Giving Youth A Voice

BANGLADESH
YOUTH SURVEY 2011

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ACRONYMS

BBS	Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics
BDHS	Bangladesh Demographic and Health Survey
BTEB	Bangladesh Technical Education Board
CSDS	Centre for the Study of Developing Societies, New Delhi
CTG	Caretaker Government
DFA	Dakar Framework of Action (for Education)
DHS	Demographic and HealthSurvey (GOB and Macro International)
DYD	Department of Youth Development
EFA	Education for All
FGD	Focus group discussions
GBS	Governance Barometer Survey
GOB	Government of Bangladesh
HIES	Household Income and Expenditure Survey (GOB/BBS)
HSC	Higher Secondary School Certifcate (after class XII)
IGS	Institute of Governance Studies (BRAC University, Dhaka)
ILO	International Labour Organization
KIIs	Key Informant Interviews
KPIs	Key Performance Indicators
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals (based on the UN Declaration 2000)
MICS	Multiple Integrated Cluster Survey (unicef 2006, 2009)
MOE	Ministry of Education
MOPME	Ministry of Primary and Mass Education
MOYS	Ministry of Youth and Sports
NER	Net Enrollment Rates (for education)
NGOs	Non-Government Organisations
NSDC	National Skill Development Council
PEDP	Primary Education Development Programme
PPP	Private-Public Partnership
PSUs	Primary Sampling Units
SOG	State of Governance Report
SPARC	Social Policy Analysis and Research Centre, Colombo University
SSC	Secondary School Certifcate (after class X)
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's (Emergency) Fund
TVET	Technical & Vocational Education and Training
WFP	World Food Programme

PREFACE

The Institute of Governance Studies (IGS), BRAC University has been investigating various facets of governance ever since its establishment in 2005, and one of the issues which has consistently kept emerging as a matter of both concern and huge potential is the youthful nature of Bangladesh's population. Youth represents one-third of the population of Bangladesh and it is expected to grow to more than 60 million by 2020. The striking and overwhelming impression of the 'face' of Bangladesh is its youthfulness. The question that has exercised researchers' mind at IGS is 'how, if at all, policy-makers are factoring-in the youth dimension in the governance equation?' Keeping that central issue in mind many other supplementary questions have also been raised. This self-questioning of Bangladesh's youth has coincided with the massive political upheaval in the Arab States and, in particular, the participation of the youth in that movement. This external development has injected a strong sense of concern and urgency and has prompted IGS to launch this study on youth.

Giving Youth a Voice, the first ever nationwide survey on youth, was started in 2011. The main findings of the report were released to the media in mid August, prior to the International Youth Day. The final version, as contained in this report, provides an in-depth understanding of young people's perception and experience of politics and society in Bangladesh. The nationwide survey, with a sample size of 6,575, related to such core policies as education, skill development, labour market, information technology. The survey also explored the role of youth within the state, society, community and family. The IGS team has undertaken a thorough and diligent analysis of the data, and this report presents the findings and analysis. I am confident that this report can positively contribute to the future designing and implementing of youth-related policies in Bangladesh. It is incontrovertible that the present demography of Bangladesh is heavily 'tilted' towards youth, and the next couple of decades will witness an opening of a 'window of opportunity' for Bangladesh. I hope it will not be an exaggeration to state that the future of Bangladesh will very much depend on how successfully we, as a nation, engage our young men and women in the different spheres of nation building. The report is also explicitly sending out a strong warning to our present leadership – failure to engage the youth will bring unforeseen crisis to the state of Bangladesh. It is time for all of us to act.

I thank the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation and UNDP's Democratic Governance Cluster, as well as the Affiliated Network of Social Accountability – South Asia Region, and the International Development Research Centre's Think Tank Initiative for their generous support and encouragement, which has resulted in the release of this report. I also acknowledge the unrelenting effort of the core team, Fatema Samina Yasmin and Syeda Salina Aziz, and led by Dr. Elvira Graner, who produced this report, supported by the IGS research team, as well as admin. and finance team. Finally, IGS is indebted to many scholars inside and outside Bangladesh for their guidance and contributions, particularly Prof. Siri Hettige from Colombo University.

Manzoor Hasan
Institutional Advisor

1 Giving Youth A Voice -
Bangladesh Youth Survey 2011

Pathuakhali xi/2010

1.1   The Bangladesh Youth Survey 2011 – An Introduction

Understanding young people and their ideas about politics and social justice is a major challenge not only for policy makers and development practitioners but also for academics. By their sheer numbers, this group is a core constituency for policy makers and service providers. The provision of services, particularly to this group, is crucial in order to support them in setting up their lives, both professional and personal. This has been demonstrated quite vividly worldwide during the past two years all across Northern Africa and the Arab region. Yet, in spite of this relevance, there are only a few countrywide studies that specifically concentrate on young people. At the same time, many of these focus on demographic (and health) characteristics whereas political aspects are usually dealt with rather eclectically, if at all. One extreme example is the youth survey that was carried out in Egypt in 2008. As one of their core findings they state that "Youth in Egypt are politically disengaged" (Egyptian Cabinet/IDSC et al. 2010a, 27).

One study that has addressed youth in detail is the World Bank's World Development Report 2007, as the sub-title indicates, "Development and the Next Generation" (World Bank/IBRD 2006). When addressing the relevance of this report, the authors argue that "missed opportunities to invest in and prepare this generation will be extremely costly to reverse, both for young people and for society" (ibid., 26). From a human rights and governance angle, we would add that it is not only the costs that are detrimental, but the overall violation of fundamental human rights for a social group that is both numerically substantial and socio-politically of utmost importance. The World Bank report focuses on five transitional phases that characterise youth, namely learning for work and life, going to work, growing up healthy and forming families. In addition, they also include a chapter on "exercizing citizenship". At the same time, when analysing global youth policies, the report criticises that "youth policies often fail young people" (ibid. 2006, 26 and 214 ff).

In South Asia, a few surveys have been carried out over the past years, some of them (co-) funded by political foundations. Quite an active group among these scholars is the Dept. of Sociology at Colombo University, who have already carried out two youth surveys, one in 1999 and one in 2009. In India, the Centre for the Study of Developing Societies (CSDS) has provided a publication on "Indian Youth in a Transforming World" (2009), based on their 2008 survey. In addition, there are several other projects that aim at tapping into issues that are crucial to youth. One of these initiatives has been set up by the British Council in both Bangladesh and Pakistan. Taking up the project title "The Next Generation", the core findings of these two studies have been published in booklets by the British Council Dhaka (2009) and British Council Islamabad (2009). For Bangladesh, BRAC's Research and Evaluation Division carried out a survey back in 2006, under the title "Voices of Youth".

While the British Council aims at "providing a snapshot" (ibid. 2009, 2) the Institute of Governance Studies (IGS) of BRAC University, has now taken up the challenge to set up and carry out the first-ever full scale national Youth Survey in Bangladesh. Overall, our project on "Giving Youth A Voice" has three closely interrelated components. One is to conceptualise and carry out a systematic survey among young people in Bangladesh, the Bangladesh Youth Survey (BYS) 2011. The second component is to strengthen governance for youth-related issues, by supporting a national-level policy dialogue with core stakeholders in this field. This includes policy makers, development partners and practitioners, as well as academics, who are engaged in supporting and strengthening youth policies. The third component is to set up and strengthen a network among the core stakeholders at the South Asian regional level.

The Bangladesh Youth Survey (BYS) has been guided by a few key considerations. One was the idea that it should cover the standard sets of topics dealt with in other youth surveys. This considers the main life cycle and transitional phases, as discussed in the World Bank Report and in other reports from the South Asian region, in order to allow for a moderate level of cross-regional comparisons. In addition, we also felt the need to allow for some degree of comparison with IGS' previous public opinion surveys about the performance of the government and its core entities ("institutions") from the State of Governance Project. These have been carried out since 2007, and published as a chapter of the State of Governance Reports (IGS 2007 and 2008), and last year's Governance Barometer Survey (Aziz and Graner 2011).

Overall, the BYS includes a standard set of demographic features (age composition, education, participation in labour markets) and family composition. For the actual youth survey, the crucial life cycle phases and transitions are addressed, namely education, marriage and having children, and inclusion into the labour market. From a governance angle, we briefly summarise the major national policies and legal regulations, and compare the current achievements to policy targets. In addition to these core policies we have also included an analysis of the current Information Technology (IT) policy ("Digital Bangladesh"). The chapters with a direct link to national policies also include a brief assessment of the opinions of youth about some of the core components of the respective policies. In addition, there are the regular up-dates about assessing the performance of the government, in regard to overall performance as well as critical issues such as corruption, as studied for the State of Governance Project.

Interestingly, the title of our study was selected prior to coming across the one carried out by BRAC. Giving a voice had also been an issue for gender studies (Imam 2012 and the World Bank's 2008 "From Whispers to Voices").For us, the title is quite pragmatic and comprehensive. On the one hand, we aim at placing youth and youth policies more prominently into the minds of policy makers and development partners, a need that has already been expressed by several others (see BRAC 2006, Quraishi et al. 2004). On the other hand, we also aim at pointing out that there are more aspects to youth than just the one as a demographic category, an argument also made by Kinjal during our joint regional conference in Colombo (ibid. 2012). Thus, for us, youth is a comprehensive category, not only in terms of their demographic share of the population. For the fine tuning of our survey, and later on also for receiving comprehensive feed back for our analyses, we have also formed a unique network with scholars from Colombo University and with other academics, policy makers and development partners in the region (see below).

One core aspect for our study has been the vast disparities and divisions within the category of "youth". The term includes urban upper and middle class youth in their teens and twenties, with access to world class educational institutions, with ambitions, and capabilities, for "global leadership" (see also British Council Dhaka 2009). Yet, at the same time, the term also includes those who "complete" their education at ages perhaps even younger than their teens, to be followed by an "integration" into the domestic or informal economy, either as unpaid family labour or un(der)paid wage labour. These disparities also have a gender dimension, and, in addition, a regional (or more specifically a locational and district-level) one. To analyse these and to bring these disparities to light is a core endeavour of this project. Only then is it possible to engage in a meaningful, and fruitful, policy dialogue where stakeholders can join hands to counterbalance these grave forms of exclusion and contribute to inclusive democracy. By doing so, we aim at contributing to giving all youth the chances in life that they deserve, irrespective of their gender and family background.

1.2   Youth Surveys and "Giving Youth A Voice"

In the World Development Report, the World Bank defines youth by including a quote from Fussell "Youth is a transitional phase from childhood to adulthood when young people, through a process of intense physiological, psychological, social, and economic change, gradually come to be recognized - and to recognize themselves - as adults" (ibid. 2006, quoted from World Bank/IBRD 2006a, 27). Overall, they argue that the demographic transition "is creating an enormous opportunity to invest more in their human capital" (ibid., 26). Similar arguments are also brought forward by unicef in their report on "Adolescence. An Age of Opportunity" (ibid. 2011a). From a governance and policy angle, youth is certainly a most crucial and critical phase of life. It implies a new social generation which needs to be integrated into society as citizens, knowing about their rights and duties. For doing so, both guardians and the government need to critically support them in optimising their life chances. In terms of age definition, we follow the one common for most South Asian countries, comprising all 15 to 30-year olds.

Overall, most studies on youth point out how unique a period youth is. Thus, youth is usually described as a time of vast personal and educational developments, a time of opportunity and a time of being sheltered by parents or guardians. Some authors, and elite urban professionals based in development organisations and (other) NGOs in particular, tend to refer to youth in rather euphemistic and at times even eulogistic language. In Bangladesh's British Council Study "The Next Generation", Majumder for instance compares young people to "full flowers" (ibid. 2010, 21) and Kabir claims that youth is "the most beautiful time" (ibid. 2010, 12). These descriptions of youth also seem to have been a guiding principle of the Daily Star's Anniversary Supplement on "Bangladesh. Young and Future" (February 2012a and 2012b). This includes a series of short profiles about "successful" young personalities, from across the country and across several spheres of life. Such stories are certainly important to point out, and to maintain a spirit of optimism about the future potential of the country, where youth play a quintessential role (see also British Council Dhaka 2009).

At the same time, these are predominantly, if not exclusively, about the middle and upper class. Yet, there are also quite different stories about youth, and these are the vast groups who are being neglected, by either parents, or the state, or even – worst case scenario – by both. The lack of inclusion, or even more or less open and pronounced exclusion, takes place in many spheres, and education is an early and quite obvious one. Closely linked to it are the difficulties in accessing the labour market and receiving (moderately) fair wages. This is a critical issue in many sectors, whether domestic workers, agricultural or industrial workers, and at times even in NGOs. Ideally, these young citizens, rather than the first ones, should be at the centre of policy attention, whether from the government or from NGOs and development partners. On the part of the government, this also implies the need for the provision of substantial and specifically targeted budgets, as well as mechanisms for monitoring and evaluating whether or not these critical groups are being reached. Only when this happens, will the vast numbers of left-outs among youth get the chances they deserve, as citizens of equal status but with, at present, highly unequal opportunities.

For academics, the first step of such a comprehensive process of strengthening governance for youth policies is to gain an in-depth understanding of the core issues that are of interest and concern to young people. For doing so, there is a need for a sound methodology to tap into this knowledge, by deciding which questions to ask and how best to capture the answers, particularly from those groups with only a moderately low level of education (and "discursive knowledge"). Of equal importance is a profound understanding of how to analyse these vast data sets and how to visualise these for an audience with limited statistical and "visual" literacy. Of core interest for our analyses was to address and understand disparities. Overall, regional disparities are quite

pronounced, as has been demonstrated vividly in our last year's Governance Barometer Survey, as well as any other (sub-) district level analyses (as for instance unicef's Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys of 2006 and 2009). As done last year, we will elaborate on gender disparities, whenever they are significant.

In addition, we also aim at providing two further types of disparity analyses, namely socio-economic and age groups. The latter has been guided by our understanding that there are vast disparities within this group of 15 to 30 year olds (see also Hettige and Mayer 2002 and deSouza et al. 2009). While youth might seem to be a rather monolithic entity to outsiders, it is, at the same time, a period where life changes quite rapidly. In order to capture these changes we have based our analyses on more specific sub-groups of either two, three or five-year age groups (i.e. 15/16, 15-18, and 15-20 onwards, respectively). We also felt the need to undertake some form of social analysis and to elaborate on the vast social disparities. For doing so, we have divided the youth into income quintiles, based on self-reported incomes. These might lack the precision that we had hoped for, yet it is at least a starting point for future analytical refinement (for methodology see chapter 1.4, below).

In addition to the actual survey, the second aim of the project "Giving Youth A Voice" is to support and strengthen a policy process for "good governance". This aims at addressing youth as a most crucial entity of need for support. Thus, our "Giving Youth A Voice" project aims at supporting a policy dialogue, that includes policy makers, development partners and academics, at both the national and regional level. For the national network, this includes those ministries engaged in youth affairs, such as the Ministry of Education (MOE) and the Ministry of Primary and Mass Education (MOPME), as well as the actual Ministry of Youth and Sports, particularly the Department for Youth Development (DYD). From the development partners, this network includes UNDP's Democratic Governance Cluster, and the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC) in Dhaka. In addition, other organisations that are quite active in the field are our colleagues from BRAC's Research and Evaluation Division, the British Council and NGOs, such as Action Aid. In addition to this Summary Report we aim at providing a few policy briefs that address policy areas that are of particular relevance to youth, and to discuss these in policy dialogues.

The third component of this project was to set up a regional network in South Asia. The rationale for doing so was, first of all, to tap into the knowledge base of colleagues who have undertaken similar studies in the region. As mentioned above, there are a few research institutions that have been engaged in youth surveys, in the South Asian region, as well as in the Arab region. Their publications have been quite important in inspiring us to undertake a similar exercise, and also to fine-tune our ideas about the specific topics to cover. In Europe, one country where youth surveys have a long-standing tradition is Germany. There, interestingly, the Shell Company has initiated, and constantly kept up an interest in supporting regular studies from 1952 onwards. Since then, youth surveys have been carried out at more or less regular intervals of 3 to 5 years, the last one in 2010 (see Albert 2012).

In setting up this network, we had the rather unique opportunity to organise a planning workshop in November 2011 in Colombo, at Colombo University. This workshop could be held during the critical phase of conceptualising and refining our survey methodology, and the comments and inputs from our colleagues have been extremely fruitful and timely. Participants included our academic advisor from Colombo University, Prof. Siri Hettige, and the members from his team, Sunjay Kumar and the team from the Centre for the Study of Developing Societies (CSDS) in New Delhi, as well as Deepak Thapa from the Social Science Baha in Kathmandu and Marcel Schepp from the Konrad Adenauer Stiftung in New Delhi.

After completing our survey, we again had the tremendous opportunity to co-organise a joint regional conference with the team from Colombo University's Social Policy Research and Analysis Centre (SPARC), in March 2012. The aim of the conference was to bring together international and regional scholars (from India, Sri Lanka, Nepal, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Pakistan, and Germany), as well as policy makers and development partners with an interest in analysing youth from the vantage point of social and political science. This again included scholars from the Dept. of Sociology at Colombo University and from CSDS in New Delhi, as well as other scholars from the Open University in Colombo, Lucknow University, the Social Science Baha in Nepal, and from the universities of Bielefeld and Heidelberg in Germany. In addition, we could invite participants from cultural and development cooperation, including young professionals from UNDP in Pakistan and Bangladesh, as well as from unicef (Bhutan) and colleagues from the British Council in Islamabad. From the policy makers, there were participants from Bhutan and Sri Lanka, and the latter also included a delegation from the Youth Parliament. For our team, this was again a most fruitful opportunity to discuss some of the core results from the BYS.

The survey itself was co-funded by the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC) and UNDP's Democratic Governance Cluster. Other partners who supported us were the Affiliated Network of Social Accountability, South Asia Region (ANSA) and the Canadian International Development Research Center (IDRC) through their Think Tank Initiative (TTI) grant to IGS. In supporting the regional network, the Konrad Adenauer Foundation in New Delhi was quite instrumental, as they (co-)funded both the planning workshop in November 2011 and the academic Regional Conference in March 2012, the latter together with SDC Colombo and ANSA South Asia.

1.3   Aims and Objectives of the Bangladesh Youth Survey

The main objective of the IGS' Bangladesh Youth Survey (BYS) is to provide an in-depth understanding of young people's ideas about politics and social justice. This includes how they see their roles vis-a-vis the state, society/community and their families. This also addresses their assessments of the core policies of relevance for youth, such as education, skill development and access to labour markets. One policy of indirect relevance is that relating to Information Technology (IT). While the latter does not directly focus on young people, youth are, partly implicitly and at times even explicitly, a major target group. Some studies even characterise the current youth as the "digital generation" (such as Montgomery et al. 2004) – a hypothesis that we strongly question from our BYS data. We also address youth as young citizens, investigating their ideas about political life.

To meet this objective, we have designed a representational perception survey, based on a sample survey of 6,575 youth, from across the country (see chapter 1.4, below). The core analytical contribution of our study will be a detailed disaggregation in regard to gender, locality (as well as district-level), social strata (based on self-reported income groups) and age groups. The gender and social analyses can provide crucial information about disparities in access and also different assessments among different social groups. In addition, we have also further disaggregated age groups into more specific categories of pre-adults (and pre-voters) and adults, in order to gain a better understanding of the substantial changes in perception that occur during this crucial phase in life. In addition, the regional analysis can then identify localities in the country where the implementation of policies is lagging behind and where the performance of local service providers, whether government or private sector/NGOs, needs to be strengthened.

The main outputs of our survey include this comprehensive report and a series of academic papers, such as the ones presented during our joint regional conference in Colombo. A third type of output, particularly addressed to policy makers, will be some policy papers that summarise the key findings for the most prominent policies, namely education, vocational training and access to labour markets, as well as IT. All of these publications will provide crucial feedback from the perspective of an important constituency. In addition, the wider network established along with this project, among scholars, policy makers and development partners in the South Asian region, will, ideally, contribute to discussion and strengthening of youth policies at the South Asian regional level, as well. Hopefully, within the next few years, this will also inspire similar studies in the region, and possibly even worldwide.

Overall, the survey and its disaggregated analyses will be an important contribution to the assessment of youth policies and other social policies. By probing into young people's assessments of achievements, or the lack of them, we aim at providing country-wide evidence for policy makers and policy implementers. Such an analysis can strengthen national- as well as district-level planning, by indicating in which districts in particular the implementation of specific policies and/or projects is lagging behind. In addition, this will also provide evidence for identifying both gender and social exclusion for core policies. By doing so, we will also make recommendations for strengthening policies and democratic governance for young people. Thus, our study will also be a crucial building block to revise indicators for measuring core policies, both at the national and international levels, such as MDGs.

