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Social change is a podium for the exchange of ideas among scholars, policy makers and development practitioners, Their intellectual and constructive ideas would smooth the way to social transformation in a desired manner.

Appreciating their consecrated commitment to people and society we earnestly believe that they will make vital contributions through projection of ideas and views embellished with their sagacious policy recommendations. Social Change is a peer reviewed Journal devoted to the advancement of the research and social studies. The Journal entertains articles from the grassroots activists and researchers and appreciates learning from the field situation.

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Autonomy of Rural Women in Peasant Communities

Md. Shairul Mashreque *

Abstract:

Autonomy stands out to be a critical issue of participation. Participation itself is a matter of organizational strength and activism. Peasant communities in a vast rural terrain may well be qualified as the 'typical pre-modern sectors' with longstanding institutional stereotypes that account much for unorganizability of the rural women. Now the broad spectrum of women organization in cosmopolitan urban communities prop up feminism as a 'neo-social movement'. Autonomy of women is the creed of progressive movements spearheaded by urban feminists. The rural women are beginning to feel the impacts of such movement. This is a challenge to patriarchal super-ordination somewhat reflecting 'ideological convergence' of nascent feminism in peasant communities.

In the backdrop of such development it remains to address the dimension of autonomy so far as rural women are concerned. Arguably peasants still nourish conservative attitudes to folk women. Structural and symbolic violence originating from custom, scriptures and pre-existing values tend to undermine women's autonomous status at home and outside the residential locus. More, the process of rural development has led to the feminization of poverty. Escalating poverty has turned most rural women into a 'fragile locus' vulnerable to exclusion and social ostracism. The poor women, being breadwinners have increased their mobility moving out of the residence in search of employment. Does it really mean enhanced

* Professor, Department of Public Administration, University of Chittagong, Chittagong, Bangladesh.

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autonomy? A 'multi-plex societal transformation' leaves them in a state of embarrassment with rampant exploitation and predicaments.

The emerging civil societies and change catalysts come forward to join feminist movement. They attempt to enable the rural women to rationally perceive secular-sacred continuum and the myths of feudal ethics curbing their autonomy. The beneficiaries are becoming aware of their due shares in benefits and in public sphere and the adverse effects of community laws and sanctions relating to marriage, inheritance, property, separation, divorce and maintenance.

Introduction:

In peasant communities longstanding relationship of dependence is a pervasive phenomenon constraining any impulses toward self-development. Typically pre-modern such communities with underlying structures of dominance reveal an overwhelming tendency towards the maintenance and reinforcement of traditional privileges and prerogatives. This is no doubt anti-developmental and parochial with inherent structural contradictions.

More, the preponderance of stereotyped social institutions prevent social mobilization, collective action and broad-based participation. Predominant norms and values of peasant society provide much room for discrimination against the disadvantaged group. The rural women continue to be the 'disadvantaged lot' in the presence of dominant political process- we mean patriarchal superordination. "Women's position is institutionalized through the customs of marriage, traditional family structure, conventional relationship of dependence and the system of inheritance" (Mashreque and Amin 1993:86).

For arbitrary reasons leading to the exploitation of women in backward areas there has been public debate over the concept of female autonomy institutionally entrenched in constitutional provisions, laws and ordinances. Autonomy of women is a rallying cry of the feminist movement. It has cropped up in recent years as a 'neo-social movement' with reassured ideological commitment.

Institutional Setting

Community structure in a backward village is non-participant accounting much for the continuation of dependency syndrome. The

opportunities for participation are likely to be rigidly structured. The bulk of the female population virtually plays no role in politics and development.

Peasants with conservative outlooks do not evince interest in female participation. They are reluctant to recognize their autonomous status as equal partners. The domineering patriarch is found mystifying the rural women leaving them in a state of ignorance about their status - role and exact claims to strategic resources to perpetuate its traditional power and prerogatives. The vision of subjectivity in the narrowly spaced social world of peasant has reduced the community of wives and unmarried daughters to almost nullity restricting them to the four walls. Peasants are concerned about defects in status-behaviour of women and about protecting chastity of wives and virginity of unmarried daughters. The values of women's' dignity, izzat (honour), status symbols and submission to patriarchal authority are deemed essentials for achieving 'spiritual liberation' and benediction.

Aristocratic village families stress submissive attitude, decorum and conservatism as special marks of women's dignity. Rising families follow suit resorting to Khandani values. The aspiration for higher status on the part of rising families that go ahead with the scheme of 'sanskritization of rituals' is a common feature of stratified society with caste hierarchy (Srinivas 1956)

Feudal norms shape mechanism of social control in a manner acceptable to the male and female alike. Nevertheless, the outcome of compliance with such norms is likely to be the reproduction of gender inequality. Its demoralizing impacts on the lives of woman are disquieting. The plight of folk women beggars description with the antecedents like separation, divorce, plural marriages, dowry and social ostracism. More, low ranking status has been ascribed to them in ritual hierarchy. This institutional setting is endemic through out backward south Asian villages. In addition several manifestations of symbolic violence restrict their autonomy.

Feminism as women perspectives

Feminism as a philosophical discourse appeared in social and political theories of Plato, Aristotle, Hobbes, Locke, Rousseau, Mill, Marx and Engles. Allegorical underpinnings of these theories do not

seem to form coherent themes developed overtime in logical sequence. They echo the content of profound philosophical insights guiding theoretical development of women perspectives as epistemological roots. "Civil liberties movements represent the theory of individual rights developed by Locke and redefined by Mill, whose premise was that all individuals are equal in their right to be free from arbitrary state intervention " (Augustine and Sharma 1994:249).

The anchorage point here is the contribution of feminists to the conceptualization of women perspectives as a theoretical construct. Subsequent swing towards modernization paradigm as found in development theories seeks to project cosmopolitanism. Modernization as a 'polar antithesis' to traditionalism attributes significance to universalistic values of democracy, equality, individual freedom, autonomy, participation, liberal acceptance of popular movement, strong, individual preference and gender justice. One of the significant contributions of modernists is that they have overtly recognized a secular construction of modern society based on rationalized social system. Yet the actualization of such vision is far from reality (Augustine and Sharma 1997). One of the paradoxes of modernization is that " women are denied their due rights and status and are subject to various forms of discrimination" (Shawkat Ara 1994:27). It has led to the impoverishment of rural women to the very margin. Downward spiral of poverty has turned rural women into a 'fragile locus' subservient to various forms of structural tension.

"Post-modern conceptualization is a reaction towards inherent predicaments of reflexivity in the modernization process" (Mashreque 2002:365). Social theories of post-modernism represent new world of introspection to inspire neo-social movements. Feminist movements are beginning to mushroom as a reaction to dehumanization syndrome of modernization characterized by labour exploitation, annihilation of bio-diversity, environmental degradation, labour displacement and feminization of poverty. Critique of gender-bias public policy has become the noteworthy feature of feminism

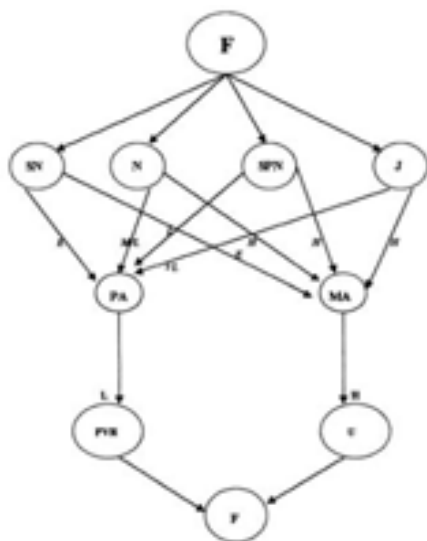


Fig. 1: Sociogram showing autonomous status of women in connection with authority structure in family.

F=Family, PA=Patriarchal Authority, MA=Matriarchal Authority, H=High, L=Low, SN=Sub-nuclear, N=Nuclear, SPN=Supplementary Nuclear, J=Joint, E=Egalitarian, M/L=Medium/Low, U=Uxorilocal, PVR=Patri-Virilocal.

Autonomy within the family

Dominance of male over female very much regulates the distribution of power and allocation of responsibilities. Family is headed by senior most male member - father (Mashreque 1995:67). He may concede much of his authority to his eldest or ablest son on account of old age. The mother or eldest sister enjoys less authority having less say even in the decisions that matter them much. Autonomous status of wife/wives and girls are unthinkable and generally not aspired in such a family environment.

Nature of dominance varies depending on the type of authority structure. The way such structure operates has consequences on the autonomy of women. Women autonomous status in authority structure is shown in Fig.1.

The pattern of authority in household is also shaped by type of marriage. It determines women's status influencing the content of autonomy in terms of entitlement to strategic resources, rights, privileges and participation. Marriages are mostly monogamous with a few cases of polygyny. Polyandry is out of practice in a patriarchal peasant society. Downgraded wives even in nuclear families extended by polygyny are relegated to a dependent status playing undervalued economic and reproductive roles. The attempt of the influential man to enhance numerical strength of his political group in factional politics through polygyny adversely affects autonomy of wives. They are subject to stress and strains of family life being disadvantaged by a little chance of involving in non-traditional activities and joining women organizations available in a village. Physical mobility of dependent wives is reported to be low. They cannot individually dare or speak out for their rights and grievances excepting quarreling amongst themselves.

In rural areas family is patri-virilocal. The cases of patri-uxorilocal are few. Uxorilocal pattern of household indicates independent status of a female head who dictates terms and conditions in both internal and external affairs thus exercising tremendous matriarchal authority. The number of female headed household is higher in rural (7.2%) than in urban areas (5.8%) (Islam 1996:178). However, the female heads with meager income live at the subsistence level earning from wage employment facilities. Most of them do not own land and other strategic resources in the patrimonial system that is biased to males.

Gender Development and the Issue of Autonomy

Now in an era that witnesses a transition from modernity to sustainable development gender development enjoys global attention. This is also an overarching concern of global governance. Even then "the dominant paradigm of development with regard to gender issue, is completely based on conceptual abstraction sidetracking the documented pictures of violation of women's right and the untold sufferings of the rural women folk" (Mashreque and Khan 1999:). Such violation jeopardizes women' autonomy rendering it difficult for them to assert their legal rights. Despite favorable legal provisions protecting their right 'relative lack of the enforcement' of laws limits female autonomy. More rural women, mostly illiterate are not aware of constitutional and legal guarantee

for their rights and status. The Muslim Family Law Ordinance 1961, the Muslim Family Ordinance (Amendment) Bill 1999, the Family Court Ordinance 1986 recognize women's legal rights (See Mashreque and Rashid 2003, Husain 1994).

In Bangladesh Muslim laws of inheritance reorganizes women's entitlement to ancestral property. "According to the Muslim law of inheritance, a son is entitled to two -third share of his father's property; a daughter, to one-third share" (Zaidi 1970:49). Such a law offers a liberal perspective on the position of women establishing their rightful claim on father's property. It echoes women's rationale for autonomy in a peasant society governed by patrilineal decent principles. Besides it favors the apportionment of women's share of paternal property as an element of security against the misfortunes of competition (Mashreque 1998:57)

The dowry prohibition Act 1980, the Dowry Prohibition (Amendment) Ordinance 1982, Cruelty to Women (Deterrent punishment) Ordinance, 1983, the child marriage restraint (Amendment) Ordinance (see Husain 1994) have deep-rooted standing in the institutionalization of human communities in Bangladesh. Peasant communities are no exception. All these legal provisions conform to the relevant constitutional provisions and the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (Husain 1994:31). In real life operations pre-existing customs and scriptures take precedence over secular laws governing man-woman relationship in the areas of marriage, divorce, inheritance, maintenance and guardianship over children. The way the women are being treated in a conventional manner under the impact of traditional institutions constitutes a formidable threat to their autonomy.

Autonomy of rural women has been viewed as an important component of gender development. Development agencies realize that "women in a closed peasant community is prevented from participating meaningfully in the mainstreams of the community life despite the fact that they constitute half of the national population" (Mashreque and Siraj Ud Doullah 2003:1). Changing social scenario in transitional peasant communities creates an urge among folk women for self-development.

The wave of feminist's movement in cosmopolitan urban communities is beginning to stir the peasant society at its depth coscientising the rural women to form women groups. 'Ideological convergence' of nascent feminism in rural area promotes women empowerment for the reinforcement of their autonomy. Literacy is a key to autonomy. The impacts of empowerment movement as a social movement on literacy situation are heartening so far as women are concerned. Contemporary experiment in the field of women empowerment is narrowing literacy gap between men and women. This is reflected in table 1.

Table-1: Literacy gap between men and women within 20 years

Region	1980	1999
Middle East and North Africa	5	2
South Asia	27	24
Sub-Saharan Africa	21	16
East Asia and Pacific	5	3

Source: World Bank 2001 (Cited in Quddusi 2003:28)

Reduction in literacy gap between two opposite sex is expected to reduce the level of subordination in gender relationship. Educated women will be able to perceive secular-sacred continuum and yawning gap between formulation of gender-equality based public policies and implementation of policy related programs/law under such policies. Paradoxically education of rural girls is constrained by male-bias existing value system (son-preference). Movement of village girls in search of knowledge in modern educational curriculum', is discouraged by conservatives. Village girls are encouraged to take up 'home-educational curriculum', and primary education in traditional educational institutions. Modern education for girls is still discouraged as 'unproductive' as they shift their patri-local residence after marriage. The way the village girl children are being socialized in 'home-educational' environment prevents their normative development. More, poverty situation in changing rural areas eventually results in the reinforcement of negation of female education in existing value system leaving 'a choice between the son's or the daughter's education'. Statistical figures in rural women's

literacy indicate quantitative progress with enhanced enrolment status and decrease in dropouts without a little indication of 'behaviour change communication'. Non-formal primary education strategy (NFE) of NGO serves as a stop -a-gap measure to solve literacy issue putting the rural girls (mostly poor) to school.

Escalating poverty lays a heavy burden on rural women thus posing a great challenge of survival. For, policy outcomes of rural development have led to the feminization of poverty. There is an increasing incidence of poverty in households headed by women, and this is obvious in rural areas. In some areas like Caribbean and South Africa households headed by women exceeds 40 percent. They are among the poorest groups in society (Tambunan 1998:80). The poorest groups among rural women are breadwinners moving out of residential campus in search of employment elsewhere. They are mobile able to exercise their autonomy without intervention. Even then 'multiplex societal transformation' accounts much for increasing alienation of the vulnerable poor women. They are relegated to working in agro-based industries and informal urban sectors where labor is hard, hours are long, work condition is bad and wages are low (Tambunan 1998:80). They work both inside and outside the home to meet challenges of survival. Some of them work outside to make up shortfalls in subsistence income of their husband (Ibid 1998:81).

From Seventies and onwards-civil societies are shaping up to carry forward feminist movement. Women's movement from the beginning of 1970 draws more attention to gender inequalities. The aspirations and expectations of girls and women have been raised especially those from middle classes (Akther 2000:234-235). Educated girls now performing as stakeholders and NGO change catalysts share the responsibilities of collective action in the interests of their own communities. They encourage rural women to gain control over factors that limit their autonomy.

A 'shift in development thinking towards promoting women's participation' in public affair may be seen as a signal for vital break through. The meaning and extent of such participation differ from society to society (Hossain 1999:178). In traditional peasant communities political structure is closed and discriminatory. Women here hardly find any chance for entrance in public life. Now a days

rural development is at cross road transcending the arena of women's economic participation to add the dimension of power and politics in formal public institutions. The consequence of participatory rural development has rendered rural political process free floating and less discriminatory. Rural women now look ahead quite thinking of their share in such process. This is sure to change power relations in family establishing their autonomy on firm footing.

Conclusion

Gender bias development strategy does not seem to objectively view women's potentials of reshaping their own destinies and reducing dependence on their male counterparts. This reported shortfall should be countered by a more objective strategy of participatory development recognizing individual rights and autonomy as universal values. Contemporary critique of development explains the inherent contradictions in predominant social institutions. Feminist movement is a challenge to patriarchal super- ordination.

Organizational strength and support is considered of importance for mobilizing women's potentials for self-development. It is seen as a vehicle for challenging lopsided relationship and restructuring of political process.

Whatever may be the usefulness of gender development rhetorics social processes and cultural forces in countryside continue to impair female autonomy. Traditional norms of segregating and restricting women and girls are discouraging their active participation in development. However, creating a scope of education and skill development through vocational training is likely to have a positive impact on women's position. Peasant communities are organised around 'traditional sex role divisions'. However women's increasing role and activism in the community ensure balance of power in gender relationship and their autonomous status.

The issue of autonomy concerns participation, empowerment and a modicum of freedom in and outside the family. "The sense of autonomy in one sense means capacity to obtain control over economic resources which enable certain choices to be exercised over the directions of one's life and also the capacity to act and be treated as a full social and individual at home, at workplace and in the world at large. In the other sense it is the ability to take a job in

non-traditional forms of employment or moving around without a family accompany or without family's permission." (Akhter 2000:243). Given the disposition of the patriarchy with deeply ingrained institutional stereotypes in rural areas autonomy of folk women is a distant dream. Nevertheless, the emerging civil societies and NGO promoters endeavour to galvanize apparently sleepy community, especially rural women, to break the chain and remove the veil of subordination. At times they address the crisis of pauperization of rural women.

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Ageing Problem in the Context of Bangladesh

Shanzida Farhana *

Abstract:

On the eve of a new millennium, we are about to bear witness to a global society that is oldest in the history of world. In recent years, ageing has become a global issue. Bangladesh also experiencing the gradual increase of the aged population .In this respect this paper explores the ageing situation in Bangladesh. It analyzes the various constraints and aspects of the Aged population. Uncertainty of subsistence, lack of resource, lack of employment opportunity, weakening of the traditional support system, Problem of living arrangement causes problems for the elderly. These problems lead to physical & mental problem. The health status of the older people is also poor and they have lack access to health care. The majority of older people in Bangladesh cannot meet their most basic needs. Treatment facilities are insufficient for the aged and they do not have money for treatment. Number of organizations actually dedicated to the welfare of the elderly was very limited in Bangladesh. The problem of elderly is not merely medical. It is physical, mental, economical and socio-cultural. So a comprehensive and holistic approach needed to face the problem

1. Introduction

Our society places a premium for youth. We devote many years to care, nurture & education of our young. But the elderly are neither cherished like young people nor productive like middle aged people. Our society makes them feel obsolete, unwanted burdens. Elderly people constitute a distant segment among the suffering section of the population.

* Assistant professor, Department of Anthropology, University of Chittagong, Chittagong, Bangladesh

According to the United Nations, people over 60 will outnumber those under 15 years of age by 2050. This is partially due to a decreased in the number of deaths combined with a

drop in the number of births (Wisensale,1998:74). This unprecedented rise in the number of older people will have lasting effects on society. The expert have already said that ageing is a global social problem it's already affecting the global economy. They are saying that if steps are not taken immediately human society have to suffer a lot.

In Bangladesh 60+ population are also increasing rapidly. At present nearly 6% of the total population is 60+. By the year 2025 it will be 9.1% (16.2 million) & by the year 2050 it will be 20.2% (42.8 million) of the total population. But there is no planned initiative for the geometrically increasing population. In the last decade there are so many development programs for the deprived section of the population such as for woman for children. But the aging population is out of these program consciously or unconsciously.

In this circumstance we think that this is the right time to highlight the problems of aged. Its a very important public health problem as well as challenging issue of health promotion movement.

The paper divided into several parts. At first there is a brief history of longevity, then the concept of 'Ageing' is discussed. Then there is a brief description of the situation of the ageing population in the world as well as in Bangladesh. Major problems and the basic needs of the aged population of Bangladesh are identified here. Finally the welfare programmes for the aged population in Bangladesh are discussed and the organizations involved are identified. In the conclusion some recommendations are included to improve the situation of the aged population.

2. A Brief History of Longevity

The unprecedented advance in longevity that occurred during the 20th century has, on average, added 25 years to the life expectancy of people living in the industrialized world. This gain is nearly equal to that attained during the preceding 5,000 years of human history. In fact, there is little evidence that any gains in life expectancy were achieved during the first 100,000 years of the existence of *Homo sapiens* (modern human beings).

The first advances occurred during the Neolithic period, which began in some parts of the world around 8,000 BC. It was at this time that humans developed agriculture and animal husbandry, and the food supply became more plentiful, varied and stable. People banded together for mutual protection and communities developed. New technologies such as pottery, which helped keep food separate from excrement and other unclean substances, also contributed to improvements in health. Even so, the life expectancy at the time was a mere 20 years (Butler, 1976). Most people barely lived long enough to reproduce.

This state of affairs remained unchanged for many centuries. Women frequently died in childbirth, and infant and childhood mortality rates were high. Life expectancy during the Bronze Age in Europe (2200 to 700 BC) was about the same as that during the Neolithic period (Hayflick, 1996).

The second great wave of advances in longevity did not occur until the Industrial Revolution, which began in the 18th century. The Industrial Revolution resulted in the widespread replacement of manual labor by machines and brought about improvements in health conditions, nutrition, and the standard of living, and resulted in important advances in scientific knowledge. The years since have witnessed an explosion of new medical discoveries and techniques. In the 19th century physicians and scientists developed diagnostic tools such as the stethoscope, and discovered X rays (Butler, 1976). They also learned the importance of keeping hospitals and operating rooms germ-free, which drastically improved patient mortality rates.

Twentieth-century discoveries include new vaccines for diseases such as polio, the discovery of antibiotics such as penicillin and streptomycin, and improvements in medical procedures such as blood transfusions, transplant surgery, and new heart medications that can prolong the lives of patients suffering from a variety of illnesses and conditions (Butler and et.al, 1995).

Achievements in this sector led us to say that longevity revolution has already taken place and people are living longer.

3. Concept of Ageing

The term 'ageing' refers simply to the process of growing older. Ageing can be described , rather than defined, as the aggregate result

of the detrimental processes, at cellular , sub-cellular, or organ level, that are associated with the passage of time. It is dependent to some extent on genetic factors. Mark Gorman (1999:7) mentioned that, "The ageing process is of course a biological reality which (despite medical interventions) has its own dynamic, largely beyond human control. However it is also subject to the constructions by which each society makes sense of old age".

In Gerontology- the study of biological, psychological, and social aspects of ageing, ageing is viewed in terms of four distinct processes: (1) Chronological ageing- is the definition of ageing on the basis of a person's years from birth. (2) Biological ageing- refers to the physical changes that reduce the efficiency of organ system. (3) Psychological ageing- includes the changes that occur in sensory and perceptual process, mental functioning, personality, drives and motives. (4) Social ageing- refers to an individual's changing roles and relationships in the social structure (Rahman, 2000:143).

Ageing has some unique criteria. The four general criteria proposed by Strchler (1962) have been widely accepted : (a) ageing is universal, in that it occurs in all members of the population, (b) ageing is progressive, a continuous process, (C) ageing is intrinsic to the organism, (d) ageing is degenerative(Rahman,2000:144).

There is no framework or age limit to determine the actual member of the aged population. In Bangladesh there are three ways to define the aged: First: United Nation Categorize 60 years and above inhabitants as aged in Asia pacific region. Second: Retirement age of the judges and the university teachers are 65 years, in this regard 65+ populations could be defined as "Aged". Third: Retirement age of the government employees are 57 years. Average life expectancy in Bangladesh is about 61 years. So according to CPD (2002) any one who turn 55 should be called as aged in Bangladesh.

The elder, specially the poor do not define age form chronological perspective. They actually determine it on the basis of various social and psychological aspects such as; wrinkle and gray hair, loss of eye sight, loss of memory, poor health, dependency, physical disability that effect their ability to participate in daily life in both house hold and income generating activities and a vital determining factor specially for women is menopause.

Ageing is not a diseased condition, and as such one cannot be cure old age. But eventually ageing leads to functional declines and involves increased susceptibility to death from specific disease. It should be mentioned here that the concept ageing is different from the concept of 'population ageing'. Population ageing is a demographic process. An aged society is one whose population is skewed towards older age groups. When population aged 60 and above exceeds 10-12 percent of the population in a particular society, one can characterize this society as relatively old (Rahman, 2000 :144).

