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Correspondence: The Editor, PSC Journal, Police Staff College Bangladesh
Mirpur-14, Dhaka-1206, Bangladesh

Tel: +88-02-55079131-3, E-mail: dc_shahjahan@yahoo.com

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Contributors

- 1 Mohammad Sharif Uddin**
Additional Superintendent of Police
Police Training Center, Rangpur.
- 2 Muhammad Anwar Hossain**
Assistant Professor
Department of Sociology
Begum Rokeya University, Rangpur.
- 3 Prof. M Abul Kashem Mozumder, Ph.D**
Pro-Vice Chancellor
Bangladesh University of Professionals (BUP)
- 4 Md. Nasir Uddin**
Lecturer
Bangladesh University of Professionals (BUP)
- 5 Marjan Huque**
Assistant Professor
People's University of Bangladesh & PhD Fellow, BUP
- 6 Sarker Omar Faroque**
Additional Superintendent of Police
Police Staff College Bangladesh
- 7 Mohammad Azizur Rahman**
Associate Professor
Department of Criminology and Police Science
Mawlana Bhashani Science and Technology University
- 8 Mahfuza Liza**
Additional Deputy Commissioner of Police (Special Action Group),
Counter Terrorism and Transnational Crime Unit
Dhaka Metropolitan Police.

Chief Editor's Note

I would like to welcome you to the first issue of the 2018 calendar year, Volume 5, Issue 1. It's been around five years since we first embarked on the journey towards the PSC Journal. It is with both national and international perspective in mind that, with great pleasure, we offer readers this issue.

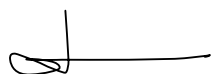
This issue devotes attention toward a variety of topics germane to policing including thematic of scientific research in community policing, socioeconomic conditions and the material wellbeing of female recruitee constables in Bangladesh, police response to environmental crime, the rise of Islamist militancy in Bangladesh and unique traits of religiously inspired terrorism.

The first article is an attempt to explore and investigate the socio-demographic features, income, expenditure and saving behavior of the households of the female police constables of Bangladesh while the second article deals with the existing functions, features, expectations and challenges of the community policing. Meanwhile, the next article discusses issues relating to combating environmental crime with the engagement of the people with a special emphasis on the effective coordination among law enforcement agencies, the fourth sheds light on the socio-economic factors associated with the rise of Islamist militancy and terrorism in Bangladesh. The last article intends to analyze the divergent features of religiously inspired terrorism to elucidate the reasons for their willingness to die in order to maximize harm.

We would like to take the opportunity to thank the editorial board members for their ongoing commitment to the standards to which the journal aspires. During the previous years, we have handled the large majority of first-round submissions. As a result, we have significantly expanded our pool of excellent reviewers, average turnaround times have decreased; most papers now have at least two reviews and their quality has been steadily improving.

As part of our future strategy we will continue our ongoing agreements to offer publication space to special and supplemental issues and our intention with new agreements is to broaden the scope of engagement with the police and criminology researchers of Bangladesh to extend more explorative, pragmatic and applied researches on police-related issues so as to improve the quality of our journal.

We look forward to working with all of you as we continue to make the PSC Journal a success and we welcome your submissions, as well as feedback as authors, readers, and reviewers of the journal.



Md. Golam Rasul

Member Directing Staff (Academic & Research)
Police Staff College Bangladesh &
Chief Editor, PSC Journal

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Household Portfolios of Female Constables: Explaining the Socio-economic Conditions and the Material Wellbeing of the Female Trainee Recruit Constables in Bangladesh

Mohammad Sharif Uddin¹, Muhammad Anwar Hossain²

Abstract : *The study has been conducted at the Police Training Center in Rangpur district by following quantitative method and analysis of the female trainee recruit constables and focusing on seven dimensions of socio-economic status of TRCs such as parental education, occupation, income, expenditure, saving, housing and sanitation, paying particular attention to the material wellbeing of the TRCs. This descriptive research covers randomly selecting three hundred sixty-nine female trainee recruit constables and the analysis has been done on the basis of face to face interviews. The results show that around 30 percent parents are illiterate and around 50 percent studied up to high school level and more than half of the fathers of the TRCs (61%) are farmer or day labourer. The study reveals that average monthly household income and expenditure are 14766 taka and 15508 taka respectively, and only around 15 percent families do save yearly. Most of the families (93.8) are using water from tubewell and 87.8 percent of the household use covered pit latrine. 96.7 percent families live in their own house and 98.1 percent of the household possess their own land. Although the parents of the TRCs are not educated enough, they encourage their female children to enroll in police department.*

Keywords : TRC, Women Police, socio-economic condition

1. Statement of the Problem

Police work involves the protection of life and safeguarding property through vital patrol techniques, enforcement of laws and ordinances in the place for which the Police station is responsible (Sundaram and Kumaran 2012). Police hold a vital position in a society and play legitimate esteems in the interest of the state. Policing is the most masculinized and “gendered” profession of the world (Butler, Winfree and Newbold, 2003). Although the historical backdrop of women in policing is around 150 years but they are still very much underrepresented in the police department (Anderson, 2003: 19) because of the strong resistance by patriarchal culture and traditions (Price, 1996) in policing. The numbers of women’s presence into police have increased in recent decades due to the growing employment opportunity for women in the various sectors (Daniel Hipp and Jenny Rizo, 2010). Traditional

1 Addl. SP, Police Training Center, Rangpur.

2 Assistant Professor, Department of Sociology, Begum Rokeya University, Rangpur. anwardu21@gmail.com

and stereotypical perceptions about police profession have been challenged by the growing presence of women in this sector. Women are being accepted more within the field. Law enforcing agencies have been providing jobs to thousands of young women and it is playing a vital role in empowering many women fiscally. Now they are becoming more confident and independent and are able to contribute to the household income. Women are almost equal to men in the field of education and training for police duties. This is a clear sign that women are an underused human asset. Over the most recent couple of years, women's contribution to police work has been progressively acknowledged. This progress is reflected in higher quantities of women at present preparing to join or already serving in the police department. It is essential to understand the socioeconomic conditions of the female trainee recruit constables to measure the gap of their entrance into the police. We should know the socio-demographic profile of the TRCs and their household. In contemporary changing society, we need productive and efficient police forces for effective services to the community to meet their security needs. We require productive police strengths for powerful administrations. To ensure a successful integration and incorporation of more women into this profession we need systematic and precise measures.

2. Objective of the Study

The investigation is a descriptive research which portrays the socioeconomic characteristics of the household of female trainee recruit constables (TRCs) in Bangladesh. The study investigates SES of female TRCs including parental educational attainment, parental occupational status, and household or family income. Housing and sanitation of female TRCs are also measured in the study. This study was about to find the influence of selected socioeconomic variables on women's career choice as police. By studying female trainee recruit constables, the study has been able to explore some basic questions involving socioeconomic status, occupation, and household characteristics.

The objective of the study can be described in succinct as follows:

- To explore the socio-demographic features of the female trainee recruit constables in PTC, Rangpur.
- To measure the income, expenditure and saving behaviour of the household of female police constables in PTC, Rangpur.
- To analyze the socio-cultural and material wellbeing of female trainee recruit constables in Bangladesh.
- To investigate housing, sanitation, household items and access to land of the TRCs.

3. Methodology of the Study

The research design chosen is descriptive as the study reveals the existing facts and uncover the current realities of the female trainee recruitee constables in PTC, Rangpur. Descriptive research is the study which depicts the characteristics and attributes of a particular individual or a group. This investigation is about the socioeconomic condition of female trainee recruitee constables at the police training center in Rangpur. The study collects information from female trainee recruitee constables in PTC, Rangpur.

3.1 Study Area: Police Training Center in Rangpur

The Police Training Center (PTC), Rangpur was established in 1972 as a Zonal Police Training School (ZPTS) to provide training mainly to Trainee Recruitee Constables (TRCs) of Bangladesh Police. Due to the gradual increase of trainee with the course of time, the necessity of training center has increased. To meet the need of huge number of recruited constables and different level officers and additionally staffs, it was upgraded as a police training center in 1990. PTC has been providing training to only fresh female recruitee constables since 2005. Now a Commandant (Additional DIG of Police) commands this Police Training Centre (Wikipedia 2017).

3.2 Population and Sampling

The population of this study consists of the current female trainee recruitee constables of PTC in Rangpur. The population from which the sample was drawn is defined as all full-time female TRCs who are attending six months training program at PTC in Rangpur during 2017. The research concentrated on socioeconomic condition of newly recruited female constables who are now in training and the researcher collected 369 samples from 1138 TRC. As the study used quantitative methods, the sampling method was simple random sampling method for the study. The researcher randomly collected 369 samples of women police trainee recruitee constables working in PTC, Rangpur. Particularly simple random sampling was followed to draw samples for the survey. The sample size was estimated through an approach based on confidence level and precision rate. With an aim to organize this work in a representative manner, female trainee recruitee constables were randomly assigned to explore the socioeconomic conditions of female TRCs.

3.3 Source of data

The study of the socioeconomic condition of TRCs is based on primary data and secondary data also used in the study. Primary data was drawn from

intensive field work, extending from April 2017 to May 2017. The investigator interviewed almost a four hundred female constables and got filled up a structured questionnaire from as many as 369 female police constables. The investigator also interacted with officers ranging from ASI of Police to Addl.DIG working at the police training center in Rangpur and obtain their suggestions on socioeconomic conditions of the TRCs. However, it is pertinent to mention here that most of the female police constables were free, frank and fearless in expressing their personal views and socioeconomic condition of them. They also frankly share their family conditions and different aspects of their life with the investigators. The investigators also got their objective views on various aspects of their life. A few case studies have also been undertaken to make the present research interesting, informative and purposeful.

3.4 Data Collection Tools

The researcher prepared structured questionnaires to collect data for the study about the socioeconomic condition of TRCs. The questionnaires included questions on the socioeconomic profile of the TRCs. Primary data were collected through the questionnaire directly from the respondents and the secondary data were collected from government records, books, journals, reports and the Internet. Based on the identified research topics, a list of questions was prepared from which a survey was designed that contained a range of closed and open-ended questions targeted at obtaining a statistical picture from female trainee recruitee constable about their socioeconomic condition. The structured questionnaire was used to collect the personal and household information of TRCs like name, age, education and number of family members. Interview schedule includes questions on family income, expenditure and saving, housing and sanitation, and agriculture and land use. The researcher used descriptive analysis for data analysis.

Research limitations: It is accepted that survey methods have some limitations and do not catch the whole of the situation since they have a tendency to homogenize encounters. However, survey methods do have the advantage that it is possible to generalize from the results and thus the study allows us to suggest that our findings can be viewed as providing insights to female trainee recruitee constables and their household socioeconomic conditions.

Acknowledgement: The study is the ultimate outcome of labor of many people and also a learning experiences in the process of both pain and pleasure. It was not possible to complete the study properly without the help and guidance of some people. We would like to express our deep and sincere gratitude to honorable M Mahbub Alam, PPM, Commandant of PTC, for his generosity to finance the research expenses. His thoughtful inspiration and guidance have

provided a good basis of the study. We are also grateful to him for his insightful inputs in the study. We would also like to express thanks to all the officers and staffs of the PTC in Rangpur. Thanks to our data enumerators for their relentless cooperation. Our gratitude extends to those respondents who gave a patient hearing to our investigation questions and registered no protest.

4. Background and Context

4.1 History of Women in Police

Formal policing had begun in England in 1829 by the patronization of Sir Robert Peel. At the point when this idea worked effectively, the New York City just copied that plan and formed the Municipal Police Force in 1833. After a long period the male policing was considered as an integrated part of the society paving the course for the female likeness becoming a member of the police. The model of policing originated in Ireland, which was introduced by the British in India. Sociologists are always critical about colonial system. The police Act of 1861 was outlined by the British to make a police force that would be politically helpful to them. The emerging role of the police has drawn attention to sociologists in recent years.

Policing is generally viewed as suitable for men. The entry of women into police has been viewed as passage supported by the Government. In the early decades of the twentieth century, female police were first appointed. The role of women police has changed considerably since the appointment of the first female officers in New South Wales in 1915. Women police constables serve as social workers in uniform. Women can both love and punish criminals. The entry of women into police has been increased during the First World War largely due to labour shortages (Brown and Heidensohn, 2000; Jackson, 2006). In the United Kingdom, the first women police was appointed in 1959 (Clancy, 2009). During the 1950s and '60s, we saw the gradual breakdown of tradition as women entered into police in large portion (Prenzler and Sinclair 2013). Although the employment of women in the police force is gradually increasing, women are still underrepresented in law enforcement agencies (Gary Marshall 2013).

4.2 Women Police Worldwide

All over the world, police services have been seen as a profession of men. Women began to be employed in the police only in the early twentieth century. During the middle of the twentieth century, women's employment progress into police forces was slow. Even today, women are still underrepresented in policing across all regions of the world. UN (2011) reported that globally women average just 9 percent of the police. In some parts of the world, it was only as low as 2 percent. Recent research indicates that in most developed countries, the

percentage remains at or below one quarter. Even in Scandinavian countries which are renowned for women's rights and equality, the representation of women in police does not exceed 30 percent (Gilmore, 2015).

4.2.1 Western Experience

Now women have achieved a greater degree of integration in the police of Britain, America, Australia and Europe. The Sixth United Nations Survey of Crime Trends and Operations of Criminal Justice Systems shows that there are several countries with a higher representation of women in the police. According to Horne (1980) women have been used throughout American history as spies and agents for various governmental and military intelligence organizations. During the 1950s and 1960s, an increasing number of police agencies employed women (Horne, 1980; Schulz, 1989). In 1956, the New York Police Department (NYPD) established "women's bureaus" whose purpose was to provide a central office where women and girls could seek police help in a homelike atmosphere (Natarajan, 2008). American society focused on the women policing for the development of the women's participation in law and enforcement agency having focused on the women's engagement in social service. Though the number of the women police is not satisfactory in comparison to men police members. In a report of the FBI in 2010 indicates women police officers in America are 83, 200 which is 11.8 percent of the total 7, 05,009 police officers. These data emphasize the much more participation of the women police in the future to decrease the discrimination between women and men police.

In Canada the participation of the women in the police department is more than the US. In fact, 19.6% of the total police are women in Canada. 13,605 women are in police where the total number is 69,438 (Statistics Canada 2011). These sorts of data show the intensity in the women's participation in the police department as the global context is in favour to the engagement of the women in the policing. The same general picture is apparent in the United Kingdom as in the United States. Women's involvement in policing was initially the result of social reform movements and the first women police were appointed in 1959 (Clancy, 2009). In New Zealand, 32.2% of the total police are women, which prove the greater participation of women in the police. It seems the women of the country are much interested to join the police force even the public do support the women to be in policing.

Following table 2.1 represents the percentage of female police in selected countries. The table on representation of female in police shows the percentage of total strength for Estonia 26.0 percent, South Africa 21.4 percent, Sweden 17.3 percent, Singapore 19.1 percent, Sri Lanka 5.3 percent, Turkey 4.5 percent Japan 3.7 percent and India 2.2 percent.

TABLE 4.1: FEMALE POLICE PERSONNEL IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

Country	% of total strength
Estonia	26.0
South Africa	21.4
Sweden	17.3
Netherland	17.1
Hong Kong	12.5
Singapore	19.1
Sri Lanka	5.3
Korea	2.4
India	2.2
Turkey	4.5
Japan	3.7

Source: Sixth and Seventh United Nations Survey of Crime Trends and Operations of Criminal Justice Systems

4.2.2 South Asian Experience

The inheritance of policing across South Asia is marinated colonial legacy. Law and structure of South Asian police such as the Maldives, India, Pakistan and Bangladesh are governed by the colonial Police Act of 1861. During the colonial period, the British created a highly hierarchical and militaristic police force based on the Irish constabulary model. There was no provision for women in police at the 1861 legislation. The constitution have the guarantee of fundamental rights, equality before the law and equality of opportunity (Gilmore 2015). The legitimacy of state institutions now lies in being representative of the diversity of its people and in service of them. In spite of the fact that the entrance of women into the police can be followed back to the times of British India, after independence from the British rule no considerable initiatives were put in place, to integrate women into the police. The orientation of women in the police can be traced back to the British rule in India. Seven women were appointed in the police on temporary basis to control women activists who were part of the farmer's movement in Punjab. After the creation of Pakistan in 1952, twenty five (25) women constables, two head constables and an ASI (Assistant Sub Inspector) were recruited (HaiderArsalan2015). Currently the total strength of police is more than 400,000, where only 0.94 percent are women, which are in

number 4020 (HaiderArsalan2015). The latest figures of women in police, to date, for Bangladesh (4.63%), the Maldives (9.9%), India (6.11%) and Pakistan (0.94%) throw up a grim regional average of 5 percent.

Policing in India has customarily been viewed as a male domain on the grounds that the policing requires physical forces. However, the gradual incorporation of women in all spheres of life and professions can also be found in the police force in India. The growing trend of violence against women, increasing involvement of women in crime has focused on the requirement for women police in India. The female police is now an essential part of the police forces all over the country and a number of women have joined the police service. The first female police officers recruited in India were in 1976. The requirement for female police has now been acknowledged all over the world, both in the developed and developing countries in view of the special needs and requirements of women. Working women have now demonstrated the strong sense of duty and commitment regarding work. They work mainly in order to earn cash. However, in India, the vast majority of the women looks for outside jobs to a great extent due to monetary needs. Economic empowerment of women is absolutely important for bringing their status up in the public arena. India had the police act of 1861 for policing, but the women policing concept developed later on. National Police Commission 1979 recommended for women police. Currently, 6 percent women police recruited comparing to the total police of India. The state of India 'Kerala' 1st started taking women in police in 1933 (The Bureau of Police Research and Development).

4.2.3 Women in Bangladesh Police

Developing countries like Bangladesh sometimes try to adapt or imitate western models in monetary and social issues, trusting along these lines to enhance the lives of their subjects. Globalization and developments in technology have strengthened this pattern. In Bangladesh women representation in the police department is evident to be very low. Due to the socio-cultural norms and religious convictions women have always been discouraged to join the police force. This socio-cultural situation is considered as unconventional for women. As a result the police department becomes male dominated from top to bottom. Bangladesh is now in a state of progress and showing some special commitments for the women empowerment from various aspects of society. The women policing is obviously represented such sort of commitment from the top level of the state. Actually, the first women policing began in Bangladesh in 1974. But in 1986 the women were even recruited as officers through the cadre posts. Now, Bangladesh is experiencing a growing entrance of women into the police force because of the need to manage the problem of women and children.