As an expected outcome, more broadly, we see the Bangladesh Youth Survey and this report as a means to strengthen the position of young people. Thus, the findings will hopefully contribute to designing further action and policies in terms of strengthening the democratic governance of youth, in close partnership between the government and the development partners. Again, the regional, gender and social analyses aim at providing evidence for better regional and social targeting. At the local level this also needs to reconsider the institutional set up at the upazilla and union parishad levels and the service provisions by the respective line ministries. When considering sustainability, we also wish to contribute to putting in place a network of core stakeholders from the government, development partners and national/ local NGOs and youth associations. For the latter in particular, a comprehensive involvement and a democratic representation across the country and gender/social groups, will be a core requirement and indicator for success.

1.4   The Bangladesh Youth Survey Team and Methodology

The Bangladesh Youth Survey is again an in-house product of IGS. For quality assurance we have involved several development partners and networks (SDC, UNDP, the Affiliated Network of Social Accountability/ South Asia) in setting up the research and in discussing and disseminating its findings. Our team at IGS includes one national and one international academic advisor. The national advisor is Barrister Manzoor Hasan, the previous director and current advisor of IGS. As an advisor he was also involved in the youth study done by the British Council in 2008, "The Next Generation" and in supporting the network Bangladesh Young Leadership Council. The international academic advisor is Prof. Siri Hettige who was the team leader at Colombo University when doing the Sri Lankan Youth Surveys in 1999 and in 2009.

The team leader of the BYS has been Dr. Elvira Graner from Heidelberg University (Germany), who is currently based at IGS as a Research Fellow. She has co-authored the Governance Barometer Survey 2010 and was also a team member of Heidelberg University when analysing and mapping the Sri Lankan Youth Survey in 1999.

The core team at IGS has also included Syeda Salina Aziz, who co-authored the Governance Barometer Survey, as well as Fatema Samina Yasmin, who was a member of the Education Team for the Anti-Corruption Plan for the Dutch Embassy in 2010. For academic guidance we have substantially profited from the two network meetings held at Colombo University, namely the Planning Workshop in November 2011 and the Joint Regional Conference in March 2012. Both were rather unique opportunities to discuss both our methodology and questionnaire, as well as our core findings with a highly knowledgable group of scholars, policy makers and development partners.

The survey itself was designed by the IGS core group, in consultation with the larger IGS research team, and sub-contracted to Nielsen Bangladesh (see below). In addition to the survey, the methodology also included substantial field work in a few sample districts, in the form of Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) and Key Informant Interviews (KIIs). These were carried out prior to and along with the actual survey. A first round of FGDs was carried out in Jamalpur and Sherpur during October 2011. During the survey (in December 2011) we also undertook field work in Sylhet and Moulvi Bazar, as well as Comilla, Chittagong and in the Chittagong Hill Tracts. The teams from IGS included the core BYS team, as well as Ekram Hossain, Mahboob Elahi Akhter, Rigan Chakma and Nazmul Arifeen, and two local assistants.

The actual Bangladesh Youth Survey (BYS) was conducted among 6,575 households by, overall, 70 enumerators and within roughly four weeks during December 2011. From a population of approximately 140 - 160 million (the first according to current GOB data; GOB/BBS 2011), this implies a confidence interval of about ±1.5 per cent and with 95 per cent confidence level. Based on overall demographic data in terms of gender proportions and urbanisation rates, the sample was based on a 70/30 rural - urban and 50/50 male - female proportion. As regional disaggregations are of high importance for our analyses we requested the survey company to spread their sample size across the entire country, a methodology different from last year's Governance Barometer Survey, when only 33 districts were covered. We would argue that this has improved the representation of excluded groups quite significantly (see for instance chapter 3.3, below).

For sampling, a multi-stage stratified cluster sampling framework was used. The sample size for the quantitative survey was calculated using a statistical formula for each district to provide district level indicators and gender disaggregated information. Population data was obtained from the Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS), i.e. following the population proportion from the last Population Census in 2011. In order to calculate the sample size, we took 50 per cent as P value, which yields a maximum of sample size. The error margin (e) is set at 5 per cent (i.e. a confidence interval of 95 per cent). Based on this formula, the sample size was estimated as 4,740, and rounded as 4,800. As the sample needed to be distributed across all 64 districts, and also provide a proportional representation of male - female and urban - rural, we needed to increase it. In order to obtain an adequate sample for each bifurcation, we decided to select at least 27 for urban and 63 for rural areas. This resulted in an overall sample size of 6,575 youth.

While covering the 64 districts, in each of the districts the lowest administrative unit in rural/urban areas (mouzas for rural and mahallas for urban area) were considered as Primary Sampling Units (PSUs). In a next step, one upazilla was selected at random for each district. In each of these upazillas, one urban area was randomly selected within the pourashava area. In a second step, one rural area was randomly selected within the same upazilla, which was outside the pourashava area. We are quite aware that this sampling technique has a slight urban bias, as it does not capture the voices of youth in areas that are more distant from urban centres. Yet, in terms of logistics it has already been challenging (and costly) to spread the sample across the entire country. Each of the selected PSUs was assessed for their number of population. In a next step, the

mahallas were then divided into blocks, ideally in such a way that each of the blocks contained about 120-150 households. Among these, one block was selected randomly and all the households in these blocks were listed using a "quick-listing" format.

From the quick listing, all the households with young people (aged 15-30) were considered eligible for the survey. From these eligible households, every third household/ holding/ respondent was selected for interview. Failure cases were replaced by the next household/holding/respondent of the selected one, or otherwise the next third was selected. In some cases where more than one household lived in buildings or apartments, the blocks were segmented on the basis of holdings, so that each block contained 70 holdings. In these cases, one block was selected randomly. From each of the selected blocks of 70 holdings, 25 households were selected, following our systematic random sampling. For each holding, one household was considered for the study. Again, failure cases of holdings were replaced by the next holding to the selected one, or the next to next, depending on availability. In cases of a limited number of holdings in a selected block, the selected blocks were extended within the same area. In those households where more than one young person was found, one respondent was chosen at random. In the case of non-response (for reasons such as unwillingness, unavailability or other) the desired sample size has covered with replacement. Overall, the survey is now based on a total of 128 PSUs.

As stated above, the questionnaire was designed by the IGS research team during autumn 2011, in English. After being discussed with our academic advisor, it was translated and (re-translated) into Bangla and a pre-testing of the questionnaire was carried out in mid November. In addition, we had the opportunity to discuss our draft questionnaire during a regional planning workshop in Colombo (see above) and incorporate the discussions and suggestions made by our colleagues from Sri Lanka, India and Nepal. The survey itself was conducted by Nielsen Bangladesh. As a first step, the company conducted a one-week training course, which consisted of both class room training and field trials. After this training, the skills of the interviewers were evaluated and they were allowed to join the field teams, if found satisfactory.

In terms of quality control, quality checks were made by supervisors on a daily basis. Data entry was supervised in Dhaka by a team of statisticians and continuous supervision during the listing and data collection period was carried out, in order to provide consistent and high-quality data. Supervision was carried out at all stages of the survey, i.e. during data collection, scrutiny and data entry. Spot checks and back checks were made by the supervisors and field executives. For proper monitoring of fieldwork and ensuring the quality of data collected, emphasis was placed on the scrutiny of schedules by the supervisors, on a daily basis. Observations of some of the interviews were carried out by the field staff. Spot checks were carried out to verify the accuracy of information collected and visits were made by research professionals to monitor fieldwork and provide technical guidance to field staff. About 20 per cent of spot checks were carried out during the data collection.

The first step of editing was done in the field and, in addition, office editing of all completed schedules was carried out by trained office editors as per the data entry programme. This included coding of open ended questions, identification details and consistency checks before starting the data entry process. Data entry was carried out under the supervision of a Senior Operation Executive and core team members. FoxPro software package was used for entering the data. In the next step, this was converted to an SPSS file for analysis. Computer based checks were done and, based on the errors generated, inconsistencies were removed and the data base was cleaned.

The survey itself followed a structured questionnaire, and this contained thematic sections as well as

a household roster with demographic and economic information. The latter included all members of the households, and their demographic (age, gender, education) and socio-economic profile (such as main occupation). This section was followed by the actual youth survey. As mentioned above, this concentrated on the three spheres of relevance to young people, the family, the community and the state. The latter section included policies for education, vocational training and access to labour markets, as well as the current IT policy, "Digital Bangladesh".

Many of the questions were based on perceptions and assessments. For measuring these, a four point scaling system was used, such as for agreement (highly agree, somewhat agree, somewhat disagree and highly disagree) or importance (highly important, and so forth). This scaling follows the one from last year's Governance Barometer Survey but is different from the surveys done previously for the State of Governance Reports (2007 and 2008). There, we applied a five-tier (or three-tier) classification. Our experience was that, usually, the largest group chose the middle field and thus we now purposively aim at avoiding this, from last year onwards. Thus, we have deliberately excluded the "average" option in order to motivate people to come up with a more specific response. At the same time, this slightly jeopardises comparability with our previous surveys.

Overall, one of our major challenges was that respondents tended to agree (or even highly agree) on most of the issues addressed. This could be due to quite a number of reasons, including what Chambers has captured as one of the six biases (ibid. 1983, 13ff). In social settings, his core argument is that, where there are vast social (and educational) disparities between interview "partners" - i.e. those who conduct the interview and those being interviewed - their interactions might be characterised by a mixture of "politeness and intimidy" (ibid., 21), and thus answers might reflect what the latter expect that their interviewers might want to hear. In addition, we would argue that it is also quite crucial that the level of what Giddens has termed "discursive" consciousness or knowledge is quite low (see ibid. 1995). This term captures "what actors are able to say, or to give verbal expression to about social conditions, including [..] their own action" (ibid. 1984, 374). In societies where overall education is low, a majority of the population might not be in a position to express their ideas, particularly vis-a-vis"foreigners" (from Dhaka and elsewhere).

A second major challenge was to drastically shorten the questionnaire. While reading other surveys and conceptualising and designing ours, we, somehow naturally, kept including new topics and more nuanced modes of capturing and assessing these. Yet, during pre-testing we found that it was much too comprehensive, as some of the interviews had taken nearly two hours. As this was vastly beyond what is both acceptable and feasible we needed to substantially shorten it. Overall, this task was quite a painful one, as it was a process of substantial discussions and compromises. Thus, most of the lengthier questions, such as those about ranking of priorities and open-ended ones, needed to be deleted. In addition, one set of questions that we entirely deleted from the BYS was those addressing health. We strongly regret this and it was certainly not due to the lack of relevance - but rather since we thought that this could, and certainly should, deserve a study on its own.

1.5   Executive Summary

Based on national level data, children and youth have accounted for approximately 65.7 per cent of the population in 2001. Among those, 26.3 per cent are youth between the age group 15 and 30 (based on GOB/

Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics 2003). The Bangladesh Youth Survey (BYS) was conducted among 6,575 young persons across all 64 districts and on a representational basis. The gender proportion was nearly half and half (3296 men and 3279 women) and a rural - urban proportion was 70 to 30. Among the latter, 4.7 per cent of the sample was conducted in city corporations, as we thought that this might provide interesting insights into social change at these localities. Our analyses of the BYS data base is mainly based on gender, locality (and district), age groups, and on income groups, following self-reported income (see below).

The core demographic data indicate that among the youth, the majority of the women have already been married (64 per cent), as opposed to only 28 per cent among the men. Women marry much earlier, while the majority of the 19/20 year old women were already married, this proportion was only reached among the 25/26 year old men. Similarly, more than half of the 18 year old women already had their first child, while this proportion was only 18 per cent among men. At the same time, these ages differ significantly from what youth consider as ideal (see below). Their monthly household incomes range from 2500 to 150,000 Taka. When forming quintiles for our analysis, the lowest income group has monthly incomes of less than 5,000 Taka, the second lowest group of 5000 to 7,500 Taka, and the middle income group of 7,500 to 10,000 Taka. For the two highest income groups we have selected 15,000 Taka as the demarcation line between higher and highest income groups.

In regard to education, currently 42 per cent of the men and 27.8 of the women were still enrolled. On the other hand, 5.6 per cent have never been to school, and an additional 5 per cent have not reached class V. Among all youth, 27 per cent have not studied in class 8 and more than 40 per cent have not reached class 10. Locational disparities for those who never attended school are astonishingly low and are only slightly lower in rural areas (5.8 per cent, as compared to 5.3 per cent in urban areas and 5.5 per cent in city corporations). There is a promising trend that rates of non-attendance have declined considerably over the past decade within primary education, from more than 10 per cent among the older group to about 5 per cent among the youngest group. Similarly, while only 60 per cent among the older group had reached class VIII this proportion has increased significantly over the past 15 years, to more than 80 per cent. Yet, while annual rates of about 1.3 per cent are promisingly high, these rates are not likely to increase in a linear mode. Overall, a considerably high share of youth from lower income groups (and hard to reach ones) has remained out of school, until today. Thus, a social analysis based on (self reported) incomes gives rise to serious concerns. Among the lowest two income quintiles rates of 'never-attendance' stood at 10.4 and 8.1 per cent, respectively.

Integration into the labour market is quite low, and characterised by vast gender disparities. Overall, only 32.4 per cent of all youth in the BYS sample have any experience of work, whether paid or unpaid. Currently, only 27.6 per cent are engaged in paid work or employment (a total of 1,820 persons). At the same time, only 3 per cent classified themselves as unemployed (in addition to 5 per cent where no answer was given). Gender disparities are highly pronounced, while it is about 4 per cent among men it is merely 2 per cent among women. Among the latter, an extremely large group has classified themselves as housewives. As marriage takes place at a rather early age this is also the case among women of younger age groups. At the same time, disparities at different localities are low, but there is, as expected, a strong pattern according to age groups.

Among the youngest age group (15 to 20) less than 20 per cent are currently engaged in regular work or employment but rates increase to nearly 45 per cent for the oldest age group (25-30). At the same time, integration into the labour market takes place at extremely early ages for many youth. In a few districts 35 to 50 per cent have started work before reaching the age of 15. When asked for job preferences, the public

sector has an extremely high attraction (for more than 50 per cent). At the same time, this decreases quite substantially along age groups, from more than 60 per cent to less than 30 per cent. For getting a job, families play a crucial role, particularly for younger groups, whereas friends as mediators are more important among older youth and in city corporations. Labour migration is also an option for many, both men and women. Destinations are partly Dhaka or elsewhere in Bangladesh, and for men, the Arab region is a vital option.

Participation in vocational training has remained quite low, at an average of 7 per cent only. This share is considerably higher among men (at 8.3 versus 5.6 per cent) and in city corporations (10.9 per cent, versus 8.5 and 6.1 per cent in other urban and rural areas). Vocational training is highest among the 20-25 age group (9.1 per cent), and this primarily reflects that average ages of participating in these trainings are 17 to 22. Among lower income groups, vocational training is less frequent (5.3 per cent). Yet, this might be a circular conclusion, as those who have undergone vocational trainings are likely to fall into higher income groups. When assessing vocational training policies, a strong feed back was the need to integrate vocational training and placements in companies.

When defining democracy, a wide majority stated that elections are a core parameter. At the same time, there are substantial gaps in getting registered as voters. Overall, a majority of more than 70 per cent of all eligible youth (18-30) was registered as voters, and registration was even higher among women (nearly 74 versus 69 per cent, respectively). Among the 18 to 20 year-olds the majority was not yet registered, and even among those aged 21 only about two thirds were registered, although they could have participated in the last election. While gender disparities are quite low, regional disparities are much more pronounced.

When assessing the performance of core public "institutions", there is strong support for the military and local government institutions, whereas dissatisfaction is highest with the police and Members of Parliament (MPs). In regard to corruption perception, again the police and the judiciary are perceived as the two most corrupt entities. Regarding crime, the top five crimes are murder, drug and alcohol abuse, dowry and personal property crimes, and all of these are reported as "very severe" by more than 80 per cent. The perception of crime also has a strong gender pattern. Crimes such as eve-teasing, dowry, and sexual violence are more important for women. When asked about the major sources of information regarding the state, youth have pointed out the importance of newspaper and TV news. When asked about their satisfaction with the performance of the current and previous governments, the two politically elected governments, both the current Awami League and the past BNP, were ranked lower than the last care taker government (CTG).

In regard to the recent developments for "Digital Bangladesh" there is quite a mixed picture. On the one hand, there are rather promising developments in regard to the availability of mobile phones. This has spread quite rapidly to about 85 per cent of all youth, a substantial increase even when compared to our last year's Governance Barometer Survey (at 70 per cent) or the British Council's "Next Generation" (73 per cent). Regional disparities, as well as social ones, have considerably declined. At the same time, actual utilisation is extremely low, and many young people re-charge their phones with less than 150 Taka per month. In addition, mobile phones are often mainly used for giving each other "missed calls". At the same time, computer utilisation and internet utilisation have remained dismally low, and highly socially exclusive as they are mainly used by higher income groups only. As only less than 10 per cent of youth utilise these means, we would overall strongly question the notion of a "digital generation", and rather characterise them as "disconnected youth".

Bangladeshi youth have a strong connectivity to their families and communities. Families are in charge of deciding about most aspects of life, including the selection of a spouse. When in need, families rather than friends or anyone else are approached. When asked about life cycle planning, there are vast disparities

between actual ages and what youth consider as ideal. For completing their education and getting married, both are given at about 25, and slightly lower for women. For asking about their leisure activities, we provided a list of fourteen activities, including reading books and newspapers, as well as "religious activities". While many activities, other than sports, had a high level of agreement the ranking that was done as a second step showed a highly concentrated pattern. Religion and reading novels had an amasingly high level of priority, irrespective of gender and other parameters.

For a better understanding of young people's ideas about social change, we have asked them about the acceptance of a few controversial issues. While gender equality, working women, friendship with the opposite gender, and family planning seem to have a general consensus, some others face an extremely strong opposition. The latter include divorce and marriage without the consent of the parents. This was also confirmed when asking them how independent they felt in terms of decision making. Most young people felt quite independent in regard to decisions about choosing employment, how to spend money, choosing friends or exercising mobility. On the other hand, choosing their future spouse showed the highest level of dependence.

When asked about the major challenges for young people, a large number of answers from the open ended question concentrated on unemployment, illiteracy, and lack of money and poverty. At the same time, the ranking of challenges has confirmed this, in addition to concerns about maintaing good health and getting quality education. From this perspective it is of no surprise that when asked about what the state could do to support young people, a large majority (of more than 5,000 among the 6,575 respondents) opted for "improve the quality of education" as a first priority. Other aspects were to create more job opportunites for the youth, although this was mainly given as a second priority.

CHAPTER

2 **Youth in Bangladesh**
Core Policies and Demographic Features

Dhaka xii/2011

2.1   Governing Youth in Bangladesh – An Introduction

For documenting the importance attributed to youth there are a number of core indicators. The national Youth Policy 2003 argues that the youth are "important for the future of the country and national development" (GOB 2003, 1). As is the case in many countries, the policy document also points out that youth "have played a very constructive role in the historical movements and the independence of Bangladesh" (ibid., 2). This is also mentioned in the Constitution, which addresses the welfare and development of youth in different articles. It aims at developing the young generations into an"efficient and productive workforce" (GOB 1974, 5).

One fundamental task, on the part of the government, is to define youth. In the South Asian region, various governments have provided several alternative definitions. In Bangladesh, the Youth Policy defines youth as citizens aged between 18 and 35. While Sri Lankan youth is defined as 15-30 year olds, India has a broader definition, of 15 to 34 (CSDS 2012, 12). The Nepalese government has recently introduced an even more extended version, comprising all those aged 18 to 40 year olds (GON 2009, 15). In their introduction to the Indian Youth Survey, deSouza et al. have asked the blank question of "would age be the sole criteria, or personal and social responsibility, or autonomy from the family, or marital status, or individuality of personality, or preferences with respect to lifestyle, etc." (ibid. 2009, xv). Similarly, Kinjal in her paper presented during the "Giving Youth A Voice" Conference, argued for the need to conceptualise "Youth beyond a demographic category" (ibid. 2012, 1).