4 Ageing Population: World Situation

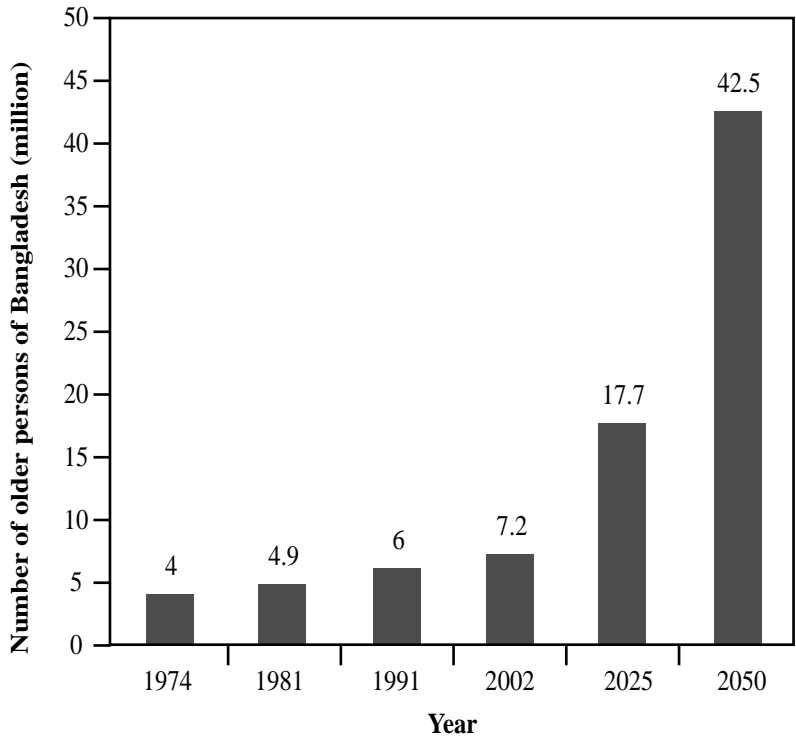
On the eve of a new millennium, we are about to bear witness to a global society that is oldest in the history of world. The elderly population is growing faster than all other age groups and will increase from 200 million in 1950 to 1.2 billion in 2025, a six-fold increase over 75 yrs (United nations 1990 a, 1990 b). This number will be increase rapidly and in 2050 the number of aged population will be about 197 crore in the world. This number will be increase rapidly and in 2050 the number of aged population will be about 197 crore in the world. This increasing trend will continue up to late 21st century. The number of aged population consist 10% of the world population. In 2025 it will be 15.1% and in 2050 it will be 22.1%. Even more significant, perhaps, is the demographic picture that emerges when ageing populations in developed nations are compared to similar populations in developing countries (Wisensale,1998: 74).

It is not surprising that a predicted demographic change of such magnitude has produced much anxiety through out the world. For clearly " evidence is accumulating that the ageing of populations can have a strong influence on the course of development, both in economic & social terms" (U.N-1985a, p-44). And not to be overlooked is the fact that world population ageing is occurring is the midst of an ongoing global economic transition (Schulz, 1993). To what extent the impact of population ageing depends on or determines the outcome of that from situation is a large, tantalizing and provocative "unknown" conforming policy makers through out the world.

4.1 Ageing Population: Bangladesh Situation

Bangladesh also experiencing the gradual increase of the aged population. According to the first population census of 1974 the total number of 60+ populations was 8.06 million. In 1981 this number increases to 4.9 million. Next decade, the census of 1991 counted 6 million older population which was 5.42% of the total population. According to recent UN statistics aged population in Bangladesh is 6.6 million, which is 5.11% of the total population. UN projected the aged population will be 16.2 million (9.1%) in 2025 and 42.84 million (20.2%) in 2050.

Fig-1: Growth of the older population of Bangladesh, 1974 - 2050 (million)



Source:

- 1) *Statistical Yearbook of Bangladesh 1994* B. B. S. Dhaka;
- 2) *World Population Prospects, The 2000 Revision, Vol. II. Sex and Age United Nations, New York. 2001;*
- 3) *Population Aging 2002 United Nations, New York. 2002*

Table - 1: Population Projection of Bangladesh showing total population and number of the aged (in 000).

Year	Total population	Population 60 +	Percentage of the age (60 +)
1990	108526	5401	4.98
1995	118321	6215	5.26
2000	127909	7247	5.67
2005	137865	8519	6.18
2010	147563	10133	6.87
2015	157333	12051	7.66
2020	166755	14450	8.67
2025	177776	17621	10.09

Source: Population projection of Bangladesh. G. Rabbani and S. Hossain. BBS. 1981

Comparatively there are more aged population in rural areas (76.2%) than in urban areas (5.89%) (1991 population census). In the urban areas the male female ratio of aged was 58% and 42%. (1991 census).

5. Problems of the aged

Economic problems

Uncertainty of subsistence, lack of resource, lack of employment opportunity, weakening of the traditional support system causes economic problems for the elderly. Few of those who were in the pension able job may not be in economic crisis. Most of the older people do not have any institutional opportunity to get allowances in the old age. Some of them engaged as irregular labour some are self employed.

Living arrangement problem

This problem is more severe than economic problem. Problem of living arrangement is more evident in urban areas. Though the older have family and resource the problem is likely to continue.

Children's are not interested in to give opportunity to their parents to live with them. (CPD-2000)

Health problem

The health status of the older people is poor and they lack access to health care and sanitation facilities. Primary barriers to health care access in rural areas include cost, physical access and poor quality and inappropriate services. In urban areas the primary barrier identified is cost and sanitation facilities. In Bangladesh the most common ailments of the elderly are: stomach-ache and diarrhoea followed by bronchial asthma, peptic ulcer, hypertension, diabetes mellitus, cardiac problem, dental disease, eye disease, rheumatism, cough and cold, fever and anaemia, falling of eye sight, loss of memory, insomnia (Ref-Ibrahim et al 1988, Rashid Kabir Hyder 2004).

Psycho-social problem

Psycho-physiological inactivity, economic crisis, housing problem, physical inability, various diseases, separation from the beloved one, social isolation and loneliness etc. creates physical and mental problems. Changes in traditional social and family values are the main cause of these psycho-social problems. Breaking down of the traditional joint family system creating social security problem to the older people. Aged people suffer from tension and anxiety due to some psycho social causes (Rahman.98: 184).The retired people suffer from an identity crisis. After retirement they loss money, status, colleagues and a meaningful routine life. they are thrown to what Burgess called roleless role (Decker 1980). So that some may have mental shock which may create psycho-social problem.

Culture and Family

There is a popular idea that the total condition of older people was quite good in pre industrial society. But Rahman (2005) mentioned that, most studies suggest that the condition of the elderly in some societies was very bad. Ethnographic reports indicate that the condition of elderly in pre industrial societies depends on the nature of environment and availability of resources. The status of the elderly becomes too bad if the climate is unfavorable and severe, the total environment is harsh and the resources are too limited. Life becomes a daily struggle for mere survival. therefore, culture, values

and norms seem to be luxuries that can hardly be found in human behavior (Ward, 1984;54). The status of elderly seems better specially in agricultural societies. In traditional agricultural societies elderly were quite active in judicial, agricultural, socio- cultural and religious sectors. So that the condition of elderly had to depend on their power to control valued resources, their knowledge, skill and ability which are useful to the society.

In Bangladesh, religious and traditions have resulted in a strong extended family system upon which older people have traditionally relied for survival. However with industrialization, decrease in land availability, increase in women's participation in labor market, children migrating to urban centers and over all impact of pervasive poverty, it has been generally acknowledged that this traditional form of support for the elderly is weakening.

Young wage earner become smaller proportion of the population and they have to take responsibility for the growing proportion of the older people. the old age dependency ratio is projected to increase 8 percent in 1995 to 16.2 percent in 2025 (Kabir, M H 1994). A weakening support system combined with a higher dependency ratio increase the existing vulnerability of the older people.

Gender Issues

Gender inequality and discrimination against women is widespread in Bangladesh. This result a life time deprivation, lack of education, poor health and nutrition, low status, discrimination and restriction on mobility and association. The majority of the older women in Bangladesh are widowed (68 percent) compared to 7 percent of men (WB News release, February, 2000). The issue of widowed is significant because women's marital status has an important role to her survival and well-being. Widowed are dependent on sons or family. Gender discrimination and inequality are carried in to old age, making widows among the most vulnerable in society.

Poverty

There are no age specific statistics on poverty available. Evidence suggests that poverty is more widespread among the elderly. Country-wise poverty problem hit older people especially hard, as they are already in a vulnerable position due to their age (Help Age International 1999).

Older people suppose to live retired life. But major portion of the older people are actively engaged in the labor force. Because of no alternative income source and no other institutional or social support, they have to involve in income generating activities. Older men rely more on their own income for survival than women, who rely on their families more. While older men face age barrier to employment opportunities, older women face both age and gender barriers. Limited access to resources restricts income generating opportunities for older people.

6. Health Care

There are only one doctor available for 12500 population in Bangladesh. So the facilities are poor for the general population. Research shows some cause that hinder health care of the elder (CPD 2000). Inadequate number of health care facilities Unavailability of information for the available facilities In the rural area economic and physical inability are the cause for not taking any health care. In the urban area economic crisis is the main problem for elderly.

Trends of Health Care of Aged in Bangladesh

Deterioration of ones health is a natural part of ageing and major concerns of old age. A general survey reports that about 79 percent of older persons suffered from various health conditions because of ageing process and lack of available health care facilities.

Old olds (age 70+) compared to young olds (age 60-70 years), females compared to males, rural elderly compared to urban elderly have great problems with functional activities like crouching, lifting, walking etc and also the problems of activities of daily living like walking, clothing, taking bath and/or going to toilet, preparing medicine and so on. In Bangladesh there is no separate branch or ward or counter for older persons in the public hospitals and no trained nurses or expert doctors are available. That is why the overall health status of the elderly is poor (Rahman, 2004:77).

Addressing the issue of health status and care, Abedin (1999) informed that in old age some of the most common health problems which aged people in Bangladesh faced quite frequently included stomach ache and diarrhoea, followed by asthma, peptic ulcer, blood pressure, diabetes, cardiac, dental and eye problems. He pointed out

that the perception about health problems in terms of the principal chronic diseases did not vary between the male and female within the elderly age cohort. Referring to a survey which reported that a greater proportion of older females reported sickness, or having suffered from one or more diseases (79% females versus 67% males), he opined that there was no conclusive data which showed that women suffered more than men, except perhaps in case of the mortality data.

According to Abedin (1999), the mortality data indicated that the health status of female elderly was reportedly worse than male elderly, which was in fact consistent with their shorter life expectancy. Hence, having adjusted for gender-specific mortality selection, gender differences in health status were still prevalent and significant. Older women had been reported to have suffered relatively poor health compared to older men in each old age group. In addition, pattern of living could also influence the health status of the elderly. Studies indicated that the elderly suffered from tension and anxiety for a variety of socio-psychological reasons including the death of spouse, presence of an unmarried daughter of marriageable age, and increasing tendency of indifference and disobedience towards them by younger generations. Loneliness and worry are serious emotional problems facing the older population, mostly young-olds and elderly women who lived apart from their children or spouse.

In Bangladesh the malnutrition, morbidity and poor reproductive health for the repeated child birth make women older than their age. The pregnancy related anemia could be one of the causes for earlier ageing for women than men. Increased dependency at old age is more challenging for the women than men. In most cases older women have lower asset base or savings than older men. So the older women have little power to bargain for family support from family. The grass root older women are worst victim of ageing process. Economic hardship have becomes deadly for them. No adequate food or treatment even sympathies are fading day by day. They are termed the destitute women in current social and family studies.

The majority of the older people in Bangladesh in both rural and urban areas are deprived of their most basic needs including health care. They also lack access to health care. The primary barriers to

access in rural area includes cost, physical access and poor quality or inappropriate services. In the urban areas the primary barriers identified as cost (Rahman, 2004:76).

Numerous investigation have suggested that social support has a major impact on the health and wellbeing of the elderly but it is clear that the traditional social support system is weakening in Bangladesh .The value associated with the caring of the older persons is deep rooted in the culture and tradition of Bangladesh. But with the on going process of urbanization, industrialization, modernization, poverty and migration, the traditional joint family system is declining with the tendency to form nuclear family with passing time.

7. Welfare Program for the Elderly

The issue of aging population in Bangladesh is a recent phenomenon and the problems of the elderly have only began attraction attention. The older people actually receive health services from the government and private facilities available for the general population. Very few elderly welfare programs are available in Bangladesh. The kinds of on going activities which are available in Bangladesh for the elderly are:

- (a) government programmes including; formal pension scheme, old age pension schemes; schemes under the annual development programme (ADP); poverty alleviation programme under the fifth-five year plan; formation of the National Committee on Ageing.
- (b) non-government initiatives including; the activities of the Probin Hitoishi Sangha (PHS); Elders Rehabilitation Centre, Resource Integration Centre (RIC); Service Centre for Elderly People (SCEP); Elderly Development Initiatives (EDI); Bangladesh Retired Government Employees Welfare Association; Bangladesh Retired Officers Welfare Association, Defense Personnel Welfare Trust.

7.1 Government Programs

Formal pension Scheme: All males and females who retire from the government jobs after the age of 57 years get pension.

There is also a formal program available to the elite retired military personal. Only negligible fraction of the total elderly are accounted for such scheme.

Old age Allowance: Initiated from the year 1998 the welfare project involving in an allowance is awarded to the most elderly and vulnerable fifteen persons from each ward under the unions both male and female of the country will be given 165 taka each per month about 1315000 older people in the country will be benefited from this program.

Under the annual program (ADP) government has planned to establish six centers for the elderly in six division of the country. The main purpose of the scheme is to provide long facility for care protection and leading a normal life of the elderly.

The fifth five year plan envisages alleviation of rural poverty and sets fifteen objectives to attain. The plan recognizes the need for government intervention in the area of human resources development and economic development of the poor.

A national committee on ageing also was formed to identify the problems of the older population.

7.2 Non-government initiatives

a. BAAIGM is the prime non government organization at national level working for the welfare of the older persons in Bangladesh. The organization is presently running the following programs:

- 1) 50 bed geriatric hospital, outdoor programs and pathological services.
- 2) 50 capacity dormitory for the elderly.
- 3) Recreation and library programs.
- 4) Vocational Training and management of revolving funds.
- 5) Research and publication.

b. Elders and children rehabilitation center, a rehabilitation center for the elderly was set up in 1987. At present it is situated in the district of Gazipur. It is more or less a full-fledged old home where destitute older people from any religious faith can live.

c. Resource Integration centre (RIC), One of the goal of RIC is to minimize the sufferings of the destitute, disabled and vulnerable older. They provide community based habitation for the for the

elderly, credit and medical services.

d. Service center for the elderly people (SCEP), a non-government organization in Rajshahi started working for the elderly in 1994 with a slogan 'A care for the generation'. It provides health services and recreational facilities to the older person.

e. Elderly development initiative (EDI) is situated in Manikganj. It is a community based self help organization has some programs for the development of elderly in Manikganj.

f. Bangladesh Retired Government Employees Welfare Association, Dhaka, has been working since 1976 as a registered organization. This organization offers medical services to members and provides welfare services to retired employees and their families.

g. The Bangladesh Retired Police Officers Welfare Association, Dhaka, similarly this organization offers socio economic services to retired police officials and their families.

h. Defense Personal Welfare Trust, Dhaka. This trust provides socio-economic and medical services for the employees of the defense services.

i. Some university also take initiative by expanding education program as Dhaka University and Rajshahi University starts course on Gerontology and Geriatric or Prabin Kalyan (Aged welfare).

However, in view of the above multi-dimensional problems, Abedin (1999) observed that number of organizations actually dedicated to the welfare of the elderly was very limited in Bangladesh. These GO and NGO initiatives can be called as formal support system. There are also informal support systems available in Bangladesh from family, community/society and religion which have important impact on the health and overall well being of the elderly. In the absence of well-developed system for providing social services to the elderly, the elderly must rely on those whom they live in close proximity for economic, social and physical support as their economic productivity and health decline (Domingo and Casterline, 1992).

Ageing issue should be considered with the Bangladeshi scenario in mind. Since the country was subjected to influence by elements of the western culture which infiltrated through the global media, a change in the social structure and attitudes was to be expected as a natural corollary.

8. Conclusion

There is no way but to recognize the reality of older life. The problems are increasing with the increase in the number of older persons in Bangladesh. The majority of older people in Bangladesh cannot meet their most basic needs. Important needs of the elderly are health (health care & drug), shelter, cloth, income, employment or any available resource, Healthy environment, expense of funeral and education. Treatment facilities are insufficient for the aged. They do not have enough money to treat themselves when needed. Some times they specially women hide or delayed treatment and go to health centre in critical condition.

The problem of elderly is not merely medical. It is physical, mental, economical and socio-cultural. So a comprehensive and holistic approach needed to face the problem. Aging problem cannot be minimizing at a glance by any single perception. Formulation and implementation of appropriate policies for the country is very much essential.

Strong steps should be taken to ease the problem of aging. This is a moral, social, humanistic and religious duty of the citizen. The steps include, Create social awareness, Uphold the traditional values, Introduce long term social security, Creation of more health care facilities for the aged, Specialized geriatric hospital and geriatric care unit in the existing hospital should be introduced, Aging issue can be included into the school, college and university curricula so that the younger generation can have enough knowledge about the issue, Resource collection and mobilization from government, donor agencies and affluent society members for sustainability of all sorts of program adopted for the elderly.

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Evaluation of Bangladesh's development triumph in the past decade: A Critical Study on the likely shocks and events impacting on future progress

Segufta Dilshad *

S.S.M. Sadrul Huda **

Kazi Nazmul Huda ***

Introduction:

BANGLADESH raised between 1972 and 2003 its dollar per capita income fourfold, reduced poverty by more than a third, increased life expectancy by more than 40%, and enhanced gross primary enrollment by over 80 per cent during the same period (World Bank, 2005). This remarkable progress is a testimony to the resilience and determination of a dynamic young nation and gives hope that with continued determined effort Bangladeshis can look forward to further gains in respect to development. Bangladesh has experienced both macro-economic stability and robust economic growth following the restoration of a democratically elected government in 1991. In the backdrop of the deep macro-economic crisis of the late 1980s, a series of stabilisation measures were introduced in the Bangladesh economy which largely restored macro-economic stability in the early 1990s. Subsequently, the Bangladesh economy posted an average GDP growth rate of 4.88 per cent (FY91-00) which was one full percentage point higher than that recorded in the previous decade (i.e. 3.84 per cent). Within the decade of the 1990s, the second half demonstrated an even more impressive growth performance (6.0 per cent, FY01-06) in comparison with the first half (5.14 per cent for FY96-00).

The World Bank in its 2004 report has rated Bangladesh's economic performance as follows: "By developing-country standards,

* Research Fellow, Centre for Social Research, Dhaka, Bangladesh.

** Assistant Professor, Department of Business Administration, East West University, Dhaka, Bangladesh.

*** Assistant Professor and Head, School of Business, University of Information Technology & Sciences, Dhaka, Bangladesh.

Bangladesh's growth for the past two decades has been notable. The past decade's boom in exports---with earnings in 2003/04 (of \$7.6 billion) about three times the level of 1991/92---and the success in halving the 1980's average rate of population increase have helped raise the country's per-capita growth ranking to twice the global median for 1991-2000. By that measure, over the past 30 years, Bangladesh has overtaken Pakistan and Nepal and narrowed the gap significantly between its standing and that of India and Sri Lanka." Notwithstanding past progress, Bangladesh is still amongst the poorest countries in the world with only \$400 per capita income. It will take over 40 years of growth at this pace to reach the current per capita income level of Malaysia even though the recent per capita growth of Bangladesh rose from 3.7 per cent to 6.0 per cent. The World Bank estimated that Bangladesh could aspire to become a middle-income nation over the next 15-20 years if per capita growth rate rose by around 5.5 per cent.

Development Trends in BANGLADESH: Past Decade

Development in the Macroeconomic Sector

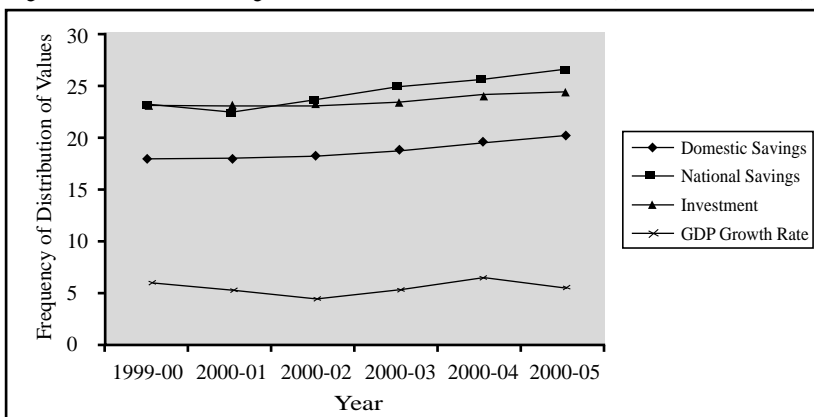
The Bangladesh economy has routinely registered 4 per cent plus growth in the 1990s. Even during the year of devastating floods (FY99), the economy grew by 4.9 per cent. The major challenge in this regard is to sustain the growth path of the economy at a higher level during the next decade. Thus one finds it particularly encouraging, that for the first time in the recent history, the GDP growth rate exceeded the 6 per cent mark in FY05-06. With a population growth rate of about 1.5 per cent, a 6 percent GDP growth implies a per capita income Growth of approximately 4.5 per cent. One observes that, in spite of such impressive growth throughout the decade, the per capita income of Bangladesh at the beginning of the new decade was not only the lowest among the South Asian countries, but also below the average per capita income of the least-developed countries (LDCs).

Table-1 : Growth, Savings and Investment (1999-00 to 2004-05)

Year	Domestic Savings	National Savings	Investment	GDP Growth Rate
1999-00	17.88	23.10	23.02	5.94
2000-01	18.00	22.41	23.09	5.27
2001-02	18.16	23.44	23.15	4.42
2002-03	18.63	24.87	23.41	5.26
2003-04	19.53	25.44	24.02	6.27
2004-05	20.16	26.49	24.43	5.38

Source: Farashuddin M. (2006), *For Sustainable Human Development*, The Daily Star, February 16, 2006,

Fig-1: Line Chart of Savings, Investment and GDP Growth Rate (1999-00 to 2004-05)



Source: Based on data Published by Farashuddin M. (2006), *For Sustainable Human Development*, the Daily Star, February 16, 2006, compiled by Author

Bangladesh has one of the lowest domestic savings rates among the developing countries in general and South Asian countries in particular. Gross domestic savings as a percentage of GDP increased to 18.76 per cent in FY01 from 17.88 per cent of the preceding year. It may be noted that the country's relatively higher level of national savings rate (23.78 per cent in FY01) is sustained by foreign remittances by the migrant workers. This is not be a conceptually sound way of estimating savings since a part of the remittances may end up in underwriting current consumption by the recipient's family or expenditure in consumer durables-neither of

which would relate to investment. This suggests that our estimate of gross national savings may be overstated.

Gross investment as a share of GDP reached 23.63 per cent in FYOI, recording an annual growth of about 2.6 percent. In FYOI more than 66 per cent of the gross investment originated in the private sector, whilst the balance came from the public sector. However, time series data shows that a virtual stagnation is prevailing in the rate of private investment as it is hovering at little above 15 per cent of GDP during the last few years. It is obvious that without the sustained increase of the public investment rate during the Corresponding period, the gross investment scenario would have been much more depressing. According to Farashuddin (2006), for sustainable human development, the capital: output ratio of Bangladesh proved that a 5.27 percent growth in the year 2000-01, investment was 23.09 percent implying that on an average 4.3 units of investment generate one additional unit of GDP. That will mean that for an annual sustainable growth of 8 to 10 percent of GDP, we must generate 33 to 41 percent of GDP as investment.

Development in the Fiscal Sector

Revenue

Revenue mobilization by the government continues to be the soft under belly of Bangladesh's public finances. Though the share of revenue in GDP has increased from 7.08 per cent in FY91 to 9.37 per cent in FY01, nonetheless one observes a plateau of the revenue GDP ratio since the mid-1990s. Thus revenue receipts in Bangladesh, as a share of GDP, remains low, even by LDC standards.

