charter, with standard features, in visible places. However, only in 46% cases stipulated time limit is followed and in almost 52% cases it is not or rarely followed. It indicates that the spirit of citizen charter has not been properly upheld in delivering services.

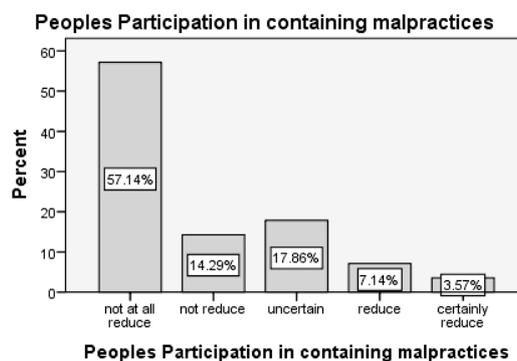
#### **4.2 Legal framework**

Legal framework includes the relevant laws, rules and regulations, circulars, orders etc. by which the ULOs are guided. Strict compliance of a sound legal framework ensures transparency and strengthens accountability through dissemination of information to citizens about their rights, service standards and performance (Fiszbein et al. 2011). About 44% respondents claimed that the existing rules and regulations are inadequate to provide effective and efficient service delivery. Although 42% respondents find the land related rules and regulations are easily accessible, 58% demand simplification. However, about 82% respondents emphasized on the publication of simplified version of commonly used rules and regulations in a compendium form for accelerating easy and comfortable access.

#### **4.3 Participation**

It is assumed that participatory governance improves the ‘efficiency and sustainability of public service delivery as well as the match between public services and beneficiaries’ preferences’. For this to happen, citizens are incorporated in committees when it is required by relevant circulars and policies. Almost 16% respondents do not know about the civil society representation in different land

related management committees. Performances of the civil society members' in different land related committees were not visible and hence almost 32% of the respondents were uncertain whether this inclusion benefits the general people or not. About 52% respondents pronounced that draft rent-roll is not displayed for stakeholders' opinion, before finalization. Only about 24% respondents opined that it is shown to somebody only if he wishes. The overall scenario of public hearing, as a tool of participation, is gloomy. Although 62% of the respondents confirm commencement of public hearing on land related issues, around 28% respondents do not even know about it. Although 56% service providing respondents nodded that people's participation reduces malpractices in ULOs, around 57% of the service receiving respondents think opposite.



Graph 2: Service recipients view on people's participation in containing malpractices

This finding, in fact, goes against the established norms of participation. Usually the local elites (political or otherwise) are included in the committees. The service recipients fear that those elites might capture land offices in the name of people's participation, bias the public officials and dominate the process of service delivery. This phenomenon can be described as 'elite capture'<sup>4</sup> phobia.

#### 4.5 Trust

For mapping the trust of clients, perception about behaviour and sincerity of the service providers and customers' satisfaction were considered. It is believed that equal, fair and just treatment and credible service delivery in time promotes citizen's confidence on service providers. Patient hearing to the service recipients is an

4. Elite capture is a process whereby resources or the benefit designated for the larger population are usurped by a few individuals of superior status—be it economic, political, educational, ethnic, or otherwise. Individuals or groups take advantage of government programs aimed at distributing resources or funds to the general public by using their elite influence to direct such assistance in such a way that it primarily benefits the elite group.

important ingredient in this regard. About 54% of the service receiving respondents experienced adequate allotment of time from the officer for resolving their issues whereas around 46% respondents opined negative. About 82% respondents replied that the service recipients were allowed to submit the required documents later on or during the hearing of mutation case.

Table 1. Managing the Mutation case disposal

Mutation Case	Percentage of responses
Disposed on application serial	38.0
Urgency of the Service Recipients considered	40.0
On report from ULAO	4.0
Mutation Assistant/ KGO determines	12.0
No serial maintained	6.0

Government has the instruction to dispose the mutation cases based on the serial number assigned during submission of application. However, there is always urgency to meet. About 38% mentioned about compliance of the above instruction whereas in around 40% cases the urgency of the service recipients were considered as well. The results demonstrate that service recipients experience a balanced mixture of strict adherence to the rule and sympathetic treatment as well. About 74% respondents evaluated the service providers as moderately sincere to sincere against a considerable 20% not sincere. In this connection, about 78% respondents advocated for training to bring a positive change in the attitude and mindset of the service providers. The higher the satisfaction level of the service recipients, the higher is their confidence on service providers. Astonishing 61% service recipients are not satisfied with the service provided by the ULOs against a mere 32% satisfied respondents. This finding calls for more meaningful and objective policy intervention for improving satisfaction level of service recipients through improved service delivery.

#### 4.6 Inferential analysis

For quantitative analysis of the factors that affect good governance (the dependent variable), the study selected four independent variables namely political commitment, efficiency of the service providers, people's empowerment and digitization. Respondents' perceptions, on how those factors influence the dependent variable, were gathered at a scale of five. A pair wise correlation at 5% significance level shows that the dependents and independent variables were significant and positively correlated.

Table2. Pair wise correlation between Good Governance and other independent variables

Good Governance (independent variable)	'r'
Political Commitment	0.6833*
Efficiency of service Providers	0.7979*
People's Empowerment	0.7187*
Digitization	0.8044*

\* Significant at the 5% level.  
Source: Field data using SPSS.

Table 3: Regression result of inferential model (Good Governance is the dependent variable)

Variables	Coefficient	Std. Err.	t	P> t	Test Diagnostics
Pol_Com	0.199	0.086	2.32	0.025	No of Obs = 50
Ef_SP	0.348	0.154	2.27	0.028	F (4, 45) = 32.33
P_Emp	0.012	0.121	0.10	0.922	Prob> F = 0.00
Digi	0.272	0.118	2.30	0.026	R-squared = 0.74
Constant	0.907	0.319	2.84	0.007	Adj R-squared = 0.72

The coefficient for political commitment is 0.199 and P value for it is 0.025. The result indicates that political commitment positively and significantly affects good governance in the Upazila Land Offices of the study area. Service providers efficiency, when increases one unit, the good governance of the office also goes up for 0.348 units. Similarly, Digitization also has positive and significant effect on good governance, the dependent variable. Interestingly, Peoples empowerment has positive relationship with good governance but it is insignificant; meaning the null hypothesis for this variable cannot be rejected.

From the probability statics it can be cocluded that all the variables, except peoples empowerment, have significant impact on good governance. It means that the null hypotheses are rejected. We had the alternative hypothesis that at least one of the variables is significantly different from the null. From the result it is seen that three variables have significant impact on the dependent variable. Moreover, the R-squared value (0.74) and F-distribution value indicates the model is quite good.

## 5.0 Recommendations

The study suggests for some policy implications/recommendations for improving governance in service delivery of the Upazila land Offices (ULOs). In order to

provide efficient and effective services there should be an adequate manpower set up in the ULOs;

Enhancing efficiency of the officers and staff is the most important issue for improving good governance in service delivery of the ULOs. They should be provided with appropriate training for improving their efficiency so that they can render efficient, effective and quality services to the service recipients;

Budget is the most important component for implementing reform initiatives. There should be provision for adequate budget for the Upazila Land Offices to meet digital services. Digital services should be provided to reduce corrupt practices and bring transparency and accountability in service delivery of the land offices;

Simplification of cumbersome land rules and regulations is required for rendering better land services to the service recipients. There should be proper measures for making simplified version of rules and regulations available to the service recipients if possible in the form of compendium. A law centre/cell/corner should be there at the Upazila Land Office for easy access to land rules and regulation;

Attitudinal change of the service providers can create momentum in generating trust and satisfaction of the service recipients. The service providers should be trained with proper motivation to bring about some positive change towards their interaction with the service recipients;

Proper implementation of the Citizen Charter (CC) is required for delivering efficient, effective and quality services to the service recipients. There should be an effective Monitoring and Evaluation framework to monitor and supervise the service delivery of the Upazila Land Offices;

In fine, Political commitment is very important for bringing about change and innovation in service delivery of Upazila Land Offices. Political commitment can also help remove 'elite phobia' of the service recipients of Upazila Land Offices.

## **6.0 Conclusion**

Quality of governance and efficiency of different end service providing offices have come under scrutiny in recent years. The study findings suggest that the manpower set-up needs revisit depending on the work load of the ULOs. Efficiency level of the staffs of ULOs shows a tendency from moderate to good at a scale of five. It becomes a matter of concern when only 4.5% of the service providing respondents termed it as very good in their self-evaluation. Budget allocation to such an important office was very insufficient; however it shows a huge jump in recent years. This demands better attention of government to ULOs. Although ULOs have visibly placed citizen charter including important features, it shows a slower progress towards introduction of digital services. Simplified version of frequently

essential land related acts, rules, regulations etc. should be made available in the form of a compendium or through establishment of a law corner. It appears that the performance of the civil society members in different land related committees is not visible and trustworthy to common populace. Hence, about 71% of the service recipients believe that participation of civil society members would not reduce the mal practices. This might be due to 'elite capture' phobia of the general mass. Although the staffs are moderately sincere, transparency and customer satisfaction are still big issues for ULOs. The attitude of the service providers need to be changed through rigorous training. Political commitment, efficiency of the service providers and digitization affect the level of good governance positive and significantly. Interestingly, the statistics for this study suggests positive but insignificant influence of peoples' empowerment on good governance which goes against the accepted norms. It is worth concluding that the level of good governance practices in the ULOs is in dismal state and suggests policy intervention.

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## **Educational Status in Bangladesh: Whether Right or Not?**

**Dr. Md. Aminur Rahman<sup>1</sup>**

### **Abstract**

Education has been described as right in Article 26 of Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) while education is still known to all as one of the basic needs (food, cloth, shelter, education, Medicare and recreation). Right, on the other hand, is legally protected interest, that is, enforceable in the court of law. It is generally speaking that education is not opportunity rather than right. But the article is making an attempt to find out whether 'Education' is, in fact, right or not particularly in case of Bangladesh. It is specially mentioned that "Education" has been provided in the 3<sup>rd</sup> part "The Fundamental Principles of State Policy" in the constitution of Bangladesh but not in the chapter of 'Fundamental Rights'. As education is not enshrined in the part of 'Fundamental Rights' in Bangladesh Constitution, education cannot be claimed as of right like human rights. Attempt will be made to recognize 'Education' as right so that both the government and individual may sue against with each other in the event of humiliating mutual interest in point of education. In consequence, proper education will take its proper shape and illiteracy will be removed from Bangladesh and elsewhere in the globe. And in fine, education will be able to take legal form resulting that all segment of people will be bound to be really educated. Education referring to in Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (goal No, 4) must be given the status of fundamental right so as to earn cent percent literacy rate in line with Vision 2021. So education should be given legal status so as to guarantee education for all being enforceable in the court of law.