A second fundamental, and much more comprehensive task is to conceptualise specific policies that aim at addressing and supporting youth. These policies and the respective programmes should be designed and, above all, implemented in order to focus on the needs of young people, and comprising all sections of society, particularly those in need of state support. An aspect closely related to this is also the "institutional" (i.e. the intra- and inter-ministerial) arrangements and linkages, for implementing these policies and for co-ordinating the various activities. Needless to say, this also needs to address linkages with other core stakeholders, such as civil society, NGOs, the private sector, and development partners. Thirdly, there are the specifics about overall budgets and intra-ministerial and programme budget allocations. The latter, we would argue, is a most critical indicator for assessing the role and priority, or the lack of it, given to youth.

The first part of this chapter will concentrate on youth and child policies. In addition to this, three policies that are of particular relevance for youth will be dealt with in more detail in later chapters. This includes education (chapter 3.2, below), vocational training and employment (chapter 4.2, below), and the IT policy (chapter 6.2, below). The second part of this chapter will then briefly provide some of the core demographic features of the youth, as the main results from our Bangladesh Youth Survey and the complementary focus group discussions (FGDs). This includes the overall demographic composition in terms of age, gender, and marriage status, as well as fertility data (chapter 2.3). Thirdly, we will provide a brief glimpse of the socio-economic profiles of youth, as this will be the basis for our social disparity analyses (chapter 2.4). The latter also includes food security, as monetary incomes might capture the situation of agricultural households.

Overall, our core argument is the need to strengthen governance in fields that are of core importance for youth, such as education, vocational training and labour market integration. For education, UNESCO in their 2010 Global Monitoring Report (GMR) for EFA has placed governance at centre stage, as epitomised in the title "Overcoming inequality: why governance matters". Their core argument is that governance "define[s] who sets priorities and makes decisions in key areas" (ibid. 2010, 119). Similarly, Transparency International in their "Education Watch Africa", defines good governance as "ensuring that the necessary resources [..] are managed in a transparent and accountable manner" (ibid. 2010). From our vantage point, good governance also refers

to strengthening mechanisms of social inclusion in youth policies, and to setting in place mechanisms of monitoring and evaluation, in order to assess these policies, and the achievements.

2.2   Governing Youth in Bangladesh – A Brief Introduction to Youth Policies

In Bangladesh, affairs related to youth fall within the responsibility of the Ministry of Youth and Sports, a classical combination, even in Western countries (including Germany). Prior to its establishment in 1984 sports were administered by the Ministry of Sports and Culture, while the youth sector fell within the responsibility of the Ministry of Labour and Manpower. The administrative set-up of the Ministry reflects this dual function. A crucial department is the Department of Youth Development (DYD), which predated the ministry and was created in December 1981. As a core responsibility, the Ministry of Youth and Sports states that it "has been dispensing its services for the development of the youth section of the population". At the same time, it looks after "the upliftment of games and sports in the country" (www.moysports.gov.bd). For those aged under 18, the Ministry of Children and Women Affairs is the core administrative regulatory body (see below).

When commenting on the definition of youth, as 18 to 35 year olds, Quarishi et al. in their report for UNFPA, have argued that it is regrettable that adolescents (aged 10-18) are being left out (ibid. 2004, 22). They even term this definition "retrograde" (ibid.) and argue that "it is not just a question of semantics. It means that age groups outside this definition will be ineligible for any programme [..]" (ibid.). Generally, we strongly support this argument. At the same time, we also feel the need to point out that overall, the predominant focus by policy makers reflects a rather functionalistic approach. This aims at preparing the youth, and including them, in the national (or international) labour market. While this is understandable, given the scarce resources, youth policies also need to (re-) consider broader issues that are of relevance for this age group, other than education, sports, and (reproductive) health. Generally, in many countries, budget allocations tend to be channeled to these specific sub-sectors, rather than youth issues in more general terms.

The joint ministry states its vision and mission on their website, and these reflect the dual functions. As their "Vision" they see "Capable youth with employment for nation-building activities; dynamic sports for recreation and health of the nation" (www.moysports.gov.bd/ missionandvision.html). Similarly, their "Mission" is specified as "[..] to transform the youth into efficient human resources through training and credit to ensure their participation in socio-economic development and other nation-building activities" (ibid.). For sports, they state that "Our goal is to attain world-class standard in sports through development of sports infrastructure as well as fostering of real talents with all sorts of facilities home and abroad" (ibid.). Overall, the Ministry's website lists 22 major activities, and while the first 8 refer to youth and their development, the vast part deals with sports, starting off with the "Promotion and development of games and sports" (ibid.), also including the exchange of sports teams with foreign countries and even pensions to sportsmen.

The budget is not specified on the website. Instead there is a vague reference that it is "funded by the Ministry of Finance" (ibid.). Quraishi et al. in their analysis state, somewhat ironically, that "in terms of funding priority, it is observed that only 0.30 per cent of the total budget was directly allocated to the Department of Youth Development though the youth constitute nearly 42 per cent of the total population" (ibid. 2004, 7). Similarly, the annual budget speech of the Finance Minister also provides extremely limited information about either activities or budgets (GOB/Ministry of Finance 2010, 52ff). Limited to less than one page and all together two paragraphs (of less than 300 words), the main information is about a national level training scheme. This "National Service" was launched in Kurigram district during the fiscal year 2010/11. For further information

they state that "This is basically a training program and is intended to generate temporary employment for the youth [..]. Through this count[r]ywide program, our aim is to turn the unemployed and educated youth into skilled workforce through employment or self-employment as well as ensure their contribution in nation building activities" (ibid., 53). As a target for the fiscal year 2010/11 they aim at 79,452 persons who "will be trained and provided with temporary employment" (ibid.).

As is often the case, the larger proportion of this section of the budget speech deals with sports, and this is likely to reflect overall priorities, and budget allocations. The budget speech points out to its importance, arguing that "sports is also one of the key means for developing people's creativity in a country. It is essential to practice and nurture these two pursuits for improving physical capacity and fitness as well as developing intelligence and intellect" (ibid.). They also point out the successful organisation of the South Asian Games, and of course the International Cricket Cup, and the success of Bangladeshi sports persons. From a gender and socio-economic perspective, it would be quite interesting to analyse participation by gender and low-income groups in all these programmes, and thus to investigate gender and social inclusion, or possibly rather exclusion. In terms of overall budget allocations, the Ministry of Youth and Sports has a moderate level of overall funds, although the development proportion is comparatively high (see Figure 2.1).
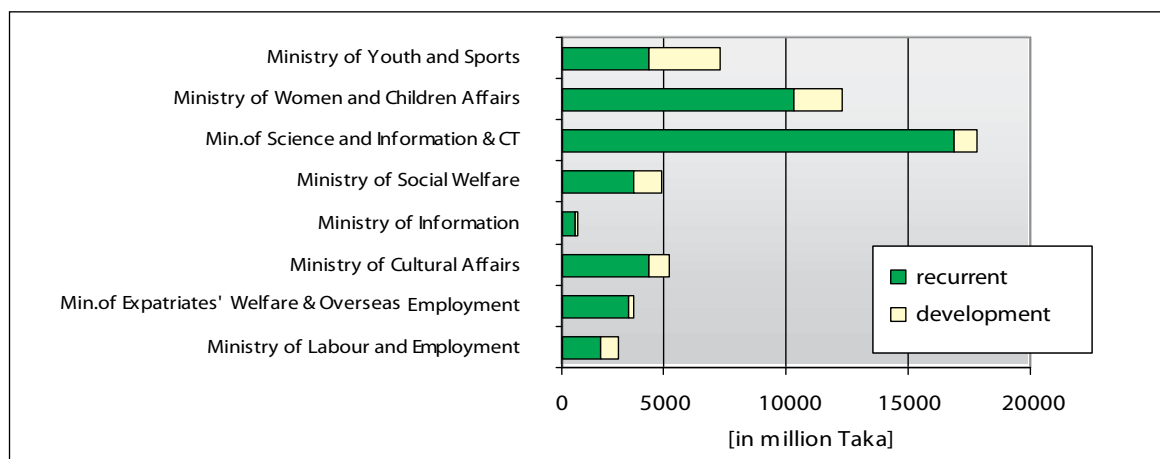
Figure 2.1   Annual budget for different ministries (for 2010/11; GOB/MOF 2010)

One of the core functions of the Ministry, as any other ministry, is to draft policies and legislations. The National Youth Policy was formulated during the last BNP government and was publicly announced in 2003. Until today, it has remained a draft, posted on the website of the Ministry of Youth and Sports. Whether or not it will ever be adopted as an Act remains a crucial question. More generally, the National Youth Policy starts off by addressing the need for creating a sense of patriotism and respect among the youth towards the Constitution, history, heritage and the country. It intends to create appropriate opportunities of employment, self-employment and entrepreneurship for the youth. It also addresses the need to create opportunities for women to participate in mainstream development and decision making processes. It plans to take steps to create leadership qualities among the youth. Acknowledging the advancement of the global IT sector, it also aims at expanding IT facilities for the youth, an aspect that is also of relevance for the current government's "Digital Bangladesh" Policy (GOB 2011), an issue we will take up in a later chapter (see chapter 6.2, below).

The National Youth Policy provides a long list of factors that contribute to the youth' problems, such as "existing poor practical education, incompletion of formal education (dropout), negative attitude towards supply of labour, different types of unemployment, involvement of youths in antisocial and immoral activities including AIDS and drug addiction, unawareness in health care, scarcity of credit and less scope for undertaking self-employment project, backwardness in technology, inefficiency in IT, absence of favorable environment in the fields of sports and games and sound recreations, lack of sense of responsibility to family and society, moral degradation etc." (ibid., 2). It also argues that it is essential to emphasise the opinions of the youth regarding these problems. Yet, in spite of this, the policy does not elaborate on how to incorporate young people's views and opinions. It argues for the need to provide youth with basic needs, work, rest and recreation and the opportunity to participate in decision making processes.

At the same time, the policy does provide a detailed list of the responsibilities of the youth about how they should work for the betterment of the country. This includes "to have respect on national unity, social solidarity, general consensus, tolerance and law and order, to strengthen themselves for self-dependence and creativity by having regular education, training and other fruitful exercises, to enrich and preserve all historical and cultural heritage, to create good mentality to pay respect and good services to women, children, elders, the handicaped and neglected people, to work as ambassadors of national, regional and international development, to ascertain the rights and interests of future generation by dint of present performance, to play pivotal role in creating a wealthy society free of terrorism, social injustice, exploitation, corruption and crime" (ibid., 2-3). The National Youth Policy also provides several recommendations on how to improve the lives of Bangladeshi youth and how they can be incorporated into the mainstream development process. In terms of strengthening gender policies, the policy gives adequate attention to young women. It intends to give them equal opportunities in all decision making processes including "education, health [..] and cultural amenities of life" (ibid., 3). In addition, it suggests taking necessary steps to protect women from all kinds of violation.

In terms of "institutional" (or rather organisational), changes, the policy recommends the establishment of two bodies in order to enhance the development of the youth. One is to establish a research and statistics centre within the Ministry's Department of Youth Development, and secondly a non-government central body "to maintain" coordination among voluntary youth organisations. More importantly, the National Youth Policy recommends the formation of a high powered committee, headed by the Prime Minister, for the smooth implementation of the policy. In addition, it suggests that an inter-ministerial committee with representatives from the youth community will implement and monitor the policy. Again, it places the Ministry of Youth and Sports for being responsible for implementing, monitoring and reviewing the national policy.

For children and adolescents under the age of 18, the Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs is in charge of drafting policies and legislation. In addition, crucial sectoral ministries are the Ministry of Education (MOE) and the Ministry of Primary and Mass Education (MOPME), and their policies will be dealt with later (see chapter 3.2, below). The core policy document for children is the Child Policy 2011, a revised up-date from the 1994 Policy. The new Policy starts by stating that children are the foundation of nation building. Recognising their importance, Article 28 (4) of the Constitution stresses the rights of the child, with emphasis on the need to ensure free and mandatory primary education. The Child Law was developed in 1974 in order to ensure the overall security and rights of children. At the global level, Bangladesh became one of the first signatory countries of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) in 1990.

The current Child Policy also elaborates on the success story of the Awami League government in achieving the UN Millennium Award 2010 for reducing maternal and child mortality. It points out that Bangladesh was able to achieve MDG-3 by ensuring gender equality in primary level of education (an aspect that we will critically discuss in chapter 3, below). The need for a revised policy is emphasised by arguing that "the world has faced many changes and developments, new demands have been created for advancement as well as the recommendations of CRC Committee" (GOB/Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs 2011, 4). The policy is to serve as a long term vision for building up the present and future of children and it is to be considered with attention during any policy formulation, planning, implementation and budget preparation. At the same time, we would argue that it is a gross shortcoming not to address any potential links and overlaps to the Youth Policy.

While the Youth Policy is quite comprehensive, it does not provide specific guidelines on how the various committees will be formed, or how the committees could function independently while the Ministry of Youth and Sports is in charge of implementing and monitoring the policy. It is also quite silent about the way the representatives from youth will be chosen. We would argue that one flaw of the policy is that it does not specify how the proposed steps can be put into practice. One piece of evidence to support our argument, is the policy that skill development and self-employment opportunities will be extended throughout the country. These facilities are to be provided by both government and non-government bodies. The policy points out the steps, such as establishing training institutes, which are expected to provide quality training and options for income generation. Yet, it does not place any specific government agency in charge of these duties.

Overall, the Youth Policy also wants to ensure the participation of youth in all decision making processes, for the overall development of the country. The policy mentions that registered youth organisations will be given financial support to implement youth advocacy. Yet again, there is no further specification about the selection criteria for these youth organisations that could receive such support. Similarly, in regard to employment, the policies and actions needed to create employment, particularly for youth, are praiseworthy. At the same time, the policy does not mention how these comprehensive steps should be implemented nor does it give any directive for budget allocations. Overall, we would argue that the National Youth Policy needs quite substantial revisions, in order to make it practical.

2.3   Bangladeshi Youth - A Brief Demographic Profile

In order to have a better understanding of youth, some analysis of the core demographic and socio-economic composition is essential. In our survey, these data have been collected in two different sections of the questionnaire. The first part included a complete household roster, of the entire family members and their household income/s (n = 32,546 family members). This follows the methodology of our last year's Governance Barometer Survey (GBS). The second and core part is the actual Bangladesh Youth Survey (BYS), and this has included interviews with 6,575 youth. This section will briefly summarise the core data in terms of the major demographic life cycle parameters, such as marriage status and fertility. Other important demographic data, such as education and work, will be dealt with in more detail in later chapters (see chapters 3.3 and 4.3, below).

As elaborated in the methodology chapter, the sampling followed a representational model based on the overall population composition, of 30 per cent in urban and 70 per cent in rural areas (see chapter 1.4, above). In our sample, the gender proportion was nearly equal. The age groups were slightly distorted towards younger

groups, particularly the 17/18 age group. A second aspect of distortion, particularly among women, is that ages are usually reported as rounded figures. Thus, the proportion of 20 and 25-year olds is disproportionally high (see Figures 2.2 and even more so Figure 5.1, below). Among the youth, the majority of the women are already married (64 per cent), as opposed to only 28 per cent among the men. Gender disparities for fertility were even higher, while already more than 50 per cent of the women had their first child, this proportion was only 18 per cent among men.

In terms of marriage status, there is an age gap of nearly five years. Whereas the majority of the 19/20 year old women were already married, this proportion was only one tenth among young men (i.e. a gender disparity index of nearly 5). By the age of 21, the share among women even increases to two thirds, while among men this proportion was only reached among the 27/28 year olds, where about half are married from about 25 onwards (see Figure 2.2). Similarly, while more than half of the 18 year old women had already had their first child, the share among young men was quite low, even among those aged 25 to 30. While the Pakistan-era Marriage Act (1961) specifies the minimum age for women as 18 and for men as 21, many marriages, particularly for women, take place at an earlier age.
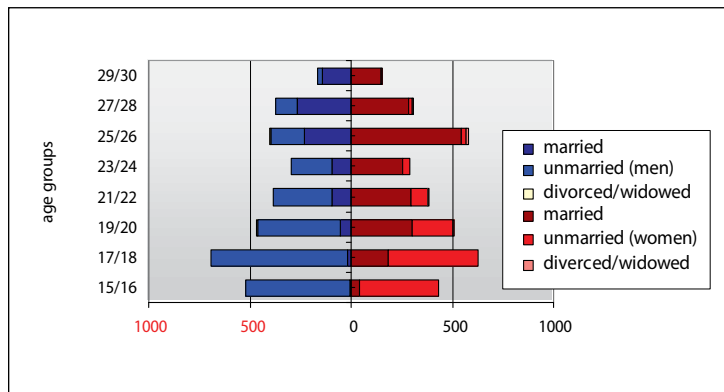
Figure 2.2   Demographic profile of youth from the sample getting married (by gender and age groups)
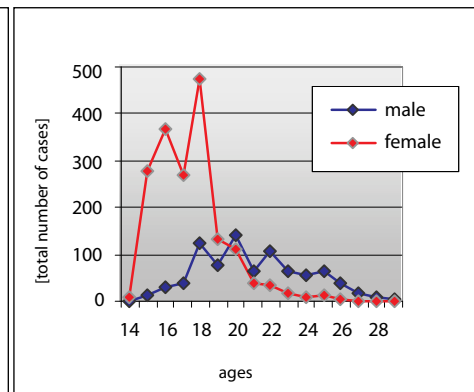
Figure 2.3   Demographic profile of getting married (by age group and gender)

In addition to these gender disparities, locational disparities, and even more so regional ones, are quite pronounced (see below). Overall, one of the interesting findings of this survey are the vast discrepancies in terms of ideal ages for these life cycle events and the actual ages among the respondents (for a detailed account see chapter 7.8, below). This pattern can be partly explained by a longer period of education for young male adolescents (see chapter 3.4, below). Yet, at the same time, among 18-year olds, less than 60 per cent are still engaged in education (for details see chapter 3.3. below).

Early marriage among girls is quite a crucial indicator for gender disparities. While some are 16 or 17, quite a few are also younger than that. For a more detailed analysis, we have disaggregated this core demographic variable at a district level, as well. These disaggregations show that in about one quarter of all districts, rates of early marriage (at younger than 16) are at about 20 to 30 per cent, and in two cases even higher (in Rajshahi and Satkira, at 32 per cent each). At the same time, in quite a few districts early marriage is not a pronounced phenomenon. There, percentages are at less than 10 per cent. While overall, these data are quite alarming, there have been, at the same time, some rather rapid changes over the past decade. Thus, while early marriages were not an exception among women aged 25 to 30, in the younger age groups (younger than 20), these instances have declined quite considerably (for detailed data see Table A1, annex).
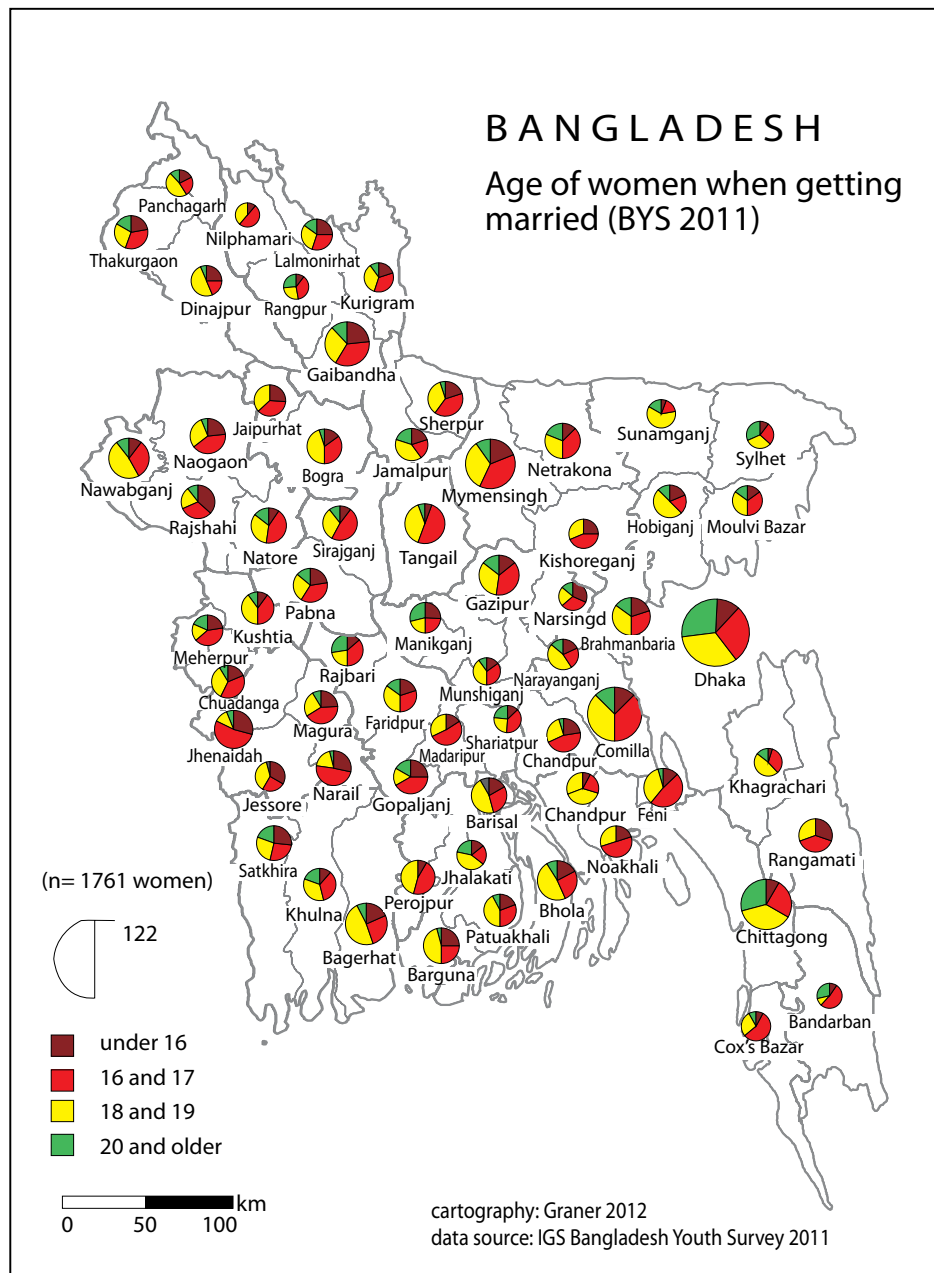
*Figure 2.4   Demographic profile of getting married (women)
(district-level)*

When analysing these early ages of getting married, it is of no surprise that ages of having children, or rather the first child, are quite young, as well. While some studies claim that the average age of women having children is below 16 (such as Alam and Kabir 2012), our findings do not support this. Instead, the single largest group of women had their first child at the age of 18. Yet, the cumulative share of the 16 and 17 age group is quite substantial (about 15 per cent), and 13 to 15 year olds have also been found, particularly in rural areas. Among the women residing in urban areas, ages are slightly higher, at 21 and 22. The regional variation is also quite pronounced. (see Figures 2.6 and 2.7).