Public expenditure management

Generally, economic management in Bangladesh has been sound over the last decade. Bangladesh achieved decent rates of growth, a steady reduction in poverty incidence, relatively low inflation, and a fairly stable domestic debt, interest, and exchange rates. Allocation of public expenditures of Bangladesh in broad categories -- such as interest payments, education, health, agriculture, transport, public order and safety, and others -- is much better than in India, Pakistan and Sri Lanka. Each of these countries spends over 6.0 per cent of the GDP on interest payments. Defence spending in Bangladesh is also much low at 1.3 per cent of the GDP. India, Pakistan and Sri

Lanka spend 2.4, 4.5 and 4.9 per cent respectively of their GDPs on defence (World Bank, 2005). The role of Bangladesh's defence forces in international peace keeping is a source of significant foreign exchange earning.

One notable feature in public expenditure of the government has been the shift of spending from agriculture and industries to the social sectors. Total expenditures on education, health, the social safety net and disaster management are currently about one third of total budgetary expenditures. Outcomes in the social sectors have been good and much better than in the physical infrastructure areas. Bangladesh's budgetary expenditures have not been characterized by high share of interest payment. Bangladesh has avoided excessive reliance on domestic and foreign borrowing, unlike its neighbours. Debt servicing has increased significantly, reflecting the increasing cost of domestic borrowing through nationalised commercial banks and foreign suppliers' credit. The GOB spends the equivalent of less than one per cent of the GDP on the safety net programmes.

However, the ratio of expenditures on safety net programmes as percentage of the GDP and public expenditures has been declining. While expenditure on social sectors has remained fairly constant since the mid-1990s -- in the range of 3.5 to 4.0 per cent annually, safety net expenditures now make up less than 20 per cent of all social sector expenditures, down from 30 per cent in the late 1990s -- indicating a crowding out of social assistance. Safety net programmes roughly cover below 10 per cent of poor individuals and are administered by a large number of agencies. Benefit incidence analysis of the safety net programmes reveals that these programmes are essentially the pro-poor. For example, Food for Work Programme created about 75,000,000 hours of works in rural areas, vulnerable group development programme assisted about 480,000 households by providing food to the poor, national nutrition programme helped significant reductions in poverty, improved in school enrolment, particularly of girls and in raising the marriage age (World Bank 2006).

Another World Bank (2005) study shows that the overall system of public expenditures on education and health is strongly pro-poor. For example, primary education (40 per cent of all current educational spending) is strongly pro-poor. The share of the poor people in all

public health expenditures has been increasing and currently it is estimated to 45 per cent. The essential service package (ESP) allocations to "Child Health" are the most equitable and strongly pro-poor. There are some weaknesses in Bangladesh's public expenditures programme. Low effectiveness of capital spending, inadequate attention to operations and maintenance, inappropriate employment and pay policies, and the existence of fairly large subsidiaries, etc., are the most important factors that affect sound economic management. The weak expenditure management combined with other institutional weaknesses, has compromised the quality of public services. The most glaring examples of poor public service delivery are the deteriorating law and order situation; the high perception of corruption and citizen's dissatisfaction with services; and an inefficient bureaucracy that still maintains highly tight controls over critical business processes.

Moreover, the Annual Development Programme (ADP) includes many projects that are questionable. Questionable projects regularly find their way into the ADP mainly because of the weaknesses in the system of project management. For example, the ADP expenditures under Roads and Highways Department include about 800 sub-projects with annual ADP allocations of about 2.0 to 3.0 per cent of their project costs, implying that it would take 30 to 50 years to complete these projects (World Bank, 2005). Another area of weak public expenditure management is the large hidden subsidies and growing contingent liabilities, which are not reflected in the budget. Direct subsidy currently amount to less than 0.5 per cent of the GDP and is given on school textbooks, fertiliser distribution and several non-traditional export items. Indirect subsidy is estimated at 2.6 per cent of the GDP and is given on gas and electricity prices. Large contingent liabilities have accumulated on account of state-owned enterprises.

Development in the Monetary Sector

During the last five years (FY97-FY01) the rate of domestic credit expansion was the highest in~ FY01. This marks a departure from the moderately expansionary policy which the government had been pursuing in the recent past. The total domestic credit available for FY01 was Tk 841.08 billion which was 17.65 per cent more than that of the matching figure for FY00 (FY97-FY01).

The size of Bangladesh's public debt although still manageable is rapidly increasing. From a level of less than 2 per cent of GDP outstanding loans from the banking sector to the government reached 7 per cent in FY41, This 7 per cent of the GDP is an underestimate, as it does not take into account the non-banking borrowing by the government as well as its contingent liabilities. This rise in the public debt has resulted from high and sustained borrowing by the governance sector in the face of an increasing public expenditure portfolio coupled with inadequate revenue collection as well as a poor record of aid utilization.

The extraordinary agricultural credit expansion of Tk. 30.19 billion during the flood year (FY99) amounting to a net flow of Tk 11.03 billion to the agricultural sector, extended crucial support to the harvesting of a record boro crop in that years. This marked a departure from the recent historic trend where there has recently been little net inflow, if not net outflow of credit to the farmers following debt recovery. This reflected the creditable debt servicing record of Bangladesh's farmers as well as the sound management of the agricultural credit strategy. The total sanctioned amount increased from Tk. 25.25 billion in FY00 to Tk. 37.71 billion in FY01 recording a growth of about 50 per cent. On the other hand, during the same period, the disbursed amount almost doubled, from Tk. 16.27 billion to Tk. 30.57 billion.

The country has experienced a low rate of inflation throughout the 1990s. Even during the flood year (FY99) the national inflation rate did not climb to double digit level. The national inflation rate (moving average) for the period of FY01 was 1.58 per cent, while the inflation rates for the aforementioned period for the urban and rural areas were 1.75 per cent and 1.53 per cent respectively. In contrast, the non-food price level, after the drop in the post-flood year (FY00), has experienced a rise in both urban and rural areas.

Development in the Real Sector

Bangladesh's economy has received excellent support from the agricultural sector during the second half of the 1990s. After the devastating shock imparted by the 1998 floods, the sect bounced back sharply and has maintained an outstanding growth performance through consecutive record harvest of food grains. Weather conditions contributed to this performance. But food grain output in FY01 was also boosted by an adequate supply of key agricultural

inputs such as fertilizer, diesel, and seeds provided at relatively at stable prices. These not only led to a degree of self-sufficiency in the food grain supplies, but may also have gained a surplus. The agriculture sector continued to perform well in FY01 and achieved an annual growth rate of 5.04 per cent. However, the rate of overall growth in agriculture in FY01 was lower than the previous year (7.38 per cent). The fisheries sub-sector achieved highest growth (8.40 per cent) followed by forest (5.07 per cent), crops (4.10 per cent) and livestock (2.80 per cent).

Growing at 9.10 per cent the manufacturing sector demonstrated strong signs of recovery in FY01 following the depressive impact of the floods in FY99. The signs of recovery were visible in the large and medium scale industries as Nvell as in small industries as the former grew by 9.75 per cent and the latter by 7.46 per cent during the period. Despite infrastructure constraints, the garment industry performed well in coping with the MFA phase-out and continued to thrive in the competitive global market. However, this commendable success can be reversed if social compliance issues, including labor unrest, are not addressed. Recently the garment workers in Dhaka Export Processing Zone at Savar resorted to widespread protests and violence, and damaged several factories. They complained low wage rates and poor working conditions. The labor unrest needs to be resolved dispassionately for the best interest of the three parties concerned: workers, employers and the Government.

Export-led Growth and Decline in Aid Dependence

Growth of export during FY2001 was 12.4 per cent which was considerably higher than the 8.3 per cent realized in the previous fiscal and matched the growth rate trends of the 1990s which were around 12 per cent. As a matter of fact, export earnings increased from US\$5752 million in FY2000 to US\$6467.8 million in FY2001. Export of primary commodities, however, decelerated in FY2001 and their growth rate stood at 3.6 per cent compared to about 11.1 per cent in FY2000. The growth rate of manufactured exports accelerated in FY2001 to reach 13.2 per cent compared to the corresponding growth rate of 8.0 per cent in FY2000. The robust export sector performance, however, hinged on the relatively better performance of woven RMG, Bangladesh's dominant export item, accounting for more than half of our total exports. Export growth of woven-RMG was 9.1 per cent in FY2001 compared to 3.3 per cent in

Actual imports registered a growth of about 21.9 per cent during the first eleven months of FY2001 compared to the corresponding period of the previous fiscal year. In the area consumer goods, imports of food grains increased by 5.6 per cent in FY2001, whilst milk and dairy products increased by about 12.0 per cent. Imports of both edible oil and seeds showed significant decline, a trend which perhaps needs further investigation. On the other hand, imports of production related good such as iron and steel (22.9 per cent), capital goods (32.3 per cent) and imports into EPZ (17.5 per cent) showed a robust positive trend. However, if the first half import figures of FY2001, compared with the second half, or the last quarter import figures of FY2001 are compared with the figures for the corresponding period of FY2000, the early signs of slowing down of the economy by the end of FY2001 become quite evident.

The country's FDI flow has more than doubled in just four years from \$328 million to \$ 800m, and over the last five years our industrial growth including manufacturing growth has also doubled from 4.92% to 8.6% and exports have had a boom rising from \$5.3 billion to \$8.6b defying all constraints and fears at the expiration of the Multi-fibre Agreements.

Table-2 : Rate of Foreign Currency (1995-96 to 2004-05)

Year	Outstanding Foreign Debt (Official)	Disbursement During the Year				Repayment During the Year	DSR (Debt Service Ratio)
		Project Aid	Commodity Aid	Food Aid	Total		
2005	18577	1437	22	32	1491	640	7.5
2004	17953	1002	-----	32	1034	562	7.5
2003	16953	1362	175	48	1585	608	9.4
2002	15885	1251	155	36	1442	586	9.9
2001	14902	1134	184	51	1369	570	8.8
2000	15791	1150	283	142	1575	548	9.5
1999	15338	1035	262	177	1474	481	
1998	14813	1033	187	99	1319	445	
1997	14373	1117	263	101	1481	443	
1996	15550	1077	229	138	1444	469	

Source: *Annual Report of Bangladesh Bank (1995-96 to 2004-05), Compiled by Farashuddin M. (2006).*

The "Net Aid Inflow" was generally declining during the nineties (Farashuddin M., 2006); the "Growth rate of GDP" as well as "Gini Index of Inequality" was more or less showing a positive trend of increase. During 1990-96, average net aid flow per year was 1232 million dollar. But during the period the GDP growth rate on average was only 4.22 percent. On the other hand, during the year 1996-2002 the average net aid flow per year down to only 903.27 million dollar i.e. 27 percent less but at the same time the average growth rate had increased to the level of 5.32 percent, which is 26 percent higher. The "Gini Index" for consumption inequality for both rural and urban area also increased by 16 and 19 percent respectively during the 1991-2001 periods. Another indicator, HDI, had also consistently moved upward despite the generally falling net aid flow. From other relevant indicators, it is observed that HDI improved at a faster rate, especially in the second half of the 1990s, when the annual net aid flow was shrinking at a faster rate. Thus, over the past decade Bangladesh has succeeded to sharply reduce its dependence on foreign assistance and has replaced aid with trade as the engine of economic growth and development. Foreign aid has fallen to only 1.5% of our GDP.

Moreover, one may note that Bangladesh has never defaulted in its debt repayment, servicing its debt fully from its foreign exchange earnings. Bangladesh receives now almost \$4 billion in remittances with a higher per capita remittance compared to India and China which have nine or ten times the population of Bangladesh. Expatriate Bangladeshis have reached all corners of the world and have earned a reputation as hardworking, talented and dependable. The World Bank Global Economic Prospects Report says this remittance inflow has helped cut poverty by six percent in Bangladesh and given a boost to the rural economy as almost all migrant workers hail from rural Bangladesh.

Development in the Social Sector: Millennium Development Goals

Bangladesh is the only country in South Asia to have already attained three of the eight UN Millennium Development Goals to be met by 2015. It has by this year secured the goals of attaining universal primary school enrolment, eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary schooling and ensuring access to safe drinking water for its entire population. Bangladesh has the highest health and

education sector spending as percentage of GDP in South Asia and the lowest defense expenditure. Bangladesh is also well on track to achieving some other MDGs including in the health sector. Bangladesh is the first and only country to have fully eradicated polio and secured the highest child immunization percentile in South Asia with 83% compared to the South Asian average of 66%, surprisingly even higher than the United States. Within the past decade, Bangladesh has halved infant and under five child mortality at the fastest possible reduction rate at more than 5% a year among all developing countries of the world. Bangladesh also has the lowest maternal mortality rate in South Asia and has dropped malnutrition among mothers from 52% in 1996 to 42% in 2002.

Table-3 : Social Development Indicators in Bangladesh -- 1991 to 2001

Indicator	Unit	1991	1996	2001
1. Annual GDP Growth	%	3.38	4.62	6.04
2. Per Capita GDP	US\$	277	334	369
3. Total Export million	US\$	1,718	3,884	6,467
4. Population Growth	%	2,17	-	1,42
5. Adult Literacy Rate (15 years & above)	%	35.32	47.3%	64%
6. Infant Mortality at Birth	Per'000live births	92	67	51
7. Life Expectancy at Birth	Year	56.10	58.90	61.80
8. Access to Safe Water	%	-	831	97.9
9. Primary Enrolment Rate	%	76	85	95
10. Social Sectors' Share in ADP Allocation	%	6.34	23.4	24.8

Sources: *Bangladesh Economic Review (BER) 2001*, Ministry of Finance, GOB & Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics.

¹ Data for 1995. Source: HDC 1998

² Data for 1994. Source: HDC1998

³ Data for 2000. Source: BER 2001

⁴ Data for 1992. Source: BER 2001

Evading the pitfall of population control by coercive measures, Bangladesh, with the second largest Muslim population in the world, has achieved the fastest decrease in fertility rates in recorded history from 6.3 in percent 1975 to 1.42 % in 2001 by persuasive means.

Life expectancy of women in Bangladesh has overtaken that of men and is currently the highest in South Asia. Bangladesh has outstanding accomplishment in reducing child labor since the 90s. According to UNICEF, the percentage of child labor in Africa is the highest while in South Asia; Bangladesh has one of the lowest percentages (7%) with India (13%), Pakistan and Nepal trailing behind.

The incidence of poverty has been brought down from over 70 % poor in 1971 to less than 42% in 2004. Measured by the UN Human Development Indicator, in 2005 Bangladesh came out third in the developing world, right after China and Cape Verde, graduating from a low to a middle HDI country. With double the population of the 1970s and an extremely unfavorable land-man ratio, the country has attained near 100% food security for its 144 million people. Apart from being a social development leader, Bangladesh has given the world some innovations and skills to replicate: it is remembered for presenting the world with oral saline, the cheapest means to combat diarrhea and dehydration, now being replicated in many African and Asian countries. It has global respect for being the birthplace of micro credit. Micro credit is being studied in academic institutions, discussed in global conferences and actively duplicated in many countries of the world, rich and poor, as an effective tool for employment generation and poverty alleviation.

Bangladesh has also earned global accolade for setting up an efficient disaster management system without extensive external assistance. This innovative home-grown indigenous method of disaster preparedness and mitigation network has recently received the endorsement of experts who have publicly suggested that tsunami affected countries as also the US, after the Katrina experience, should learn from Bangladesh in disaster preparedness and management. In summarizing Bangladesh's social successes, the UNDP comment could noted: "Over the past decade Bangladesh has been a leading light in improving human development and should seek to lead the way for other countries as the world looks to achieving the Millennium Development Goals." It added, "Bangladesh demonstrated it is possible not only to sustain strong human development across the broad front even at relatively modest levels of income growth but also to graduate into the medium

developed countries category in the Human Development Index." Definitely no mean achievement for a small country which began its journey confronting huge burdens.

Shocks and Events: Challenges Ahead

The confrontational politics

Strictly speaking, the confrontation politics of Bangladesh would be the premier challenge for our future development. Politics is an instrument of power, which can be used by different social groups to realize their own sectional ends. However, politics overrides our national life today to an extent where politicians as a distinct category, have impinged themselves on the national imagination as a source of many of our national problems. The most significant feature associated with our contemporary politicians is their progressive disconnection with politics. The principal divide between the two major political parties in Bangladesh, the Bangladesh Nationalist Party (BNP) and the Awami League (AL), is largely grounded in history rather than contemporary political agendas. However, this historical divide in our political consciousness has little to do with how our political parties deal with contemporary issues of economic policy, human rights or even our external relations.

Global challenges for exports and backward linkage

Bangladesh needs to have in place adequate backward linkages in textiles to support the export-oriented RMG sector. The market for apparels is hugely diversified and there will be a need to identify the niches where Bangladesh obtains maximum return for her efforts in this area. The government is examining the viability of setting up central bonded warehouses in the private sector to curtail the lead time for export of RMG, and considering whether to accept EU's offer to provide a SAARC Regional Cumulation facility. However, a note of caution is perhaps called for here: any decision as regards central bonded ware houses and regional accumulation must take into cognizance the interests of the backward linkage textile sector of Bangladesh and should be made through the process that ensures effective participation by all important stakeholders.

The regional trade

Regional cooperation in the area of trade and investment continues to remain under exploited in South Asia, both within the ambit of the SAARC, as also under the purview of sub-regional and bilateral initiatives. About half of Bangladesh's trade deficit originates in trade with India. Whilst there are valid economic reasons as to why trade intensity between neighboring countries should be high, the one-sidedness of this trade and Bangladesh's inability to penetrate the huge Indian market in any substantive way has been a cause of major concern for Bangladesh in recent times.

The business community vis-à-vis the bureaucracy

The dominance of material concerns in the conduct of politics suggests that the business community should have emerged as the dominant social and political power in the country. It may, thus, have been expected that Bangladesh would today have evolved into a classical capitalist state. In such a state, the politicians, bureaucracy and law enforcement agencies may be expected to function as instruments of the business community whilst politics itself has been reduced to a form of business by other means. As in the case of the business sector, the bureaucracy has remained divided and dependent on politicians. Unlike the period of Pakistan rule where the CSP served as unchallenged elite in the bureaucratic hierarchy, which enabled them to serve as an integral part of Pakistan's ruling class, today no such cadre enjoys remotely commensurate authority within the Bangladesh bureaucracy. This could be a real challenge for future political governments to ensure good governance commensurating to the public expectations.

The changing aid regime and need for new economic policy

Aid commitments to Bangladesh have been stagnant and have declined in real as well as relative terms through the 1990s. Aid flows have been completely cut off to the manufacturing sector and more recently to particular sectors of the infrastructure, traditionally supported by project aid, such as energy generation, roads, and telecommunications. Bangladesh is being pushed by donors to access Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) to finance investment in the above sectors. It is likely that Bangladesh may even have to depend on FDI to fund the construction of national highways and bridges. Thus, Bangladesh will need to reformulate the national economic policy

conforming to the changing aid regime with the comparative economic disadvantages because of certain globalization policies.

Emergence of environment issues in the context of globalization

Trade liberalization has reduced opportunities for agricultural protection. International competition for markets and jobs has forced many governments to reduce taxation, and weakened environmental protections. The challenges posed by increased international trade on environment of a country are that it may cause environmental degradation and deplete natural resources. Weak managerial capabilities of the government to implement and monitor environmental degradation or resource depletion may lead to unsustainable use of resources. In fact, to deal with these two failures is the challenge the governments facing globalization and its potential environmental impacts. Bangladesh will be no exception. Bangladesh will also face some challenges with global climate change (Ahmed, S., 2005). Bangladesh is likely to countenance an enormous natural disaster as one third of the country is projected to go under water with sea level rise in the next few decades. Other challenges include environmental threats such as arsenic contamination of water, and unresolved issues relating to just sharing of the waters of international rivers.

Garment labor Unrest

Despite infrastructure constraints, the garment industry performed well in coping with the MFA phase-out and continued to thrive in the competitive global market. However, this commendable success can be reversed if social compliance issues, including labor unrest, are not addressed. Recently the garment workers in Dhaka Export Processing Zone at Savar resorted to widespread protests and violence, and damaged several factories. They complained low wage rates and poor working conditions. The labor unrest needs to be resolved dispassionately for the best interest of the three parties concerned: workers, employers and the Government.

Downside Risks

Bangladesh faces several near-to medium-term downside risks. These include: the ability to sustain growth in the thriving garment sector, Infrastructure constraints, including the power shortage, under pricing of the energy products and political uncertainty as the country enters election cycle.

Subsidy for Fuel and Under-performance in energy generation

In FY 2006, prudent fiscal management kept the budget deficit and domestic borrowing to sustainable levels while revenue increased modestly. However, the continued huge implicit subsidy on petroleum products poses risks to fiscal management. But the sustained under-production of electricity will be posing increasing pressure on the stability of macro-economic growth as the impact of a growing energy crisis might hit the economy.

Inflationary Pressure

On a point-to-point basis, inflation increased to 7.6% in may 2006. Inflationary pressures heightened due to high money and credit growth. In addition rising report prices due to depreciation of the Taka, and increase in international prices, including the partial adjustment in domestic fuel prices, amplified price pressures.

Capital market: Depressed

An overall downward trend prevailed in the stock market mainly due to the rise in interest rate. Dhaka Stock Exchange general index declined. Market capitalization also dropped and at the end of June 2006 was only US \$ 3.2 billion or 5.2% of the GDP.

International Unrest

Recent Israeli attack on Lebanon, Iraq issue, the emergence of Al Quaida put a tremendous impact on the labor forces of Bangladesh. There are allegations on Bangladesh giving shelter to JMB that do have link with Al Quaeida. As a result image of Bangladesh has been tarnished. Bangladeshi labor suffers a lot from such implications around the world.

Human resources development including health

Bangladesh faces tremendous human resource challenges (Sachs et al, 2003). It has been estimated that the combined number of teachers for both primary and secondary schools will need to be increased from 350,000 in 2005 to 815,000 in 2015. Similarly, the demand for doctors will nearly double to 58,000 while the number of nurses and midwives has to be increased by a factor of four from 33,000 to 145,000. The key cost drivers in per capita terms are the health sector followed closely by energy and roads. The investment need in the energy sector is high due to low existing generation capacity.

Overall, though, per capita needs in Bangladesh tend to be lower than in the other four countries. In addition to the gaps in analysis listed above, it has so far not been possible to include interventions for preventing and treating arsenic poisoning in our analysis. This is possibly the single largest health challenge faced by the country and will require important resources - particularly in the health and water sectors. However, at this point no consensus exists on how best to address the problem, so assessing the corresponding investment needs remains a challenge.

Conclusions

Bangladesh's geo-strategic location between South and South-east Asia, its abundant human resource of hardworking, women-led semi-skilled and skilled labour force, and the country's proven energy resources and reserves including high quality natural gas and coal, all have given it an economic competitive edge over many other countries. According to the 2005 Survey of Investment-Related Cost Comparison in Major Cities and Regions in Asia by the Japan External Trade Organization, Bangladesh is the most competitive foreign direct investment destination in Asia in terms of lowest worker wage, lowest cost of utilities and business, both in industrial and services sectors. Goldman Sachs has recently rated Bangladesh as one of the eleven countries that are most likely to emerge as economic successes in the next phase of development and therefore a most desirable investment destination.

Despite the challenges stated above, the international community has placed a new focus and optimism on Bangladesh's economic and demographic potential and its geo-political importance. The people of Bangladesh of course always believed in their own ability and hence also share this enthusiasm and optimism. This century, as everyone claims, is going to be Asia's century of growth and development and we could be optimistic saying that Bangladesh will remain very visible in that picture.

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Artisanal Fisheries Status and Sustainable Management Options in Teknaf Coast, Bangladesh

M. Shah Nawaz Chowdhury *

M. Shahadat Hossain **

Prabal Barua ***

Abstract

The study was an endeavor to bring forward a concise, factual description of the salient features of the present status of artisanal fisheries resources and its management for sustainable development of fishing communities in Teknaf coast, Cox's Bazar, Bangladesh. A total of 37 focused group discussions (FGD) were carried-out among the local community of 14 fishing villages of 4 unions where more than 600 people were participated. Moreover, 32 Key Informants interviews (KI) were conducted with various administrative and sectoral officials in Teknaf Upazila. As a hub of various fisheries deeds, a comprehensive coastal fisheries census, conducted on the coast during the study period, revealed that about 566 fishing fleet of two types, 1263 fishing gears of seven kinds, 6466 fishermen were being involved in fishing at Teknaf coast. The catch composition of the coastal fishing was found 52 finfish species, 10 shrimp and 3 crabs. The unique potentialities provided by mostly affluent fisheries resources are needed to be tapped and channelized in the appropriate direction for maintaining a paragon of these fisheries resources of coastal area and for pursuing ecologically sustainable development via environment friendly intrinsic exploration and exploitation. "Community Based Fisheries Co-management" program should initiate immediately for the fisherman community of Teknaf coastal region. This will go along way to help sustain the coastal fisheries resources with active participation of the fishermen.