### **1. 0 Introduction**

#### **1.1 Statement of the problem**

"Knowledge is virtue" said by Socrates while uttered by Plato that "virtue is knowledge and education is the main thing to acquire virtue". Greek renowned philosopher Plato described education as "The great one thing" while the greatest and last prophet Hazrat Muhammad (Sm) put the emphasis on education by saying "It is obligation for every Muslim man and woman to acquire knowledge" and "Visit to far China in search of knowledge in need". It is to be noted that the provision of education is laid down in Article 17 and 26 of Bangladesh constitution and Article 26 of UDHR respectively. But in Bangladesh Constitution education is enshrined in the fundamental principles of state policy whereas education has been prescribed as of right in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

Education is building block on which amelioration, civilization, progress and farsightedness entirely depend on. It needs telling that a man without backbone cannot

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1. Deputy Commissioner, Naogaon

stand likewise a nation without education cannot forge ahead. Education, a lifelong process, is the key to literacy and the basis for all progress for individuals, communities and countries. For the success of democracy the citizens should be fairly well educated. Just as freedom is the birthright, so is education. The people of Bangladesh, in most cases, fail to realize their demand and rights only because of proper education. The provision of education should be shifted to Fundamental Rights from Fundamental Principles of State Policy by formulating law. Education should be claimed as of reciprocal rights under the condition that both the government and the people could register case against one another for the interest of education.

Education is not a privilege but a basic human need like food, cloth, shelter and the like is the thing upon which national progress largely depends. Education cannot be claimed as of right because it is not enforceable in the court of law. As education is not legally protected interest and not enforceable in the court of law, it cannot be claimed as of right although the Article 26 of UDHR says that education is right. None, anywhere in the world, can go to the court for ensuring education and, on the other hand, the State cannot compel any citizen to prosecute education against his will.

## **1.2 Objectives of the study**

- (i) To review the present status of education in respect of right in the context of Bangladesh; an
- (ii) To assess whether education is right or not.

## **1.3 Terminology**

### **1.3.1 Education**

‘Educate’ means to bring up and instruct, to teach, to train.<sup>2</sup> Education etymologically has come out from the two linguistic assertions. E.ex and ducere due. These E.ex and ducere due’ words denote ‘pack the information in and draw the talents out’. This basic conception correlates the reality of information and talents.

Some opines that ‘Education’ has come out from the Latin word ‘Educare’ which means “to bring up or to nourish”. Some others opine that “Education” has come out from Latin word “Educare” which means “To draw out or to lead out” Again others opine that ‘Education’ has originated from Latin word ‘Education’ which means “Teaching”.

In the opinion of the writer, “Education is an art or a process or a concept, which stimulates to know anything, positive or negative, but intention must be positive and pragmatic, resulting well or bad or both.” The definition gives following salient features.

- i) It is art or a process or a concept,
- ii) It stimulates to know anything,

2. *Samsad English-Bengali Dictionary*, 5th Edition, (August, 1981), p. 338

- iii) Its aims and objectives must be positive and pragmatic,
- iv) The thing to be learned may be positive or negative, and
- v) Result may be good or bad or both.

Thompson (2001) defined, “Education is the influence of the environment of the behavior with a view to producing a permanent change in this habit of behavior of thought or attitude.”

Education is development and utilization of one’s energy, talent, national ideology, art and culture. Education, in fact, can help:

- i) To develop anyone in all respects,
- ii) To teach how to utilize anything concerned,
- iii) To become energetic in every sphere of life,
- iv) To be talented at all moments,
- v) To earn national ideology and
- vi) To make aware about art and culture.<sup>3</sup>

But contextually mentioned that mere accumulation of knowledge is not sufficient. Education should aim at all round development, that is, it should aim at mental, physical, moral and spiritual development. The aim of education is very much noble and constructive. Its aim is to make a man fully prepared to be useful to himself and to the society.<sup>4</sup>

It is education which can aware a man mentally and legally and eventually he is able to resist all evil aspects. So education should be given legal status in the “Education Policy 2010” in Bangladesh so as to guarantee education for all being enforceable in the court of law.

### **1.3.2. Right**

Right means a claim advanced by individual or group of individuals enforceable in the court of law. Right is an interest, which is enforceable in the court of law. The Latin word of right is ‘Rectus’ which means Just. Right is called ‘Jus’ in Latin language. Just, Justice and Justify have been derived from the very word “Right”.

The writer (2017) in his research book “Research Work” referred to the following Jurisprudents who told about ‘Right’.<sup>5</sup>

Ihering says, “A right is a legally protected interest.”

3. Dr. Md. Aminur Rahaman, 2007, Human Rights for Backward Section of Citizens with Special Reference to Education: A Study of Dhaka City Slum Dwellers. Dhaka. Merit Fair Prokashon. P. 39

4. Shushil Roy, “Meaning of Education”. The Theory of Education and Philosophy of Education. (Kolkata: Soma Book Agency, 1999-2001)

5. Dr. Md. Aminur Rahaman, 2017, Research Work, News Corner Publishing, Bogra, p. 21

Allen has defined “A right is the legally guaranteed power to realize an interest.”

In the language of Salmond, “A right is an interesting recognized and protected by a rule of right.”

According to Holland, “A right generally a man’s capacity of influencing the acts of another by means not of his strength, but of the force of recognized society.”<sup>6</sup>

As a matter of fact, right and interest is interlinked connected. Right is generally recognized and protected by two ways, namely, moral right and legal right. Moral right is influenced and controlled by sense of conscience while legal right is guaranteed by the constitution and protected by the state. There are some characteristics of legal rights. These are:

- i) Subject of right
- ii) The subject of the duty
- iii) An Act or Omission
- iv) Thing
- v) Title

More specifically, salient features of ‘right’ are:

- (1) Existence of interest
- (2) Morally or legally protected and
- (3) Enforceable in the Court of Law.

When certain human right are written down in a constitution and are protected by constitutional guarantee then those rights are called Fundamental Rights. Thus, ‘Right’ can be defined as— “right is an interest preserved by law and claimed legally by individual or group of individuals”. It can be easily speculated that education is not right, as it is not enforceable in the court of law. There is no document prevailing in Bangladesh, even in the “National Education Policy 2010”, where education has been provided as of right but compulsory education for all has been promulgated having no legal status. Still education is treated as one of basic human needs.

#### **1.4 Methodology**

To attain the objectives a few methods have been adopted. Here, historical and empirical study have been introduced for tracing out the legal status of education in Bangladesh. Secondary Sources have been used to collect necessary data and information. These have been gathered through related books and documents etc. Descriptive and logical analysis have been done for the purpose.

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6. “ibid”

### **1.5 Significance of the study**

Many researchers have done their research regarding education in various ways but there is no discussion as to the legal status of education, that is, whether education is right or not. The main objective of the study is to make aware of the people that education should be given the states of right, because it is still regarded as basic need.

The work would be of interest for the policy planners and the professionals of the country. Public and private organizations, NGOs, research institutes, teachers, students and researchers are expected to find useful output, i.e., the analysis, discussions findings and suggestions of the study. It must be useful for the government also. In this context it should be mentioned that the study will be able to make a new policy to make laws which may be considered as determinants to human security.

### **1.6 Scope of the study**

The study aimed to provide a description and documentary analysis with an attempt to criticize the present state of education in Bangladesh. The study has attempted to suggest the measures which will be able to assess whether education is right or not. As the behavioral attitude varies from country to country the absolute flawless findings, as the scientific research shows, are not possible to explore or discover. The study has focused on the relation between education and rights. More specifically, whether the education is right or not in the case of Bangladesh.

**2.0 Existing picture of education:** We may agree that Children are being overloaded with textbooks, coaching materials, examinations and competition for good grades, and becoming victims of question leakage, while they were supposed to prevail in the playground.

In the field of education, a lot has been achieved and a lot more needs to be done. There has taken place a large scale expansion of education and health facilities; as of now almost 100% of children in the age group of 04 to fourteen are covered by primary education and there has also taken place a sizable expansion of scientific & technical education and training. It is to be noted that technical education rate would be more than 20% in 2021 as laid down in Vision 2021. Now, Bangladesh is able to ensure quality education as provided is SDGs.

We must thank Hon'ble Prime Minister Sheikh Hasina for building digital Bangladesh and being awarded a huge number of international and United Nations (UN) prizes.

It is ray of hope that the present Govt. has taken up Vision 2021 and may be mentioned that almost 100% enrollment in the primary level has been ensured. Technical Education has been going ahead, female students are doing well in

education. 72.5% education rate has been earned. We also committed to ensure quality education prescribed in SDGs.

### **3.0 Education and various documents**

**3.1** The provision of education is laid down in article 17 and 26 of the Constitution of Bangladesh and UDHR respectively. But in our constitution education is enshrined in the Fundamental Principles of State Policy whereas education has been claimed as of right in the UDHR.

#### **3.1.1 Article 17 of Bangladesh Constitution**

The state shall adopt effective measures for the purpose of–

- (a) Establishing a uniform, mass-oriented and universal system of education and extending free and compulsory education to all children to such stage as may be determined by law;
- (b) Relating education to the needs of society and producing properly trained and motivated citizens to serve those needs;
- (c) Removing illiteracy within such time as may be determined by law.

#### **3.1.2 Article 26 of Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR)**

1. Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.
2. Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.
3. Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children.

#### **3.2 Article 13 of International Covenant on Economic Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR)**

In addition, provision of education is also enshrined in the Article 13 of ICESCR describing primary, secondary higher and fundamental education and their genre. At the same time the state concerned has been advised to recognize and to direct for the materialization of states for the purpose.

### **3.3 Education in Malaysia**

Malaysia acknowledged that knowledge is the key determinant of the destiny and survival of the nation in “The Education Act 1996” which enacted to provide for education and for matters connected therewith. Education in Malaysia is an ongoing effort towards further developing the potential of individuals in a holistic and integrated manner so as to produce individuals who are intellectually, spiritually, emotionally and physically balanced and harmonious, based on a firm belief in and devotion to God, such an effort is designed to produce Malaysian citizens who are knowledgeable and competent, who possess high moral standards and who are responsible and capable of achieving a high level of personal well-being as well as being able to contribute to the betterment of the family, the society and the nation at large. It is said that Education in Malaysia, although one of the basic needs, is amounting to the right which is legally protected interest.

### **3.4 Education in India**

Education in India is provided by the public sector as well as the private sector, with control and funding coming from three levels: central, state and local. Under various articles of the Indian Constitution, free and compulsory education is provided as a fundamental right to children between the ages of 6 and 14.

Article 45 of the Constitution of India originally stated: “The State shall endeavor to provide, within a period of ten years from the commencement of this Constitution, for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of fourteen years.”

Article 45 was proposed to be substituted by the article which read: “Provision for early childhood care and education to children below the age of six years: The State shall endeavor to provide early childhood care and education for all children until they complete the age of sixteen years.”<sup>7</sup>

Article 46 of the Constitution of India holds that: “The State shall promote, with special care, the education and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people, and in particular of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, and shall protect them from social injustice and all forms of social exploitation’.”

Now, it is clearly understood that India has adopted and claimed education as of right. But, although we have National Education Policy 2010, we cannot claim education as of right because Education has still been laid down in the Chapter of “Fundamental Principle of the State Policy” of the Bangladesh Constitution which is not judicially enforceable in the court of law.

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7. The bill was passed unanimously in the Lok Sabha, the lower house of the Indian parliament, on 28 November 2001. It was later passed by the upper house—the Rajya Sabha—on 14 May 2002. After being signed by the President of India the Indian constitution was amended formally for the eighty sixth time and the bill came into effect. Since then those between the ages of 6–14 have a fundamental right to education.

