Preface

This book develops a better theoretical understanding of the linkage between the process and result within the government dealing with public participation. The prospects of balancing democracy’s goals are at the points how bureaucracy focusing on efficiency and expertise and then it should inline with openness and public inclusion. Understanding these discourses has become increasingly important as many scholars concern a wide range of citizen participation opportunity to more stimulus of public administration (Daniel Lathrop 2010; Spiraki and Nikolopoulos 2010). The mechanism and procedures on Government should be managed on a good way or we called it as Governance. Therefore, this book stresses the continuing importance of the citizen participation towards the local governance.

This book series not only reviews the literatures on citizen participation but also provides the selected cases of the citizen participation in Asia Pacific countries. Each chapter shows enormous evidence and lesson learned how many types of citizen participation move from a direct participation to indirect participation and transforms from traditional to be a virtually participation model. In the chapter one, it shows that the role of NGOs in governmental affairs as the bad governance existing in Bangladesh. This chapter explains the relationship between the NGOs and Government particularly how the NGOs can influence the government policy and support the good governance. We can find several types of the relationship of them and its relation benefits to the local participation.

Besides, the second chapter describes that the method of public participation can be formed such as public consultation, policy deliberation, public engagement, controlling and other public engagement. However, those models have been already changed from traditional approach to virtually approach. The citizen participation on local governance issues is using the Internet. In Indonesia cases, we can learn how the citizen complaining about the government policy,
and students who want to learn and understand the citizen participation in local contexts and in the contemporary period.

We are very grateful to all of the contributors; Mohammed Asaduzzaman, Nasrin Jahan Jinia, Ahmad Martadha Mohamed, Halimah Abdul Manaf, Nor-Aima Serajan Saro-Dilna, Andi Lahur Prianto, Solahudin, Moch Jaenuri, Dao fti Hoang Mai, Nguyen fti Anh Tuyet, and Kim Sunhyuk. While we were preparing the manuscripts, those contributors helped enormously with their comments and suggestions.

We are accordingly indebted to the Board of the Asia Pacific Society for Public Affair (APSPA) and Jusuf Kalla of Government (JKSG). Every effort has been made to publish this book series. We dedicate this book to all of you who wants to learn and support citizen participation and create good local governance. If you have any ideas, please do not hesitate to contact us.

The Editors
Achmad Nurmandi
Sataporn Roengtam
Eko Priyo Purnomo
Amporn W Tamronglak
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NGO and Citizen Participation in Bangladesh

Mohammed Asaduzzaman, Ph.D
Nasrin Jahan Jinia

Introduction

In recent years, remarkable growth and rise of the Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) in poverty alleviation in developing world have changed the discourse of public administration, governance and international development. The role of NGO has increased immensely in most developing countries and thus gained more fame in comparison with public institutions (Haque 2002). Despite a huge amount of foreign aid and consultation and many reform initiatives, the local governance of the developing world remains weak, context less, poor, incapable and corrupted. It has been repeatedly argued that with the existing context-less framework of governance, poor nations would not be able to overcome the bad features of their poor governance. On the other hand, despite all inherited limitations, the NGOs are doing well and have gained more reputation in comparison with public institutions. The irony is that “while the scope of the public sector is being reduced, government spending is diminished, and state agencies are discredited, NGOs have proliferated, their membership has increased, and the assistance they receive from external agencies has multiplied. In fact, the local institutional linkages of government have been weakened by the growing networks of NGOs at the grassroots level” (Haque 2002, 412. As a result, NGOs activities have become influential in world affairs and emerged as an integral part of the institutional structure to address the problems of poverty, under-development, gender inequality, environmental conservation, disaster management, human rights and other social issues of developing world (Bhardwaj et al 2011).

The NGOs in Bangladesh played an important role in complementing the government efforts. Bangladesh is known to be a breeding ground for NGOs with a variety of origins, objectives, and agendas. It has been argued that the emergence of NGOs in Bangladesh is directly related to the failure of the governments to meet the hopes and aspirations of the people (Hasan et. al. 1992).

1
World Bank (1991a, 1991b) claims that the NGOs and civil societies are more effective than the public institutions in reaching out to the rural poor. NGOs are not only reaching out to the poor more effectively, but also are able to deliver services and implement programmes more efficiently. In other words, the NGOs can both mobilize the poor as well as ensure their participation in the programme formulation and implementation better than the public institutions.

