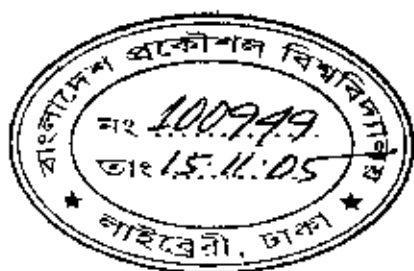


**Institutional Capacity Building for Urban Local Government Bodies of Bangladesh-A
Study of Four Medium Sized Towns**



by

Kamrul Hasan Sohag



**DEPARTMENT OF URBAN & REGIONAL PLANNING
BANGLADESH UNIVERSITY OF ENGINEERING AND TECHNOLOGY
DHAKA**

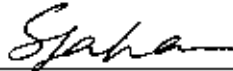
April, 2005

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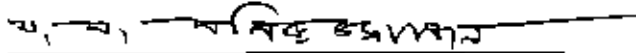
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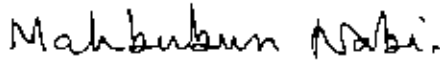
(DR. SARWAR JAHAN)
Professor, Department of URP
BUET, Dhaka

Chairman of the Committee (Supervisor)




(DR. KHANDOKER MD. MANIRUZZAMAN)
Head, Department of URP
BUET, Dhaka

Member (Ex-Officio)



(MR. A. S. M MAHBUB-UN NABI)
Professor, Department of URP
BUET, Dhaka

Member



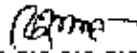
(DR. GOLAM RAHMAN)
Advisor, United International University and
Ex-professor, Department of URP
BUET, Dhaka

Member (External)

**DEPARTMENT OF URBAN & REGIONAL PLANNING
BANGLADESH UNIVERSITY OF ENGINEERING AND TECHNOLOGY (BUET)**

Declaration

It is hereby declared that this thesis or any part of it has not been submitted elsewhere for the award of any degree or diploma



Signature of the Candidate

Kamrul Hasan Sohag
Name of the Candidate

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KAMRUL HASAN SOHAG

ABSTRACT

Capacity building, which comes from the demand of the changed world, is the process of improving efficiency and ability to make effective use of the human and financial resources available. It is the process to cope with the changes over time. It is not operated within any discrete principles, methodology or guidelines. Scope of capacity building interventions also varies in diversity from one to another. Institutional capacity building has become the prime concern during the last decade to the Government, donors and development actors. As ineffectiveness and inefficiency is a common feature of the different state owned organizations, local government institutions, corporations, private and public enterprises in most of the developing countries. It hinders to develop pro-active service sector. This inefficiency is a great obstacle to establish democratic institutionalization and good governance, which is a pre-requisite to merge with the changed and globalize world.

This study will view on urban governance from the perspective of institutional development. The aim of this research is to gain a better understanding of the concept of institutional capacity building approach for strengthening the urban local government bodies of Bangladesh. In this study four Pourashavas were selected for data collection namely Bogra, Natore, Pabna and Tangail.

An urban local government institution is supposed to provide services to its citizens. It is an institution of urban people functioned by peoples representatives. Urban governance can be visualized through activation of an urban institution with functional relationship with people and peoples representatives. Effectiveness can be measured through quality of service delivery for the people. Customers satisfaction is one of the major output of effectiveness of an institution. Efficiency is based on performance, leaderships, skills and awareness of local elected representatives. In a country like Bangladesh, an urban institution faces multifaceted problems as shortage of funds, less mobilization of resources, lack of citizenry roles and responsibilities, lack of skills and awareness of the public representatives, lack of political and social commitment and many other problems. The study has been conducted to capacitate the process of urban local government of Bangladesh.

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ABBREVIATIONS

- BSC : Bachelor of Science
- CBO : Community Based Organizations
- DGD : Decentralized governance for development
- DVM : Doctor of Veterinary Medicine
- HSC : Higher Secondary Certificate
- LEB : Local elected bodies
- MBBS: Medicinal Bachelor and Bachelor of Surgery
- MIS : Management Information System
- NGO : Non Government Organization
- PRA : Participatory Rural Appraisal
- SSC : Secondary School Certificate
- UN : United Nation
- UNCHS: United Nations Commission on Human Settlement
- UNDP : United Nations Development Program
- UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Social and Cultural Organization
- VGD : Vulnerable Group Development
- VGf : Vulnerable Group Fund

Chapter One: Introduction



CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION



1.1 Background and the present state of the problem

Institutional structure of the Urban Local Government bodies of Bangladesh has been derived through juristic approach within the constitutional framework. Presently structure of urban local Government system exists in two forms. The six major cities of the country have been declared as City Corporation. The rest medium sized towns to small urban centers are regarded as Pourashavas by legislative provision dividing into different categories. Pourashava Ordinance 1977 recognized the towns as a self-developed institution. According to the Ordinance, Pourashavas authority has been formed to provide civic facilities and mobilization of its resources and its utilization. But unfortunately, Pourashavas as a local Government body cannot function properly to promote urban local governance. Pourashavas cannot function due to administrative and legislative control over it, lack of financial institutionalization, lack of adequate resources, insufficient budget allocation, lack of coordination and cooperation among different bodies, inefficient institutional structure, lack of specialization of professional expertise and many other problems. In some cases, the elected representatives and the officials cannot mention their own roles and responsibilities.

Urban good governance requires building capacity as well as applying those principles to existing urban institutions (Mchta, 1994). Capacity building is a broader concept of holistic thinking, analysis and recommendations. It includes the needs to ensure that citizens are able to get their needed information and participate in the making of public policy. Capacity building is now referred to as improving the ability of the institutions to perform appropriate tasks and fulfil their roles effectively, efficiently and sustainably. The dimensions of capacity building exercise are human resource development, organizational development and the institutional and legal framework (Peltenberg et al., 1996).

Local government is part of overall governance. In countries where it is recognized in the constitution it is at par with the other formal organs of the state. Like the central government authority local government institutions at various levels perform almost the same functions as agriculture, health, education, road development within their jurisdictions.

Capacity building of any local government institution is intended to be based on the indicators of good governance. Institutional capacity can be visualized from demand and supply perspective (Mahbub, 2003). Demand is raised from the customers or service receivers' needs and expectations for getting effective services. On the other hand, supply is the proper legislative provision for providing those services, availability of its resources, managerial capability which include planning, organizing, staffing, directing, controlling and decision making to achieve the target of the institution. Efficient institution keeps peoples demand for services in mind, receive resources as input and materialize those as output for people's interest. The study has been conducted encompassing the issues related to institutional capacity building of urban local government for enhancing its functional efficiency in different aspects, addressing its accountability to people, transparency in activity to the people, increasing coordination in service delivery and enlightening urban good governance.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

The study has been conducted to fulfil the following objectives:

1. To identify the problems which hinders Pnurashavas in performing its activities of effective service delivery from demand and supply perspective.
2. To analyze the status of resource mobilization and its utilization for public purposes in respect to accountability and transparency to its citizens.
3. To review the laws regarding institutional structure of urban local Government of Bangladesh and analyze the existing institutional structure of the concerned Pourashava.
4. To suggest some policy guidelines to strengthen institutional aspect of the Pourashava.

1.3 Rationale of the study:

The process of urbanization and the growth of cities are inevitable. It has been very rapid during the last half century. Urbanization is taking place rapidly and on a massive scale all over the world. In 1950 only 29.2% of the world's population lived in urban areas. The proportion increased to 42.1% in 1990. It will cross the 50% mark in 2005 and by the year 2025, the share will rise to 60% of the world's total population (Islam, 2000). This is particularly pronounced in Asia and Latin America. It is estimated that by 2020 Asia will become predominantly urban with an urban population of 2.4 billion or 55 percent of the total population. The challenge of sustainable development in the next millennium will be faced with greater intensity in these urban settings.

Urbanization is a process of development of a country as seen from the experiences of developed countries. Rather than trying to stem the tide of urbanization, the goal should be to make this growth as much planned as possible so that it is sustainable, efficient and equitable. This planning process should be based on the premise that urban centers are not only places where a large number of people live in a concentrated manner making demands on roads, transportation, parks, electricity, gas, water supply, sanitation, health, educational facilities and housing but they are also centers of intensive economic activities, both in the formal and informal sector. Urban centers of all types hold great potentials not only of improving standard of life of inhabitants but also of rural population through backward and forward linkages and as such are useful mechanism for promoting human development (Hye, 2000).

Bangladesh is a poor densely populated country with poor institutionalization. Low institutional efficiency cannot cope with challenges and dynamism for alleviating poverty, fostering growth and socio-economic development of the mass people. The developing countries of the world are now activating their local government units to bring economic emancipation at local level. In fact the local government of Bangladesh is a weak junior partner of the national government. It has no authoritative autonomy, cannot operate independently and undertake local development schemes with its own initiatives.

One of the major roles of a local government unit is to contribute for advancement of local economy. In Europe Local government has strong contribution in capitalization and fund raising. In developed countries, local government is entitled to formulate policies for boosting local trade and investment, industrialization, tourism, agriculture and rural development. It also contributes in delivering good quality services to its citizens. While in

developing countries like Bangladesh, local government units are looking forward to the central government for fund, they enjoy little authoritative autonomy. The functions of local government units are limited to certain routine works as issuing certificates, construction of roads and drains, waste disposal, VGD and VGF relief distribution and allocation of food for works. Inefficiency is idealistic and common in case of both Urban and rural local government units of Bangladesh. This study has been conducted on the urban local government bodies of Bangladesh namely four Pourashavas.

The Pourashavas of Bangladesh play a significant role in the development of urban areas. They provide the basic urban service facilities by spending the revenue earned from various sources. There is, both cooperation as well as separation of activities between the Pourashavas and the central government with regard to administration, financial management, preservation of environment, maintenance of health, education and recreation facilities, development of infrastructure etc. The Pourashavas of Bangladesh can collect revenue in the form of taxes, rates, tolls and fees from 26 heads mentioned in the first schedule of the Pourashava Ordinance, 1977.

As the ultimate goal of Pourashava as independent local government unit is to secure rich and dignified life of its citizens through mobilization of its resources and its utilization for public purposes, the success and failure of the institution largely depends on the institutional capacity encompassing institutional efficiency, accountability, transparency to its citizens, effective financial and office management, technical and managerial soundness, staffing and performance of the governing bodies. Considering low institutional efficiency of local government bodies, issues of capacity building have received increasingly serious attention from researchers, policy makers and the international development community.

Urbanization should be as much planned as possible so that it is sustainable, efficient and equitable. Urban centers hold great potentials of improving the standard of life for promoting human development. It also keeps momentum of rural economy through forward and backward linkages. In Bangladesh urban management authorities have failed to maintain a reasonable level of activities and provide services to its citizens due to poor institutionalization of urban local government. The study has been conducted focusing these issues which will reveal the facts behind the institutional inefficiencies and will provide information to the local Government policy makers, development workers and researchers.

1.4 Literature review

Few studies have so far been conducted in Bangladesh regarding institutional capacity building of urban local government of Bangladesh. These studies are mainly focused on overview of the generalized problems related with institutional problems. But none of them has measured the state of institutional efficiency from the perspectives of three counterparts as Local elected bodies (LEBs), citizens and staffs of the institutions. To have better understanding on the conceptualization on capacity building of the urban local government, information related to the research were collected from different available existing books/journals, unpublished thesis, seminar paper, magazine, newspapers etc. The study also used recommendations of different study reports related with the research. It was useful to

collect opinions of different researchers in this matter. Some literatures on the issue are as follows:

The journal of UN-HABITAT on the Global Campaign on Urban Governance for the 2004 focused on different capacity building approaches on urban governance. A comparative assessment of urban governance of Bangladesh with developing world has been presented by Mr. Islam, Nazrul in his study of Urban Governance in Developing World and Bangladesh. Mehta (1992) presented the concept and elements of urban governance and capacity building in his study of 'Urban Governance: lessons from Asia'. Grindle and Hildebrand (1994) provide a framework for building sustainable capacity of public sector organization. Kamal Siddiqui (1991) presented the comparative situation of urban governance in some major cities of Asia in his study 'Megacity Governance in South Asia'. Hye (2000) provides a conception about good governance including urban governance in his book of 'Governance: South Asian Perspectives'.

Kamal Siddiqui (1991) pointed out in his book "Local Government in Bangladesh" that besides taxes, the municipalities derive income from non-tax revenues. He also pointed out that, financing local government involves raising an adequate income in order to meet its expenditure on community services. The ability to mobilize adequate funds is an efficient precondition for the efficient discharge of the multifarious functions of local government. Due to poor collection of taxes and sufficient grants the Pourashavas (municipalities) cannot undertake and execute development projects and cannot provide necessary services to its dwellers. The dependency of local bodies on government grants increased over the years. Most local bodies neglected the mobilization of their own resources for meeting their annual expenditure. Such heavy dependency on government grants has prevented them from enjoying the autonomy required for fixing their own development priorities.

Musleh Uddin Ahmed (1997) in his article "Local Government Fiscal Reform in South Asia: Some Lessons From Bangladesh" said that urban local bodies derived revenue largely from holding tax, conservancy rate, water charges, house rents and slaughter and market fees. He also mentioned that in 1995-96, the average level of financial self-sufficiency of local government in Bangladesh was 57 per cent and the average rate of national government grants to local bodies was only 43 per cent. The real situation is that all local government bodies are financially dependent on national government for developments and grants.

Dimesh Mehta (1993) in his Article "Urban Governance: Lessons from Asia" said that achieving good governance requires building capacity as well as applying these principles to existing institutions. He mentioned that new capacity may be needed to help assure the rule of law and open access to public information. He added that in many Asian countries, in spite of the decentralization programme, local government that have most of the responsibilities for managing urban change and growth often lack the power and resources to fulfil them.

Mr. Syedur Rahman (1997) in his article "Governance and Local Government System" mentioned the critical factors for good governance and provided a comparative analysis of local government system in South Asia. He pointed out that the prime focus for building a

new local government system should be on purpose and functions and not on structures and administrative control from the higher levels. The national legislature should in accordance with the constitution provide the guiding principles.

1.5 Methodology of the study:

The study has been carried out by following the methods mentioned below:

a. Conceptualization

The topic has been conceptualized on institutional capacity building of urban local government considering the growing significance of urban governance around the world. Urban governance is important as cities are regarded as the engines of growth of the national economy. Urban governance can assure making cities delightful, self-reliant through fulfillment of people’s needs and aspirations for services, civic conveniences and amenities. An urban institution may turn into urban peoples institution if it is constituted through peoples representatives who are accountable and transparent to their constituents and people have scope of active participation and access to its information. Considering the growing criticism of urban local government regarding its inefficiency and ineffectiveness this study has been conceptualized on capacity building of urban local government of Bangladesh.

b. Selection of the study area:

The study has been conducted on four medium sized towns of Bangladesh. The following cities have been selected for data collection:

Category	No. of town exist	No. of sampled Pourashavas	Name of Pourashavas
KA-1	8	1	Bogra
KA-2	45	3	Natore, Pabna, Tangail
Total	53		

c. Preparation of questionnaires

To identify the demand for services and problems of service recipients household survey has been conducted on citizen by structured questionnaire. The household survey questionnaire focused on qualitative information of service delivery, peoples awareness regarding roles and responsibilities of Pourashava, participation of people in social and cultural activities arranged by Pourashavas, satisfaction in recreational facilities, peoples access to Pourashava information etc.

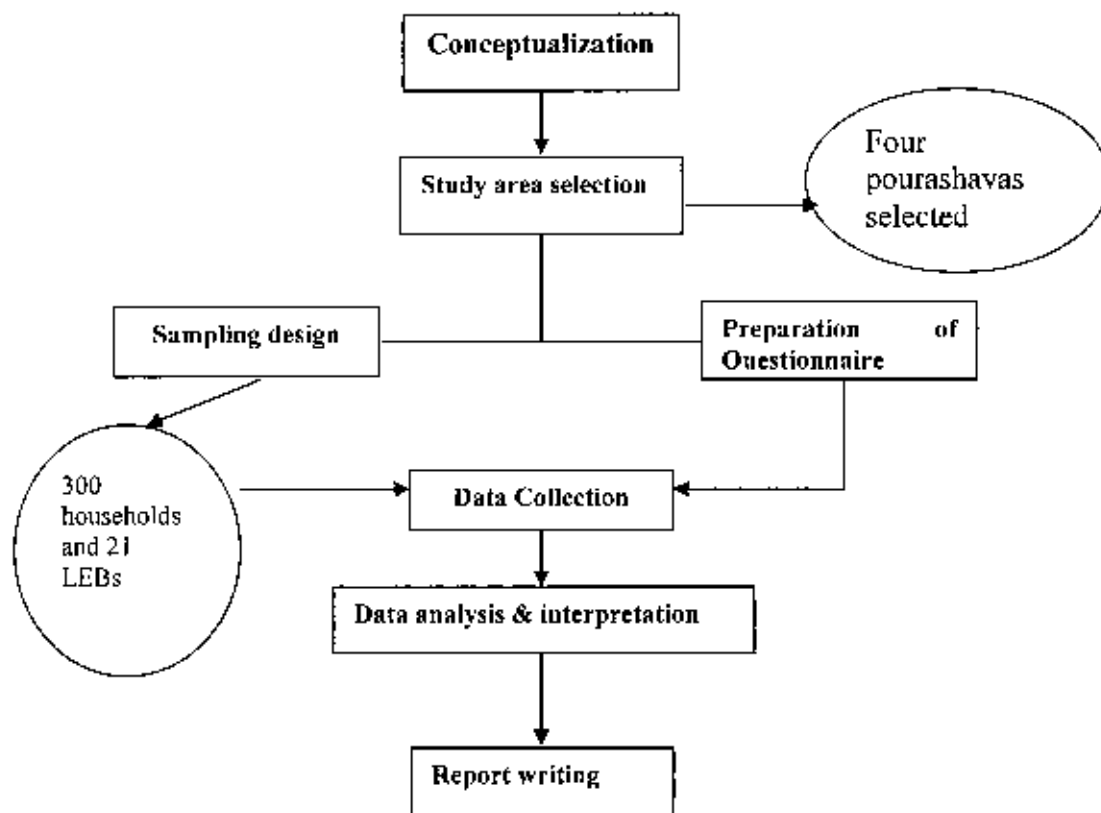


Figure 1.1 Flow diagram of methodology

It also covered institutional problems faced by the people regarding service delivery. Besides, questionnaire encompasses recommendations of citizens for strengthening the role of Pourashavas.

Another questionnaire was prepared to undertake the views of Local Elected Bodies (LEBs) regarding the problems and prospects of Pourashavas. It focuses on the problems faced by the LEBs at different levels as institutional, legislative, political and social problems. It also covered the issues like accountability and transparency, access to information, office management, problems of resource mobilizations and recommendations from LEBs.

d. Sampling design

Household survey has been conducted in four cities. 75 houses has been randomly selected from each City. It comprises a total 300 households. Households to be surveyed were distributed proportionately among different wards of the cities. Questionnaire survey was conducted on 21 Local elected representatives who comprise 31% of the existing representatives of four cities.

e. Data Collection

Primary information has been collected from the following sources:

- Extraction of information through discussion

Open discussion has been conducted with the office bearers as Chairman, Secretary, different Officials, ward commissioners and other staffs.

-Questionnaire Survey

Questionnaire survey has been conducted on the citizens of those cities who receive services from Pourashavas. Household to be surveyed were selected through random sampling. Interviews were conducted with local elected representatives on sample basis. Systematic random sampling was introduced to undertake the views of both male and female commissioners and chairman of Pourashavas.

f. Data compilation

Data collected through questionnaire survey were automated using Access software and compiled after necessary review and cross checking of data.

g. Data analysis and interpretation

Data has been analyzed and interpreted as per the requirement of the study, to fulfil its goals and objectives.

h. Report writing

Finally report has been produced based on the data, field experiences and qualitative information collected through open discussion with different stakeholders who are directly or indirectly related with Pourashava activities.

1.6 Limitations of the study

Assessment of institutional efficiency is a comprehensive process. There were some limitations of the study as follows:

- Ψ The study was based on qualitative information of institutional efficiency. Qualitative information were converted and presented in quantitative form. Quantitative information of different services were not considered under this study.
- Ψ This was a challenging job to collect data on this issue as the citizens as well as elected representatives are confronted with continued political and social pressure by vicious groups. They did not feel free to express their views.
- Ψ The study was delayed due to Pourashava election as the local elected representatives were very much busy with their election campaign
- Ψ The newly elected representatives were not well aware of the roles of Pourashavas. In this situation the representatives who were previously elected were sampled purposively
- Ψ The office bearers were not friendly enough to provide all the required information

1.7 Organization plan of the study

The present study has been divided into eight chapters. The first chapter discusses background of the study, rationale of the study, objectives of the study, scope of the study, methodology, limitations and organization plan of the study. Chapter-2 describes definition of local government, evolution and structure of local government of Bangladesh, constitutional and legal basis of local government, government policy of declaring urban area, constitution of Pourashavas, composition of urban local government, types and statutes of urban local government, urban local government functions etc. Chapter-3 discusses definition of governance, features of urban good governance, pourashava management system and capacity building approach. Chapter-4 provides institutional information

including general information of four Pourashavas as Bogra, Pabna, Natore and Tangail, staffing status of those pourashavas. Chapter-5 analyzes view of the citizens regarding quality of service delivery by the Pourashavas. Chapter-6 considers view of local elected representatives regarding Pourashava activities, problems faced by them at different levels and their suggestions. Chapter-7 describes status of Pourashava resource mobilization and its utilization, major source of revenue income, constraints of resource mobilization etc. Chapter-8 presents some policy recommendations and conclusion.

Chapter two:
Forms and structure of Local Government of
Bangladesh and other countries

CHAPTER TWO: FORMS AND STRUCTURE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT OF BANGLADESH AND OTHER COUNTRIES

2.1 What is local government?

The term local government refers to a political sub-division of a nation or a state, which is constituted by law and substantial center to local affairs, including the power to impose taxes. The governing body of such an entity is elected or otherwise locally selected.

Local government means authority to determine and execute measures within a restricted area inside and smaller than the whole state. The modern local government has a two-fold aspect- it is a mixture of both deconcentration and decentralization. The local government organization of all the countries have certain kinds of internal organization as mayor, chairman, alderman, committees and commissions for executive, legislative operation and management of the permanent staffs.

Like other units of government, a local government unit possesses a defined area, a population, an organization and also the authority to undertake and the power to perform public activities. Within its territory, a local government unit seeks to give opportunities to the people for the expression of their opinion in regard to local affairs. It enables them to choose their representatives to take care of local affairs on their behalf. After all, they are lower level political units, the peculiar or unique characteristics of which is their subordinate status to the central government.