### **3.5 Education in South Korea**

The Constitutional Law of the Republic of Korea (Article 31) declares: All citizens have an equal right to receive an education corresponding to their abilities.

- All citizens who have children to support are responsible at least for their elementary education and other education as provided by law.
- Compulsory education is free of charge.
- Independence, professionalism, and political impartiality of education and the autonomy of institutions of higher learning are guaranteed under the conditions as prescribed by law.
- The state promotes lifelong education.

Fundamental matters pertaining to the educational system—including schools and lifelong education, administration, finance, and the status of teachers—are determined by law.

The Education Law, promulgated in 1949, stipulates a school system on the 6-3-3-4 plan with extra years offered for kindergarten and graduate work (including medicine and dentistry) and other variations in the case of special schools.<sup>8</sup>

We may say that South Korea has enacted law relating to education having legal status, whereas Bangladesh has not enacted any law relating to education as yet but for “Education for All”, “Compulsory Education”, “National Education Policy” and the like. Education in Bangladesh is still looked upon as one of the basic human needs without having judicial enforcement.

### **3.6 Education in Western World**

Education in the western world was considered primarily the responsibility of parents and the church. Despite education being regarded as a pre-existing and

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8. The MOE is in charge of all education—general as well as professional or technical. However, the Ministries of Finance and Economy (MOFE), Science and Technology (MOST), and Labor (MOL) all participate in formulating and implementing policies related to education and professional training. For example, the MOFE allocates government funds for education, setting economic and social development as its priority. MOST's priority is science and technology, in accordance with the government's determination to make Korea an advanced nation in basic research and technology. MOL, with reducing unemployment its priority, engages in vocational training.

The Education Law promulgated in 1949 adopted the motto Hong'ik in'gan ("to benefit humanity")—attributed to Korea's legendary founder Tan'gun—as the guiding principle of Korean education. The prevailing contemporary philosophy, however, is a strong sense of egalitarianism.

natural right, it did not find a specific mention in the classical civil liberties instruments such as the English Bill of Rights (1689) and the American Declaration of Independence (1776) and the French Declaration of the Rights of Man (1789).

### **3.7 The versailles treaty of 1919**

The Versailles Treaty of 1919 was the first instance of international recognition of right to education to the Polish minorities. Later in 1924, Declaration of Geneva under the auspicious of League of Nations implicitly recognized children's right to education and later in 1959 formed the Declaration of the Rights of Child. By 1988, some fifty-two countries had made an explicit mention of Right to Education in their Constitution.

**3.8** As early as in 1948, adopted by the United Nations, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in its Article 26(I) had stated, "Everyone has the right to education, which has to be free at least at elementary and fundamental stages." United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) in the Convention against Discrimination in Education emphasized the equality issue in education on December 14, 1960.

It is to be mentioned that Education is universally recognized as a central component of human capital. The role of education as a contributor to economic growth and its impact on population control, life expectancy, infant mortality, improving nutritional status and strengthening civil institutions is well recognized.

### **4.0 Is education really right?**

We have so far made out the concept of education and right. Right is legally protected interest and enforceable in the court of law. Many men in their speeches want to uphold that education is not privilege but right. Very few people in the fast changing complex world admit that education is not right but one of basic needs. Now we are trying to find out whether education is right or not.

Firstly, Education is still treated as human basic need, which is not amounting to right although Article 26 of UDHR prescribes education as human rights. When certain human right are written down in a constitution and are protected by constitutional guarantee then those rights are called Fundamental Rights.

Secondly, In Bangladesh constitution, education has been provided in the chapter of Fundamental Principles of State Policy but not in the chapter of Fundamental Rights. So education cannot be claimed as of right rather than human basic needs. Because principles set out in the 2<sup>nd</sup> part of Bangladesh Constitution are not judicially enforceable.

Thirdly, Education is not enforceable in the court of law as is done in case of right when it is violated.

Fourthly, 'Education for All' 'Compulsory Education' and the like have been passed in Bangladesh. Even in USA, Compulsory Attendance Provision in Educational Institutions is in vogue. But education could not take legal form as yet in the sense that government as well as individual cannot go to the court for ensuring education as of right.

Fifthly, More than 25% people of Bangladesh are uneducated. Reluctantly or intentionally, they did not take or earn education but state could not bring them in the preview of education, as the process is not legally protected. Although Bangladesh Government (Hon'ble PM Sheikh Hasina) has undertaken Vision 2021 with a view to ensuring can't present enrollment in primary education.

Sixthly, Article 26 of UDHR is treated as right but it is undoubtedly a declaration. As far as I know, no state, except very few in the world, has given education as legal status. Truly speaking, by dint of education many countries after the World War 2 (WWII) have gone to the peak of development and civilization.

Seventhly, as the state has no legal power to press upon the mass people to be educated, the state cannot compel the people for ensuring education.

## **5.0 Findings**

By analyzing and explaining the above-mentioned aspects we can arrive in conclusion that education is not amounting to right, let alone fundamental right in the context of Bangladesh.

In Article 15 of Bangladesh constitution, it is said that the state shall take fundamental responsibilities to ensure the provision of the basic necessities of life including food, cloth, shelter, education and medical care. Earlier mentioned that education has been prescribed in the Fundamental Principles of State Policy in Bangladesh constitution. In the constitution, Article 8(2) says... "The principles set out in the Part shall be fundamental to the governance of Bangladesh, shall be applied by the State in the making of laws, shall be a guide to the interpretation of the Constitution and of the other laws of Bangladesh, and shall form the basis of the work of the State and of its citizens, but shall not be judicially enforceable.

Although education has been described as universal but not judicially enforceable and in case of Bangladesh the above analyses show that education cannot be claimed as of right. From the study, it is obvious that education is not right at all in Bangladesh. It is one of the basic needs and this is why cent percent education rate in Bangladesh is impossible unless and until we shall not be able to give education as legal status.

## **6.0 Suggestions**

It is undeniable that the proper, progressive, classless and secular education system can make people conscious to preserve the rights guaranteed by the constitution. But

education is not right or fundamental right in case of Bangladesh as education has been provided in the constitution in the form of Fundamental Principles. So following specific suggestions, however, are putting forward for the concern authority.

1. “Law of Compulsory Attendance to Educational Institutions” should be promulgated to ensure 100% attendance in the institutions. It is to be noted that, “Education Policy 2010” in Bangladesh did not make any provision relating to “Law of Compulsory Attendance to Educational Institutions” by which we can claim the education as of right (legally protected interest) suing any case against with each other/one another for ensuring the educational right. A lot of budget allocation for education should be created to implement Vision 2021.
2. Education could be regarded as fundamental right and should be enforceable in the court of law. Both the government and individual should be given right to file case against with each other in the event of humiliating mutual interest in point of education.

## **7.0 Conclusion**

Nowadays education is worldwide considered as the only mean of alleviation of poverty and human resource development. A true educated person should be self-reliant with regard to his personal needs. Education can help a man to be well-mannered, thoughtful, creative, kind, respectful, sympathetic and cooperative. A human being by dint of education transcends all limitation rested on him and becomes the most dignified creation of God. Education can help one feel anguish at the distress and sufferings of a fellow human being and an urge to try to alleviate the sufferings of other human beings. An educated man respects life, rights, privilege, likes and dislikes of others as he expects the same from others.

In order to protect human rights in Bangladesh education must be free and compulsory in the sense that they will be able to fathom the importance of education and ultimately be vocal to press home their demanding rights guaranteed by the constitution. And he or she will further go for higher education and be able to be conscious to acquire own rights without the help of others.

In case of necessity, “Law of Compulsory Attendance in the Educational Institutions” may be promulgated in the country and in connection with that budget allocation for education should be enlarged. The provision of education can be shifted to Fundamental Rights from Fundamental Principles State Policy by formulating law and strongly suggested that education be claimed as of reciprocal rights.

In fact, lofty assurance and rhetoric utterance can never solve the problem. In order to make “Formal Education” complete, significant, felicitous and effective, a national education policy is a pressing need in any country. Contextually mentioned that although there is “Education Policy 2010” in Bangladesh, it is not

implemented and come in to being effectively and duly as yet. For example, “Law of Compulsory Attendance to Educational Institutions” is not yet enacted to ensure 100% attendance in the institutions. Bangladesh along with other states in the world should take effective steps to recognize education as of right or fundamental right.

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## **Can we Formulate English Education Policies Which Respond to Ground Level? Comparative Study between Sub-urban & Remote Rural Areas in Bangladesh**

**Azam Md Golam<sup>1</sup> Kusakabe Tatsuya<sup>2</sup>**

### **Abstract**

This paper aims to look at the English education policies in Bangladesh. This article gives an explanation of the achievement of English at secondary level focusing on suburban and remote areas in Bangladesh by internal comparative analysis. English has a case of historical relevance in Bangladesh. In spite of long schooling in English language, students at secondary level, in particular, are not proficient in English. Grounded language policies are required for the progress of a uniform education system in Bangladesh. As there is no such policy in Bangladesh, English language teaching and learning is directly affected. Inductive Thematic Analysis was employed to analyze the numeric interview data. In the process of analysis and assessment of language policies, attempts will be made to realize the justification for such policies and their implications. Moreover, the paper will describe the emergence of English as a fundamental second language in the educational institutions and how it is linked to the economic development of the region.

**Keywords:** English education policies, ground level, comparative study, Bangladesh

### **1.0 Introduction**

Bangladesh as a developing country has been facing challenges in the way of its progress and prosperities. Education is one of the most promising fields where the country is struggling with many challenges. Language plays a vital role in a society because it is not only a mode of communication but a way of life also. English is considered to be an International language and thus both the developing and developed countries have become equally active to be good at this language. However, it is time for the non-English speaking developing countries to think seriously about who most benefits from this language. It carries a historical, cultural, ethical, religious and ethnic indication of an individual. And as such, the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Social Organization ( UNESCO) advocates that languages are the most powerful instruments for preserving and developing tangible and intangible heritage ( Mohsin,2003).

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## **1.1 English language education in Bangladesh: Historical background**

After the battle of Plessey in 1757, knowledge of English became essential for trading partners in the Bengal business circle. As the contact between the British and the Bengali grew as a result of the establishment of warehouses, law courts and other institutions, the demand for English in a section of the community increased tremendously. The missionaries established English schools and introduced western education in India. After the independence of Pakistan and India in 1947, English attained a very important status in the newly independent states. In Pakistan, the Bengali-Urdu controversy arose. Even the founding father of Pakistan, policy planners of Pakistan especially Mohammad Ali Jinnah in a public meeting held on 21<sup>st</sup> March 1948 in Dhaka clearly expressed the opinion that the state language should be Urdu. But his attempt to impose Urdu on Bangla was resisted by the students. The state language action committee was formed. On 21<sup>st</sup> February 1952, Pakistan Police fired on students protesting the move to suppress the rights of Bangla and make Urdu the only state language. Five students were killed and many were injured. The language movement infused a feeling of linguistic nationalism among Bengalis.