* Research Associate, Coastal and Ocean Research Group of Bangladesh Institute of Marine Sciences and Fisheries, University of Chittagong, Chittagong, Bangladesh. E-mail: snawaz11@yahoo.com

** Assistant Professor, Institute of Marine Sciences and Fisheries, University of Chittagong Chittagong, Bangladesh. E-mail: hossainims@yahoo.com

*** Associate Program Officer, Young Power in Social Action, Chittagong. E-mail: prabalims@gmail.com

1. Introduction

Bangladesh is endowed with vast inland water resources in the form of rivers, flood-plains, pond, etc., and marine water, the Bay of Bengal, having great fisheries potential. Teknaf Upazila belong to exposed coast with over 75 km. long coastline, is bounded by hilly area and Ukhia Upazila on the north, Naaf river and Myanmar on the east and the Bay of Bengal in the south and west (Banglapedia, 2004). The marine water of the Bay of Bengal is nutrient rich providing a suitable habitat for fish production. Marine fisheries sector contributes around 22% (2004-2005) of the total fish catch production of the country. Out of these, the small scale or artisanal fishery intakes major share which is about 95% of the total marine production while the rest 5% is contributed by the industrial fishery (Rahman, 1999). Marine fisheries provide full time employment to over 0.51 million people and part time employment to 2.53 million fishermen. Usually three types of gears such as gill nets, set bag nets and long lines are widely used in artisanal fishery and number of artisanal mechanized fishing boat registered till 2002 total 22,527 and that of artisanal non-mechanized boats at 21,4333 (Alam, 2004).

Blessed with a warm tropical climate and high rainfall, the coastal waters are enriched with nutrients from the land, which enable them to support a wide biological diversity, while the artisanal fisheries have provided a livelihood for coastal communities since earliest history (Hossain, 2001). The marine fisheries sector with huge artisanal motorized and non-motorized units, a large number of near shore fishing units, several related infrastructure facilities and landings shows that artisanal fisheries sector of Teknaf coast has grown considerably over the period and playing a very important role in the local economy, employment generation, foreign exchange earnings, food security and livelihood of the local community. So, it is essential to identify and evaluate marine fishery resources with mode of utilization, which will sustainable developments and improve the livelihood condition of concern stakeholders in Teknaf.

2. Materials and Methods

Teknaf is situated in the southeastern extremity of Bangladesh along with southwestern coast of the Bay of Bengal. The geographical location of the study area is in between latitude 21010¢ N and 20040¢ N and longitude 92005¢ E and 92025¢ E (Figure-1). Teknaf

Upazila consists of 6 unions' viz., Whykong, Nhila, Teknaf Sadar, Subrang, Baharchara and Saint Martin's Island. But this study was conducted through 14 fishing villages of 4 Unions (Nhila, Teknaf Sadar, Subrang, Baharchara) which shows individual characteristics in nature. Naaf estuary is the central river for Teknaf and fishing communities are fully depends on their livelihood by catching fishes from this river.

Rapid Participatory Rural Appraisal (RRA/PRA) was used applying observation and community level group meeting with six different stakeholders groups, including fishers, fish processors, fish dryers, fish traders, local administrator and government officials. A total of 37 focused group discussions (FGD) were carried-out among the local community where more than 600 people were participated. Moreover, 32 Key Informants interviews (KI) were conducted with various administrative and sectoral officials viz., faculty member of the Institute of Marine Sciences and Fisheries, Consultants of the Empowerment of the Coastal Fishing Communities for their Livelihood Security Project (ECFC) (GoB/FAO/UNDP: BGD/97/017) and Fisheries Biologists of Coastal and Wet Land Biodiversity Management Project (CWBMP) (UNDP/BGD/99/G31), Marine Fishery Survey and Management Units, District Fisheries Officer of Cox's Bazar, Teknaf Upazila Fisheries Officer, Upazila Nerbahi Officer, District Coastal Forest Officer, Meteorology Department (Cox's Bazar and Teknaf), Representatives of the Fish Traders Association, Fishermen Associations and different local NGOs with semi-structured questionnaire and checklist. Observations were recorded as drawing and notes. Craft and gear based fisheries data were collected from direct observation through 13 local fish landing stations. Catch composition and species identification was done by the local fishermen and also by analyzing taken sample in laboratory. Old record, topographic maps, annual reports and documents of relevant agencies, management history and other information were collected from literature, government officials and local people.

3. Results

Fundamentally, local communities in Teknaf coast are dependent on fisheries and coastal resources. Fisheries are considered open-access resources in early times when population pressure and use patterns

were minimal and subsistent. The resources were abundant and open to all who are capable of fishing. The estuarine and marine capture fisheries activities of the Teknaf Upazila are mainly based on artisanal fishing. About 6466 fishermen are involved in fishing at selected 14 villages in Teknaf coast. Their fishing zone also varies with depth, types of crafts and availability of fish. In Teknaf, artisanal fishing include a number of different types of fishing gears and crafts which are mostly traditional. At present, 158 non-motorized (28%) and 408 motorized (72%) boats are operating in coastal artisanal fishing activities at study areas. Some of the gears are operated by motorized boats but mostly with country boats, some are even operated without any boat. The gear types include different types of gillnet (31.96%), estuarine set bag nets (6.78%), beach seine (4.68%), bottom long line (3.66%), trammel net (0.15%), drift net (14.80%). Current net (37.96%) and many other scattered throughout the Teknaf coast and Naaf estuary which were showed by the Table 1.

3.1 Catch Composition

The catch composition of the coastal fishing of Teknaf coast was found 52 finfish species (table 3) with highly abundant *Escualosa thoracata* (7%), *Harpadon nehereus* (5.3%), *Arius sp.* (4.1%), *Leigonthus sp.* (3.7%), *Johnius argenteus* (3.3%), *Cynoglossus sp*(3.9%), where the least available species were *Mene maculate* (0.03%), *Nemipterus japonicus* (0.02%), *Priacanthus sp* (0.02%), *Rachycentron canadus* (0.01%). Among the penaeid shrimps, 10 species were identified as available (table- 4) of which *Penaeus monodon* was found as the most valuable and main target species to the fisherman due market demand as high valued commodity. But brown shrimps were found as the highest contribution in the total catch, which is about 70%.

3.2 Handling and Processing

In Teknaf, traditional craft engaged in day fishing do not carry ice on board for preservation of the catch. There is no processing plant in Teknaf. After landing, fish is transported to the market by head load basket, hand carts etc. about 15% of the catch is sun dried, salted and cured, and the rest is consumed in the fresh form. Air bladders of Indian salmon, pike-conger, creeker and shark fins are sun dried for export. Fish drying is carried out in some selected areas in Teknaf

mainly, Teknaf Sadar (Moheskhalia para), Shaparir Dip and few other areas of Subrang Union. Fish drying is done by traditional method, where as field level experiments on solar drying of fish using solar tunnel driers is carried on.

3.3 Distribution and Marketing

In Teknaf, fishermen village wise fish landing centre has established where fishermen sell their catch to fish traders locally called "Phoske" who carried these fishes to local market for local consumer. Almost 75% of the landed fish in marketed fresh; about 10% is transported as fresh fish with ice and marketed; 15% is sun dried on bamboo or other racks. When the catch is good, sun drying becomes important, particularly for small fish. Fishermen sell their fish either by count or by weight. Teknaf bazar, Subrang bazar and Shaporir Dip bazar are the major fish market where fish traders sell their fish. Traditionally, most fish is sold whole, but larger fish is cut into pieces before sole in fresh/ iced condition. Part of the fish is also sold in frozen condition packed in polyethylene. Generally consumers prefer fresh and whole fish. The most highly priced fish is silver pomfret (*Pampus argenteus*) followed by Chinese pomfret (*Pampus chinensis*), lakhua (*Polynemus indicus*), hilsha (*Hilsha ilisha*), threadfin (*Eleutheronmea tetradactylum*), vetki (*Lates calcarifer*). Next in the category of valued fishes are the black pomfret (*Parastromateus niger*), croakers (*Johnius argentatus*; *Otolithes cuvieri* etc.) and cat fish (*Arius* sp.).

3.4 Socioeconomic Condition

There are 3336 households of 21060 populations of which 66% of household heads directly depends on artisanal fishery activities such as fisher (57%), fish traders (4%), net menders (3%), boat makers (1.5%), wild fry collection (0.5%) in the study area (Table-2). So, fishing is dominant and most of the household members are as labour in boats in Teknaf. Within the fishing communities, there are two distinct group; those who own boats and fishing gears and those who work only as fishing crew. Generally fishermen earn their primary yearly income as fish labourers, majhi and bohoddar. A bohoddar is a skilled fisherman who organized large crews for fishing expeditions. In most case bohoddar owns a significant proportion of the required inputs and may hire or share the remaining inputs with other resource

owners. A majhi is a head fisherman, who has experience in the sea and heads a team of seven or eight fish labourers. He usually the most experienced crew member and is often responsible for the entire fish catching operation. A fish labour works as crew member and who earns either a fixed wage for the entire dry season or a range plus a share of the catch. The demand for hired or contracted labour in boats on trips for fishing creates employment opportunities for the poor fishing communities. The highly disorganized labour are often at the mercy of boat owners/money landers and the contracted amount vary widely depending on the level of expertise of the hired labour, his negotiating ability, season of the trip etc. The most common practice is for a boat and gear owner to pay an agreed percentage of the value of catch after covering operation cost (i.e., the cost of fuel, food for crew etc.). The sharing arrangement varies from area to area, on the type of fishery and between periods in fishing seasons. The most common practice is for the boat and gear owner to take 50% of the value of catch after covering operation cost, and for the crew to share the remaining 50%. The entitlement of each income varies from 15,000-40,000Tk.

Half of the total population belongs to the age groups 15-55 years. Most of the people are Muslim (about 99%). The average literacy rate in Teknaf is 21.9%, where men show larger proportion (28.16%) of literacy than that of women (15.65%) (Banglapedia, 2004). Most of the homesteads are owned by male. Health infrastructure in terms of population-hospital bed ration is relatively poor in the Teknaf i.e., one hospital bed per 6500 persons. A good road network has not been developed in Teknaf specially in fishing villages. By the physical observation in fishing villages, majority of the dwelling house made of combinations of materials like C.I Sheet, bamboo made wall etc. rank second highest. Golpata is the dominant roofing materials of dwelling house where there are a lower percentage of houses with walls made of durable materials like brick and cement. It is observed that most of the people of study areas don't have balance diet and also sometimes food scarcity has occurred. Status of women in the coastal fishing community is at the lowest rung of social ladder. About 40% of the total household maintains linkage with NGOs and VOs.

Households of Teknaf fishing villages adopt a wide range of strategies to cope with crisis. Choice of a certain strategy depends on

its availability and access of households to such a strategy. The main coping strategy of poor households is borrowing from different sources (neighbor, local rich people, NGOs etc), sale their land and other assets, and rarely using up saving. Among these credit is critical resource, as it helps households to recover from or to cope with crises. In Teknaf, access to institutional sources of credit is very limited. There are no subsidy schemes, duty exemptions and concession for any of the inputs of small scale fishermen. There is no welfare schemes oriented to the fishermen needs.

3.5 Artisanal Fishery Management

There is a clear need to legalize fishing profession and their settlement; traditional fishing communities should be given priority in getting necessary support from all concern. Government should consider as "Artisanal Fishing Zone" which should be declared reserve for the small scale fishermen. Commercial trawlers should not be allowed to fish depth below 40 meter. There should be certain regulation for collection of brooders from the sea. There is a huge need of creation of effective fisher's organization (local and national level) which will ensure participation of fishermen at local and national level. It will also assist in developing and complying local management plans. Encourage proper utilization of by-catch species both in domestic and global markets in the form of "ready to cook" and "ready to eat" for employment opportunity and value addition. It will create family based enterprise development; risk minimization of fishers and consumers as well as partnership development. Practices of processing and value addition of non-traditional fishery items and identify its market outlets can uplift socio-economic condition of fisher folk

Catch limit or quota can solve the problems of resource conservation. Gear restrictions i.e., regulation of size and spacing of net meshes can be used to control fisheries, by allowing immature fish to escape being caught when small, and grow to an economically more valuable size before harvesting. Awareness campaign in media about the repercussions of using destructive gears and stern steps need to be taken against those gears. Closed season prohibits fishing during the times of the year when there is a need to protect a particular stage of the life cycle, e.g., spawning, or juveniles. Closed areas also protect stock during certain stage of their life cycle in area closure

where fishing is banned. Licensing may apply through the restriction of only licensed-persons to access in fishing activities. All the boats should be sufficiently equipped with life saving appliances. There should be scope of insurance of fishing equipments and fishermen. Coast Guard and Navy should have regular surveillance programme in the vicinity of the fishing grounds so that fishermen can fish safety. It should ensure advance weather broadcasting system so that fisher can come close to the shore following the weather forecast. In addition, for reducing number of fisher in future, step should be taken to divert and widen livelihood options.

It is clear that the fisheries activities in Teknaf has suffered from a large number of management related problems (Figure-2) that have produce poor economic return and extensive environmental damage. Finally from the above discussion and by considering the top down and bottom up view of fishing community, GOs, NGOs, research organizations, a community based fisheries co-management has been proposed (Figure-3) which is people centered, community-oriented, resource based and partnership(Pomeroy, R.S., 1994). Community based co-management has the community as its focus, but recognizes that "to sustain such action, a horizontal and vertical link as necessary" (Rivera, 1997). Successful co-management and meaningful partnerships can only occur when the community is empowered and organized. Artisanal fishery zone should gradually come under this management plan. In this regard more discussion with stakeholders should be carried out.

4. Conclusions

Marine fisheries are gradually becoming more popular with the people of Bangladesh. The coastal fisheries of Bangladesh are considered to be very important as about 95% of total catch of marine sources come from artisanal fisheries. But artisanal fisheries have been suffered management related problems. There is no effective mechanism through which collection of information and monitoring of activities of artisanal fisheries sector can be done. Implementation of all the provisions in the existing marine fisheries ordinance and rules at the field level is very inadequate. Very few studies have been carried out so far on stock assessment of commercial marine shrimp and fish; there is a lack of information on different parameters of Oceanography and Socio-economics

condition of the fishing sector. All these elements would be essential for proper management of the resources and their exploitation. Only regulations are not effective for co-management of marine fisheries. Participation of all stakeholders and the fishermen is vitally important for an effective "Fisheries Co-management". For such participation fishermen need to be educated and motivated. They need to be aware of the resource dynamics and positive-negative aspects of fishing. For this a detailed "Community Based Fisheries Co-management" programme should initiate immediately. This will go along way to help sustain the marine fisheries resources with active participation of the fishermen. Otherwise all efforts will be value less.

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Table 1. Village-wise fishing gears at Teknaf Upazila.

Sl. No.	Name of fishing village	Households	Total population	Number of fishermen	Types of fishing gears							
					ESBN	Trammel Net	Gill net	Current net	Beach seine	Long line	Drift Net	Total
1	Damdania	110	670	142	7	-	-	-	1	-	-	8
2	Noakhali Para	395	2550	755	-	-	5	5	-	-	-	10
3	Mirtha Panir Chara	195	1100	34	-	-	30	30	7	-	30	97
4	Talatuli	155	800	187	-	-	11	12	-	-	6	29
5	Dakshin Lmbari	270	1700	424	-	-	26	29	9	-	10	74
6	Moheskhali para	455	300	1076	-	-	75	80	5	11	55	226
7	Kachubania	260	1600	290	-	-	4	3	5	1	-	13
8	Baharchara	70	44	144	-	-	13	17	-	-	-	30
9	Hadurchara	72	470	170	-	-	14	15	1	-	-	30
10	Khuremuk	77	580	170	-	2	15	18	-	-	15	50
11	Shaparir Dip Paschimpara	232	1400	451	-	-	40	46	12	10	40	148
12	Shaparir Dip Majher para	330	2200	755	-	-	80	120	20	7	19	246
13	Shaparir Dip Mistiri Para	290	1950	660	-	-	97	112	-	12	15	236
14	Shaparirdip Jalya para	425	2600	919	80	-	-	-	-	6	-	86
	Total	3336	21060	6466	87	2	410	487	60	47	190	1283
	Percentage (%)		100	30	6.78	0.15	31.96	37.96	4.68	3.66	14.80	100.00

Table 2. Primary occupation of household heads in Teknaf coast

Sl. No.	Occupations	Percentage	Number of Household Heads
1	Fisher	57%	1902
2	Agriculture	13%	434
3	Wage Labour	11%	367
4	Fish Trader	4%	133
5	Trading	4%	133
6	Net Menders	3%	100
7	Aquaculture	2%	66
8	Boat Makers	1.5%	51
9	Salt Producer	1%	33
10	Fry Collectors	0.5%	17
11	Others	3%	100
	Total	100%	3336

Table 3. Commercially important fishes of Teknaf coast

Sl.	Scientific Name	Local Name	English Name
1.	<i>Lates Calcarifer</i>	Vetki/Koral Machh	Giant Seaperch
2.	<i>Cynoglossus lingua</i>	Kukkurjib	Long Tung Sole
3.	<i>Cynoglossus</i>	bilineatus Kukkurjib	Fourlined Tongue Sole
4.	<i>Arius sp</i>	Kata Mach	Cat Fish
5.	<i>Mystus gulio</i>	Nuna Tengra/Guilla	Bagrid Cat fish
6.	<i>Ephippus orbis</i>	Hatir Kaan	Spade Fish
7.	<i>Gerres filamentosus</i>	Dom Machh	Silverbiddies
8.	<i>Pentaprion longimanus</i>	Jagiri	Longfin Mojarra/Silver-biddies
9.	<i>Harpodon nehereus</i>	Loittya Machh	Bombay duck
10.	<i>Drepane longimanna</i>	Pann Machh	Sicklefish
11.	<i>Lactarius lactarius</i>	Sadha Machh	False Trevally
12.	<i>Lutjanus johnei</i>	Ranga Choukya	Red Snapper
13.	<i>Lutjanus sanguineus</i>	Ranga Choukya	Blood Snaper
14.	<i>Lutjanus malabaricus</i>	Ranga Choukya	Malabar Red Snapper
15.	<i>Leigonathus brevirostris</i>	Taka Chanda	Shortnose Ponyfish
16.	<i>Mene maculata</i>	Chan Chanda	Moon Fish

17.	<i>Upeneus sulphureus</i>	Sonali Bata	Goat Fish
18.	<i>Liza tada</i>	Gool Bata Tade	Grey Mullet
19.	<i>Liza subviridis</i>	Khurul Bata/Bhangna Bata	Green Back Grey Mullet
20.	<i>Mugil cephalus</i>	Khorul Bata	Flathead Gray Mullet
21.	<i>Valamugil speigleri</i>	Patha Bata	Speigler's Gray Mullet
22.	<i>Nemipterus japonicus</i>	Rupban Japanese	Threadfin Bream
23.	<i>Pomadasys hasta</i>	Sadha Datina	Lined Silver Grunter
24.	<i>Pomadasys maculatus</i>	Guti-Datina	Blotched Grunter
25.	<i>Polynemus indicus</i>	Lakhua	Indian Salmon
26.	<i>Polynemus paradiscus</i>	Tapsi	Paradise Threadfin
27.	<i>Eleutheronema tetradactylum</i>	Thailla	Fourfinger Threadfin
28.	<i>Platycephalus indicus</i>	Murabaila	Flat-head Fish
29.	<i>Priacanthus tayenus</i>	Pari Machh	Purple-spotted Big Eye
30.	<i>Psettodes erumei</i>	Samudra Serboti	Indian Halibut
31.	<i>Rachycentron canadus</i>	Samudra Gajar/Raja Gajar	Cobia
32.	<i>Saurida tumbil</i>	Achila/Tiktiki Machh	Greater Lizard Fish
33.	<i>Sillago domina</i>	Tolar Dandi	Lady Fish
34.	<i>Otolithiodes pama</i>	Lambu	Pama Croacker
35.	<i>Otolithes maculatus</i>	Gotipoa	Bloched Tiger Toothed Croacker
36.	<i>Otolithes cuvieri</i>	Poa	Less Tiger-toothed Croacker
37.	<i>Protonibea diacanthus</i>	Kala Katina/Kala Poa	Spotted Croacker
38.	<i>Johnius argentatus</i>	Lalpoa	Silver Pennah Croacker
39.	<i>Argyrops spinier</i>	Lal Datina	Longspine Sea Bream
40.	<i>Sphyaena forsteri</i>	Dharkuta	Forster's Barracuda
41.	<i>Pampus chinensis</i>	Rup Chanda	Chinese Pomfret
42.	<i>Pampus argenteus</i>	Foli Chanda	Silver Pomfret
43.	<i>Coilia dussumieri</i>	Olua	Pointed Tail Anchovy
44.	<i>Escualosa thoracata</i>	Hichiri Machh	White Sardine
45.	<i>Ilisha fillgera</i>	Choukya	Big Eye Ilish
46.	<i>Hilsa ilisha</i>	Ilish/Hilsa	Hilsa Shad
47.	<i>Sardinella fimbriata</i>	Takhia	Fringe-scale Sardine
48.	<i>Chirocentrus dorab</i>	Karatia-Chela	Wolf Herring
49.	<i>Parastromateus niger</i>	Hail Chanda	Black Pomfret
50.	<i>Scomberoides commersonianus</i>	Chapa Kori	Talang Queen Fish
51.	<i>Selar boops</i>	Moori/Salar	Oxeye scad
52.	<i>Alepes djeddaba</i>	Moori	Djeddaba crevalle

Table 4. Commercially important Shrimps in Teknaf coast

Sl.	Scientific Name	Local Name	English Name
1.	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	Bagda Chingri	Giant black tiger Shrimp
2.	<i>Penaeus semisulcatus</i>	Bagatara Chingri	Green Tiger Shrimp
3.	<i>Penaeus japonicus</i>	Dorakata Chingri	Tiger
4.	<i>Penaeus indicus</i>	Chaga Chingri	Indian white Shrimp
5.	<i>Penaeus merguensis</i>	Baga Chama Chingri	Banana Shrimp
6.	<i>Metapenaeus monoceros</i>	Horina/Loilla Chingri	Brown/Speckled Shrimp
7.	<i>Metapenaeus brevicornis</i>	Loilla/Honney Chingri	Brown/Yellow Shrimp
8.	<i>Metapenaeus spinulatus</i>	--	Brown
9.	<i>Parapenaeopsis sculptilis</i>	Ruda Chingri	Pink/Rainbow Shrimp
10.	<i>Parapenaeopsis stylifera</i>	Rida Chingri	Pink/Kiddi Shrimp

Table 5. Commercially important crabs in Teknaf coast

Sl.	Scientific Name	Local Name	English Name
1.	<i>Scylla Serrata</i>	Sila kakra	Mud crab
2.	<i>Portunus pelagicus</i>	Samudra kakra	Swimming crab
3.	<i>Portunus sanguinolentus</i>	Kakra	Swimming crab