Essential elements of Local Governments are as follows:

1. Territory
2. Population
3. Continuous organization
4. Separate legal entity
5. Independence from other local government units
6. Governmental powers and functions
7. Power to raise revenues

2.2 Significance of local government

There is lots of justification for a strong and viable local government in a country. In developed countries, local governments have played a critical role in economic development and social justice and in the institutionalization of democracy. The world is experiencing crisis of good governance in most of the developing countries. In this context developing countries are undertaking reform programs including decentralization of state structures and functions. As a result there is an increased emphasis to strengthen local government of those countries.

The states are facing enormous problems of over population, poverty, environmental degradation, and shortage of shelter and services at local level and inability of local government institutions to combat these problems. In this regard, the need to strengthen local government institutions is increasing day by day. A new form of urban local

governance is the demand of the day. The need for a new type of local government is being felt by the national governments, international development agencies and UN bodies. The UN commitment on encouraging local government was evident in the inclusion of mayors of cities and other stakeholders in human settlements issues, notably the private sector organizations and NGOs in the official delegations to the United Nations Second Conference on Human settlements, otherwise referred to as Habitat II, or the "City Summit" held at Istanbul in June, 1996.

Most of the problems which are faced by people in their day to day existence are local in nature. Local Government is at the bottom, which is supposed to tackle those problems. In fact this institution is able to deal with these problems adequately because it had the financial, administrative and technical capacity to do so.

Apart from the traditional role of being service providers, local government units are of many countries are now performing their economic roles. Many local government units are now recognizing that they have to take a proactive role in securing the economic well being of their constituents and providing an environment that is conducive to growth. The traditional view of local government is that of an employer and a provider of goods and services. Its responsibility is also to provide employment opportunities to its constituency and see it that every citizen has a decent job with socio-economic well being.

2.3 Evolution of Local Government of Bangladesh

Local Government System of Bangladesh has not been formed in a single day. Rather it has been derived in a successive way for regulating and controlling the local settlements with respect to some prescribed standard for the fulfilment of people's needs and expectations over time.

The current local government system in Bangladesh can be traced back to the Bengal Local Self Government Act of 1855 which established the three tier system- District Board, local board and union committee. The term Local Self-government has been originated during the colonial times when most of the south Asian states did not enjoy any self-governance, either at the central or provincial levels. Local government has a colonial legacy in Bangladesh. The first municipality, Nasirabad was set up in 1856. For the rural areas, the first attempt came in 1870 with the enactment of Bengal Village Chowkidari Act, under which Chowkidari Panchayats were established at Union level.

Civic administration was initiated in the Subcontinent through the British Parliamentary Charter in 1793. Bringing under this Charter taxation, some cleanliness and security measures were adopted in Madras, Bombay and Calcutta towns. Pourashava administration got the institutional form after the Bengal Act, 1842. Town Police Act, 1856 and Bengal Municipal Act 1884. About 56 Municipal Boards were established after 1947, in former East Pakistan.

Much later under the Basic Democracy (Pakistan period) the structure at the rural level was enlarged to four-Union council, thana council, district council and divisional council. This system was based on indirect democracy. Direct citizens participation took place only at

union level. The tier's above the union council consisted of representatives from the immediate lower level. Units higher than the Union Council also had appointed members. The role of controlling authority remained the source of stunting a local government system which was limited by the concept of 'guided democracy'.

The first Bangladesh Government of Sheikh Mujibur rahman changed the name of local body at the lowest level to Union Panchayet and then to Union Parishad, the thana council to Thana Development Committee and the district council to Zilla Board. Total membership of each Union parishad was 11 members, with the Chairman and Vice-Chairman directly elected from the entire union, and three members each from three separate wards of the Union. Union parishad election was held in 1973. Although plans were announced for further changes in the local government system resulting from the introduction of a presidential form of government, these changes were abandoned due to forced change in the governance of the country.

The Government of Ziaur Rahman reverted back to the union Parishad, Thana Parishad and Zila Parishad structure and also attempted to restructure the member component but kept the role of the prescribed authority. A swanirvar Gram Sarkar at the village level was introduced in 1980 with the purpose of co-opting different functional and interest groups at the village level. Earlier in 1978, a parallel organization to the Thana Parishad was established called the Thana Development Committee. Once again forced change in the governance of the country created system-wide disruption. After liberation of Bangladesh, in 1972, the Municipal Committees were transformed into Pourashavas by Presidential Order.

2.4 Legal and Political Background of Local Government of Bangladesh

The story of the evolution of the local government system in Bangladesh is in many ways similar to that of India and Pakistan as all three countries share a common history. Local governments in one form or another have been in existence in the Indian subcontinent for centuries. Two varieties of self-government institutions, i.e. the headman and *Panchayats* appear to be operational in rural areas since early times. The headman was not an elected official but came from the most dominant family in the village. His importance was due to two factors: all contacts, be it political or administrative, between the villager and authorities had to be routed through him and he was involved in collection of taxes from the village. The *Panchayat* was an elected body with executive and judicial functions. But often the headman controlled the *Panchayat* (Siddiqui 1992:15). During the Mughal rule of India, the *Panchayat* system disappeared altogether.

Mughal contribution to the development of urban local government was remarkable as *Mughals* gave considerable importance to towns. Each town included a number of wards or *Mohallas*. A *Mir Mahalla* was appointed to act as a spokesman for each *Mahalla*. The *Kotwal*, or Chief Executive Officer of the town, wielded wide-ranging powers including magisterial, police, fiscal and municipal power. He was assisted in performing his duties by two officials: a *Kazi* who was a judicial officer and a *Mahatasib* who was assigned to prevent illegal practices, (Siddiqui 1992: 17-18). The *Mughal* system with all its novelties lacked mechanisms for participation by the citizens. It was nothing more than a top-down

hierarchical administrative system that was intended to be an extension of the central authority into the local areas.

During almost two hundred years of British rule (1765-1947) over the Indian subcontinent, a number of experiments were made with the local government system. All the experiments were intended to devise a system that would serve their imperial interest. The major objective of the British in India was twofold: maximization of land revenue collection and maintenance of law and order. Naturally, the British as an imperial power had little understanding of and interest in indigenous local self-governing institutions. Though in 1870 the Village *Chowkidari* Act in Bengal established union *Panchayats* to collect tax to maintain *Chowkidars* (village police), Lord Ripon's Resolution on local self-government laid the foundation of local self-government in rural India. This resolution of May 18 1882 was important for two reasons: it set out general principles for development of local institutions in the future and provided the rationale behind functions of local bodies. The Rippon resolution was passed in 1885 as the Bengal Local Self-Government Act III of 1885.

In the arena of urban local government, British policy resulted in setting-up a municipal administration in the Presidencies and giving responsibilities to municipal committees for a number of civic amenities. But until the 1870s, officials or their designated representatives ran urban local government bodies. Gradually Municipalities became representative bodies with the promulgation of a number of acts between 1870 and 1947. These acts, among other things, introduced election as a mode of choosing one's representative and subsequently extended its coverage. But Chairmen and Vice Chairmen of the Municipalities continued to be elected indirectly by the popularly elected commissioners. One of the acts, the Bengal Municipal Act of 1932, strengthened the powers of Municipalities in levying rates and taxes and in the utilization of funds (Siddiqui 1994:47). But the same act provided considerable powers, to the government and local officials to inspect, supervise and control Municipalities and negated the powers of taxation of local level bodies to a large degree.

Union boards consisted of two-thirds elected members while the rest were nominated. The Chairman was elected among members of the union boards. The boards were given a number of specific responsibilities including the authority to levy taxes. By the end of the 1920s district boards were functioning under the stewardship of non-official chairmen. During the formative years of Pakistan's existence as an independent nation until 1971, the provincial government of East Pakistan initiated some important changes. General Ayub Khan, who seized power in 1958, introduced a system of local government known as Basic Democracy. But the concept of Basic Democracy, a four-tier system, lacked novelty and innovation. It bore a clear resemblance of two layers, the union councils and municipal committees of the British days (Khan 1997). Since Independence in 1971, a number of attempts have been made to tinker with the local government system in Bangladesh. Changes have been made from time to time in terms of the nomenclature of tiers of local government, but almost nothing was done to strengthen local governments. Therefore, the structure of the local government system has remained more or less unchanged.

Immediately after Independence in 1971, the name of the Union Council was changed to Union *Panchayat* and an administrator was appointed to manage the affairs of the

Panchayat. The name of *Thana* Council was changed to *Thana* Development Committee while the District Council was named *Zila* Board or District Board. Again in 1973, *Union Panchayat's* name reverted to *Union Parishad*. A more significant change in the local government system was brought about in 1976 through the Local Government Ordinance. This ordinance provided for a *Union Parishad* for a union, a *Thana Parishad* for a *Thana* and a *Zila Parishad* for a district. The *Union Parishad* comprised one elected Chairman and 9 elected members, two nominated women members and two peasant representative members. The *Thana Parishad* consisted of the Sub-Divisional Officer being the ex-officio Chairman, the Circle Officer and a *Union Parishad* Chairman. The *Zila (District) Parishad* was to consist of elected members, official members and women members whose numbers were determined by the government. Its term of office was five years. However, no elections were held and government officials ran the *Parishad*.

In 1980, as a result of an amendment of the Local Government Ordinance, the *Swanirvar Gram Sarkar* (self-reliant village government) was introduced at the village level, but was abolished by a Martial Law Order in July 1982. A major change was initiated in the local government system through the introduction of the Local Government (*Upazila Parishad* and *Upazila Administration Reorganization*) Ordinance in 1982. This Ordinance was followed by the Local Government (*Union Parishad*) Ordinance in 1983, the Local Government (*Zila Parishad*) Act in 1988 and the three Hill Districts Acts and *Palli* Act in 1989. The *Upazila Parishad* Ordinance (1982) was particularly significant as this was supposed to help implementation of the decentralization programme of the government. In the *Upazila* System (as it came to be known), the (directly) elected Chairman would have the principal authority in running the affairs of the *Upazila*, his tenure being five years. The *Upazila Nirbahi* Officer would be subservient to the Chairman. After nine years of reasonably effective implementation, the Government of the Bangladesh Nationalist Party, who came to power through a fair election, abolished the *Upazila* system in 1991. During its five-year tenure, the government could not provide an alternative democratic form of local government. When after another free and fair election in 1996 the Bangladesh Awami League came to power, they constituted a Local Government Commission and came up with a Report on Local Government Institutions Strengthening in May 1997. The Commission has recommended a four-tier local government structure including *Gram/Palli (Village) Parishad*, *Union Parishad*, *Thana/Upazila Parishad* and *Zila (District) Parishad*.

All these tiers are concerned with rural/regional administration, while urban local governments remain outside the Commission's purview. The two major tiers of urban local government's, *Paurashava* (for smaller Municipalities) and City Corporation (for four of the largest cities) are in order.

2.5 Evolution of the institutional arrangement

Urban Local Government lacked an adequate administrative and technical capacity and had a weak resource base. The central government empowered Local Governments to perform many development functions but did not take necessary steps to improve their financial position. Local Government bodies failed to effectively mobilize their own resources. In many countries, departments of national Government took over the performance of several functions related to the provision of social welfare and infrastructure development in cities.

The rapid growth of large cities has also been accompanied by the establishment of semi-autonomous public enterprises and statutory bodies to provide specific services such as water supply, transport, electricity and housing.

In most cases, these bodies have been empowered to provide services in areas broader than the formal jurisdiction of city governments or to provide those services which were assumed to be beyond the administrative, financial and technical capabilities of Local Governments.

In some cities such as Calcutta, Karachi and Bombay, urban development authorities having jurisdiction over wider areas were established to plan for the area, coordinate activities of relevant agencies and provide urban infrastructure and services. While these organizational structures continue to exist, development planners and policy makers are showing an increasing concern for planning and management at metropolitan level.

Table 2.1: Types of organizational structure of some selected Asian cities

Centrally controlled	Shanghai, Beijing	The central government directly controls metropolitan government
Special province	Bangkok, Jakarta	The metropolitan area is designated as a special province in which local governments and provincial governments are merged into one
Two-tier system	Manila, Tokyo	While local government continue to exist, some of their key functions are transformed to a metropolitan organization which is empowered to control and supervise local governments in the areas.
Development Authority	Delhi, Bombay, Karachi, Colombo, Dhaka	Development authorities with metropolitan-wide jurisdiction are created by statute in order to undertake regional planning, and coordinate multi-sectoral programs.
Single-tier city/metropolitan government	Kualalumpur	The metropolitan area is managed by the city government
Inter-municipality	Calcutta	Municipalities cooperate with each other in providing some services.

Source: World Bank, 2002

2.6 Urban Local Governance in Developing world

At present the nations being confronted with the challenges of globalization the world is experiencing profound change in the field of governance and in this context many developing countries are undertaking extensive state reform including decentralization of

state structure and functions, public administration reorganization, and transitional steps to democratization. As a result there is an increased emphasis on the need to address local government more specifically, since in many countries this has been a neglected tier of government in development effort (McCarney, 1996).

Recent dynamics of globalization of economic and socio-cultural developments, urge for democratization, decentralization and structural adjustments and market orientation in economy at the national level and the emergence of enormous problems of over population, poverty, environmental degradation, shortage of shelter and services, increase in violence, and gender and child exploitation at the local level and the inability of urban local governments to combat these problems effectively, have all focused attention on the need for strengthening urban local government. A new form of urban local governance is the demand of the day.

The need for a new type of local government is being felt by both the governments and also pursued by the international development agencies (such as , the World Bank, the Asian Development Bank, European Commission and the UN system). The UN commitment to and assistance on encouraging local government was evident in the inclusion of Mayors of cities and other stakeholders in human settlement issues, notably the private sector organizations and NGOs in the official delegations to the United Nations second conference on Human Settlements, otherwise referred to as Habitat II, or the "City Summit" held at Istanbul in June, 1996.

The international scholarly community also seems to favor stronger and more autonomous local (city/town etc.) level governance (McCarney, 1996h, p.16-17) of course, in the new sense of the term "governance".

To the group of governance researchers with the Global Urban Research Initiative (GURI), "Governance" refers to "the relationship between the state and the civil society, between the rulers and the ruled, the government and the governed" (McCarney, et al. 1995) and it is this relation of civil society to the state that distinguishes their ideas of governance. It is the nature of partnership and not just partnership that matters in governance. This nature of partnership may range from tokenism to real equal partnerships.

A short review of the nature of urban local governments and their relationship with the civil society and other actors in different parts of the developing world is presented in the following section.

Africa

Most African cities have been experiencing rapid population growth. This associated with dwindling urban services, has posed strong challenge to urban governance. Search for a proper form of governance is evident in different parts of Africa. Britain and France, as the major colonial powers on the continent for the late 19th century to the 1960s, provided the framework for two largely parallel approaches to local government. These two approaches overlapped to some degree by the 1990s, but their essential elements could still be distinguished. The pattern most common in Francophone countries may be called the

communal structure while the pattern in Anglophone countries may be called the representative council structure (Stern, 1996).

In most of the Francophone countries, urban local governments provided for communes with mayors, municipal councils and specific revenue and expenditure powers and procedures. By the end of the colonial period in the late 1950s, the evolution of the municipal institutions was such that the municipal councils (the administrative organs of the communes) in the larger cities had become responsible for a relatively important range of local services, and were presided over by elected mayors. By the end of the 1980s more attention was placed on development of metropolitan government structures, with a more democratic and decentralized framework. Many of the Francophone countries were organizing multiparty elections to city/metropolitan councils as well as to national councils. In the process, the mayors in cities such as Abidjan in Ivory Coast, has come to play a proactive role in urban local governance. They even go out to obtain additional resources from foreign embassies and international NGOs (Stern, 1996).

In the Anglophone African countries, the British laid a stronger thrust on introducing efficient and democratic system of local government but only at the end of their colonial period. They tried to position more autonomous local councils, as counter force to the more broadly nationalists movements. However, partly as a result of both political and financial factors in most English speaking countries, the political autonomy and fiscal resource base of municipal governments was progressively restricted during the 1960s and 1970s. Exception was Nigeria, where under military rule governments were favored.

The 1970s largely saw little role of the local communities and civil society, while the reforms of 1950s and 1990s have shown more involvement of these other forces in the local urban governance in Anglophone cities. Zimbabwe boasts of a strong civil society participation, Uganda as a "Resistance Council" (Grassroots participatory system) working with the traditional department-based administrative structure (Stern, 1996). The most dramatic example of civil society's involvement in local governance is of course from South Africa, as highly centralized governments are getting weaker under the twin assaults of globalization and structural adjustments, local communities and interest group in the cities are beginning to assert themselves in the governance of their communities, towns and cities. A new form of governance is beginning to evolve (Stern, 1996).

Latin America

Latin American countries have been characterized by strong centralized political, administrative and economic systems and were not known for decentralization. It is only in the last couple of decades that the democratic process has become a little consolidated with elected governments in many countries. As a result local government has also gained some political importance as the institution most directly responsible for the resolution of urban problems and point of interaction between the state and the society (Mercondes, 1996).

In Chile, decentralization introduced changes in the management of urban and social services, modifying and strengthening the role and functions of Chilean municipalities. Democratic elections of mayor and town councilors were instituted together with

community participation mechanisms. As a result Chilean municipalities enjoy local autonomy and a revenue redistribution mechanism (through the Municipal Common Fund) which provides them with financial resources (Mercondes, 1996).

In Mexico, municipalities are still highly dependent on and sub-oriented to the state and federal governments for financial resources and for the development and implementation of programs. Civic participation is also often discouraged. Urban local governments in many Latin American countries have a limited capacity to deal with new and increasing demands for the development and implementation of programs. Civic participation is also often discouraged.

Urban local governments in many Latin American countries have a limited capacity to deal with new and increasing demands for social services and infrastructure. In some countries (such as Mexico) democratization and modernization of the political system has been slow, difficult and uneven (Massalo, 1996). NGO activities have been relatively limited to local level but their action have benefited the poorest sectors (McCarney, et al. 1995).

Asia

Being a vast region with diverse historical, political and economic backgrounds, the local government system in Asia is also very diverse. At least 3 major sub-regions have to be considered for Asia. The three Asian sub-regions are: (1) Northeast Asia, (2) Southeast Asia and (3) South Asia.

Northeast Asia: This includes China, Japan, Korea and others. China has a long history of local government. But modern China (or PRC) has now three types of local governments: main body type, autonomous governments of nationality regions and government of special administrative regions.

Japan also has very long history of local government, with a highly centralized system until the second world war. After the war, democratization brought about changes in the local government structure also. The new constitution of 1947 viewed local self government as an indispensable element of democracy and a Local Autonomy Law was enacted in 1947 for the purpose. The latest revision (in 1994) of the Local Autonomy Law provides scope for new system for urban local bodies to be more efficient with "Core City System" and "Wide area cooperative system" (Kim, 1998). Participatory planning in urban areas is a common practice. In this process even university teachers and students work very closely with the community and the local authority (UNCHS-CITYNET, 1997).

Malaysia has a three tier administrative hierarchy, the federal, state and local levels. Within the local level there used to be four urban councils before 1976. These being: (1) City Hall of Kuala Lumpur, (2) Municipal Council (3) Town Council (4) Town board and rural councils. After restructuring the 1976 Act provides for a total of four councils in 1997. These are: (1) City Halls (numbering (2) City Council (3) Municipal councils and (4) district councils. Civil Society participation in Malaysian cities is a common practice (Islam, 2000).

The Philippines, with 327 years of Spanish rule saw a highly centralized political administrative system. Since independence, decentralization has progressed significantly. Finally, the Local Government Code of 1997 strengthened local governments. At present there are 78 provinces, 67 cities, 1600 municipalities 42, 000 barangays (villages). There are also special units such as Metropolitan Manila Development Authority (MMDA), Autonomous region of Muslim Mindanao (ARMM) and Cordillera Administrative Region (CAR). Urban local governments in the Philippines now enjoy considerable autonomy, with one of the liveliest mechanisms for people's participation in local governance. The law mandates that 25 per cent of membership in Local Development Councils at the municipal, city authority and other local levels be reserved for NGOs (McCarney, 1996).

Thailand maintains a European style parliamentary system within Monarchy since 1932. Local Government in Thailand is organized at six levels, 3 for urban and three for rural. For urban areas there are (1)the Bangkok Metropolitan Administration, (2) Municipalities (governing urban centers in the provinces) and (3) the city of Pattaya (in the form of city Manager). All these forms of local governments are subjected to considerable degree of control by the central government through the Ministry of Interior. Thai local governments suffer from low level of people's participation and inefficiency, among other limitations. NGO civil society participation in urban decision making process is also limited (Islam, 2000).

South Asia: Unlike Northeast Asia and Southeast Asia, South Asia is somewhat more homogeneous in terms of local government system, particularly in three large countries, India, Pakistan and Bangladesh, because of their historical political common tradition. All these there have long history of local government, evolving from the times of the Mughals, through the British and then through post colonial independent governments. A more modern form of urban local government began with the establishment of municipal administration in three presidency towns of Madras, Bombay and Calcutta (all in present day India) in the 1960s.

In India today, local governments are basically of two types: rural and urban. Generally rural governments consist of three tiers, namely village Panchayats, the Panchayat Samity and the Zila Parishad. Urban local governments can be divided into five types: City corporations (numbering about 70), the Municipality or Municipal Council (which number 700), the Cantonment boards, the notified area committees and the Town Committees (Islam, 2000).

The City corporations as the highest level of urban local governments enjoy more autonomy and functions compared with other types of local governments. The Municipal administration is typically responsible for the provision of basic public services falling into four broad categories; public health, public safety, public work and public order. They also perform important regulatory functions. These responsibilities of municipalities is common in almost all major South-Asian countries. The other common feature is the dominance of property taxes in the fiscal domain of municipalities.

The 74th constitutional amendment Act, 1992 in India provides greater autonomy to Indian municipalities, in which their super session by state governments can not be made for

indefinite period and in which municipalities or corporations will have economic functions as well (Islam, 2000).

In Pakistan, the record of urban local government has not been good. Since its independence in 1947, Pakistan experienced many military take overs and although at times the military dictators favoured the flourishing of local governments, there have been many ups and downs. In 1977, the military government of the time established the current local government system, which for urban areas, consists of three tiers: (1) Municipal Corporations for major metropolitan cities (500,000 or more), municipal committee (in towns of 30,000-500,000) and towns (Nagar) Panchayats and over 3600 Ward Committees (Islam, 2000). The Town Panchayat is the only urban body in Nepal. The urban centres should have minimum population of 10,000 to be a Town Panchayat. The Executive Committee of the Town Panchayat consists of a Chairman and vice Chairman directly elected by the people with a five year term. Under the Integrated Action plan (IAP) participatory action planning and development are seen in Nepalese towns. IAP provides for development works jointly by municipal representatives, NGOs, communities and IAP planners. Democratic participation is the present trend in local governance in Nepal.