The English education in this subcontinent might be seen both as a historical incident and as an inevitability. The people of this region, accepted English primarily to maintain a livelihood and later on to pursue knowledge and wisdom via the language. The use of this language in education gradually shifted from a more religious purpose to a more practical one. However, it spread from a small fraction of the elite to the middle class through the language could never become a possession of the mass. It is notable that there is evidence that sometimes the interest and endeavor of the non-native speakers in the development of English education surpassed that of the British Indian Government. Though the national sentiment later affected the status of English; this awakening had a lot to do with English education. This legacy to the English language, however, plays a very significant role in the social and educational life of Bangladesh. In the Pakistan regime, which lasted until the end of 1971, English continued to play an important role in the national life. It was used as a lingua franca between the then West Pakistan and East Pakistan. This was the language used in government administration, law courts and financial activities. In higher education, it was the medium of instruction. At higher secondary level, it was treated as the optional medium of instruction until 1962. As a subject, however, English was taught forcibly at secondary and higher secondary levels.

## **1.2 Research questions**

The study aims at presenting the answers to certain questions about the English skills among the suburban area and rural area in Bangladesh and the way of improving English education. Accordingly, the following research questions were formulated:

1. How are English skills different in different areas?
2. How is the necessity of English different in two areas?
3. Is there any policy recommendation for English education?

### **1.3 The State and status of English in Bangladesh**

In the constitution of Bangladesh, while Bengali is declared as the state language, the status of English has not been pointed out.

The constitution of Bangladesh is bilingual in Bengali and English. By its very structure, it is a bilingual constitution, but one language status is de facto, and the status of other is both de facto and de juror. Bengali is both a de facto and de juror status language whereas English is only de facto status, even that status has not been mentioned in anywhere in the constitution. The Bangali Introduction Law 1987 made it compulsory for employees in Government, semi-government and autonomous institutions to use Bengali in inter-official memos, legal documents, and correspondence except in case of communication with foreign governments, organizations and so on. Consequently, in Bangladesh, English shifts from its previous status of a second language to that of a foreign language. The status of English in Bangladesh both as a medium of instruction and as a subject of the study appears rather be very unstable. The report of the education commission of Bangladesh 1974 recommended that Bengali should be the medium of instruction at all levels of education in Bangladesh. This resulted in English being the optional medium of instruction at tertiary level in 1975. In that report, English was recommended to be introduced as a compulsory subject from class 6 and be taught with this status until class 12. In 1976, the national curriculum committee formed by the government made provisions for teaching English from class 3. This decision came into effect in 1980. In 1990, the government again reversed the decision and suggested that English should be introduced from class 1. The decision was implemented in 1992. This has remained the same case until now. In this regard, however, a further change may be forthcoming, as the report of the committee for the formulation of education policy 1997 has recommended that English should be introduced as a compulsory subject from class 3.

As a medium of instruction, English has been recognized as an alternative to Bengali at the secondary level by the Ministry of Education since 1995. This decision allows the examination papers to be written in English.

The same provision has been extended to higher secondary level from 1997. Since the emergence of Bangladesh, there have been a number of efforts to evaluate and promote the situation of English language teaching and learning. The Ministry of Education set up an English Language Teaching Task Force in 1975.

In fact, English is becoming a historical case in Bangladesh. During the period before 1947, people had more reasons to use it as a means of communication.

For practical reasons, it was also largely used as a medium of instruction in education. After 1947, the underlying factors to use and learn the language remained almost the same. In Bangladesh period, however, English is set in a monolingual situation where its state and status have become more dependent on the constitution and language policies

#### **1.4 The role of English language**

There was a long history when English started its journey in Bangladesh. The East India Company played the central role in spreading English in India and Bangladesh. So, the colonial rule was the key player for spreading English in Bangladesh. In 1800, the Fort William College was established in Calcutta to teach local languages to East India Company officials. However, recognizing the value of English, the educated middle class established a college to teach English language and literature (Hossain and Tollefson, 2006). So, it was not only the British but also the local elites who wanted English education, due to its social and economic value (Pennycook, 1994).

#### **1.5 Language policy in the academic arena**

After the independence of Bangladesh, education got the highest priority among not only the small group of people but also the common people. With this objective, the government of Bangladesh had established several Education Commissions and Committees since independence.

The first Education Commission was formed in 1972, headed by the leading educationist and scientist Dr. Quadrat-e-Khuda. The commission submitted its report to the government in 1974. The report was formulated and was based on the socio-economic and political state and cultural heritage of the country. The report claimed that Bengali has many advantages as the medium of instruction, particularly its value in developing students, natural intelligence, original thinking, and imagination. However, despite its support for Bangla, the commission also argued that English should remain the language of higher education until the colonial education system could be reformed. In the commission's report, the Madrasah education system was formed differently.

The rest of education in Bangladesh, later education commissions which submitted reports in 1987, 1997, and 2000 continued this dual language process. Recently, English had been made compulsory from Grade 1 (Hossain and Tollefson, 2006, p.250). For the two national secondary examinations, English is a compulsory subject.

#### **1.6 English in the educational policy**

The proper role of English and Bangla in Bangladesh is one of the most debatable issues among all policymakers who have shaped the role of language in the

academic arena since independence. One group of policymakers favors English as the medium of instruction while the other group favors the use of Bangla.

The first group argues that the role of English opens doors to large possibilities for economic development (Hossain, 2004). The second group argues that the continued use of English is not only unfair to the rural population, who have not access to high-quality English language teaching, but also pedagogically unsound. A third group tries to reach a compromise between the previous two positions and agrees that English is necessary for development; its use creates serious inequalities that must be addressed.

In reality, there are three educational systems. In Bangla medium schools, English is taught as a compulsory subject, but interaction in most of the English classes take place in Bangla. In English medium schools, Bangla is used for much of the informal social interaction, but English is used for subject matter instruction. In addition, in Madrasahs, Bangla and Arabic are used as a medium of instruction.

### **1.7 The Constitution of Bangladesh and language system**

Bangladesh adopted its new constitution and placed the Bangla language at the center of Bangladeshi nationalism. The constitution also declared Bangla as ‘the state’ language (Constitution of Bangladesh, 1972,p3).

Despite the constitutional provision for Bangla as the medium of instruction, the educational system did not immediately adopt Bangla as a universal medium of instruction. At the universities, apart from the English departments, students have the option of answering examinations in either Bangla or English. The phenomenal growth of the IT industry in Bangladesh has also made people aware of the importance of English as a language of communication. As in the past, English has become essential for economic purposes. The importance of English in Bangladesh today may be measured by the formal recognition of English as a second language in 2001 (Banglapedia, 2006).

### **1.8 The choice of English in language policy**

In the present global world with its technological advancement, the use of English has been growing at a startling rate, in particular in the parts of the developing world. It is, therefore, natural to wonder how far English may have advanced into the lives and languages of people in Bangladesh. It is now found that English is widely used in several domains, including education, science, technology, commerce and industry, and informal social contacts. Some major forces of free choice are historical, economic and bureaucratic. So, the economic power is one of the greatest reasons for the hegemonic situation of English in Bangladesh. It is still the case that English is prestigious, particularly in international business and commerce. In Bangladesh, where English is used as a foreign language, it is a major

determinant of position and power. For this reason, parents insist on their children learning English from kindergarten.

### **1.9 The implication of language policy in relation to English**

Bangladesh needs a pragmatic language policy considering its present socio-economic and socio-cultural conditions. Now it is high time we thought about language policy in relation to English. However, when a policy designer wants to implement a pragmatic language policy in relation to English, one should consider the following guidelines.

Firstly, it must be recognized that language is not about language alone (Harriman and Barnaby, 1996,p.13) but also it encompasses sociopolitical and economic issues.

The present socio-political and economic condition of Bangladesh necessitates a pragmatic language policy to overcome its hegemonic condition because English has already enjoyed the second language environment in Bangladesh.

Secondly, an effective language policy should be implemented as a meaningful bilingual education will ensure the combination of the mother tongue and English.

Thirdly, language policy must be equitable and it should minimize the incidence of exclusion, whether in terms of those who have access or who are denied access on grounds of language alone (bamgbose, 2000:8-16). Bangladesh solves this unequal situation adopting a pragmatic language policy and gives the equal chance to its future generation.

Otherwise, Bangladesh suffers some basic problems to fulfill its millennium development goal.

Finally, a language policy is not an end in itself. The rationale for it must be what it can contribute to the overall culture, human and socio-economic development of a country (Bamgbose, 2000: 160).

### **1.10 English policy and proficiency in public schooling**

In Bangladesh, the standard of English may have fallen since independence in 1971.

Policy and practice have been fragmented and inconsistent. In 1974, the first commission report explicitly stated that Bengali would be the medium of instruction and positioned English as the second language. English was to be taught only from Grades V1 to X11. In 1991, the government recommended that English be taught from Grade 1, but it was not implemented in 1997. It can also be mentioned that since 1998, as per the agreement between the Ministry of Education of Bangladesh and the US government, every year around 200 US volunteers come to Bangladesh in order to teach English at the secondary level schools. Moreover, English teachers' training specialists from abroad come as resource persons in order to train up

teachers of English as a second language in Bangladesh. A new policy is, therefore, expected, focusing on the training of teachers of English. The curriculum in teachers' training is presently being upgraded.

### **1.11 Continuity with the colonial period**

The global role of the English language and English speaking cultures derives not from an inherent superiority, nor from the natural outcome of market forces on a level playing field, nor from a spontaneous movement towards global unity (Crystal, 1997). Rather it derives from the past and present hegemony of the USA and the UK in economics, politics and in the cultural spheres., Certain governmental and private agencies play a key role, such as the British Council ( Pennycook, 2001,p.61). Within Bangladesh, the English medium school directly reproduces Anglo-American hegemony. These schools play a similar global role in most Asian countries like India, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Singapore, Hong Kong once ruled by the UK. In these countries, English has become dominant not so much in the number of speakers but in the power knowledge relations that govern its use and are sustained by its use.

### **1.12 Language planning and strategy in Bangladesh**

In language policy, there is no general rule about national/ global language policy that holds for all times and places.

It cannot be argued that promotion of a local language instead of a dominant language, or promotion of a dominant language at the expense of local language, are in themselves good or bad (Pennycook,2001). One problem for national language policy is that in the minds of most people, national identity and learning English are positioned as antagonistic, not complementary. This is a direct result of the colonial tradition itself with its long usage of English as a tool of divide and rule. Educational language policy and planning must help to build both universal literacies in Bangla and competence in global English. If a path that combines global English and national identity is not found, ideologically insular forces within the nation may take advantage of this, adversely affecting both national progress in science and technology, and socio-cultural development. There are three starting points for educational planning.