Unquestionably, the countries like Bangladesh, NGOs has emerged as an alternative actor of development and precisely recognized with major achievements in improving the welfare of the poor. The industry of micro-finance has its roots in Bangladesh with the Grameen Bank and enjoys international fame. Bangladesh is rich in NGOs and most of them are established with the framework of Grameen Model. The Grameen Model has been replicated in many countries due to its enormous success. In the recent past, in achieving vision-2021, the present ruling party assumes that the NGOs will put forward the development goals of the government and will work as the supplementary force of the government efforts.\(^1\)

Anheier (1990) highlights this actor with social, economic, political, and cultural arguments for its comparative advantage for the developing world. Likewise, Brown (1988) argues that NGOs can also be taken as potentially critical catalysts for unlocking the energies and resources of the poor and voiceless, and for building pluralistic and democratic societies. As a result, international aid agencies repeatedly urge the closer relation between NGOs and government (Brinkerhoff 2002, Young 2000, Tvedt 2002, Clark 1995, Lillehammer 2003, Najam 2000). The most important fact is that it would really be difficult for both parties to ignore each other. A constructive and friendly relation between the government and NGOs is thus inevitable.

However, despite its growing role in poverty alleviation a formal relation between the government and NGOs has not yet been established in Bangladesh. Rather, in some cases, the relation between these two parties has been politically motivated since the independence. The paper intends to examine the relations between the government and NGOs i.e. what has happened during the last 40 years in Bangladesh and how they have seen to each other? We argue that a formal and long-lasting institutional relationship between the government and NGOs is inevitable in order to alleviate colossal poverty and reduce massive corruption in one hand and to provide better services to the poor people on the other hand in Bangladesh. This paper is based on secondary information. Thus, the findings are presented through interpreting and reinterpreting the secondary data.

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**Dr. Achmad Nurmandi** is Director of JK School of Government, Universitas Muhammadiyah Yogyakarta, Indonesia. Currently, he act as General Secretary of Asia Pacific Society for Public Affairs. He has been teaching public organization, urban management and politics and e-governance. He published a number of journal article in reputed international journal and books. He is also Director of Sinergi Visi Utama Consultant, consultancy based company located in Yogyakarta, Indonesia. He has long experience consultant service for Anti Corruption Agency, Indonesia, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Finance, and local government. Email: nurmandi_achmad@ymail.com or nurmandi_achmad@umy.ac.id

**Prof Dr. Ahmed Martadha Mohammad** is associate professor in the programme of Public Management at School of Government, Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM), Malaysia. Currently, he has been appointed as executive member of Asia Pacific Society of Public Affairs (APSPA). He published a number of article in reputed international journal and book. He is editor in chief for Journal of Governance and Development (JDG).

**Andi Luhur Prianto**, is a lecturer and researcher in the faculty of social and political sciences, Muhammadiyah Makassar University. He holds a bachelor degree in political science and government and obtained master degree in public administration and policy from Hasanuddin University. His research interests are local governance, urban politics, environmental politics, and public policy, he has published several articles, mostly in Indonesian, on decentralization, civil society, local politics and governance. He is currently the head of the Department of Governmental Studies, Muhammadiyah Makassar University, Indonesia. Email: luhur_gov@yahoo.com
THE CURRENT PRACTICE OF CITIZEN PARTICIPATION IN INDONESIA
NETIZEN AND SELECTED CASES OF LOCAL DEMOCRACY IN INDONESIA

Achmad Nurmandi
Eko Priyo Purnomo
Andi Luhur Prianto
Solahudin
Moch Jaenuri

Introduction

The Republic of Indonesia is the world’s largest archipelago country by area and by population. It is also the world’s most populous Muslim-majority nation and is home to 240 million people living across more than 17,504 islands in an area of 1.910.931,32 km². Despite its diversity, which includes 300 distinct ethnic groups and more than 700 languages and dialects, Indonesia has managed to develop a shared national identity.

The fall of the Suharto regime in May 1998 marked the beginning of Indonesia’s “remarkable transition from repressive dictatorship to possibly the most dynamic and successful democracy in Southeast Asia” (Liddle, 2012). Far-reaching political, economic and judicial reforms have contributed to the country’s rapid democratic consolidation. A massive decentralization program in the early 2000s has transferred political power to the local level. A member of the G-20 with an estimated GDP of US$ 846.8 billion in 2011, Indonesia’s economy is the largest in Southeast Asia. In the past 15 years, the region’s most populous nation has turned from “Southeast Asia’s economic basket case in 1998” into one of Asia’s most promising emerging markets with annual growth rates at more than five percent. Indonesia’s rapid urbanization, young demographics, and increasingly affluent middle class are driving its economy to become the world’s seventh largest by 2030 (UNESCAP, 2013). Indonesia’s economic growth from 2009 until 2012 of was 6.2% per year with a GDP per capita of US$3557. ftis makes Indonesia a lower middle income country.
Historical Context of Democratization and Decentralization