2.7 Salient features of Local Government empowerment of some selected Countries

While still not having an abundance of funds, the countries are able to provide higher level services. Australian councils are moving from the early pioneering days of providing basic infrastructure - transport, sewerage, water and electricity - to providing higher levels of service; for example, arts and culture, recreation spaces. This ability to provide higher levels has been matched with demands for greater flexibility and discretion to choose what services to provide.

2.7.1 Finance

In *China* the central government is expanding the financial capacity of local authorities. The country report implies that this increases central funds, presumably because the increased local funds reduces the amount of central funds needing to be allocated. Even though they have this increased capacity their budgets still need approval from higher levels of government.

Indonesian experience suggests that central governments collect those taxes that are easiest, leaving local government with the most difficult.

In *Japan*, there is an interesting inverse relationship between revenue collection and expenditure. Collection of the tax revenue is 2:1 in favour of central government but through fiscal transfers the expenditure is reverse 2:1 in favour of local government (Mallick, 2004). Local taxes are divided into two categories: *perceptual taxes*, comprising perceptual inhabitants' tax and automobile tax, and *municipal taxes*, comprising city planning tax and municipal inhabitants tax. These taxes are collected directly by local governments. Local governments in Japan are entitled to receive 32 per cent of the revenue from national income tax, corporation tax, and liquor tax, 24 per cent from the consumption tax and 25 per cent from the tobacco tax. These allocations are considered to be independent and guaranteed sources of revenue for local governments and no restrictions are placed on their use.

Moreover, in case of emergencies or natural disasters the Ministry of Finance also provides subsidies through the Ministry of Home Affairs. Independent, sizable and relatively stable sources of revenues allow Japanese local governments to plan long-term projects and meet the needs of their residents.

Similarly, under the new constitution in *Thailand*, local governments are supposed to receive 10 per cent of Value Added Tax (VAT) collected by the central government, in addition to their existing sources of revenues. However, even with the new constitution, Thailand's governance structure remains strongly centralized, with the Central government controlling most of the taxes in the country and distributing grants to local governments at its discretion (Mallick, 2004). The *Kyrgyzstan* state administrative unit prepares a budget that is referred to the local council for approval. Once approved, state administration implements the budget. This suggests a higher level of government administers a budget approved at a lower level.

The strategies for strengthening local financial capacity outlined by the *Malaysian Minister of Housing and Local Government* (Mallick, 2004) are:

- restructuring local authority revenue sources,
- greater autonomy to revise taxes,
- deregulation and privatization,
- enhancing federal and state support,
- greater community support and participation.

Suffice to say here that a fundamental weakness in all these systems is that local revenue is so dependent on fiscal transfers in some form. Such dependency is subject always to the vagaries of central governments. The ability to raise local taxes will need to increase for effective local self-government.

2.7.2 Administration

Administrative reform seeks to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of local authorities as mechanisms of service delivery. Three types of reform emerge from the country reports: sharing of administrative responsibility; separation of powers; and integration of civil services.

The decentralization, de-concentration and co-administration reforms in *Indonesia* exemplify moves to share administrative responsibility. In the Indonesian context decentralization means a transfer of higher level responsibilities to a local entity or province or local government (called an autonomous entity/province/local government); de-concentration means delegation of administrative functions from a higher to lower level entity (called an administrative entity). As the term implies, co-administration means a sharing of responsibility (Mallick, 2004).

Some countries have vertically integrated civil services. *Indonesia* is an extreme case where the recruitment, appointment, dismissal, suspension, salary, pension, half-pay and other matters concerning legal status of a provincial and local public servant is done in line with the directives laid down by the Minister of Home Affairs.

In *India*, a city may have a municipal corporation (elected local government), a development authority (responsible to the state government), a cantonment board (answerable to the Ministry of Defence), a water and sewerage authority (responsible to the state government), in addition to state line agencies and federal government departments each with its own programmes and plans. Because they are governed by different laws, at the state and federal levels, and because of political conflicts, particularly if the local government is controlled by a party opposed to the state government, coordination is often not undertaken (Islam, 2000).

2.7.3 Local Government Legislation

Local government in all countries operates from a legislative base determined by higher legislatures. In some case this is the central government, in others it is the state legislature (parliament) that determines the powers, authorities, duties and functions of local government. Perhaps the most advanced is the *Philippine Comprehensive Local Government Code, 1991*.

Australia: Local government is not recognized in the constitution. Local Government Acts have been legislated by each state parliament and amended significantly in the 1990s. Generally the move has been away from prescriptive legislation to provide more enabling frameworks that leave councils with some degree of discretion to initiate their own policy directions (Mallick, 2004).

Bangladesh: In 1996 a Local Government Commission was constituted that came up with a Local Government Institutions Strengthening Report in 1997.

China: The national Constitution and related laws.

Fiji: Local government is not recognized in the Constitution. Legislation covering municipalities was streamlined with the enactment of the Local Government Act in 1972. Besides this Act that was amended in recent years, local authorities are charged with responsibilities under a wide range of legislation (Islam, 2000).

India: Seventy-Fourth Constitutional Amendment Act (1992) seeks to provide more power and authority to urban local bodies. It is the first serious attempt to ensure stabilization of democratic municipal government through constitutional provisions. The Twelfth Schedule of this act lists the functions of urban local bodies and specifies its powers and responsibilities (Islam, 2000).

Indonesia: Local Government Act No 5 (1974), stipulating that local autonomy should be true and responsible, focus on local government and give priority to harmony and democracy, aim at increasing efficiency and productivity in providing public services and in maintaining political stability as well as national integrity and should apply both the decentralization and the deconcentration principle (Mallick, 2004).

Japan: Local Autonomy Law (1947), was recently amended to create a core city system to boost the administrative authority of cities that have relatively large capabilities and scale as social entities, enable them to carry out Government as close to the residents as possible as well as a wide-area cooperative system to cope effectively and efficiently with diversified

wide-area administrative needs and improves the system to accept transfer of authority from the state (Islam, 2000).

Kyrgyzstan: Legislative acts regulating self-government are the Constitution, including local self-government as a notion and a principle, its laws and presidential and governmental decrees, determining its financial basis, the powers and functions of local self-government and its relationship with state structures (Islam, 2000).

Malaysia: Local Government Act (1976) regulating the powers, duties, responsibilities and functions of local authorities.

New Zealand: Government Policy Statements (1987) leading to local government reform in 1989. The main principle of this reform was that local government should be selected to undertake responsibilities or functions only where the net benefit would exceed that of other institutional arrangements. Besides, subsidiary principles were to be applied, including functions to be allocated on appropriate communities of interest, operational efficiencies achieved, clear-non conflicting objectives, trade-off of objectives to be explicit and transparent and clear and strong accountability mechanisms enhancing local governments' performance (Islam, 2000).

Pakistan: Local government is not formally embodied in the Constitution, but exists under the supervision of various provincial governments that have merely delegated some of their functions and responsibilities by the promulgation of ordinances, i.e. the Local Governance Ordinance of 1979 and 1980.

Philippines: Local Government Code (1991); a comprehensive document on local government touching on structures, functions and powers, including taxation and intergovernmental relations.

Republic of Korea: Local Autonomy Law.

Sri Lanka: Municipal Councils Ordinance, Urban Councils Ordinance and Pradeshiya Sabbhas Act. Except for a few statutes passed on to the management of local administrations, most of their major activities are governed under these three laws.

Thailand: The Public Administration Act (1933) lays down the foundation of local administration. To a large extent, the administrative power of local government is wielded under central government agents (governors and district officers) and suggests a rather high degree of centralization (Mallick, 2004).

2.3 Structure of local government system of Bangladesh

Structure refers to the organizational framework within which local public policies is determined and implemented. It determines the relationship among local officials, between local offices and national offices. The structure of local governments has an important effect on how decisions are made, coordinated and carried out. Structure and authority of local



government is determined and redistributed by the national government in each country. Structure of local government system has been shown in the flow diagram.

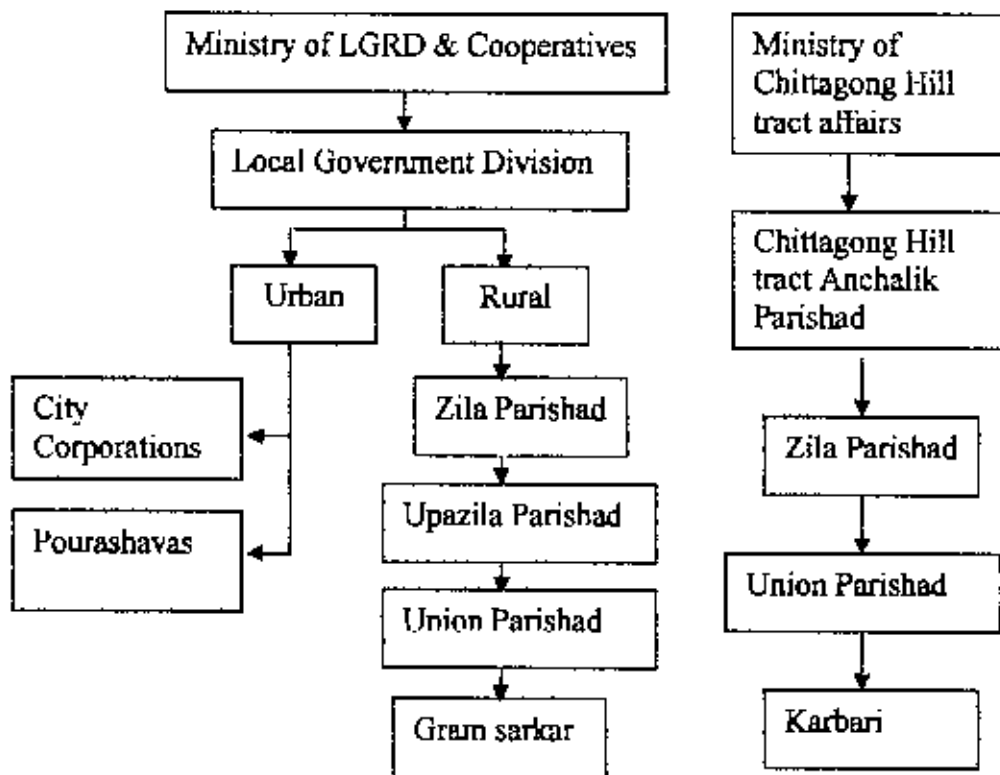


Figure 3.1 Structure of Local Government of Bangladesh

2.9 Constitutional and legal basis of Local Government

In any democratic country local government is given legal recognition by an act of parliament or by incorporating relevant provisions in the constitution. The constitution of Bangladesh spelled out the legal basis and responsibilities of local Government. The chapter three of article fifty-nine stated that-

- (1) Local Government in every administrative unit of the republic shall be entrusted to bodies composed of persons elected in accordance with law
- (2) Everybody such as is referred to in clause (1) shall, subject to this constitution and any other law, perform within the appropriate administrative unit such functions as shall be prescribed by Act of Parliament, which may include functions relating to:
 - (a) administration and work of public officers
 - (b) the maintenance of public order
 - (c) the preparation and implementation of plans relating to public services and economic development

2.10 Urban Local Government

Urban local government bodies constitute the indispensable part of the local government system of Bangladesh.

2.10.1 Declaration of Urban area

According to Purashava ordinance 1977, an urban area must fulfil three characteristics before its declaration. Firstly, three-fourth of the adult male population of the area must be employed in non-agricultural occupations. Secondly such an area must contain a population of not less than fifteen thousands. Thirdly, its population density should not be less than two thousand inhabitants per square mile. Some statutes mentioned in the ordinance are provided below:

- (1) subject to the provisions of sub-section (2), the Government may, by notification in the official Gazette, declare any rural area to be an urban area:

Provided that notwithstanding the declaration of a rural to be an urban area, the Union Parishad which immediately before such declaration exercised any function in relation to that area, shall until the area is declared to be, or to be included in, a municipality, continue to exercise those functions.

- (2) The Government shall not declare any rural area to be an urban area unless it is satisfied that three-fourth of the adult male population of the area to which it refers are chiefly employed in pursuits other than agriculture, and such area contains not less than fifteen thousand population, and an average number of not less than two thousands inhabitants per square mile.

2.10.2 Declaration of municipality and alteration of limits thereof,-

The Government may, in the prescribed manner,-

- (a) declare any urban area, other than a cantonment, to be a municipality;
- (b) extend, curtail or otherwise alter the limits of any municipality, and
- (c) declare that any urban area shall, from a date to be specified, cease to be a municipality.

2.11 Constitution of Pourashavas

- (1) As soon as may be after the commencement of this ordinance, there shall be constituted a Pourashava for every municipality in accordance with the provisions of this ordinance.
- (2) Every Pourashava shall be a body corporate, having perpetual succession and a common seal, with power, subject to the provisions of this Ordinance and the rules, to acquire and hold property, both movable and immovable, and shall be its name sue and be sued.
- (3) The Government, by notification in the official Gazette specify the name by which any Pourashava shall be known, and unless the name of a Pourashava of the place where its office is situated.

2.12 Composition of Pourashava:-

- (1) A Pourashava shall consist of-
 - (a) a chairman
 - (b) Such number of commissioners as may be fixed by the Government; and
- [bb] Such number of commissioners as are exclusively reserved for women under sub-section (3) (Inserted by Act 2 of 1998)

2.13 Types and statues of Urban local government

At present there are following types of Pourashavas and municipal corporations under various statutes noted against each:

Table 2.2: Categories of Pourashavas

Category	Type	Statute
Pourashavas	a. Class I b. Class II c. Class III	The Pourashava Ordinance, 1977
Municipal corporations	a. Dhaka City Corporation b. Chittagong Municipal Corporation c. Khulna Municipal Corporation d. Rajshahi Municipal Corporation	The Dhaka Municipal Corporation Ordinance, 1983 The Chittagong Municipal Corporation Ordinance, 1984 The Khulna Municipal Corporation Ordinance, 1985 The Rajshahi Municipal Corporation Ordinance, 1987

Source: Khan, 2000

There are three types of Pourashavas.

Class A—those Pourashavas that have an average annual revenue income from their own sources of over Tk. 60,00,000 in a three year period.

Class B—those Pourashavas that having an average annual revenue income between Tk. 25,00,001 to Tk 60,00,000 in a three year period.

Class C—those Pourashavas that have an average annual revenue income between Tk. 10,00,000 to Tk 25,00,000.

2.14 Salient features of Pourashava

The salient features of Pourashavas have been mentioned below:

a. Administrative unit

Every Pourashava is regarded as an administrative unit for the purpose of article 59 of the constitution of people's republic of Bangladesh.

b. Term of Pourashavas

The term of a Pourashava shall be a period of five years commencing on the day of its first meeting after its constitution. A Pourashava continues to function until the publication of election schedule for reconstituting the Pourashava to succeed it.

c. Election

The chairman and commissioners of the Pourashavas are directly elected on the basis of adult franchise in accordance with the provisions of Pourashava ordinance and the rules made by the Government. Every person whose name is entered in the electoral role of a ward are entitled to vote for election of the representatives of the Pourashava.

d. Prescribed power of authority

Pourashavas are supposed to prepare and implement development plans subject to the sanction of the prescribed authority. It may be such as prevention of environmental pollution, undertake community development projects and promote, administer, execute and implement schemes for undertaking any commercial or business enterprise (Ali, 1998).

e. Control over authority

The government may conduct inquiry into any particular matter concerning Pourashava. The Government may, by notification in the official Gazette, declare the Pourashava to be superseded for a period as specified in the ordinance (Ali, 1998).

f. Custody of Pourashava fund

The money credited to a Pourashava fund are kept in a Government treasury, or in a bank transacting the business of a Government treasury, or in such other manner as may be specified by the Government from time to time.

g. Property of Pourashava

A Pourashava may manage, maintain, inspect, develop or improve any property which is owned by or vests on it or which is placed under its charge or acquire or transfer by grant, gift, sale, mortgage, lease, exchange or otherwise any property. The government may provide for the management, maintenance, improvement and development of the property belonging to or vesting in Pourashava.

h. Power of taxation

A Pourashava may with the previous sanction of the Government, levy, in the prescribed manner, all or any of the taxes, rates, tolls and fees mentioned in the prescribed schedule by the Government.

i. Authority to prepare budget

Every Pourashava, in the prescribed manner, is supposed to prepare and sanction, before the commencement of each financial year, a statement of its estimated receipts and expenditure for that year, which is called budget and forward a copy to the Prescribed Authority.

2.15 Urban local government functions

Pourashavas (Municipalities) and City Corporations constitute the two types of urban local governments. Pourashavas and City Corporations functions continue to be seen as compulsory and optional.

2.15.1 Mandatory functions:

1. Construction and maintenance of roads, bridges and culverts;
2. Removal, collection and disposal of refuse;
3. Provision and maintenance of street lighting;
4. Maintenance of public streets, provision of street watering;
5. Provision and regulation of water supply;
6. Establishment and maintenance of public markets;
7. Plantation of trees on road sides;

8. Regulation of insanitary buildings and prevention of infectious diseases and epidemics;
9. Registration of births, deaths and marriages;
10. Provision and maintenance of slaughter houses;
11. Provision and maintenance of drainage;
12. Control over the construction and reconstruction of buildings;
13. Provision and maintenance of graveyards and burning places;
14. Control over traffic and public vehicles.

2.15.2 Optional functions

1. Checking adulteration of food products;
2. Control over private markets;
3. Maintenance of educational institutions and provision of stipends to meritorious students;
4. Provision of flood and famine relief;
5. Provision and maintenance of parks and gardens;
6. Establishment of welfare homes, orphanages, prevention of begging and organization of voluntary social welfare services;
7. Establishment of public dispensaries, provision of public urinals and latrines;
8. Establishment of veterinary hospitals, registration of cattle sale and improvement of livestock;
9. Celebration of national holidays;
10. Reception of distinguished visitors;
11. Establishment of public libraries and reading rooms;
12. Promotion of community development schemes; and
13. Naming of roads and numbering of houses.

The Pourashavas/City Corporations are empowered to perform a variety of socio-economic and civic functions, as described above. In practice, however, they cannot perform all these functions owing to the acute paucity of funds caused by poor and irregular collection of taxes, non-realization of taxes from government, semi-government and autonomous organizations for years together and insufficient government grants. The functions actually performed are:

1. Construction and maintenance of roads, bridges and culverts;
2. Removal, collection and disposal of refuse;
3. Provision and maintenance of street lighting;
4. Provision of water supply;
5. Establishment and maintenance of public markets;
6. Provision, maintenance and regulation of graveyards and burning places;
7. Registrations of birth, deaths and marriages;
8. Maintenance of slaughter houses;
9. Control over private markets;
10. Provision and maintenance of parks and gardens;
11. Naming of roads and numbering of houses;
12. Provision of nominal stipends to primary education institutions; and
13. Slum improvement.

Apart from the formal functions described above, the Pourashavas/City Corporations perform some additional functions such as issuance of certificates and settlement of petty disputes (over ownership/control of land, houses and markets) through discussions with concerned parties and with the help of commissioners and other functionaries. Some of the more important certificates are character, nationality, birth, death and succession certificates. Character and nationality certificates are required for job applications and admission to educational institutions. Birth, death and succession certificates are issued to the legal heirs on request and are also necessary for mutation of land ownership.

Chapter three:
Conceptualization on capacity building
approach

CHAPTER THREE: CONCEPTUALIZATION ON CAPACITY BUILDING APPROACH FROM GOVERNANCE PERSPECTIVES

3.1 Definition of Governance

Governance is the exercise of political, social, economic and administrative authority in the management of a country's affairs at all levels. Good governance lies on the process of governing that is ultimately most legitimate when it is infused with democratic principles such as transparency, pluralism and citizen involvement in decision making, representation and accountability. Good governance promotes a decent society in which the worst off can preserve dignity. Any government has to be accountable to the people. Every branch of government as executive, legislative, judiciary, bureaucracy, forces of law and order, employees of public services have to be civil as well as servants.

... "the manner in which power is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social resources for development." "Governance in general, has three distinct aspects: (a) the form of a political regime (parliamentary or presidential, military or civilian and authoritarian or democratic); (b) the processes by which authority is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social resources; and (c) the capacity of governments to design, formulate, and implement policies and, in general, to discharge governmental functions." (World Bank, 1992)

... "the exercise of economic, political and administrative authority to manage a nation's affairs at all levels. It is the complex mechanisms, processes and institutions through which citizens and groups articulate their interests, exercise their legal rights and obligations, and mediate their differences" (UNDP, 1997)

... "a process whereby citizens' needs and interests are articulated for the positive social and economic development of the entire society and in the light of a perceived common goal. Governance means more than government: it refers to a political process that encompasses the whole society and contributes to the social contract that binds them together. Their sense of political efficacy is one of the indicators of democratic governance." (UNESCO, 1997)

Governance is the undertakings of activities, management of resources, organizations of men and women by groups of people, communities, local government bodies, business organizations and the branches of the state (Legislature, judiciary and Government) through social, political and administrative arrangements that meets the daily needs of people and ensure sustainable development (Hye, 2000).

It is the process of building enduring and consistently used bridges between the state and the society at large through an effective and people oriented mechanism of administration (Shelly, 2000).

In Bangladesh the concept of governance still remains hazy and the term lacks a precise definition. The concept of governance covers various actions by the state and government. The meaning of governance encompasses the act, manner or function of governing. Local

level governance is an inevitable component of governance in Bangladesh. It aims at flourishing local government institutions in the form of vibrant public institutions as per fulfillment of people's needs and aspirations as part of its legislative operation and functions.

3.2 Governance situation in Bangladesh

There is no doubt that Bangladesh is facing a crisis of governance which, if left unchecked, could halt the country's democratic progress and economic and social well being of its population. The signs of crisis are poor political culture, polarized politics, corruption in administration, judiciary and legislative system, misrepresentation or poor representation of peoples representatives, economic policies, violence and terrorism, exclusion of general peoples opinion in policy making, threatened freedom of press and opinion, weak socio-economic and political institutions, weak, unskilled and inefficient local government bodies, lack of coordination between service providing agencies, passive participation of women and minorities and lack of accountability and transparency at all levels of government.

In Bangladesh the concept of governance is still misunderstood and the term lacks a precise definition. The concept of governance covers various actions by the state and the government. It will seek to form a society in which the rule of law, freedom, equality and justice will be established and political, economic and social security for all citizens will be ensured. Although, Bangladesh constitution speaks of participatory process and accountability of government's action and transparency of decision making, it is not reality in practice due to many reasons.