In 2007 the percentage of the women police was 1.87 percent and it rose up to 4.63 percent in 2013 which shows a very notable change in the attitude of the Bangladeshi people towards women's participation in law and enforcement agency. At the end of 2013, out of a total working strength of 1,54,208 police, 6,853 were women. Furthermore, there have been specific improvements in the representation of women at senior levels. In spite of these gains, the overall percentage of women police is still at less than 5 per cent (Commonwealth Human Rights Initiative, 2015). The existing number of women police is reported to be insufficient. In a survey of 2009 showed 90 percent households support the women to engage in the police department. In the recent years the women of Bangladesh have been showing interest on the police force from the employee and officer level which shows the overwhelming changes in Bangladeshi society.

TABLE 4.2 : NUMBER OF WOMEN POLICE IN BANGLADESH

Rank	Number of Women
Addl. IGP	1
DIG	2
Addl. DIG	2
SP	29
Addl. SP	71
Sr. ASP	35
ASP	110
Inspector	93
Sub-Inspector	526
Sergeant	28
ASI	524
Constable	8426
Total	9847 (*under recruitment process 1500)

(Bangladesh Police, 2016)

4.3 The Role of Women in Policing Today

In the course of recent decades, policing and police have changed. Policing used to lean heavily toward physical attributes, for example, height, weight and animal quality. Over the years, the notion of good police officer has shifted toward a decent quality. Although the police profession still requires an awesome level of physical wellness, but good ethical character and excellent personality, problem-solving and conflict-resolution skills are also important for police. This move can be credited to a new proactive style of policing

called ‘community policing’. It’s an essential part of how we work on a daily basis in our community and how we deal with them. Community policing is a philosophy and theory that promotes organizational strategies which support the systematic use of partnerships and problem-solving techniques (Gerber, Gwendolyn L. 2001). It proactively addresses the immediate conditions that give rise to public safety issues such as crime, social disorder, and fear of crime. Basically, Community policing emphasizes on building up strong relationships with the member of the community. It is a collaboration with residents and business owner in order to proactively reduce and prevent crime. The changes in traditional gender roles now taking place in our society have made it possible for women to enter traditionally masculine-typed fields, such as police work. Now, numerous research findings show that women police perform their duties and responsibilities as effectively as men. It is thought that men are more of the directive, assertive personality traits necessary for the job of police and women are believed to be less effective as the police (Gerber, Gwendolyn L. 2001). Many empirical studies show that women police are often described as being less authoritarian and less assertive than men (Sherman, 1973). Police departments must foster diversity, inclusion, and equality and the incorporation of women in policing is very obvious to deal with women’s issues. In Bangladesh, women comprise nearly half the population, but are poorly represented in the police. It is essential to include an equitable number of women into the police to represent women needs and issues in policing. The importance of women in policing is well recognized within the police department of Bangladesh to deal with, and to handle women related cases.

4.4 Socioeconomic Condition of Women in Bangladesh

The literature review is essential to pick up foundation information about the research area. It builds a fitting exploration plan and helps to construct the appropriate research design. We have examined the writing which incorporates books, journals, magazines, reports, research articles and newspaper articles. Research related to police is a neglected area. Today there is little research in the subjects identified with the police and policing. The research on the socioeconomic condition of female police constables is absent and there is no analytical framework to study the problems. There is a need to investigate the issues about the socioeconomic condition of female trainee recruitee constables. In Bangladesh, women is the half of the population. No nation can develop without empowering women. Socioeconomic development largely depends on women empowerment. Bangladesh is a traditional society and we are victims of evil customs and culture. Due to patriarchal culture and tradition, our women are lagging behind and shut within the four walls of the houses as prisoners. The study of socioeconomic conditions of female constables was virtually

ignored or absent in academic writing. Today, women are largely invisible in law enforcement agencies. It is only recently that the role and experience of women in police have become the subject of detailed academic scrutiny as the numbers of female police have slowly risen throughout the 1990s (Brown and Heidenshohn, 2000; Brown, 1998; Martin, 1996).

Women in Bangladesh suffer from discrimination in all spheres of life and they continue to face violence and segregation from society. The economic discrimination of women reinforces other discriminations and perpetuates their low status. Gender division of labour or segregated patterns of employment limit women's opportunity in public sphere. Actually, there are hostile attitude and resentment towards women's employment in our society. They face multiple obstacles and snags while going into the public sphere for employment. These obstacles and determinants can be sorted as socio-cultural, religious, ideological and institutional. Women's lives and socialization process largely influenced by these types of sociocultural structure. The gendered socialization of male and female creates the gender division of labor, due to which women are largely excluded from public sphere (Haider 2015). Women have experienced gigantic difficulties as they think to take police as their profession. It is really difficult to understand the situation in public sphere. We know that most institutions are working under male dominance and consequently have been shaped according to the needs of males (Haider 2015). Women are lagging behind because of historical, traditional and cultural reasons. Women have different experiences and realities than men because of cultural and social barriers.

In spite of the fact that there are differences among the countries of the region, some key conclusions emerge from the statistics and analyses, especially, in the context of Bangladesh concerning women's participation, recognition, and remuneration in economic activities, which needs to be mentioned before analyzing the socioeconomic status of female police trainee recruitee constables in Bangladesh. Some level of statistical invisibility of women in the economy is a worldwide phenomenon. In Bangladesh, we can see the higher representation and visible presence of women at various levels ensures access to resources of society. In most of the sectors, women's experiences and realities can be adequately appreciated and addressed. Most of the recent findings show that women police prove themselves as professional and skilled like men. Recent evidences strongly indicate that women are not only just suitable in policing, but they also make the positive contribution in the police department in Bangladesh.

4.5 Measuring Socioeconomic Status

Definitions of socioeconomic status (SES) vary across time, place and region. It is possible for the similar classification to be attributed to diverse implication

and to be measured distinctively across various divisions. Socioeconomic status is a complex, intricate and relative concept. It is reasonable to expect that it will mean diverse things in different setting and contexts. National Center for Education Statistics (2012) define SES comprehensively as one's access to financial, social, cultural, and human capital resources. Traditionally an individual SES has included, as components, parental educational attainment, parental occupational status, and household or family income, with appropriate adjustment for household or family composition. Given the historical backdrop of SES and how it has been defined over the years, and given the common ways it has been measured in research, the “big 3”—family income, parental educational attainment, and parental occupational status—should be considered components of SES. SES is measured by different variables in different studies. Sirin (2005) found that measures could be placed into the SES categories of parental educational attainment (30 studies), parental occupational status (15 studies), family income (14 studies), free or reduced-price lunch (10 studies), neighbourhood (6 studies), and home resources (4 studies). Parental educational achievement was also most commonly used to measure socioeconomic status of individuals. White (1982) reviewed that parental occupational status and family income were frequently used as SES measures (NCES, 2012). American Psychological Association (2007) provided a framework for defining and developing SES measures. They characterized three models for understanding SES and social class-related inequalities, across three domains: education, health, and human welfare (NCES, 2012).

Material wellbeing of individuals largely depends on income, consumption and wealth. These three indicators are useful to measure the socioeconomic condition of individuals or households. Several factors affect the wealth accumulation and consumption. Material wellbeing of individuals depends on income and expenditure, intergenerational transfers' behaviour, health and housing status and real assets. The surveys focus on socioeconomic dimensions of the female trainee recruitee constables in Bangladesh. The purpose is to understand the real situation of families and individuals and socioeconomic categories of female trainee recruitee constables in Bangladesh.

For the purposes of this paper, socioeconomic status is defined broadly in terms of family income and expenditure, parental occupation, housing and sanitation and real assets, the extent to which female constables and their households have access to these resources. The study measures socioeconomic status in terms of family income and expenditure, parental education and occupation, housing and sanitation and real assets. In addition to measuring socioeconomic conditions additional variables, such as house building materials, housing ownership status (rent or own), the presence of a household member, could be studied in

the survey. In this survey, we are particularly interested in the socioeconomic condition of the female trainee recruitee constables in Bangladesh. In the first section we explain some data issues and methodological choices. The second section is devoted to the description of income, occupation and expenditure of the household of the TRCs. Some conclusions and potential lines of research are drawn for the future end this contribution.

5. Socioeconomic Condition of Female TRCs in Bangladesh

5.1 Socio-demographic Profile of the Household

5.1.1 Number of family members

The number of the family members are extremely important to have due to the concept of the nuclear/extended families and this is what helps to measure the socioeconomic status and material wellbeing of the female trainee recruitee constables (TRCs). Table 4.1 describes the number of household members of the TRCs. The following table shows that 17.6 percent regarding 65 families has less than four family members, 51.8 percent regarding 191 families has five to six members in their families, 22 percent regarding 81 families have seven to eight members in their families and another 8.7 percent regarding 32 families have more than 9 members in their families.

TABLE 5.1: NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBER OF THE TRCs

Number of family member	Frequency	Percent
≥ 4	65	17.6
5-6	191	51.8
7-8	81	22.0
$9 \leq$	32	8.7
Total	369	100.0

(Field Survey 2017)

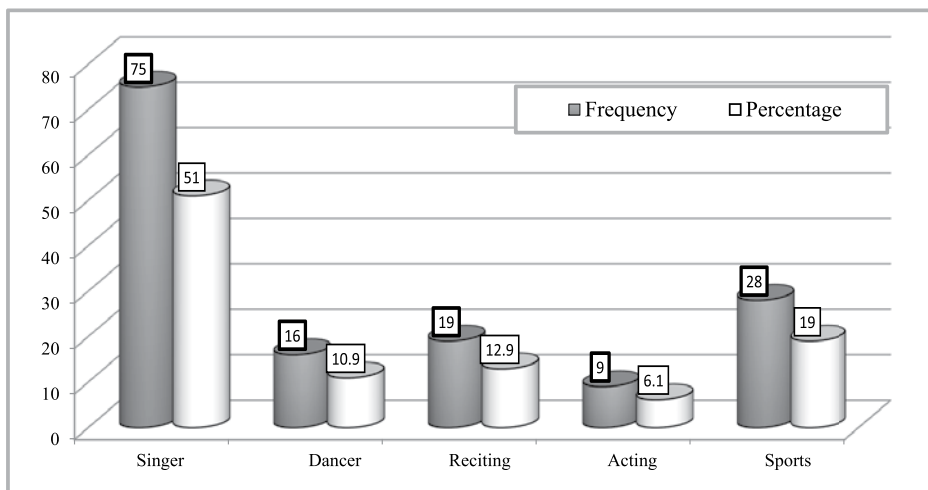
5.2 Extra Curricular Activities and Hobbies of TRC

5.2.1 Extra Curricular Activities

The figure 5.1 describes information regarding extra curriculum activities of female Trainee Recruitee Constable in PTC, Rangpur. Out of the 369 TRCs only 147 are involved in extra curricular activities. Among 147 TRCs, it was noted

that 51 percent like to sing during leisure time, 19 percent spend time in playing and 12.9 percent of the study participants love to recite poem. Further, the study findings also revealed that 10.9 percent and 6.1 of TRCs love to spend their time in dancing and acting respectively.

FIGURE 5.1 : Extra Curricular Activities



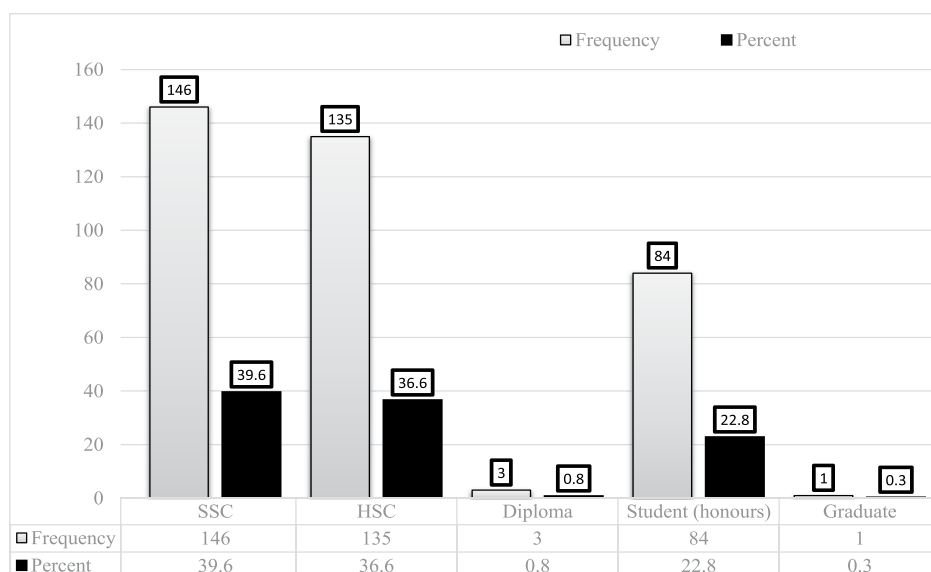
(Field Survey 2017)

5.3 Level of Education of the TRC and their Household

5.3.1 Level of Education of the TRC

Education is an important element of socioeconomic status. It furnishes individuals to participate in social and economic life and it trains individuals with skills essential for the economy (UN 2015). The educational dimension of socioeconomic status is usually measured through the level of educational attainment of persons within a household which is described in the figure 5.2. Minimum education qualification required for female Trainee Recruit Constables is SSC. Following figure describes the educational qualifications of the female trainee recruit constables of the Rangpur police training center. In terms of the respondent's level of education, most of the respondents (39.6%) have passed secondary school certificate exam (SSC) and a significant number of respondents (36.6%) have passed higher secondary certificate exam (H.S.C). The educational level of the respondents also shows that 84 respondents studied up to honors level, what represents 22.8 percent. Furthermore, 3 respondents of the study people belonged to diploma level whereas only one graduated in the survey.

FIGURE 5.2 : LEVEL OF EDUCATION OF THE TRCs



(Field Survey 2017)

5.3.2 Level of Education of the Member of Household

The table 5.2 shows the educational level of the member of the household of TRCs. Following table 5.3 shows that, 31.3 percent father is illiterate, 26.2 percent is primary educated and 23.2 percent fathers studied up to high school level and other 9.9 percent father passed SSC. As the fathers were in that generation where the higher education was so tough to reach and that's why the HSC and the graduation level passing rate were so much hard as the percentage was 6.9 for the HSC and percentage for graduation was 2.4. The percentage of the mothers' education was not that much standard but if we compare this with the fathers' it seems like the rate of the mothers' education was not that much bad. The table shows that 31.7 percent mothers are illiterate, 29.8 percent primary passed, and 28.7 percent are below SSC, 7.4 percent SSC passed, 2.2 percent HSC passed and 0.3 percent graduates. In the following table, we can see that 4.5 percent elder brother of the TRCs are illiterate, 22 percent primary passed, 38.1 percent below SSC, 13.6 percent are SSC passed, 14.7 percent are HSC passed and 6.9 percent elder brother of the TRCs are graduate. 9.2 percent middle brother of the TRC are illiterate, 21.4 percent have passed primary level, 35.95 percent are below SSC, 14.5 percent have passed the SSC, 10.7 percent have passed the HSC and 8.4 percent of the middle brother of the TRCs are graduates. In case of the younger brother of TRCs 4.2 percent are illiterate, 25 percent have passed the primary level, 37.5 percent are below SSC, 18.8 percent have the SSC level, 8.3 percent of them have passed the HSC level and 6.2

percent have passed the graduation. And for the elder sister the education level is like 3.7 percent are illiterate, 8.1 percent have passed the primary school, 40.0 percent have not passed the SSC level, 18.6 percent have passed the SSC level, 18.6 percent have passed the HSC and 10.9 percent are graduate. 4.5 percent middle sister of the TRCs are illiterate, 15.7 percent are primary passed, 43.8 percent are of below SSC level and 10.1 percent have passed the SSC level also 19.1 percent have passed the HSC and 6.8 percent are graduate. For the younger sisters of the households where 9.4 percent are illiterate, 21.9 percent have passed the primary level, 35.4 percent have not passed the SSC level, 9.4 percent have passed the SSC, 15.6 percent have passed the HSC and 8.3 percent of the total 97 younger sisters have passed the graduation degree.

TABLE 5.2 : HOUSEHOLD EDUCATION LEVEL OF THE TRC

Household Member	Household Level of Education						
	Illiterate	Primary	Below SSC	SSC	HSC	Graduate	N
Father	31.3	26.2	23.2	9.9	6.9	2.4	332
Mother	31.7	29.8	28.7	7.4	2.2	.3	366
Elder Brother	4.5	22	38.1	13.6	14.7	6.9	291
Middle Brother	9.2	21.4	35.9	14.5	10.7	8.4	133
Younger Brother	4.2	25.0	37.5	18.8	8.3	6.2	50
Elder Sister	3.7	8.1	40.0	18.6	18.6	10.9	296
Middle Sister	4.5	15.7	43.8	10.1	19.1	6.8	181
Younger Sister	9.4	21.9	35.4	9.4	15.6	8.3	97

(Field Survey 2017)

5.4 Pattern of Occupation of the Member of Household

The occupation dimension of socioeconomic status is usually measured through the occupation classification of household members. Parental occupational status is the most important dimension of socioeconomic status. The study has examined the occupation pattern of the parents, brothers and sisters of the TRCs. Here the research indicates that 61 percent fathers work as farmers/day laborers/workers, 16.3 percent are merchants, 12.3 percent are public/private servants, 2.1 percent are nonresidential Bangladeshi, 1.2 percent are teachers, 2.4 percent are police members and 4.5 percent are unemployed. From 366 mothers, 3 percent are day laborers, 1.4 percent are public/private servants, .5 percent are teachers and 95.1 percent are housewives. Occupation pattern of elder brothers shows that 13 percent elder brothers of TRCs are day laborers, 5.6 percent are merchants, 12.3 percent are public/private servants, 7 percent are non-residential Bangladeshi, .7 percent are teachers, 1.8 percent are police members and 59.6

percent are unemployed. 12.5 percent of the middle brothers of the TRCs are day laborers, 5.5 percent are merchants, 9.4 percent are public/private servants, 7.8 percent are non-residential Bangladeshi, .8 percent are police members and 64 percent are unemployed. Out of 50 younger brothers, 12.5 percent are day laborers, 2.1 percent are merchants, 10.4 percent are public/private servants, 8.3 percent are non-residential Bangladeshi and 66.7 percent are unemployed. One percent elder sister are day laborers, 3.1 percent public/private servants, 2.7 percent are teachers, 2 percent are police members, 91.2 percent elder sisters are housewives. Out of 181 middle sisters, 1.7 percent are public/private servants, 1.7 percent are teachers, 2.2 percent are police members and 94.4 percent of the middle sisters are housewives. From 97 younger sisters, 5.2 percent of them are public/private servants, 2.1 percent are teachers, 92.7 percent of the younger sisters are working at house.