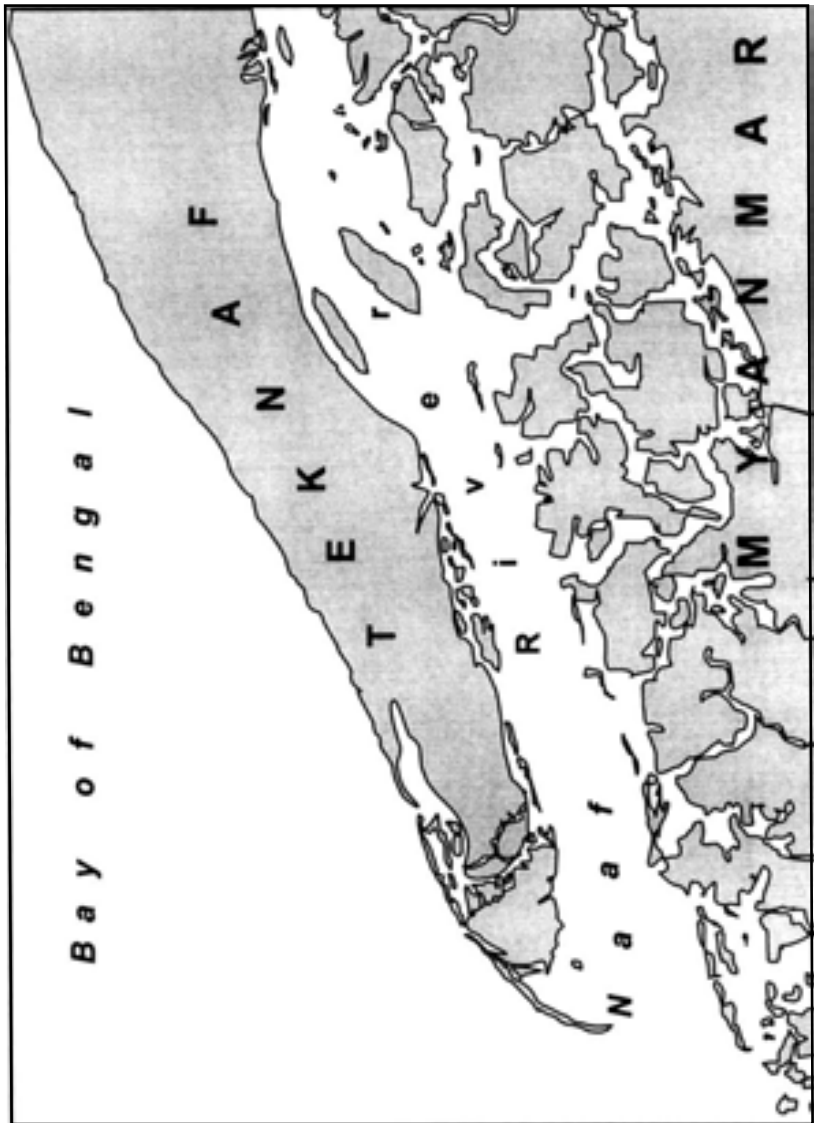


Figure 1 : Location map of Teknaf along the Bay of Bengal coast and the Naaf River

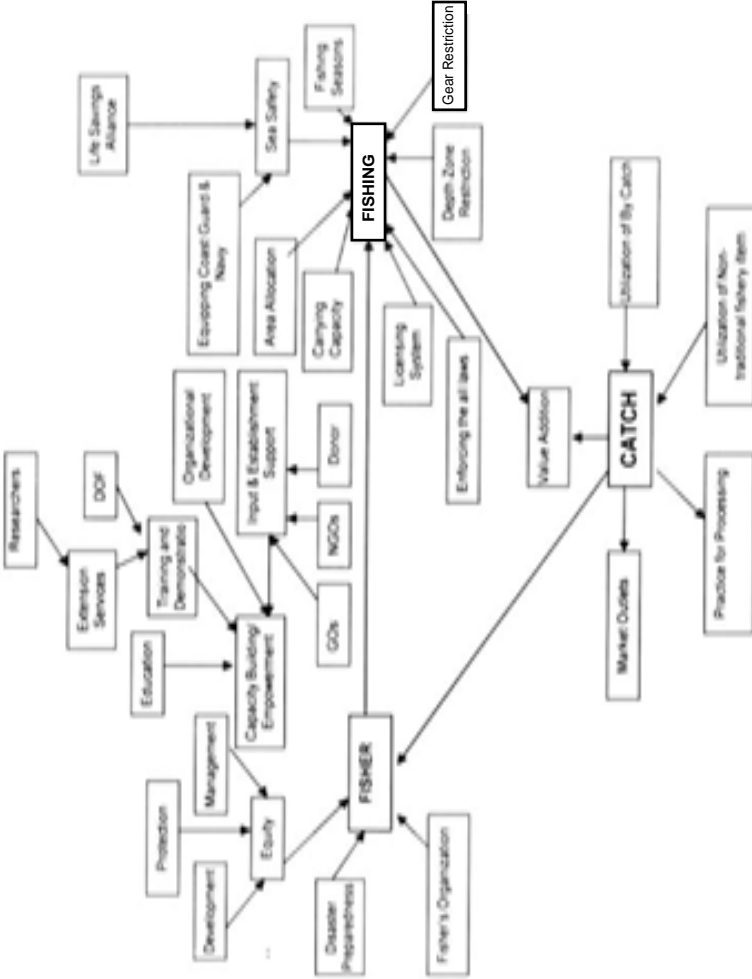


Figure 2: Artisanal fisheries management options in Teknaf Coast

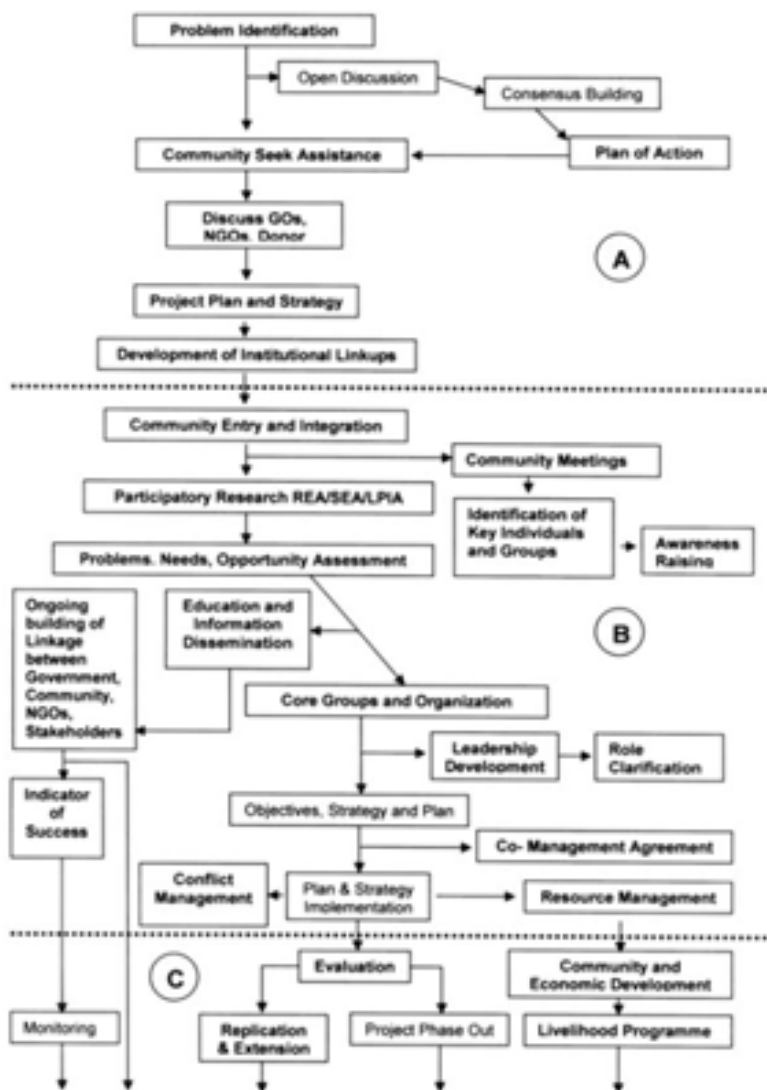


Figure 3 : Framework for Community Based Fisheries Co-management. A- Pre-Implementation Phase; B- Implementation Phase; C- Post Implementation Phase

Street Children In Bangladesh: The Most Vulnerable Phenomenon

Md. Shakhawat Ullah Chowdhury *

Abstract:

Street Children are those unfortunate children who have basically only intermittent contact with parents or family (usually mother or sisters) but live most of the time with other street children in the city streets. They are also who are on the move and those who have run away from home. Many of them have unpleasant experience at home. The presences of large number of children in urban areas are virtually unnoticed prior to the transition to a market economy. The hard reality about the street child is that they are naked facing vicious poverty, sickness and exploitation. Bangladesh is experiencing a high rate of urbanization paradoxically with a low of industrial growth. As a response to rate, the major cities have been experiencing a spiraling population growth over a short period of time, primarily due to rural urban migration as a push factor. The situation of economic hardship contributes to the crisis within the family, which in turns pushes children out into the streets and into a life of hunger, disease, violence, fear and exploitation. They become street children, child laborers, and abandoned children, abused children, beggar children, abducted children, child prostitute, deformed children, children in domestic servitude. Whatever terms one uses to identify them is an unacceptable phenomenon of human degradation. Against this backdrop this study investigates the actual situation and vulnerability of the street children in which they live on, identifying the existing services available for the street children, assessing the gaps between the needs and available interventions of Government and NGOs specially have been involved in several services to the working children of urban areas in Bangladesh.

* *Creative Director, Kids Cultural Institute, Chittagong, Bangladesh.*

1 Introduction

Street Children as a special group of children in grave situation are helpless being deprived of the basic necessities of life, such as food, shelter, clothing and psychological supports. In the absence of the fulfillment of these basic needs, mere survival of the child becomes impossible and they grow up as unwanted members of the society. Because of the negligence they continue to suffer these children grow as child labor, beggars, shoplifters, and pick-pickers, gangsters, low paid domestic servants, and so on. These are the children of the urban poor who are most vulnerable, exploited and who face the highest risks. They face untold hardship and danger on the streets. Living and working on the streets exacts a terrible toll on street children. They are often preying to every physical and moral danger and as they grow older they often become a danger to others. After such precarious childhoods, most of them are condemned to spend their lives excluded from mainstream society. These all together indicate the unintended side effects of economic growth. This is a global phenomenon.

Regardless of definition, the phenomenon of street children is not new. It is not restricted to certain geographical areas (Connolly, 1990). The street urchin, the runaway, the street waifs and stray children were part of the "urban landscape" during the process of industrialization and urbanization in post-war Europe (Agnelli, optic; swart, 1986). The UN has been attributed as estimating the population of street children worldwide at 150 million, with the number rising daily. Ranging in age from three to eighteen, about 40% are homeless. As a percentage of world population, this is unprecedented in the history of civilization. The other 60% work on the streets to support their families. Some are sent out by their impoverished parents to work or to beg. They are unable to attend school and are considered to live in "especially difficult circumstances". Increasingly, these children are the defenseless victims of brutal violence, sexual exploitation, abject neglect, chemical addiction, and human rights violations (P A N G A E A: 2005).

Bangladesh is experiencing a high rate of urbanization paradoxically with a low of industrial growth. As a response to rate, the major cities have been experiencing a spiraling population growth over a short period of time, primarily due to rural urban migration as a push

factor. The total number of street children in the urban areas of Bangladesh estimates as 682,882 by the Bangladesh Institute of Development Studies (BIDS: 2004). The phenomenal growth of street children in the Bangladesh urban centers, particularly in the metropolitan cities of Dhaka, Chittagong, Rajshahi, Khulna, Barisal and Sylhet, concerns the policy makers and development practitioners. They are concerned as on rural poverty and migration to urban centers, unemployment, landlessness, river erosion, family conflict, law and order situation, disintegration of traditional family and community structures have brought about changes in the socio-economic scenario thus giving rise to a new vulnerable group of children in the metropolitan cities and towns. They are beginning to become aware about the predicaments of street children who live and are grow up on the margins of the society in a state of neglect and deprivation, often without education, affection, care and guidance from the adult members of the families. The street children live, work and struggle for survival in unhygienic environment. They do not have any access even to the basic services required for their healthy growth and development; nor could they enjoy opportunity to participate in the mainstreams of the community life in Bangladesh.

Among the most neglected of the urban poor are the increasing numbers of children who depend for survival on the streets. Within the context of the UN Convention on the Rights of Child (CRC), street children have been identified as surviving in 'grave situation' and being amongst those whose rights are the most commonly violated. Living on the margin of society, relying entirely on their own efforts, and with no one to care for them, street children remain as the most vulnerable group.

1.1 Street Children: The Conceptual Overview

The concept of street children is associated with the age of children, their living arrangement and working place. Different laws in Bangladesh lay down minimum a range of age for child. For example, minimum age for working children in a shops and other commercial establishment is up to 12 years, for factories 14 years and for railways 15 years (UNICEF, 1997).

The most common definition of a street child or youth is "any girl or boy who has not reached adulthood, for whom the street (in the

broadest sense of the word, including unoccupied dwelling, wasteland etc.) has become her or his habitual adobe and/or sources of livelihood, and who is inadequately protected, supervised or directed by responsible adults" (Inter-NGO,1985). This definition was formulated by the Inter-NGOs in Switzerland in 1983.

According to Armppoor, J (1992), street child can be categorized into three broad group consisting of those children who have continuous contacts with their parents and stay with them on public pavements in urban area. They are described as "Children on the streets". The second group comprises of working children who spend all their days and some of their nights on the street or in public places and have occasional contacts with their families. This group has been described as "children of the streets". The children in the third group have on family contacts- they include orphans, runaways, refugees, abandoned, deserted, displaced persons or those lost in transit while traveling with their parents. This is the most crucial group as these children have no protection whatsoever from the vagaries of nature or a hostile society. Because of chronic poverty, destitution, or ill treatment by parents/ stepparents and the apathetic attitude of the society at large, a sizeable number of these children are forced to stay and work on the streets away from their families. UNICEF also levels this group of streets children as 'children in difficult circumstances' or 'children at high risks'.⁷

The concept of working children does not necessarily mean street children, but definitely overlaps with street children and all are genuinely conceptualized under especially difficult circumstances. The typical street children fall into two groups (UNICEF, 1992:77);

- i) Those who work on the street, but usually maintain regular relations and live with their families ;and
- j) Those who consider street as their home and the place to work, eat, sleep, play and make friends.
- k) The second groups are those who have been abandoned or driven away or left home because of neglect, abuse, violence etc. at home. Two other groups, quite significant in size, are included among the working children. Another consists of domestic workers (mostly girls) who work in other homes but are deprived of protection; the second one is the group of child workers in various shops and establishments earning small wages under exploitative conditions of labor without having and safety or any

other rights.

The United Nations defines street children as "boys and girls for whom 'the street' (including unoccupied dwellings, wasteland, etc) has become their home and/or source of livelihood, and who are inadequately protected or supervised by responsible adults." (M.Black, 1997). The definition suggests that a child in the street may be a working child, a school dropout, or a homeless boy or girls.

However, as shown in figure 1, not all working children and school dropouts spend most of their time in the street, many street children are not homeless, and some of them still go to school. Several other intersecting circles are added to this graphic, such as juvenile offenders and child prostitutes.

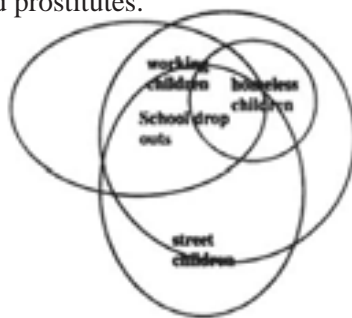


Figure 1 : Intersecting circles of street children

At the same time, street life has specific kinds of problems(drug addiction, sexual promiscuity and abuse, work exploitation, involvement in criminal activities, and violence by police , other adults , and rival gangs and attractions(freedom, adventure , peer solidarity) that call for ad hoc interventions. No term has yet been coined to capture both the peculiar nature of street life and its interconnection with other aspects of vulnerability. The study will keep adopting the term street children, aware of its partially unsatisfactory character.

However, the Operational Definitions of the most vulnerable children on the street considered as follows;

- i) Children up to 18 years of age who work / live on the street day

and night without their family;

- ii) Children up to 18 years of age who work / live on the street with their family;
- iii) Children up to 18 years of age who work / live on the street and return to other family; and
- iv) Children up to 18 years of age who work / live on the street and return to other family

1.2 How a Child becomes a Street Child?

Street children are primarily the children of urban -based, low-income families, many of them drawn from the countryside into the cities of Bangladesh. In search of economic opportunities that often do not exist. Worsening economic trends including the pressures of structural adjustment and the debt crisis are likely to force increasing numbers of children and their families into urban poverty and thus push additional children to work on the streets. These families and children will be added to the urban slums in Bangladesh.

The common characteristics of all these categories of street children are that they come from extremely poor families with or without parents to work for their own survival and to support their families in the struggle for the subsistence. At an early age they become accustomed to live in with neglect and deprivation and dream to survive through struggle, improvisation, with little or no sense of right and wrong. They migrated from rural areas in search of living , but with no skill for any good earning . The children of such families are faced to earn to supplement the earning of adults or to make their own living.

The most street children go on to the street to look for a better way of life. The following are some of the common reasons:

- Family breakdown
- Poverty
- Alcohol and drug abuse
- Sexual abuse
- Abandonment
- Child labor

Work on the streets:

Street children will work from 6 to 16 hours a day. They must be

they can take. This leads to the child feeling that he or she is a slave or a servant. Such children leave home in search of freedom from adult demands. To escape from work demands in the home the has to work on the street.

1.3 Vulnerability of Street Children :

Street children are leading a life without basic services in urban environment in Bangladesh. As the smaller boys grow up, they become less vulnerable, stronger, more independent. They are able to look after themselves. With girls it is a different story. As they reach adolescence, they become more vulnerable on the street. Their young bodies become a burden. They face more terrible threats on the street.

Street children in Bangladesh face following types of vulnerability -

1. Vulnerability in unborn and early age
2. Gender Vulnerability
3. Socio economic Vulnerability
4. Emotional Vulnerability

1. Vulnerability in unborn and early age:

Environmental degradation is killing street children in urban environment. It strikes countries with already fragile farm sectors stripping the soil needed for planting, hurting food production and spawning malnutrition among the street children. It kills infants and young a like - poisoning the water they need for drinking, washing and irrigation, training the slums, which are their playgrounds, spoiling the food they eat.

Toxic chemicals, heavy metals, radiation and poisons harm children both rich and poor more severely than adults, causing untold deaths yearly through cancers, birth defects and still- births in industrialized and developing nations .Air pollution strikes the young more harshly than the old-fueling the respiratory infections, which kill more than 4.2 million children under age five each year in developing countries (Child's environment: 1990)

Before conception, the 'Child'- in the form of human germ cells is vulnerable to noxious factors in the environment. The relationship between children and their environment is to a static, passive process; it is a complex, continuous interplay of many factors, with the children's taking an increasingly active part. The social

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environment that greets a child at birth exerts a powerful influence on its chances of living through infancy. The physical environment outside the womb presents dangers to the newborn, whether these become life threatening depends in large measure on how well the family and community can manage them.

In street communities, the majority of children when die before they are a year old of a condition they had at birth- physical immaturity, a congenital deformity, a genetic disease or birth injury. The children of poorer neighborhoods have a large share of these problems too, but the impact of these handicaps is swamped by a tidal wave of malnutrition and infection awaiting them outside the womb.

Childhood illness and death are much higher in the poorer strata of society. Illiteracy of mothers, culturally determined attitude with respect to health and medical care, lack of basic knowledge and awareness of health problems, poverty and the inaccessibility of health facilities all contribute to these high rates. Another layer removed is the child's meso- environment, containing threats such as ground water pollution, acid rain, air pollution, chemical misuse and deforestation. These have more effect on the child's welfare at this level involve such activity as improved water supply and sewerage, local pollution control, education and social forestry. These efforts improve the environment at the community level and infect require local, informed community participation. This, in turn, allows for social mobilization on national and global issues.(UNICEF : 1982)

Finally, there is the child's macro-environment, beset with such threats as global warming, ozone depletion and sea-level rise. These threats are met with international treaties and national laws and environmental controls.

Growing children have the same basic needs as adults. But for children, the needs are more pressing- depriving them of these necessities is more damaging . Many of them , if they survive the vulnerable period of childhood, will become driftwood on the social and economic currents of their countries. There is fundamental principle in planning for children's futures; the earlier that measures are introduced to meet children's needs, the less is the cost, the greater the effectiveness and the greater the benefit both to the child and to the society.

Poor housing, air pollution and the lack of clean drinking water and

appropriate sanitation are behind the separate of various diseases among older children. Children between 6 and 14 years of old are more vulnerable to some disease than younger children , because they go outside more and are more exposed to air and water pollution as well as dirt in streets and playgrounds. A habitat life in the slums, which is the root to grow street children.

Children are less than adults to recognize hazardous environments and negotiate risks. thus, greater hazardous at home and on the streets mean a higher rate of accidents for children in Bangladesh. The street makes their way like poisonous serpents through the land cape. Industrious pollution results in contamination of both air and water. Children grow up in these nests of squalor, misery and alienation. Street children are living dirt on the margins of adult society- scavenging, stealing and finding transient jobs, selling small items, shinning shoes, guarding and washing cars etc, Gangs, prostitution and the drug trade are the inevitable fate for many.

Victims of poverty and underdevelopment, street children are also victims of poor environmental conditions. Figure 34 shows the habitats of street children in urban area. They are society's disposable people with no voice or vote; political leader and city planner alike often overlook their plight. Nearly 40% population of Bangladesh fall under 15 years, and of which about 16% are less than five years (El-Hinnawi. E 1990): 2000). These children are mostly abandoned and flight for survival. They do not have opportunity to enjoy their rights of education, food, housing, cloth, healthcare and legal aid protection. They work on the street, live on the pavement of bus terminal, Railway station, terminals at river sides , around kitchen markets and cinema halls etc. They change their working location according to the demand of circumstances to search for their livelihood. The life of the vulnerable children is going on without basic service.

2.Gender Vulnerability:

Girls are most vulnerable than boys. Street girl children are the most oppressed part of the society within the 'sexual abuse' sector. Girl children have to face twice. First, the child is physically abused. Next, she is abused by society through its customs, practices censures and ostracization.

Any girl who is abused is designated as "nostho meya" (bad/rotten

girl) and she is considered unmanageable. Since, for a girl marriage is thought to be the ultimate personal and social objective, being denied this is the ultimate punishment possible. And this, she is not even responsible for the act.

The pressure to marry pushes some girls to look for grooms quite early. She is socially programmed to find match if possible. The well off and the powerful have a psychological advantage in abusing because the girl may be thinking that the relationship is being conducted with her future husband and not just someone taking advantage of her vulnerabilities.

Girls also are susceptible to ' declarations of love' by potential abusers. Once contact is made, abusers immediately declare undying love, knowing that this will reduce resistance. The abusers, in many cases, however don't hesitate to rape violently if the resistance is too high. But 'love' is a weapon, which abusers have used quite effectively. The fact that they refuse to marry all those they abuse does not appear to influence the girl children's behavior pattern. Abusers are not only violent but also capable of manipulating trust and confidence to a high degree. Management of manipulative behavior as an adjunct to violence is pre-conditional to survival and success in a conflict -ridden society, in which men seem more adept than women.

Street girl children with no families were the most exposed to all types of trouble, particularly harassment from both police and mastans, sexual harassment, cheating, beating, accidents, arrest, theft or extortion. Over exposure, lack of protection and excessive walking render street girl children in particular, very vulnerable to fatigue and sickness. As reported by 12% of the street girl children interviewed, arrests/ detention are more common among street girl children with no families, particularly among street girl children aged 12-18 years and /or in a sexually exploited occupation. Some arrested girls in this occupation were released on condition of sexual gratification or upon intercession by an employer/mahajan. 18% admitted having received severe beating, particularly older girls aged 12-18 years and those who were sexually exploited.

Street girls age between 12 and 15 years, Menstruation periods generally occurred at regular intervals with normal bleeding over 4-7 days. During these days , the majority of the girls reported that they

felt too weak or sick to continue working, as they experienced abdominal pain, headache or drowsiness and had a distaste for food. While the majority reported using cloth as stopper, personal hygiene practices during this period were quite poor, as only half of this group washed the cloth with soap and water. The majority did not follow any particular rules/regulations during menstruation.

About 12% of the sub sample -all of them sexually exploited girls aged 15 and 16 years- admitted that they had been pregnant. About 3 out of every 10 girls in this sub sample of 60 knew of some friends between 15 and 20 years old who had become pregnant. Although 65.5% said they knew when or how a girl could get pregnant, their knowledge gained from friends was very general and inadequate- after intercourse, after starting menstruation, after marriage. Only two girls referred to the meeting of the sperm and female egg. 3 respondents (6%) losing a baby through induced abortion was personally experienced by only, and an additional 16 % knew of friends who had similarly lost a baby.