One of the major reasons is poor institutionalization of the local government bodies, which is a symbol of governance crisis in Bangladesh. All the large and medium sized cities face typical contemporary urban problems as over population, poverty, shortage of housing and services, environmental degradation, crime and gender exploitation. Efficient management of cities has become difficult due to poor human resource quality of the authorities, lack of commitment and integrity, shortage of financial resources, lack of coordination among the city authorities, government agencies and different other actors.

3.3 Urban Governance

Urban governance has assumed increasingly important, as the capacity of a nation to pursue its economic goals is dependent on its ability how to govern the cities. Urban centers make a significant contribution to the national income of each country. It is often said that cities are the engines of growth of the national income.

The UNCHS (1996) 'Global Report on Human Settlements' identified three critical factors that have led to a focus on urban Governance. These were:

- The elaboration and implementation of decentralization policies including the emergence and acceptance of the concept of subsidiarity;
- The introduction of or return to democratic principle of Government in many countries, both at the national and local level;
- The increased importance that citizen and community pressure, as well as urban social movements, combined with concerns for economic development and environmental

degradation, have helped place on local control and involvement in decision making.

Urban governance can be characterized by interaction of three important counterparts as institution, locally elected representatives and citizens. Elements of urban good governance has been presented in the below flow diagram which represents the functional interaction of three groups of actors as citizens, local elected bodies and institution.

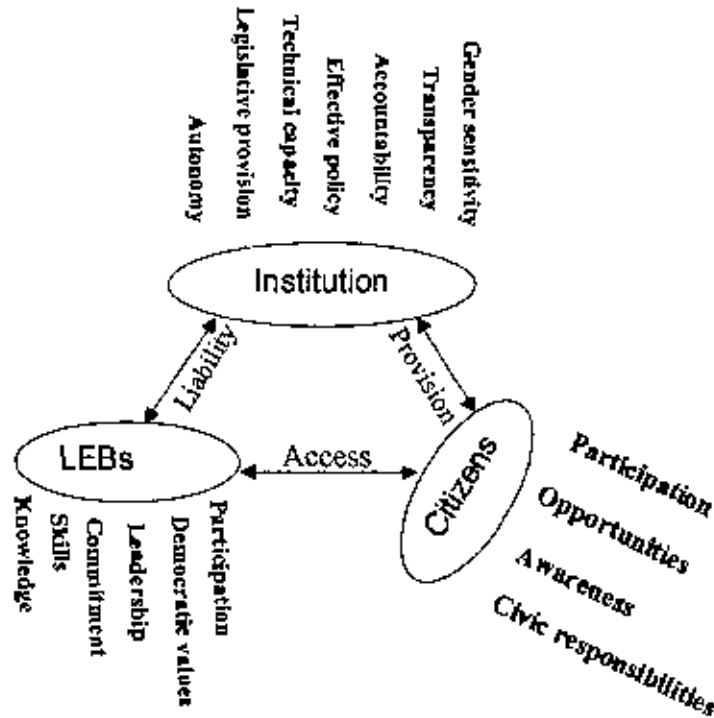


Figure 3.1 : Flow chart of Urban Governance

3.4 Structure of Urban Governance in South Asia

As urban governance is a very complicated issue, the structures of urban governance have remained static over the years. The first municipal corporation was established in Madras in 1688 by the East India Company and sanitary committees or conservancy boards were established in Karachi, Lahore and Rawalpindi as early as 1804s, it was Lord Ripon's resolution of 1882 which proclaimed that a major political purpose of local self government would be to serve as the schools of democracy (Sivaramakrishnan, 2000). Forty years later the Montague-Chelmsford reforms of 1917 declared local self governing institutions as the first step in the progressive realization of responsible government in India. The 1953 Government of India Act allowed provincial autonomy and permitted provincial governments to frame laws on local governments systems. This act has been the basis for the municipal set up in India, Pakistan and Bangladesh since then and well into the period since independence. The provincial set-up and the formation of municipal councils in Sri Lanka have been more or less on similar lines (Sivaramakrishnan, 2000). Municipal councils for

Colombo, Kandy and Galle were established in 1965-66. However, in Nepal the Rana regime for over a century from 1946 to 1951 did not take any initiative for local self government.

Whatever be the conception of Ripon Resolution and Montague-Chelmsford reforms, a few changes have been found in most municipal Acts of the sub-continent. One is the power of the District and Provincial governments to approve the municipal budgets and exercise various supervisory powers over municipal functioning. Another is the power of the provincial government to supersede an elected municipal council or a corporation on various grounds of impropriety and non-performance (Sivaramakrishnan, 2000).

From time to time, supervision by the national government has been increased. In India, at any time after independence, about half of the municipal councils and corporations have been under supercession, irrespective of the political parties in power in the states. The Madras corporation was superseded in 1973 which lasted for 23 years. In Pakistan municipalities in the north-western province were set aside in 1991, Sindh in 1992 and Punjab in 1993 for the purpose of ensuring free national elections without being influenced by incumbent local government leaders (Islam, 2003). In Bangladesh, the municipalities have had an uncertain existence during both the East Pakistan and post liberation periods. In Nepal municipal authority was significant during the national panchayat system.

Contrary to expectations, independence from colonial rule did not lead to flourish local self-governance or consolidation of autonomy. Some scholars like Akbar Zaidi have pointed out that democratic participation at the provincial and national levels becoming a reality, municipal government has lost its value as the only platform available for public participation during the colonial period (Sivaramakrishnan, 2000).

Urban Development Authorities is another South Asian arrangement, which has reduced the functional domain of municipalities. Originating from the concept of City Improvement Trusts (One for Calcutta was set up in 1911) which undertook redevelopment and city extension schemes on a self-financing basis and by adding some features of British New Town Corporations and the statutory master planning and enforcement functions, Development Authorities have been created in almost all metropolitan cities (Islam, 2003). Apart from taking away town planning from the domain of the municipalities, these Development Authorities became in due course powerful in planning, regulation, real estate development, housing and public works functions. It was felt that such authorities would be efficient and technocratic and be able to attract external assistance. The first came in Delhi in 1952 and was given the monopoly for land acquisition and development in the union territory. It became a big land bank and money-spinner in its early years and thus an attractive model in the region. Development Authorities of Karachi and Lahore were set up in the 1970s. The one for Calcutta, called the CMDA, was established in 1970 mainly to mobilize funds for a metropolitan wide rescue programme and coordinate implementation functions. Very soon it took over execution of works as well. Similar authorities followed in Madras and Bombay and in most of the 23 'million plus' cities in India. In many cases the elected municipalities in the respective cities were under supercession which no doubt, facilitated the creation of these parallel organization (Sivaramakrishnan, 2000). In

Bangladesh, the Capital Development authority or RAJUK was set up in 1987, a successor to the Improvement Trust created in 1956. Similar bodies for Chittagong, Khulna and Rajshahi followed. In Sri Lanka an Urban Development Authority was created in 1987 with nationwide jurisdiction, similar to the Singapore model.

Apart from these Development Authorities, special purpose agencies, particularly for water supply and sewerage were also set up for many cities in the region. Technical imperatives of single control from source to tap, operational efficiency and cost recovery uninfluenced by municipal politics were cited as the rationale for these bodies. In many cases these were supported by the World Bank and other external assistance agencies. Metropolitan wide water and sanitation boards or authorities were set up in Karachi, Lahore, Delhi, Madras, Dhaka, Chittagong etc. and state-wide boards in Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu, Kerala and so on. Bombay and Calcutta are two exceptions where the corporation still has the responsibility for handling water supply and sanitation as basic municipal functions.

3.5 Role of Urban Governance in Bangladesh

Bangladesh is a densely populated country which is confronted with over concentration of population in a few large and medium size cities. Poverty, unemployment, natural calamities as flood, cyclone, river erosion force rural people to migrate in cities for shelter and livelihood. Economic polarization and low scope and access to resources of the marginalized and disadvantaged groups predominate as one of the root causes of urban poverty in Bangladesh. The rate of urbanization is the symbol of development of a country. Establishing urban governance through activating urban institutions is a demand of the day for accelerating the ladder of development of the country.

The major responsibilities to increase efficiency of urban areas and improve its productivity is largely dependent on the Urban local government institutions. In recent years the role of city economy in national development has been recognized among countries. In global economy, the competition among cities is increasing day by day. Establishing good urban governance is a pre-requisite to Bangladesh, to participate in global competition under open market and free flow of information.

Urbanization causes a rise in the incidence of urban poverty. Urban local government can become a shelter for the urban poor through playing as key actor in promoting social security and sustainable support system for the urban poor. Urban local government is the focal actor to coordinate different social development and welfare programs initiated by different departments, Non Government Organizations and community based organizations who deals in urban poverty alleviation. Actually such activities are carried out in an uncoordinated way and there is no existence of a key actor to oversee and coordinate such programs.

Many urban residents have to live without electricity, piped water supply, hygienic sewerage facility and other basic services. People have right to demand those services from their elected local government. Urban local government is supposed to provide those services. These can be satisfactorily met by establishing a truly participatory, accountable and transparent local government.

Due to rapid population growth, increased industrial and commercial activities, poor enforcement of regulations, quality of urban environment is declining day by day. Urban environment can fairly be protected through strong enforcement of regulations in an accountable and transparent manner by the urban local government bodies.

Urban governance is the prime concern how to operate urban institutions themselves in contributing towards planned growth and controlled development of the urban areas. Efficiency of the urban institutions should be increased through restructuring, reorganization of the institutions and reformation of policies which regulate those institutions.

3.6 Features of urban governance

In the light of Institutional Capacity building some crucial features of Urban local government bodies have been analyzed.

3.6.1 Legislative provision

Local government in most of the democratic Country is given legal recognition either by an act of Parliament or by incorporating relevant provision in the constitution. In Bangladesh legal basis and responsibilities of local government has been guaranteed by the constitution in article fifty-nine which state that local government in every administrative unit of the Republic shall be entrusted to bodies composed of persons elected in accordance with law (Constitution of the Peoples Republic of Bangladesh). As the pourashava is an autonomous body created by an act of the legislature, it enjoys freedom to an extent in both the financial and administrative matter.

3.6.2 Operational autonomy

The local government institution should have an independent operational and financial autonomy. All the municipal corporations and Pourashavas operate within the limits set by a number of ordinances and acts. These have been amended from time to time. Government control over local urban elected bodies is extensive and rigid. Urban local governments due to inadequate funds of their own are absolutely dependent on government grants and hence have to work within limits set by procedures of such grants.

3.6.3 Planning

Planning is preparation for action. It is closely associated with the goals of the institution. Planning is concerned with looking into the future. It requires forecasting of future situation in which the institution has to function. It involves selection of the best alternative to achieve the objective of the institution (Khan, 2000). It is a continuous affair. It needs constant review and readjustment in the light of achieved targets and future possibilities.

3.6.4 Accountability

Accountability is to make the elected officials answerable to their constituents. The institution will be answerable to its service receivers. Accountability flows from the concept of stewardship and rests on the consent of the governed (Kumar, 2000). It also refers to adhering to an established set of criteria in measuring the performance of local government officials to estimate the economic and financial performance of local government.

3.6.5 Transparency

Institutional transparency is the process of sharing information with its stakeholders, service recipients and citizen. In case of a public institution as Pourashavas, the people will have scope and access to all its information. Transparency is built on the free flow of information to all the stakeholders concerned with the institution (Mehta, 1997).

3.6.6 Participation

Participation means greater involvement of different stakeholders, staff, citizen and local elected bodies in planning, implementation and decision making process of different activities of the institution. People's participation is essential for effective planning of an institution. It ensures to reflect people's views, opinions and aspirations for services in the planning process. All men and women should have a voice in decision making either directly or through legitimate intermediate institutions that represent their interests (Ali, 1998).

3.6.7 Management innovation

This refers to reforms successfully implemented by local governance in various areas of local government administrations, e.g. administrative procedures, resource mobilization, political reforms, economic sustainability, environmental preservation, community participation, etc (Mehta, 1997). Sound management is characterized by regular opening and maintaining office hour, file system and recording of documents, file index system, office equipment, administrative architecture, institutional and working procedures which cover communication and public relation, internal reporting system, issuance and distribution of documents, clerical services, procurement, budgetary and fiscal administration and all aspects of personal administration.

3.6.8 Responsiveness

It is a measure of accountability wherein leaders and public servants address the needs of the public. It can be indicated by a deliberate citizen and customer orientation policy being consistently espoused by the local administration or by the presence of mechanisms and procedures for swift recourse on unfair practices and avenues for the community to articulate issues requiring local government assistance (Mehta, 1997).

3.6.9 Quality of service delivery

Quality of service can be measured by the indicators whether it is equitable to all citizen, timely ample service and continuously delivered. It means the supply of right quantity at the right time and progressively improves its quality and performance.

3.6.10 Customers Satisfaction

Customers are those who are directly or indirectly related to any organization or services. The customers of the pourashava, therefore, encompass all the citizens who reside within its geographical territory. As a local government unit, pourashavas are reasonably mandated to address problems, needs and grievances of its constituents.

3.7 Pourashava Management System

Management is the process to transform the inputs into outputs to achieve a particular goal (Khan, 2000). The goal of Pourashava can be achieved through management of its resources to secure services to its citizens. So it can be mentioned that success and failure of a Pourashava is largely dependent on the management process. Pourashava management system can be shown in the following diagram:

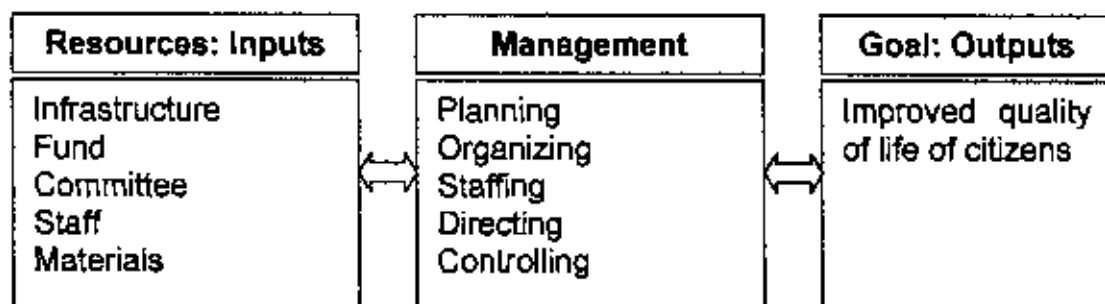


Figure 3.2 Pourashava management system

3.8 Conceptualization on Capacity building approach

Capacity building is the holistic approach to find the most expedient and efficient way to achieve a particular goal. It is not a set of discrete interventions to bring about a pre-defined outcome, rather it is an integrated and multi-dimensional process of fostering change. In case of capacity building for human resources development, it encompasses realization of human potential, skill development and empowerment to bring about positive change in their livelihood.

In case of institutional development it is an approach that necessarily reflects an institution's philosophy of development, as well as how it performs its own roles and functions. In this regard Capacity-building is used to mean enabling institutions be more effective in implementing its activities and achieving goals of the institution. It is a process of adaptation to change that gives an institution both the resources to deal with challenges (Mehta, 1997).

Institutional capacity building can be analyzed from demand and supply perspective. Demand is raised from the customers or service receivers' needs and expectations for getting effective services. On the other hand, supply is the proper legislative provision for providing those services, availability of its resources, managerial capability which include planning, organizing, staffing, directing, controlling and decision making to achieve the target of the institution. A capacity building approach involves identifying the constraints and finding appropriate vehicles through which to strengthen ability to overcome those.

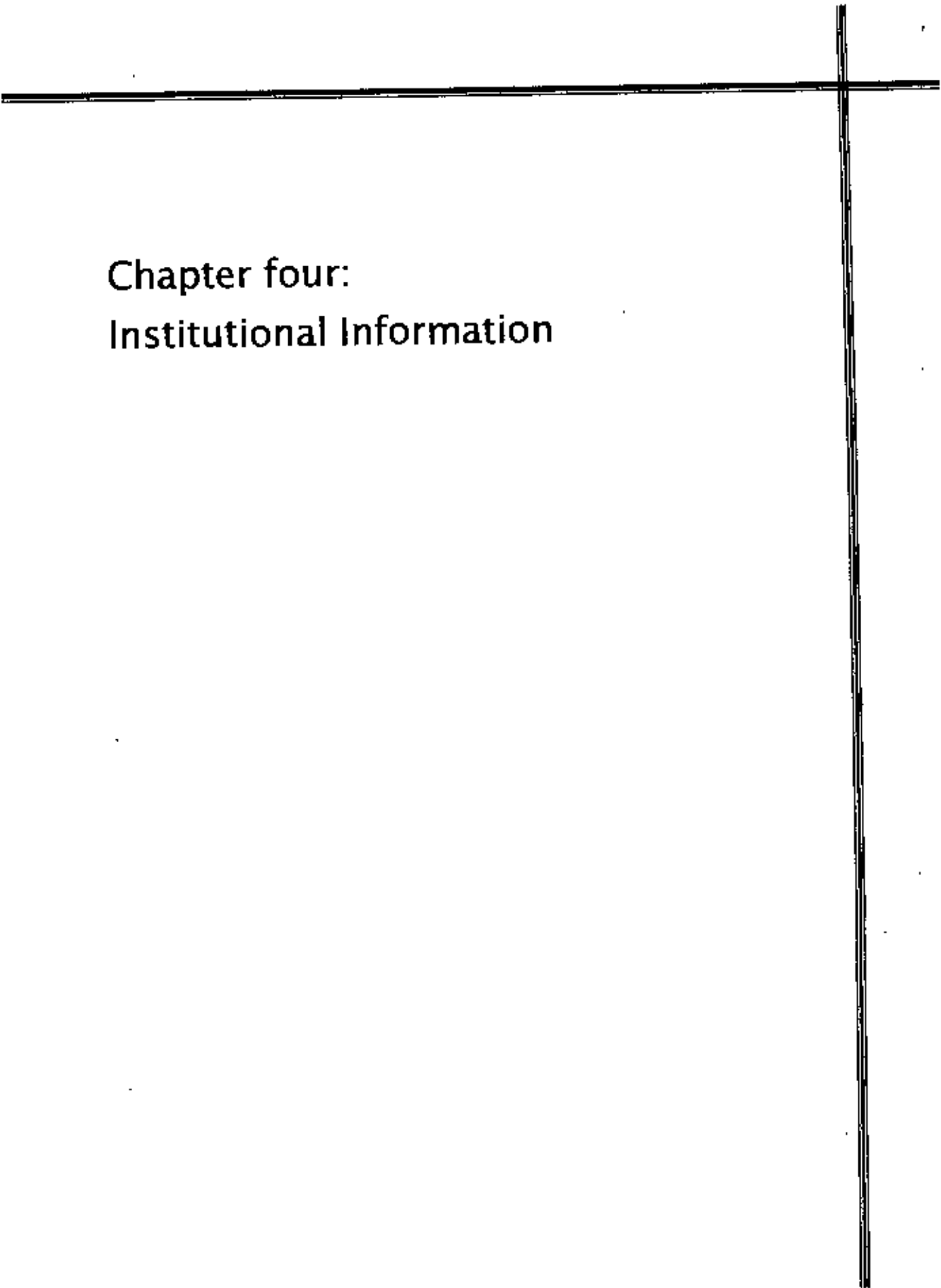
Capacity building is now referred to as improving the ability of the institutions, government, private and community based organizations (CBOs) and individuals within these institutions to perform appropriate tasks and fulfil their roles effectively, efficiently and sustainably. The dimensions of such capacity building exercise are human resource development, organizational development and the institutional and legal framework (Peltenberg et al., 1996). Good governance indicators based on capacity building approach have been provided in the below table.

Table 3.1 Good governance indicators based on capacity

Capacity	Good governance
1. Institutional capacity	<input type="checkbox"/> Accountability <input type="checkbox"/> Transparency <input type="checkbox"/> Adaptability <input type="checkbox"/> Judicial independence
2. Technical capacity	<input type="checkbox"/> Perspective planning & projecting future investment needs <input type="checkbox"/> Management of services & Infrastructure <input type="checkbox"/> Financial management & accounting practice
3. Administrative capacity	<input type="checkbox"/> Grievance notification system <input type="checkbox"/> Personnel policy <input type="checkbox"/> Flexible and decentralized decision making <input type="checkbox"/> Performance evaluation
4. Political capacity	<input type="checkbox"/> Articulation of local needs in context of organizational capacity <input type="checkbox"/> Mechanism for participation of stakeholders

Source: Grindle and Hildebrand, 1994





Chapter four:
Institutional Information

CHAPTER FOUR: INSTITUTIONAL INFORMATION

As the study focuses on institutional aspect of Urban Local government bodies, basic information regarding institutional forms, structure of four selected Pourashavas have been presented below:

4.1 General Information

4.1.1 Bogra

Bogra is an old district town among urban centres of Rajshahi Division. Bogra was founded as an administrative District headquarter in 1821 and as Paurashava in 1st July 1976 and became in the form of 1st class Paurashava in 1981. According to BBS census data, total area is 14.76 sq. km. with population of 1,20,170 nos. It has 12 wards with 12-elected commissioner and 4 female Commissioner in preserved seat under an elected Chairman of Bogra Paurashava.

4.1.2 Pabna

The Pabna municipality was constituted in 1876 (Pabna District Gazette). The pabna municipality was reconstituted as a Municipal Committee as per the provision of the Municipal Administration Ordinance 1960. It was reconstituted as a Pourashava in 1976. At present the area under the pourashava jurisdiction is 19.80 sq. km. with the population of 1,29,013 approximately. It has 9 wards with 13 elected representatives.