TABLE 5.3 : INFORMATION ABOUT OCCUPATION PATTERN OF THE MEMBER OF THE HOUSEHOLD

Household occupation pattern of TRC								
Family Member	Farmer/ Day labor /worker	Merchant	Public servant/ private servant	Non-residential Bangladeshi	Teacher	Police	Unemployed/ Housewife	N
Father	61.0	16.3	12.3	2.1	1.2	2.4	4.5	331
Mother	3	-	1.4	-	.5	-	95.1	366
Elder Brother	13.0	5.6	12.3	7	.7	1.8	59.6	291
Middle Brother	12.5	5.5	9.4	7.8	-	.8	64.0	133
Younger Brother	12.5	2.1	10.4	8.3	-	-	66.7	50
Elder Sister	1.0	-	3.1	-	2.7	2.0	91.2	296
Middle Sister	-	-	1.7	-	1.7	2.2	94.4	181
Younger Sister	-	-	5.2	-	2.1		92.7	97

(Field Survey 2017)

5.5 Income and Expenditure of the Household of TRCs

5.5.1 Household Income of the TRCs

Sociologists and economists have always shown a keen interest in income and expenditure. These two indicators are essential for understanding economic inequality and poverty. Income is the only measure of access to economic resources and also most important component of any measure of access to

economic resources. Following table 5.4 describes the income of the household of the TRCs. Mean and Standard deviation of father’s income are 1.1650E4 and 7950 taka respectively. Only 18 mothers are economically active whose mean income is 4.8611E3 and standard deviation is 3928 taka. 118 elder brothers of the TRCs are working whose mean income is 1.3037E4 taka and standard deviation is 11374 taka. Mean and SD of middle brother income are 1.3528E4 and 11200 taka respectively. Only 26 elder sister of the TRCs are currently working whose mean and standard deviation of income are 1.55E4 and 8106 taka respectively.

TABLE 5.4 : INFORMATION ABOUT HOUSEHOLD INCOME

Family Member	Income of the Household		
	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Father	316	1.1650E4	7950
Mother	18	4.8611E3	3928
Elder Brother	118	1.3037E4	11374
Middle Brother	48	1.3528E4	11200
Younger Brother	17	1.45E4	7151
Elder Sister	26	1.55E4	8106
Middle Sister	10	1.73E4	4816
Younger Sister	7	1.2083E4	9265

(Field Survey 2017)

5.5.2 Source of Household Income

The study questionnaire contains a number of questions on individual and household incomes, such as earnings, pensions and rent, and a few questions on incomes that can only be recorded at the household level. Total household income is the sum of some incomes at the individual level and some at the household level. The table 5.5 describes the different income sources of the household of the TRCs. We look at average gross income and standard deviation. Looking at the different source of income of household we see that the five largest income components are farming, wage, assistance from relatives, trading entrepreneurship and Day labor/auto driver. Self-employment income, income from other household members and from other sources are much smaller items. Farming is the largest source of income of the household whose mean and standard deviation are 8.3467E4 and 84719.34 taka respectively. Among the household, 100 household earn money from formal job salary whose mean and standard deviation are 2.1343E5 and 4.06615E5 taka respectively. Around 63 household of the TRCs get assistance from their relatives whose means and

standard deviation are 5.9754E4 and 62722.43 taka respectively, mean income from day labor/auto driver is 9.2575E4, mean income from livestock is 5.9467E4 and mean income from trade or entrepreneurship is 1.1872E5.

TABLE 5.5 : INFORMATION ABOUT SOURCE OF INCOME OF THE HOUSEHOLD OF TRCs

Source of Income	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Wage (formal job salary)	100	2.1343E5	4.06615E5
Farming	211	8.3467E4	84719.34
Vegetables	21	2.7857E4	30856.58
Husbandry	6	4.9000E4	70832.20
Livestock (cow and goat)	30	5.9467E4	89116.19
Livestock (cocks and duck)	18	2.6922E4	55136.76
Handicraft	3	5.6000E4	27712.81
Trading entrepreneurship	58	1.1872E5	73936.62
Rental income	14	9.1286E4	1.06666E5
Assistance of relatives	63	5.9754E4	62722.43
Pension	20	7.1520E4	33013.83
Governmental aid	15	1.2000E5	.00000
Day labor/auto driver	56	9.2575E4	62927.60

(Field Survey 2017)

5.5.3 Yearly Income and Expenditure

We see that the mean and standard deviation of overall yearly household income are 1.8772E5 and 2.65043E5 respectively whereas mean and standard deviation of overall yearly expenditure of the household are 1.6152E5 and 1.76942E5 respectively. The following table is showing the yearly income and expenditure of the total 369 households of the TRCs. Yearly income of the 33.6 percent families is less than 100000, 41.7 percent regarding 154 families yearly income is between 100001 and 200000 taka,14.4 percent regarding 53 households yearly income is from 200001 to 300000 taka and 10.3 percent regarding 38 families yearly income is more than 300001. The yearly expenditure of the families are also included here. As 34.4 percent regarding 127 families yearly expenditure is less than 100000 taka, 43.4 percent regarding 160 families yearly expenditure is between 100001 and 200000, 14.9 percent regarding 55 families yearly expenditure is between 200001 and 300000 taka, and 7.3 percent regarding 27 households yearly expenditure is more than 300001.

TABLE 5.6 : YEARLY INCOME AND EXPENDITURE OF THE HOUSEHOLD

Range (In taka)	Yearly income		Yearly expenditure	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
≥ 100000	124	33.6	127	34.4
100001-200000	154	41.7	160	43.4
200001-300000	53	14.4	55	14.9
$300001 \leq$	38	10.3	27	7.3
Total	369	100.0	369	100.0
Mean	1.8772E5		1.6152E5	
Standard deviation	2.65043E5		1.76942E5	

(Field Survey 2017)

5.6 Housing and Ownership Status of the House

5.6.1 Ownership Status of House

People do not rely solely on financial assets but also on real assets, with housing being the most important among them. Table 5.7 showing the overall concept of house ownership which are perfectly shown. The families of 357 TRCs live in their own house which is 96.7 percent. The respondents who do not have the ownership they usually go for renting or other different ways. Like in case of renting we see 3 persons are having house through renting process which represents .80 percent. Some other people are having the house by the employer or quarter system and total 3 persons are having this facilities and the percentage is 0.80.

TABLE 5.7: OWNERSHIP STATUS OF THE HOUSE

Ownership status of house	Frequency	Percent
Owner of the house	357	96.7
Renter	3	.8
Provided by employer	3	.8
User not paying rent	3	.8
Other	3	.8
Total	369	100.0

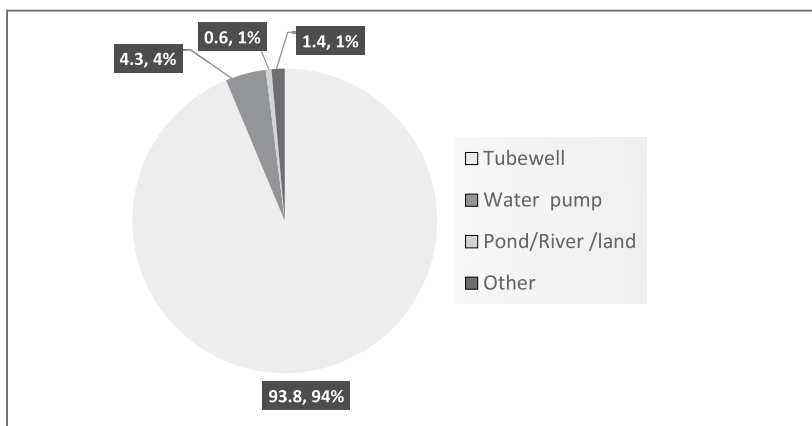
(Field Survey 2017)

5.7 Health and Sanitation of the Household

5.7.1 Domestic sources of water

Health and sanitation are also important indicators for assessing the socioeconomic status of women in any society. To understand health and sanitation, we should understand domestic source of water. Water is life that is a very effective and well known saying in fact. So the sources of water is as important as the use of water. Usually people go for using the water from tube well, water pump, pond, river and other sources. In the figure 5.3 we see that 346 families use tube well water out of 369 what represents 93.8 percent of the respondents. Some of the people are using the water from the water pump which represents 4.3 percent. And most notably some of the families are still using the water from the ponds or river. The numbers of the families using pond/river/land water is 2 out of 369 and the percentage is .6. The families are using water from the pond/river/land as well though the rate is low. Other sources of water is also visible for the households. And the number is 5 out of 369 families and the percentage is 1.4. In fact, the factor of the water is really very important and the table is extremely well decorated for the wonderful explanation regarding this issue.

FIGURE 5.3 : DOMESTIC SOURCE OF WATER



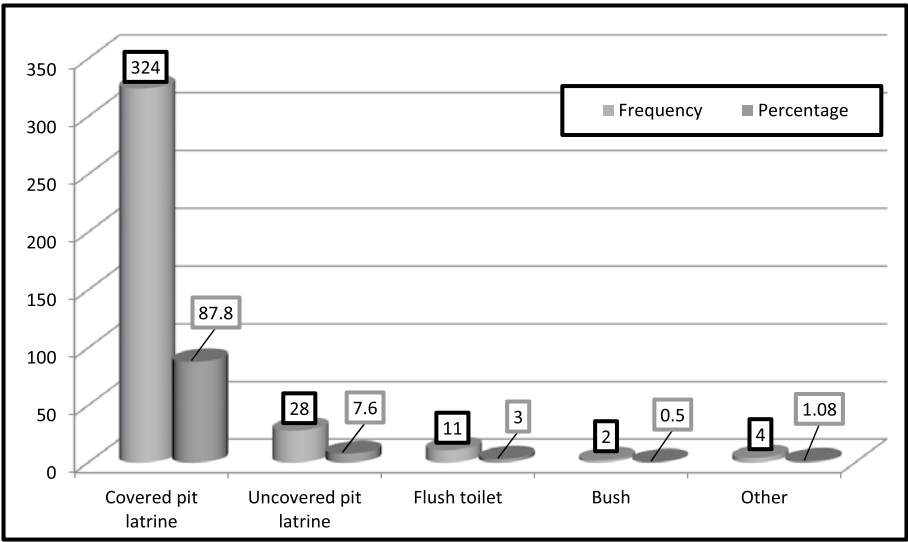
(Field Survey 2017)

5.7.2 Toilet Facilities of the Households

Hygiene is very much burning issue for anybody in the world. And most importantly the toilet facilities play a very vital role in this regard. Without the proper toilet facility the hygiene system must not develop in fact. This is an important indicator of health and sanitation. In the figure 5.4, the toilet facilities of the households are well described and perfectly given by the data and statistics. In fact, covered latrine is used by the 324 households and the percentage is 87.8. The use of the uncovered pit latrine is by the 28 households and the percentage

is 7.6. In case of the much better toilet system than the previous ones is flush toilet. And the flush toilet is used by 11 households out of 369 households and the percentage of using the flush toilet is 3. The number of the households using bush toilet is 2 which represents only .5 percent. From the following figure, we get a clear sense of the particular sorts of toilets used by the households.

FIGURE 5.4 : TOILET FACILITY OF THE HOUSEHOLD



(Field Survey 2017)

5.8 Land and Assets of the Household

The study questionnaire covers a wide range of questions on household accessories, land and real assets, from which one can calculate wealth and its components. These include household items, owned and rented land, bank deposit, vehicles, contractual savings for housing, and life insurance policies. The detailed assets questions contained in the survey can be used to construct several indicators of the wellbeing of the TRCs. Total financial wealth is the key indicators of the well-being of the female trainee recruitee constables in Bangladesh. Household items, land, real estate, and other assets are key indicators of the well-being and quality of life of the people. The study provides basic facts on wealth amounts, wealth composition, land, household items and financial asset ownership of the family of the TRCs in PTC, Rangpur.

5.8.1 Household Items of the TRCs

Thefollowing table 5.8 describes the household items of the TRCs that give a very clear sense on their life standard and material wellbeing. In the context of

Bangladesh, household items used as an important indicator for the measurement of socioeconomic status. Out of 369 households, 86.4 percent of the households do have the electricity facility, 14.9 percent have gas facilities, 45.3 percent have satellite dish and 57.5 percent have TV in their household. Some other indicators are also measured for understanding the life standard of the households. The percentage of the households having vehicles is as follows: Cycle (40.1 %), Rickshaw (1.4%), Motorcycle (7%) and Boat (1.4%). Among the TRCs, 21.1 percent have the Refrigerators while 10 percent have water tank facilities in their household and 1.9 percent have autorickshaws of their own.

TABLE 5.8 : HOUSEHOLD ITEMS OF THE TRCs

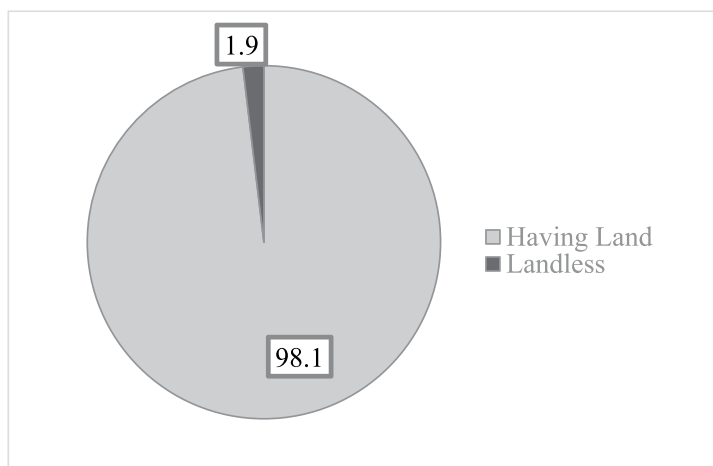
Household Items of the TRC	N	Yes	No
Electricity	369	86.4	13.6
Gass/cylinder	369	14.9	85.1
Satellite dish	369	45.3	54.7
TV	369	57.5	42.5
Water tank	369	10.0	90.0
Cycle	369	40.1	59.9
Rickshaw	369	1.4	98.6
Motorcycle	369	7.0	93.0
Boat	369	1.4	98.6
Car	369	0.30	99.7
Household Items of the TRC	N	Yes	No
Bus truck	369	0.50	99.5
Refrigerator	369	21.1	78.9
Air condition.AC	369	.50	99.5
Oven	369	.50	99.5
Auto/CNG/ Nasimon	369	1.90	98.1

(Field Survey 2017)

5.8.2 Possession of Land

The following figure 5.5 represents the data of 369 households on possession of land. The study finds that a high percentage of households holds land. The research shows that 362 households do possess their own land which is the 98.1 percent of the total households. On the other hand, 7 households don't have own land in their possession which represent 1.9 percent.

FIGURE 5.5: INFORMATION ABOUT PROCESSION OF LAND OF THE HOUSEHOLD



(Field Survey 2017)

5.8.3 Total amount of Land of the Household

Table 5.9 plots the amount of households owning land. The amount of households holding lands are good sign of material wellbeing of the households. Land plays a very significant role in case of treating the households as affluent especially in the Bangladeshi society. Though the land per capita is not that much high, still it is urgent to indicate that 176 households have less than 25 percent of land, 47 households have between 26 and 50 percent of land, 22 households have between 51 and 75 percent of land and around 117 households holding the amount of land are more than 76 percent.

TABLE 5.9 : INFORMATION ABOUT TOTAL AMOUNT OF THE PROCESSION OF LAND

Percentage of land	Frequency	Valid Percent
≥25	176	48.6
26-50	47	13.0
51-75	22	6.1
76<	117	32.3
Total	362	100.0

(Field Survey 2017)

5.8.4 Nature of Land Ownership

The following figure represents the data of 369 households on nature of land ownership. The study finds a very low percentage of Barga(shared) land (11.65%), rented land

(3.5%) and rent out land (1.62%). The research shows that most of the households of TRCs do possess their own land which is a good sign of material wellbeing.

TABLE 5.10 : NATURE OF LAND OWNERSHIP

Nature of land	Yes		No	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Borga land	43	11.65	326	88.35
Rented land	13	3.5	356	96.5
Rent out land	6	1.62	363	98.38

(Field Survey 2017)

5.9 Savings of the Households

The saving behavior of the people and their portfolio holdings are central to socio-economic status measurement. While income, expenditure and consumption are important determinants of current well-being, assets are a key indicator of future sustainable consumption. There are a number of reasons for considering socio-economic status as a key indicator of well-being of a people. Most people save for future because these assets provide income and security. The same assets can be spent during the crisis period and converted into a flow of consumption. Most of the people try to save enough for future. Savings works as a weapon to fight at the time of calamities or sudden hazards and that's why the households tend to do that. The following table 5.11 on saving behavior of the household shows that 14.9 percent regarding 55 families do yearly saving, only 2 families have life insurance, 3.8 percent regarding 14 families have bank deposit and only 2 families have national saving certificate.