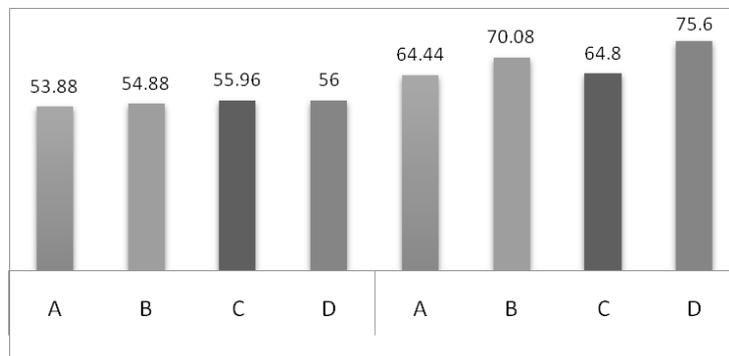
The starting point for language planning is that a strong Bangla medium education system, necessarily funded primarily by government, is the foundation for both universal literacy and the building of widespread competence in English. Developing nations that have lifted literacy to higher levels have mostly used the mother tongue as the medium of instruction, at least at primary level. Students with a sound foundation of literacy in the mother tongue acquire literacy in a second language more quickly ( Mehrotra, 1998,p.479).

The second point for language planning is to provide more extensive, better quality and higher Standard English classes. The typical provision in public schools is less than five hours of English classes per week, often with untrained teachers. This is not good enough.

The third point for language planning is to provide English classes within the terms of the nation-building project, founded on a living developing Bangla identity.

### 2.0 Resource allocation

In Bangladesh, resource allocation for education in general, and English teaching, in particular, has been one of the lowest in the world ( Hamid, Sussex and Khan 2009). Consequently, quality English teaching, particularly in rural schools, is far from adequate.



A score of English: Difference between sub-urban and remote neighborhood: Students’ English achievement in the 10<sup>th</sup> grade in both regions

### 3.0 Students’ English achievement

The study results revealed that students in the 10<sup>th</sup> grade, among all the schools, four of them located in Bhola (remote area), got lower scores compared to the other four schools, located in Narayanganj (sub-urban area) in Bangladesh.

Ground level; Classroom, teachers and education environment:

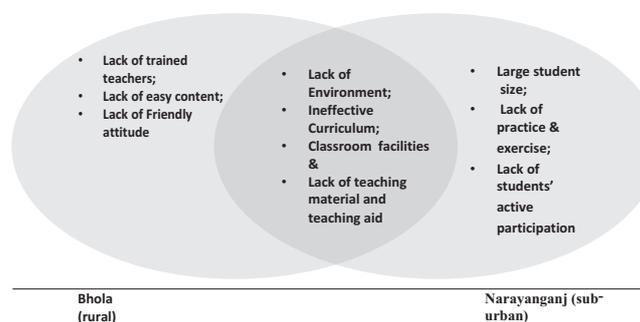


Figure: Findings in both regions

#### **4.0 Findings from both regions**

In Bhola, most of the students regarded the lack of English teachers as one of the main problems for their poor performance in English. Moreover, difficult contents and lack of friendly attitude from their teachers were also held responsible. However, students from Narayanganj felt their class size was too large, and the environment of the class or cohort was not friendly and conducive to practice. Also, they were not able to participate actively in any group work or pair work during the school hours. Nevertheless, students from both areas believed that their environment to achieve English was not conducive.

Also, they opined that their curriculum was not effective to meet the social demand. Moreover, they did not get enough need-based classroom facilities i.e. computer, internet, overhead projector along with teaching aids and language learning materials.

What's more, they did not have enough time to use the modern technology.

#### **5.0 Fieldwork and methodology**

The study took place at Bhola, a rural area in Bangladesh. and Narayanganj a suburban region an industrial area, especially prominent for the jute trade, processing plants and textile sector of the country. The survey was conducted between September 7, 2011, and October 19, 2011. Bangladesh is highly diversified in terms of socio-economic aspects. The urban area usually enjoys more advantages, in terms of education, communication, healthcare etc. compared to rural communities. Thus, the selection of a rural area, Bhola and an urban area, Narayanganj as a study field is very meaningful to conduct a comparative study. Narayanganj Sadar was selected as a representative of a typical urban area as it is situated at arm's length of Dhaka, the capital city of Bangladesh, and as it is endowed with some facilities available for the standard urban life in Bangladesh. On the other hand, Bhola Sadar was selected as a representative of a distinctive rural area of Bangladesh where the standard urban facilities are hardly found.

Inductive Thematic Analysis was employed to analyze the numeric interview data. In this study, the qualitative research design is used for describing the stakeholders in their natural settings.

#### **6.0 Necessity of English language skill**

The knowledge of English is more critical as well as important in the context of the global marketplace, the knowledge of society and in the age of digital information technology. Dr. Mohammad Farashuddin (2011), former Governor of Bangladesh Bank, and founder Vice-Chancellor, East-West University of Bangladesh said, "proficiency in English is a must for the nation to abolish poverty, hunger, disease,

illiteracy, and indignity.” This research is aimed at making contributions towards the quality improvements of English education in secondary schools in Bangladesh. By clarifying the factors that influence students’ English achievements, this study attempts to suggest a way of how to improve achievement and effective English education policies.

The results of this study can be used for a variety of purposes. Principally, it will help teacher-trainers, educational administrators, policymakers, researchers, and teachers in Bangladesh to identify the factors likely to increase students’ English achievement. Here, this study will try to point out some areas where steps may be taken to promote English teaching and learning conditions in Bangladesh, encompassing the secondary-level students, rural as well as suburban territorial jurisdiction.

### **7.0 Factors in people’s side**

The study was intended to find out significant factors that influence students’ English achievements in the secondary schools in Bangladesh with a specific focus on Bhola and Narayanganj. Four secondary schools in Bhola and four schools in Narayanganj at the same level were selected as the sample schools for this study. Six categories of respondents such as students in the 10<sup>th</sup> grade, English teachers, school principals, guardians, community members and Upazilla education officers were selected for conducting the study and the sample size for each category for each region was 164, 16, 4, 40, 20 and 1 respectively. However, the sample sizes for the students in the 10th grade were not equal across the educational institutions, because the numbers of the students were not equal in each school. The number of students as respondents was selected proportionately to the number of students. Thus the number of respondents across the schools varies between 36 and 46. The survey was conducted between September 7, 2011, and October 19, 2011.

This study is descriptive in nature. The study revealed important findings, which can provide policy implications and suggestions to improve the quality of students’ English achievement at the secondary level in Bhola and in Narayanganj. Also, it claims a language policy for the sustainable development of the students.

### **8.0 Guardians**

Guardians were asked questions for an indication to identify the main factors responsible for creating barriers to learn English by the students.

On the basis of the view of the guardians, the lack of any specific English grammar book was a major factor in Bhola while the lack of teaching manuals was the main problem in Narayanganj. It was revealed that teachers, as well as students, were not following any particular grammar book through a unified educational system across the country. Also, teachers were not following teaching manuals as the supply of this item was not implemented properly and timely.

It can be mentioned that the South Asian learners learn English for historical, political, social and cultural reasons, which are radically different from those of South-East Asian or African learners( Gardner and Lambert, 1972).

### **9.0 Community members**

Opinions of community members suggest that a lack of English teachers is liable for low English achievement in Bhola and in Narayanganj. Nonetheless, lack of practice is another dominant factor in Narayanganj. This endorses the opinion of school principals and to some extent that of students and teachers. Thus the lack of teachers is indeed liable for low English achievement in both regions. It can be noted that Walberg's (1984) theory of educational productivity requires nine factors to increase students' achievement of cognitive and affective outcomes.

### **10.0 Implication of language policy**

Bangladesh needs a pragmatic language policy considering its present socio-economic conditions. However, when a policy designer wants to implement a pragmatic language policy in relation to English, one could consider the following guidelines:

To begin with, it is to be recognized that language is not about language alone (Harriman and Burnaby, 1996,p13) but it encompasses sociopolitical and economic issues. As a former colonial country, English is related to our sociopolitical issues. Also, global language is needed to strengthen its economy. Secondly, language policy should be equitable in that it should minimize the incidence of exclusion, whether in terms of those who have access or who are denied access on grounds of language alone ( Bamgbose, 2000:8-16). Third, an effective language policy should be implemented not only for a minority but for the generality of the population. However, a language policy is not an end in itself.

The rationale for it must be what it can contribute to the overall culture, human and socio-economic development of a country(Afolayan, 1984:1; Reagan, 2001:320; Webb, 1996:186; Bamgbose,2000:160).

### **11.0 Conclusion**

It is recognized by all that English is imperative for the economic development of the country. Hence, our political consensus is very vital to execute a realistic language policy in relation to English. But, to recommend a potential language policy, we need to conclude some processes. This piece of writing, therefore, tries to suggest some processes which are pivotal for a prospective language policy in Bangladesh.

For addressing the specific research questions, an important finding in this study is that students' English achievement is better in Narayanganj than in Bhola.

Second, a vital finding is, the reality of language policy discourse in Bangladesh today is that it moves towards English.

It is heartening to note that a range of activities can ensure learners' involvement in their English education; make the class interactive and enjoyable. At the same time, we also need to take initiatives for the improvement of slow learners and irregular students in English acquisition. Besides, government promise, the involvement of the local community as well as conscious citizens, the authority concerned and the English language teaching specialists in the whole process can ensure a higher achievement of students' English capability through addressing these factors

Hence, there is a lot of local diversity between Bhola and Narayanganj. Now government or international organizations should create policies which will respond to diversity.

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## **Good enough Governance Matters for Development: A Critical Overview**

**Mohammad Abdul Salam<sup>1</sup> Mohammad Ashraful Afsar<sup>2</sup>**

### **Abstract**

Good governance is a slogan that has got civic attention from last decade and now a days it is universally accepted for development. It is exceptionally a key contributor to development and to reduce poverty. The aim of this study is to find-out the ideas of good enough governance in relation to development. The governance is matter for development and the more improved governance is needed, but the accomplishment of 'good governance' is very difficult, whereas getting 'good enough governance' has apprehensions about uncertainties. Also, the good governance is impractical and long time-consuming. The good governance motive promotes the concept of 'good enough governance'. Therefore, it is better to carefully assess the capacities, resources and probabilities for targeting realistic changes and best practices. From this viewpoint, 'good enough governance' is a better approach rather than ideal condition of 'good governance'. Furthermore, the governance measuring indicators would have some standards that can identify the better or worse governed countries. It is crucial to have trade-offs for searching the 'best-fit' line of governance for development along with measuring indicators.

**Keywords:** good governance, good enough governance, governance indicators

### **1.0 Introduction- Setting Principles**

The good governance is a slogan that has got public attention from the mid-90s and now it is unanimously accepted for development. Grindle (2007) opines that good governance is matter for capacity development to address challenging issues like poverty reduction. Moreover, it stands as fundamental of governing systems and administrative reforms accepted in developing and developed countries along with transitional economies (Jabeen, 2007). In 2005, the world leaders also settled on the vivacity of good governance for sustainable growth and development, and eradication of poverty and hunger on UN World Summit (UNDP, 2006). The good governance agenda is taken into consideration for the institutional reforms and development perspective. In addition, the developing countries are being asked to

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do everything within a short period of time, but it remains incomplete over the years as because of being unrealistic. From this viewpoint, Grindle (2004) fosters the issue of 'good enough governance' for poverty reduction especially in developing countries. She is also supplementing that good governance is profoundly difficult as a guide to development, time-consuming and still expensive. Therefore, the 'good enough governance' is set as realistic and achievable objectives for each country in developing world that prescribed by the development agencies. However, the systematic way of assessment is a matter of governance. Thus, the aim of this study is to find-out the ideas of good enough governance in relation to development.