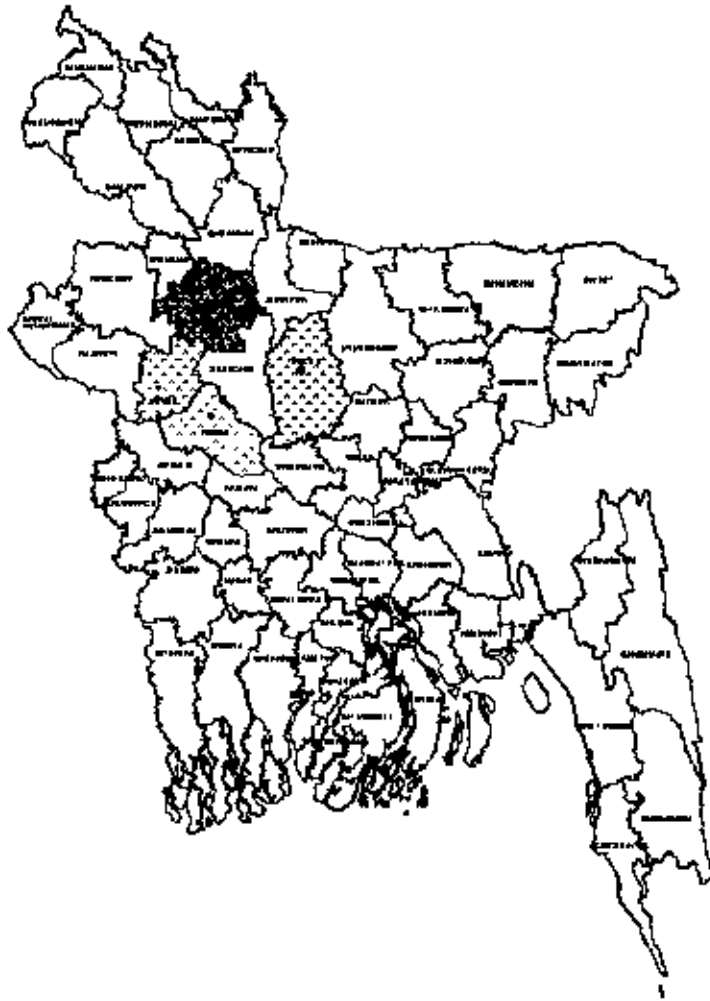
4.1.3 Natore

Natore is another important urban centre among the district towns of Rajshahi Division. Natore Pourashava was established on 1st April 1879 and became in the form of 1st class Paurashava in 1981. Total area under the pourashava jurisdiction is 14.80-sq. km. with the population of around 72000. It has 9 wards with 9 elected commissioners and 3 female Commissioner in reserved seat under an elected Chairman of Natore Paurashava. The pourashava has 90 staff who are employed at different levels.

4.1.4 Tangail

Tangail municipality was first established in 1887. In 1972, it was reconstituted as a Pourashava. At present there are 18 wards in this Pourashava. The present population of Tangail city is 1,28,000. Total area under the Pourashava jurisdiction is 29.47 sq. km. The body of local elected representatives composed of one elected chairman, 18 male commissioners and 6 female commissioners. At present there are 71 staffs working Tangail Pourashava.

Location of four Pourashavas



4000000 0 4000000 Miles



Table 4.1 Summary of Institutional Information

	Established	Area (sq. km.)	Population	wards	LEBs	Staffs
Bogra	1821	14.76	120170	12	17	120
Natore	1879	14.80	72000	9	13	90
Pabna	1876	19.80	129013	9	13	111
Tangail	1887	29.47	128000	18	25	88

Source: Field Survey, 2004

4.2 Staffing status

The Government may from time to time specify the posts in the Pourashavas. A pourashava may, and if so required by the specified authority shall, on the prescribed terms and conditions, appoint such other employees as are deemed necessary for the efficient performance of its functions under this ordinance. Each Purashava poses recognized amount of positions for performing its activities. Pourashava budget is prepared covering salary and conveniences of approved positions. Each Pourashava under this study has acute shortage of staffs as per approved Organogram. About 30% positions of four Pourashavas are somehow vacant. Pourashavas do not enjoy self-autonomy for staff recruitment without initiative and approval from the concerned ministry. The Pourashavas face obstacles in recruiting staffs as per its requirements during time to time.

Table 4.2 : Staffing status

Pourashava	Position of staffs	Exist		Vacant	
		#	%	#	%
Natore	120	90	75	30	25
Tangail	158	88	56	70	44
Bogra	120	95	79	25	21
Pabna	144	111	77	33	23
Total	542	384	71	158	29

Source: Field Survey, 2004

4.3 Organogram

A typical Organogram of a Pourashava has been provided below:

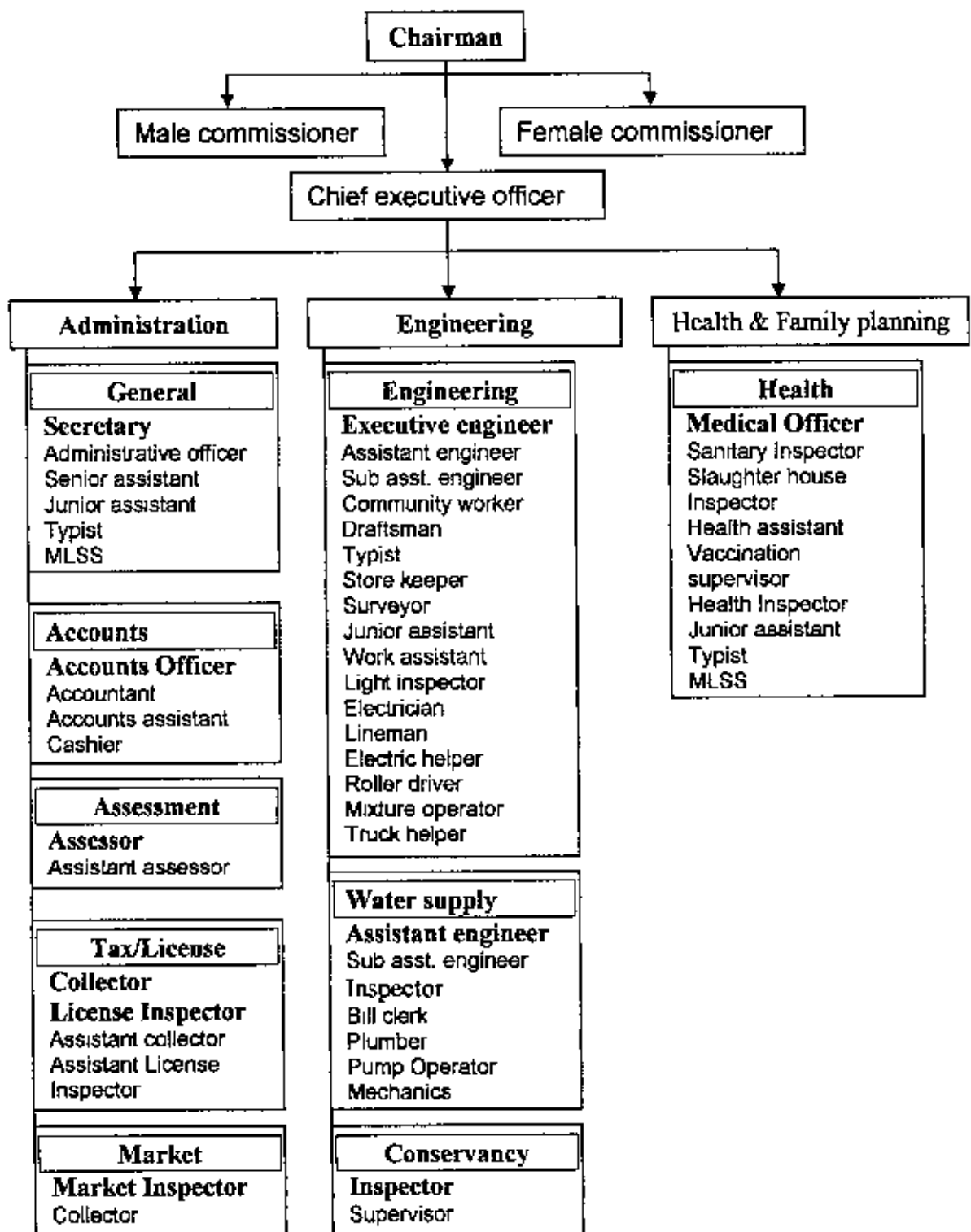


Figure 4.1: Organogram of a typical Pourashava

4.4 Education level of staffs

About 12% staffs are educated up to degree and above those include MBBS doctor, graduate engineers and others. The majority 29% are educated up to class X those include MISS, peons, office helpers. About 27% are engaged in different clerical services. 15% of them are educated up to SSC and the rest 17% are educated up to class V.

Table 4.3: Education level of staffs

Category	Natore	Tangail	Bogra	Pabna	Total	
					F	%
Degree and above	14	8	12	12	46	12
HSC	24	21	25	35	105	27
SSC	10	16	13	18	57	15
VI-X	14	28	33	36	111	29
I-V	28	15	12	10	65	17
Total	90	88	95	111	384	100

Source: Field Survey, 2004

4.5 Status of skilled personnel of four Pourashavas

Each Pourashava is supposed to have some skilled personnel as Chief executive Officer, Executive engineer, Assistant Engineer, Urban planner, Sub assistant engineer, Medical Officer, Accounts officer and other some important personnel. Some graduate engineers are recruited for implementation of civic amenities and services. For medical and health services, the government appoints one MBBS doctor. Urban planner should be recruited but no Pourashava has a professional urban planner. Among 41 positions of skilled personnel's 14 are seen to be vacant which comprise 34% of the skilled positions.

Table 4.4: Skilled personnel of four Pourashavas

Types	Requirement	Position	Exist	Vacant
Chief executive Officer	Deputation	4	4	0
Executive engineer	BSC in engineering	4	3	1
Assistant Engineer	BSC in engineering	8	5	3
Urban planner	BSC in engineering with diploma in town planning/ regional planning	1	0	1
Sub assistant engineer	Diploma	16	10	6
Medical Officer	MBBS	4	2	2
Veterinary surgeon	DVM	4	0	4
Accounts officer	M. Com	4	3	1
Total		41	27	14

Source: Field Survey, 2004

4.6 Recruitment procedure

Terms and conditions of recruiting some important positions are mentioned below:

Chief Executive Officer

Chief executive Officer is the principal executive officer of the Pourashava and all other officers and employees of the Pourashava are subordinated to him. The chief executive officer is appointed by the Government, or by such authority as the Government may specify, on such terms and conditions as may be prescribed. Chief executive Officer is recruited on deputation by the government from BCS administration Cadres not below than the rank of a senior assistant secretary.

Secretary:

About 25% are recruited directly by the Pourashavas and 75% are recruited through promotion. The requirement for this position is minimum 2nd class masters degree with five years experience in administrative service.

Accounts Officer

About 25% are recruited directly by the Pourashavas and 75% are recruited through promotion. The requirement for this position is minimum 2nd class masters degree in commerce with two years experience in accounts.

Executive Engineer

About 50% are recruited directly by the Pourashavas and rest 50% is recruited through promotion. The requirement for this position is minimum degree in engineering or equivalent with experience.

Assistant Engineer

About 50% are recruited directly by the Pourashavas and rest 50% is recruited through promotion. The requirement for this position is minimum degree in engineering or equivalent.

Urban planner

At present there is no person in this position of Pourashavas under this study. About 100% are supposed to be recruited directly by the Pourashavas. The requirement for this position is minimum degree in engineering with diploma in town planning/ regional planning. Due to this requirement according to the recruitment procedure Pourashavas cannot recruit in such important position. At present there is no diploma course in town planning, rather three universities are providing graduation degree in urban planning. There is no option to recruit graduate planners in Pourashavas according to existing recruitment rules.

Medical Officer

About 50% are recruited directly by the Pourashavas and rest 50% is recruited through promotion. The requirement for this position is minimum MBBS with five years experience in health sector.

Veterinary officer

About 50% are recruited directly by the Pourashavas and rest 50% is recruited through promotion. The requirement for this position is minimum DVM with seven years experience. At present there is no person in this position of Pourashavas under this study.

4.7 Honorarium of Chairman and Commissioners

The Chairman and Commissioners are entitled to draw the amount of honorarium from the concerned Pourashava fund. Under the Pourashava (Payment of honorarium to Chairman and Commissioners) Rules, 1985 the chairman shall, in case of a Pourashava having an annual income of (a) Taka thirty lacs and above, (b) Taka five lacs and above but less than Taka thirty lacs, or (c) less than taka five lacs be paid an honorarium of taka one thousand two hundred and fifty, taka one thousand seven hundred and fifty per month respectively. It will be effective from the date of assumption of his office. A commissioner shall, in case of a Pourashava having such annual income as has been specified in clause (a), (b) or (c) be paid an honorarium of taka five hundred, taka four hundred and taka three hundreds per month respectively with effect from the date of assumption of his/ her office.

Chapter five:
Peoples views regarding Pourashava
activities

**CHAPTER FIVE:
PEOPLES VIEWS REGARDING POURASHAVA ACTIVITIES**

In order to know the status of service delivery from recipients point of view 300 respondents have been interviewed from four cities. The respondents comprise inhabitants of those cities irrespective of their age, sex, religion and socio-economic condition. Data has been collected through house to house survey.

5.1 Personal Information

5.1.1 Education level

The majority of the respondents are educated. About 47% of the respondents are educated up to degree and above level. About 85% of the respondents are educated up to SSC and above. Among the respondents only 3% are illiterate.

Table 5.1: Education level of the respondents

Category	Frequency	%
Illiterate	8	3
I-V	12	4
VI-X	24	8
SSC	28	9
HSC	88	29
Degree & above	140	47
Total	300	100

Source: Field Survey, 2004

5.1.2 Age distribution

The respondents are distributed in different age groups. About 54% of the respondents are young and educated people who fall within the age of 20 to 30. About 21% of them are between 31 and 40 years. About 11% of them are between 41 to 50 and 51 to 60 years in both cases. Age of remaining 3% are 61 and above years.

Table 5.2: Age distribution of the respondents

Age group	Frequency	%
20-30	164	54
31-40	64	21
41-50	32	11
51-60	32	11
61+	8	3
Total	300	100

Source: Field Survey, 2004

5.1.3 House Ownership

The survey was conducted on two types of respondents. These are people who have own houses and those who reside in rented houses. The purpose of undertaking respondents of two groups is to understand the views of permanent residents and who temporarily reside due to their jobs, business or other purposes. About 72% of the respondents own houses in those cities. Other 28% live in rented houses.

Table 5.3: House Ownership

Category	Frequency	%
Own house	216	72
Rented house	84	28
Total	300	100

Source: Field Survey, 2004

5.1.4 Sex of the respondents

The survey comprises both male and female respondents. Gender segregated data were collected to bring gender sensitivity in the study. The proportion of male and female respondents are around 60% and 40% respectively.

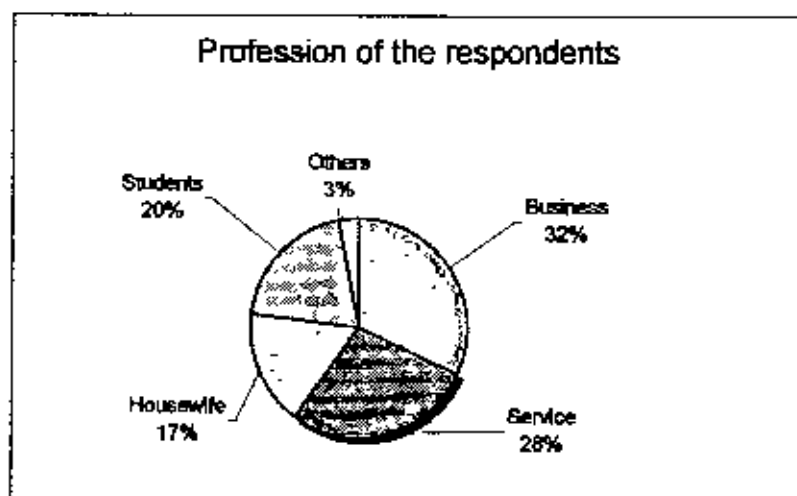
Table 5.4: Sex of the respondents

Category	Frequency	%
Male	184	61
Female	116	39
Total	300	100

Source: Field Survey, 2004

5.1.5 Profession of the respondents

The respondents comprise different professions including business, services, housewife, students and other categories. About 32% of the respondents are engaged in business profession. The second largest group is service holders who consist of 28% of the total respondents. Other major groups are housewives and students who represent 17% and 20% respectively. Besides some others including doctors, lawyers and teachers are 3%.



Source: Field Survey, 2004

Figure: 5.1 Profession of the respondents

5.1.6 Income level

The respondents represent different socio-economic groups. The lower income group which constitute 25% of the total respondents has a family income of less than 2000 taka. About 24% of the respondents have average family income of more than Tk.5000 while rest (51%) earn between taka 2001 and 5000. Table 5.5 presents the distribution of respondents by income groups.

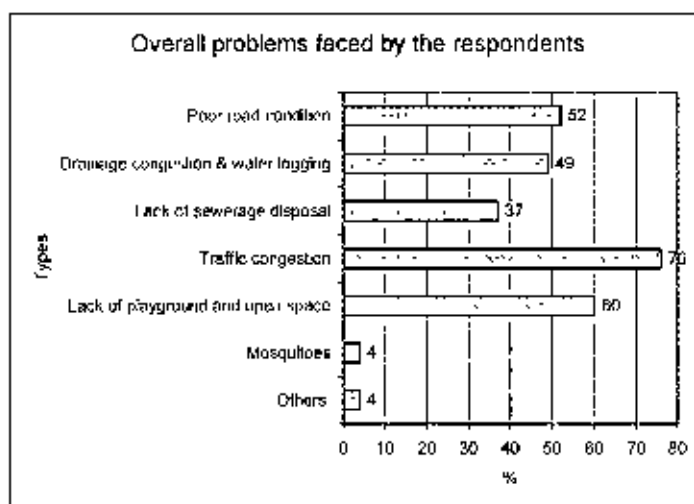
Table 5.5: Family Income level (in Tk.)

Income level (in Tk.)	Frequency	%
Below 2000	76	26
2001 -3000	40	13
3001-4000	72	24
4001-5000	40	13
5001+	72	24
Total	300	100

Source: Field Survey, 2004

5.2 Problems faced by the citizens

The citizens faced different types of problems which disrupt their normal life. Roads of those cities are narrow and congested and remain in dilapidated situation. The citizens are faced with water logging in many parts of the cities. The major reasons of water logging are unplanned settlement, encroachments of the natural drains and canals, inefficient and insufficient drainage system. The cities lack environmental sanitation and sewerage. Even people often face traffic congestion, which hampers their normal life. There is lack of recreational facilities in the cities. There is also scarcity of play ground and open spaces. Responses regarding all these problems have been presented in the figure 5.2.



Source: Field Survey, 2004

Figure 5.2 Problems faced by the citizens

5.2.1 Status of Water supply

One of the major local level problems faced by the citizens is scarcity of potable supplied water. A limited number of respondents (11%) are satisfied with the water supply system. About 32% of the respondents viewed that there is existence of water supply but this is not sufficient. They faced problems of irregular supply and poor services mentioned by 41% and 43% respectively.

Table 5.6: Condition of Water supply

Condition	Frequency	%
Adequate	32	11
Exist but not adequate	96	32
Irregular supply	124	41
Poor service	128	43
Total	380	

Source: Field Survey, 2004

5.2.2 Condition of Roads and streets

Roads of the cities are narrow, congested and in dilapidated situation. Only 7% of the respondents mentioned about existence of good and sufficient roads. About 39% of them mentioned that roads are sufficient but in dilapidated situation. Some of the respondents mentioned both insufficiency and narrowness of roads and streets who are 28% in both cases. About 48% mentioned congestion of roads and streets.

Table 5.7: Condition of Roads and streets

Condition	Frequency	%
Good and sufficient	20	7
Sufficient but poor condition	116	39
Insufficient and poor condition	84	28
Narrow and congested	144	48
Total	364	

Source: Field Survey, 2004

5.2.3 Waste disposal

Waste disposal system of these cities is not well and satisfactory. People's views regarding waste disposal system have been considered. Only 9% of the inhabitants are satisfied with the system. A large number of them opined that wastes are not removed on regular basis (53%) and due to haphazard dumping along roadside, odor and public nuisance is created (64%). These two types of problems are faced by 64% and 53% of the respondents. About 13% of them responded that there exists no service in their locality.

Table 5.8: Condition of Waste disposal

Condition	Frequency	%
Sufficient regular service by the Pourashavas	28	9
Exist but irregular & insufficient	160	53
Odor and public nuisance	192	64
No service exist	40	13
Total	420	

Source: Field Survey, 2004

5.2.4 Drainage system

Sound drainage system is one of the major components of healthy city services. The existing drainage system of those cities is not satisfactory at all. Drains somehow exist but these are not cleaned on regular basis. About 71% of the respondents opined that the drains are often dumped with wastes and are not cleaned regularly. 9% of them mentioned that there is no existence of drains in their locality. Apart from those, only 8% of the inhabitants are satisfied with the system.

Table 5.9: Condition of Drainage system

Condition	Frequency	%
Sufficient drains and cleans regularly	24	8
Exist but insufficient	72	24
Does not clean regularly	212	71
No service exist	28	9
Total	336	

Source: Field Survey, 2004

5.2.5 Street lighting

Street lighting network exists in those cities but these are insufficient and are not maintained properly. About 49% mentioned that street lights are not sufficient for the city dwellers. More than half of the respondents (57%) opined that Street lights lack proper maintenance. In some areas of the city there is no existence of Street lights. Only 16% opined that street lights are sufficient and well to meet their demand.

Table 5.10: Condition of Street lighting

Condition	Frequency	%
Sufficient & regular service	48	16
Exist but insufficient	148	49
No service exist	8	3
Lack of maintenance	172	57
Total	376	

Source: Field Survey, 2004

5.2.6 Recreational facilities

An urban local government institution is supposed to provide recreational facilities for social and mental development of its population. Interviews were conducted encompassing effectiveness of recreational facilities provided by the Pourashavas. Only 3% of them responded that there exist sufficient recreational facilities including parks and playgrounds. About 12% opined that those merely exist but are not sufficient as per people's requirements. About 37% recognized that those are insufficient and narrow. About 72% of them recognized that recreational facilities need to be more improved for fulfilling the growing demands of the citizens.

Table 5.11: Condition of recreational facilities

Condition	Frequency	%
Sufficient Parks and playgrounds	8	3
Exist but insufficient	36	12
No service exist	112	37
Need to be improved	216	72
Total	372	

Source: Field Survey, 2004

5.2.7 Social and cultural activities

A local government institution is supposed to be socially committed to its citizens. As per its social liability, it arranges fairs on special occasions, cultural activities, celebrate national days, arrange meetings, conferences on socially focused issues. The respondents were asked whether they take part in such activities arranged by the Pourashavas. It has been observed that the citizens participate in such occasions except 33% who did not take part in any activity.

Table 5.12: Participation in social and cultural activities arranged by the Pourashava

Activities	Frequency	%
Fairs and shows	144	48
Attend in Cultural program	68	23
Special day celebration	92	31
Conference and workshops	12	4
Did not participate	100	33
Total	416	

Source: Field Survey, 2004

5.2.8 Peoples access to Pourashava information

Each Pourashava prepares budget before commencement of any financial year, which consists, estimated receipts and expenditure of fund for that year. Budget is prepared for proper financial planning including probable costs of income and expenditure. Pourashava budget is important for providing allocation of services to the citizens. Only 13% of the surveyed population is informed that Pourashava prepares yearly budget. About 87% of people are ignorant about existence of budget. It shows the low level of awareness and less access to Pourashava information.