TABLE 5.11 : INFORMATION ABOUT SAVING BEHAVIOR OF HOUSEHOLD

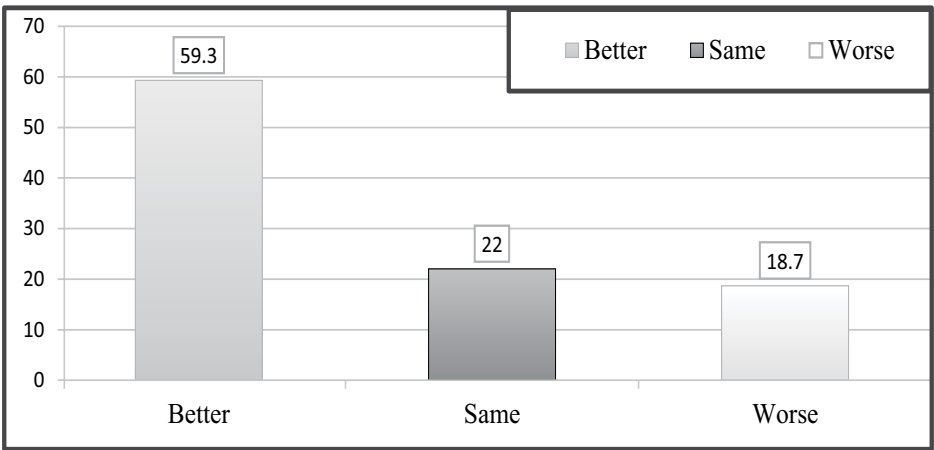
Aspects of Saving	Yes		No	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Yearly Saving	55	14.9	314	85.1
Life insurance	2	.5	367	99.5
Bank deposit	14	3.8	355	96.23
National Saving Certificate	2	.5	367	99.5
Ornaments	218	59.1	151	40.9

(Field Survey 2017)

5.10 Income status and Standard of living compared to those of 5 years ago

The income status and standard of living might change from time to time and that is a very similar condition seen in many ways to many people. In the following figure 5.6, the income and living standard are measured with the comparison of 5 years. In the figure, we see the changes in living condition of the household of TRCs in last five years. Within last 5 years’ time frame 219 households confessed that they have brought positive changes in their lives which represent 59.3 percent. And for the 81 households we see no changes have happened as they are belonging to the same income and living standard and the percentage of such people is 22. Side by side, we see declining trend in some other households from their previous position which represent 18.7 percent. So it was the situation of the households of TRCs which changed within 5 years in terms of income and standard of living.

FIGURE 5.6 : INFORMATION ABOUT STANDARD OF LIVING COMPARED TO 5 YEARS AGO

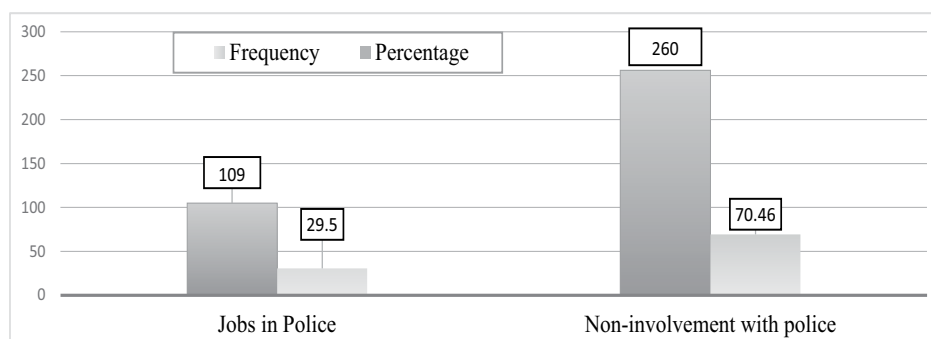


(Field Survey 2017)

5.11 Household Engagement with Police Department

Police department is hugely recognized as a very effective and interesting and challenging platform. The survey includes question on household members having jobs in police department. The following figure describes data on having/not having job from the family of TRCs in police department. Out of 369 families 109 families confessed that their relatives are in police department which represents 29.5 percent. Most (260) of the TRCs said that they don’t have any relatives or member of the household in police department which represents 70.46 percent. It indicates that most of the families have no members in police department.

FIGURE 5.7 : INFORMATION ABOUT HOUSEHOLD ENGAGEMENT WITH POLICE



(Field Survey 2017)

The following table represents that relatives of 109 TRCs are serving in the police department. These relatives include father, mother, brother/sister, uncle and some other family members. The table data 5.12 shows that 22 fathers of various households are in police department which is 20.2 percent. Since the women's participation was low in previous circumstances, 2 mothers were in police department representing 1.8 percent. It is important to mention that 25.7 percent of the brothers or sisters of the TRCs are in police department. Some other members of the family are also working in the police department such as uncle 16.5 percent and other relatives 35.8 percent.

TABLE 5.12 : RELATIVES OF THE TRC IN THE POLICE DEPARTMENT

Relative in the TRC	Frequency	Valid Percent
Father	22	20.2
Mother	2	1.8
Brother /Sister	28	25.7
Uncle (Mama and Kaka)	18	16.5
Other Relatives	37	35.8
Total	109	100.0

(Field Survey 2017)

5.12 Purpose of Joining in Police

Joining in police must have some reasonable and particular sorts of logic behind it as some people do it for only economic solvency, some other go for it as they figured it as dream career or some other causes might be there. Out of 369 TRCs the research has been made to have a proper view on why do they

engage in police department as their career. The following table 5.13 represents the data from such 369 TRCs who gave the answer from 3 categories including economic solvency, dream job and other. 202 female trainee recruitee constables confessed that they engage in police department as they want to boost their economic solvency to support their family which represent 54.7 percent. Some other TRCs, which represent 41.5 percent, highlight the dream job issue adding it seems to be the best job for them and their family and only 14 TRCs join in police for some other reasons.

TABLE 5.13 : REASON BEHIND JOINING POLICE DEPARTMENT

Reason behind joining police	Frequency	Percent
Support family/Economic solvency	202	54.7
Dream of self and family member	153	41.5
Other	14	3.8
Total	369	100.0

(Field Survey 2017)

5.13 Encouragement to Join in Police Department

Inspiration is considered to be an extreme force to join in any work or getting any activity done. For joining police people are motivated by the persons they trust much, family is considered to be the best platform where people are elated much. The following table 5.14 shows 369 TRCs get motivation from various members of the family and relatives to join in police department. In the research, most of the TRCs as numbering 224 get motivated from their father to join in police which represent 60.7 percent. Mothers also play a very vital role in motivating the TRCs as they do have the top connection to their children especially. 13.3 percent of the TRCs said that they are motivated by the mother to join the police department. On the other hand, brothers/sisters also motivate the TRCs to join in the police department as the percentage is 9.8. Uncle and other relatives also motivate the TRCs to join in the police department which represents 3 percent and 5.7 percent respectively. Another big deal is about the self-motivation which can be measured as a very distinct and powerful tool to be motivated as the table shows 7.6 percent TRCs are self-motivated to join in the police department.

TABLE 5.14 : INFORMATION ABOUT MOTIVATION TO JOIN IN POLICE DEPARTMENT

Inspiring person to join police	Frequency	Percent
Father	224	60.7
Mother	49	13.3
Brother/Sister	36	9.8
Uncle	11	3.0
Other Relatives	21	5.7
Self-motivated	28	7.6
Total	369	100.0

(Field Survey 2017)

5.14 Future Plan of TRC

The following table 5.15 describes future plan of 369 TRCs including their upgradation, searching for new job, economic solvency etc. The study found that 322 TRCs really hope to up-grade their present position to Assistant Sub-Inspector to Sub-Inspector which indicates 87.3 percent. Still being in police job some other TRCs as estimated 4.1 percent try to search for new jobs which is in number 15 TRCs. In the police department 7.3 percent TRCs from the 369 said that they will try to be a good and a very honest police member. Only 1.4 percent TRCs will try to do much economic solvency to promote their family condition in future.

TABLE 5.15 : INFORMATION ABOUT FUTURE PLAN OF THE TRCs

Future plan of TRCs	Frequency	Percent
Up-gradation/Mission/Sub-inspector	322	87.3
Searching better job	15	4.1
Be a good police officer	27	7.3
Economic solvency and support family	5	1.4
Total	369	100.0

(Field Survey 2017)

6. Conclusion

Bangladesh is showing dramatic changes in various significant aspects regarding women empowerment to ensure the participation of women in different spheres throughout the country. The female trainee recruit constables are considered as one of the most notable sign to judge the women's participation in challenging profession including the law and enforcement agency. Though the condition of

the participation of the women in the security agencies is not overwhelming, it's not in the bottom level either comparing with other Asian countries. Especially in Bangladesh such participation of the women is increasing and TRCs represent such a good sort of evidence in this regard. The overall socioeconomic status including education, parental occupation, income, expenditure, saving, sanitation, housing and other related issues are very much significant to explore a clear view on the TRCs in Bangladesh. As the research shows the education level of the parents of the TRCs is not that much noteworthy, most of the parents' level of education belongs to SSC. Parental occupational pattern is the most important indicator of measuring socioeconomic status. The study shows that 61 percent of the fathers of the households are day labourers whereas 95.1 percent of the mothers are housewives which indicate a poor occupation status of the TRCs. Not only the occupation but also the income and expenditure are also included in the SES measurement scale. The study reveals that income of 49.1 percent of the households and expenditure of 51.5 percent of the household are below 10000 taka which represents a low income and low expenditure rate through which the social status of the TRCs might be assumed. Saving is considered as a very smart and intelligent habit in case of the unexpected and unwelcome hazards to be faced. The saving behavior of the households of the TRCs is very poor, only 14.9 percent of the households have the saving attitude or they save yearly to face financial crisis in the future.

In agrarian society like Bangladesh, the possession of land is too much vital because life and dignity bound with land. Most of the households are still basically leading their lives depending on the agriculture. A total of 98.1 percent of the households have land where 48.6 percent of the households hold 25 percent land. The ownership status of the house might be thought as the key term measuring the social condition as well. Usually 96.7 percent of the households of the TRC's live in their own house which seems to be an indicator indeed. House building material is a very notable criterion to judge the housing condition because almost every household has own house but the condition of the houses are not same. The research shows that 91.9 percent of the roofs of the houses are made of tin/wooden/bamboo roof, 50.4 percent walls are made of concrete and brick and most of the floor of the houses are made of kachamati (soil). Housing condition seems to be well in fact. Hygiene is very much significant to measure the health condition and standard of living of the households. Here 93.8 percent of the households use the tube well and 87.8 percent of the households use the covered pit latrine. These types of sanitation system play an extreme role in hygienic health practices of the households.

The socioeconomic condition of the female trainee recruitee constables are well. Some social and economic factors work to somehow promote the progress of

women. The social barriers regarding superstitions, child marriage, and narrow minded society collapse the right motion of the work. Although the parents of the TRCs are not educated enough, they are so likely to have their female children in traditional male dominated profession like policing. Apart from this the female education needs to be promoted further to enrich their thought to go to any sorts of challenging profession and protest the domination against them. The light of hope is the present situation is changing rapidly as the higher participation rate of the women in various sectors including TRC is the evidence. As the report (Bangladesh Police, 2013 cited in Commonwealth Human Rights Initiative, 2015) shows that a total number of 6853 women are working in the police department including 5701 constables, 12 SPs and 1 Addl. IGP which depicts that the women are now in much stronger position than the previous time frame.

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Prospects and Challenges of Community Policing: A Study on Dhaka City

Prof. M Abul Kashem Mozumder, Ph.D¹, Md. Nasir Uddin²

Abstract : *Community policing integrates the ideology that extends the police mission from a narrow focus on crime to a mandate that encourages the police to explore creative solutions for a host of community concerns, including crime, fear of crime as well as disorder. Community policing is not merely a means to address community concerns rather it is a philosophy that empower the community (Trojanowicz et.al., 1998). This study seeks to study the existing functions, features, expectations and challenges of the community policing. Attempts have been made to explore what actions are necessary to get the desired level of performance by them to prevent crime greatly from the grassroots level. In addition, some policy directions have been suggested to formulate a coherent and comprehensive strategy so that the community policing can be formed in the whole country. This study carried out on the police stations of Dhaka city.*

Keywords :Community Policing, Services, Human Security, Challenges

Introduction

In the 21st century, with the passage of time, policing in different countries including Bangladesh got a lot of changes and reforms to cope with the changes of the society's values and structure, diversity of society, taste and attitude of the people along with new dimension of crime. But there is a common subject which has been picked up by police all over the world – that is “Community Policing”. It is generally acknowledged by all that without spontaneous cooperation of the community and partnership with them police alone cannot ensure the safety of the people and address the issues of the community to the satisfaction of the people of the community (Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux, 1990). To deliver effective policing services in the changing society and address the emerging needs of the community, Bangladesh Police (BP) has set a remarkable milestone in 2008. Under new leadership, the BP has recently released its first corporate-wide strategic plan. This is a move forward to shift BP from Force to Service with community focused approach which adopts the community policing as the future strategy of BP (Community Policing, 2009). Hence, this paper endeavors after analyzing the functions, challenges and expectations of Community Policing, and recommends some policy directions to formulate a coherent and comprehensive strategy so that the community policing can be formed in whole Bangladesh.

¹ Pro-Vice Chancellor, Bangladesh University of Professionals, Mirpur, Dhaka-1216.

² Lecturer, Bangladesh University of Professionals, Mirpur, Dhaka-1216.

Significance of the Study

It is quite usual that Bangladesh Police is primarily a reactive force with a philosophy of public control rather than community service (Razzak, 2010). The emphasis is on solving crime after it occurs, rather than preventing it from happening in the first place. This can largely be ascribed to a lack of awareness and understanding, and also to a lack of leadership on the part of various stakeholders. There has been a limited assessment by Bangladesh Police to analyze and treat the underpinning causes of crimes. Because of this lack of analysis, and the lack of police guidelines or policy on crime prevention, police are unable to provide advice to the public on what preventative actions they can take (Community Policing, 2009). One of the many reasons for inefficiency of the current style of policing in Bangladesh is the centralization of command and decision making. The trend of centralization has isolated the police from the citizen. Besides being the large population country, we have approximately only 1 police for 1300 people. So, in a country like ours it is impossible to prevent crime and corruption without the public sharing. We know that “Prevention is better than cure” so we need to pay due respect and accord recognition to the astute, skill and encourage to mediate and defuse conflict situations before they reach the scorching point (Friedmann, 1996).

The main task of the police is to prevent crimes and preserve the peace, so the police must secure the active cooperation of the community. By establishing a partnership between the police and the communities they will be able to ensure effective protection of communities and a better quality of life (Skogan, & Hartnett, 1997).

Over the last two decades, community policing has gained increasing international attention as a means for enhancing public security through police-citizen partnerships (The Asia Foundation, 2013). The Zambian force was keen to shift as early as 1993 to community-oriented policing in which communities take part in local policing, introducing various schemes such as neighborhood watch, a locally based reserve constabulary and farming networks intended to counter stock- theft (Hills, 2000). Without the cooperation of people, police cannot be successful. So, police-people partnership can prove a success rendering services meant for the community (Huda, 2009). Endeavor, in this connection, is a need to develop police-people cohesion. If it is ensured, the distance between police and public will be reduced. And it, only, is possible by an effective community policing (Hoque, 2010).

By analyzing these important factors, this topic has been studied. In one side it will reveal the strategies of incorporating the people in the mainstream of the country’s overall development. On the other hand, the politicians, bureaucrats, policy analysts, educationist as well as social researchers will be benefited very much by this research.

Objectives of the Study

1. To study the existing functions, features, expectations and challenges of the community policing.
2. To review what actions are necessary to get the desired performance to prevent crime greatly from the grassroots level.
3. To suggest some policy directions to formulate a coherent and comprehensive strategy so that the community policing can be formed in the whole country.

Research Methodology

Data were collected from both primary and secondary sources. Primary sources are members of the Community Police and general people. A questionnaire survey method has been used to collect primary data from 200 respondents (Community people 100 & general people 100). The sampling method was random sampling. Secondary data were collected through content analysis such as reviewing various national and international publications like books, journals, newspapers and related websites.

Analyses of Research Findings

In accordance with the objectives and the questions of the research the analysis of data and their findings have been presented here chronologically.

Table: 1: Opinion of respondents about introducing the concept of Community Policing throughout the Bangladesh

Respondents’ opinion						
Community Police			General		Total	
Percentage	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
	88	12	84	16	172	28
	88%	12%	84%	16%	86%	14%

The table 1 demonstrates that 88% respondents opined about community police positively whereas 12% said that the concept of Community Policing should not be introduced throughout the Bangladesh. Again, 84% respondents of general people said that the concept of Community Policing should be introduced throughout the Bangladesh whereas 16% answered negatively. In total, majority of respondents opined that the concept of community policing should be introduced throughout the Bangladesh. Causes mentioned by the respondents are as follows:

It will help people to live safely; it is needed to solve the problem of all people in Bangladesh; local problem can be solved by the local people in the best way; it acts as a bridge between police and the people; it is a preventive measure which can dominate crime; it helps to decrease crime; it will help to develop the social security of the local people; it will reduce social crime; it will help to ensure a crime free area; the number of police stations and the police per thousand in Bangladesh is lower than any other country in the world so community policing is needed for social security; at least the rate of crime will decrease at least even if a single portion; they can play vital role to decrease crime by giving social security; as our population as well as number of crimes are increasing day by day; for mitigating crime; though it will not capable to prevent all bad activities but minimum will be solved; involving people from different communities can prevent crime easily; it will demotivate criminal to attain crime; it will help local people to solve their problems; it will increase the public participation; increase interpersonal relationships; to increase policing services; to control crime; people can play a vital role in preserving law and order situation; it is the necessity for the government and citizen due to large population and less police; can eradicate social problems; helps law enforcing agencies; prevents youth to commit crimes and to stop local crimes and mismanagement;

Effectiveness of Community Policing to Prevent Crime and Ensure Human Security

There are many Community Polices in Bangladesh. But are they Appropriate/ Effective to prevent crime and ensure human security. Strategies should be appropriate to attain its objectives. The table 2 reveals that 29% respondents expressed positive opinion. More than half of the respondents (71%) expressed negatively among them most of the respondents said the community polices should have proper training.