The paper comprises with four sections along with introductory assertion and concluding remarks. First section depicts the idea of governance and development of ideas on 'good enough governance'. The subsequent section revisits some of the ultimate debates about governance besides how and what level governance matters for development success. The third section looks at how governance of a country is measured and assessed along with points to some of the challenges in assessing governance. The final section summarizes key arguments emphasizing on importance of good enough governance for development.

### **Conceptual framework-good enough Governance**

Conventionally, the two terms 'government' and 'governance' are thought to as synonymous. The move from government to governance commenced from 1980s in the developed countries, but later on swept to the developing countries. Governance is an idea based on customs, values and norms justified in bureaucratic and democratic traditions of developed or western societies. In recent years, the term governance has attained a new meaning that refers to new methods, processes, and ways of governing society (Rhodes, 1996) whereas government is one of the key players in the practice of governance with the private sector and civil society underneath the umbrella of governance (Figure-1). Governance defined by the World Bank (1992) as 'the manner in which power is exercised in the management of economic and social resources of a country' where the political aspects is completely missing. Later, UNDP (1997) defined governance as 'the exercise of economic, political, and administrative authority to manage at all levels of the country's affairs'. From this standpoint, UNDP definition 'good governance' that encompasses three arenas of governance: political, economic, and civic. Based on the UNDP's view Haq (1999) developed the Human Governance Index (HGI) to measure the level of governance by three indices: political governance, economic governance, and civic governance. According to the World Governance Assessment (WGA), the quality of governance is assessed based on accountability, transparency, participation, decency, fairness, and efficiency (Annan, 2002).

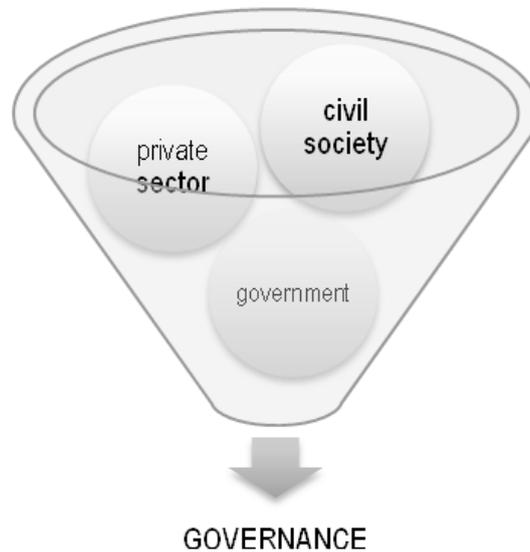


Figure-1: Main actors of governance umbrella (customized by Authors)

In 1989, the World Bank first introduced the term ‘good governance’ as a crisis of governance in sub-Saharan Africa. Gradually, it has become popular and favoured among the donor agencies as important for fostering economic growth and alleviation of poverty particularly in developing countries. Good governance has diverse meanings and undecided interpretations by different researchers. For example, Leftwich (1993) argues good governance is an accountable, open, efficient, and the appraised public service that has the bureaucratic competency to plan and implement apposite public policies along with the independence of the judiciary. Ncube (2005) defines good governance as the exercise of administrative, political, and economic authority to manage nations affairs is the composite processes, mechanisms, relationships and articulation of group interests, exercise their rights and obligations along with mediating the differences.

The key rationale behind the concept of good governance is the need to build effective government. It leads to knowing the elements of good governance (Chabal, 2002). According to IFAD (1999) report, inconsistencies are raised from the concepts of some international organizations like the World Bank (WB), United Nations Development Program (UNDP), Asian Development Bank (ADB), and the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) or definitions from individual researchers (Figure-2). According to Bandyopadhyay (1997), the good governance elements are transparency and accountability, easy access to information, peoples’ participation, efficient in services and goods delivery, enforcement of rule of law and responsiveness. But, the mutual constituents of good governance are transparency, accountability, and participation.

WB (1992)	UNDP (1997)	ADB (1995)	OECD (1996)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•public expenditure</li> <li>•revenue efficiency</li> <li>•property rights and rule-based</li> <li>•budgetary and financial quality</li> <li>•transparency and accountability</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•legitimacy &amp; voice,</li> <li>•direction</li> <li>•performance</li> <li>•accountability</li> <li>•fairness</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•accountability</li> <li>•participation</li> <li>•transparency</li> <li>•predictability</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•accountability</li> <li>•participation</li> <li>•predictability</li> <li>•transparency</li> </ul>

Figure-2: Components of good governance by organizations (Source: IFAD, 1999)

Good governance, particularly in developing countries poses numerous hurdles during implementation. Some common challenges are lack of political commitment, extreme centralization, bureaucratic influence, and unrestrained corruption (Sarker, 2006). However, the literature indicates that there are some ambiguities in good governance, specifically on which types of institutions matter and what kinds of interventions can promote development. The good governance also fails to respond effectively to address limited resources, time, knowledge, and capacity. Hence, the good governance tempted to search for another notion for development. From this viewpoint, Grindle (2004) offered a convincing argument for ‘good enough governance’ as a scale of ‘good governance’ (Figure-3). She also added that the nonspecific notion of good governance is a ruthless plan without addressing the basic questions such as what needs to be done, when it needs to be done, and how it needs to be done.

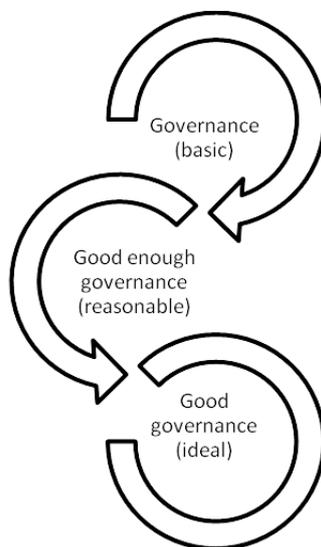


Figure-3: Nexus of ‘good’ and ‘good enough’ governance (adapted by Authors)

### **3.0 Governance matters for development- Does it?**

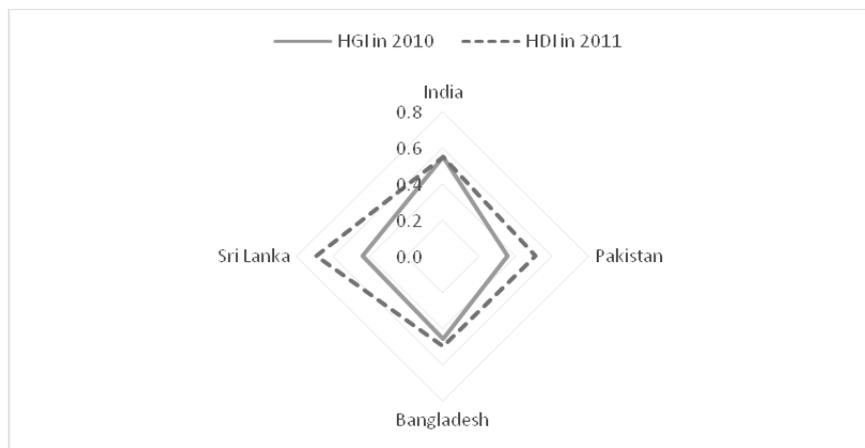
Governance matters for development (Debris, 2006), as McGillivray *et al.* (2005) points out that the better governance can foster development. Notwithstanding diverse elucidations of governance and procedural encounters to assess the utility of governance, there is a harmony among social researchers, policy makers, and donor agencies that governance does matter and certainly good governance is crucial for the development of nations (Shepherd, 2000 and Hussain, 2004). But, the directionality of the governance and development relationship is in significant debate that emerges from assorted researches. Political scientists are primarily concerned in democratization as it operations the governance. Very few argue on causal relationship goes from political consciousness to economic development. However, the political science has not really investigated the meaningful degree of relationship between democracy and development. Governance is raising concern and policy agenda, as it is a crucial for hindering the development. According to the testimonial of Annan (2002), ‘good governance is perhaps the single most important factor in eradicating poverty and promoting development’.

Conversely, several studies in development policy recognized that governance has a substantial impact on development. As Knack and Keefer (1995) argued, better governance is optimistically related to growth rates and improving investment. Kaufman *et al.* (2002) found that the six dimensions of governance, which per capita income and adult literacy were positively whereas infant mortality was negatively correlated with governance. Furthermore, Grindle (2007) contends good governance has a harmonious connection with poverty reduction that is threshold for development. The World Bank (1997) claims that it is obvious in the growth and development of a nation. However, most of the policy makers and development agencies are adamant about the need for good governance in developing countries as because of all development deficiencies are caused by maladministration (Thomas, 2010). As Dwivedi (1987) says, the excellence of good governance and sustainable human development is interrelated remarkably for developing nations where also requires careful attempt for eradicating poverty, enduring livelihoods, fulfilling basic requirements, and offering an effective administrative system for development.

Governance matters for development but in reality, there are enormous debates on literatures as well as different sources of information. Vietnam is a worthy example, in this debate. The country has numerous governance capacities, which are labelled as ‘bad’ (Figure-4). For example – authoritarian type political regimes, rule of law has been yet to establish, significant level of corruption, adequately vulnerable in property rights. With above all dimensions of ‘bad governance’, the country has grown rapidly from the past few years, even continue in recent with gradual increase of HDI from 2010 to 2013.



**Figure-4:** Governance percentiles of Vietnam from 2011-2013 (Source: World Bank)



**Figure-5:** HGI with HDI of selective countries (Source: HDC, 2012 and HDR, 2014)

The country carried millions of people out of poverty, accomplished to operate healthcare and education with average per-capita income. However, South Asian countries are not only defying human development challenges, but also confronting a crisis for good governance. Haq (1999) calculated HGI for 58 developed and developing countries. He reported that South Asia was one of the poorest governed regions in the world with lowest HGI values (Figure-5). Sri Lanka showed better in human development with poor governance. In contrast, India showed an average level of human development among South Asian countries with beating better governance system. Jabeen (2007) claimed that many challenges and limitations of South Asian region have emerged as the poorly governed region. The countries of the different development group have shown a significant trend in their human development index alongside the level of good governance indices (Table-1). But, human development does not matter for any particular indicators of governance. For

example, China has a remarkable level of HD index with very low level of voice and accountability and meagre level of political stability.