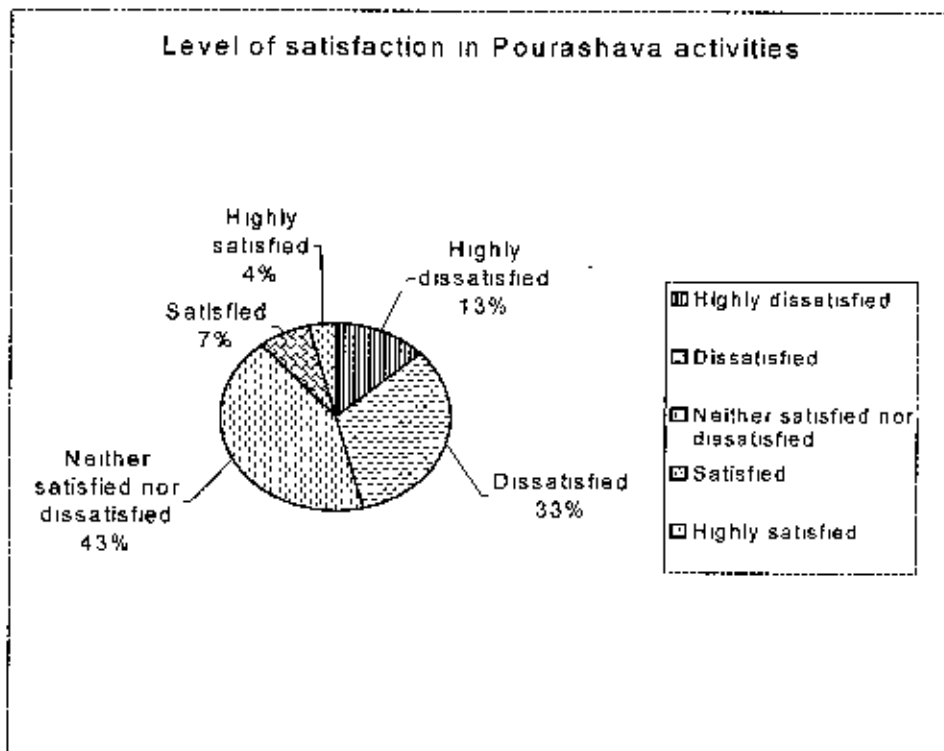
Table 5.13: Informed about existence of budget

Status	Frequency	%
Yes	40	13
No	260	87
Total	300	100

Source: Field Survey, 2004

5.3 Level of satisfaction

Satisfaction level of the inhabitants regarding service delivery has been assessed. Customer's satisfaction shows acceptability of a local government institution to its citizens. Satisfaction level has been categorized for assessment. The study reveals that only 11% people are satisfied with the quality of available services including 4% who are highly satisfied. About 43% are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied. About 46% of them expressed their dissatisfaction including 13% who are highly dissatisfied.



Source: Field Survey, 2004

Figure 5.3: Level of satisfaction

5.4 Status of tax paying

The respondents were asked whether they paid tax to Pourashava last year. This question was included in order to know willingness of citizens in tax paying. About 73% of the respondents paid tax to Pourashava. About 27% of the citizens did not pay tax who are tenants.

Table 5.14: Rate of paying tax to Pourashava

Condition	Frequency	%
Yes	220	73
No	80	27
Total	300	100

Source: Field Survey, 2004

5.5 Institutional Problems faced

Citizens face institutional problems in receiving services from Pourashava. These are lack of skillness of staffs, bureaucratic complexity and delaying. They pointed out that the high officials do not delegate to their subordinates and work is delayed for this. It would be noteworthy to mention that 53% of the respondents mentioned about lack of responsiveness of the office bearers.

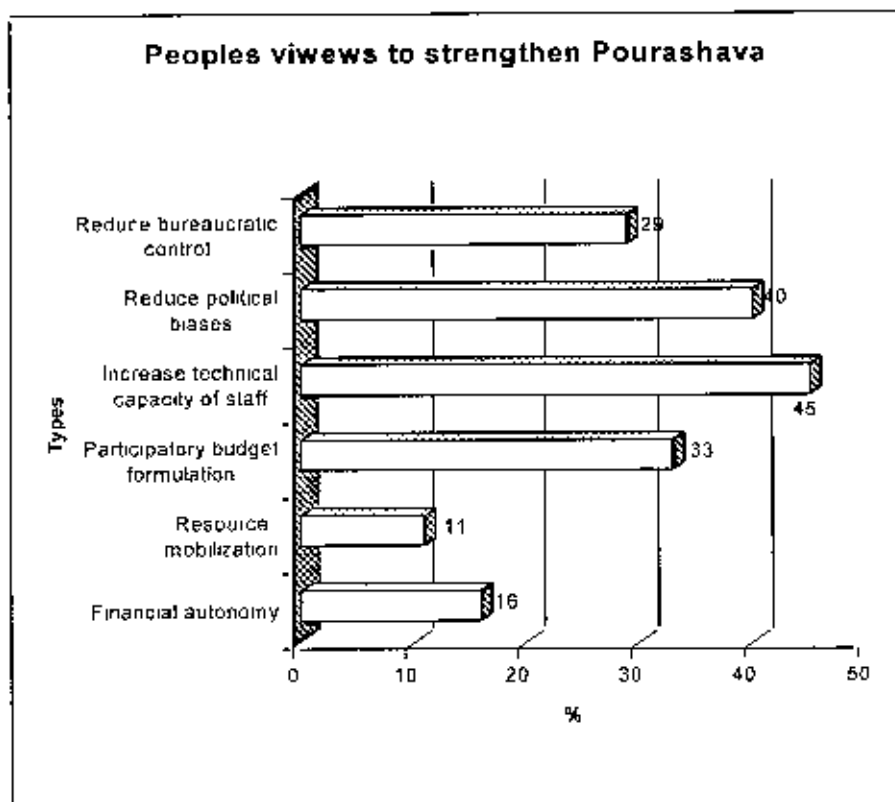
Table 5.15: Institutional Problems faced by the citizens

Types	Frequency	%
Lack of skillness of office bearers	80	27
Bureaucratic problems	108	36
Lack of responsiveness	160	53
Low delegation by senior level staffs	16	5
Total	364	

Source: Field Survey, 2004

5.6 Suggestions of the citizens

The citizens recommended in light of their own views and experiences. About 45% of them recommended that technical capacity of the staff should be more increased for quick and timely delivery of services. A significant number of population (53%) opined that budget making process should be in participatory way. They recommended for reducing political biases in fund allocation (40%). They recommended for reducing bureaucratic control (29%), bringing financial autonomy (16%) and mobilization of more resources (11%) for accelerating Pourashava activities.



Source: Field Survey, 2004

Figure 5.4: Peoples suggestions to strengthen Pourashava

**Chapter six:
Views of Local elected representatives
regarding Pourashava activities**

**CHAPTER SIX:
VIEWS OF LOCAL ELECTED REPRESENTATIVES REGARDING
POURASHAVA ACTIVITIES**

Each Pourashava has a group of Local elected Bodies (LEBs) who are directly elected from the inhabitants following democratic exercise. The LEBs have been interviewed on sample basis to tap their views and expressions regarding Pourashava activities.

6.1 Education level

Data has been collected on the educational status of the local elected representatives. About 29% of them are educated up to the higher secondary level . The second largest groups are higher educated up to degree and above. They comprise 24% of the respondents. About 10% of them are illiterate who can sign only. It is scamed that the LEBs are distributed in different education level from illiterate to highly educated people.

Table 6.1: Education level of the LEBs

Category	Frequency	%
Illiterate	2	10
I-V	1	5
VI-X	3	14
SSC	4	19
HSC	6	29
Degree & above	5	24
Total	21	

Source: Field Survey, 2004

6.2 Profession

Most of the elected representatives were found to be engaged in business as professions. About 56% of them are engaged in business. Most of the female ward commissioners are typical housewives who are not engaged in other business. The rest of them are engaged in different professions as agriculture, contractor or law business.

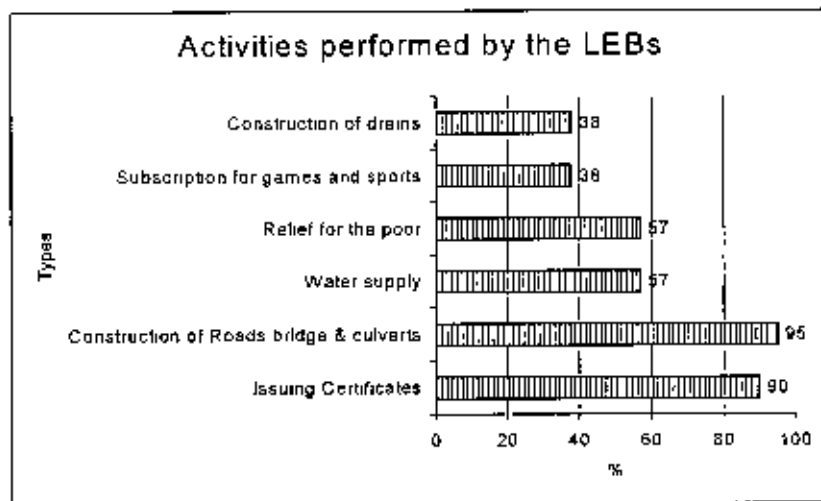
Table 6.2: Profession of the LEBs

Profession	Frequency	%
Agriculture	1	5
Business	12	56
Contractor	2	10
Housewife	4	19
Lawycr	2	10
Total	21	100

Source: Field Survey, 2004

6.3 Activities performed by the LEBs

The respondents were asked what activities are usually performed by them. People of their locality interact with them with some reasons. About 57% of the LEBs responded that they issued nationality certificates for the citizens. Other 57% mentioned that the poor people come to them to obtain relief from Vulnerable Group Fund (VGF). About 38% expressed that people interact to get subscription of games and sports. Another 38% viewed that people interact for construction of drains. It can be summarized that the scope of interaction of people with LEBs is limited to some typical functions.



Source: Field Survey, 2004

Figure 7.1: Usual activities done by the LEBs

6.4 Awareness level

A Pourashava is supposed to accomplish 15 mandatory and other optional functions as part of their legislative activities. The LEBs were asked to know about the mandatory and optional roles and responsibilities. Responses on this question shows the level of awareness regarding their own roles and responsibilities. It was observed that 57% of the respondents can mention 4-6 responsibilities 10% can mention 7-9 responsibilities and only 5% can mention 10 and above responsibilities. About 29% can mention only 1-3 responsibilities. It shows the low awareness level of the public representatives regarding their activities. In fact their activities are confined to some limited tasks as issuing certificates, waste disposal, construction of roads, drains etc.

Table 6.3: Awareness regarding roles and responsibilities

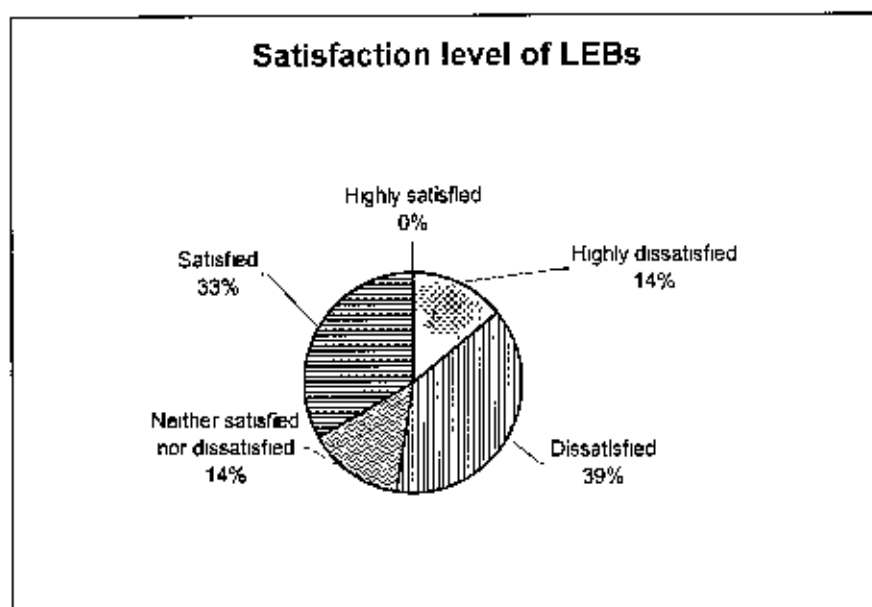
Awareness	Frequency	%
Mention 1-3 roles	6	28
Mention 4-6 roles	12	57
Mention 7-9 roles	2	10

Mention 10 & above points	1	5
Total	21	100

Source: Field Survey, 2004

6.5 Satisfaction level of LEBs

The LEBs were interviewed whether they are satisfied in performing their activities and serving the needs and aspirations of their electorate. About 52% of them expressed their satisfaction including 14% who are highly satisfied. About 33% are dissatisfied in performing their responsibilities and made a lot of complains regarding their problems, obstacles and limitations. 33% are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied and this group is not properly activated in performing their functions.



Source: Field Survey, 2004

Figure 7.2: Satisfaction level of LEBs

6.6 Problems faced by LEBs in performing their activities

6.6.1 Institutional level

An urban local government institution faces severe problems in performing its legislative activities, which are reflected in the opinions of its elected representatives. 95% of the respondents mentioned that the existing staffs are not sufficient to fulfil the needs and demands of the citizens. One of the major problems faced by 86% of them is insufficient fund allocated for Pourashava activities. As per needs of the citizens the allocated fund is very limited to satisfy demands of citizens. About 71% of them mentioned that wage rates provided to Pourashava workers are very low. The honorarium of the LEBs is also limited. As the LEBs have to allocate lots of their time, the honorarium allocated for them is

discriminatory and this has been continued for a long period without any revision as per inflation rate.

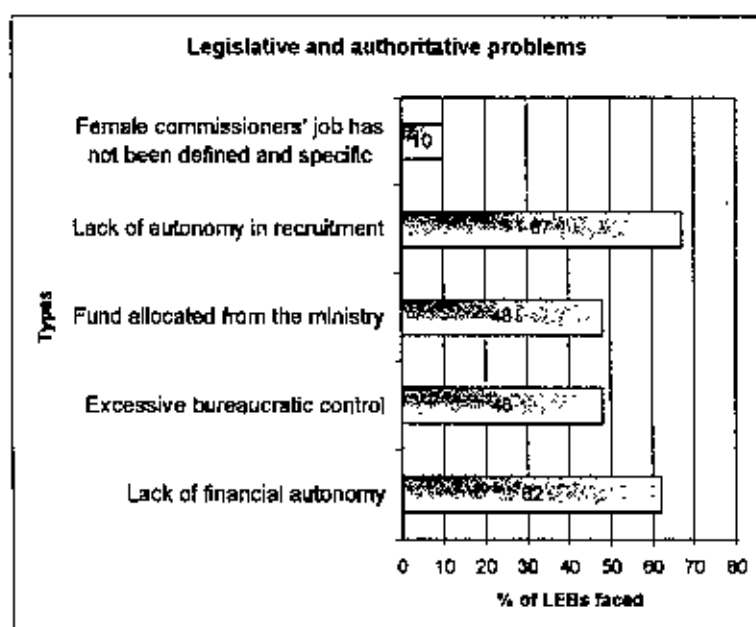
Table 6.4: Problems faced at institutional level

Types of Problems	Frequency	%
Insufficient fund / resources	18	86
Improper manpower of Pourashava	20	95
Low wage rate of workers	15	71
Poor honorarium	4	19
Lack of accountability among the officials	1	5
Lack of transparency in financial transaction	1	5
Total	59	

Source: Field Survey, 2004

6.6.2 Legislative

These are in built problems for legislative operation of functioning Pourashava activities. An institution should have administrative and financial autonomy for planning and implementation of its activities. About 62% of the respondents mentioned that the Pourashavas lack financial and administrative autonomy. 48% mentioned about excessive bureaucratic control over the decision making. Independent decision making capacity is being limited day by day due to this control. Even Pourashavas are not entitled to recruit staffs independently for its functioning said by 67% of them.



Source: Field Survey, 2004

Figure 7.3: Legislative problems faced

6.6.3 Social level

Social activities regarding citizenry roles and responsibilities may assist to perform the functions of local government smoothly. About 71% of the LEBs mentioned that People are not willing to cooperate during infrastructure works like construction of roads. About 43% mentioned that People lack civic awareness and are less interested to perform their duties as concern citizens.

Table 6.5: Social problems

Types of problems	Frequency	%
People do not cooperate	15	71
Lack of citizenry role	9	43
Lack of civic awareness	12	57
Less ownership to Pourashava activity	8	38
Total	44	

Source: Field Survey, 2004

6.6.4 Managerial

Good office management is essential for proper functioning of an institution. About 71% of the respondents mentioned that the Pourashava office bearers are not regular in office. There is lack of logistics including office equipment, furniture, toilet facilities, transportation services etc.

Table 6.6: Pourashava Office Management

Types of problems	Frequency	%
Office bearers are not regular	15	71
Lack of office equipment	12	57
Lack of sufficient space	16	76
No transportation facilities	13	62
Total	56	

Source: Field Survey, 2004

6.6.5 Political

About 76% of the LEBs viewed that political vision and commitment is a major factor to strengthen local government in Bangladesh. Political parties should have strong commitment, vision and consensus regarding empowerment of local government of Bangladesh. Local government should have autonomy in its operation. It has been found that the local government units are under pressure to take any development activities (48%) and they faced biases in fund allocation due to political reasons (52%).

Table 6.7: Political problems

Types of problems	Frequency	%
Lack of political commitment	16	76
Pressure in undertaking development activity	10	48
Biases in fund allocation	11	52
Political pressure and constraints	6	29
Total	43	

Source: Field Survey, 2004

6.6.6 Local institutional infrastructure

In most of the Pourashavas, at ward level there is no separate office for the ward commissioners. People face obstacles to get any minor services as they have to visit Pourashava office. There is poor office infrastructure and lack of office equipment including files, registrar, vouchers, furniture and other office logistics.

Table 6.8: Local lever problems

Types	Frequency	%
Ward commissioner has no office	15	71
Poor office infrastructure	17	81
Lack of office equipment	16	76
Lack of office equipment	17	81
Total	65	

Source: Field Survey, 2004

6.7 Satisfaction in budget making process

Pourashava budget, which is the yearly financial plan, is formulated and submitted as a routine work each year. In most cases the secretary, accounts officer, prepares the budget with some of their subordinates. It is shared with chairman. After sharing, it is approved in a budget approval meeting. It is not prepared in participatory way considering needs and demands of the citizens. 90% of LEBs are not satisfied with the conventional budget making process.

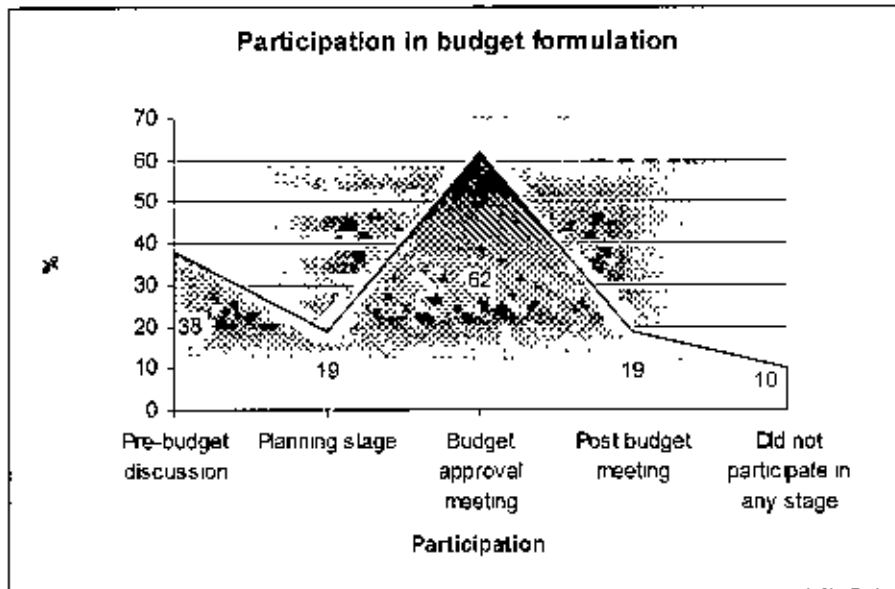
Table 6.9: Satisfaction in budget making process

Condition	Frequency	%
Satisfied	2	10
Not satisfied	19	90
Total	21	100

Source: Field Survey, 2004

6.8 Participation in budget making process

Participation of LEBs in budget making process has been considered under this study. Tokenism is followed in case of participation of them. About 62% of them participated in budget approval meeting, 10% of them did not participate in any stage. About 38% took part in pre-budget discussion, 19% were involved in planning stage and 19% attended in post budget meeting. It shows less participation of LEBs in budget making process.



Source: Field Survey, 2004

Figure 7.4: Participation in budget making process

6.9 Accountability and transparency

Accountability and transparency are generally recognized as important aspects of good urban governance. Weak accountability in a local government system discourages transparency in their dealings with the citizens. LEBs were asked about the issues related with accountability and transparency of Pourashava management. About 48% of LEBs responded that they have less access to any Pourashava information, 62% of them expressed that the office bearers are less accountable to LEBs regarding institutional decision making. The LEBs have a little role over controlling and participating in decision making process of Pourashava

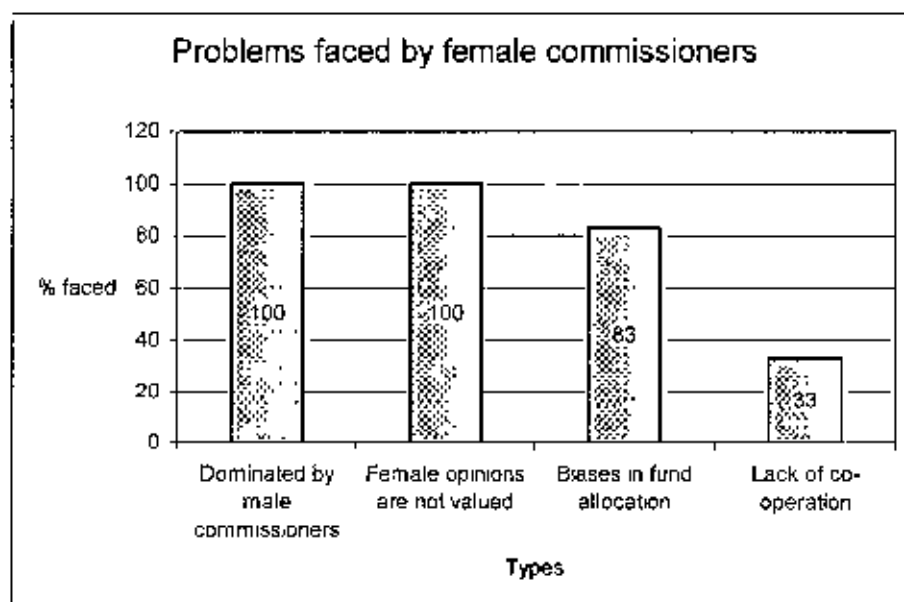
Table 6.10: Accountability and transparency

Types	Frequency	%
Have access to all information	9	43
Less access to any information	10	48
No role in institutional decision making	10	48
Less accountability of office bearers	13	62
Opinions of LEBs are not valued	3	14
Total	45	

Source: Field Survey, 2004

6.10 Obstacles faced by female commissioners

Female participation in urban governance is a growing concern to mainstream gender in urban local government activities. Female ward commissioners were separately interviewed on their problems and opportunities. Cent percent of them opined that they are interfered and dominated by their male counterparts and their opinions are not valued. They mentioned facing discrimination and biases in fund allocation for development activities. About 33% mentioned that they get less cooperation than their male counterparts during implementation of development activities.