Table 2: Appropriateness/ Effectiveness of Community Policing to prevent crime and ensure human security; if not, what changes are needed

Appropriate/Needed changes	Yes			No		
	Community Police	General	Total	Community Police	General	Total
Appropriate	27	31	58			
They need to be well educated				9	6	15
They should have authority				4		4
Number should be increased				8	3	11
Should have good arms				9	6	15
Should have better pay				9	6	15
Should have proper training				18	23	41
They should be assured that they are permanent				5		5
There should have other organizations with community police				4		4
Increasing their power				4	11	15
Should be free of any pressure				3		3
They should be honest					7	7
They should be impartial					4	4
Top level officers should be engaged in community police					3	3
Total	27	31	58 (29%)	73	69	142 (71%)

Post of Community Polices

Community Polices are directly involved in the execution of policy in the field level to control or prevent crime. Thus, the appropriate number of Community Polices is very important to prevent crime.

The table 3 illuminates that 36% respondents answered positively about the appropriateness of Community Polices in any area and 32% expressed negatively.

Table 3: Appropriateness of Community Polices post, if no, then how many are needed

Needed Community Polices	Appropriate			Not appropriate		
	Community Police	General	Total	Community Police	General	Total
	34	38	72			
Below 40				4	10	14
40-50				6	6	12
Above 50				9		9
Each Ward should have a committee				15	6	21
According to the population density					8	8
No answer				32	42	74
Total	34	38	72 (36%)	34	30	64 (32%)

Coordination among the Members of the Community Police

Coordination is essential when multiple actors are involved in the pursuit of common goals. There are a lot of ministries and institutions involved in the implementation of food safety of policies. With proper coordination only, the policies can be implemented successfully. The lack of coordination leads to discord, friction, chaos and confusion, ultimately causing inefficiency and ineffectiveness in the activities of organizations involved (Khan, 1980).

The table 4 explains that 29% respondents said there is coordination among the members of the Community Polices and rest of the 71% said there is no coordination.

How coordination can be ensured mentioned by the respondents are as follows:

Ensuring public police relationship; not having political leaders interference; public will help police; by ensuring public police friendship; monitoring by police officer; creating a coordination guideline; one post of senior officer should be created in this relation; non-political persons should be taken into consideration; monitoring should be increased by superintendent of police; by encouraging them; incorporating honest social worker and leader from the community; taking proper feedback; nonofficial meeting beside formal meeting; by decreasing salary difference; giving proper training; regular weekly meeting; proper formation of committee; ethical and moral teaching; awareness of technology; knowledge about mode of technology of crime; highest priority to peoples demand; ensuring security; making permanent job; making them as part of police; correlate them with local security agency; ensuring government proper support; increasing chain of command; functional structure of modification; relation with general member and proper planning.

Table 4: Respondents' opinion on coordination among the members of the Community Police

Opinion on coordination among the members of the Community Police						
Community Police			General		Total	
Percentage	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
	36	64	22	78	58	142
	36%	64%	22%	78%	29%	71%

Training

Without the proper or appropriate training, Community Police will not be able to perform their duties effectively. So, training is very important for community polices.

Table 5: Respondents' opinion on Proper training of Community Police

Respondents' opinion on Proper training of Community Police						
Community Police			General		Total	
Percentage	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
	18	82	-	100	18	182
	18%	82%	0%	100%	9%	91%

Faced Problems by the Respondents

Table 6: Faced problems by the respondents during performing roles

Problems	Frequency	Percentage
No problems	-	-
Interference of political leaders	80	80%
Interference of leadersof businessmen	40	40%
Interference of police	60	60%
Other	55	55%
Lack of coordination with PGR & SSF in performing duties	5	5%
Total	200	100%

The table 6 explicates that most of the respondents faced problems during performing their duties among them 80% faced interference of political leaders.

Possibility of Replicating Community Policing throughout the Country

Table 7: Possibility of preventing crime and ensuring human security if the concept of Community Policing is introduced throughout Bangladesh

Options	Community Police	Percentage	General	Percentage	Total	Total %
Yes	10	10%	20	20%	30	15%
No	-	-	-	-	-	-
Crime will decrease in large portion	90	90%	80	80%	170	85%
Total	10	100%	10	100%	200	100%

The table 7 depicts that 15% respondents answered positively and 85% said crime will decrease in large portion.

Effects, Challenges, Impediments and Recommend Measures Thereof

Table 8.1: Effects of Community Policing in concerned area

Options	Community Police	Percentage	General	Percentage	Total	Total %
the rate of crime has decreased	100	100%	100	100%	200	100%
the rate of crime has increased	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	100	100%	100	100%	200	100%

Table 8.2: Challenges of the Community Policing that can be faced in future

Challenges	
Local problem	Maintaining a large population
Lack of sincerity among the members	Corruption
Lack of logistics and monetary support	Lack of people's interest
Political interference	Competition among the members
Economical problem	Introduction of modern technology
To solve social problem	Lack of good man
Educational problem	Conflict in community
Interference of police	Change in crime pattern
Lack of suitable arms	Relationship between public and police
Multinational training	Less member
Political interference in the selection process	Mutual respect between public and police
Administrative problem	Negligence of police personnel
Social problem	Implementation problem
They may be used as a political weapon	Trust of people
Committee members can form syndicate for personal gain	Internal conflict among the committee members
Technical problem	Higher officers' interference
Help from the local people	Manpower problem

Table 8.3: Impediments for not Replicating the Community Policing throughout Bangladesh

Impediments	
Lack of support	Lack of cooperation from the police
Lack of money	Police is very much busy with different tasks
Lack of all types of awareness	Lack of political enthusiasm
Political interference	Negative mentality among members
Poor trained people	Political unwillingness
Lack of proper plan	Media role
Lack of logistic support	Importance of community policing
Lack of government initiative	Bureaucratic problem
Muscle power of local politicians	Non-expert force
People cannot trust them	Police department does not want it
Lack of eligible man power	Local powerful criminals
Lack of coordination between public and police	Lack of cooperation from the government

Table 8.4: Steps can be taken by the government to introduce the Community Policing throughout the Bangladesh

Activities	
Sensitization meeting	Proper rules and regulation
Observe the public response regularly	Proper training
Government should increase their budget	Government can arrange seminars or workshops
Proper planning	Awareness program
Print and electronic media can play a vital role	Government can increase public awareness
Advertising in the media	Involvement of good people
Ensuring economic and social facilities	Ensure public-police relationship
Positive mentality among politicians and higher officials of police	Proper coordination among civil servants
Compulsory for police this act should be made	Positive mentality among politicians and bureaucrats
Police should be involved in the formation of the committee	Initiative to attract the youths through incentives and motivation

Recommendations and Conclusion

To make Community Policing more effective-

- The police officers should be made clear that community policing is a working philosophy.
- Development of clear policies, aims and functions of community police service.
- Proper training should be provided to the police officers working in the community police centers.
- Expansion of community police centers throughout all districts.
- Compensation for the best performing police officers in the community police center should be arranged.

Government can take the following steps:

1. Sensitization meeting
2. Observe the public response regularly
3. Government should increase their budget
4. Proper planning
5. Government can arrange seminars or workshops
6. Print and electronic media can play a vital role
7. Government can increase public awareness
8. Advertising in the media
9. Ensuring economic and social facilities
10. Proper training
11. Awareness program
12. Positive mentality among politicians and higher officials of police
13. Proper rules and regulation
14. Proper coordination among civil servants
15. Compulsory for police this act should be made
16. Positive mentality among politicians and bureaucrats
17. Involvement of good people

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18. Police should be involved in the formation of the committee
 19. Ensure public-police relationship
 20. Regular monitoring
 21. Campaign for motivation
 22. Initiative to attract the youths through incentives and motivation.

Conclusion

The Community Policing is necessary not only to decrease and prevent the crime but also to ensure human security and to make the country a peaceful one. There are many advantages of community policing. Such as- help people to live safely; solve the problem of all people in Bangladesh; local problem can be solved by the local people in the best way; acts as a bridge between police and the people; a preventive measure which can dominate crime; helps to decrease crime; help to develop the social security of the local people; reduce social crime; help to ensure a crime free area; the rate of crime will decrease; play vital role to decrease crime by giving social security; involve people from different communities can prevent crime easily; demotivate criminal to attain crime and will help local people to solve their problems. Finally, it can be said that if general people are engaged they can also play a vital role in preserving law and order situation. Thus, it is the necessity for the government to engage citizens due to large population and less police to eradicate social problems and, thereby, help law enforcing agencies; prevent youth to commit crimes and stop local crimes and mismanagement.

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Environmental Crime: A new discourse in policing

Marjan Huque¹, Sarker Omar Faroque²

Abstract: *Environmental crime covers the array of anthropocentric activities that breach environmental legislation and cause significant impact to the environment. Policing environmental crime is a new avenue which involves a wide range of collaborations across many different domains and sectors. The aim of this article is to explore the environmental crime concern of the law enforcement agencies with existing challenges they are facing in the field of cooperation and collaboration. The article discusses issues relating to combating environmental crime with the engagement of the people for their anthropocentric attitude. Finally, the article tries to show that effective coordination among law enforcement agencies is an effective tool to combat environmental crime.*

Key words: Anthropocentric attitude, environmental crime, ecological well-being, eco-centric, bio-centric.

Introduction

Environmental issues have created significant public interest in recent years. Not surprisingly criminologists and other social scientists are now likewise turning their attention to how best to define and respond to environmental harm (Lynch & Stretsky, 2003; White, 2003). Since major environmental changes are taking place on the global scale, with significant impacts at the local level, so too greater urgency and critical analysis about environmental matters has grown. Simultaneously, similar kinds of local issues are being repeated across the globe, making us realise that the global and the local are frequently intertwined and in many ways inseparable (White, 2005).

Environmental crime is not a new phenomenon. It is a crime committed against the environment (South, 2008). According to White (2008);

any action that harms the physical environment and any creatures that live within it, even if no law has technically been broken.

It is more harmful to human than street crime (Lynch and Stretesky, 2007) but continued to be underrepresented in academic curriculum and government agenda and largely unaddressed in the criminological discourse (Wyatt, 2013). Environmental crimes today no longer pose only a conservation and biodiversity challenge. What is crime? -Poaching, wildlife trafficking and the illicit logging, fishing, charcoal, mining and waste trades threaten international security, economic growth and development. In fact, it is estimated that transnational

¹ Assistant Professor, People's University of Bangladesh & PhD Fellow, BUP

² Additional Superintendent of Police, Police Staff College Bangladesh

environmental crime is worth somewhere between \$70-213 billion per year (STIMSON, 2016). These highly uncertain and varying economical estimates say nothing, though, about the harm, abuse, and death inflicted on innocent animals, and it would be wrong to highlight only the financial gains or losses involved in the trade, as this may make one lose sight of and perpetuate the real problem at hand: the massive suffering, species extinction, loss of biodiversity, and destruction of entire ecosystems produced by the unjust and the anthropocentric abuse of power by humans (Ragnhild, 2015). More broadly; environmental crime covers the range of activities that breach environmental legislation and cause significant harm or risk to the environment, human health, or both. Understanding and addressing environmental crime is extremely important. The impact to the natural environment, including ecosystems, flora, and fauna, is often extensive and long lasting (Moore & Luoma, 1990; Peterson et al., 2003). This crime also impacts human health, causing birth defects and cancer, among other health problems (Cohen, 2012). In addition, people living near polluted air, water, and land often report high levels of stress, citing concerns about family health and economic ties to the affected resources (Gill, Picou, & Ritchie, 2011)

Different types of environmental crime threaten our environment. White (2008) views environmental crime through three philosophical approaches, anthropocentric: humans have the right to exploit the environment and other species for their own benefit, eco-centric: damage to the environment is damage to the other species as well putting human race at risk and bio-centric: humans should be concerned about the resources for all living species. Again South et al. (2008) classify environmental crimes into two distinct types, primary and secondary environmental crime. Primary environmental crime results directly from the destruction and degradation of the earth's resources. There are four main types of this crime he identifies; air pollution (burning fossil fuels pushes 3 billion tons of carbon into the atmosphere each year, growing 2% every year); deforestation (between 1960 and 90; 1/5 of the world's forests were destroyed); species decline and animal rights (50 species a day is becoming extinct. 70-95% of the world animals live in rainforests which are being destroyed); and water pollution (25 million die annually from water contamination). Secondary environmental crime is not direct harm, but conflicts of humans and the environment. Involves ignoring governments own environmental regulations and laws aimed at preventing environmental disasters. Day (1991) says that 'as the western states are more concerned with nuclear weapons and nuclear power it threatens those who oppose them as enemies of the state.' Walters (2007) found that companies have dumped toxic waste; e.g 28,500 rusting barrels have been dumped by the UK in the 50's off the shore of the Channel Islands.

Anthropocentric attitude and ecological citizenship

Anthropocentric approach is a human centric approach, keeping human race at the center. “This perspective emphasizes the biological, mental and moral superiority of humans over all other living and non-living entities. Non-human nature is viewed instrumentally as something to be appropriated, processed, consumed and disposed of in a manner which best suits the immediate interests of human beings” (Halsey and White, 1998). It is like of the humans, by the humans and for the humans “ideology of dealing with ecology”. Thus, ecological existence is considered in terms of its utility to humans. Other resources like animals, plant, minerals etc. may be justifiably exploited by humans -not just as a chance, but as a right- for the benefit of mankind. This anthropocentric attitude exists in the behaviors of the mass people in Bangladesh to commit environmental crimes in large scale.

The Constitution of Bangladesh enshrines the “right to life and personal liberty” (Article 31 and 32) as a fundamental right to life. Although it does not overtly recognize the right to environment as a fundamental right, in two cases [XLVIII DLR, 1996, p.438 and XVII Bangladesh Legal Digest (BLD), 1996 (AD), pg. 1] the Supreme Court has resolved that the “right to life” enshrined as a fundamental right includes the “right to a healthy environment”. Article-18A of the Constitution of the People’s Republic of Bangladesh clearly has stated the state responsibility that-

The State shall endeavour to protect and improve the environment and to preserve and safeguard the natural resources, bio-diversity, wetlands, forests and wild life for the present and future citizens.

Though anthropocentric attitude results in environmental crime which aims to facilitate privilege and rationalize the human benefits, yet, the Constitution of Bangladesh, on the other ensures ecological well-being with ecological citizenship.

White (2007, 2008 and 2011) highlights the concepts, ecological justice, species justice, and environmental justice. Ecological justice implies that humans are but one part of complex ecosystems, which should be preserved for their own sake. A concern is for planetary well-being and the rights of other species to live free from abuse and torture (White, 2007 and 2011). Environmental justice is used as a prolongation of human rights or social rights to enhance the quality of human life, now and for the future (White, 2007, 2008 and 2011). Species justice implies that harm is seen in relation to the place that nonhuman species have in their environments and their intrinsic right not to suffer from abuse, whether one to one or institutionalized, or as a consequence of human action that harms habitats, the climate, and the environment on a global scale. Ecological

citizenship (White, 2011), states that the concept incorporates ‘the key concerns of environmental justice, ecological justice and species justice’.

Environmental crime from global perspectives

Many research works have been done to recognize the role to combat environmental crimes to ensure eco-justice is neither a new nor a re-thinking arena for the police. This scholarship implies that eco-justice systems in most countries are poorly fashioned with the weak environmental laws. In this regard, Panton and Meyer (1972) have viewed that environmental degradation requires a wide-reaching and comprehensive enforcement apparatus to deal with this ubiquitous problem. Though the police comprise an established law enforcement apparatus to carry out enforcement mandate, yet their role in environmental law enforcement is still vague to them. However, police involvement in combating environmental crimes is neither new nor “startling re-thinking”. The first line of environmental protection is effectuated by the efforts of the local police. Although the police have been drifting away from environmental enforcement due to the ever-increasing emphasis placed upon “crime-fighting”; yet the police is the logical agency to deal with environmental infractions. As White (2010) has tried to pointed out that the various dimensions of environmental crimes pose particular challenges for environmental law enforcement, especially from the point of view of police interagency collaborations, the nature of investigative techniques and approaches, and the different types of knowledge required for dealing with specific kinds of environmental crimes and moreover, it needs to be emphasized that dealing with environmental harm will demand new ways of thinking about the world, the development of a global perspective and analysis of issues, trends and networks, and a commitment to the ‘environment’ as a priority area for concerted police intervention.

Tomkins (2005) has claimed that the modern police organizations are playing different functions. As well, they are playing a vital role in enforcing environmental laws in many jurisdictions. But, the involvement of police in enforcing environmental laws is different and has various operational principals in dealing environmental crimes and harms from the global through to the local level. Hessing (1996) has emphasized that the enforcement of environmental law is a comparatively new arena to explore by the police. The violation of environmental laws is considered more as violation of essential and basic behavior norms. Thus, the importance of environmental law enforcement is accelerating with the importance of criminal law enforcement. In relation to the environmental law enforcement, the police have to think their task, role and position in this acceleration process. The police have to work round the clock

to combat criminal activities. Therefore they are well placed to observe many things at a time. They are well equipped to trace crimes and investigate crimes. Besides, they have well gripe on their area of operations and have access to many sources. Therefore, they have the capabilities to deal with the environmental crimes in terms of investigation of environmental crimes - both repressive and preventive, apprehension of environmental criminals and collection of intelligence of environmental crimes. They have, eventually, threefold activity, investigation of environmental crimes, supporting the executions and increasing environmental awareness. There are some instances in the world where members of police service are specially trained as environmental police who carry out inspections, investigation and enforcement under a variety of laws and each year they conduct thousands of inspections for factories, landfills and sewerage treatment sites with the liaison of regional offices of the Ministry of Environment (White,2007).However, the role of the police in environmental law enforcement is interpreted in different ways in each of the governmental region in different countries. There is hardly any role for the police in the field of the environmental law enforcement in many countries.

White (2007) has raised the point that many countries have specialist agencies which are given mandate to investigate and prosecute environmental crimes and the police generally play an auxiliary role in relation to the work of these agencies. Broadly speaking, the role of the police in the environmental law enforcement depends on the policy of the state and this policy is largely determined by the various consultative bodies of the state. Neafseym (1996) has argued that the preeminent goal of the environmental laws of any country is to protect the health and safety of the people and to protect the environment from degradation by criminal activities. Though it is critical to translate into actions, yet it can be achieved through rigorous enforcement of environmental laws by law enforcement agency. Realizing the magnitude of the mayhem of the environmental crime or environmental crimes, the law enforcement agency should have proficient investigative commitment which covers surveillance, a complete review of the paper trail and undercover activities though it is resource intensive and time consuming. Mwanika (2010) has argued that environmental crime governance is compelling to mould different police roles. The reason why it has become inevitable for the police is the expansion of environmental laws, particularly at the international level, and the concomitant expansion of the field of international environmental crime and jurisprudence, which in turn has had an effect on national jurisdictions. But in many parts of the globe, it is found that the state gives lowest priority in environmental crime management by the police in terms of policing planning and strategies. However, the high levels of interaction with the public by the environmental or environmental police are enormously

significant in environmental or environmental crimes management. It should have collaboration among the police and other law enforcers, environmental management experts and the community with the relevant environmental crime management capacities.