In the sub sample of 60 street girl children 48% reported having experienced sexual advances-intercourse /rape (25%), invited by mastans/others (15%), attempted rape (2%) and not specified (6%). Although some vendors and waste collectors were among those who were exposed to sexual advances, only the sexually exploited girls received payment for such sexual advances. Almost 8 out of every 10 street girl children claimed to be suffering from some disease at the time of the interviews, mostly among those with families as well as among the sexually exploited street girls.

Amongst the urban under privileged, abuse is usually common. Girl children, especially those working or having to go to do household chores, are almost constantly harassed sexually. It involves verbal abuse, flashing, touching and the more serious form of abuse, fondling and vaginal rape. But these girls seem to have a high capacity to keep such incidents a secret because without work girls' cannot survive. Silence is deafening in the urban sector.

Rural areas display a high level of tolerance for rape as well. It certainly does not threaten the sense of collective self-respect of a village if a girl is raped in that locality. Since, most girls who are raped are from the less powerful groups the informal justice system also does not do much about it. Girls are very easily condemned as

"nosh to".

While a boy's family suffers little in the rural areas, the girl's family suffers hell once the incident of abuse becomes public.

In some of the cases where the girls became pregnant, the family suffers hell once the incident of abuse becomes public. They are also denied the right to protest in most cases. The family has to accept the humiliation in silence. They do their best to keep such incidents a secret but in the rural areas this is difficult. The entire family is traumatized and ostracized and not just the abused child.

In some of the cases where the girls became pregnant, the family has to arrange abortions. Sometimes the child is born and left as a founding. Since abusers always deny responsibility, the future of an illegitimate child would be extremely painful.

The bottom line for gender discrimination is that those who are abused cannot marry, the abuser can marry; In fact, the abusers find no problem in finding brides. But in case of the girl's family, not only can the abused fail to find grooms, her sisters cannot either, even the publicly raped are not given the benefit of doubt regarding her consent to being raped in public.

The trauma level for most boys is low compared to girls. This is particularly true for rural boys who seem to be able to move through this patch of life with relative ease compared to their sisters. In the urban areas, the case studies relating to boys, however, reflected great trauma in most cases. This segment was better educated and more sensitive compared to their rural brothers. But the girls in the poorer section of Dhaka suffered great trauma and compared to their urban poor brothers were much worse off.

Boys can push for action if abused. They can even refuse to have sex and still survive. But for girls, this option is very limited because the girls attempt. The failed abuser may publicly also accuse the girl of trying to seduce him and is readily believed. In both cases, she cannot fight back and this creates an extremely terrifying situation. In both the cases, she has to undergo public humiliation. The boys can fight back and have less problem of having to deal with the future. A girl who has been victimized has her reputation tarnished. She is marked forever.

3.Socio Economic Vulnerabilities of Street Children

The existing socio-economic structure is seriously stacked against the interest of the child. Sexual abuse is denied with vehemence or brushed aside as insignificant. In the process the abusive activities continue to happen.

Sex abuse is committed by the powerful more than the powerless. The powerless, the poor are most of the victims. Society protects the abuser through its social system, which is run by the powerful. Since police is considered friendly to the powerful, the victims turn to the informal justice system. But this system too is again under the control of the powerful .The 'shalish' is the servant of the powerful. As a result, the powerless have no chance of redress.

In the cases that were reported, the abusers either ignore "Shalish" decisions or they didn't even consider such cases worth discussing. Given the power relationship in the rural areas, one feels that powerful may actually be deliberately choosing the powerless to abuse .It is a safe group to access for sexual gratification. The grossest from of post abuse scenario is to be ostracized by most , if not all , villagers through collective campaign led by the abuser or his family. The report finds that rural society will not allow anything to happen which will not allow anything to happen which will threaten the status quo. The village society is too entrenched to allow something like child abuse, which it considers a minor issue, to endanger a system, which allows the groups, factions, and clans to operate in a village. The child is in extreme conflict with the institutions that a village formally sustains. (Child Vision: 2003) Same picture we saw in some street children community when conducted the study.

The urban system is different and there are variations within a city it -self. Many of the urban poor in our report still had remnants of rural institutions with them, however weak. There is at least one instant abuse being decided in an urban 'salish' in the urban poor sector of the city has developed alternate institutions as well which decide relationships. In the same vein, a girl can be scared of her social status -come -family that she might fail to report abuse and blackmail. The child is also not considered threatened when abuse

UNCRC and GO -NGO Intervention :

The Rights to survival	Intervention of NGO
It includes the right to life, the attainable standard of health, nutrition, an adequate standard of living , name and nationality.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Health Services - Health Education - Recording child name and address. - Family life education through Drop in Centre / Shelter
The Right of Protection	-
It includes the right to special care and protection from all forms of exploitation, adult and inhuman or degrading treatment in situation of emergency and around conflict. It also aims to protect vulnerable children.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Drop in center/ Shelter home - Legal aid support - Psychological Counseling - Vocational Skill Training - Job placement - IGA activities - Integration of children with their families. - Rehabilitation of children
The Right of Development	-
It includes being educated to receive support for development, care, social security, recreation and cultural activities.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Formal Education -Inclusive Education - Non formal Education - Mobile Schooling - Theatre for Education - Drop in center/Shelter Home - Recreational Activities - Annual Sports - Exposure Visit - Cultural Program

The Right of Participation	-
This right accords the child to appropriate information and the freedom of thought, expression, conscience and religion. Also the rights to develop their own set of values and opportunity to express themselves and their opinions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Children's Forum/ Child Brigade - Day observance / Rally - Expression of thought through drawing pictures. - Participation of religions activities - Participation of children in decision making at micro level. - Child to Child Project - Dialogue with formal leaders.

Impact of services run by GO-NGOs for street children in Bangladesh

Pre-intervention stats	Post-intervention stats
Harassment by the community people Street children were the victim by different community people and called 'Tokai' Kangali, Pichchi etc instead of their name.	Street children are not faced such kind of harassment while working in the streets.
Involvement of Crime Previously street children were involved in different crimes.	The involvement at different crime has decreasing day by day. So they are also working mainstream society.
Personal Hygiene	
Street children were unaware about maintaining personal hygiene due to lack of awareness and proper facilities available to them	In the drop-in-center, they avail toilet facilities, teeth brushing, bathing, cloth washing, nail cutting, and hair combing facilities. Therefore, their personal hygiene status has improved dramatically.

Non-formal Education	
Street children were deprived from rights of education due to awareness and poverty	Street children received basic non-formal education and after completing this they are able to read, write, do basic calculation and many of them got admission to the formal primary school
Recreational services	
Street children had no recreational facilities near to their home or in the adjacent areas. So they were prone to anti-social activities	In the DICs, street children participate in different recreational activities; like: games, play, video show, drawing and painting, singing, dancing, drama. Therefore, there chance of involvement in anti-social activities reduced.
Health Services	
Street children were very reluctant to seek medical advice due lack of awareness and poverty	Street children currently seeks medical advice in any health related problem
Awareness	
Street children didn't know about primary health care and	Through our intervention 90% children know about primary health care, STD/HIV/AIDS, its types, causes, root of transmission and prevention of STD/HIV/AIDS. With their awareness, street children also made their neighbors aware on this issue.

Drop in Center/Night Shelter	
Street children usually passed most of the time on the street, where they were vulnerable to sex work, either forcefully or by exploitation, which usually resulted in sex trade, criminal activities, and child trafficking.	Now they pass most of the time in the drop-in-center and invite their friends to come to the DIC, which reduced their vulnerability to trafficking and sexual exploitation
Counseling	
Street children were rude, aggressive and frustrated due to poverty, moral degeneration and ignorance which hampered their mental development	Through counseling street children's negative attitude towards their life changed gradually. They could identify their own problem and solved them with their own effort
Vocational Training and Job placement	
Most of the street children earned money for livelihood through different hazardous child labor	Street children were provided suitable vocational training for them. After completion of training, they placed with job either in our organizational arrangement or in other organization through networking. As a result their quality of life style improved including their future prospect of a livelihood Children who were earlier involved in the most hazardous forms of labor have changed their occupations and taken up lighter forms of jobs.Children who have been employed are serving as role models to other street children. We have observed that the street children feel valued, confident and a self-drive is being created within them to develop their future lives

Changing of the life of Street Children	The project staffs are able to build up rapport with the street children of project area. It was observed that the behavioral pattern and life style of the street children are being changed.
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Conclusion

Street Children are the mute testimony of economic recession, increasing poverty, the break-up of traditional patterns of social and community life, family disruption and the inability-or unwillingness-of governments to respond. Because street children exist in greatest numbers in the most troubled societies, their needs often go unattended. They are forced by hunger, neglect, abuse or orphaning, to live and work on city streets and marginalized group in most societies. They do not have what society considers appropriate relationships with major institutions of childhood such as family, education and health. The continuous exposure to harsh environments and the nature of their lifestyles make them vulnerable. Some street children are part of entire families who live on the street. Others are born to older street girls. Some streets children are 'on the street' which means that they still see their families regularly and may even return every night to sleep in their family homes. Children 'of the street' on the other hand, have no home but the streets. Even if they occasionally spend time in institutions for children or youths, they consider the streets to be their home. The street child neglect, abuse, exploitation, abandoned and destitution and its consequences, deprives street children of their basic rights to personal and social identity, protection, care and preparation for a productive life. Their presence on the streets, whether working or not, is a symptomatic indicator of social phenomenon of underdevelopment, such as poverty, overpopulation, illiteracy, unemployment, on the one hand, while the social nuisance, on the other hand, in the form of begging, charity, crimes, anti-social activities, moral degradation, sexual abuse, etc hinges on the national image and dignity on the eyes of the outside world through multimedia (both electronic and press). Unless this complex and crucial problem is addressed forthwith through social mobilization under national and international endeavors, our national dignity, pride and image would remain at stake.

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HwZnvMk cwi†cō†tZ mv`vi bixi Av_9mvgwRK Ae`vb ch†j vPbvi ga`
w†q DwI ó bix† i cwiēZBkxj mvgwRK gh†v Avtj vPbv Kiv ntqtQ| cētUi
tkl†š-GK†U mvgwMK gj`vqb mwb†kZ ntqtQ hvi ga` w†q MteIYv Kg†U
AwfÁZv I djvd†j i ewn:cKvk N†U†Q|

bvix cweZbkj mgwRK ghv

[illegible]

mgvR cwieZ³bi avivewnKZvq fwgtZ e^w3MZ gwij Kvbi Dcw^wZ, Kw
mgv^rRi weKvk, mvšev[~], c^rRev[~] G mKj HwZnmK mgvR cte⁹ ga[~] w^tq
wj ½xq[~]el^tgⁱ m^tcvZ NtU| GgbwK AtbtK gtb Kti^b Dcw^btekev[~] I bvi^t i
Aa: [~]bZv^tK Zi^wšZ Kti^tQ (nmvb:2002:231)|

wczZš; l agx^q weavb hy³ fvtē mvgš-h¹mi bvi^x i cwiYZ KtiwQj tftvMi
 e⁻tZ | wKš^c c¹Rev¹ bvi^x i tK c¹Y¹ cwiYZ Kti | c¹Rev¹ x iv⁰ wczZš; k^q
 wefvRb l atg^p AvBbMZ weavbtK wJwKtq iv¹L | dtj iw⁰K cwi mti bvi^x
 gh^p vi c¹k¹ msKxY⁰ ntq l t¹V | GB Ae⁻vb cwieZ⁰ mva¹bi c⁰k⁰ed⁻ vi %⁰wZK
 l t¹Muov gvK⁰ev⁻ x¹ i aviYvq wfbz^v v¹Ktj l Df^q -¹g B c¹Rev¹ i weKv¹ki
 m¹t¹i g¹a¹ bvi^x g¹ i m¹tebv w¹PyZ Kti t⁰Q | D⁻ vi %⁰wZK bvi^x ev⁻ xiv g¹tb Kti b
 th, AvBbv¹BM c¹wZ l g¹tbv¹w¹ cwieZ¹bi ga⁻ w¹tq wczZš; eZ⁰vb k¹Lj
 tft¹½ t⁰dj v h¹te | Z¹t¹ i g¹tZ, t¹fvUwaKvi, mgAwaKv¹i i AvBb, BwZevPK KvR
 Ges g¹tbv¹w¹ cwieZ¹bi iY¹tKšj - thgb -¹faxKvi, c¹k¹Y Ges w¹w¹x i
 g¹tbv¹ve ^ZixKiYB h⁻v⁰ l Kv¹h¹Ri Dcv⁻vb | G¹t¹Y¹ t¹Muov gvK⁰ev⁻ x¹ i
 e⁻vLvi wfbz^v Aek⁻ m¹y⁰ú⁰ | gvK⁰ev⁻ x¹ i g¹tZ c¹Rev¹ i vbqg⁻ t¹j v bvi^x -c¹Y¹ l
 Df^qtK gR¹jx k¹gtK cwiYZ Kti, c¹Ri k¹mtb Ave^x Ki¹te | dtj wczZwšK
 m¹úK⁰ l g¹j⁻ t¹eva tft¹½ h¹te | Engels Zwi "The Origin of the Family,
 Private Property and State" M⁰š⁻ t¹ w¹Ltq¹Qb th, HwZnw¹mK c¹uqv¹q bvi^x
 -¹fax l mgvb Dcv⁻ tbi m⁻ m⁻ ntj l i¹cvš¹ i Kvi¹Y cieZ¹Y¹ c¹Y¹ t¹li e⁻w³
 gwj Kv¹bv, m¹ú¹Ei ¹u¹gweKv¹ Ges Gi m¹t⁻ hy³ cwi¹evi bvgK c¹Öv¹bi¹ Kvi¹Y
 bvi^x mvgwRK¹fvte Ae⁻ gb c¹uqv¹ teovR¹tj Ave^x ntq hv¹q | wZ¹vb Av¹tiv t¹Rvi
 w¹ t¹qtQb th, mgvR Z⁻v cwi¹ev¹ti A⁻ %⁰wZK w¹elq¹tK t¹Rvi t⁻ qvi dtj gR¹jx¹xb
 k¹g ev A⁻ k⁻ KgR¹v⁰ bvi^x tK mvgwRK¹fvte ^el¹g⁻ i w¹fv¹E¹tZ Ave^x Ki¹tZ m¹Y¹g
 ntq¹Q | g¹jZ: bvi^x c¹Y¹ t¹li m¹vs⁻ wZK w¹evbg¹Yi t¹cl¹Y¹tZ tkY^x w¹ef³ mgv¹t¹Ri
 a⁻vb-aviYv, Av¹teM-A¹bf¹wZ, Av¹kv-Av¹Kv⁻ Lv me wKQ¹ bvi^x -¹ft⁻ c¹ÖZK¹tj M¹to
 DV¹tZ⁻ v¹tK hv eZ⁰vb mvgwRK i¹cvq¹tbi c¹ÖZdj b gv¹ |

Dtj E⁻ th, bvi^x mvgwRK gh^p vi HwZnw¹mK t¹cl¹Y¹vt¹Ui g¹a⁻ B w¹binZ t⁻ t¹ki
 Db¹q¹b Kv¹h¹Y¹t¹g iv⁰lq¹fvte bvi^x Ae⁻vb | ev⁻ weK¹fvte t¹Kv¹ mgv¹t¹Ri g¹a⁻
 c¹Y¹ l l bvi^x t¹ft⁻ mK¹tj B GKB c¹Kvi m¹thvM-m¹yeav j v¹tf ew¹ÄZ | GQ¹ov bvi^x i
 c⁻ K¹fvte c¹Y¹ t¹li t¹ft¹q w¹cv¹q¹ cov tkY^x thLv¹tb bvi^x me⁰vB w¹bcw¹oZ |

m⁻ v¹ t¹et⁻

t¹et⁻ m¹ac⁰vq m¹ú¹tK⁰evsj v¹t⁻ tk M¹telYvi msL⁻v L¹pe tekx bq | G m¹ú¹mK²
 M¹telYv M⁰š⁻ t¹j vi t¹Kv¹bwB G¹t⁻ i mvgwM¹K i¹cl¹tK Z¹tj ai¹tZ cv¹ti¹vb | Dalton
 Gi g¹tZ t¹et⁻ iv nt⁻ "Q ew¹RMi, nvZ mvdvBKvix c¹ÖviK, f¹wel⁻ Z e³v l hv¹hvei
 wK¹Vix | Zviv gwj gvb ntj l A¹tbK w¹n⁻ y¹ixwZ-bw¹WZ cvj b Kti | Giv hv¹hvei
 ntj l w¹efb⁰e⁻ j⁻ v¹tb G¹t⁻ i "Head Center" i t¹qt⁰Q (Dalton :1872) |

Hunter tet`t`i wKQytckvi K_v Dťj Ł Ktib| Giv tbsKvq emevmKvix Ges
 fvtjv Wpjx| Giv Rjvkq ntZ gřv mSMh Kti Ges AjsKvi `Zix Kti wep
 Kti| Giv `Ŧ wKvix| Atbtk Avevi K.I.K wntmte fwtZ `vqx wbevmo MoťQ
 (Hunter: 1877)|

1962 mvtj wRvgj`xb Avntg` Ŧj vDqvŦ mřcŦvq wbtq MtelYv Ktib| Giv
 tet` mřcŦvtqi GKw Dc-wefvM| wZwb Zvt`i A_ŦwZK Rxeb, kř-wefvM,
 mřuŦE, DĖiwaKvii wbgg-Kvbp, bvixi ghřv, wetq l wetq msřvš-Abřvbw` ,
 HwZn`evnx weevn-iwZ, mvgwRK wePvi cřwZ Ges mvgwRK cwi eZB wbtq
 Avťj vPbv Ktib| wRvgj`xb Avntg` Zvi `xNŦAvťj vPbvq j vDqv mřcŦvtqi
 bviťi ghřvi e`vcvťi Avťj vKcvZ KtiťQb| wZwb etj b j vDqv tMvŦťZ
 tgťqiv cwi evťi tevSv bq eis mřu` | wetqi AvM chš-tgťqiv wczv-gvZvi
 Rb` DcvRb Kti| tKvb tKvb tŦťŦ gñjviv Zvt`i `Ŧgxi tPtq tekx DcvRb
 Kti| A_ŦwZK `wbfřZv j vDqv bvixi weevnZ mřuťKř tŦťŦ `řxbZv cŦvb
 KtiťQ| tm `Ŧgxi Dci A_ŦwZKfvte wbfřKxj bq weavq hLb Lřx `ŦgťK
 ZvjvK wťZ cvťi| weevn wet`Q` wKsev `Ŧgxi gZi Zvi Rxeťb tKvb Aw_ř
 `jve`v tWťK Avťb bv| kwii xKfvte mvg_`evb ntj Pwj k ermi eqťm l tm
 cřwevñ KiťZ cvťi| j vDqv bvix `řxbfvte Pjvťdiv KiťZ cvťi| Zte
 mřcŦvtqi `eVK wKsev Ab`vb` mvgwRK KgřvťŦ Zvi fwtKv tMSY| Rvnbvivi
 nK tPšajx Sedentarization Ges tet`t`i Dci Gi cřve mřuťKŦAvťj vPbv
 Ktib| wZwb Dťj Ł Ktib tet` mřcŦvtq bvix `řxbZv we`gvb| cřvekvj x
 gñnj g mgvťRi wBKU Giv NwYZ| tet` bvixiv DcvRb Kti etj cwi evi l
 mgvťR Ab`vb` gñnj g bvix Aťcřv Zvt`i Ae`vb kwřkvj x|

tet` bvixiv c`řcŦv tgťb Pťj bv etj Ab`vb` gñj gvbiv Zvt`i mgvťj vPbv
 Kti| G Kvity tet` cř`liv eZřvťb bviťi tK Nti l c`řq ivLvi tPŦv
 KiťQ| wKš` RweKvi ZwMť` Zvt`i tK evBti thťZB nt`Q (Zahanara:
 1996)| W. nweej ingvb 1990 t`ťK 1992 Bs mñj chš-Ŧmñ`vi tet` Ŧ
 mřcŦvtqi Dci gvKgřvřEK MtelYv cwi Pvj bv Ktib| wZwb Zvt`i mvgwRK
 cwi eZB tK meřak cřavb` wťq Avťj vPbv KtiťQb| wZwb t`Lv th, Zvt`i
 eZřvb `vqx Avevm wřvřEK Rxeb Zvt`i HwZn`evnx RwiZZwřEK cwi Pq e`ťj
 wť`Q| thťnZi Zviv GLb enĖi gñnj g RbťMvŦxi cvkvcvk Avevm MoťQ, GťZ
 meřxbfvte Zviv H RbťMvŦx Ŧviv cřweZ ntq coťQ|

W. ingvb etj b, mñ`vi tet` RbťMvŦx Ŧtet` Ŧ bvtg cwi wPZ ntZ cŦ` Kti
 bv| KvY Acivci gñnj g mřcŦvq tet`t`i tK bxPř RwiZ wntmte MY` Kti|
 wZwb t`ťLťQb th, tet` iv Zvt`i HwZn`evnx tckv Z`vM Kti řtgB Ab` tckvi

cōZ AvMōx ntq DtVtQ| Ab" tckv MōtYi gva"tg Zviv Zvt`i mvgwRK ghP v
eϣ× Ki tZ Pvt"Q|

mᵛ`vi gᵛnjviv Zvt`i HwZn"MZ tckv Pw wepui gva"tgB RweKv ubeñ Kti
_vtK| Gi cvkvck gᵛv I wPbvglUi evmb-tKvmb wepui I Kvuv tmjvB Zvt`i
mv=cōZK tckv| mᵛ`vi tet` m=cōvtqi cj"liv maviYZ: "vqx tKvb tckvq
wb tqwRZ bq| A"vqxfvte Giv QvZv wK Kiv, gvQ aiv BZ"w` KvR Kti|
mᵛ`vi tet` gᵛnjv cwi evtii wmsnfvM A_©Avq Kti| 60% gᵛnjv wBR DcwRZ
A_©wBR cōqvRb I B"Qv Abjvnti LiP Kivi ¶lgZv ivtLb| 23.35% gᵛnjv
"vgxi mvt_ tevSvovi gva"tg msmvtii e"q ubeñ Ktib|

G m=cōvtqi wePvi kwj m e"e"v cj"lt`i wqštY| cōqvRtb mv¶x wntmte
gᵛnjvt`i Dcw"Z Kiv nq wKŠ wePvi KigwltZ tKvb gᵛnjvtK Ašf⁸ Kiv nq
bv| mᵛ`vi gᵛnjviv ivR%wZKfvte mtpZb bq| AZtZ Zvt`i tfvUwaKvi wQj
bv| eZgvtb Zviv tfvUvi| ubePtb mgq "vgxi K_vbjvnti A_ev wBR cQ`gZ
Zviv tfvU t`q|

mᵛ`vi tet` tMvōxi tekxi fvM cwi eviB GKK cwi evi| Gt¶tĤ t`Lv tMtQ th,
DĖi`vZvt`i gta" 29.97% thŠ_, 63.37% GKK cwi evi, 6.36% "ūwZ|
Mtēlyi mjeavt_©weevwZv gᵛnjvt`i tKB DĖi`vZv wntmte tbqv nq hv`i
43.33% wetq tiwRw÷tenxb| wetq t¶tĤ thŠZtKi e"envi t`Lv hvq|

wivcĖv

tbŠKvevmx mᵛ`vt`i KvQ t_tK Rvbw hvq th, e"emvi KvR ct_ bvgtj Zviv
KLtbv KLtbv wivcĖvxbZvq tfvtM Zte`j ex _vtK etj fimv cvq|

"¶" I wKmv

Avgt`i t`tki we"gvb mgvR e"e"vq Guv "vfwēK th, mᵛ`vi bvix-cj"tli
tPtq _bMZ I cwi gYmZ Dfq Lv"B Kg MōY Kti| dtj`"¶" "¶"
tiwvμvš-ntq Zvt`i kᵛkw³ webó nq| MYgva"tgi ms"útk©mᵛ`vi bvix
cwi evi cwi Kí bvi e"vcvti mtpZb ntq DVtQ|

m`vi bvix cweZBky ghPv

ctē⁸ 12w wbt`RtKi gva"tg Pi Pbcvovi mᵛ`vi tet` gᵛnjvt`i eZgwb
ghP vi "tjc D`wvUtb mvt_ mvt_ ceē"vi Zj bv Kiv ntqtQ|