As mentioned above, there are quite pronounced gender disparities, and only a few among the men have fathered children, even among the higher age groups. Among those who have done so, less than 5 per cent have done so prior to reaching the age of 19, whereas most have had their first child between the age of 20 and 24. Interestingly, the latter age was also seen as ideal by many among the women, although most of their actual life experiences are distinctly different (for details see chapter 7.4, below). Some of these gender disparities might be linked to education and work, as will be elaborated in the next chapters.
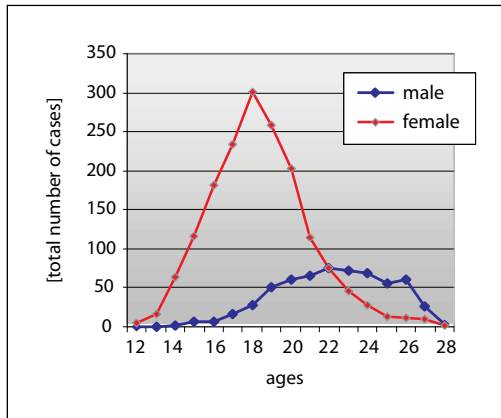
Figure 2.5   Demographic profile of having the first child (by age and gender)
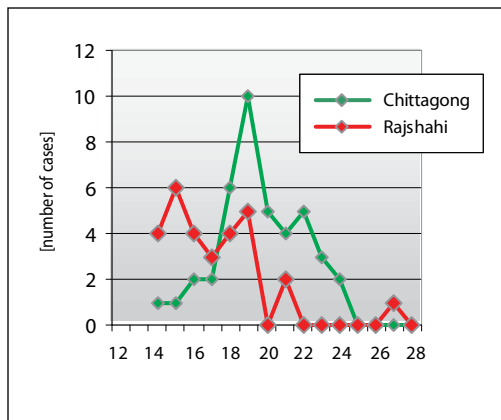
Figure 2.6   Demographic profile of having children (for Chittagong and Rajshahi)
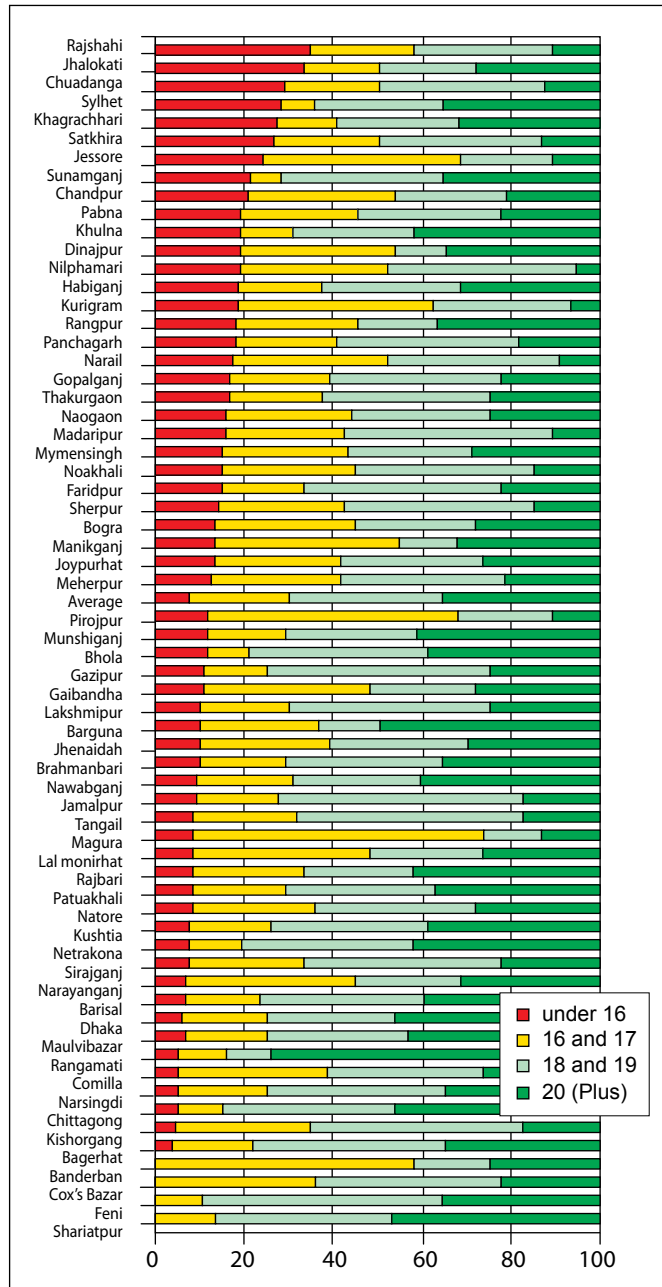
Figure 2.7   Demographic profile of having the first child (by district)

2.4   Bangladeshi Youth - A Brief Socio-Economic Profile and Ownership of Assets

In addition to the demographic data, details of the socio-economic situation of the entire household is also crucial to gaining a better understanding of youth. We have tried to capture this aspect in various forms, one is in the form of self-reported incomes. As argued in the Governance Barometer Survey this might be imprecise (Aziz and Graner 2012, 12ff) as we need to rely on both the knowledge of the respondents as well as the willingness to disclose this information. Generally, it is difficult to assess how exact these answers have been but we hope that variations are similar across the country, and thus comparisons are possible. At the same time, these (rough) values have been the baseline for forming income quintiles, as a basis for further analyses. As incomes might only be a vague proxy for agricultural households, we have also included one question about food sufficiency (see below). A further proxy variable aimed at a self-assessment of their social status, is in the form of class.

Most respondents among the youth have assessed their household incomes in rounded figures (5000 Taka, 6000 Taka, 7500 Taka, or 10,000 Taka). Yet, some have provided quite precise figures, presumably based on a comparatively exact knowledge about household incomes. Among the respondents, about one fifth of the households had monthly incomes of less than 5,000 Taka. Among this group, a considerable number reported total incomes of 3000 or 4000 Taka only. The single largest group reported monthly household incomes of about 10,000 Taka. In addition, there was a large group with incomes of 13,000 to 15,000 Taka and a few around 20,000 Taka (see Figure 2.8, below). In regard to lower-income households, it is difficult to assess whether this is due to under-reporting or whether these are actual figures. In addition, there is a considerable methodological difficulty when converting agricultural incomes into cash values.

Based on these self-reported household incomes, we have grouped all youth into five income quintiles, i.e. five groups of (roughly) equal size. The lowest income quintile is those with incomes below 5000 Taka, followed by 5000 - 7500 Taka, 7500 - 10000, 10000 -15000 Taka. The highest income quintile had incomes of more than 15,000 Taka. Within the latter group, the single largest income group was 20,000 Taka, although there have been a number of households with incomes of 30,000 to 50,000 as well, and even a few with more than 100,000 Taka. The proportional shares of these income groups vary significantly in the three localities (see also Aziz and Graner for last year's Governance Barometer Survey). More than half of all households in city corporations have monthly incomes above 10,000 Taka, and the larger share among these even above 15,000 Taka. In (other) urban areas and rural areas this is much less (at 40 and 31 per cent), and there the fourth quintile outnumbers the fifth.
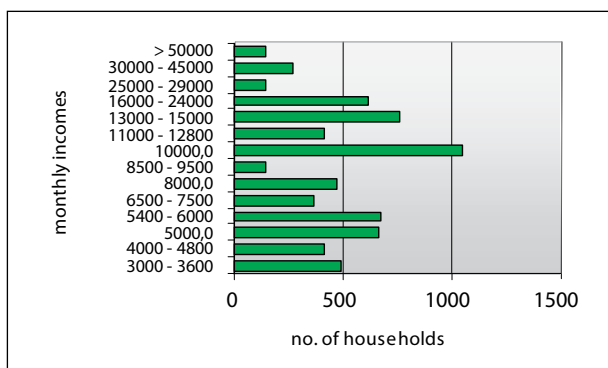
Figure 2.8   Income distribution among the households (for detailed income groups)
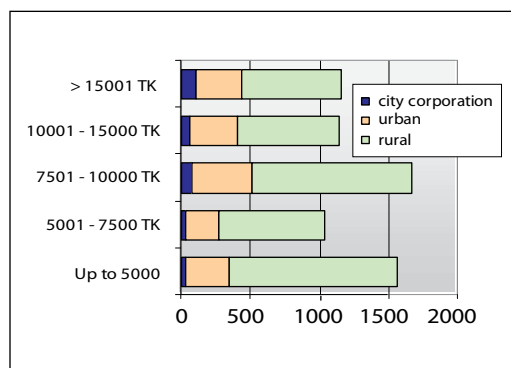
Figure 2.9   Income quintiles and locational distribution

Among the households, about 42 per cent (n = 2,746) are also engaged in agriculture. For some of these households, the contribution of agricultural production (and sales) is quite substantial. Thus, more than half of those in the lowest income quintile substantially supplement, and at times even subsidise their incomes with self-grown food (or vice versa). Overall, agriculture is of importance for households in all income groups (see Figure 2.10, below). Yet, this may partly be a circular conclusion, as some of the households in the higher income groups may be in these groups due to the incomes they receive from the sales of surplus food, and/ or other agricultural products. Yet, at the other end of the social spectrum, quite a number of young people have reported that their households are in one of the lower income quintiles but are neither food sufficient. These households are certainly under enormous pressure to cover their monthly, or rather daily, subsistence needs and (cash) expenses.

Quite an interesting exercise was to request the respondents to assess their social status in the form of five different class categories, namely working class, lower middle class, middle class, upper middle class and upper class. Among all respondents, the vast majority opted for the middle class, even in the lowest and highest income groups. Only among the households in the highest income quintiles, about one quarter classified themselves as upper middle or even upper class. A large proportion among those in the lowest two income quintiles categorised themselves as working class, but interestingly, some of the higher quintiles also did so (see Figure 2.11).
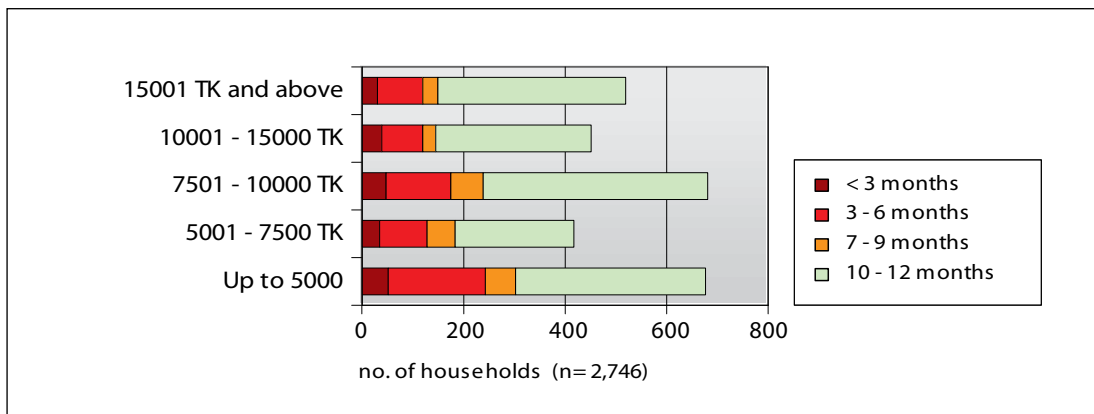
Figure 2.10   Combined incomes and levels of food sufficiency (for agricultural households)
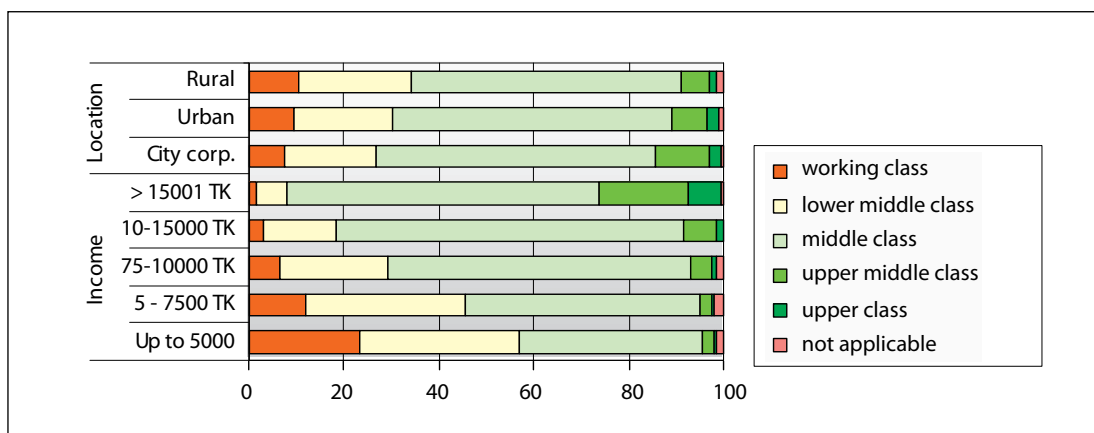
Figure 2.11   Level of incomes and self-assessment of class status

For a better understanding of the living environment of young people, the survey also included a brief section about the core assets of the households. To some extent, this reflects district-level availability of infrastructure, as for instance in terms of landlines for electricity and telephones. As elaborated in last year's Governance Barometer Survey, the density of landline telephones is extremely low. Across the country this was less than 1 per cent. As was shown for last year, there are quite substantial locational disparities, where city corporations have much higher densities (at nearly 5 per cent versus 0.5 per cent in rural areas). Interestingly, social disparities are not as pronounced as we would have thought, and landlines are only owned by 2.3 per cent among the highest income quintile (versus 0.3 to 0.7 per cent for all other incomes groups; see Figures 2.12 and 2.13).

Among all communication assets (other than mobile phones), the ownership of television sets is the highest (52.2 per cent). At the same time, disparities across income groups are only moderately high, at 29.7 versus 79.7 per cent (i.e. a social disparity index of 2.7). Compared to TV sets, the ownership of personal computers is extremely low, at an average of 10 per cent. At the same time, social disparities are much higher (4.6 versus 22.5 per cent among the lowest and highest income groups, respectively). Overall, the ownership of these assets also has a strong regional pattern. At a district level, the ownership of TVs ranges from nearly 80 per cent (Narajanganj and Dhaka) to less than 20 per cent (in Faridpur and Barguna; see Figure 2.12). At the same time, disparities by localities are much lower, at 45 versus 84 per cent, for rural and city corporation areas, respectively (see Figure 2.13).
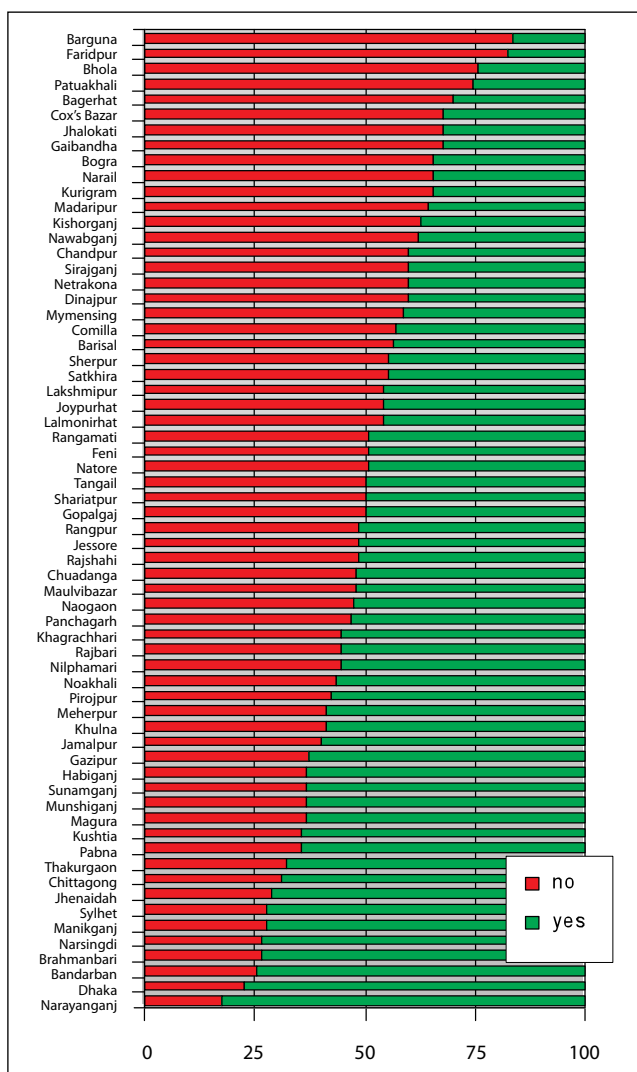
Figure 2.12   Ownership of TV sets (district level)
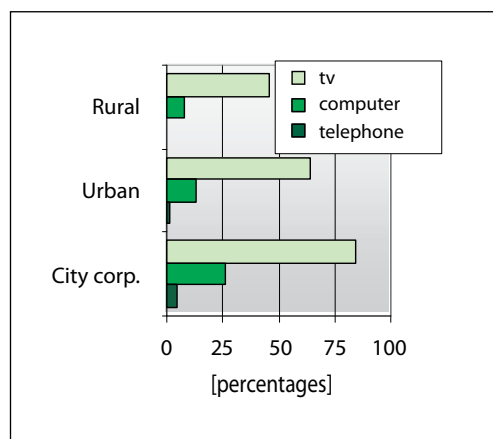
Figure 2.13   Ownership of core assets (by localities)
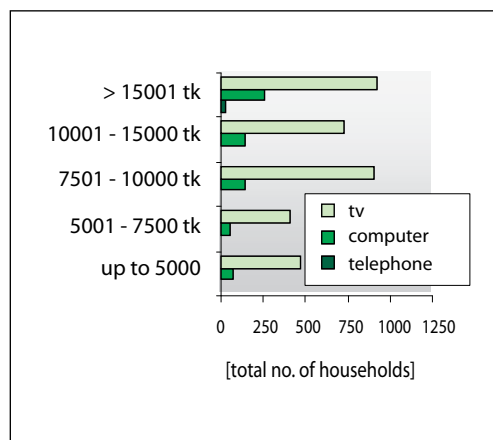
Figure 2.14   Ownership of core assets (by income groups)

CHAPTER **3** **Governing Education
(Re-)Assessing Policies and Achievements**

Pabna x/2012

3.1   Governing Education - An Introduction

Education is one of the cornerstones of qualifying young people for setting up their lives. Thus, for any state, the smooth operation of educational institutions is quintessential to the delivery of any services, worldwide. A Chinese proverb captures this crucial function quite pointedly: if you plan for a year, sow rice; if you plan for ten years, plant trees, if you plan for one hundred years, educate people. At the same time, this proverb also points out another dimension of education, namely that it is not a short term policy. For governing education, the state needs to put in place a well-thought out set of rules and regulations, that clearly defines the various types of education, and the respective public and private agencies that will be allowed to offer these services. While during the 1970s and 1980s education was seen as a "basic service" and conceptualised under the basic needs approach, it is now ranked much more stringently within the human rights context.