Other scholarships emphasizes that the strong role of police in combating environmental crimes is not the only panacea to ensure eco-justice; rather it necessitates integrated and rock-solid approaches among different stakeholders to develop a strategy to face the environmental crimes challenges. Many developing countries are now in the race of implementing environmental policies and laws and incorporating those policies in their development process and allocating budgets and manpower to protect their environments. Barrett and White (2017) have gone beyond this collaboration and highlighted that the disruption of environmental crimes can proceed across several domains—from insurance companies to politicians, police officers to officials from environmental protections and they have tried to make it clear that whatever the multiagency do their functions, police has a pivotal coordination role in terms of environmental crimes. Likewise, White and Heckenberg (2011) working on the policing hazardous waste project, have identified that the powers and resources available to specific law enforcement officials vary greatly from agency to agency, depending whether or not police are directly involved and whether or not agents have been granted specific powers of investigation, arrest and sue of weapons to enforce environmental laws and the policing of environmental crimes usually demands a high level of collaboration with non-police agencies.

Environmental crime in Bangladesh

Environmental crime magnetizes the attention of the globe now-a-days for their long term consequences. The violation of environmental laws might be local but the impacts could be felt long distances away. Hence, “it is now becoming a serious problem worldwide in different forms with some of them being among the most profitable criminal activities in the world. The most common crimes against the environment are connected with the unlawful exploitation of wild fauna and flora, pollution and waste disposal” (Sustainability for All, 2018). Bangladesh is not an exception to this. Pollution, wild life trafficking, deforestation, waste dumping (electronic, industrial and garbage), critically endangered species, illegal fishing are common and much talked environmental crimes in Bangladesh. In the context of Bangladesh, the field is almost virgin: so far, no systematic research has been carried out yet. The present environmental condition of Bangladesh is not at all equilibrium. Severe air, water and noise pollution are threatening human health, ecosystems and economic growth of Bangladesh.

Referencing the WHO reports, Haque (2017) has reported that environmental pollution is killing 280,00 children in Bangladesh annually and WHO ranked Bangladesh fourth among 91 countries with worst urban air quality. The alarming situation has been expressed by Islam (2018);

“environmental contamination in Bangladesh is not a theory; it’s a way of life. At present air pollution has reached to dangerous point. According to Department of Environment on 22 November 2017 air pollution index of Dhaka city stands at 269. It is similar to air pollution index of Delhi. Steady economic growth of our country has created many environmental challenges particularly in urban and industrial areas”.

However, in Bangladesh, environmental crime is not considered as ‘knowing behaviour’ or ‘negligence’. The violation of environmental laws and acts might be committed today but the impacts might not be felt or understood many years. Thus, we need to re-evaluate our day-to-day practices as citizens, as workers, as parents and as members of communities (White, 2007).

In Bangladesh, the people are committing environmental crimes whimsically and intentionally. For example, the whimsical behavior of the mass people is destroying the Sundarbans (the mosaic of islands in the Sundarbans is home to many exceptional terrestrial, aquatic, and marine habitats; ranging from micro to macro flora and fauna. The Sundarbans is not only a site of importance for Bangladesh, but is a site of global importance due to the fact that it is home to globally endangered species including the Royal Bengal Tiger, Ganges and Irrawaddy dolphins, estuarine crocodiles, and also the critically endangered endemic river terrapin);--Bangladesh’s lifeline and the biggest mangrove forest in the world—the UNESCO declared world heritage.

Furthermore, the greed and whim of the general people are also destroying the bio-diversity of the Chittagong Hill Tracts-the habitat of the indigenous people. Referencing to the UNDP report; Moral and Islam (2017) have reported;

Rohingya influx threatens Cox’s Bazar biodiversity which might bring environmental catastrophe. The Rohingya camps are damaging the nature in three areas facing ecological crisis- the coastal areas of Teknaf, Saint Martin Island and Sonadia Island and two more restricted areas near these camps -Himchhari national park and Teknaf sanctuary. The proposed Inani National Park is also at risk. There are a total of 1,156 species of plants and animals in the surrounding area. Important animals like elephants, deer, small Indian wild cats, big Indian wild cats, and wild hogs are on the list. Elephants are highly endangered and deer are endangered.

The illegal wildlife trade is estimated to be the second-largest illegal trade worldwide (Warchol, 2007; Zimmerman, 2003; South and Wyatt, 2011), and it is steadily increasing, due to a globalised and expanded market in which the World Wide Web plays a significant role as an intermediary between offers and demands (IFAW, 2008). The illegal wildlife trade threatens one third of the world's species (Rivalan et al., 2007). Bangladesh listed as a major transit point for wildlife trafficking. Moreover, international wildlife traffickers have found Bangladesh as a big source of rare and endangered wild animals like tortoise, gecko, birds and tiger for smuggling them out of the country. The law enforcers cannot check wildlife smuggling as many local people are involved in the illegal trade. As illegal wildlife trade has become very lucrative worldwide, many organised gangs are collecting endangered animal species from different sources for smuggling them into countries including Singapore, China, Hong Kong and Thailand. A report of the US state department listed Bangladesh among the countries which are a major source, transit point or consumer of smuggled wildlife products and their derivatives. In Jessore, the rescue of the zebra was found in search of an international cycle involving smuggling wild animals. There are 50 people, including Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, Thailand, Philippines and Malaysia, besides this group organized in this circle. Bangladesh is using Bangladesh as a convenient way to smuggle wild animals. A newspaper report says that-

The initiatives to curb illegal wildlife trade in Bangladesh remains blunted as the records still show high figures of wild animals and bird being seized by law enforcement agencies over the last five years. A total of 37,039 wild animals and birds were seized and rescued by the law enforcement agencies from June 2012 to November 2016, according to the Wildlife Crime Control Unit (WCCU). Of the total seizure, highest 19,359 were reptiles while 16,979 birds. A total of 374 wildlife offenses were recorded in those five years and only 566 offenders, mostly small traffickers, were taken in custody.

Anthropogenic impacts like reclamation, human encroachment and influence are destroying the biodiversity and polluting the environment in Bangladesh to the highest level. However, environmental crimes are not getting much priority like other criminal activities while Bangladesh has strong environmental and natural resources management policies and regulations. Bangladesh has laws to protect the environment, a national environment ministry and new special courts for environmental case, rightly pointed out by Yardly (2013), yet pollution is rising, not falling, largely because of the political and economic power of industry. Still there is a gap between policy and implementation.

Policing environmental crime

As with any other field and profession, the science and art of policing have evolved and been shaped, enhanced and reconceptualised by the ever-changing social, cultural, political, economic and ecological developments of a given geopolitical space and time. The power to police, as part of statecraft, is a basic attribute of contemporary government that manifests in a vast array of sites of governance, including not only the state itself, but also in other areas, e.g. the community, the household and industry, and in the new realm of the war against terrorism. These environmental threats and vulnerabilities are sufficient justification for environmental policing – a function that is relatively new in Africa's law enforcement system. However, a contentious question is whether it is really possible to talk about environmental policing in Africa, and particularly eastern Africa, at this point in time. The realities of bureaucratic politics when it comes to environmental governance have a huge impact.

Police can play a vital role in enforcing environmental laws to ensure eco-justice from the local level to the global. As White (2010) correctly pointed out that the nature of environmental crime poses a number of challenges for effective policing because environmental crimes may have local, regional and global dimensions and they may be difficult to detect and thus; they may demand intensive cross-jurisdictional negotiation, and even disagreement between nation-states, in regards to specific events or crime patterns. Therefore, police have to think their task, role and position to face the challenges of combating environmental crimes.

Bangladesh Police is the main law enforcement agency in Bangladesh. Police stands against all criminal activities with their efficient criminal investigation skills and apprehend the criminals and bring before to the criminal courts. However, contemporary policing is now problem-solving policing which requires specific kinds of responses for specific kinds of problems and one-size-fits-all policing is not enough for problem-solving policing and this applies to environmental crime policing (White, 2007). Since environmental crime is getting importance and it is not well defined as crime, thus, police cannot play proper role. Police find limitations in this area due to confusing jurisdiction and lack of cooperation with the other agencies.

Environmental crime poses particular challenges for environmental law enforcement, especially from the point of view of police interagency collaborations, the nature of investigative techniques and approaches, and the different types of knowledge required for dealing with specific kinds of environmental crime. Furthermore, many of the operational matters relating to environmental crimes are inherently international in scope and substance.

Environmental crime including wildlife crime is primarily enforced reactively in Bangladesh. The law enforcement agencies have just started their operational activities. But they are getting success in this arena though they need more collaboration and cooperation. White and Heckenberg (2014) summarize the problems of environmental policing as including:

- the local and global nature of the crime,
- difficulties in detection,
- issues with jurisdiction and police inter-agency collaboration,
- the nature of investigative techniques and approaches,
- the need for specialist knowledge,
- the need for greater investment in enforcement policy, capacity and management
- involvement of a range of criminal actors

The complexity of environmental crime means that greater investment in enforcement policy, enforcement capacity, and performance management is sorely needed in most jurisdictions (Akella and Cannon, 2004; Dobovsek and Pracek, 2010; White, 2011b). Collaboration across these dimensions and involving these networks can be predominantly horizontal, vertical, or diagonal collaborations. There is no fixed or usual way in which collaboration occurs. Responding to environmental crime involves a wide range of collaborations across many different domains and sectors (Pink and White, 2016). Networks of collaboration, both within and across national borders, provide platforms for the development of higher-level views for boundary-spanning problems. Networks act as the base for crafting and orchestrating coherent and effective responses, with multiple contributors.

In Bangladesh, to combat environmental crime, law enforcement agencies need to have horizontal collaboration. It requires to forms of collaboration across specific institutional, jurisdictional, and agency settings, as in the case of police officers working with customs officers on particular environmental crime issues (Pink and White, 2016). When responding to environmental crime, horizontal collaborations are those that tend to focus on issues that are relevant to a number of agencies of a similar type or that are engaged in similar activities. They can involve a single issue or a group of interrelated issues. Importantly, there is some scope and variation on how the collaboration is done – the most important aspect is that something is being done. The nature of interagency interaction, at whatever geo-political scale, is also highly contingent upon the extent of engagement in each instance. The process of engagement, given below, can be

seen as being tiered, ranging from least engaged to most engaged:

- networking (exchange of information for mutual benefit),
- coordinating (exchanging information and altering activities for a common purpose),
- cooperating (exchanging information, altering activities, and sharing resources), and
- collaboration (all of the above, plus enhancing the capacity of the other partner[s] for mutual benefit and a common purpose) (O'Flynn,2008).

It is also worth considering collaboration in terms of: who, what, where, when, why, and how. These questions are commonly referred to by law enforcement and regulatory staff as either the '5w's and 1 h' or the 'six loyal servants', since both denote the approach many investigators and compliance staff follow in breaking down and proving the elements of an offence. In terms of collaboration it is important to:

- identify who the relevant partners/stakeholders are,
- determine what the focus (or main purpose) of the collaboration is,
- decide where the collaboration/s might be coordinated from or take place,
- agree when the collaboration will commence and might conclude,
- establish why collaboration is considered beneficial, and
- discuss how the collaboration will most likely proceed (Pink and White,2016).

If environmental crime is considered as criminal offences and there is clear jurisdiction for Bangladesh Police to make cooperation and collaboration with the Environmental Department of Bangladesh and other agencies, then, Bangladesh Police will play an important role in combating environmental crimes in Bangladesh. Though "legislative changes and law reform may provide abstract solutions to environmental harm but it is in the grounded activities of officers and courtroom practices that the law in theory becomes the law in practice (White, 2010). Thus, Cruden(2006) has rightly pointed out that environmental laws have little meaning and fail to serve their purposes of protecting air, land, water and natural resources without adequate enforcement.

Conclusion:

Environmental crime and natural resources crime are getting much attention and is often global in scope and focus upon pollution, wildlife offenses and other

natural resources violations. (McGarrell and Stretesky, 2011). It undoubtedly happens with intention, recklessness and negligence of human being for their anthropocentric attitude (Nurse, 2015). Thus, enforcing environmental laws and regulations is an important ingredient in protecting environment and combating environmental crime (Tomkins, 2005). But effective cooperation and collaboration among law enforcement agencies will bring success in combating environmental crime. What makes collaborations effective and successful are a series of interrelated factors, a partial list of which includes (Pink and White, 2016):

- valuing local knowledge,
- understanding the core business,
- collaborative goal setting,
- valuing different perspectives,
- sensitively challenging the taken-for-granted,
- trust, openness, and honesty (mutual respect),
- selecting the right people for the task,
- leading by example,
- making time for critical reflection,
- establishing the networks and relationships,
- sharing of ideas, knowledge, and intelligence,
- repositories of knowledge (e.g., case studies),
- valuing ‘insider’ and ‘outsider’ knowledge and expertise,
- technology transfers (e.g., forensic techniques),
- setting protocols for information sharing,
- mentoring and capacity building by secondment,
- recognising and adapting to difference, and
- maximising individual and collective potential.

Since Bangladesh Police has started its endeavour in combating environmental crime, it requires resource allocation and capacity building to work collaborately with other national and international agencies in investigating transnational environmental crime in this region.

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The rise of religious militancy and terrorism in Bangladesh: A critical assessment

Mohammad Azizur Rahman¹

Abstract : *Religious militancy and terrorism, one of the major socio-political concerns of Bangladesh today. While Bangladesh has been facing leftwing extremist and ethnic militancy since its independence in 1971, religious militancy has posed serious threats to national security, public safety and economic development of the nation. Religious militant activities rose dramatically from 1999 to 2005, but the presence of homegrown and internationally-originated militant outfits can be traced back to the 1990s. The content analysis of media reports indicates the presence of seventy such outfits with thousands of militant members. However, Bangladesh has not witnessed any major terror attacks in the aftermath of the nationwide serial bomb-blasts in 2005. The country is not even considered as a hub for international terrorism now as presented by the international media and donor parties immediately after 9/11 US terror attacks. The government is adopting mostly a law-enforcement centric counter-terrorism approach which alone cannot root out terrorism, but a comprehensive strategy balancing enforcement, intervention and prevention is needed.*

Key words: Religious militancy, Terrorism, Leftwing extremist, Ethnic militancy

Introduction

Since the mid-1990s, terrorism has become a hot topic for research for national and transnational security concerns. Militancy and terrorism are not new to either Bangladesh or other South Asian countries such as Pakistan, India, Bhutan, Nepal, Myanmar and Sri Lanka. While Bangladesh has been facing left-wing extremism and ethnic militancy since its independence in 1971, it has witnessed the rise of Islamist militant groups and terrorist outfits both homegrown and internationally-linked since 1992 (Riaz, 2008; Quamruzzaman, 2011; BIPSS, 2010). Immediate after the 9/11 US attack, Bangladesh has been presented as a new host of extremism and Talibanization in many international media reports of 2002 (the Far Eastern Review, the Hindu, Jane's Intelligence Review, Time Magazine, and Frontline) and 2005 (New York Times, Asia Times). These reports pointed out the links of Bangladeshi militants with international terrorist groups and madrasas (Islamic religious schools and colleges) (Linter, 2002; Perry, 2002; Habib, 2002; Griswold, 2005; Shahin, 2005; Datta, 2007). However, there is a huge debate on the linkage between madrasas and militancy

¹ Associate Professor, Department of Criminology and Police Science, Mawlana Bhashani Science and Technology University, Santosh, Tangail-1902, Bangladesh. E-mail: aziz_cps@mbstu.ac.bd

(Riaz, 2008; Quamruzzaman, 2011). Most of journalistic and intelligence-based reports have portrayed that religious militancy is a deeply rooted problem of Bangladesh (BIPSS, 2010; Datta, 2007; ICM, 2011; Riaz, 2008; the Daily Star Investigation, 2005).

Located in South Asia, Bangladesh is the 7th populous country and 3rd largest Muslim country of the world having a global reputation as a moderate Muslim country. People of this country are peace loving and God believers. Various militant groups have grown over the years enhancing strengths in terms of manpower and skills, and widespread networks to conduct terror campaigns (Datta, 2007; The Daily Star Investigation, 2005; The New Age xtra, 2009; BIPSS, 2010, 2011; ICM, 2011; Munir, 2011).

The Bangladeshi governments have shifted their position from denying the presence of Islamist militant groups to accepting the menace of militancy. This study suggests that to eliminate the roots of the menace of terrorism and militancy from Bangladesh society, integrated and comprehensive anti-terrorism strategies must be formulated based on the consideration of various socioeconomic, political and cultural factors. The main aim of the present paper is to explore the rise of Islamist militancy and terrorism in Bangladesh. In doing so, it addressed the following research questions:

1. What are the patterns of Islamist militancy and terrorist acts in Bangladesh?
2. What are the underlying causes of Islamist militancy and terrorism in Bangladesh?

Literature Review

The concept of terrorism and militancy

Terrorism is a sociological concept. Following Durkheim (1973), it is a social fact and following Becker (1967), it is a crime as it is labeled. Terrorism is more extreme than most common crimes since it often involves the commission of serious violence against civilians who have done nothing to directly provoke their victimization (Agnew, 2010). The United Nations (UN) defined terrorism in 1992 as “An anxiety-inspiring method of repeated violent action, employed by (semi-) clandestine individual, group or state actors, for idiosyncratic, criminal or political reasons, whereby - in contrast to assassination - the direct targets of violence are not the main targets.” Terrorism has a long history and different meanings, depending on the context and the users. It has been used in various ways such as tactic and strategy, as crime and a holy duty, as a justified reaction to oppression and inexcusable abomination or war on terror.