Democratization and decentralization are two variables that are related each other. Decentralization in some countries has been pursued by national elites for a mixture of reasons, including democracy, making government more efficient, and reducing state expenditure (Selee and Tulchin, 2004). In the history of Indonesia's decentralization, there has been a unique relationship between the central government and local government independence. In the period of 1945-1949, local governments had broad autonomy in managing their abundant local resources. The system of the Dutch colonial administration of the so-called East Indies consisted of a simple top-down structure. Within this administration, around 300 Dutchmen in the Interior Ministry (Binnenlandsche Bestuur) managed the main functions of government in Jakarta (then called Batavia by the Dutch) and staffed the territorial administration down to the level of regency (Furnivall 1944:ch. 9) Local administration below the regency level was carried out by the indigenous aristocracy (pangreh praja), which was led by regents (bupati) and assisted by their bureaucrats (wedana) (Rohdewohld 1995:3; Sutherland 1979). At the beginning of the twentieth century, liberal movement in Netherland pushed new policy to more human colonial policy called Ethical Policy and introduced the Decentralization Law (Dezentralisatie Wet) of 1903 provided the legal basis for this first autonomy experiment according to which the territory was divided into three administrative units (Gewesten, Plaatsen, and Gemeenten). Also in 1903, the municipality of Batavia became the first local government authority, followed by the municipality of Surabaya in 1905. By the year 1939, 32 urban municipalities had been formed (Furnivall 1944:291). These municipalities and 18 residencies (kabupaten) were allowed to form local councils (raad), which were intended to serve the interests of their European majorities (Legge 1961:6).

The Japanese occupation in the 1940s had a radicalizing effect on this decentralization process (Bunte, 2006). First, the provinces and regency councils were abolished, and the territory divided into three administrative units, which ran parallel to the military subdivision of the country. Second, the Indonesian aristocracy (pangreh prajah) moved up into senior positions while nationalist leaders (including Sukarno) became part of the government. At the same time, the authoritarian bureaucracy was extended down to the level of hamlets and households. With this step, “every household, neighborhood association, hamlet and village, all of which had previously fallen outside the formal administrative structure, was incorporated into the all-encompassing single administrative pyramid dominated by the Japanese Army” (Sato 1994:28).

After independence each region wanted broad local autonomy. From
**Eko Priyo Purnomo** is interested in research activities focusing on the process of policy making regarding natural resource management which puts the focus on equal open access to natural resources and sustainability. He is especially interested in how to design and make alternative policy which can give a way to natural resource exploitation while on the other hand sustain the development and livelihood of the community. He did a Master on Political Ecology at Universitas Gadjah Mada, Master of Research on Sustainability from the University of Leeds, UK, and got the PhD on Political Ecology at the University of Bradford, UK. Currently he is the director of International Program of Governmental Studies (IGOV), Universitas Muhammadiyah Yogyakarta, Indonesia.

Email: eko@umy.ac.id

**Ms. Nguyen Thi Anh Tuyet** has been working as a research staff at Vietnam Institute of Economics. Her educational background of financial mathematics allows her to apply econometric models for the analysis and valuation of financial assets. She is presently Master student in Econometrics at the National Economics University. In the long run, she has a desire to study about economic relationships with quantitative methods in order to obtain a deep understanding of financial markets for pricing, evaluation and risk analysis.

**Jainuri** is lecturer in Governmental Science University of Muhammadiyah Malang. He has research about local politic and local government that research about conflict of politic elits. He has studied master of local government in Gadjah Mada University five years ago. Right now, he is teaching local government, public services, and local politics. And also he is a leader in institute education of Muhammadiyah Malang (Padhepokan Hizbul Wathon of Muhammadiyah Malang).

**Mr. Salahudin** is a younger lecturer in Governmental Science University of Muhammadiyah Malang. He is active to research about Political and Government, social movement, and social culture in Indonesia. He has written book, journal, and statement opinion on mass medias. He was to research politic of democracy in Trento University Italy by Erasmus Mundus Programe Year 2014. Right now he is becoming a leader in Political and Social Center of Faculty Social and Political Science University of Muhammadiyah Malang.

Email: udin.pemerintahan@gmail.com