Bangladesh, being a signatory to the Millennium Declaration, as well as all major global education policies, has committed itself to achieving universal primary education by 2015. The present Awami League government has even gone one step further and proclaimed that they are willing to "eradicate the curse of illiteracy from the country" and reach this goal by 2014, i.e. by the end of their electoral mandate (Bangladesh Awami League 2008). Yet, we would argue that at the current rate of "success", it is nearly impossible to achieve this goal. Above all, at the current rates of expanding education to the wide range of regional and social "left outs" even 2020 seems quite an ambitious timeline. This assessment differs quite substantially from usual assessments (Daily Star 2010, GOB and UNDP 2009) and might seem (much) too pessimistic, at first sight. Yet, we will demonstrate that our survey leaves little space for optimism.

For monitoring EFA and the MDGs, there have been tight mechanisms, both in terms of achievements and policies. UNESCO in their 2010 Global Monitoring Report (GMR) for EFA have placed governance at centre stage, as epitomised in the title "Overcoming inequality: why governance matters". Their core argument is that governance "define[s] who sets priorities and makes decisions in key areas" (ibid. 2010, 129), such as curriculum, teacher management, monitoring and supervision. In regard to finance they point out that it is of importance to analyse "how priorities are set and how resources are mobilised, allocated and managed" (ibid.). In a similar line of argument, Transparency International in their "Education Watch Africa", defines good governance as "ensuring that the necessary resources [..] are managed in a transparent and accountable manner" (ibid. 2010). This also includes "the distribution of power in decision-making and how the decision-making process affects citizens" (ibid., 130).

This chapter will address a few crucial aspects of education. First of all, it will give a brief introduction to the current global education policy, and Bangladesh's national policy reform process (chapter 3.2). We will then provide an analysis of educational achievements from the demographic section of the BYS, and compare this to other studies. This includes a detailed enumeration of enrolment ages in different classes (I, V, and VIII) and examination levels (SSC and HSC), as well as the types of schools. As in other chapters, these will be disaggregated by gender, localities, age groups, income groups and for core parameters also at a district level (chapter 3.3). This is followed by a section where we asked young people what they thought was most important in education, and this will be briefly presented at an aggregate level (chapter 3.4). Fourthly, we have asked the youth about their experiences while enrolled and what they think could, or in most cases could have, made a difference in improving (their) education. As a last sub-chapter we will briefly summarise these findings and provide a few policy recommendations. Overall, this follows Shobhan's call for the need to "dispassionately evaluate the state of the economy" (ibid. 2007, 356), and its core development indicators, such as education.

3.2   Translating Global Education Policies into National Policies

The general consensus on the need to introduce and "systematically" provide universal primary education all across the globe has been emphasised, and re-emphasised, over the past decades on various occasions. At the same time, there has been a crucial shift in paradigm, from conceptualising education within a basic needs framework to one where it has become one of the core parameters of human rights. This point was even made by the current Finance Minister in his budget speech 2010 (GOB 2010, 56). The implications of this shift are far reaching, as this drastically strengthens the position of the parents and students vis-a-vis the state. When fully considering the consequences, education is no longer a service that could, or may, or may not, be provided to (most) students for a number of years. Instead, the inability of the state (i.e. the respective governments) to provide basic or at least primary education to all students can now be addressed as a gross and severe violation of human rights. As such it might and, at some stage, even should, be liable to criminal prosecution.

On the other hand, the details of implementing this policy and legislation remain either largely unaddressed or vaguely specified. Two recent international forums have tried to provide outcome-based indicators. One of these is assessing universal primary education by net enrolment rates (NERs). They have also provided a strategy framework on how to translate this global goal into national policy frameworks. When world leaders met in Jomtien (Thailand) in autumn 1990, they drafted a rather ambitious plan for achieving (primary) Education-For-All (EFA) within the following decade, i.e. by 2000. As is usually the case, there was a need to revise this goal in 2000, when world leaders again met, this time in Senegal. When drafting the "Dakar Framework of Action" (DFA) they felt the need to extend the previous timeline by another fifteen years, in compliance with the UN's contemporary approach of tackling the world poverty in the context of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs; see Figure 3.1, below).

When world leaders gathered in New York in September 2010 in order to attend the follow-up of the 2000 "Millennium Summit", some of them were decorated with a special prize for best performance, and Bangladesh's Prime Minister Sheikh Hasina was among them. She was being congratulated for "outstanding achievements" in reducing child mortality rates and there was, or at least seems to have been, a general consensus that the other goals were likely to be reached, as well (for media coverage in Bangladesh see for instance Daily Star 2010). Overall, evaluations and core assessments of MDGs are usually characterised by rather favourable interpretations. Key Performance Indicators (KPIs) usually address and reflect a minimal consensus. For assessing achievements in education, primary net enrolment rates (NERs) are supposedly a moderately precise proxy variable. Yet, it needs to be pointed out that figures are vague, as the registration of births is cryptic (see also unicef 2009, MICS). In addition, the actual numbers of students are (partly) politically motivated. As a result, this indicator can only be seen as a rather rough "guestimation" (an argument that also applies for neighbouring countries; see Graner 2006).

Policies to strengthen education have been a priority in Bangladeshi politics since independence in 1971. Based on the constitutional obligation to provide primary education, different governments have adopted various policies, strategies, and time lines (see Figure 3.1). A major administrative reform was made in 1981, when the Directorate of Primary Education was established. Along with it, education administration was decentralised, by strengthening local management committees to control and manage this sector. At the same time, the need for increased community participation was linked to "low cost solutions", a feature that is still prevalent today. A second major step for institutional reforms was the Primary Education Act 1990 that

introduced compulsory education all across the country. Along with this piece of legislation there was an increased influx in international grants and support, such as the Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP).

In 2003, Bangladesh prepared a national action plan for "Education for All" with a specific set of goals to achieve by 2015. A major component was the "Primary Education Development Programme-II" (PEDP-II), that aimed at increasing primary school access, participation and completion rates. Primary education became free for all children in government run schools and the provision of textbooks at the primary level was made free for students in all government and registered non-government schools. In addition, stipend programmes and incentives were given for the purpose of equitable access to primary education. As a major institutional change, a new ministry was established, the Ministry of Primary and Mass Education (MOPME) and it was put in charge of focusing on the needs of the vast majority of illiterate adults and younger students. At the same time, such a duality of administration also tends to complicate decision-making processes, particularly during the current reform process. Above all, it gives rise to endless bickering about allocations and budget priorities. Indeed, during most of the past decade, the budget allocation to the MOE exceeded the ones allocated to the MOPME (see Figure 2.2; for details see Graner and Yasmin 2012).
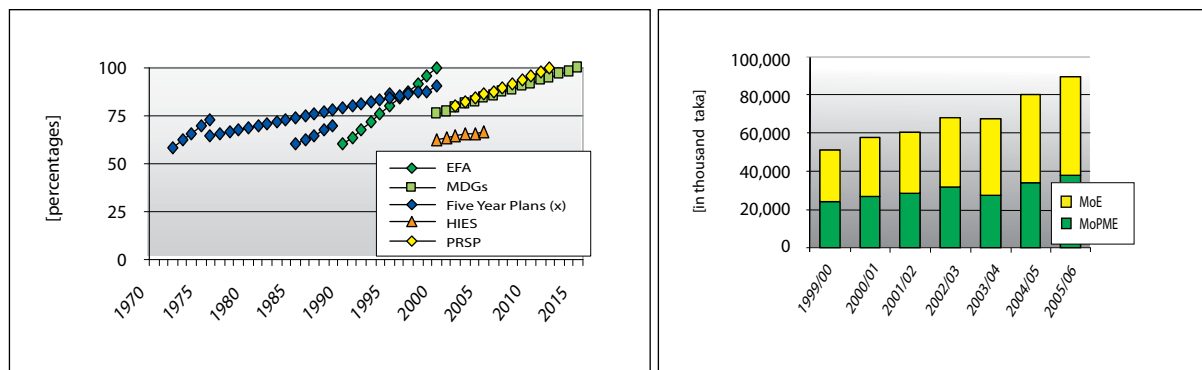
Figure 3.1   Targets for Net Enrolment Rates under various policies

Figure 3.2   Budget allocations to the two Education Ministries (MoE and MoPME)

The most recent policy framework is the National Education Policy 2009, drafted by an 18-member Education Commission and passed in parliament in May 2010. As a follow on programme of PEDP II, the government and its partners agreed on PEDP III (interim termed PROG 3), commencing from June 2011 onwards. The core features, as in neighbouring countries, are the expansion of free and compulsory primary education from class I to VIII, an extension that is usually addressed under the term "basic education". Along with it, secondary education is being extended up to class XII, and there is a renewed emphasis on technical and vocational studies and trainings to create skilled population. In order to achieve better outcomes in primary education, a one year pre-primary education scheme is added, as well as the provision that "indigenous students [are] to be taught in their mother language and will have teachers to speak in their tongues" (GOB 2010a, 7). In addition, special suggestions to reduce drop-outs include scholarships, mid-day meals, hostels in remote areas, adjustment of school time table to local level work cycles.

Characterising education as the backbone of the nation, the Education Policy 2011 places emphasis largely on the need for adequately educating the new generations of the country. It clearly states that it is not a political agenda but that it rather accumulates the recommendations of previous education polices and education

commissions and experts, as well as the Constitution and international conventions. Overall, the aim of social inclusion is a core principle. For counterbalancing social exclusion, there is a separate allocation in the education budget to increase the number of female students, as well as stipends for street children. Generally, the policy also aims at a stronger involvement of the parents, local citizens and elected local representatives in school management committees (SMCs). It also encourages the building of public - private partnership to improve primary and vocational education (for more details see also chapter 4.4., below). The Commission also suggested an integrated Education Law (ibid.), yet it is not very likely that this will be promulgated within the next two years. At the same time, the preface allows for some future changes, stating that "It will be modified according to the needs of time and situation" (ibid., preface).

The Education Policy stresses modern, updated and quality education to turn the young generation into competent human resources. This also asks for substantial improvements in the quality of teachers in all educational streams. Thus, it gives emphasis to developing a uniform curriculum for all students, irrespective of their religion, gender, physical limitations, socio-economic and geographic locations. In line with the global policy agenda of inclusive education (UNESCO 2010) it also instructs the line agencies to take special measures for the development of education of under-privileged groups, including street-children, physically and mentally challenged learners and to promote and develop the languages and cultures of indigenous and small ethnic groups. Overall, it should be non-communal although there will be compulsory subjects on religion and ethics for students up to class VIII. As a political compromise, the policy dropped the word "secular" from its draft to make it acceptable to all segments of society.

Overall, many analysts appraised the Education Policy 2010. At the same time, many stated that its implementation will be a challenge for the government, as it has neither the financial nor the human resources needed (for instance Ahmed 2010). In addition, governance, or the lack of it, is an important aspect (World Bank 2000, CAMPE 2009, CPD 2001 and 2009, Muhith 2007). The Nagorik Commission's "Vision 2021" argues that "in the interest of building an efficient system of governance [..] investing in the right type of education will be crucial" (CPD 2007, 27). Such a policy, they argue, needs to be based on a number of core features, such as the de-politicisation of education, where students and teachers interact "without being held hostage to party politics" (ibid., 31). Secondly, they argue in favour of the need for decentralisation, in terms of creating a stronger accountability of teachers to local communities (see also Hossain et al. 2002). And thirdly, they point out the need for a longer-term perspective. They critically assess "the custom of setting up an Education Commission by every regime" (ibid.), and instead suggest a permanent Commission on Education, including members from civil society, the academic community, government education establishment, with a budget and a secretariat. Similar concerns have also been expressed by the media. Rahman (2009) has characterised educational policies as documenting the "ruling political party's ideological expression rather than covering national interest" (ibid.).

3.3   Bangladeshi Youth and Their Educational "Profiles"

More than twenty years after the first Global Conference for achieving (primary) Education for All and twelve years after the Dakar Conference, the current generation of youth (i.e. the 15 to 30-year olds) should have profited from these policies, and education should be much more inclusive, even for the older groups of 25-30 years (i.e. the 5 to 10-year olds back then). This section will focus on the demographic pattern of education, in regard to their actual achievements, or the lack of it. At first sight, the data from the demographic section of the BYS seems to suggest that quite a high share among the youngest adolescents (more than 80 per cent)

are still engaged in their education. From this perspective, the National Education Policy seems to be quite successful. On the other hand, the age pattern can only partly be taken as a proxy variable for educational achievements, as pointed out in the Governance Barometer Survey (Aziz and Graner 2010, 11ff) and before (Graner 2006).

A closer look into the educational profiles shows that among the 15-year olds, 15 per cent have already dropped out of school, and many among these at a much earlier age. While gender disparities are quite low at this young age, gender disparities increase rather rapidly. Adolescent men stop (or complete) their education at about 5 per cent per year, but this rate is nearly double for young women. Thus, enrolment rates show a linear decrease for men but a nearly exponential decrease for women. As a result, by the age of 16 only 70 per cent of the young women are still at school/college, whereas it is about 80 per cent among the young men. By the age of 18 the pattern is even more pronounced, at 44 versus 55 per cent, respectively. The highest disparities are at the age of 20/21, when merely 20 per cent of the women are still engaged in education, compared to about 45 per cent among the men. Yet, by 22 and 24 there is a strong decline among men, as well, and by 24 only less than 22 per cent among them are studying (see Figure 3.3). In addition, there are pronounced regional and social patterns of drop-outs. This can be best exemplified for the 16-year olds (n = 655). While among youth from the lowest income quintile, 32 per cent are out of school (mainly young boys), it is merely 17 - 18 per cent for the highest two income groups, respectively (with 28 per cent for youth from middle incomes households).

Overall, a small minority (of 5-6 per cent) had never been to school. While this number might sound insignificant, at first sight, it also tells a rather sober story, once disaggregated, about the lack of inclusion. While the share of never attending students is negligible among the highest income groups (at 1 and 3 per cent, respectively) it is 8 and 10 per cent in the lowest and second lowest group (see Figure 3.4). In addition, even within primary classes, i.e. prior to class 5, about 5 per cent of the students had dropped out, followed by ca. another 20 per cent before reaching class 8. As expected, this share is even higher among rural youth, where values are about 20-25 per cent. In some of the districts, values are even higher (see below), and the pattern is similar to the one presented in last year's Governance Barometer Survey (ibid., 13; see Figure 3.5, below). Again, there is a pronounced social pattern, and drop-outs are highly concentrated in the lowest two income quintiles. When seen cumulatively, the numbers quoted above imply that among the lowest income quintiles less than 20 to 40 per cent have completed their primary education. This indicates that exclusion rates have remained unacceptably high.
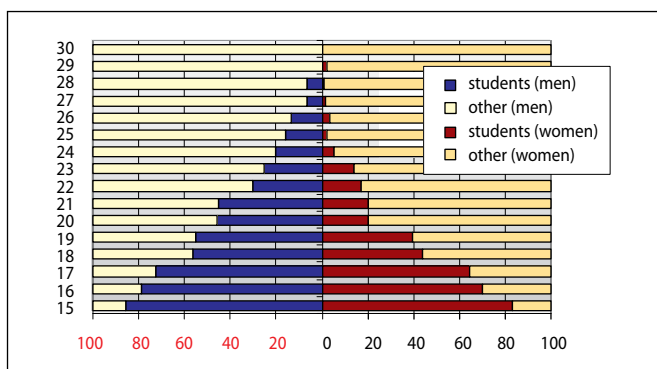
Figure 3.3   Student population among the youth (by gender)
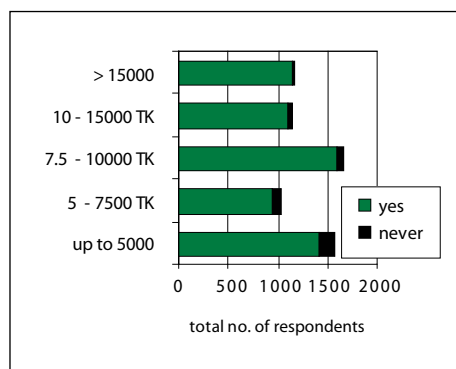
Figure 3.4   Student population and non-
students (by income groups)

At the same time, there is a positive trend that non-attendance and drop-outs have decreased quite significantly over the past one and a half decades. When disaggregating the BYS data according to single-age groups, this trend is quite obvious. Among 30-year olds, 17 per cent had never attended school, and in addition, nearly 10 per cent had dropped out prior to class V. Above all, before reaching class VIII, altogether nearly 60 per cent had dropped out (40 per cent among previously enrolled students plus nearly 20 per cent of never enrolled students). If so, then only children from the higher two income quintiles and a few from middle, lower and lowest income groups would have reached class VIII. As a consequence, less than 40 per cent of them had taken (not necessarily passed) the SSC exam and less than half of the latter (i.e. 20 per cent of the actual cohort) had also sat for the HSC exam. This clearly documents that until less than one decade ago, even higher secondary education was highly socially selective and accessible mainly to the upper income quintile/s (see Figures 3.5 and 3.6, below).

On the other hand, among 18-year olds, less than 4 per cent had never been enrolled in school, and most of them (more than 95 per cent) reached class V. Nevertheless, one quarter had dropped out before reaching class VIII, and a little less than 50 per cent sat for the SSC exams (see Figures 3.5 and 3.6). A major positive trend for expanding higher secondary education has taken place within the last two to six years. While rates of non-enrollment stood at an average of 65 to 75 per cent, this steadily declined to 45-55 per cent within less than a decade. A similar trend is also documented for the exams of Higher Secondary Certificates (HSC). At the same time, our analyses also document the considerable share of over-aged students. Thus, many among those aged 15 and 16 (completed years !) had not yet obtained their SSC. Thus, while the overall trends are quite promising, these analyses also clearly indicate the vast need for further, and instant, improvements.
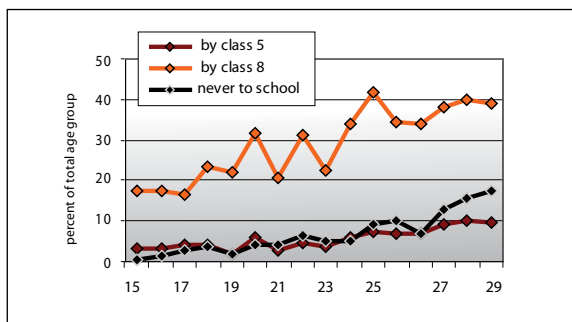
Figure 3.5   Non-enrollment in primary and secondary education (by age groups)
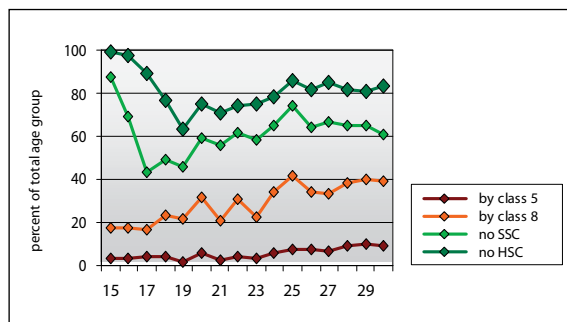
Figure 3.6   Non-enrollment in higher (secondary) education (by age groups)

While both the trend and the data are quite promising there still remain two reasons for concern. One is the age pattern among those who have dropped out. While the overall age of drop-out is 15, the socio-economic disaggregation (based on income quintiles) shows that there are vast social disparities. While from high income households (> 15,000 Tk) only about 10-15 per cent had dropped out before that age, it was substantially more among those from lower income groups. Thus, among the latter (lowest income quintile of 5,000 Taka or less) drop outs are about 10 per cent per single year, from an age of about 11 years onwards. For the three middle income quintiles, ratios are much lower, at 6 per cent for the 11-year olds but still 10-12 per cent when they have reached the age of 12-13. Only the highest income group has a significantly higher age of drop-out, starting at 14 and reaching double-digit numbers only among 15 to 17-year olds (see Figure 3.7; for detailed figures see Table A2, annex).