Source: Field Survey, 2004

Figure 7.5: Obstacles of female commissioners

6.11 LEBs opinions to strengthen Pourashava

LEBs expressed their views regarding institutional strengthening of urban local government bodies. 81% of them emphasized on mobilization of own resources for financial solvency of the Pourashava. About 62% of them mentioned that Financial and administrative autonomy should be brought out in institutional decision making process. They mentioned to introduce

participatory approaches in budget formulation. They viewed that the position of female commissioners should be empowered through defining specific roles and responsibilities to the female commissioners.

Technical capacity of staffs should be increased through providing training, counseling, and arranging workshops. They mentioned that specialized and skilled staffs should be recruited in the Pourashava. They opined to formulate urban planning section and formulation of master plan of those cities.

Table 6.11: LEBs opinions to strengthen Pourashava

Types	Frequency	%
Financial autonomy of Pourashava	13	62
Resource mobilization	17	81
Budget preparation	10	48
Increase technical capacity	11	52
Recruitment of specialized staffs	14	67
Reduce political biases in fund allocation	5	71
Empowerment of female commissioners	1	5
Preparation of city master plan	1	5
Formation of Urban Planning section	1	5
Arrange training for LEBs	1	5
Total	74	

Source: Field Survey, 2004

**Chapter seven:
Status of Pourashava resource
mobilization**

CHAPTER SEVEN: STATUS OF POURASHAVA RESOURCE MOBILIZATION AND UTILIZATION

The economy of a developing country like Bangladesh is characterized by foreign aid dependence and improper or ineffective utilization or exploitation of its resources. In fact, the economic development of any country derives from the effective and efficient utilization of its property and resources. A lion's share of the national budget comes from the foreign debt and donation to fill up the deficit of the budget and of which a significant portion is allocated to perform and operate the development activities of the Pourashavas under the Annual Development Program (ADP).

The sources of Pourashava income are generally taxes, rates, fees and charges levied by the local body as well as rents and profits accruing from properties of the local body and sums received through its services. Contribution from individuals and institutions, government grants, profits from investments, receipts accruing from the trusts placed with the local bodies, loans raised by the local body and proceeds from such services are another source of income. Holding taxes is the most important source of own income of local bodies. Loans and voluntary contributions are rare. Non-tax revenues are of two kinds: fees and tolls and rents and profits on properties of the local bodies. Nowadays, foreign or international organizations also contribute to a significant share of a Pourashava's resources. Urban local bodies in Bangladesh are in constant shortage of funds.

The immovable properties owned by the Pourashavas are one of the sources of their own income and revenue earning. The proper and effective utilization of the municipal immovable properties helps to increase their income and own fund. If their fund raise, they would be able to provide more facilities in the Pourashavas from their own fund rather than relying more on government budgetary allocation and foreign aid.

The issue of resource mobilization in the Pourashavas recently received added importance for several reasons. These are, the need to reduce dependency on foreign assistance, the need to reduce dependency on Government grants, the need to maintain fast deteriorating public services, the necessity of a modern conservancy system in the urban areas and above all on the recent government emphasis on local level planning that would provide autonomy for greater resource mobilization.

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Table 7.1 Revenues and Expenditure of City Corporations and Pourashava (1982-1999)

Income revenue	City corporation	District Pourashava	Sub-Division Pourashava	Minor Pourashava
Property taxes	38.65%	26.35%	27.17%	21.38%
Other taxes	8.85%	9.9%	7.51%	6.74%
Total tax	47.50%	36.30%	34.68%	28.12%
Non-tax	34.39%	40.48%	45.89%	47.01%
Grants	16.35%	19.18%	9.22%	22.30%
Deposits and advances	1.76%	4.04%	10.21%	2.57%
Expenditure	City corporation	District Pourashava	Sub-Division Pourashava	Minor Pourashava
Administration	14.87%	29.62%	25.96%	24.47%
Health and health care	17.69%	20.12%	13.40%	16.27%
Physical development	60.69%	37.57%	43.73%	48.99%
Education	1.16%	2.32%	1.46%	0.19%
Miscellaneous	1.29%	3.59%	6.45%	5.87%
Deposits and advances	3.80%	6.71%	10.00%	5.20%

Source: Chowdhury, 2000

7.1 Constitution of Pourashava fund

Every Pourashava is supposed to have a fund, which is known as Pourashava fund. It will consist of the following items:

- ϕ The proceeds of all taxes, rates, tolls, fees and other charges levied by the Pourashava
- ϕ All rents and profits payable or accruing to the Pourashava from the property vested in or managed by the Pourashava
- ϕ All sums received by the Pourashava in the performance of its functions
- ϕ All sums contributed by individual or institutions or by any local authority
- ϕ All receipts accruing from the trusts placed under the management of the Pourashava
- ϕ All grants made by the Government and other authorities
- ϕ All profits accruing from investment
- ϕ Such sources of income as the Government may direct

7.2 Major sources of Pourashava income

According to the Pourashava model tax schedule, 1985 a Pourashava shall decide for itself which of its different taxes, rates, toles or fees may be levied by it and such levy shall, in all cases, be subject to the prior sanction of the sanctioning authority and the provisions of the Ordinance and the rules made thereunder. According to this schedule the major sources of Pourashava revenue income are as such categorized into below mentioned headings (Ali, 1998):

1. Taxes on the annual value of buildings and land
2. Tax on the transfer of immovable property
3. Tax on applications for the erection and re-erection of buildings

4. Tax on the import of goods for consumption, use or sale in a municipality
5. Tax on the export of goods from municipality
6. Taxes of the nature of tolls
7. Tax on professions, trades and callings
8. Tax on births, marriages, adoptions and feasts
9. Tax on advertisements
10. Tax on animals
11. Tax on cinemas, dramatic and theatrical shows and other entertainments and amusements
12. Tax on vehicles, other than motor vehicles and boats
13. Lighting rate and fire rate
14. Conservancy rate
15. Rate for the execution of any works of public utility
16. Rate for the provision of water works or the supply of water
17. Cess on any of the taxes levied by Government
18. School fees
19. Fees for the use of benefits derived from any works of public utility maintained by a Pourashava
20. Fees at fairs, agricultural shows, industrial exhibitions, tournaments and other public gatherings
21. Fees for markets
22. Fees for licenses, sanctions and permits granted by a Pourashava
23. Fees for specific services rendered by a Pourashava
24. Fees for the slaughtering of animals
25. Any other fee permitted under any of the provisions of this ordinance
26. Any other tax which the Government is empowered to levy by law

7.3 Assessment of tax and levies

A Pourashava is supposed to decide for itself which of its different taxes, rates, tolls or fees may be levied by it and such levy shall, in all cases, be subject to the prior sanctions of the sanctioning authority. In case of any alteration of the rates of levy once fixed, fresh sanctions of the sanctioning authority shall be necessary, but no Pourashava is entitled to levy more than the rates specified by the Government. Different rates of assessment of tax and levies as per Government specifications have been provided below:

a. Holding tax

The tax may be levied at a rate not exceeding seven percent of the annual value of buildings and land and amount of less than a taka may be rounded off to a taka.

b. Tax on transfer of immovable property

This tax may be levied at a maximum rate of one per cent of the value of every deed of transfer excepting will and gifts (other than a gift which amounts to waqf-alal-Aulad) to registered religious, charitable, sports or cultural institutions and transfer in discharge of legal debts.

c. Tax on the application for the erection and re-erection of buildings:

This tax may be levied at a rate not exceeding the rate as specified below (Ali, 1998):

(1) For temporary structures-

A flat rate of taka 20.00 per construction

(2) For semi-pucca construction-

a) Up to 1,200 sq. ft. floor area	Tk 50.00
b) Above 1,200 sq. ft. and up to 1,500 sq. ft.	Tk 75.00
c) Above 1,500 sq. ft.	Tk 150.00

(3) For pucca construction-

a) Up to 1,000 sq. ft. floor area	Tk 150.00
b) Above 1,000 sq. ft. and up to 1,500 sq. ft.	Tk 250.00
c) Above 1,500 sq. ft. and up to 2,000 sq. ft.	Tk 350.00
d) Above 2,000 sq. ft.	Tk 450.00

There shall be no tax for reconstruction of any building damaged due to natural calamity or for repairs of any mosque, temples, churches, Idgahs.

d. Tax on professions, trades and callings:

1. Tax on professions, trades and callings: This tax may be levied on professions, trades and callings a rate not exceeding the rate as specified below: Company, firm and bank transacting business within the pourashava for profit or as a benefit society, not being a registered co-operative society of which the paid-up capital is equivalent to-

	(Not exceeding Taka Per year)
a) One crore and above 2,000.00	
b) More than Tk 25, 00,000 but less than Taka 1 crore	1,500.00
c) More than Tk 10, 00,000 but less than Tk 25, 00,000	1,250.00
d) More than 5, 00,000 but less than Tk 10, 00,000	1,000.00
e) More than Tk 1, 00,000 but less than Tk 5, 00,000	750.00
f) Less than Tk 1, 00,000	500.00

2. Firm of contractors or their agents, including individual contractor having financial transaction under terms of any agreement or contract—

	(Not exceeding Taka Per year)
(a) 1 st Class contractors	500.00
(b) 2 nd Class contractors	400.00
(c) 3 rd Class contractors	300.00

3. Indenting and commission agents	750.00
4. Clearing and forwarding agencies	750.00
5. Travelling agents	750.00
6. Recruiting agents	750.00

7. (a) Cinema Hall (Air-conditioned)	1000.00
(a) Cinema Hall (Non air-conditioned)	500.00
8. Aratdar, broker in jute, rice, cotton, precious stones or silk	750.00
9. Nursing Home	1000.00
10. Architects, Engineers and engineering firms	750.00
11. Engineers, Medical practitioners, Dentist (self employed):	
(a) In respect of whose income, income tax is payable	200.00
(b) In respect of whose income, income tax is not payable	100.00
12. Legal practitioners (self employed):	
(c) Advocates	200.00
(d) Solicitor firms	100.00
13. (a) Paddy Husker, Rice or Flour Miller	200.00
(b) Saw Miller, brick or ceramic manufacturer	200.00
14. Eating House:	
(a) Hotel, restaurants (Air-conditioned)	500.00
(b) Hotel, restaurants (Air-conditioned)	300.00
(c) Sweetmeat shop, confectionery, snack bar	200.00
15. Hair Dressing saloon:	
(a) With Air-conditioned	300.00
(b) Without Air-conditioned	50.00
16. Laundry :	
(a) With Automatic machines	300.00
(b) Without Automatic machines	100.00
(c) Laundry show-room	100.00
17. Residential Hotels:	
(a) Centrally Air-conditioned	10,000.00
(b) With Air-conditioner	5,000.00
(c) Without Air-conditioner	2,000.00
18. (a) Owner or Scooter or Baby Taxi	75.00
(b) Owner of Tempo	100.00
(c) Owner of Taxi	125.00
(d) Owner of Mini-truck	150.00
(e) Owner of Bus	200.00
(f) Owner of Truck	300.00
19. Transport agencies or carrying Contractors	500.00
20. (a) Cloth seller (Retailer)	250.00
(b) Cloth seller (Whole seller)	500.00
(c) Printing press (with automatic machine)	1000.00
(d) Printing press (without automatic machine)	500.00
(e) Watch repairing shop	250.00
(f) Jewelry	500.00
(g) M. S. rod and cement shop	500.00
(h) T.V. and radio shop and other electronics	500.00

(i) Binding factory	250.00
(j) Department store	750.00

e. Tax on birth, marriage, adoption: This tax may be levied on marriages at a rate not exceeding the rate as specified hereunder:

Marriages: A tax on marriage may be levied at a rate as specified below:

- (a) First marriage or marriage after death of wife 5.00
- (b) For every second marriage during the life time of first 100.00
- (c) For every third marriage during the life time of first two wives 100.00

f. Tax on advertisements: This tax may be levied at a rate not exceeding the rate as specified below:

- (a) Rates of tax on Sing board of all kinds for space of sq. ft. or part thereof
 - (i) Tk. 12 per year, if placed or fixed on private land or building
 - (ii) Tk. 15 per year, if placed on Pourashava land
- (b) Illuminated advertisement, that is, Neon sing or plastic sign, for space of one sq. ft. or part thereof
 - (i) Tk. 18.00 per year if placed or fixed on private land or buildings
 - (ii) Tk. 22.00 per year, if placed or fixed on Pourashava land

g. Tax on cinema and audio-visual shows: The rate of levy of this tax will be maximum 15% on fees of admission collected from spectators subject to part or full exemption of this tax in case of shows on educational or charitable purposes.

h. Tax on vehicles other than motor vehicles and boats: Tax on different classes of vehicles and carriages may be levied in each case at a rate not exceeding the rate as specified hereunder:

Vehicle	(Not exceeding Tk. per year)
a. Cycle rickshaw (hire)	50.00
b. Cycle rickshaw (Private)	50.00
c. 2-wheel carriage	50.00
d. 4-wheel carriage	75.00
e. 3-wheel carriage	50.00
f. Bullock cart	15.00
g. Hand cart	50.00
h. Bi-cycle	05.00
i. Push cart	25.00
(a) Lighting rate: Only the maintenance cost of the service rendered (including proportionate cost of collection of the rate) may be recovered from beneficiaries to a maximum levy of three percent on the annual value of the lands and buildings.	

- (b) Conservancy rate: Only the maintenance cost of the service rendered (including proportionate cost of collection of the rate) may be recovered from beneficiaries to a maximum levy of seven percent on the annual value of the lands and buildings(Ali, 1998).
- (c) Rates for provision of water works or the supply of water: For provision of water works and supply of water, only the maintenance cost of the service rendered may be levied subject to a maximum of ten percent on the annual value of the lands and buildings(Ali, 1998).
- (d) Fees at fairs, agricultural shows, industrial shows, industrial exhibition and other public gathering: Fees may be levied in respect of fairs, shows, exhibition and gathering which are arranged for commercial or business purposes only at the rate of fee which shall not exceed eight percent of the gross collection made by the management from admission fee and other sources, if any from within the area.
- (e) Fees for the slaughtering of animals: This fee may be levied on the slaughtering of animals for commercial or business purposes only at a rate not exceeding the rate as specified hereunder:

	Fees (Tk)
(a) For every goat or sheep	05.00
(b) For every cow	10.00
(c) For every buffalo	15.00

7.4 Status of resource mobilization by four pourashavas

The tax, rates and fees vary according to the category of Pourashava determined by the government. Data were collected from four Pourashavas regarding the internal source of income of those Pourashavas. It has been found that the major shares of internal resources come from tax, rates and fees. Other significant proportion of fund comes from development grant sanctioned by Government.

Table 7.2 : Major Sources of own income of Pourashavas

Pourashava	Tax (Tk.)	Rates(Tk.)	Fees(Tk.)	Others(Tk.)	Total(Tk.)
Bogra	7780823	9999998	389416	19584953	37755190
Natore	2506589	2476639	822527	8301133	14106888
Tangail	7605717	412582	5017990	4021702	17057991
Pabna	123060	1108415	378360	6450446	8060281
Total	18016189	13997634	6608293	38358234	76980350

Source: Field Survey, 2004

7.5 Recovery of holding tax

It has been found that mobilization rate of holding tax is highest in Tangail Pourashava which is 63.71% of the assessed tax amount. The mobilization rate of Natore and Bogra

pourashavas are 50% and 46% respectively. In case of Pabna Pourashava this is only 36% of the claimed tax value.

Table 7.3 Holding tax recovery rate of the Pourashavas

Pourashava	Assessed / claimed (Tk.)	Recovery (Tk.)	%
Bogra	6028230	2823408	46.83643
Natore	3203702	1622614	50.64809
Tangail	6112922	3894928	63.7163
Pabna	2526911	917647	36.31497

Source: Field Survey, 2004

7.6 Constraints of tax collection

Views of the IEBs have been considered to know the constraints of tax collection. They pointed lots of reasons, which hinders mobilization of resources through tax collection. About 62% of the respondents mentioned that poor socio-economic condition of people act as a constraint of tax collection. About 57% of the respondents added that some rich people escaped from paying taxes exercising their political power. About 48% think that there is lack of awareness among citizens. Another reason is lack of legal actions against tax defaulters. About 52% mentioned that Pourashava officials engaged in tax collection department is not sufficient to collect tax.

Table 7.4: Constraints of tax collection

Types of constraints	Frequency	%
Poverty and financial problem	13	62
Rescue by political power	12	57
Lack of awareness	10	48
Less ownership	15	71
Lack of legal action	6	29
Lack of manpower to collect	11	52
Total	67	

Source: Field Survey, 2004

7.7 Application of Pourashava fund

There is also legislative provision of fund use of Pourashavas. Article 48 of the Pourashava ordinance states that (1) The money credited to a Pourashava shall be kept in Government treasury, or in a bank transacting the business of a Government treasury, or in such other manner as may be specified by the Government from time to time; (2) A Pourashava may invest any portion of its fund in such manner as may be prescribed; (3) A Pourashava may, and if required by the Government shall, establish and maintain a separate fund for any special purpose, which shall be administered and regulated in such manner as may be

prescribed. The money from time to time credited to a Pourashava fund is used in the following way:

Firstly, in the payment of salaries and allowances to the officers and employees of the Pourashava; Secondly, in meeting the expenditure charged on the Pourashava; Thirdly, in the fulfillment of any obligation and in the discharge of any duty imposed on the Pourashava; Fourthly, in meeting the expenditure declared by the Pourashava; Fifthly, in meeting the expenditure declared by the Government to be an appropriate charge on the Pourashava fund.

Chapter eight: Recommendations and Conclusion

CHAPTER EIGHT: RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

8.1 Recommendations

The following are some recommendations provided considering holistic thinking to increase institutional efficiency of Pourashavas:

8.1.1 Financial autonomy of Pourashava

Pourashavas in Bangladesh are faced with increasing financial problems. Strengthening of financial position of the Pourashavas is necessary to improve the urban living condition and reduce pressure on the national budget and foreign aid. The Pourashavas can raise its revenue to a great extent by effectively utilizing and managing their own immovable properties that are one of the important revenue earning sources. Utilization and management of Pourashava property with respect to their revenue earning covers a wide range of issues. In order to supply the services according to the demand raised within its jurisdiction the Pourashavas must have financial autonomy to function properly. Strengthening and enlarging the financial base, Streamlining tax collection system of Pourashavas will considerably lessen its dependence on central government. Peoples participation in urban governance may contribute to building ownership and confidences of citizens to mobilize its own resources through collection of tax and levies, mobilization of internal resources, utilization of properties for income generating activities, diversification of funding sources of Pourashavas.

8.1.1.1 Resource mobilization

Pourashavas should be empowered to mobilize internal resources. Scope of tax and levies should be diversified. Land transfer tax within the municipal area may be sanctioned for Pourashavas to achieve its financial autonomy. Measures should be taken to utilize the public land and provisioning for recreational facilities and it can be a source of collection of levies. Commercialization of public public land can be used for fund mobilization. Markets, community centers can be constructed in the public land.

8.1.1.2 Expanding revenue base of municipal governments

Expanding the financial resources available to local governments and municipalities is essential to meeting the growing needs of people living in cities. Among actions those can be taken are as follows:

-To expand taxing and revenue raising authority for cities and municipalities, allowing them to raise taxes from a wider variety of local sources and to use a greater number of tax instruments

-Providing statutory payments to local governments from fixed percentage of recurring revenues of national government as grants thus giving city administration more flexibility to meet local needs and demands

-Allowing city or municipal governments to draw loans from national development banks or credit authorities to provide services and facilities for which users can be charged and which generate revenue that can be used to repay the loans

-Strengthening the property taxing powers of city governments and improving their capacity to perform tax mapping, keep and maintain records, assess property values more accurately and fairly, and collect revenues more effectively

-Standardizing and improving the intergovernmental transfers and allocating funds from the national governments to municipal governments more effectively so that resources reach them in a timely manner

-Steps should be taken to strengthen the local tax base by making it wider and equitable. Tax administration of Pourashavas should be strengthened through procedural reforms to increase coverage, valuation accuracy and collection efficiency.

8.1.2 Accountability and transparency

Policies should be formulated to establish accountability and transparency under the existing system. It may be following rigorous accounting procedures, using self performance assessment tools, arrange open procurement and contracting system, establishing transparency in financial arrangements, enactment of regulatory frameworks, guideline on code of conduct, regular follow up of key issues. Policies should be formulated to make transparent process of public procurement system. Introducing e-governance can reduce red tape and corruption in urban management. These may contribute to bring accountability and transparency in Pourashavas to some extent.

8.1.2.1 Access to information

People of all strata of society should have equal access to Pourashava activities and information. Pourashavas should work on protection of rights of all groups, individuals and organizations. As per the organization of local people, Pourashavas should secure access of all people to Pourashava activities.

8.1.2.2 Participatory budget preparation

Participatory budgeting has emerged as an innovative urban management theme with an enormous potential to promote principles of good urban governance. The participatory budget can be defined as 'a mechanism through which the population decides on or contributes to decisions made on destination of all or part of the available public resources. Participatory budget has many potential benefits for local government and civil society alike. It can improve transparency in municipal expenditure and stimulate citizen's involvement in decision making over public resources. It can redirect municipal investment towards basic infrastructure for poorer neighborhoods. It can strengthen social networks and help to mediate differences between elected leaders and civil society groups.