1. m`vi bixi nPjZv

ghP mZ Ae`v tevSvi Rb` Mobility GKw i`ZcY`bR`RK| Gi gva`tg cteP Ae`vi muf_ eZgub Ae`vi Zj bv Kiv mæ| mv`vi gwnjv KvRi c0qvRtbB `bvšti thtZ eva`| newfbæNvtU tbŠKv wfwotq e`emv `e` gv_vq enb Kti Giv tdix Kti | DcwRZ At`msmvti i wRbm wKtb Giv evox tdti | eZgub fwtZ Dtv Avmvi ci fgevmx mv`vi bixi wbtR`i evotZ t`vKvb Lj tQb| e`emv `e` tKbv wKsev wvpi Rb` bixi`i t`j cy`livB c0vb fwtKv iLvLQ| cy`liv PKevRvi t`tK Pwo, gy`v wKtb Avtb| gwnjviv Nti etm Aj ¼vi evbvq| cieZ0Z cy`livB tm_tjv cvBKvix `ti evRvti wvpi Kti Avtm| tbŠKvevmx Mn`vj x KvRI Zviv Kti | tbŠKvevmx mv`vi cy`l mšvb jvj b cvj b l Mn`vj x KvR gwnj vt`i mnvqZv Kti |

fgevmx mv`vi gwnj vt`i tPtq GLtbv tbŠKvevmx gwnj vt`i mPjZv tekx| mtgB mv`vi bixi`i Pj vPj mxwZ ntq AvmtQ Ges Zv cy`l`i AbgwZ mvtc`l ntq cotQ|

2. m`vi bixi cwiwiK wvš-M0Yi l`gZv

mv`vi cy`liv A_0wZKfvte GLtbv bixi`i Dci AtbKvstk wbfPkj ntj l cwiwiK wvš-M0Yi t`l`l ZvivB KZZj Kti | tbŠKvevmx gwnjviv tckvMZ Kvty evBti tekx mgq KvUvq etj mšvt`i `wqZi`0gxi Dci _vtK| dtj Gt`l`l cy`liv GKvB wvš-tbb| fgevmx mv`vi gwnjviv eZgub c0q mKj t`l`lB cy`li KZZyxb| dtj tKvb t`l`lB Zviv GKKfvte wvš-M0Yi l`gZv ivLb| Avq tivRMvti e`vcti cy`liv Pevš-iKg D`vmb ntj l Gt`l`l `xi gZvgtZi tKvb i`Zi Zviv t`q bv| `vqx wbevmti mPbv nlqvq cy`l`i KZZfive tetotQ| gwnjviv cteP Zj bvq Zv tekx tgb wbt`Q|

3. `0xI cwiwti Ab`b` m`m` i KQ t`tK c0Aviy

tbŠKv wKsev fwtZ emevmKvix KgRwe mv`vi bixi Zvi tckv KtgP cvkvwK `0gx mšvtbi cwi PhPKti _vtK| cy`liv c0QB w0Zxq wetqi AvM0 cKvk Kti | Amy` Ae`vql bixi`i e`emvi av`vq tei ntZ nq|

4. tckwZ t`l`l tµZv`i Aviy

DĒi`vZv`i e³e` Abhvqx AZxtZ tµZv`i KvQ t`tK eZgubi Zj bvq tekx mšvb cvlqv thtZv| newfbækYxi tµZv wQj Ges `0GKw e`wZµg Qrov Zv`i tek fvtjv wQj | eZgub GB gwnjviv e`emv Ki tZ wMtq bvbv `p`envti i wKvi nq|

5. **mv`vi bviXi AvZvbfPkjZvGes fvel`r mufK©y`vZv**

tbŠKvq evmiZ mv`vi tet`bxiV vbtRt`i e`emv KiťZ eva` nt`Q| Zte Zvt`i GB Kg¶lgZv Zvt`i tK mvnm thvMvt`Q| evBti i cy`lťi i mvť_ K_v ejťZ Zviv mstKvPbnxb | A`w`gy³ | cy`ťli cvkvvcvk iv`vNvťU Pj vPj Zvt`i AvZvbfPkjZv emotq w`ťqtQ| `v̄gx l cwi evťi i Ab`vb` m`ťm`i mvť_ hť_ó| fwevmx mv`vi bvixiv Gť¶ťť wKQv cwi ewZ AvPiY Kti _vťK| Zviv μtgB cy`l vbfP ntq cotQb etj Zvt`i AvZvbfPkjZv KgtQ|

mv`vi bvixiv vbtRt`i fvel`r vbtq fvetQb| eZgvtb Zviv Zvt`i D`PvKv•LvťK vjv b KiťQb Ges G Dťi k` AR¶bi c`ť¶cl vbtqťQb| Zviv fvel`ťZi Rb` mĀq KiťQ Ges tQtj tqtqť`i wkv¶Z Kivi `ċđ` LťQb|

6. **nšb wlqK gñvfe**

mv`vi bvixiv cŃq mKťjB Zvt`i G tckv cwieZťb AvMŃx| Ab` tKvb Kg©¶lgZv l wkv¶v bv _vKvq Bť`OgZ tckv cwieZťb KiťZ cviťQ bv| ZvB mšvbt`i wkv¶Z Kti f`mgvťR Avmb cŃBB Zvt`i AvKv•Lv| Aí eqťm vevťq ntq hvlqv mv`vi tqtqiv Zvt`i Kb`vt`i 18-20 eQt i vevťq w`ťZ Pvb| vevťq mĀúťK©Zvt`i GB mťPZbZv mv`cŃZK|

7. **Rbngť¶ mv`vi bviXi `k`gbZv**

mv`vi bvixi Public Space Ges Visibility μtgB KgtQ| Kg¶ťťť cy`ťli i AskMŃY e¶x cvl qvq `ť`i evBti hvlqv Zviv cQ` KiťQb bv|

8. **A_¶vZK vvcĚv**

DcvRŃ¶lg mv`vi gñjviv `v̄gx l cwi evťi i Ab`vb` m`m`ť`i fťq fxZ bb| Zte cwi ewi K kwš-i¶vť_©Zviv `v̄gxi nvťZ A_©Zťj t`qvťKB fvťjv gťb Kťib| mv`vi gñjviv `v̄gxťK Qvovl msmvi Pvj vťZ m¶lg|

9. **DcvRZ A_ċťqi `vxbZv**

AvZvbfPkj mv`vi bvixi ^DcvRZ A_©cwi evťi i Rb`B LiP Kťib| cwi evťi Zvt`i GB Ae`vb Zvt`i ghP vťK mĀcñwi Z KiťQ| Zte tKvb tKvb t¶ťť GB A_ċ`v̄gxi nvťZ Zťj w`ťZ eva` nb| ZvB eťqi `vxbZv Le¶q|

10. **cwi ewi K MŃi evBti bviXi AskMŃb**

mv`vi tet` mĀcŃvq R¶š, gZi, vevťq c¶vZ mvgwRK Abpřbw` cvj b Kti | R¶š l ċewwK AvPri-Abpřtb gñjvť`i mμq AskMŃY AZxZ l eZgvtb

mgfvteB eZgub itqtQ| eis fwg msukéZvi Kvity G mKj Abpvtbi e'wß
 tetotQ Ges gwnj vt'i -Z:ûZ©AskMöYI itqtQ| Zte Gtñtñ gwnj vt'i
 Avb` Kivi mthvM ZZUv tbB hZUv Zviv kg t`q| G mKj KvRi e'e'vcbvq
 Zvt'i ZZUv „i“Zj tbB| A_P Zvt'i mweR cwi kgB cöZu AbpvtbK cöYeš-
 Kti tZvtj | hvhvei ntZ w-wZ Ae-v A_® fwtZ -vqx vbevm MotZ 'i' Kivq
 µtgB gwnj vt'i wePiY tñt mwgZ ntq AvmtQ| G tñtñZ agñq wevfbe
 Abpvtb gwnjviv Ab`Zg AvtqvRK I e'e'vcK wntmte ivbvevbe BZ`w`
 KvR,tjv Kti -vtKb| Drmte thvM t`b Ges Ct` teortZI tei nb| Zte
 Gtñtñ Zvt'i Ae'vbtbi Zj bvq „i“Zj Kg bq| KvY Drmtei e'qfvi gj Z:
 ZvivB enb Ktib| eZgub Zvt'i gta` ivR%wZK mPZbZv epv cvt`Q| Zviv
 tfvUwaKvi cöqvm Ktib|

11. cwiwK I thŠZK wtiA AvBb mñtK®mPZbZv

AZxtZi hvhvei mv`vi bvix`i ivóiq AvBb mñtK®Kvb Ávb wQj bv| wKš`
 eZgub cwiwZ Ae-vq MYgra'tgi cñviZvq Zviv wBR AnaKvi mñtK®
 mPZb ntq DñtQ| GLb Zviv Rvtb wZ:mñuñtZ tqtqi AnaKvi AvtQ|
 wZxq wetq cö_g -xi AbgwZ mvtcñ| wetqi tiwRt÷kb nq| Bt`Q gtZv
 Zvj vK t`qv hvq bv| thŠZK wbtj kvw`-t`qv hvq|

12. cwevi cwKí bvnñtK®m`vi bvixi ghbfve

tiwWI wlvfi cñviYvi Kj`vtY eZgub mv`vi bvix`i RbwbqšY mñtK®
 tgvUvgw aviYv RtbñQ| -vgxi Awb`Qvi Kvity gwnjviv RbwbqšYi c×wZ
 MöY KitZ cviñQb bv| Zte fwevmx AtbK gwnjvB -vgxi ÁvZ A_ev
 AÁvZmvti RbwbqšYi Rb`e'e'v wbtq -vtKb|

Dcnsni

evsjt`tk µgkt cjt`li cvkvwnk A_®wZK wlvqKtg®bvixi AskMöb epv
 cvt`Q| mv`vi mgvR bvixiv HvZn`MZfvteB tckvRxex tkYx| tckvMZ`wqZj
 cvj tbi cvkvwnk Zviv mvsmvwi K I mvgwRK`wqZj| cvj b KitQ| GB bvix
 mgvRi mvgwRK gh®vi ifc wbañY, mgMö tckvRxex bvix`i gh®vi GKw
 Ask wntmte cZxqgvb|

D³ MtelYvgjK cñtÜ MtelK cwiwvi, mvgwRK wevfbeñtñt Z_v ag®
 ivRbwZ, tckv BZ`w` tñtñt bvixi fwgKvi Ae'vb I „i“Zj AZxZ I eZgub
 Ae'v hvPvBKtñ cwiwZöKj ifc D`ñvUbtbi tPón KtiñQb|

cōgZ: MteIK GKwU wetKI tMvōx wntmte mv`vi tet`t`i cwiPq cōvṭb mṭPó
ntqtQb| Gtṭt̃ t`Lv hvq th, hvhvei GB tkYx μtgB hvhvei eṂ Z`wM Kti
fwgtZ `vqx ewm`vi f̃c emwZ MoṭQ Ges tckv cwi eZḂ KiṭQ|

cieZṭZ newfbœ Awṭz̃K bvixi ghṖvi ifc wbaṭt̃Yi tPón Kiv ntqtQ|
cōwgKfṽte cwi evi ev Nt̃ii mKj KgRṽt̃Ūi Dci KgRwe mv`vi bvix
AwaKZi w̃bqšY ARḂ KtiṭQ etj gṭb nt̃j l w̃bveo mvṭvrKṽt̃ii gva`tg t`Lv
hvq `ṽgxi w̃m×ṽšB Pōvš-etj w̃etwPZ nq| Zte tKvb tṭt̃ bvixi ṭlgZvqbt̃K
hvPvB Kiv ntqtQ t̃m, t̃jv mst̃ṭ̃c Dc`w̃cZ nj hv MteYvi gva`tg cōB
djvdj t̃K A_ēn Kti Zj te|

mv`vi bvixi DcwRZ A_°cwi eṽt̃ii Aw_R `^Qj Zv Avbqb Kit̃j l Zvi
`ṽabZv meṭṭt̃ t̃KZ bq| fwgtZ D̃t̃V Avmvi ci bvixi PjvP̃t̃j i `ṽabZv
c̃teṖ Zj bvq ñm t̃ct̃qt̃Q| cwi eṽt̃ii newfbœ w̃m×ṽš-Mōt̃Yi tṭt̃ bvix gj Z:
cj`t̃li DciB w̃bfp̃Kj | GLṽt̃b j ṭYxq th, bvixi DcwRZ A_°Zvi ewwZ
`ṽabZv, `ṽab gZvgZ c̃Kvk Kiv w̃Ksev KṽhRix Kivi m̃úY`ṽi Db̃ṭ̃ KiṭZ
cṽt̃w̃b| Avevi eZḡṽt̃bi mv`vi bvixiv m̃smṽt̃ii k̃w̃št̃ Rb` Acivci bvix̃t̃i
gZ cōZev` bv Kti eis w̃cZZw̃šK mgṽt̃Ri c̃ṭ̃j Z i w̃Zb̃w̃Zt̃KB AvZ` Kti
tet̃P Aṽt̃Qb| mv`vi bvixi AvZw̃bfp̃Kj Zv c̃teṖ Zj bvq ñm t̃ct̃qt̃Q Zte
Zviv f̃vel`r w̃b̃t̃q w̃Pšṽf̃vebv KiṭZ `i i` KtiṭQb| DcvR̃bi A_°`ṽgxi nṽt̃Z
Zt̃j t`qv, t̃Kv_vl th̃t̃Z nt̃j `ṽgxi Ab̃g̃w̃Z t̃bqv Ges Pjṽt̃divi tṭt̃ w̃ewa
w̃b̃t̃la Gme t̃t̃K GUv m̃y`úó th, cwi evi Z_v mgṽt̃R mv`vi bvixi ghṖ w̃MZ
Ae`ṽb mgṽt̃Ri Ab`ṽb` KgRwe bvixi t̃P̃t̃q t̃Zgb w̃fbœ w̃KQy bq| `ṽabfṽte
t̃fṽU `ṽt̃bi AwaKvi t̃t̃KI bvixiv ew̃AZ| newfbœ c̃ṭ̃ṽi Yvi gva`tg cwi ew̃i K
AvBb, th̃šZK w̃b̃t̃iva AvBb, w̃et̃qi t̃i w̃R̃t̃÷kb BZ`w̃ w̃el q, t̃jv m̃ú̃t̃K°Zviv
Rvb̃t̃Z `i i` Kiṭj l ev`te Gi c̃ṭ̃qṽM l KṽhR̃w̃i Zv L̃p̃B m̃w̃gZ|

GLvbKvi KgR̃ex g̃w̃jviv cwi evi cwi Kíbv w̃et̃q B̃t̃`Q _vKv m̃t̃Ēj `ṽgxi
D`ṽm̃xbZv l Aṽb`Qv Ges ag̃x̃q m̃s`ṽt̃ii Kṽt̃Y Rb̃w̃bqš̃t̃Yi c̃×w̃Z MōY KiṭZ
cṽt̃Qb bv| tet` bvix ej̃t̃ZB mṽaviY g̃ṽb̃t̃li g̃ṽbm̃ct̃U th Q̃me t̃f̃t̃m l̃t̃v
mv`vi g̃w̃jviv Zv t̃t̃K eZḡṽt̃b tek w̃KQ̃ṽ `̃t̃i m̃t̃i G̃t̃m̃t̃Q| mv`vi g̃w̃jṽt̃i
R̃xeb μtgB cj`l w̃bfp̃ l M̃t̃K̃w̃`K nt̃q cõt̃Q|

mv`vi bvixiṽl w̃j ½ w̃fṽĒK `el̃tg`i w̃K̃Kvi nt̃q g̃ṽb̃ewaKvi nt̃Z ew̃AZ nt̃`Q|
DcvR̃Ḃṭlg ñl qv m̃t̃Ēj `ṽabfṽte Pjvi AwaKvi Zviv cṽt̃`Q bv| cj`l Z̃w̃šK
tet` mgṽt̃R bvix̃t̃K Zvi t̃kYxi ciR̃we c̃ṭ̃Ỹt̃Z cwi YZ Kti i ṽLvi ñxb c̃ṭ̃P̃ṽi
c̃ṭ̃Zdj b NUṽt̃Z G mgṽt̃Ri t`Lv hvq| m̃w̃eR̃ Aṽt̃j ṽP̃bvi t̃c̃ṭ̃t̃Z ej v hvq th,

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˘vqx wbevM MVb | MYgvaʔgi ms˘útkP KviʔY GB bvixiv cʔeP Zj bvq
ghP vi e˘vcvʔi AwAK mʔPZb nʔq DVʔQ WKB WKS' ghP v ARB KiʔZ cviʔQ
bv | eis µʔgB G mgvʔR bvixi ghP v cj ʔI i B"Qvaxb nʔq cotQ |

mv`vi bvix t`tki KgRwe bvix mgvʔRiB GKW Ask | ZvB thvM Zv Abjvqx
meʔʔtʔ Zvʔ i KʔgP gj ˘vqb | ghP v wvWZ Kiv cʔqvRb |

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Saleswomen in Bangladesh: A Case Study of the Metropolitan Khulna City

Md. Mizanur Rahman *

Nargis Akhter **

Abstract

The present study focused on the profile of saleswomen working in the Metropolitan Khulna City, their attitudes towards work related aspects and the attitudes of their authorities and customers towards their performance. The authorities of saleswomen can take help from this study to know about the saleswomen's attitudes towards their job so that they can take some organizational measures and the study also provides the scope to make the customers aware of their behaviour towards the saleswomen. The study can also be helpful for the saleswomen to improve their morale because a vast majority of both authorities and customers are satisfied with saleswomen's performance and these attitudes may encourage more women to enter this job. Future study on this topic with a vast sample would be able to formulate more representative findings and policy implications.

Introduction

Many people consider selling and marketing as synonyms but selling is actually one of the many marketing components (Futrell, 1996). Selling is considered as one of the oldest professions in the world. The people who do sales job are known as sales people, sales representatives, account executives, sales consultants, sales engineers, agents, district managers, marketing representatives, etc. The sales people serve as a linking pin between a company and its customers. They find and develop new customers and provide new information about the company's products and services. They need to do many things in selling products. These are approaching

* Professor, Business Administration Discipline, Khulna University, Khulna, Bangladesh.

** Associate Professor, Department of Business Administration, East West University, Dhaka, Bangladesh.

customers, presenting their products, answering objections, negotiating prices and terms and closing sales. In addition, sales people provide customer service and conduct market research and intelligence work. At the same time, sales people convey customer concerns about the company products and actions to the concerned people (Kotler, 2004).

Today's sales people are enjoying a dynamic power in the business world more than ever before. They produce more revenue in the U.S economy than workers in any other profession. Many of the Americans feel sales people have made America great. Selling requires long hours of hard work. The salespeople need to plan at night about the next day's activities and work on many weekly and other holidays also. Sales knowledge can be gained through education, reading, formalized sales training, word-of-mouth, etc. This knowledge is helpful in improving overall sales ability but actual experience is the critical source of sales knowledge. Authors and trainers can provide only general guidelines as a framework for action but actual selling experience is required to have a direct feedback on how to function in a specific selling situation (Futrell, 2003).

Women constitute half of the world population but right through history they have been assigned a secondary status in all regions and culture. However, the world wars proved to be a landmark in the evolution of the status of women in the world and the participation of women in the workplace has started increasing since then (Jeyarathnam, 1994)

In consonance with the worldwide trend, Bangladeshi women have gained some economic significance and are increasingly recognized as an important source of manpower. They are definitely seen and heard in work environments. Today, educated Bangladeshi women have made a landmark in nonconventional fields like consultancy, marketing, advertising, interior decoration, etc.

Some studies have been conducted abroad on the saleswomen. (Swan and others, 1984; Schul & Wren, 1992; Sojka & Tansuhai, 1997, etc.). Although a number of studies have been conducted on the working women in Bangladesh, not a single study so far has been conducted on the saleswomen in Bangladesh. In this study an attempt has been made to focus on the saleswomen of the Metropolitan

Khulna City - their profile, their attitudes towards their jobs and the perceptions of their authorities and customers towards their performance. This case study will give an idea about the saleswomen in Bangladesh.

Objectives of the Study

The study is undertaken with the following objectives:

1. to study the profiles of saleswomen of the Metropolitan Khulna City which will give an idea about the sales women in Bangladesh.
2. to know their attitudes towards their job.
3. to know the attitudes of their authorities and customers towards the performance of saleswomen.

Methods

Sample

The sample consists of 60 respondents. Among these 60 respondents, 25 are saleswomen, 20 are customers and the rest are 15 authorities of sales women. The samples were purposively selected from the Metropolitan Khulna City. In this study, the saleswomen refer to those working women who work at different sales centers and provide goods directly to the customers.

Data Collection

The data collected in this study fell into two categories: (a) factual data and (b) attitudinal data. The factual data cover information relating to saleswomen's profiles such as their age; educational qualifications; educational qualifications of their parents and husbands (in case of married sales women); occupations of their parents and husbands; their marital status; main earning member of the family; monthly salary of the main earning member of the family, reason behind choosing this job; working hours; leave; week-end; selection and training patterns; their own monthly salary; work experience; etc. The attitudinal data cover the attitudes of saleswomen towards their job and also the attitudes of their authorities and customers towards their performance. Likert-type five-point scale was used to collect attitudinal data. Three indices were prepared to measure the attitudes of three groups of respondents.

In order to determine the saleswomen's job satisfaction index, mean value of sales women's attitudes were calculated to the below mentioned 9 items on the five-point scale:

- (a) authorities' behave
- (b) customers' behave
- (c) male colleagues' behave
- (d) female colleagues' behave
- (e) salary
- (f) washroom facilities
- (g) leave
- (h) bonus
- (i) working hours.

Saleswomen were rated to have job satisfaction if their average score was in the range of 27 to 45 and to have dissatisfaction if their average score was below 27.

In order to determine the authorities' satisfaction index, mean value of authorities' attitudes towards the saleswomen was calculated to the below mentioned 8 items on the 5 point scale:

- (a) women are courteous
- (b) women are prompt
- (c) they are punctual
- (d) obey the rules and regulations
- (e) logical
- (f) can handle customers efficiently
- (g) customers are comfortable with women
- (h) more women should enter this job.

Authorities were rated to have satisfaction towards saleswomen's performance, if their average score was in the range of 24 to 40 and to have dissatisfaction if their average score was below 24.

The mean value of customers' attitudes towards saleswomen were calculated to the below mentioned 6 items on the 5 point scale:

- (a) women are courteous
- (b) women are prompt
- (c) logical
- (d) can handle customers efficiently
- (e) customers are comfortable with women
- (f) more women should enter this job.

Customers were rated to have satisfaction towards saleswomen's performance if their average score was in the range of 18 to 30 and to have dissatisfaction if their average score was below 18

Three sets of questionnaires were used to elicit response from three groups of samples (saleswomen, authorities of saleswomen and customers). Before going to final survey, a pilot survey was conducted in a large business concern where a number of saleswomen are working. On the basis of the data yielded by the pilot study necessary changes were made in the questionnaires.

Findings of the Study

Sales Women's Profile

Age

The respondent's age ranges from 18 to 35 years which reveals that majority of the sample saleswomen in Bangladesh started their job before 25 years of their age. This indicates that relatively young women are more interested to work here.

Educational Qualifications of Saleswomen

All saleswomen are literate and fifty six percent of them are below undergraduate. The study also reveals that a majority of the sample sales women are students. It indicates that a very high level of education is not necessary for this job.

Fathers' Educational Qualifications

Fathers of all sample saleswomen are literate. Although all of them are literate, sixty two percent of them are below undergraduate.

Mother's Educational Qualifications

Mothers of all sales women are literate but majorities (92%) of them are below undergraduate.

Marital Status

Majorities (72%) of the sample saleswomen are unmarried.

Husband's Educational Qualifications

Majorities (65%) of the sales women's husbands have completed graduation.

Father's Occupation

The study revealed that sixteen percent of the sales women's husbands have died. Among the rest eighty four percent, twenty,

thirty two, and twelve percent are in managerial job, clerical job and in business respectively and twenty percent of the saleswomen's fathers are retired persons.

Mother's Occupation

The researchers found that eight percent of the saleswomen's mothers have died. Among the rest ninety two percent, sixty four percent, four percent, eight percent and sixteen percent are house wives, executives, clerks and teachers respectively.