The term militancy has no clear definition like the term terrorism (Quamruzzaman, 2010; Firdous, 2009). It can be understood as the acts of individuals, groups or parties displaying engaging in violence usually for a cause whether religious, political, ideological, economic, or social. Two traits of militancy include the use of force or violence, and its justification. Insurgency, extremism and militia often have similar meanings or usages (Hamilton-Hart, 2005; Abuza, 2003; Quamruzzaman, 2011; Firdous, 2009). In modern times, militants, terrorists, radicals and extremists are used interchangeably (Abuza, 2003; Hamilton-Hart, 2005).

Explanations of Islamist militancy and terrorism

According to Agnew (2010), much terrorism research showed that strains or grievances are a major cause of terrorism (Agnew, 2010). He argued that strains may include material deprivation, the problems associated with globalization/modernization; resentment over the cultural, economic, and military domination of the West particularly the USA; territorial, ethnic, and religious disputes resulting from postcolonial efforts at nation building; economic, political and other discrimination based on race/ethnicity or religion; the problems (unemployment/ discrimination or the clash between western and Islamic values) encountered by certain immigrant groups; the denial of basic human rights; harsh state repressions over certain groups; displacement or the loss of one's land/home; military occupation of certain types; and threats to the status of working class, white, male heterosexuals.

Hamilton-Hart (2005) provides three major explanations of terrorism in Southeast Asia: religion-driven, politics driven, and pathological. Radical or extremist version of Islam mobilizes violence by using Islam as an emotive force and by distorting proper religious teachings (Hamilton-Hart, 2005). The absence of counterpropaganda through disseminating good Islamic teachings, placing curbs on religious schools, preachers, enlisting the support of moderate Islamic figures, and related failures of Muslim governments in this region lead to the rise of terrorism. Political grievances, repression, conflict as well as social injustice and economic marginalization are emphasized in politics – driven explanations of terrorism and counterterrorism strategies addressing these underlying political causes are paid attention (Hamilton-Hart, 2005). According to pathological approach, deviant religious teachings and religious brainwashing by certain individuals drive to terrorism (Hamilton-Hart, 2005). Anti-US anger, anger at local governments and religious justification of state terrorism killing innocent civilians in the name of war on terrorism are associated with the problem of militancy and terrorist violence.

Wright-Neville (2004) theorized that there is a continuum linking activists to militants and militants to terrorists in Southeast Asia, arguing that movement between these behavioral categories is a function of relative degrees of existential anger and alienation. Most Islamic political organizations are activist groups; they infuse national politics with a more Islamic flavor, and prefer to work within existing political or democratic frameworks. Activists become militants due to their accumulated frustration generated by a sustained period of political impotence. Terrorists are characterized by extreme degree of political alienation. Riaz (2008) categorized Islamists into three categories in Bangladesh - mainstream [Jamaat e Islami Bangladeshi, (JIB), Bangladesh Tariqat Foundation, and Zaker Party who participate in constitutional democracy]; intermediate [Islami Oikyo Jote (IOJ), Islami Shashontantra Andolon (ISA), Hisbut-Tahrir (HuT) who operate within democratic polity despite reservations]; and militant [Hakatul Jihad Bangladesh (HUJI-B), Jagrata Muslim Janata Bangladesh (JMJB), Jama'tul Mujahiden Bangladesh (JMJB), Hizb-ut-Tawhid (HT), Shahdat-i-Hiqma, and Jaish-e-Muhammad (JeM).

A handful number of indigenous terrorist groups and internationally-linked outfits exist not only in Southeast Asia but also in North and East Africa as well as in Central and South Asia, and even Central and South Asia (US Department of State, 2003; Wright-Neville, 2004). In the case of Southeast Asia (Indonesia, Philippines, Singapore and Malaysia), Islamist political groups and Islamic extremism has been associated with terrorism (Millard, 2004; Hamilton-Hart, 2005; Abuza 2003; Wright-Neville, 2004). Al-Qaeda and indigenous groups like JI (Jamaah Islamiyah) posed a potent threat to regional security of this region (Wright-Neville, 2004). The rise of Islamist terrorism in Bangladesh has been portrayed by international media as a deep problem soon after the 9/11 US attacks (Riaz, 2008; Quamruzzaman, 2010). However, over the last two decades Islamist radicalization, extremism and militancy have gained accelerated currency here (Riaz, 2008; Quamruzzaman, 2011; BIPSS, 2010; Datta, 2007; Harrison, 2006; Vaughn, 2007; Rahman, 2004; Institute for Defence Studies and Analysis, 2009). The government has seriously brought the menace of Islamist militancy and terrorism in Bangladesh after the country-wide showdown of force and strength by two Islamist militant organizations – the Jamaat-ul-Mujahideen Bangladesh (JMB) and the Jagrata Muslim Janata Bangladesh (JMJB) in 2005.

Methods and Data

The study is based on the available and accessible secondary information derived from the content analysis of Bangladeshi newspapers and views of

experts gathered through Key Informant Interviews (KII). Necessary data and appropriate subjects for studying topics such as militancy and terrorism is always an issue. As a result, there is hardly any rigorous scientific study on terrorism in Bangladesh. This study is limited as it could not have access to any first-hand data gathered through survey or interview with the convict militants or the general people to unearth the root causes of militancy. Interviewing of the chief executives of the law enforcing agencies such as the police and Rapid Action Battalion (RAB), and of some convicted militants by visiting jails was not possible for not getting permission from the Home Ministry.

The content analysis included two purposively selected popular newspapers - the Daily Ittefaq (Bengali) and the Daily Star (English) and covered ten (10) years of newspaper from 2001 to 2010. Two other popular newspapers - the Daily Prothom Alo (Bengali) and the New Age (English) were consulted to supplement the news reports. Books, magazines, journal articles, and internet publications of related organizations including South Asian Terrorism Portal (SATP) (retrieved from <http://www.satp.org>) were also used for the secondary analysis. Eight interviews consisting of retired key official of the law enforcing agencies (retired), research organizations, NGO's, and civil society members provided deeper understanding of their views on terrorism. The reliability and validity of data gathered from content analysis poses a significant question as neither official data nor the news media are free from biasness.

Findings and Discussion

Number of Terrorist Groups

Different Islamist militant groups have emerged in Bangladesh since 1992 (Barakat, 2005; Ahsan, 2005; Khan, 2007). This study identified seventy (70) organizations as militant or terrorist outfits in Bangladesh although it is very difficult to estimate the exact number of terrorist groups in Bangladesh due to the definitional issue. There cannot be any reliable or accurate list as the groups are operating in different names, for example, JMB is changed to JMJB, HUJI to Chital (form of jihad) which later merged to JMB and another new group named Islam o Muslim has emerged.

Nature of Terrorist Activities

The newspaper reports on major terrorist activities showed that 92 Islamist terrorist incidents occurred between 1999 and 2010 which killed 136 innocent people and injured 2488 (Table 1). The Daily Star Investigation (2005) reports that the JMB activists carried out over 100 operations including murders and attacks. Most of the incidents took place in 2004 and 2005, the number of

attacks has increased from 1999 to 2006, and Bangladesh has not faced any major attacks since 2007. These terrorist attacks targeted cultural groups, celebration and activists, Christian churches, movie theatres, fairs, and Urs celebration (the anniversary of the Islamic Saints), secular university professors and intelligentsia, Ahmadiyya (a religious sect), mosques diplomats, political leaders, journalists, political gatherings, and NGO (non-governmental organization) offices.

Table: 1. Year wise Number of Terrorist Incidents and Persons Killed/Injured (1999 – 2010)

Year	Number of incidents	Number of People Killed	Number of People Injured
1999	3	18	147
2000	1	2	18
2001	5	24	202
2002	10	27	461
2003	2	9	18
2004	9	37	765
2005	32	36	952
2006	18	03	68
2007	7	0	6
2008	6	0	16
2009	8	0	0
2010	5	3	5
Total	92	136	2488

Ideologies and Strengths of Islamist Militant Groups

The aims of these groups vary widely, but religion is their main ideological basis. According to the Daily Star Investigation (2005), the main objective of over 30 religious militant organizations is to establish Bangladesh as an Islamic state. They have some one million members, about 80,000 of whom took training in arms and explosives (New Age Extra, August 21-27, 2009). The strength of major groups (HUJI, JMB, and JMJB) ranges from 10,000 to 300,000. According to former chief of Bangladesh Police, A S M Shahajahan, the strengths of militants are substantial for which attempting a countrywide blast is possible (New Age Extra, August 21-27, 2009).

Militant Networks, Tactics, and Strategies

JMB, JMJB, HT and HUJIB are four major Islamist militant outfits which are interlinked, and leaders of these groups are supporting each other ((Riaz, 2008; BIPSS, 2011; ICM 2011; Munir, 2011). To exemplify, JMB has local intent and connections while HuJI-B is a Bangladeshi chapter of a major international terrorist group. JMJB is an outgrowth of the JMB, others as a youth front of HUJI. According to one key informant, the nature of changing ghost is not only in militant groups in Bangladesh but in Pakistan, e.g., Laskar e Taiyeba (LeT), and Sipahi Sahara in Pakistan). Most of the groups have a military wing. Militants are trained in the use of communication technologies, and explosives. They use latest technologies such as TV and radio channels, websites, internet and CD-DVDs to disseminate motivational speeches, statements, leaflets and graffiti (Quamruzzaman, 2010).

Terrorist Financing

Sources of funding for running militant activities come from both local and external sources. The militant groups received funds from foreign countries, Bangladeshi citizens living abroad, foreign cultural group, charity group formed by Bangladeshi citizens. Not only that some of the Muslim countries (like Iraq, Kuwait, Iran, Saudi Arab) play an active role as donor, NGOs and Bangladeshi and foreign citizens in the UK and USA raise funds for terrorists in Bangladesh. Among the local sources of funding, two respondents mentioned donations in the form of Islamic ritual donations (sadka, kaffara, zakaat, fitra) are used by these militant groups. Terrorist groups use the means of money laundering for transferring money raised in the Gulf countries in the name of charitable NGOs (BIPSS, 2010, US Department of State, 2009). A number of Islamic charitable NGOs local and international are funding madrassas, mosques and orphanage or other programs supporting militants (Datta, 2007; Quamruzzaman, 2010; Riaz, 2008; BIPSS, 2010, Munir, 2011; US DoS, 2009).

Factors and Causes of Islamist Militancy and Terrorism

The rise of religious militancy and terrorism in Bangladesh can be linked to various factors, like domestic, regional and international (Riaz, 2008); historical-political (Quamruzzaman, 2011); and political, economic and cultural factors (Datta, 2007; Momen, & Begum, 2005). Some KII respondents view madrassa (Islamic seminary) education system to be associated with militancy, but others strongly denied as this system has in vogue for many years in the country. It is true that some madrassa students joined Afghan jihad and get involved in militant groups on return and used some madrassas as training camps. This is because the

unfocused educational policy makes them frustrated after completing madrasa education. According to some key informants, unemployment problem, poverty, illiteracy, and ignorance about religious matters (rules and regulations and laws relating to Islam) are the underlying factors and causes of Islamist militancy in Bangladesh. According to one key informant, most of the militants coming from northern districts which are deprived of development are brainwashed and motivated to join these groups for material gains (job opportunities). KIIs suggest that the general public do not support any kind of terrorism and terrorist activities, but some political parties use religion to win elections. Even some people of the religion-based political parties mislead the illiterate people in the name of Islam. Anti-Islam or anti-Muslim treatment or attack on Muslim countries by the US or other western countries as well as the anti-Americanism or anti-Israelis motivate terrorist groups to commit terrorist acts. These findings also correspond to the causes or explanations of terrorism in other countries such as strains including poverty, material deprivation, and unemployment (Agnew, 2010), using Islam as an emotive force by political parties (Wrights-Neville, 2004), and deviant religious teachings and brainwashing and the anti-Islam treatment such as propaganda against Islam and Muslim countries and labeling Muslims as terrorists by the US and Israel (Hamilton-Hart, 2005; Wrights-Neville, 2004).

Concluding Remarks

Bangladesh is mostly a country with communal harmony having minority groups of other religions and indigenous tribal communities rooted in linguistic nationalism. Bangladeshi people are very God-fearing, peaceful and very sensitive to religion while most its people are poor, illiterate and ignorant. Despite the claims of the government and security agencies that Islamist militancy is under control and anti-terrorism measures particularly the banning of militant outfits, surveillance of terrorist financing, arrest and execution of militants have reduced militancy and terrorism, the study findings indicate that there are various issues and concerns over the problem of Islamist militancy, and if appropriate strategy a balancing enforcement, intervention and prevention is not undertaken, the menace of militancy and terrorism may rise again.

The first issue is that there is a dire need to have reliable and accurate data about the background of militants, their locations and mentors as well as the operational headquarter and sources of money of the militant outfits. Although major groups are banned and some militants of the major groups are executed, but compared with the number of militants, groups and the number of attack cases, very few militants are arrested and executed. There are many militants hiding and many are reorganizing. The government should undertake programs

(Counseling, awareness-raising, life skills training and income generating activities) to intervene with madrassa students, Rohingya refugees and others who are already exposed to militancy.

The lack of political will to take bold steps against extremism and militancy is another issue. The culture of customary denial of the presence of militancy, terrorist groups and the negligence of governments led by both BNP and AL is evident. Some politicians have patronized or supported militants and extremists in different times. Before the 2005 nation-wide terrorist attacks, the governments did not take any step despite various terrorist incidents including the grenade attack of August 2004 on AL leaders in the party chief Sheikh Hasina, British High commissioner to Bangladesh. The study also found that intelligence agencies of India, Pakistan and Bangladesh have patronized and facilitated different militant groups in different regimes to conduct terrorist activities against each other. Islamist forces often misinterpret about religion to convince the ignorant and religiously sensitive people to support religion based political parties (JI, IOJ). Even BNP and JP often used the public sentiment in bringing Islamist elements in politics. AL also included JI in their alliance to win election. Politicians should be tolerant and not let the political environment conducive for the rise of extremism and militancy.

Another issue is about madrassa education system. Academic literature and studies (Riaz, 2008; Quamruzzaman, 2011) as well the KIIs suggest the linkage between madrassa education and the rise of militancy though it is denied by some respondents. However, kaomi and Ahle Hadith madrassa students are associated with militant activities mentored by Islamist political parties and militant groups. The traditional curriculum of madrassa needs to be revised to produce graduates with similar academic strengths of the graduates from general stream.

Regional political and economic factors also are important. Due to its strategic geographic location and the reciprocal relationships of home grown Islamist militant groups with regional non-Islamist insurgent groups or Islamist terrorist groups (India, Pakistan, Nepal, and Myanmar), regional taskforce on equal partnership can make a difference.

The issue of Islamist militancy and terrorism is not just a law and order issue for Bangladesh; it involves overriding concern over other issues including political stability, human security, socio-economic development, and international relations. Available public perception as articulated through various media, local and international reports and research evidences supporting such claims is plentiful. Fortunately Bangladesh has not witnessed any lethal terrorist like Pakistan or India and even it has recently not been in the extreme risk categories

of twenty countries as per the latest Terrorism Risk Index (TRI) of 2011 (British risk analysis and mapping firm Maplecroft retrieved from http://maplecroft.com/about/news/terrorism_index_2011.html).

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Religiously inspired terrorism fundamentally different from other forms of terrorism : A critical analysis

Mahfuza Liza¹

Abstract: Opinion persists that religiously inspired terrorism offers distinct features in terms of lethality, tactics, disseminating propaganda or recruitment particularly in comparison to other forms of terrorism. They not only persuade more frequent active violence, and seek to kill in the most atrocious ways like beheading but also deal out acts of violence extensively in time and space. While in other forms of terrorism, mainly politically valuable symbol or entity such as government offices or armed forces have been selected as targets, religiously inspired terrorists prefer more public targets and to create psychosomatic stress on people public places like shopping malls, schools even pedestrian walkway of streets are being used to inflict higher lethality and terror to a wider audience. Furthermore, they exploit sophisticated surveillance technology for keeping an eye on targets. Therefore, the apprehension is not completely baseless that they are fundamentally different from other terrorists. This article intends to analyse the divergent features of religiously inspired terrorism to elucidate the reasons for their willingness to die in order to maximize harm.

Key Words: religiously inspired terrorism, indiscriminate killing, martyrdom, Caliphate.

Methodology

Since no study on this particular topic has been done earlier in Bangladesh and there is only a limited published material in this regard, a major portion of the research has been conducted on the basis of open sources such as online resource including journals, websites of agencies working on terrorism, media articles, various academic publications etc. Books, reports and articles published in international journals and media reports have been scrutinized to collect secondary data and information.

Introduction

‘If you are not able to find an IED or a bullet, then single out the disbelieving American, Frenchman or any of their allies. Smash his head with a rock, or slaughter him with a knife, or run him over with your car or through him down from a high place, or choke him, or poison him. If you are unable to do so, then burn his home, car or business. Or destroy his corps. If you are unable to do so, then spit on his face’- from this comment of ISIS chief spokesman

¹ ADC (Special Action Group), Counter Terrorism and Transnational Crime Unit, DMP [Completed Master of Cyber Security, Policing, Intelligence and Counter Terrorism at Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia]

Abu Muhammad Al Adani it appears that religiously inspired terrorism have some unique traits driven by faith that make a fundamental difference with other forms of terrorism in terms of violence, rationality or rigidity.

There are debates among terrorism experts whether religiously inspired terrorism can be really distinguished from other forms of terrorism. Considering their reasoning this essay intends to argue that religiously inspired terrorism is fundamentally different and more violent than other forms of terrorism since it holds a sacramental component leading to the rejection of any practical, political, and ethical constraints. In order to verify the idea with substantial evidences it will analyze essentials of religious terrorism, its irrationality, manipulation and precise illustrations of religious texts and scripture exploited by fanatical frontrunners.