The second reason for concern is the pattern of enrollment, or rather the lack of it, among the current student age cohort (aged 6 to 18). Our survey has included detailed information of this from the household roster, which covers a total of 9,191 siblings from our BYS sample. This documents a pronounced pattern of non-enrollment and thus, indirectly, drop-out rates. Above all, this clearly indicates that there is not even a single age group where enrollment is universal. This data is quite concerning, and it is even lower than our last year's Governance Barometer Survey, where at least all 10-year olds were enrolled. We doubt that overall there is a negative trend, and one possible explanation is a better regional coverage of our sample (for 2010 the sample included only households from 33 districts). At the same time, these data give rise to serious doubts about achieving the MDGs within this decade, let alone by 2014 (or even 2015). As these rates represent the national average, rates in some districts are even lower. Again, many of the northern districts have quite low values (see below).
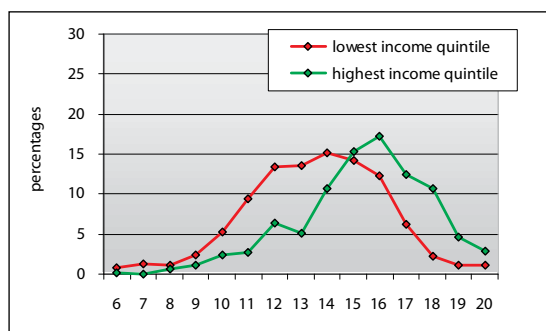
Figure 3.7   Age of drop-out from school (for highest and lowest income quintiles)
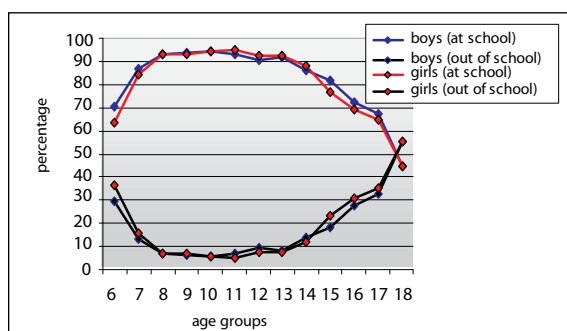
Figure 3.8   NERs among the currently 6 to 18-year olds (n = 9191)

As elaborated last year, these overall patterns of early drop-outs have an additional critical dimension. While absolute ages of 10 to 14 seem to suggest that youth have completed their primary education, these two indicators should be clearly distinguished. Thus, the phenomenon of having an over-aged student population is quite pronounced, even at the national level. In addition, some of the districts have an extremely high share of over-aged students in primary classes. The BYS data even indicate that in some cases, this share is larger than the actual student group.

From the household sample, all those aged 12-14 have been selected (n = 1745) and a rather promisingly large share of them was still at school (90 per cent at an average). Districts with a large number of early drop-outs were Mymensingh, Sirajganj, Gazipur and nearly all districts in the Sylhet division. On the other hand, a quite concerning aspect is obvious when analysing which classes these (teen aged) students attend. At a national average, 30 per cent of all students of this age group were still studying in primary classes or have, so far, only completed class 5. Even more alarmingly, in several districts this share was even 35-45 per cent. When seen cumulatively with the out-of- school population, the shares of students who are not "yet" in secondary class are higher than 50 per cent in quite a number of districts, and all across the country. In three cases this share is nearly 60 per cent (Barguna, Faridpur and Bhola) and in two cases even above 60 per cent (Madaripur and Khagrachari; see Figure 3.9, below)

When considering the New Education Policy and the aim at extending "universal" primary education from class V up to class VIII, these data give rise to serious doubts. If it has not been possible to achieve universal primary education up to class V over the past two decades, how likely is it then to reach universal class VIII education within the near future. Needless to say, socio-economic patterns are similarly strong.
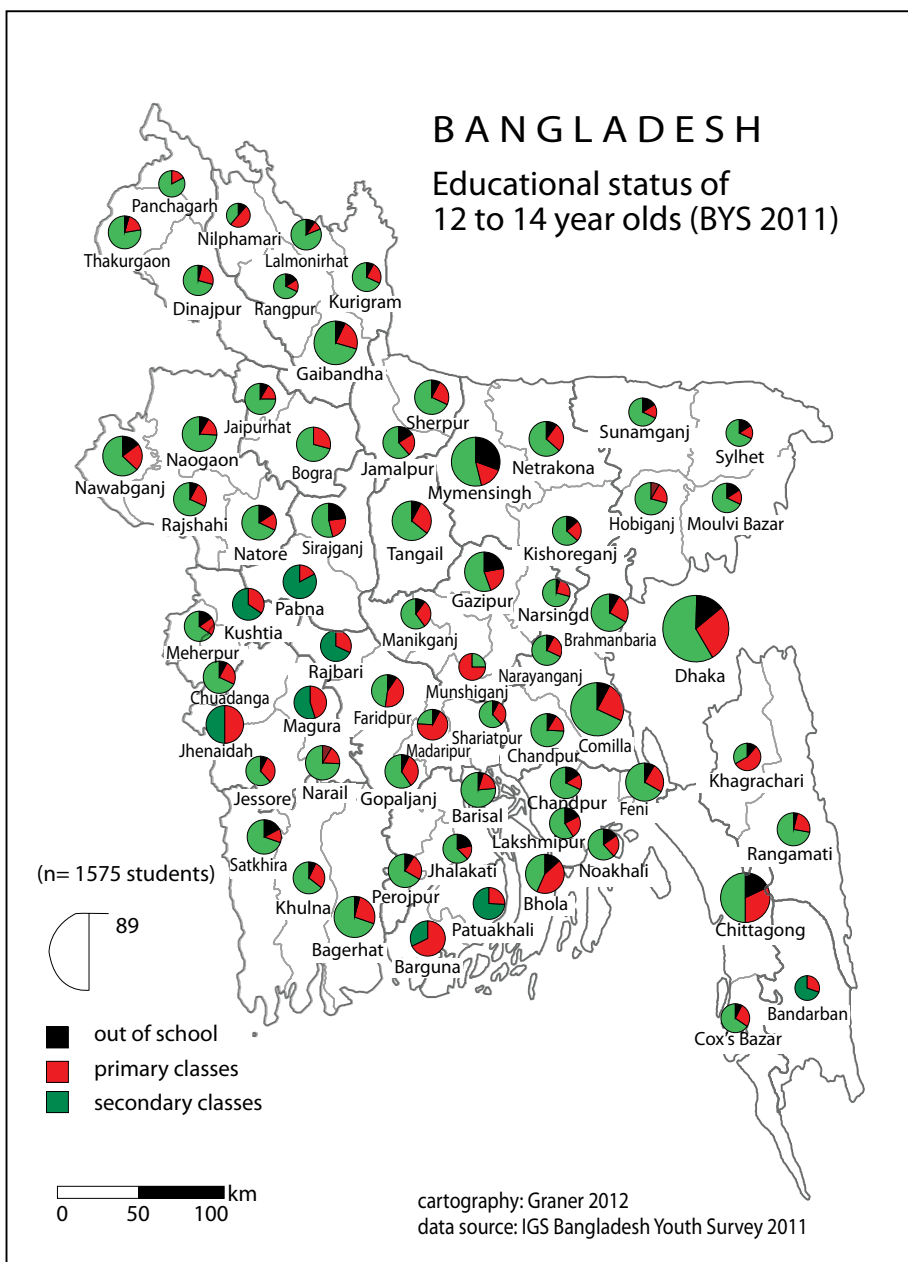
Figure 3.9   Student and non-student population aged 12 to 14 (district-level)

3.4   Assessing the Importance of Education

When discussing what are the most important aspects of their lives, education has always been mentioned as being of core importance. In order to find out more details, we have tried to get feed back about which particular aspects of education are of importance. For doing so, we have provided the respondents with a subset of different aspects that could be defining the importance attributed to education. These options include i) years of schooling, ii) type of school, iii) having good teachers, iv) costs for education, v) development

of creativity and vi) acquisition of life skills. Interestingly, we had quite some discussions prior to finalising these aspects, and development of creativity, as well as life skills, were the two most hotly debated issues, also in regard to possible Bangla translations (shristhi shilota and jibon chaloner jono projonio dokkhota). Nevertheless, as it is a crucial concept in Western education, and gradually incorporated into "global" education policies, this was also included.

As mentioned earlier, there was a strong tendency among the respondents to attach a high importance to everything. Methodologically, only ranking could have provided a clearer picture but for this question we did not include this (or rather needed to delete it while shortening the questionnaire). Nevertheless, there are a few aspects that seem to be more important than others. The highest level of agreement has been given to having good teachers (99 %), with nearly 90 per cent of these in the "highly important category". Among all other options, the type of school received the lowest agreement among the highest category, although still 60 per cent. Within these answers, there are no pronounced differences among respondents, based on location, gender, age or income groups. One exception was that the concept of life skills seems to be more important for lower income groups than those from the highest income quintiles (at 83 % as opposed to 67%, respectively).

Similar findings have also been made during the FGDs, although there the disparities among locations, professions and academic backgrounds were much more pronounced. The students mentioned that they face difficulties as there are not adequate teachers in the schools. Again, those who are available are either not experienced enough or are (too) busy giving private tuition, hampering the regular teaching process (see also Sainath 1997 for India or Graner 2006 for Nepal). This forces students into taking private tuition to complete the curriculum, and this again increases overall educational costs, possibly even quite considerably (see Graner and Yasmin/IGS 2010 and 2012). Many among the students that we interviewed were from public colleges/universities but still they stated that in spite of this, they have to pay various fees every year, and this can be quite a burden on their families.
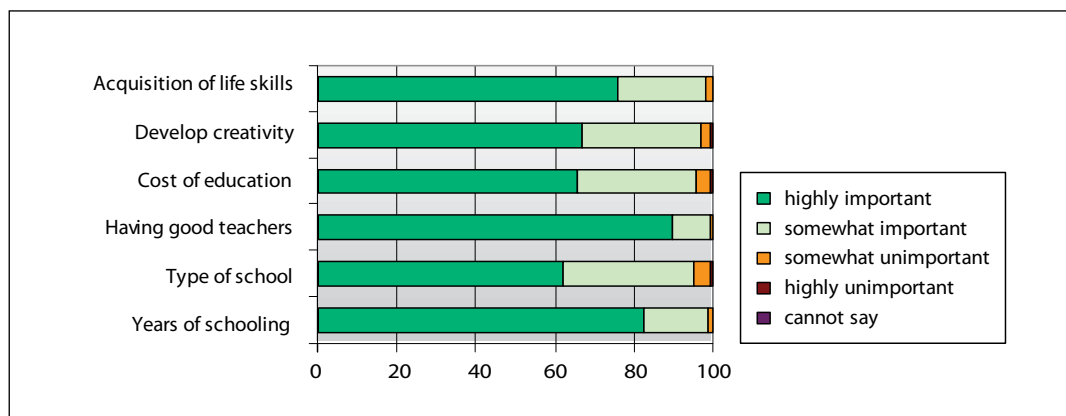
Figure 3.10   Important aspects of education

3.5   Assessing the Education Policy - A Call for Better Trained Teachers

Among all policies, the education policy is certainly the one that is of most immediate relevance to young people. Some of them, particularly in the youngest age group (15-18) and partly even those between 18 and

21 are still engaged in their education. Even those who have either completed their education or dropped out in the recent past have first hand experience. Thus, it is quite understandable that when asked what the government could do in order to improve the lives of youth, there was an uniquivocal consensus (of nearly 95 per cent) about the need to improve the quality of education (see below). At the same time disparities, whether gender, locational, or based on income groups were minimal. Among the different age groups, there is a weak pattern that this consensus increases along with younger age groups (93.6 versus 94.6 %).

At the same time, there have also been rather clear comments about different policy measures on how to achieve this overall goal. The highest level of agreement has been given for the need for better training of teachers and better tuition classes, particularly for low performing students (see Figure 3.11). Better books and more teachers seem to be less of a priority, and the latter even faced a strong opposition (highly disagree), although a small one (5 %). The need for regular school meals or a revised curriculum was not seen as a strong priority, and the latter received the highest level of disagreement, of nearly 10 per cent. On this issue we strongly disagree, as will be elaborated later.

In addition to this listing of general agreement/disagreements for specific policy measures, the exercise of ranking these gave some important information about actual priorities. Here, the urgency of better teacher training was re-confirmed, by a vast majority of more than half of all respondents. Yet, at the same time, having more teachers was also stated quite prominently, interestingly as a first priority or not at all. This priority ranking also shows that better tuition classes are seen as the second most important priority when cumulatively seen (see Figure 3.12). At the same time, our focus group discussions have also shown that overall there is quite a low degree of information about recent policy changes and policy measures. Even about the crucial reform of expanding primary to basic education up to class VIII only higher educated youth were familiar with. The low level of schooling among their younger siblings (aged 6 to 18) is also quite a concern, as elaborated above. At the same time this also strongly contradicts their perspectives when asked about ideal ages for completing (their) education. There, an astonishing majority stated that they wish to study until their early twenties (for more details see chapter 7.4, below).
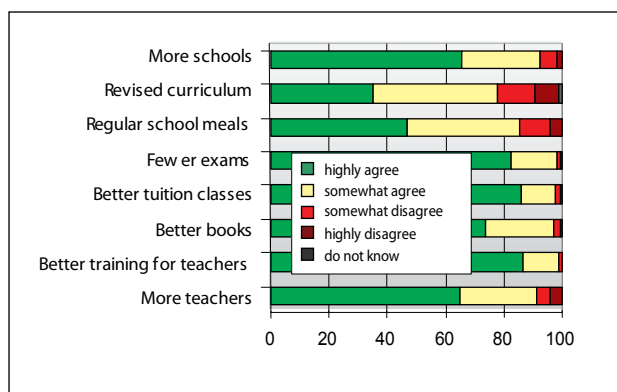
Figure 3.11   Assessing the education policy
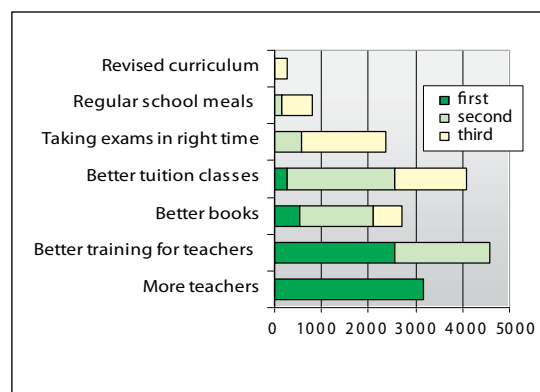
Figure 3.12   Priorities for educational policies

3.6   Strengthening Education Governance - (Re-)Considering Policies

The data from the education section of the BYS clearly documents that the country has made major improvements in expanding education. When addressing the UN General Assembly in 2010, the Prime Minister was moderately optimistic that all goals, not only the reduction of child mortality, are close to being reached. Yet, we would counter-argue that achieving the MDGs for education will need quite a substantial effort, and that immediate policy measures are necessary. We would also argue that this first of all needs to strengthen governance in the sector. For doing so, there need to be clear regulations about reforming educational policies and to (re-)define the rights and responsibilities of all stakeholders, including the government's own role.

While the expansion of education is certainly a vital component of improving education, this also needs to strengthen the inclusion of low income and other excluded groups. If this inclusive education has not been achieved for class V students, then the expansion up to class VIII is quite unlikely. In order to achieve this, there needs to be a much clearer understanding about the support the schools need in order to attract children and to enhance their learning outcomes. When doing field work for a previous research project, focus group discussions often addressed the limited funds that schools have, irrespective of moderately good funding at the central level. Yet, there, allocation of funds has a strong bias towards infrastructure, a priority that schools and school management committees rarely share. In addition to the (lack of) funds, school teachers often complained about the highly politicised patterns of job recruitment, where academic or pedagogic qualifications are usually secondary, if considered at all.

While the regulation between the state and their teachers is certainly a crucial aspect for safeguarding education, the regulation between the state and the students, or rather their parents, is an even more critical one. While the Education Act specifies that education is compulsory there are hardly any measures to safeguard these rights for children. Overall, education analysts tend to blame parents for the lack of "interest" in sending their children to school. At the same time, explanatory factors often have two core lines of argument, one is that parents are illiterate, and the other is their poverty. While illiteracy can only be reduced via long-term policies, we would argue that the one about poverty is much easier to counterbalance. Given the prevalence of poverty as an explanatory variable, one immediate policy could be the introduction of high-quality mid day meals. If so, the argument about the need to earn money would be void, as children hardly ever earn more than covering the cost of one proper meal a day. At the same time, mid day meals are directly related to attendance and thus safeguard daily participation in classes.

A second argument for drop-outs is that students who are slow learners can not follow classes. At the same time, these students are more likely to be from households where they are first-generation learners (i.e. having illiterate parents), and where parents can neither provide help nor afford additional costs for "private" tuition classes. Again, this short coming could be tackled in form of free additional tuition classes for these low capacity and/or slow learners. We would argue that the combination mid day meals and such classes, rather than additional teachers or any other policy measures, could drastically encourage and motivate students and their parents, to carry on with their education as well as to safeguard regular attendance. Although both measures post substantial additional needs for the budget, we would argue that these measures are imperative and the best way forward. At the same time, additional budgets could be raised in form of public-private (and/or religious) partnerships, where business persons and other local elites and dignitaries contribute to fund raising and supporting schools.

CHAPTER 4   Employment and Vocational Training

Chittagong v/2011

4.1   Employment and Vocational Training - An Introduction

Given the demographic composition of Bangladesh's population, a large proportion joins the labour force each year. The GOB assesses that the country will need to create at least two and a quarter million jobs per year, in order to accommodate these cohorts. A similar estimation is also provided by the World Bank, that has calculated that there needs to be a near doubling of the labour force from about 55 million to 100 million by 2020 (ibid. 2006, 1). Yet, while on the one hand they argue that "Bangladesh's greatest strength is its people [..] they are well known for hard work and resilience under stress" (ibid. 2002, 6), they also point to a rather critical aspect, namely that "Bangladesh's economy and human development could have grown faster than its actual progression in the last 25 years" (ibid. 2002, 52), if it had taken substantial steps in educational development at an earlier stage.

While we would generally agree with the need to expand the labour market, we would also feel the need to point out that in addition to creating new employment, there is an urgent need to strengthen governance mechanisms for the existing labour force (see also Graner and Akhter 2012). Only if both goals are being balanced, can the overall target of sustainable and equitable economic development be more than just political lip service. To achieve this, skill development is certainly crucial. Yet, it should be kept in mind that overall governance also has a number of other facets. For labour markets, there is the urgent need to safeguard the interests of all sectors of the economy and the respective stakeholders, whether well-off and politically well connected or not, and irrespective of the locality. Ideally, this also includes labour migrants abroad (see also IGS 2010, 89). As these "stakeholders" have realistically different and even conflicting interests and power positions, the government needs to put in place comprehensive arbitration mechanisms.

Overall, most young people have quite substantial difficulties in finding work and employment, and this is a pattern across the region, and elsewhere (see Mayer and Hettige 2002, Ratnasinghe 2012, for general discussions see also Furlong 2009c and Mortimer 2009). Among the higher educated youth, many need to wait a considerable time before finding employment that they find attractive enough, both in terms of salaries/wages and the work itself. Among the less educated ones, integration into the labour force takes place at times even during their early teens, and prior to completing a moderately acceptable level of education. Yet, irrespective of education and social status, many of the youth, whether highly educated or not, often need to make substantial compromises, in terms of wages and types of work. Overall, wages and salaries in many sectors have increased only moderately, and often lag behind general inflation rates, a point also frequently discussed during the FGDs.

This chapter will start off by briefly summarising and analysing the core policy documents that have been drafted by successive governments over the past decade (chapter 4.2). We will then provide an in-depth analysis of the BYS data for work and employment (chapter 4.3), as well as skills and vocational training (chapter 4.4). This will be followed by the findings from the perception survey, regarding why youth think that Vocational and Technical training is important and which aspects they think are of most importance (chapter 4.5). As done for education, we have also asked them to assess and comment on actual components of the current policy. These findings are complemented by the discussions held during the FGDs, and during interviews of key informants from training institutions (chapter 4.6). The last sub-chapter will then summarise these findings and provide a few policy recommendations (chapter 4.7).