**Table-1:**The GGI and HDI from 2009-2013 (Source: HDC, 2012 and HDR, 2014)

Country/ Indicators	Voice Account	Political stability	Govt. effect.	Reg. quality	Rule of law	Control of cor.	GG Index <sup>13</sup>	HD Index <sup>14</sup>
Norway	100.00	94.44	97.73	93.43	99.29	98.09	97.16	0.942
China	5.20	27.07	56.80	43.67	41.96	38.28	35.50	0.711
Bangladesh	36.05	8.86	23.86	21.36	24.22	17.77	22.02	0.551
Haiti	26.83	19.87	2.87	18.03	6.03	7.87	13.58	0.467

From such above evidence, Rodrik (2004) has argued that institutions matter for development, but types of institutions also matter. For example, some governance indicators clearly matter such as the degree of political stability for effective government in China for development. North Korea has effectual government on the rule of laws, but the social and economic development is absent (Fritz, 2007). The political stability and development promise is also evident in Botswana. In contrast, Khan (2006) has emphasized that less developed countries need ‘growth enhancing’ rather than ‘market enhancing’ institutions for their development. He also argued that enforcement mechanisms are imperative here, whereas political stability and state capacity can play a role to enhance the productivity for the poor countries. According to Fritz and Menocal (2007), governance capabilities are important for the success of ‘developmental states’. The commitment for development along with state capacity, and political stability has shown as critical factors for smoothing development and for attaining institutional changes. Rodrik (2003) has measured similar levels of governance quality, and similar growth rates in African countries but at different trajectories. Recently, Khan (2012) has argued that the governance is needed for poor or developing countries for their economic growth.

The aspiration of this study is to find-out what kind of governance is required for development. The evidence from various studies and different governance indicators proved that good enough governance is matter for development rather good governance. It intimates that not necessary to tackle all governance deficits at a time. Therefore, the ‘good enough governance ’or ‘universal best practice’ is the way to governance approach to development. But, there are no recognised templates that are applicable everywhere with ensuring of country development. Recently, Booth (2011) intends an approach to governance for development is ‘best-fit’, not ‘best-practice’. The basic idea of the ‘best-fit’ approach is expressed as ‘building on what works’. According to Booth (2012), the country needs are specific to the context and period that are imperative to development strategies.

#### **4.0 Governance measures- Does it make sense?**

Governance should measure as because it matters for development. It is a theoretical and intricate concept that stances enormous encounter for accurate measurement. Some limitations in the literature are – the indicators used as governance performances are still vague and governances are connected with wide-ranging growth and better incomes. Fritz (2007) found that governance is reasonably difficult to assess against flawless, transparent, and similar benchmarks. He claimed, the methodologies for measuring benchmark are wrongly doing or even ratings of governance are undertaking an incentive to encourage careful interpretation. The criticisms along with favourable arguments of measuring governance are discussed here.

Numerous convincing arguments have derived from various literatures for measuring governance. First and foremost, judgements about governance are likely to be less rational and less worthwhile. Secondly, no clearly defined approach or methodology for assessing governance. Thirdly, measuring of governance is essential for complying with development. Finally, less concern about interpretation and rankings of governance. The quality of governance is measured by two basic approaches – qualitative assessments and quantitative indices (Fritz, 2007), which are used for measuring governance all over the world. The qualitative assessments are needed to emphasize country-specific approaches and projects, whereas the quantitative indices are based on rankings either by an individual professional or small group of experts.

The World Governance Indicators (WGI) – is one of the quantitative procedures – has been most influential in measuring governance along with its widespread coverage area. Along with WGI, a number of quantitative measuring techniques of governance have been developed. For example, Danish Institute of Human Rights has been established human right indicators and ratings are done based on political liberties and media freedom, whereas the Global Integrity Index are specially emphasized on the intensity of efforts in combating corruption. The approaches are facing specific challenges. According to Thomas (2007), the definition or validity of indicators is not clear in quantitative approach. Arndt and Oman (2006) have criticized the various indicators for using to measure governance. The factors of WGI to measure governance are levels of democracy, political instability, rule of law, government effectiveness, control of corruption, or regulatory burden. But, most of the indicators suffer lack of clarity (Knack, 2006). For example, ‘voice and accountability’ measures based on ‘voice’ rather than ‘accountability’. Moreover, it fails to ascertain any well-defined nexus (Grindle, 2011) among different indicators. The WGI uses 23 diverse sources to measure the ‘control of corruption’ but it is hard to make in a single dimension. There is no normative concept or combining specific theory to decide which is good or bad governance. The method offers diminutive direction to specific actions and to develop the quality of

governance. The World Bank trumpets its indicators as ‘dependable measurement’ of governance, without any justification that misleading impression (Thomas, 2010).

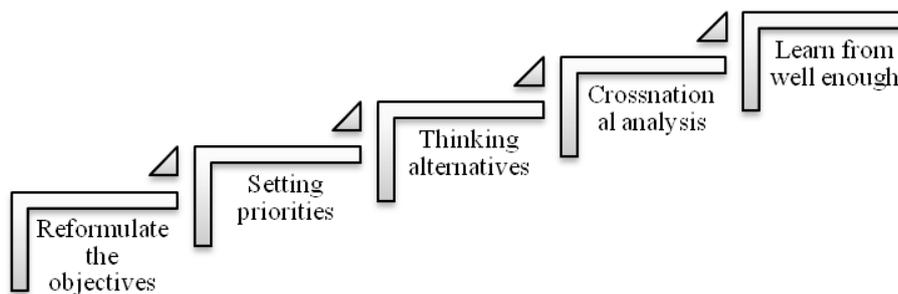
Donors are now moving on qualitative assessment as development indicators. Many qualitative approaches are recognized by different organization such as the Governance and Anti-Corruption Assessment for country assistance strategies by the World Bank, the Country Governance Assessment by DFID, the Governance Profiles by EU, and so on. Different approaches have been used in each of the appraisals. But each of the assessments is enduring few hurdles to measuring governance. The qualitative assessments are labour intensive and more interactive that is a real hindrance for the government of the recipient countries. It is also a burden for governments to cost and fund management.

The Ibrahim Index of African Governance (IIAG) is compound index that provides a qualitative assessment of governance in African countries. It comprises with safety & rule of law, participation and human rights, sustainable economic opportunity, and human development. The IIAG is comprehensive, there are a few remarkable inconsistencies hurled by the results. Also, missing of the established link among different indicators such as political participation and human rights with human development indicators. It is limited to the 48 Sub-Saharan African countries that needed to expand the coverage at least to whole of Africa. Some scholars have suspected the effectiveness of the Index and predominantly the requisite for civil society to engage with its results. The public governance is measured as because governance matters for development (Andrews *et al.* 2010). Therefore, the operational development has commenced, but still some ways to construct the appraisals sincerely worthwhile for development purpose (Fritz, 2007) but harmonization is quite challenging. The essential debate behind the indicator and approach is simply that governance indicators should be reasonably sound, intensive on outcome, amended for context, and restricted to the field. Andrews (2008) suggested, the governance indicator should reflect the result of delegated authority on welfare creation in a specific field. The governance assessment should be based on transparent indicators and undertaken in different fields and reflect by the citizens. In addition, the indicators should have space for further development and the way of development to improve governance in the future.

## **5.0 Towards – Good enough governance measures**

The good governance – good enough governance – are two concepts of governance while ‘good governance’ is considered as a long-term objective, ‘good enough governance’ is pondered as medium-term for acceptable edges. The good governance agenda is less awe-inspiring for developing countries and its attainment is extremely challenging even good enough governance is also rebellious to achieve (Grindle,

2004). However, the ideal scheme of good governance is difficult to accomplish as entirely by any government. Very few countries have come closer to good governance, whereas the massive numbers of governments are away from the ideal situation of governance. From this stance ‘good enough governance’ issue have come into the discussion. On the issue of good enough governance some ingredients need to be considered. First and foremost, better understanding in governance assessment that is essential to guide the operational work. Harmonization and adopting-way are next two important issues of governance assessment. The fourth issue is legal and institutional reforms, particularly in developing countries. Within the governance paradigm – the government, private sector, and civil society are perceived as main cohorts that should be considered. The efficiency, transparency, accountability, and participation along with leadership competence, institutional capacity, and government system are critical need to consider ensuring effective governance. According to Grindle (2004), the ‘good governance’ is not realistic whereas ‘good enough governance’ may become realistic; she proposed some suggestions for promoting good enough governance (Figure-6).

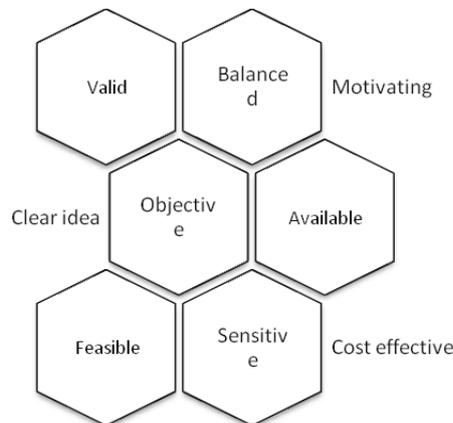


**Figure-6:** Ways of fostering ‘good enough governance’ (adopted from Grindle, 2004)

Reformulate the objective is foremost important for good enough governance. The accomplishment of good governance is a distant possibility, particularly for the poorer to the poorest countries. The country specific concept of ‘good enough’ can be suitable for setting activities along with strategies. Setting priorities is tremendously important for good enough governance, although it is exceptionally difficult to sort-out. Priorities may differ by country or by political context. Thinking alternatives is also a good point for any particular issues of any country. The countries which challenges of reforms are overwhelming state capacities are very low, corruption is uncontrollable; there may be other ways to ensure better services to citizens. A cross-national analysis is one of the most important ways that help to insight about governance that would care to clarify good enough governance. Learn from well enough is a basic way to moving good enough governance.

In the finale, the good governance is largely developed by assessing – what is not working or what is imperfectly working. Governance indicators need to fulfill a certain number of standards. Some features of good governance indicators are

illustrated in Figure-7. The indicator should be valid that measures exactly the attribute desired with accurately (Bersch and Botero, 2014). The effectiveness of governance indicators requires a clear idea about what will be observed and how to do so. An indicator lacking clarity about what and where to observe is meaningless. Sensitive toward desired changes and specific groups (Thomas, 2010). It is important to assess and monitor governance from a different perspective. Motivating, by inducing intended performance that strives to minimize danger (demotivation) or incentives (motivation) to achieve targeted aims. The process of selecting indicators should start from an analysis of availability and feasibility. Indicators should be cost-effective in that the costs of measurement are proportional to the benefits. It is rare that one indicator be sufficient to measure an attribute of governance. When there exist multiple indicators, it is important to ensure that such indicators are balanced. The indicator should have common objective and reach the same conclusion without uncertainty (Bersch and Botero, 2014).



**Figure-7:** Mutual features for good governance indicators (customized by authors)

## 6.0 Conclusion- Triumph to good enough

Governance is matter for development and therefore it has taken into consideration by many developing countries as the ground realities in their economic, social and political development. The good governance is exceptionally key contributor to development and to reduce poverty even though there persist distrusts about appraisal, causation, and categorization. The more improved governance is preferred for development, but the accomplishment of ‘good governance’ is extremely difficult, whereas reaching ‘good enough governance’ is apprehensive with uncertainties but plausible for expected results within a short span of time. Likewise, the good governance is impractical and long time-consuming. The current good governance agenda is extracted rather than logical that promotes the concept of ‘good enough governance’. From this viewpoint, it would better to concentrate

efforts on best practice approach 'good enough governance' rather than ideal condition 'good governance'. Moreover, the governance measuring indicators would have some benchmarks that can identify the better or worse governed countries.