Husband's Occupation

Only twenty percent of the saleswomen are married and their husbands are in managerial job, clerical job, teaching and in business.

Main Earning Member of the Family

In case of sixty percent of unmarried saleswomen, father is the main earning member of the family. In other cases, their brother, they themselves, mother, sister and others such as paternal or maternal uncle is the main earning member of the family.

Main Earning Member's Monthly Salary

Monthly salary of the main earning member of the family (in case of unmarried women) ranges from below 5000 to 20,000. In fifty five percent of the cases the salary is below 5000 which is very poor.

Saleswomen's Monthly Salary

Saleswomen's monthly salary ranges from below 500 to 3500. This reveals that they get a very poor amount as their monthly salary.

Reasons behind Choosing this Job

Saleswomen were asked to mention the reason behind choosing their job. Fifty two percent of them responded that they like this type of job, forty percent of them responded that they did not get another job and the rest eight told that they have come to this job just for time passing (Table 1).

Table 1: Reasons behind Choosing this Job

Reasons	No. of Sales Persons
I like this job	13(52%)
I did not get another job	10(40%)
Any other reason (Please specify)	2 (8%)

Hours of Work in a Day

The number of working hours ranges from 5 to 12 hours. The corresponding table reveals that forty eight percent, eight percent, eight percent, twenty percent and sixteen percent have to work for five, six, seven, eight, and for twelve hours respectively.

Table 2: Hours of Work in a Day

Hours	Respondents
5	12(48%)
6	2(8%)
7	2(8%)
8	5(20%)
12	4(16%)

Weekend

In answer to the question regarding the number of week-end all of them told that they get one day as week-end.

Leave

The study reveals that only twelve percent of the saleswomen get 21 days casual leave and eighty eight percent of the saleswomen get leave on the basis of their prayer for some days due to personal reasons. The study also reveals that all the saleswomen get leave in religious festivals.

Bonus

The study reveals that all the saleswomen get festival bonus.

Overtime

In response to the questions whether overtime is allowed or not, sixty percent of the saleswomen told that their organizations allow overtime.

Selection and Training

The authorities selected them on the basis of interview and reference. 12% of the saleswomen received training from BRAC training centre and others received training from senior saleswomen of their organizations.

Work at night

Majorities (80%) of the saleswomen work at night. In answer to the questions whether they face any problem, 8% of them informed that they face problem in having vehicles at night.

The Opinions of Husbands

Majorities (71.43%) of saleswomen's husbands like their job. The respondents whose husbands like their job informed that their husbands like their job due to good environment. The respondents whose husbands don't like their job informed that very soon they will resign from the job.

Children Issue

Majorities (71.43%) of married saleswomen have children and when they go to their work place their mother in law or sister in law takes care of their children.

Parent's Opinions towards the Job of Sales Women

Majorities(84%) of the respondents informed that their parents like their job because of good environment. Sixteen percent respondents informed that their parents don't like their job because of lower salary and prestige and they are continuing because they did not get another job and they need money.

Saleswomen's Attitudes Towards their Jobs, Attitudes of Authorities towards Saleswomen and Attitudes of Customers towards Saleswomen

Attitudes of Saleswomen towards their Jobs

In these 9 items indices it was assumed that an average score from 27 to 45 would be an indication of job satisfaction among saleswomen. Judged from that point of view, the sample saleswomen have job satisfaction since the average score is 30.91 in this regard. It should be mentioned here that although the average score shows job satisfaction only twenty eight percent, four percent, twelve percent and eight percent are very much satisfied with authorities' behave; customer's behave; salary and working hours respectively (Table 3). The table 3 also reveals that none of them is very much satisfied with leave and bonus.

Table 3: Saleswomen's Attitudes towards their Jobs

Levels Items	Very much Satisfactory	Satisfactory	Neutral	Dissatisfactory	Very much Dissatisfactory
Authority's behave	7(28%)	10(40%)	7(28%)	1(4%)	--
Customer's behave	1(4%)	12(48%)	12(48%)		--
Male colleague's behave	4(57.14%)	2(28.57%)	1(14.29%)		
Female colleague's behave	10(40%)	8(32%)	5(20%)	2(8%)	--
Salary	3(12%)	10(40%)	7(28%)	5(20%)	--
Washroom Facilities	11(44%)	7(28%)		7(28%)	--
Leave	--	5(20%)	5(20%)	7(28%)	8(32%)
Bonus	--	7(28%)	8(32%)	4(16%)	6(24%)
Working hours	2(8%)	8(32%)	3(12%)	5(20%)	7(28%)

Attitudes of Authorities towards Saleswomen

In these 8 items indices it was assumed that an average score from 40 to 24 would be an indication of authorities' satisfaction towards saleswomen's performance. Judged from that point of view, the authorities are satisfied with saleswomen's performance since the average score is 35.73 in this regard. 60%, 53.33%, 60%, 53.33%, 60%, 53.33%, 53.33% and 100% of the authorities strongly agreed that women are courteous, prompt, punctual, logical, obey the rules and regulations, can handle customers efficiently, customers are comfortable with women and more women should enter this job respectively.

Table 4: Authorities' Attitudes towards Saleswomen

Items	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Women are courteous	9(60%)	3(20)	3(20)	--	--
Prompt	8(53.33%)	6(40%)	1(6.67%)	--	--
Punctual	9(60%)	5(33.33)	1(6.67%)	--	
Logical	8(53.33%)	1(6.67%)	3(20%)	2(13.33%)	1(6.67%)
Obeys the rules & regulations	9(60%)	5(33.33)	1(6.67%)	--	--
Can handle customers efficiently	8(53.33%)	7(46.67%)	--	--	
Customers are comfortable with women	8(53.33%)	5(33.33%)	2(13.33%)	--	--
More women should enter this job	15(100%)	--	--	--	--

Attitudes of Customers towards Saleswomen

In these 6 items indices it was assumed that an average score from 30 to 18 would be an indication of customers' satisfaction towards saleswomen. Judged from that point of view, the customers are satisfied with the saleswomen's performance since the average score is 23.55 in this regard. The table 5 exhibits that none of them neither disagreed nor strongly disagreed that women are efficient.

Table 5: Customers' Attitudes towards Saleswomen

Items	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Women are courteous	3(15%)	13(65%)	4(20%)	--	--
Prompt	1(5%)	15(75%)	4(20%)	--	--
Logical	8(40%)	12(60%)	--	--	
Can handle customers efficiently	3(15%)	11(55%)	6(30%)	--	--
Customers are Comfortable with women	7(35%)	7(35%)	6(30%)	--	--
More women should enter this job	10(50%)	9(45%)	1(5%)	--	--

Conclusions and Policy Implications

The study revealed that all the sample saleswomen are young and majorities of them are students. This reflects their enthusiastic and energetic nature to contribute to their family. The study also revealed that majorities of the sample saleswomen are unmarried, the fathers and mothers of all sample sales women are literate and the monthly income of the main earning member of the sales women's family is poor and the sample sales women draw a very poor amount as their monthly salary. The working hours range from 5 to 12 hours; majorities of them work for 5 hours; work for overtime where overtime is allowed; get one day as weekend; get only festival bonus; get leave in religious festivals and for some days on the basis of their prayer. A few number of the sales women received training from BRAC training centre and other get training from senior sales women of their organizations. Majorities of the saleswomen work at night and a very few number of the sales women informed that they face problem in having vehicles. The researchers found that although sample sales women have job satisfaction, a very few of them are very much satisfied with authorities' behave; customers' behave; salary and working hours respectively and none of them is very much satisfied with leave and bonus. Although a very few number of the sample sales women are satisfied with authorities behave and customers behave, a vast majority of both authorities and customers are satisfied with saleswomen's performance.

The study can be helpful for the authorities of saleswomen to know about the attitudes of saleswomen's towards their job so that the authorities can take some organizational measures. The study also provides the scope to make the customers aware of their behaviour towards the saleswomen. Findings regarding the attitudes of saleswomen's authorities and customers towards the saleswomen's performance can be helpful for the saleswomen to improve their morale because a vast majority of both authorities and customers are satisfied with saleswomen's performance and these findings can also be helpful to encourage more women to enter this job. Although this is a case study of the Metropolitan Khulna City, the readers may get an idea about the sales women in Bangladesh. However, there is an ample scope to further the study with a larger sample base.

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Shipbreaking Industry in Bangladesh: Challenge and its' future

Md. Arifur Rahman *
Muhammed Ali Shahin **

We would like to mention in the very beginning that recently the Government of Bangladesh has taken initiatives for formulating a national policy for the shipbreaking industry in Bangladesh. An inter ministrel meeting was held regarding this and later a committee is formed; called National Committee on Shipbreaking Policy. After finalizing the draft the policy will be approved. We welcome this initiative of the government.

In Bangladesh, Shipbreaking is now considered as formal industry by law. But what is the real situation? We should have a look on it. If it's formal then all the activities regarding shipbreaking should be formalized. There are no government bodies which especially deal with the shipbreaking activities; instead the issue is dealt with by several Govt. departments. There is no enforcement of the Labour laws, no legal binding framework in complying the international commitments, no environmental standard set for the industry, no institutional arrangement for monitoring of the ship breaking activities. There are no consolidated policies or strategies or guidelines in Bangladesh for ship dismantling. Unfortunately this is not a situation unique to shipbreaking.

Shipbreaking is the process of dismantling an obsolete vessel's structure for scrapping or disposal. It's the last destination of ships, where the ships go to die. Sitakund (Bhatuary to Barwalia), a few kilometers north of Chittagong on the Bay of Bengal, where the ship breaking industry, in Bangladesh, is concentrated.

The ship breaking industry has started its operation in 60's and it was widely spread in 80's in Sitakund. It's a very big and profitable

* Chief Executive, YPSA

** Program Officer, Shipbreaking Advocacy Campaign, YPSA

industry for our country. The activities contributed in many ways, those are:

1. Production of steel: the scrapping of ships provides the country's main source of steel and in doing so saves substantial amount of money in foreign exchange by reducing the need to import steel materials. Bangladesh needs 8 million tons of building materials per year, of which iron is a major component. The iron from recycled ships supplies around 90% of iron materials in the country. This does mean however, that the owners have more power and control over the amount of steel that is sold and the price it is sold at.
2. Almost everything on the ship and the ship itself is recycled, reused and resold. The scrapping of ships supplies raw materials to steel mills, steel plate re-manufacturing, as well as providing furniture, paint, electrical equipment and lubricants, oil to the number of businesses that have spouted up specifically as a result.
3. It generates large amounts of revenue for various Government authorities through the payment of taxes. Every year the Government collects almost 9000 million taka in revenue from the shipbreaking industry.
4. Employment. Despite the conditions that the workers are employed under, this is an industry that employs more than 30,000 people directly and 250, 000 more indirectly. It provides employment for some of the poorest people from the north of Bangladesh who would otherwise have no employment.

These mainly economic benefits have made shipbreaking a powerful industry. But these economic benefits should be considered together with the social and environmental costs. Together, with better regulation shipbreaking can also bring social and environmental benefits.

Though shipbreaking has earned a good reputation for being a profitable industry in developing countries, there are a number of human rights violation and environmental and human health hazards. According to the researchers the whole coastal area in Chittagong is in high risk by pollution generated from the shipbreaking activities. Toxic chemicals and hazardous materials, of scrap ships, are not managed in an environmentally sound way; the beach is black due to

oil spills, and fish have started to disappear. Also the shipbreaking activities has impact on the human health, directly to the workers; it has impact on the food chain, on physiochemical properties of seawater, impacts of ship breaking, inter tidal sediments and soil and above all the on the biodiversity.

Over the last twenty years more than 400 workers have been killed and 6000 seriously injured according to the Bangladeshi media. These are the ones that have been reported. The explosion of the Iranian tanker TT Dena on 31st May 2000 alone is said to have caused 50 deaths. To this toll, the thousands of cases of irreversible diseases which have occurred and will continue to occur due to the toxic materials that are handled and inhaled without any precautions or protective gear need to be considered.

On average, one worker dies in the yards a week and everyday a worker is injured (End of Life Ships: the Human Cost of Breaking Ships; Greenpeace, FIDH and YPSA; December 2005). It seems like nobody really cares: shipbreaking workers are easily replaceable to the yard owners: if one is lost they know another 10 is waiting to replace him due to the lack of work.

Further occupational health and safety precautions do not exist. Shipbreaking in Bangladesh is work intensive, all the work, from cutting to loading, is conducted manually. Shipbreaking carries a very real risk to life. By any standards, the demolition of ships is a dirty and dangerous occupation. The hazards linked to shipbreaking broadly fall into two categories: intoxication by dangerous substances and accidents on the plots. Explosions of leftover gas and fumes in the tanks are the prime cause of accidents in the yards. Another major cause of accidents is workers falling from the ships (which are up to 70 m high) as they are working with no safety harness. Other sources of accidents include workers being crushed by falling steel beams and plates and electric shocks.

Workers are not aware of the danger and hazards to which they are exposed. The overwhelming majority of workers wear no protective gear and many of them work barefoot. There is hardly any testing system for the use of cranes, lifting machinery or a motorized pulley. The yards re-use ropes and chains recovered from the broken ships without testing and examining their strength. There is no marking system of loading capacity of the chains of cranes and other lifting

machineries.

Consequently, workers suffer from lung problems which cause temporary loss of working capacity, also leading them to dangerous future diseases. The hatches and pockets of vessel may contain explosive or inflammable gases. The cutters, if they understand from experience, drill small holes in order to release gases or fumes. This still however, often cause severe explosions.

There are different groups of workers in the ship yard. Those are: Cutting group (who cut the big piece of the ships and iron), Loading group (who load the cut iron to the truck), wire groups (who pulls the wire to make tie between the pulling machine and big iron piece), Hammer group, etc. Gas cutters and their helpers, cut steel plates almost around the clock without eye protection. This leaves their eyes vulnerable to effects of welding. They do not wear a uniform and most don't have access to gloves and boots. Those that are 'unskilled' carry truckable pieces of iron sheets on their shoulders and there are no weight limits to the sheets they carry. The workers of the wire groups don't wear any protective or provided any personnel protective equipment like other workers.

The beaches are strewn with chemicals and toxic substances, small pieces of pointed and sharp iron splinters causing injuries. Workers enter into the areas without wearing or using any protective equipment. Occupational health and safety is clearly not a priority for the owners and as for the workers their desperate need to find employment to support their families means that their livelihoods take precedence over their lives.

In case of treatment facilities and compensation, there is nothing provided formally to the shipbreaking workers. When there is an injury some immediate treatment may be given but there is no long term treatment for those who have a long term or permanent injury. In terms of compensation, only a nominal amount of compensation given and often only when there is public pressure.

In case of disabled worker by any major accident, he gets a maximum of 10 to 15 thousand taka (1 USD=69 taka) and forced back to his home district. In most cases a worker will only get transportation costs to go back to their home district.

If a worker killed in an accident, the contractor, who is responsible for

overall activities of the shipyard, will only pay the costs of sending the body back to the victim's family and arranging for their burial.

In addition to the health and safety issues, workers work extremely long hours for little pay. For all this they have no entitlement to sick leave, annual leave or overtime and as they are hired on an hourly basis, they have no idea whether they'll have work the following day. Even the workers are not being provided any ID and there is no contract with the workers. It is also difficult for them to organize as they are threatened with their livelihoods if they join or try and form a union to bargain for better conditions. Child workers are seen working in the most dangerous activities of the shipyard. There are no training and precaution before involving the workers in the shipbreaking yards.

In this way the labour laws, including the labour laws 2006 is not enforcing at all in the shipbreaking industry to protect the workers' rights.

As mentioned, in Bangladesh, there is a lack of resources, and in some cases goodwill, to control the import of toxic vessels. Normally when a shipbreaker business man wants to buy a ship he has to apply for a 'No Objection Certificate' (NOC) from the authorized ministry. In most cases the documents received from shipbreakers are not that satisfactory which ensure compliance with existing legislation. The Basel Convention (convention on the trans boundary movement of hazardous waste and their disposal, 1989) which is supposed to regulate the import of end-of-life-vessels is being completely ignored.

The ships on the beach in Chittagong are in large coming from the developed world. Many of the shipping companies are based in Europe. These ship-owners are making huge profits as well by selling their ships to Bangladesh. The principle of not transferring harm to developing countries is currently not being respected at the international level.

Most of the materials on ship like (asbestos, PCBs, lead, cadmium, organotins, arsenic, zinc and chromium, Black oil, burned oil) have been defined as hazardous waste under the Basel Convention. In Bangladesh, ships containing these materials are being cut up by hand, on open beaches, with no consideration given to safe and environmentally friendly waste management practices.

Ships are not properly cleaned before beaching. Generally, an eyewash test is carried out to certify that a ship is free from dangerous chemical and fumes. Ship breaking activities is a threat to both the terrestrial and marine environment as well as to public health.

It can be mentioned that poor countries and their territories are not dustbins or any dumping place for the developed world. People who live in developing countries have the same right to a decent job; they also need to breathe fresh air and live in a protected environment.

Keeping these catastrophe in mind YPSA started the first long term advocacy campaign program to influence the policy makers to formulate a policy for the shipbreaking industry in Bangladesh. YPSA has done researches, surveys, lobby with highest policy level personnel's, organized different civil society organizations in national and local level, and also made effort to influence the international policy makers. It can be said YPSA tried to introduce shipbreaking in Bangladesh to the world in more detail and that we are working very intensively on the issue. Many national and international institutions, organizations, the media and individuals involved with YPSA for getting need information. In the field YPSA has been running activities to make workers more aware about their safety and their rights. The local community is gradually becoming more organized and responsive to the rights of workers through the formation of different forums, led by local journalists, civil society representatives, and students. In the beginning it was very difficult to get information and access to the shipyards but as we have established sources, it has become very difficult to hide information and the activities going on in the yards.

However, finally the government has taken initiatives for a policy. This policy should ensure the workers' rights and protect the environment from the pollution generated by the shipbreaking activities. It also should ensure the compliance with international commitment like Basel Convention, the environmentally sound management of shipbreaking, implementation of the labour laws and environment protection rules and laws, a regulatory board for the industry, and regular monitoring in the yards. The policy should consider these. These are some draft recommendations from us:

Ships are allowed to import for breaking, except war ships, ships

2. used in the Naval, ships operated by atomic power, ships used to carry radioactive materials, the ships containing huge toxic hazardous materials. Ships will not be allowable from the countries which is not the party of the Basel convention.

3. It should be ensured, before importing, that the ship is pre-cleaned and not containing any hazardous and radioactive materials. The concerned authority should ensure it. It also should be ensured that the hazardous waste will not harmfully effect on environment and human health.

4. The shipyards which have proper environmentally sound waste disposal facilities, and also which has environmentally sound management of ships dismantling, will get the permission for shipbreaking.

5. The inventory of the hazardous wastes should be handed over to the importing country by the ship owner/exporter. It is mandatory. Permission for importing ships is not possible without the inventory list of hazardous wastes. Before cutting the ships, the inspection team from the gov. will again make a statistical list of wastes (place and quantity) to ensure that the ship is pre-cleaned.

6. The ship should be properly decontaminated by the ship owner prior to the breaking. All the wastes (asbestos, PCB, crude oil, toxic sulfur, toxic oil or paints) of the ships should be pre cleaned by an international pre cleaning company before importing the ships. The gov. can provide a list of international pre-cleaned companies. The ships will not get permission to import with out prior pre-cleaned certificate from the international pre-cleaning companies.

7. An environmentally sound management of ship dismantling plan should be provided considering the inventory lay out of breaking ships, present status of the ship yards. By this plan it should be ensured the ship will be dismantled in a environmentally sound manner and the environment and human health will not be effected harmfully.

There should be technical ability, machineries, infrastructure and all sorts of capabilities to face every kind of risk and danger, exist in the ship breaking yards.

8. To prevent specified and liquid pollution, every ship yard should have proper waste (solid and liquids wastes) removal, decontamination and disposing facilities and also later to destroy them (wastes) permanently.

9. All the lower tanks or the lower parts of the ships should be gas free for hot work. Thereby Gas Free for Hot Work is mandatory. The ships will not get permission to be beached without the submission of this particular certificate.

10. After maintaining all the conditions mentioned above, an inspection of the ships will be occurred when the ships arrive in the outer water territory of Bangladesh, by an inspection team that is formed with the selected technical persons by gov. and a selected specialist from the importers. The team will give a report (1) to the authority.

11. Failure of the violation of any condition mentioned above or if there is any risk or possibilities that the ship can be a cause for harmful effect to the environment and human health, the ship owner/exporters are responsible to bring the ship back from the territory.

12. After maintaining all the conditions mentioned above, an inspection of the ship and the yard, will be occurred before beaching of the ships, by an inspection team that is formed with the selected technical persons by gov. and a selected specialist from the importers. The team will give a report (2) to the authority.

13. If there is any possibilities that will cause for any disturbance of safe waste removal, occupational safety and violation of workers' rights, then the approval of breaking ships will not be valid.

The shipbreakers will give a completion report to the concerned authorities after the complete breaking of the beached ships.

In case of Environment Protection, these draft comments can be considered:

2. Only the specific and permitted legal lands are allowed to set up shipbreaking yards.

3. Before starting the ship dismantling process, all the remaining waste (rest of the waste) should be removed. There should be a controlled system for the whole shipbreaking activities. To prevent the air and water pollution, this system should be especially active at the time of cutting and wastes removal process.
4. The shipbreaking activities, environmental sound manner, should be conducted according to the plan that is provided earlier.

All kinds of waste like- oil, sludge and other similar ' mineral oils and paints chips are carefully removed from the ship and taken immediately to areas outside the beach, for safe disposal.
5. Any oil, sludge and other similar mineral oils can not be reserved in the ship yards, it should be prohibited.

Waste generated by the shipbreaking process should be classified into hazardous and non-hazardous categories, and their quantify should be made known to the concerned authority.
6. PCB sampling and inspection equipment and training as well as PCB destruction technology.
7. Asbestos remaining places should, on board, be identified. The asbestos should be damped with water, cut as big size as possible and also the places should be covered.
8. Recycling of asbestos, goods attached with asbestos, black oil or toxic liquid wastes, paints, PBC, lubricant, refrigerant oil from the scrap ships, should be prohibited.
9. The accepted condition air and level of sound should be fixed around the shipbreaking area. And regular assessment of air and sound should be conducted and reported accordingly by the department of environment.
10. Regular assessment of the condition of sea water should be conducted and reported accordingly by the department of environment jointly with other related departments.
11. The source of sea water, air and sound pollution should be identified regularly and immediate legal action will be taken against the responsible.
12. The establishment of land fill sites and incinerators should be

13. prepared as per the. This action should be taken in a time bound manner. The maximum time allowed should be one year.

There should be emergency fire protected instruments in every

14. ship yards. If needed a fire protective station can be situated near the shipbreaking area.

15. There should be a fixed size to cut the ships.

Burning any waste on the ship yards or on the beaches will be

16. prohibited. Electrical ware or the cover of the ware can not be burned.

17. All the dangerous areas in the ships should be marked clearly.

The national legislation like Marine pollution Act, Air pollution Act, Bangladesh Environment Protection Act 1995, and Environment Protection laws 1997 etc. should be enforced in

1. case of operating ship yards and waste disposal.

In case Occupational safety, these facts should be considered:

The policy intend to comply with the existing new legislation in Bangladesh regarding workers' rights like- Labour Law 2006, to protect all the rights (like - Wages, working hour, leave,

2. security, compensation, registration, ID card, job contract, over time etc.) of the ship breaking workers.

The shipbreaking plan should ensure the occupational safety and health protection for the workers so that the death and injury by

3. accidents; work place related diseases would be reduced in a minimum level.

Personnel Protection Equipment (PPE) like safety belt, helmet, gloves, goggles, mask, coverall, shoes etc. must be provided and

4. also the use of PPE should be ensured by the owners and contractors.

Awareness about the risk in the workplace and training on occupational health and safety should be provided before joining in the yards.

- 5.

There should have primary medical facilities and ambulance in every ship yards.

- 6.

A hospital should be built by the shipbreaking owners near the

NOTES TO CONTRIBUTORS

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YPSA

Young Power in Social Action

House- F 10 (P), Road-13, Block- B, Chandgaon R/A, Chittagong
Bangladesh. Phone: 88-031-672857, Email- info@ypsa.org
www.ypsa.org, www.shipbreakingbd.info