4.2   National Policies for Vocational Training and Skill Development

The National Skill Development Policy 2011 (NSDP) was an outcome of the Technical & Vocational Education & Training (TVET) Reform Project. This was a joint project by the Government of Bangladesh (GOB), the European Commission (EC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO). The Ministry of Education (MOE) is the line ministry responsible for its implementation. In addition, two further organisations are supporting the ministry, namely the National Skill Development Council (NSDC) and the Bangladesh Technical Education Board (BTEB). The core policy document points out that the policy was finalised after consultation with local stakeholders, concerned government agencies and development partners. They state that it "is a major initiative to improve the coordination and delivery of skills in Bangladesh for the betterment of the nation as a whole" (GOB 2011a, 7). A crucial definition is that "Skills development stands at the intersection of different policy domains including education and training, non-formal education, labour, employment and industry development" (ibid., 9).

The National Skill Development Policy also extends and builds on other major government policies, such as the Education Policy of 2009, the Non-Formal Education Policy of 2006, the Youth Policy of 2003, the National Training Policy of 2008 and the NSDC Action Plan of 2008 (GOB 2011, 7). The policy will be further supported by a revised National Skill Development Council (NSDC) Action Plan which will identify clear roles and responsibilities for stakeholders within the following five years. The policy aims to address the needs of a huge population by providing skills "to enhance employability and secure safe and decent work" (ibid., 12). It specifically gives emphasis to youth as a key target group. The NSDP also addresses the problem that many young people leave school before completing class VIII of general education and therefore fail to seek admission in formal skill development programmes. Under the policy, specific steps will be taken to include these students in the formal educational system. In addition, women will have equal access to both formal and informal programmes. The policy also separately addresses working adolescents, and the need to provide special classes so that they can take trainings and increase their employability. Of importance for governance is that it also encourages enterprises to invest in education and training, and to support individuals to develop their competencies and careers.

When elaborating on the current state of vocational and technical training in Bangladesh, the NSDP classifies the existing organisations into four types, namely public, private, NGOs and industry based. The first one is delivered mainly by several ministries and public institutes, as well as some from the private sector that partly receive government subsidies, such as money payment orders (MPOs) and other types of grants. In addition, there are other private institutes, such as commercial training institutes, operated by either the private sector or religious bodies, such as madrassas. In addition, some not-for-profit institutions, mainly in the form of NGOs, also provide vocational training, as do industry based enterprises, that offer training and apprenticeships. In spite of this excessive variety of providers, their impact is usually limited as the various component parts move in their own direction without a unifying vision. At the same time, there is no single regulatory framework to provide a unified direction.

A further matter of concern from the policy makers is that there is no consistent approach to maintaining quality. Similarly, existing standards mismatch with the occupations or skill levels of the current labour market. Overall, curriculum development is highly centralised, rigid and time consuming and, above all, not based on need. At the same time, the lack of proper coordination between the public sector and other providers leads to a duplication of programmes and limited links between different training centres. At times,

this also leads to competition for the same target groups. Above all, there seems to be no clear picture of what training is being provided for which industry or occupation. After the reform process, the "Bangladesh Skills Development System" will comprise the National Technical & Vocational Qualifications Framework (NTVQF), the Competency Based Industry Sector Standards & Qualifications and the Bangladesh Skills Quality Assurance System.

Considering the demand for skilled workers in the national and international arena, the policy emphasises vocational and technical education and training. It proposes many prerequisites and conditions to modernise the existing system and to develop a competent skilled workforce. It proposes to introduce pre-vocational and Information Communication Technology (ICT) curriculum in every stream of primary education and that students can seek admission in a vocational/ technical institute after completing her/his primary education. Once completing class VIII, students can take up a 6-month vocational training programme, and then she/he will acquire the National Standard of Skills 1. Once completing classes IX, X and XII in vocational and technical education, students can attain National Standard of Skills 2, 3 and 4, respectively. Those students with technical diplomas will be eligible for admission in Bachelor and even Masters programmes of different and relevant courses.

To expand technical education, technical institutions will be established in each upazilla besides increasing the number of specialised ones. To improve the quality of teachers, the teachers have to take hands-on training in mills and factories. One core policy component is that in these vocational and technical educational institutions, the teacher-student ratio will be extremely low, at 1:12. The policy also mentions that the budget will be allocated on priority basis in this sector and the government will encourage private-public partnership (PPP) to establish or operate new institutions. On the other hand, overall budget allocations have been quite low over the past decade, particularly when compared to secondary and higher secondary budget allocations (see Figure 4.1)
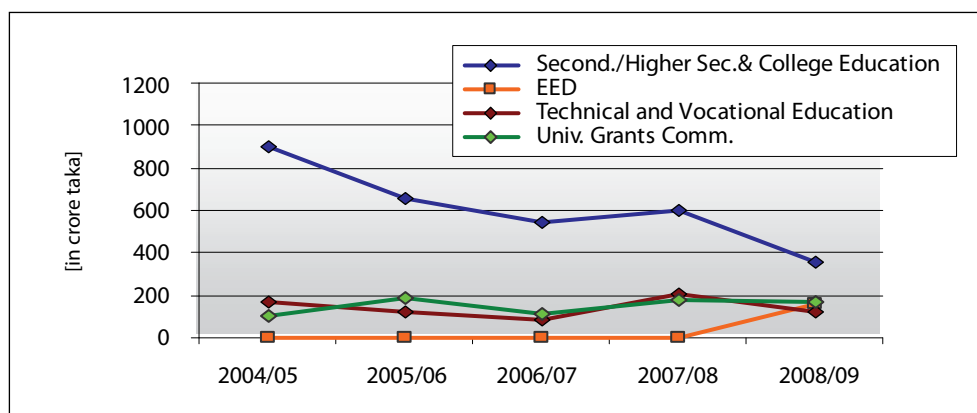
Figure 4.1   Annual budgets for MOE (from development budget)

4.3   Young People and their Integration into the Labour Market

As argued above, the integration of youth into regular and moderately decently paid labour markets is a crucial challenge, for both the youth and their families as well as for the government. Overall, the integration of young people faces two major challenges. One is the age of integration, and the second one is the low level of wages, at least for some (see also Hettige and Mayer 2002, Hettige 2012 and Ranasinghe 2012; see also Furlong 2009c). In regard to the integration into the labour market, there are two extreme cases. Youth

with higher educational achievements often have a substantial time gap between completing education and starting their first employment. The other extreme is that youth, or rather (pre-) teenagers, drop out of education and instantly start working. Overall, only 32.4 per cent of all youth in the BYS sample had any experience of work, whether paid or unpaid. As stated in the education section, nearly 35 per cent among all youth were still engaged in education and 27.6 per cent responded that they were currently engaged in paid work or employment (i.e. 1,820 persons). Among the others, an extremely large group among the women were housewives. Interestingly, only 3 per cent classified themselves as unemployed (in addition to 5 per cent where no answer was given), a figure that is substantially lower in other parts of South Asia (see Ratnasinghe 2012 for Sri Lanka).

Overall, these figures were characterised by substantial gender disparities. While the proportion of working and employed persons was 49 per cent among men it was only 6 per cent among women. Among the latter, 57 per cent classified themselves as housewives. The integration into the labour market has, logically, also a strong age pattern. While among the youngest group (15-19 year olds) less than 20 per cent were currently working, this rate gradually increases to nearly 45 per cent for the oldest age group (25-30). When asked about their previous work experience, only 13 per cent among the women stated that they have any experience of working, whether paid or unpaid. As most of them have categorised themselves as "housewives" this answer is methodologically (and epistemologically) quite tricky. We would argue that this is a typical case of under-reporting of work. As marriage takes place at a rather early age (see chapter 2.4), this is even the case among women of younger age groups (see Figure 4.2).

One rather peculiar pattern is that unemployment, or rather the perception of it, is not as high as we would have expected. On average, it is even less than 4 per cent among young men, and even less than 2 per cent among women (see Figure 4.3, note that the scale is 50 per cent only, to capture the patterns). The age pattern shows that unemployment also increases along the age groups. Overall, we interpret these data in a way that underemployment, rather than employment is likely to be the more decisive phenomenon for these young people.
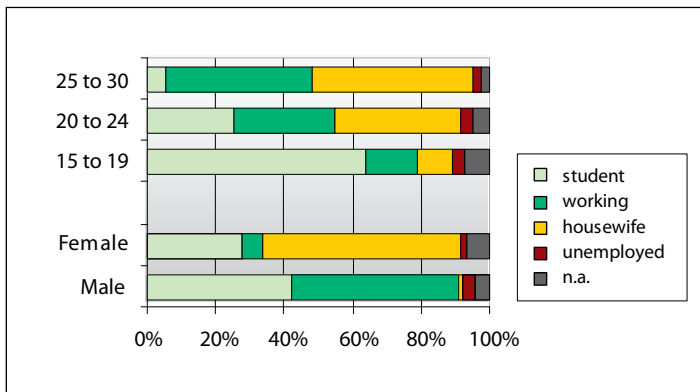
Figure 4.2   Experience of regular work (based on gender and age groups)
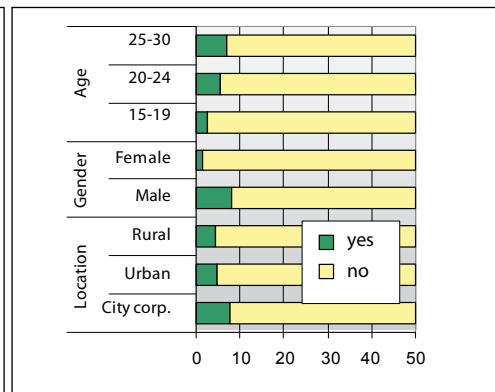
Figure 4.3   Experience (or perception) of unemployment

When analysing the sectors where young people are employed, this, overall, reflects the composition of both rural and urban labour markets in the country. Among all categories, self-employed, in both agriculture and non-agriculture, had the highest sectoral proportions, of nearly 18 per cent among men. In addition, about 9 per cent were engaged in agriculture, followed by non-government service holders, industrial workers and daily wage labourers (at about 4-5 per cent each; see Figure 4.4).

In addition to a sectoral analysis, salaries/wages are quite crucial. Among those currently employed, 14 per cent have incomes of less than 2000 Taka, and are thus far below subsistence needs. Sector-wise, these lowly paid work and employment "opportunities" are prevalent in all sectors. In agriculture the largest income group is in the 2000 to 5000 Taka category, as is also the case for services, other than the public sector. Among those engaged in trade, incomes are significantly higher, and the income distribution is nearly equal for the three middle income groups (5000 to 7500 Taka, 7500 to 10,000 Tk and above 10,000 Taka). Overall, there are vast gender disparities for wages, whereas nearly half of all women have monthly wages/salaries of less than 2000 Taka, less than 3 per cent of all men do so. At the other end of the income scale, nearly 15 per cent of all men have salaries above 7,500 Taka, and nearly 10 per cent higher than 15,000 Taka, whereas this cumulative share among women is not even 1 per cent (see Figure 4.5).

Similarly, when investigating into their employment histories, quite a number of the young people needed to start off with quite low wages or salaries (see Figure 4.6). Although the considerable time span, of up to 15 years, might give rise to distortions, gender disparities are again quite substantial. Again, 44 per cent of all women have started their first jobs in the lowest income group, compared to only 14 per cent of all men. At the same time, the BYS data also documents a promisingly large number of women in higher income groups, of more than 7,500 Taka (nearly 10 per cent), and some of these even had salaries of more than 15,000 Taka. Yet, many of these women have stopped working, as is apparent from total numbers. While currently 270 women are working, the total number of women with work experience is considerably higher, at 368 persons.
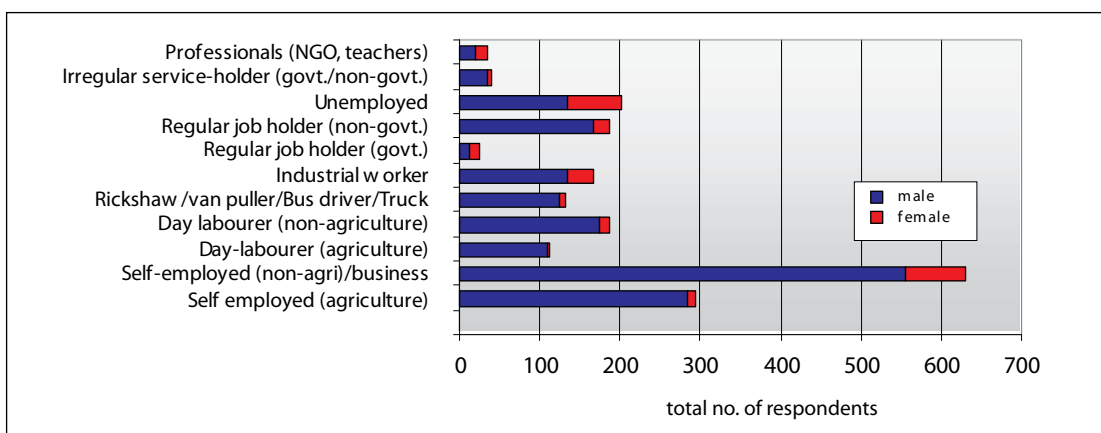
Figure 4.4   Sectoral employment of the youth (by gender)
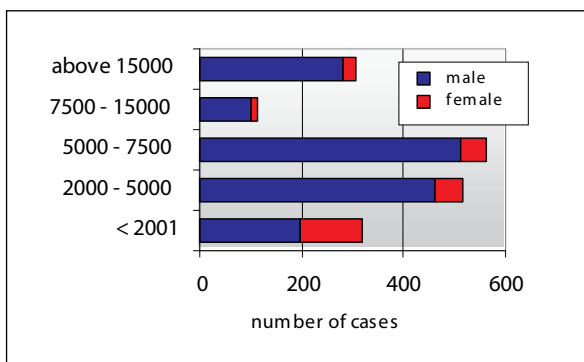
Figure 4.5   Incomes for current employment (by gender)
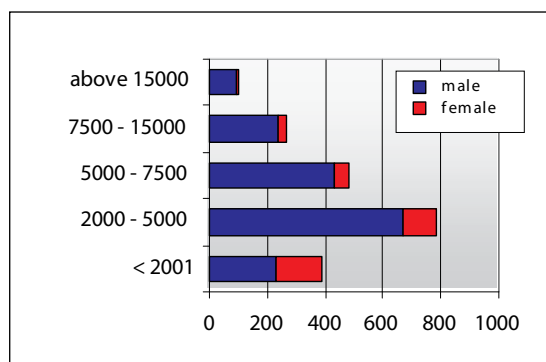
Figure 4.6   Incomes for first-ever work/ employment (by gender)

Besides a sectoral analysis of work and employment, a core indicator for assessing integration into labour markets is the age of joining the labour force. Based on ILO and other international conventions, children and adolescents should only be allowed to work from the age of 18 onwards, and partially between the ages of 16 and 18. At the same time, these international conventions and policy guidelines have little relevance for most South Asian countries, and irrespective of the sectors. In a society where many children have "left" school by the age of 14, it is questionable what they are supposed to do prior to reaching the age of 18. Overall, the BYS documents a critically high number of youth who had taken up work at an age of less than 14. This also has a pronounced regional pattern, and in some of the districts (such as Chuadanga, Jessore, and Sunamganj) this is the case for about half of all youth. In some other districts, absolute numbers are quite high, although the relative share is "only" 20 to 30 per cent (such as Comilla, Rangpur, Mymensingh). At the same time, these cases have declined considerably over the past decade.
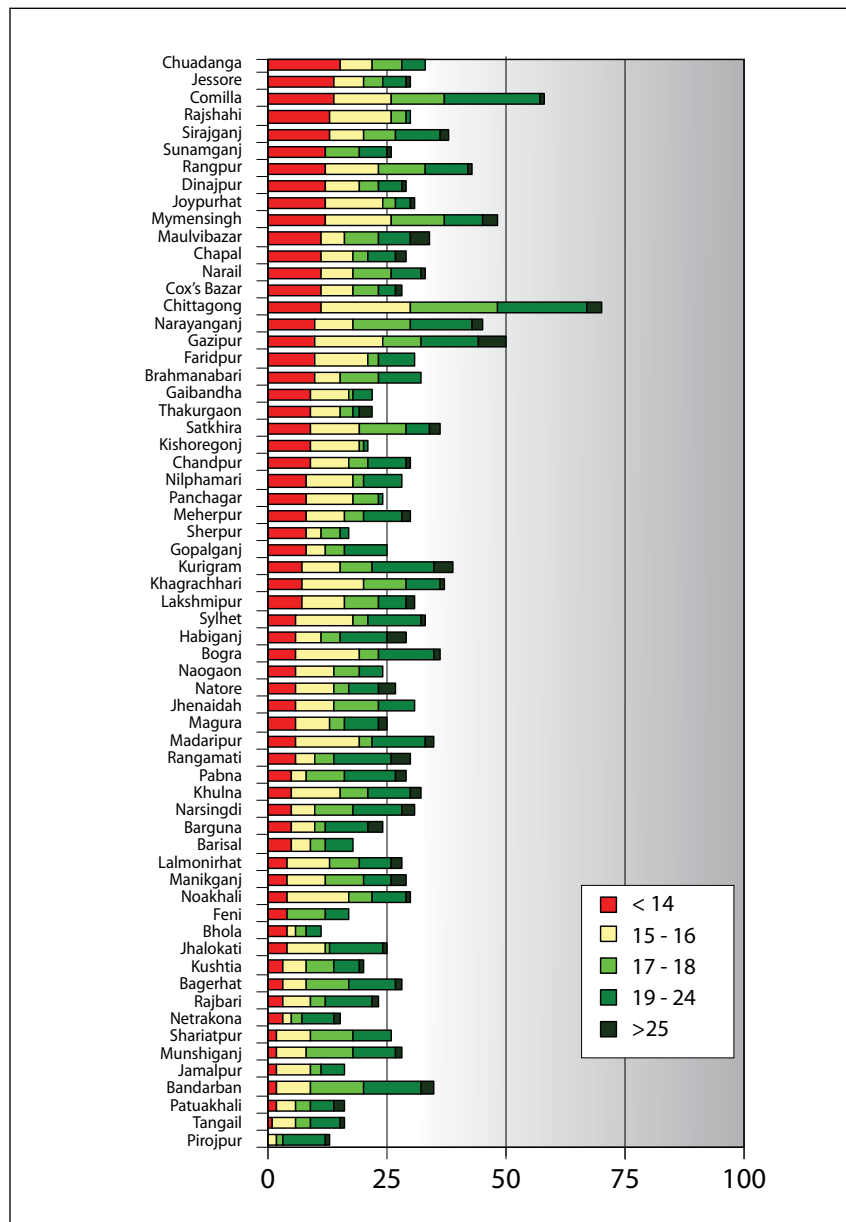
Figure 4.7   Age of starting first paid/unpaid work (district level)

One "classical" field of investigation in youth surveys is the question of the preferred types of employment (or rather work, in most cases). Overall, there is a strong preference for the public sector, and this is a typical pattern for most countries in the region (see also Hettige and Mayer 2002, Hettige 2009 and Ratnasinghe 2012). A comparatively small number of youth prefer to be either self-employed (15 to 20 per cent) or, less prominently, work in private companies. Interestingly, employment in NGOs is only mentioned by a small minority (of less than 5 per cent). In addition to this overall pattern, there is quite a strong age pattern. One obvious pattern is that the attraction of being employed in the public sector decreases quite significantly once the youth get older. While more than 60 per cent among the youngest age group (15 to 20) see this as their first priority it is "only" about 35 per cent among the older age group. We interpret this trend as a growing sense of realising what is realistically possible. At the same time, "family" as an option increased quite significantly. Nearly 30 per cent of the women (see Figure 4.8), and 50 per cent of the older women, have opted for this. While our understanding of this question referred to "family business" many female respondents might have interpreted this as being housewives.