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## **Good Governance in the Perspective of Attitude, Mindset, Administrative Ethics and Values**

Tapan Kumar Biswas<sup>1</sup>

### **Abstract**

Good Governance has become an emerging issue as it plays a pivotal role in ensuring efficient and effective public service. This article has put up efforts to ascertain the definition and significance of Good Governance. It has identified some specific vital factors such as attitude, mindset, administrative ethics and values of the government functionaries, which are the driving factors for implementing Good Governance. The article has explained and analyzed how these factors of government body influence the issue of Good Governance and how these contribute to ensuring it. The article has illustrated the effect and impact of human behaviour that is his attitude, mindset, ethics, values etc. to execute his responsibilities efficiently, effectively and dedicatedly. The article has pointed out that attitude, mindset and values are the actual driving force of a human being to be committed and determined for anything. Therefore, these factors should be determined positively to ensure Good Governance. In this regard, the article has put emphasis on ensuring transparency, accountability, integrity, rule of law for the public servants to attain the very objectives of Good Governance that is the targeted goals of the Government.

**Keywords:** Transparency, Accountability, Integrity, Justice, Right to Information, Rule of Law

### **1.0 Introduction**

Good governance, which is a highly discussed phenomenon in the existing world, is also an issue of utmost importance and essence in the context of Bangladesh. Actually, the concept of good governance has been flourishing since the post colonial era, when the ideologies of democracy started evolving gradually. The very concept of democracy consists in the ideology that government is of the people, by the people and for the people. Therefore, as per the concept and norms of democracy, people are the main pivotal, considering and driving force and factor of the government. Actually, the concept and objectives of democracy are subject to ensuring equitable society, equal and legal right and justice to the citizenry of the country (UNDP, 1997). Therefore, a democratic government is supposed to dedicate itself thoroughly to extend better and better service and welfare to its people. The government should put up its continuous sincere and innovative efforts to ensure good governance.

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In fact, governance indicates the actions and manners of governing and it involves the process of decision making and the strategies through which these decisions are implemented by the government embodiment in respect of running or governing the country (UN ESCAP, 2003a). Governance exhibits the manners and procedures through which power is exercised for managing the country's economic and social resources to achieve development (World Bank, 1992). Good governance highlights and focuses on the justified, lawful, ethical, legal and benevolent strategies and policies of governing of the government functionaries. The concept of good governance has flourished in to a vital issue and dimension for the developing countries like Bangladesh since the early 1990. It happened so through the insistence and emphasis of two international funding organizations—World Bank and IMF to ensure good governance. Actually, good governance consists in the procedures and initiatives of exercising power by various levels of government functionaries, which are considered sincere, effective, honest, transparent and accountable (CIDA, 1997).

The phenomenon of good governance lies in diversified factors such as, participatory, equitable, transparent, accountable stature and norms, rule of laws, which ensure best utilization of resources. Without good governance that is without rule of law legitimate power, responsive regulation and predictable administration, no fund, no amount of charity would be capable of setting us on the path of prosperity and enrichment (Annan, 1997).

## **2.0 Focus of attitude on good governance**

Attitude is one of the vital factors of a human being in case of his inspiration and dedication to any activity. In fact, it is the driving force and factor, which inspires and motivates him to engage in any work with commitment. Therefore, with a view to achieving any objective or target, a man first needs to set up his attitude strongly and effectively. Then he should dedicate himself and strive to achieve the goal and the objective. Attitude, both positive and negative can be infused and determined and there is no denying the fact that the success and outcome of the objectives are very much subject to the determination of this attitude. Actually, government functionaries are the core driving force to ensure good governance and naturally, the achievement of good governance is very much dependent on the determination of their attitude properly in this regard.

Good governance consists in predictable, open and enlightened policy making through transparent processes. It involves a bureaucracy enriched with a professional ethos, which is the executive arm of government accountable for its actions. It also encompasses a strong civil society participating in public affairs and all behaving under the rule of law (World Bank, 1994). The key factors of good governance have been identified as the technical and managerial competence of the

civil servants, capacity of government organizations, reliability, predictability, the rule of law, accountability, transparency and open information system. The ADB has highlighted and focused on four elements of good governance, these are accountability, participation, predictability and transparency (ADB, 1995).

Transparency is generally defined as the open flow of information (Holzner, 2006; Piotrowski, 2007), and the literature on transparency in the relationship between governments and citizens has strongly emphasized this concept of openness. Oliver (2004) argues that ‘transparency in an organization does not indicate only external communication, but also the right internal communication, this is concerned with the guts of its operations’, and it introduces the concept of ‘new transparency’ to describe the trend for organizations to face more active demands for disclosure of information. In the past, many governments passively provided information only on request, and could do so at their own discretion; now they are being required to engage in more active discourse and disclosure.

Piotrowski (2007) states that ‘governmental transparency equates to open government’. The oft-cited definition of transparency by the Asian Development Bank (1995) is ‘the availability of information to the general public and clarity about government rules, regulations and decisions’. Transparency has become an important agenda in nearly every organization, public and private, large or small. In this regard, Hood (2006) has opined that it has ‘attained quasi-religious significance in debate over governance and institutional design’.

Transparency and trust are seen to moderate or mediate the relationship between corruption and satisfaction (Driscoll, 1978; Heise, 1985; Jahansoozi, 2006; Pathak et al., 2008; Rawlins, 2008). Reducing corruption and improving citizen satisfaction are important aims of government. Many societies believe that transparency will reduce governmental malfeasance through its ‘sunshine’ effect (Heald, 2006), and demand for transparency has grown rapidly, with organizations in both private and public sectors being encouraged to be more transparent – Ball (2009) for a review of this development. Gaining citizens’ trust is similarly a high priority challenge for public organizations.

Actually, transparency in governance contributes to accountability of the government functionaries. This is ultimately concerned with predictability, reliability, competence and capacity and the rule of law of the government embodiment. So, in order to ensure good governance, these factors need to be attained and these factors are concerned with developing and nurturing positive attitude of the government body. Therefore, good governance ensures a developing focus on the attitude of the government functionaries.

### **3.0 Effect of mindset on good governance**

Mindset is the most important and vital factor in respect of ensuring good governance. In fact, mindset is just like the helm of a boat, which ascertains and

fixes the way and destination. Without helm, a boat cannot move purposefully; similarly, without determining mindset resolutely, it is quite impossible for a human being to achieve his desired target and objectives. It has been identified that good governance is subject to a number of factors such as, transparency, accountability, predictability, commitment, reliability, justice, rule of law etc. Therefore, in order to ensure good governance, these factors need to be developed appropriately and carefully. There is no denying the fact that the core objective of ensuring good governance by a democratic government is to extend better and better service to its people and to ensure their justice, legal right and freedom of opinion and right to information. Therefore, it has become very much mandatory and emergent requirement for the government functionaries at all levels to be thoroughly committed themselves to extending those services to the citizenry of the state with a view to ensuring good governance.

However, the fulfilment of those services and factors absolutely depend on the determined mindset of the government functionaries. If the government functionaries are not efficaciously motivated to determine their mindset regarding their commitment to the service, no rules, regulations, policies, pressure, influence would be capable of contributing expected services and ensuring good governance. Therefore, government officials need to be inspired and motivated effectively to have a committed mindset towards extending their services. As per Shelley (1999), a sound public administration having a determined and committed mindset towards responsibilities is the propelling force of good governance. So, a sound and dynamic public service, which will ensure good governance, can be achieved through the determination of dedicated and committed mindset. Actually, good governance is the unambiguous identification and pursuance of the basic values of the society, which is subject to the resolute mindset of the social people (Chopra, 1997).

Government functionaries should be very much aware about their roles and responsibilities. They should never forget to remember that they have been appointed to serve the people and extend better and better service and they are paid by the people for this. Therefore, every public servant belonging to any profession should be committed to his responsibilities. However, the scenario of the public service in our country is not satisfactory at the optimum level and in some respects this is very much vulnerable. Therefore, in order to extend expected service that is to ensure good governance, public servants need to determine their mindset and become committed towards discharging their responsibilities and providing expected service to the people. Therefore, good governance has a very much vital and important impact and focus on mindset.

#### **4.0 Impact of administrative ethics and values on good governance**

Ethics, in general terms is concerned with people's moral duty and obligations (Levine, 1990). Actually, ethics indicates the moral standard, level of integrity,

attitude to follow the fairness, obligation to go through righteous way in respect of executing the responsibilities. In fact, ethics consists in a person's dedication and commitment to put up uncompromising emphasis and priority on morality. The ethical behavior of a person has a very much vital effect and impact on society. Actually, the public morality itself is a combination of individual ethics (Balogun, 2001).

The term value is related to the price, worth etc. Values indicate how much price is paid for something, how much importance is given to someone or something, how much regards are extended to someone, how much attention is highlighted and exhibited to fairness of activities. Actually, values deal with the outcomes of ethics and ethics is concerned with psychological and philosophical thoughts and values consist in fair or honest activities.

It is a natural process that humans are guided by some common ethics and values. As pursuant to this, every profession is supposed to have some mandatory and specific regulations, ethics and values and the personnel belonging to these professions must abide by these. These specific and unique ethics and values inspire the personnel to discharge their responsibilities properly. The effective running of the administration depends on the proper observance of these ethics and values.

Actually, administrative ethics comprises the standard of morals while taking decisions or implementing policies or programs. It is concerned with the level of honesty, integrity, transparency, accountability, legality, rule of law etc. of the functionaries during the governance or management. Administrative ethics deals with the fair, justified and legal strategies and procedures of governing the state or managing an organization. Public servants are the main factors and driving forces to ensure good governance. Therefore, it is very much expected that they would be effectively enriched and motivated with proper ethics and values and committed to abiding by them properly. The civil service deals with the decision making process of the government in diversified aspects. So, ethics in civil service is of highest importance to achieve the desired objectives.

Administrative values indicate the appropriate importance or priority focused on the administrative decisions or policies. The proper, justified and right things can only be performed through the commitment of ethics and moral standard of the personnel concerned with the responsibilities. In this regard, the proper, justified, legal and right activities can be treated as values. Therefore, ethics involves the justified, rational, legal, transparent, accountable ways of thinking and promising and values indicate the proper, effective and righteous actions. So, administrative ethics and values play a very much vital and effective role on good governance.

## **5.0 Conclusion**

Good governance depends on various factors such as transparency, accountability, predictability, reliability, rule of law, efficiency, capacity of the organization etc.

Therefore, ensuring good governance is very much subject to the committed practice of these factors. Government functionaries are the prime forces of ensuring good governance. The attainment of the objectives of the SDG, Vision 2021, Seventh Five Years' Plan, Perspective Plan and so on is subject to the dedication and commitment of the functionaries of the state to these factors. In this regard, government functionaries need to determine their attitude, mindset, administrative ethics and values with a view to enriching them with those factors.

Ethically motivated civil servants, who have determined attitude and mindset, can perceive what they should and should not do. There is no denying the fact that ethically motivated civil servants would be capable of providing better and better services to the people, which is the prime requirement of ensuring good governance. It is true that public confidence on civil servants is not always at the expected level in respect of honesty, integrity, accountability and transparency. As pursuant to this, government is reforming from closed bureaucracy to a relatively transparent body. Therefore, proper ethics, values, attitude and mindset in civil service has become a heightened awareness, concern and intent of existing time to ensure good governance.

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