8.1.3 Managerial level

8.1.3.1 Strengthening management capacity

Among the actions that need to be taken by national governments to improve managerial capacity of municipalities are:

- Upgrading the planning capability of local governments to anticipate and deal with physical, economic and social changes in settlement system and to formulate and implement policies and programs for coping with them.
- Developing the financial management functions of municipalities in the areas of revenue estimation and collection, operational and capital facilities, budgeting, cash and debt management, purchasing, accounting and auditing.
- Improving personnel management capabilities to develop job descriptions, standard operating procedures, salary and wage guidelines, transfer and promotion policies and performance evaluation
- Expanding the capacity of municipal officials to determine the need to deliver efficiently social services as health, education, welfare, recreation, cultural activities and other functions that are the responsibilities of the local authority
- Improving the capacity of municipal governments to identify the need for and to plan, manage and supervise the construction of utilities, physical infrastructure and capital facilities.

8.1.3.2 Increase technical capacity of staff through training

Extensive training programs should be imparted to different categorized target audiences and stakeholders as LEBs, staffs, citizens and government officials. A participatory training curriculum should be prepared encompassing issues as legislative roles and responsibilities, conflict resolution, leadership, budgeting procedures, participatory approaches, office management, citizenry roles and responsibilities.

8.1.3.3 Efficient Urban Management

Pourashava management aims at achieving a particular goal. The ultimate goal of Pourashava is securing rich and dignified urban life through extraction, management and utilization of resources. Efficient urban management can be ensured through effective planning, promotion of organizational culture, recruitment of skilled staff, motivation, and communication, directing and controlling.

8.1.3.4 Human resource Development

Pourashavas should be committed to recruit, train, motivate and develop a local work force to become more efficient, dedicated and effective members of public service. Training should be imparted to improve the capabilities of local government personnel.

8.1.3.5 Development of Management Information System (MIS)

Pourashavas does not have any precise information system. Administrative and financial transactions are conducted through manual process. As a result, it is a complicated way to obtain any information from Pourashavas. Manual system makes unprecedented delay and it hampers quick service delivery from Pourashavas. It is a barrier to establish a transparent and accountable urban local government. So, functions of different sections as administration, budget and accounts, engineering, tax collection, license should be automated and computerized. Pourashavas should prepare demographic database as identity, age, sex, religion, birth and death records etc so that people can get any certificate or clearance very quickly.

8.1.3.6 The report card

Self-assessment tools like 'Good governance Report Card' can be used to assess the perception of stakeholders about city governance. It contains some qualitative indicators to promote a quick impressionable assessment of the performance of municipal administrative system and processes in each city. Having filled the report card and given a first-count rating to Governance, the stakeholders may assess the performance in detail with statistical support and quantitative findings.

8.1.3.7 Improving holding tax assessment system

The process of holding tax assessment should be improved through modernizing its different stages of assessment including administrative procedure and collection process. The administrative process should be reorganized to avoid serious under valuation of holding tax and to control the malpractice and corruption associated in the assessment process at the Pourashava level. Monitoring and regular follow up should be made by the central government in this regard. Assessment or reassessment should be conducted within the stipulated time frame. Employees should be well trained on various aspects of assessment procedure.

8.1.4 Governance perspectives

8.1.4.1 Enhanced leadership skills of LEAs

Success of a local government institution largely depends on the performance of the leaders who are democratically elected by the adult franchise. The leaders of the institution should be physically capable, with strong personality, integrity and skills. They should have the ability to perceive the people's views and expectations and should be responsive to their electorate. They should have ability to make effective communication with people and perform their organizational and administrative responsibilities. Rewarding should be introduced to encourage leadership skills.

8.1.4.2 Women in Urban Governance

Role of female commissioners should be specified by the authority of local government. The position of female commissioners should be upheld through legislative provision of specific activities as they are elected from three constituencies. They should be included in different committees on priority basis. There should be separate rooms with toilet facilities for the female commissioners in the Pourashava office premise. There should be direct access for the women commissioners to the fund for arranging development work by themselves.

Enlightened role of female commissioners may bring gender sensitivity in urban governance.

8.1.4.3 Greater local participation and Involvement

Urban local government should take measures to broaden the scope of participation of local people in decision making process. It is necessary to promote city identity and a sense of citizenship for all. Promotion of socio-cultural activity as arrangement of fair, workshops and open dialogues can promote the interactive environment between people and urban institution. It is necessary to enhance the ability of local communities to govern and serve themselves with a minimum of outside direction, approval, help or other forms of intervention. It implies an attitude of assertiveness, self-reliance and confidence that the local community knows better where its interests lie and how best to pursue them.

8.1.4.4 Public relations

An urban institution should have good interactive functional relationship with its clients. Public relation section should be formed in Pourashavas and a register should be opened at front desk for recording of all grievances and dispatching those to the concerned section for quick resolution. It will enhance the interactive relationship of people with their institution.

8.1.4.5 Role of private sector

Most of the responsibilities such as garbage collection, water and sanitation, drainage, environmental conservation rest with the municipal governments. As the private sector is more efficient than the public sector in most types of operations and because of shortage of public funds with the Pourashavas, role of the private sector needs to be expanded. Different self-help groups, community based organizations may be promoted to provide urban services.

8.1.4.6 Public-private partnership

Policies should be formulated and implemented to encourage private sector to participate in local development activities. Considering financial crisis, a part of the local government services may be handed over to the private sector. Joint involvement of public and private sector in planning, funding and implementation of programs can strengthen local government in fulfillment of peoples growing demand in future. Local government should play a facilitative role and should regulate policies to operate the private sector in local level development. Civil society organizations can also mobilize the support of the community for collection of revenue and maintenance of facilities created by urban authorities.

8.1.4.7 Role of civil society

Civil society includes professional associations, NGOs, CBOs, syndicates, labour unions, federations, political parties who can contribute in activating local government units of Bangladesh. Civil society promotes participation in public life through collaborative approach and can work as a catalyst between local government and citizens. Local government may be the incubator of civil society as it is the government closest to people. In case of Pourashavas civil society can contribute taking community based initiatives, consensus building on the focused issues and driving force for awareness raising for social

transformation and local level governance. Participation of civil society helps prepare citizens to fulfil their civic obligations as well as to exercise their rights.

8.1.4.8 Decentralized management

Local government should be activated following decentralized management, which encompasses delineation and delegation of responsibilities to various responsibility centers and to ensure accurate reporting and monitoring of delegated responsibilities. The study reveals that all institutional activities and services are centralized to one Pourashava office premise. Even the ward commissioners do not have separate office in their respective locality. To decentralized Pourashava management, separate office should be provided for male and female commissioners at ward level with administrative and logistic supports.

8.1.4.9 Networking

Pourashavas should be brought under a network for interchange of views, experiences and mutual collaboration with each other. Networks can be established at local, national and international level. The network can be mobilized through consensus on common interest and agenda as migration, environment or urban poverty issues.

8.1.4.10 Coordination and integration of service giving agencies

Coordination between services and service giving agencies by the local government units can foster efficiency of service delivery, ensure timely ample services and avoid duplication of services. Centralization of activities by central government has ignored the important role of coordination in situations where some of the basic services and infrastructure facilities remain within the jurisdiction of other agencies. Pourashavas should establish Spontaneous and regular coordination among different authorities within its jurisdiction.

Urban development does not consist of a particular sector. The success of an urban institution depends on how it affords to coordinate and integrate based on priorities and plans. National agencies should formulate broad urban development policies and prioritizing investment programs for delivering municipal services, which are closely linked with the development of urban areas and urban economies. Efforts should be taken by municipalities to improve the existing services of water supply, sanitation, drainage, and solid waste disposal in a coordinated manner.

8.1.4.11 Social capitalization

Social capital is a recent concept which refers to the capacity of states or societies to establish a sense of community which leads a significant proportion of the society in voicing their concern and seeking active involvement in the affairs of the community, and in sharing the benefits of community action. Promotion of social under the jurisdiction of local government may establish an enabling environment for ensuring peoples participation and ownership to the local government activities.

8.1.5 Legislative perspectives

8.1.5.1 Legislative reform

The Puurashava Ordinance 1977 should be reformed through proper ammenment in the light of peoples demand in the new age. Policies should be incorporated regarding preparation and implementation of plans relating to public services and economic development. As the

constitution of the country prescribes those as functions of the local government unit, there is no mechanism or provision to perform those according to the existing legislature. It should be enacted enlightening local level socio-economic development potentials in consideration for institutional strengthening and sustainability.

8.1.6 Political perspectives

8.1.6.1 Political vision and commitment

There is lack of clearly articulated developmental vision regarding the roles and functions of local government in Bangladesh. It is necessary to building consensus and a common vision among the political parties to strengthen local government for the greater sake of the nation. A sense of vision backed by political commitment is essential to establish the autonomy of the local government and undertake development activities independently.

8.1.6.2 Reduce bureaucratic control

The role of ministries and divisions dealing with urban services needs to be reviewed, and only those should be retained which are absolutely necessary. Administrative autonomy in decision making process is one of the major way of independently functioning of Pourashava activities through their elected representatives in accountable and transparent manner where the participation of the citizen is ensured in decision making. Instead of accountability to its citizens, Pourashavas are extremely controlled and regulated within the bureaucratic framework of the government. Pourashavas do not have the capability in local level policy making. The ministry controls even the matter as recruitment of all level staffs. This extreme control on the local government institutions should be reduced for their institutional strengthening.

8.1.6.3 Reduce political biases in fund allocation

As the local government units are functioned and operated under the executive body of the state, there is found political biases in fund allocation, project implementation or even decision making process of these local government institutions. The central government authority and the ministry interrupts in local government decision making process. In case of Pourashavas, as a local democratically elected body, it has some political linkages. In this circumstances, the Pourashava authority has to carry out the orders which it gets from the political executive with no options of its own. The central government must have sufficient political commitment in fair dealing with the local government institution irrespective of its political views and linkages, as these are the local people's institution in providing services for the welfare of local people.

8.1.7 Participatory planning

8.1.7.1 Preparation of multi year development plan (MYDP)

Each Pourashava should prepare a multi year development plan (MYDP) through community need assessment at ward level and prioritization of development needs of the community. As the development projects are undertaken without considering development priorities, peoples needs and demands are not assessed. At ward level community needs can be identified exercising PRA and Social mapping. The community-based plans should be compiled and an integrated plan should be adopted centrally for each city. As per availability of resources, the development projects should be undertaken considering

priorities fixed by the peoples. Such exercise may ensure peoples participation in community need assessment and prioritization.

8.1.7.2 Process of Participatory budget

Pourashava budget should be formulated in participatory way ensuring community need assessment on ward level, compilation of those, pre-budget discussion with the stakeholders including citizens, local elected representatives, government officials, academics and professionals. Different tools as PRA, social mapping may be introduced for community need assessment. The local elected representatives and office bearers should be oriented on these tools. It will ensure peoples participation in urban governance and bring the local government nearer to citizens and will be transformed into local peoples institution through building ownership of people in Pourashava activities.

8.1.8 Urban planning and development control

Pourashavas should take initiatives regarding formulation of city master plan and prior role in development control for planned city growth.

8.1.8.1 Preparation of Master plan

Article 95 of Pourashava Ordinance 1977 states that Pourashava Authority, if thinks necessary will formulate a city master plan which will include a general survey of Pourashava, its history, development and expansion plan to guide controlled development within its jurisdiction. No Pourashava pose such master plan under the study. As per expectation of the citizens and making planned and healthy cities, necessary steps should be undertaken by the Pourashavas to formulate master plan of those cities.

8.1.8.2 Building Control

Pourashava ordinance encompasses regulations on building control in article, 98 which states that any people will not be entrusted to construct houses without prior approval from the Pourashava. The engineering section is entitled to approve building plan, as there is no planning professionals. Each Pourashava should establish urban planning section to monitor building control regulations.

8.1.9 Local economic promotion and alleviation of urban poverty

Local government units as Pourashavas have the advantage of having a first hand knowledge of local conditions, resources, physical infrastructure, facilities, manpower, availability of land and other factors which are significant in local level economic development. Some recommendations have been provided in this respect.

8.1.9.1 Sites and services for Enterprises

Local government is able to identify an available land or site with good location and adequate infrastructure and facilities to attract investors. Pourashavas of Bangladesh can initiatives to undertake such sites and services schemes to enhance industrialization and growth of regional economy. It will ensure peoples participation in industrial decision making and bring ownership. The role of Pourashavas will be as facilitator or catalyst. Thus it will be able to generate mass employment and contribute to alleviate urban poverty to some extent.

8.1.9.2 Sourcing outside funds for local Enterprises

Pourashavas can tap other economic actors in the community who would be attracted to invest in the area and collaborate with them that would serve their mutual interest. Procedures that can be adopted are: 'build and transfer scheme', joint and cooperative ventures with private organizations, credit financing, lease and outright sale of economic enterprises.

8.1.9.3 Formation of Economic promotion units

Each Pourashava can form a unit or task force or groups that will be responsible for the implementation of economic plans of the local governments. This unit can deliberately involve in coordinating relevant actors as private enterprises, non-governmental organizations, peoples organization and other groups in the economic development process who can contribute resources, ideas and skills. Serving their mutual interest, such a strategy can also ensure the attainment of the economic aims of the local unit.

8.1.9.4 Strengthening internal administration

It is necessary to upgrade internal capabilities of the Pourashava administration to invest efforts and resources to improve performance of economic functions of the local units. Sound financial management, efficient personnel, effective service delivery systems, presence of municipal land use plan will enable the local government to perform its economic role with greater efficiency in systems and procedures.

8.1.9.5 Establishment of Special Economic Zone

Pourashavas can implement special economic zones within its territory to attract commercial and business activities, which may require conversion of land into an industrial estate, construction or rehabilitation of infrastructures and facilities. The primary concern is to maximize the economic potential that may be derived from the presence of the special economic zone.

8.1.10 Strategies for Organizational development

The following recommendations have been provided in order to institutional strengthening of the Pourashavas:

8.1.10.1 Organizational restructuring

Each Pourashava has a generalized Organogram, which is very old and out dated. The Organogram of the Pourashava should be re-structured through formation of more divisions and specialized and skilled professionals should be recruited as head of those divisions. The proposed new divisions should be as urban planning, engineering, administration, legal operation, estate management, resource development, budget and accounts, public relations, economic and social development, health and family planning, conservancy, human resource development and training.

8.1.10.2 Recruitment of specialized and skilled staff

Pourashavas lack specialized staffs for operation of different departmental activities. As per growth of urban population and dynamism of people's needs and aspirations, Pourashava

have failed to meet needs and demands of citizens. Departmental positions are hold with generalized people with little technical know how. Different professionals as urban planners, skilled engineers, doctors, nutritionists, veterinary specialists, finance and management professionals should be recruited in respective sections.

8.1.10.3 Administrative Efficiency

A higher percentage of support staff is an indication of lower efficiency of an institution. As per increasing efficiency of the Pourashavas, the number of program delivery staffs should be increased instead of supporting staffs.

8.1.10.4 Organizational Flatness

This can be viewed as number of reporting levels. The more levels of hierarchy in the chain of command, through which information and decisions must pass on there from the front line to the higher officials, possibly more bureaucratic the Organization. To enhance institutional efficiency, Pourashavas should be re-structured reducing the level of hierarchies.

8.2 Conclusion

A safe and secure urban environment where citizens can live with dignity and equality can be established by ensuring urban governance through institutional strengthening of urban local government bodies. It is necessary to influence decision-makers for reformation of policies and empowerment of stakeholders through awareness building.

Reform and empowerment should be broadened simultaneously for institutional strengthening of local government in Bangladesh. The process of reform intends to revision of the existing Ordinances, regulations and policies, advocating or influencing the decision makers for policy reform, structural reorganization for promoting the position of local government to obtain its administrative and financial autonomy to ensure mainstream contribution of service delivery to its constituents. On the other hand empowerment should be possible through improvement of its resource mobilization status, financial autonomy, staff development through training, recruitment of specialized and skilled staff, capacitation for policy formulation to enhance social, cultural, economic and industrial development at local level

Capacity building is an integrated and holistic approach. It encompasses facilitating for mobilization of all stakeholders to a common consensus, enlightening local leadership skills, respectability to democratic norms and practices, negotiation and consultation of people in prioritization of their needs and demands, influencing decision makers for reform, human resource management and development and organizational outreach.

Urban governance seeks the commitment of urban institutions to secure dignified urban life. Establishing good urban governance can reduce polarization of access to services and ensure distribution of resources through accountable, transparent, representative, functionally interactive and people centered urban local government institutionalization. Good urban governance has acquired a new dimension and meaning in a globalizing context in which the world is fast becoming a global village. Bangladesh, as part of the globalizing and modernizing world cannot afford to ignore the challenges of the new evolving situation. A common consensus should be built regarding policy reform and capacity building of the local government institutions of Bangladesh to merge with the dynamism and globalize world.



Appendices

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Appendix-I:

**QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDY ON INSTITUTIONAL CAPACITY BUILDING FOR
URBAN LOCAL GOVERNMENT BODIES OF BANGLADESH**

Respondents: Chairman, Male ward Commissioner, Female ward Commissioner

Name of the respondent		Education	
Type	Chairman/ Male Commissioner/ Female Commissioner	Profession	
Name of Pourashava		Ward No.	

1. Do you know what are the roles of Pourashavas? Please mention some functions of Pourashava. (Put \checkmark mark)

Sanitation and pollution control		Street lighting	
Refuse disposal		Street watering	
Registration of births, death, marriage		Traffic control	
Prevention of infectious diseases		License of vehicles	
Water supply		civil defense	
Provision of drainage		Arboriculture	
Provision of slaughterhouse		Regulation of fairs, shows	
Maintenance of public streets			

2. Why does people of your locality usually interact or Communicate with you?

- Certificates
- Roads bridge & culverts
- Water supply
- Relief for the poor
- Fund for games and sports
- Construction of drains
- Others.....

3. What are the institutional problem of service delivery to your electorate?

- Insufficient fund / resources
- Lack of accountability among the officials
- Lack of transparency in financial transection
- Improper manpower of Pourashava
- Low wage rate of workers
- Poor rate of honorarium for the elected bodies

4. What are the legislative problem of porashava authority in service delivery?

- a. Lack of financial autonomy
- b. Excessive bureaucratic control over pourashava
- c. Fund allocated from the ministry
- d. Lack of participatory planning for budget preparation

5. What are the political and social problems to strengthen the role of pourashava for effective service delivery?

- a. Lack of political commitment
- b. Pressure in undertaking development activity
- c. Biases in fund allocation for Pourashava
- d. People do not cooperate
- e. Lack of citizenry role
- f. Lack of civic awareness

6. What are the institutional problems at ward level for effective service delivery

- a. Ward secretary is not present
- b. Poor office infrastructure
- c. Lack of office equipment
- d. Lack of manpower
- e. Does not face any problem

7. Did you participate in the budget making process of of the Pourashava?

Yes		No	
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8. Are you satisfied with the budget making process?

Yes		No	
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9. Did you participate in last monthly meeting of the Pourashava?

Yes		No	
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10. What are the reasons for which people are not willing to pay tax in your locality?

- a. Poverty and financial problem
- b. Rescue by Political power
- c. Lack of peoples awareness
- d. Peoples less ownership to Pourashava activity
- e. Lack of legal implication against defaulters
- f. Lack of manpower to collect

11. What is your Level of satisfaction in serving your responsibilities as a elected representative regarding the service delivery to your constituents?

Highly dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Satisfied	Highly satisfied

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12. What do you suggest to strengthen the role of Pourashava for effective service delivery?

- a. Reduce political biases in fund allocation
- b. Reduce bureaucratic control
- c. Financial autonomy of Pourashava
- d. Authoritative empowerment through legal reform
- e. Empowerment for resource mobilization
- f. Community involvement in budget preparation
- g. Increase technical capacity

Appendix-2:
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDY ON INSTITUTIONAL CAPACITY BUILDING FOR
URBAN LOCAL GOVERNMENT BODIES OF BANGLADESH
HOUSEHOLD SURVEY

Date.....

I. GENERAL INFORMATION

Name of the respondent				Monthly income	
Age				Family member	
Sex	Male		Female		Birth place
House type	Own		Rent		Year of residing
Education				Name of Pourashava	
Profession				Ward No.	

2. Do you know what are the roles of Pourashavas? Please mention some functions of Pourashava. (Put \checkmark mark)

Sanitation and pollution control		Street lighting	
Refuse disposal		Street watering	
Registration of births, death, marriage		Traffic control	
Prevention of infectious diseases		License of vehicles	
Water supply		civil defense	
Provision of drainage		Arboriculture	
Provision of slaughterhouse		Regulation of fairs, shows	
Maintenance of public streets			

3. Which problems do you usually face as a resident of the City as a whole?

- a. Poor road condition
- b. Drainage congestion & water logging
- c. Lack of sewerage disposal
- d. Traffic congestion
- e. Lack of playground and open space
- f. Do not face any problem
- g. Others specify.....

4. What are the problems you face locally regarding service delivery by the Pourashava?

1. Water supply

- a. Adequate
- b. Exist but not adequate
- c. Irregular supply
- d. Poor service

2. Road and streets

- a. Good and sufficient
- b. Sufficient but poor condition
- c. Insufficient and poor condition
- d. Narrow and congested

3. Waste disposal

- a. Sufficient regular service by the Pourashava
- b. Exist but irregular & insufficient
- c. Odor and public nuisance
- d. No service exist

4. Drainage system

- a. Sufficient drains and cleans regularly
- b. Congestion for water logging
- c. Does not clean regularly
- d. No service exist

5. Street lighting

- a. Sufficient where needed
- b. Insufficient service
- c. No service exist
- d. Lack of maintenance

5. What is the condition of recreational facilities in the city?

- a. Sufficient Parks and playgrounds
- a. Exist but in poor condition
- b. Not enough facilities
- c. Those need to be improved

6. Did you participate in any below mentioned social and cultural activities arranged by the Pourashava?

- a. Fairs and shows arranged by the Pourashava
- b. Attend in Cultural program
- c. Special day celebration
- d. Seminar and workshops
- e. Did not participate in any activity

7. What is your Level of satisfaction as regarding the service delivery by the Pourashava?

Highly dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Satisfied	Highly satisfied

8. Have you ever seen/ heard about the Pourashava budget?

Yes		No	
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If yes, what was the amount of budget in last financial year?.....

9. Do you pay tax to the Pourashava?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

If yes how payed in last financial year?.....(In taka)
Why

10. What do you suggest to strengthen the role of Pourashavas?.