Defining terrorism and religiously inspired terrorism

There is no universal definition of terrorism and currently 250 different definitions are being used around the world to describe it. On the basis of a range of aspects different states and groups define terrorism inversely. In 1994 the United Nations General Assembly has condemned terrorist acts by using the explanation: 'Criminal acts intended or calculated to provoke a state of terror in the general public, a group of persons or particular persons for political purposes are in any circumstance unjustifiable, whatever the considerations of a political, philosophical, ideological, racial, ethnic, religious or any other nature that may be invoked to justify them'. ¹Ganor has observed that 'Terrorism is the deliberate use of violence aimed against civilians in order to achieve political ends'. ²Laquer commented that terrorism is the systematic use of murder, injury, and destruction, or the threat of such acts, aimed at achieving political ends'. Thus the basic characteristics of terrorism appears to be (i) a means of violence (ii) an approach against civilians (iii) an unlawful act against any state.

Religiously inspired terrorism

Terrorism done on the basis of incentives and objectives that have an essentially sacred appeal or influence is known as religiously inspired terrorism. It may be also defined as the threat or use of force with the purpose of influencing or coercing governments and/or populations towards saliently religious goals. In present days most of the states identify the acts in the name of religion and ethnic identity to be one of the most important security challenges. However, different political scientists and sociologist including Robert Pape, Terry Nardin,

1. 1994 United Nations Declaration on Measures to Eliminate International Terrorism annex to UN General Assembly resolution 49/60, December 9, 1994, UN Doc. A/Res/60/49

2. B. Ganor, 'The Relationship between International and Localized Terrorism', The Jerusalem Centre for Public Affairs, vol. 4, no. 26, 2005

M. Brooke Rogers, Mark Juergensmeyer have described such terrorism as largely geopolitical and contended that religion should be considered only one incidental factor. On the other hand in his four waves theory of terrorism David C. Rapoport has clearly identified religious wave of terrorism with distinct features. He has suggested that fewer terrorist groups with wider recruiting tactics, suicide terrorism, and more deadly attack are dominant features of the ongoing religious wave of terrorism.³ Bruce Hoffman observed that the sarin gas attack in Tokyo in 1995, and the attack of 9/11 on US have revealed the power of religiously motivated terrorism.

Religiously inspired terrorism is predominantly violent due to the fanaticism attached to it which is practiced through the willingness to sacrifice lives for a sacred cause. ISIS and Al-Qaeda are perhaps the most prominent example of groups that can be termed as religious terrorists. Catholic-Protestant violence in Ireland and Hindu-Muslim tensions in Pakistan and India are also examples of religiously inspired terrorism.

Differences as viewed by experts:

Before looking into the answer of the given question perhaps it is pertinent to discuss the types of other forms of terrorism and how the difference between the two is viewed by different scholars of terrorism studies in current literature.

Other forms of terrorism may be divided into three categories: left, right and ethnic-separatist. Mainly anarchist, socialist or Marxist leaning thoughts are known as the leftist. The examples are the Italian Red Brigades, Argentinean ERP, the German Red Army Faction. The groups with nationalistic, racist, fascist causes and goals are referred to as right-winged terrorists, for example-Ku Klux Klan. The groups that use terrorism to struggle for sovereignty or independence from a state or occupying military are known as ethnic-separatist terrorists such as the Jewish Irgun in Palestine under the mandate of Britain, the PLO under Israeli occupation etc.

In current literature on religiously inspired terrorism no consensus can be found on its definition or the way it differs from other forms of terrorism. Bruce Hoffman argued that religion assists to exclusively legitimate and authorize violence but not necessarily explain how religious ideology differs from the Marxist or Fascist one in inspiring terrorist acts.⁴ David Tucker suggested that because of confusion over its definition the idea of “religious terrorism” is not of much use.⁵ Walter Laqueur argued that it is the “new terrorism of the right” and is more related to nationalism than religion. However, the definition neither explicate activities

3 C. Rapoport, ‘The Four Waves of Modern Terrorism’, *Anthropoetics*, vol. 8, no. 1, 2002, p. 7

4 B. Hoffman, *Inside Terrorism*, New York, Columbia University Press, 2006, p. 88.

like Aum Shinrikyo or other apocalyptic, who want to extinguish the world, nor affirm their nationalist demands. It also fails to explain the motives of Al-Qaeda having intercontinental aims.⁶ Juergensmeyer observed that religiously inspired terrorism came to the forefront in 1980s and is marked by extreme cruelty and outwardly irrational incentives and goals.⁷ Immediate and ultimate objectives of religiously inspired terrorism have been considered by Sedgewick. He proposed that “while the ultimate aims will be religiously formulated, the immediate objectives will often be found to be almost purely political.”⁸ This observation is convenient to understand that religious terrorism’s goals are not purely religious.

Findings:

The arguments highlighted in the literature and lack of agreement on features making religiously inspired terrorism unique from other forms of terrorism can be explained by focusing on idiosyncratically religious objectives for which those particular groups are fighting along with the fact of the existence of religious scripture.

Firstly, in religiously inspired terrorism the crucial element of *violence is treated as justified* due to celestial duty of the terrorists performed willingly to serve the religious demand or directions. Thus religiously inspired terrorism undertakes a spiritual dimension, and the committed followers are therefore remaining unrestricted by any partisan or pragmatic restraints that might affect other terrorists. Religious terrorists usually use religious texts as a basis for their actions, to legitimize the message they are offering to a targeted audience. The position of terrorist fighting for sacred duty is raised when their actions are justified by ideological motives that support the views of a wider community and attracts public support. So the divine sanction works as a source of authorization to terrorism.

The divine sanctity is absent in case of other forms of terrorism and there are no spiritual dimension or imperatives as well.

Secondly, religiously inspired terrorism intends to eliminate a wider category of enemy and tends to *large-scale massive killing* to achieve their goals. This war against the enemies of religion is not restricted by time, territory, or a specific socioeconomic scheme, it is against an all-inclusive culture and civilization. Therefore, ‘resisting occupation of disbelievers’ is frequently only one limited

5 D. Tucker, ‘What Is New About the New Terrorism and How Dangerous Is It?’ *Terrorism and Political Violence*, vol. 13, no. 3, 2001, p. 8.

6 W. Laqueur, *The New Terrorism*, New York, Oxford University Press, 1999, pp. 127, 148.

7 Mark Juergensmeyer, “Understanding the New Terrorism,” *Current History*, vol. 99, no. 636, 2000, pp. 159.

8 M. Sedgewick, ‘Al-Qaeda and the Nature of Religious Terrorism’, *Terrorism and Political Violence*, vol. 16, no. 4, 2004, p. 795.

9 B. Hoffman, pp 156-157

phase in a much greater arrangement for a new world order. This is apparent in Khomeini's dream of a wide Shi'i crescent ranging from Iran through Iraq and connecting with Lebanon, or in ISIS's vision of a new caliphate widening from Syria to Iraq and from Spain in the west, Nigeria in the south and Pakistan to the east.¹⁰ Not only empty slogans, these objectives imitate profound ideological pledge to a new world order.

On the other hand, in case of other forms of terrorism, killing a large number of people is not very often consistent with their political objectives though they are capable in doing so. They rarely attempt indiscriminate killing on a massive scale and regard it as nonproductive.

Thirdly, the *constituencies* are different in the case of religiously inspired terrorism and other forms of terrorism. Where other terrorists try to appeal to a constituency variously consisting of real and prospective supporters, members of the communities they purport to 'defend' or the aggrieved society for whom they talk; religious terrorists are at the same time 'protesters and constituents' involved in a total war. They seek to appeal to no other community than themselves. Consequently the checks on violence that are imposed on other terrorists by the yearning to appeal to an implicitly sympathetic or indifferent constituency are not pertinent to the religiously inspired terrorist.

Fourthly, religiously inspired terrorism and other forms of terrorism are different in terms of their *objectives*. Religious terrorism is obsessed by divine, idealistic religious goals. It can be argued that other forms of terrorism are comparatively rational than religious terrorism. For example, the level of ambition the Islamist terrorists possess distinguishes it from other forms of terror, that is, to realize a global Ummah and Caliphate, to form one state for the Muslims and dictate the world.¹¹

Apocalyptic view is also supported as an objective of religiously inspired terrorism. Religious terrorists, unlike others, are not inspired by constructing a superior world, or enlightening social constructs but in destroying the world. They wish to destroy the world and civilization because they have persuaded themselves it will accelerate the return of God, the Messiah.¹² Contemporary Jewish terrorists like Baruch Goldstein, who massacred dozens of Palestinians whilst they were at prayer in Hebron or the Jewish extremist who¹³ assassinated Yitzhak Rabin in 1995 also share extreme malicious ferocity to frighten a community.¹⁴

10 J. Seidel, 'Jihadist group ISIS has declared a 'new caliphate' spanning the Middle East. What is it, and what does it mean?', news.com.au, July 3, 2014, www.news.com.au/.../new-caliphate.../news.../b2521484c739f700a0824e4a50e9fa81 (accessed on 18 May, 2017)

11 B. Hoffman, pp 156-157

12 Ibid

13 H. W. Kushner. Encyclopaedia of Terrorism, California, Sage Publications, 2003, p. 150

On the contrary, other forms of terrorists may have an objective to change regime of an autocratic or fascist government, seeking independence from an unwanted occupation i.e. fighting for right of self-determination, bringing socio-economic revolution, separationist or national movement etc.

Fifthly, they are different in choosing tactics to accomplish the goals. Religiously inspired terrorism is well-known for using suicidal bombing as a tactic. Suicide attacks result in more injury than other tactics as the person is ready to die and great reward empowers them to take more risks and be more destructive, as they are more likely to succeed.¹⁵ Such attacks also enhance the anticipation of future attacks generating a long standing psychological effect. Also religiously inspired terrorists do not have any demand to negotiate. When the US air traffic control tried to contact the attackers of 9-11, they resisted because their objective was not fulfillment of any demand rather they desired to kill as many people as possible. Slaughtering an infidel or burning till death is also a common tactic. A skillful use of internet and manipulation of the social media is applied as a tactic for radicalization; recruitment and execution of terrorist activities.

In other forms of terrorism, tactics to be applied usually depend on the specific goal. People fighting for liberation may target government officials and foreigners residing in that particular area to create attention. Kidnapping and assassination of government and military officials are popular as tactics among terrorists seeking autonomy or separation. For example, the IRA attacked police, militaries, intelligence devices and the Basque ETA focused on attacking politicians and judges. Businessmen or bankers may be targeted by social and economic activists. Demand for releasing prisoners, hostage taking and declaring demands against a deadline or limited scale suicide bombing sometimes also lead governments to negotiate.

It may be noted that though there are differences between religiously inspired terrorism and other forms of terrorism, sometimes it may be difficult to differentiate as religious terrorists may have identifiable political goals that they might negotiate for. Traditional or other terrorists might use religion in order to gain more followers and inspire greater passion.

Analysis:

There are several reasons for considering religiously inspired terrorism to be more violent, irrational or difficult to negotiate: Recent past shows that the decade of 90s was the rising period for most of the religiously inspired terrorist groups who possess radically different values. During the period from 1998 to 2004 religious terrorists committed 6% of documented attacks but were

14 M. Jurgensmeyer, *Terror in the Mind of God*, 3rd edition, California, University of California Press, 2003, p. 4

15 R.A. Pape, 'The Strategic Logic of Suicide Terrorism', *American Political Science Review* (97), 2003, p. 7

accountable for 30% of the total fatalities. ¹⁶Between 1982 and 1989 Shi'ah terrorists carried out 8% of all international terrorist acts amounting to 30% of losses. 0.1% of all terrorists' attacks were done by Al-Qaeda (Sunni) during the period 1998 to 2004 causing 19% of entire fatalities. ¹⁷The main features that distinguish religious terrorism from other forms describe the reason for it to be more violent. Since violence is a sacramental act instead of a tactic it involves a little chance for a negotiation.

Martyrdom has attributed a violent and non-compromising feature to religiously inspired terrorism and has become a persistent theme within such groups. ¹⁸There is a firm belief in ensuring after-death life in paradise by suicide bombers. After the Madrid train bombing, the perpetrators issued a statement in which they said, 'We choose death as a path to life while you chose life that is a path to death.' ¹⁹Ibrahim Ahmed al-Haznawi, a hijacker of American Airlines Flight 77 crashing on the Pentagon building said in his pre-suicide video "Oh Allah, I sacrifice myself for your sake. Accept me as a martyr...we shall all meet in the eternal Paradise with the prophets, honest people, martyrs and righteous people."²⁰

The Ultra-Salafist ideology of ISIS may be referred to as an example that the notion of 'Jihad' is being misinterpreted; its literal meaning is 'struggle' which refers to the inner struggle to refrain from all kinds of greed and immoral acts to serve Allah. Nonetheless the terrorists interpret it to mean 'killing all the disbelievers' and even the Muslims who are not true Muslims as defined by them. Followers of Ultra-Salafist view describe Shi'ah Muslims as apostates who deserve death. They strictly believe that all Muslims must associate exclusively with fellow true Muslims and dissociate from anyone not fitting this narrow definition. Not only that they also consider that failure to rule with Allah's law constitutes unbelief.

Like the Islamist terrorist groups other religious groups are regarded to be more violent as well. Tamil Tigers (Hindu religion) may be considered as similarly obsessive. The Japanese Red Army also committed suicide attacks in Israel in 1972. Serbians represented the veil of Christianity during attacking Muslims of Bosnia.²¹ There are Christian fundamentalists groups like followers of Dominion Theology, which dominates the Christian anti-abortion movement and advocates Christianity. The believers of reconstruction theology are similar to Islamist militant and they also call for a 'theocratic state', consisting Christians only.

¹⁶ B. Hoffman, *Inside Terrorism*, New York, Columbia University Press, 2006, pp 86-88

¹⁷ B. Hoffman p. 88

¹⁸ O. Roy, *Globalised Islam, the search for a new Ummah*, London, C. Hurst and company, 2nd impression 2006, pp. 42-43

¹⁹ J. W. Jones, *Sacred Terror: How Religion Makes Terrorism Worse*, *Psychology Today*, posted on 26 June, 2010

²⁰ Hoffman p. 136

²¹ Roy p 50-51

They also use religious ideology to justify their terror attacks. They believe that Christ will return only if they prepare for His return by providing the social and political conditions necessary.²²

Jewish religious terrorism also possesses the parallel aspects. Hebrew Bible describes ruthless details of violence and more than one thousand passages refer to acting violently or supporting the violence of humans and that more than one hundred passages involve divine commands to kill humans.²³ In Israel their extreme obsession for ethnic cleansing of non-Jews reflects the brutality that is continuing for an unlimited period.

Conclusion:

On the basis of above mentioned discussion it can be inferred that religiously inspired terrorists are more violent and are not willing to negotiate. Some groups intend to end the society and involve in considerable killing to generate political uncertainty and sense of insecurity. Also, through a cumulative infliction of violence, war should be waged to filter the world before the return of a god has become an essential aspect in religiously inspired terrorism. Growth of terrorists groups associated with al Qaeda, such as ISIS, Al-Shabaab, Boko Haram has steered to an upsurge in the reflectivity of violence posed by religiously inspired global terrorism. The goals of religiously inspired terrorism are not short-term, and the terrorists perpetuating these acts do not expect to live to see their goal accomplished as they fight for God and the rewards are vast for those who assist in the struggle- this incentive feature makes religiously inspired terrorism more violent, irrational and rigid and attributes more power to terrorism.

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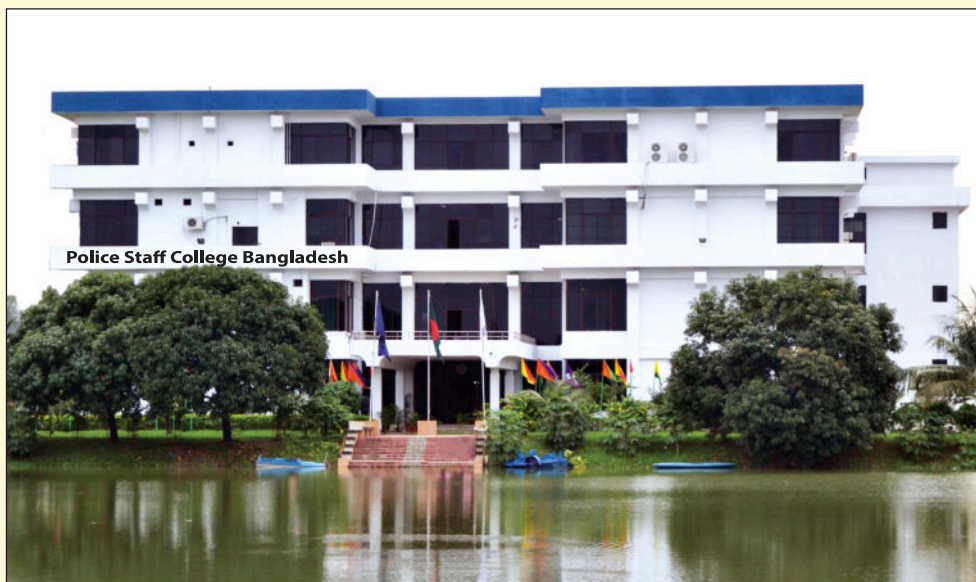
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²² Jurgensmeyer, pp 26-29

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Police Staff College (PSC) Bangladesh headed forward its formal journey in 2000 with a vision "To Maximize Human Welfare through Quality Policing." In 1998, it was initiated by police policy group and within a few years, in 2002, it has been governed by a Board of Governors chaired by the Honorable Home Minister. The Rector is the chief executive of the institution.

Police Staff College conducts the courses for the participants, in particular police officers, to raise awareness about new ideas, thinking, perception, insight and vision to respond to changing needs of the society. The institute endeavors to provide wisdom to the participants to improve managerial capability, operational performance, commanding skill and ability to identify root cause(s) of problems with a package prescription for solution in the context of national and international scenario.

PSC works for the professional improvement of the senior police officers and executives from other security and law enforcing agencies under the umbrella of Ministry of Home Affairs. It provides quality training to the trainees with the help of a group of resource people in and/or out of police, including university academicians, scholars, lawyers, bureaucrats, justice and officers from Armed Forces.

Police Staff College always emphasizes conducting quality research on contemporary issues in policing and national development. PSC has recently launched its academic endeavor with the Masters of Applied Criminology and Police Management Programme offered to the police officers and non-police personnel who would like to evolve professionalism in crime and policing issues. PSC will work with the aim to establishing the college not only as 'Endeavour for Excellence' but also as a regional 'think tank' for Bangladesh Police as well as SAARC region.