An interesting piece of information was also obtained from asking how they found their current jobs. A large number stated that it was through their families, and for some via friends (see Figure 4.9). Regarding labour migration, there is a strong pattern about plans for migration, both for women and men. Again, there are pronounced gender disparities, while a large majority of women consider migration within Bangladesh (50 per cent), for men this share is much smaller (less than 30 per cent) and many of them consider foreign countries as their potential destination, either Gulf (at 25 per cent) or Western countries. Among the different localities, urban residents have a strong tendency to migrate within Bangladesh, whereas men from rural areas tend to assess the Gulf region as one of their most likely destinations.
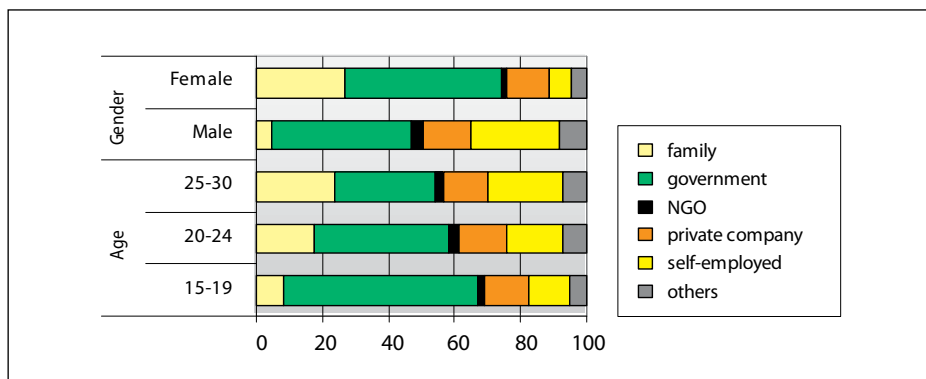
Figure 4.8   Preferred type of work (based on gender and age groups)
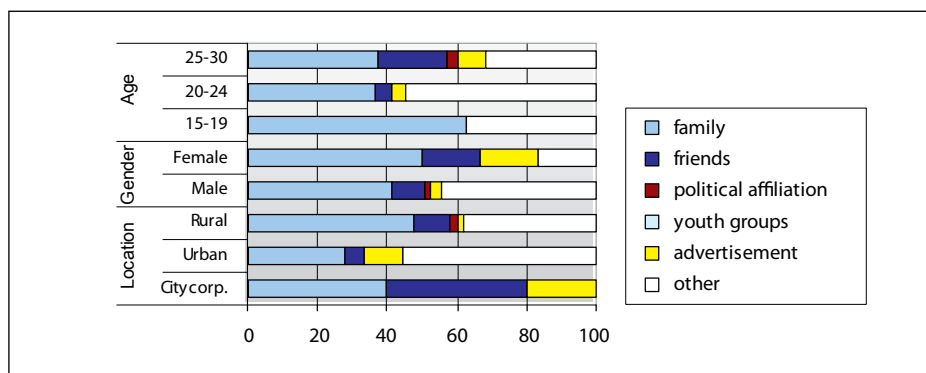
Figure 4.9   Actual access to current employment

4.4   Young People and their Vocational Training and Skills

Vocational and technical training have been treated as quite crucial aspects of personal and economic development in the current National Skill Development Policy. Yet, the actual experiences of young people in regard to vocational and technical training are quite limited. Overall, merely 7 per cent among the youth have had any experience in this field. Among these, there are pronounced patterns that youth in city corporations are most likely to have had training, and much less so in other urban or rural areas (11 per cent, versus 8 and 6 per cent, respectively; see Figure 4.10). Slightly lower disparities exist for gender, although disparities are much lower than we would have thought (at more than 8 versus less than 6 per cent).

When considering age groups, there is an inconsistent pattern, at first sight. While the older youth (25-30) are less likely to have undergone V&T training, the middle age group (20-24) is substantially more likely to have done so (at more than 7 versus more than 9 per cent; see Figure 4.11). Yet, among the older ones, it is mainly women who have no experience, while this has changed quite considerably. While this could reflect current policy changes it is also obvious that among the youngest group the proportion is much lower than for any of the older ones. This could imply that vocational training is generally of interest at a later age. Another astonishing piece of information is that the likelihood of having undergone V&T training clearly increases along with higher incomes (see Figure 4.10). If so, then the target of poverty alleviation would be questionable and budgets might have been mis-invested. On the other hand, the higher incomes of those who had undergone V&T training could also be interpreted as an outcome of these V&T activities - and thus a clear indicator for success. Yet, overall it has to be kept in mind that until today, V&T training has not been taken up by young people on any meaningful scale.

Among those who have undergone V&T training, the single largest group was in computer typing, and this had a high level of participation even in rural areas. At the same time, this might be seen as a minor, although important, technical skill rather than vocational training, as such. In addition, the 200 persons who have mentioned this merely account for 3 per cent of our total sample, and three quarters among them were men. The second largest training group was in tailoring (120 persons), and this was fairly evenly distributed across all three types of localities, city corporation, other urban areas as well as rural areas. In terms of gender, this type of training was predominantly made by women, although about 20 per cent among the trainees was male. A few other types of training had been done by one or two dozens, others even less. Among the more common ones are electrical training (36), livestock rearing (16), and fish farming (12). Yet, as argued before, the lack of T&V training might also partly reflect the lack of recognition of informal training as a form of training.
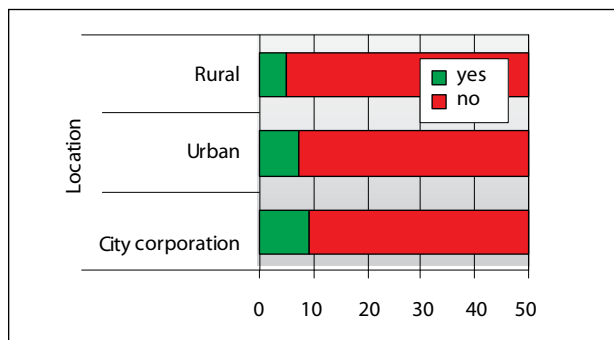
Figure 4.10   Youth who have participated in V&T Training (by locality and income groups)
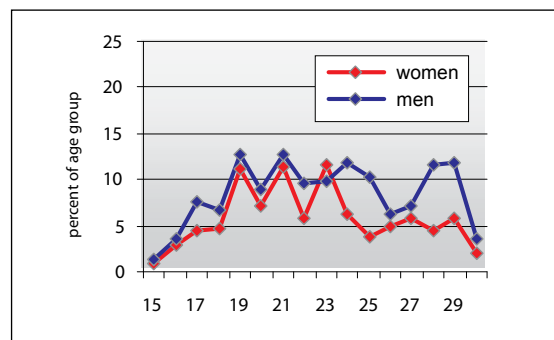
Figure 4.11   Youth who have participated in V&T Training (by gender and age groups)

4.5   Assessing the Vocational Training Policy - A Call for Public Private Partnership

The provision of vocational training has been stated as a clear priority in the revised Education Policy (2009), as well as in the National Skill Development Policy (2011). Among the youth, there is a wide acceptance of the importance of vocational training, indeed much wider than we would have thought. At the same time, there are some contradictions when assessing the target groups. The list proposed by us includes that it should be mandatory for all. As an alternative, we have suggested targeting less educated people only, or the agricultural labour force, or those with plans to migrate. About two thirds agreed (or even highly agreed) that vocational training is only important for less educated people, and this was a consistent pattern across all income groups. At the same time, there was also an even stronger agreement on making vocational training mandatory for all (of more than 80 per cent, two thirds of these in the "highly agree" category; see Figure 4.12). As has been argued above, this inconsistency could be due to the tendency to select the "agree" option for many questions (see also 1.4, methodology).

In spite of these inconsistencies, young people have a clear understanding that vocational training is not only of benefit for particular occupational groups, such as the agricultural labour force. Indeed, there was an astonishingly open-stated opposition ("disagree" or even "highly disagree") to this question, of around 70 per cent. Similarly, the respondents also disagreed on the suggestion that vocational training was mainly of importance for the urban labour force or for those who plan to engage in labour migration (see Figure 4.12.).
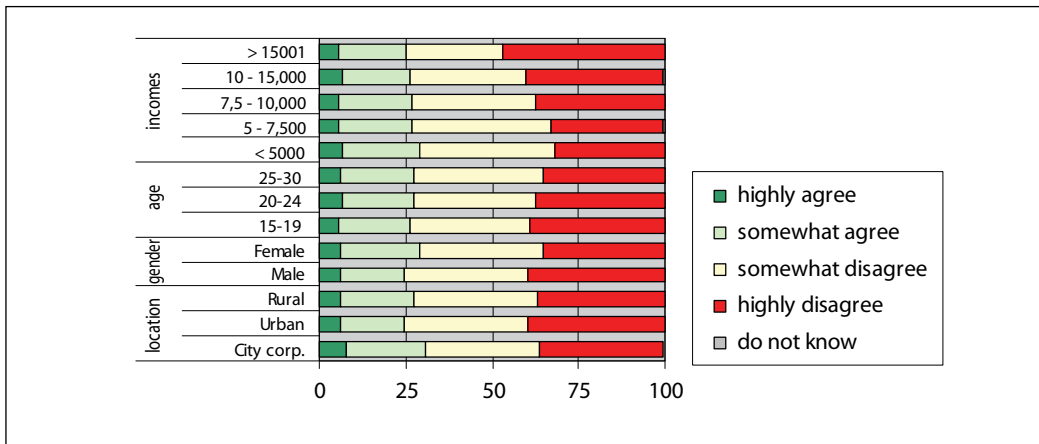
Figure 4.12   Assessing the need for vocational training
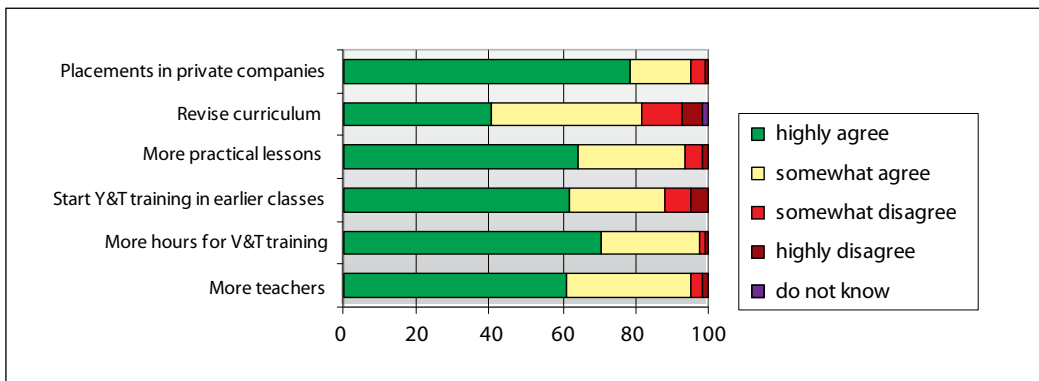
Figure 4.13   Priorities for vocational training policies

In order to assess policies in regard to vocational training, and how to improve these policies, we have included a list of six policy components. Overall, there was a strong agreement on most of these measures. One policy measure that had the highest level of agreement of nearly 95 per cent, was the suggestion for placements in private companies (80 per cent among these even "highly agreed"). On the other hand, fewer young people agreed on the need to revise the curriculum. Disparities, whether by gender, locality or income groups, were quite low.

4.6   Vocational Training and Labour Markets – Some Policy Recommendations

For the strengthening of economic development, the integration of the young generation into the national (and international) labour market is quite instrumental. Policy makers tend to point out the "demographic dividend" but also address young people in rather functionalistic and even strategic language and point out the need for skill development in order to secure their positions in the labour market. At the same time, the educational and vocational policies have, so far, yet to achieve these goals. A large number of youth from lower income households has neither completed a moderately acceptable level of education nor undergone vocational training, on any meaningful scale.

Overall, there is a considerable gap in the integration of young people into the labour market. Young women in particular tend to stay at home. Although this might be a life cycle phenomenon, we would be careful to interpret it as such. At the same time, we would also hesitate to apply Western norms, where women's integration into the labour market is presumed as a "global" standard. Overall, for future youth surveys, both in Bangladesh and elsewhere in the region, this will be a vital topic to capture. In order to do this, a more detailed methodology needs to be designed, specifying how these young women see their possible integration into the labour market, and how decision making processes about this integration within the household are being carried out. When conceptualising training modules for technical and vocational training these also need to be "tailored" to their needs.

Irrespective of gender, most young people have voiced great difficulties in finding "appropriate" employment. For many, the current employment status is "self-employed". While this is positive, at first sight, we are also aware that this could disguise a more or less substantial level of underemployment, or even unemployment. For many lowly educated persons, both men and women, the integration into the labour market is also characterised by extremely low levels of income, whether in Ready Made Garment (RMG) or at any other industry. For more highly educated persons and students, again both men and women, there is the need to increase options for accessing employment, and the public sector should be only one among many other options. Overall, there need to be much closer linkages between educational institutions, and vocational training ones, and business companies.

On the part of the government, the core responsibility should be to facilitate and strengthen these linkages, rather than taking up the responsibility of actually delivering these "services". One way of doing so could be financial incentives, in the form of tax incentives for those companies that are willing to accept young job entrants with moderate remunerations, at least covering subsistence needs. Yet again, there is the urgent need to make these integrations socially accessible, and not misuse these budgets as a (state) subsidy accessible only to those with pronounced family and/or political links.

5 Bangladesh's Young Citizens

Dhaka University XI/2008

5.1   Bangladesh's Young Citizens - An Introduction

Young people are considered to be one of the most powerful forces in bringing about political and social change in a country, and last year's revolutions across Northern Africa and the Arab World have demonstrated this quite vividly. Across the South Asian region, substantial support from youth groups is essential for any party to win elections, whether at the national or local level. Students' unions and youth wings of the parties are considered to be an extremely important component of the mainstream political parties. At the same time, youth engagement is usually associated with students from colleges and universities, and thus more or less pronounced elite groups, at least in some countries (for details see chapter 3.3, above). Yet, a large majority of youth does not even reach class X, let alone take up higher secondary education or studying. While in European countries, political engagement among employees and workers is organised in the form of trade unions from their internal sources, in Bangladesh, as elsewhere in the region, this is usually done by persons from outside. In addition, links to party politics are the guiding principle, and thus these "unionists" may represent the interests of the workers often only partially.

From our vantage point of aiming at strengthening governance for youth policies, it was quite crucial to gain more knowledge about how Bangladeshi youth view politics. This needs to address both their understanding of themselves as young citizens, with a comprehensive set of rights and duties, towards the state and communities (see also deSouza et al. 2009, 47ff, Amarasinghe 2012; see also Flanagan 2009 and Harris 2009). At the core of political participation, registration as a voter and participation in elections is quite important. One aspect of interest was to try to get an understanding about the decision making processes as to whom to vote for, as well as perceptions about the political engagement of youth, and students in particular.

When investigating the political ideas of youth, there is also a need to address their perception of the state and core institutions of the state. For the latter, the policies that are of immediate relevance to them are quite crucial, such as education, vocational training and skill development, as well as labour market policies. In addition, we have also included the current Awami League's policy of "Digital Bangladesh". Although this does not explicitly focus on young citizens, these are, at the same time, implicitly the ones that are to profit most significantly from this policy. One further aspect of this chapter is also to take up a few core topics of IGS' past public perception surveys (IGS 2008 and 2009) and the Governance Barometer Survey 2010 (Aziz and Graner 2011). In order to allow for comparisons, this includes a few questions about current assessments of the performance of the government, level of satisfaction with key "institutions" (such as the ACC, the military, the police), as well as perceptions about corruption. This is followed by a sub-section on law and order and on the perception of crimes. As in last year's Governance Barometer Survey, we have also asked the youth about their understanding of democracy, more broadly.

5.2   Youth as Politically Active Citizens

When analysing governance aspects of political participation, one crucial pre-condition for any type of active political participation is to be, or rather to get, registered as a voter. In most countries the state defines the age for registering as a voter at 18, and this is also the rule laid down in the Constitution of Bangladesh (GOB 1974, Article 122b). Yet, there are substantial gaps in getting this registration, and while gender disparities are quite low, regional disparities are much more pronounced. Overall, a majority of more than 70 per cent of all eligible youth (18-30) was registered as voters, and registration was even higher among women (nearly 74

versus 69 per cent for women and men, respectively). At the same time, young people usually take some time in getting registered, and many among the 18 to 20 year-olds have not yet done so.

More concerningly even among those aged 21 only about two thirds have registered by now. Similarly, registration was about 70 and 80 per cent among those aged 22 and 23, respectively (see Figure 5.1). This clearly documents that a considerably large number of them has not participated during the last national election in December 2008, although they could have done so. Only among those aged 24 and above, registration as voters was higher than 90 per cent, but there was no single age group where it was universal. When disaggregating the registration of voters at a district-level, there is no clear pattern. Registration among those who are 20 and older was 90 per cent and above in 15 districts, across the country. At the same time, there are a number of districts where registration is below 80 per cent, and two districts with extremely low rates are Tangail and Shariatpur (as well as Jamalpur and Sirajganj; see Figure 5.3, below).

In order to analyse participation during the last national election in December 2008, we have further filtered (or dis-aggregated) our data set to include only youth who had reached 18 by then, and thus 21 or older when the BYS was carried out in December 2011. Among those, quite a high number of 89 per cent voted in at least one national election. Overall, 28 per cent had voted in two (25 per cent) or even more (3 per cent) national elections (see Figure 5.2). In regard to local elections (either union parishad, upazilla or municipal/ pourashava elections), participation is similarly high, at 88 per cent. Among those, 57 per cent have participated in only one local election, in addition to 25 per cent who have already voted in two and 6 per cent who participated in three or more local level elections.
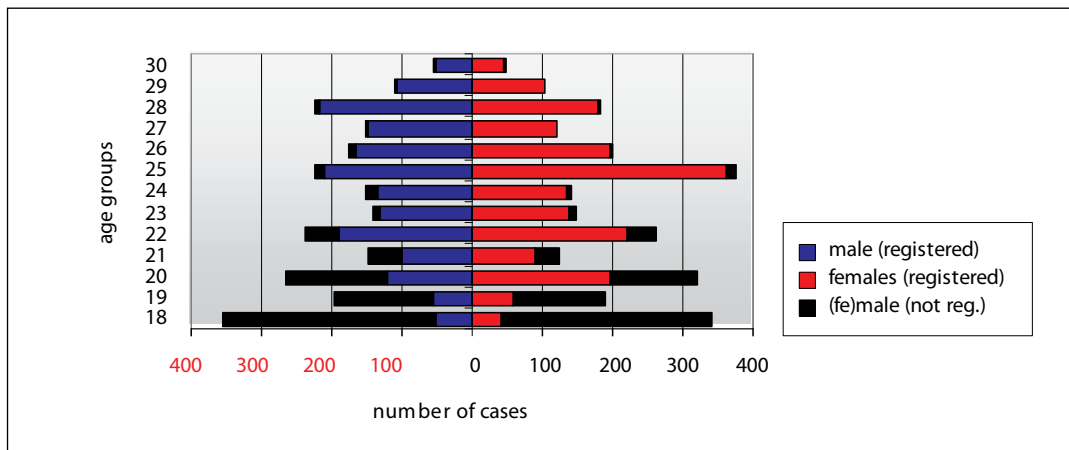
Figure 5.1   Age composition of young registered (non-)voters
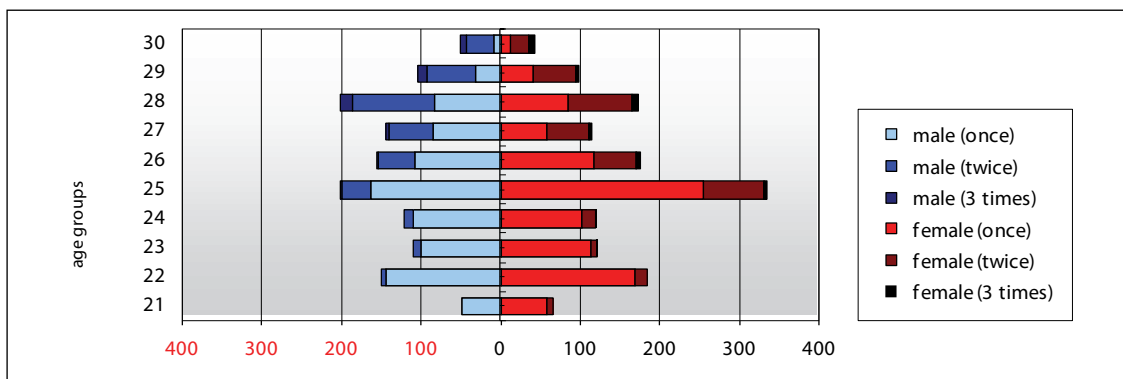
Figure 5.2   Age composition and election participation of young
voters in the last national election (December 2008)

BANGLADESH
Registration as voters
(BYS 2011)

(n= 3913, aged 20 plus)

263

■ voters
■ non voters

km
0   50   100

cartography: Graner 2012
data source: IGS Bangladesh Youth Survey 2011
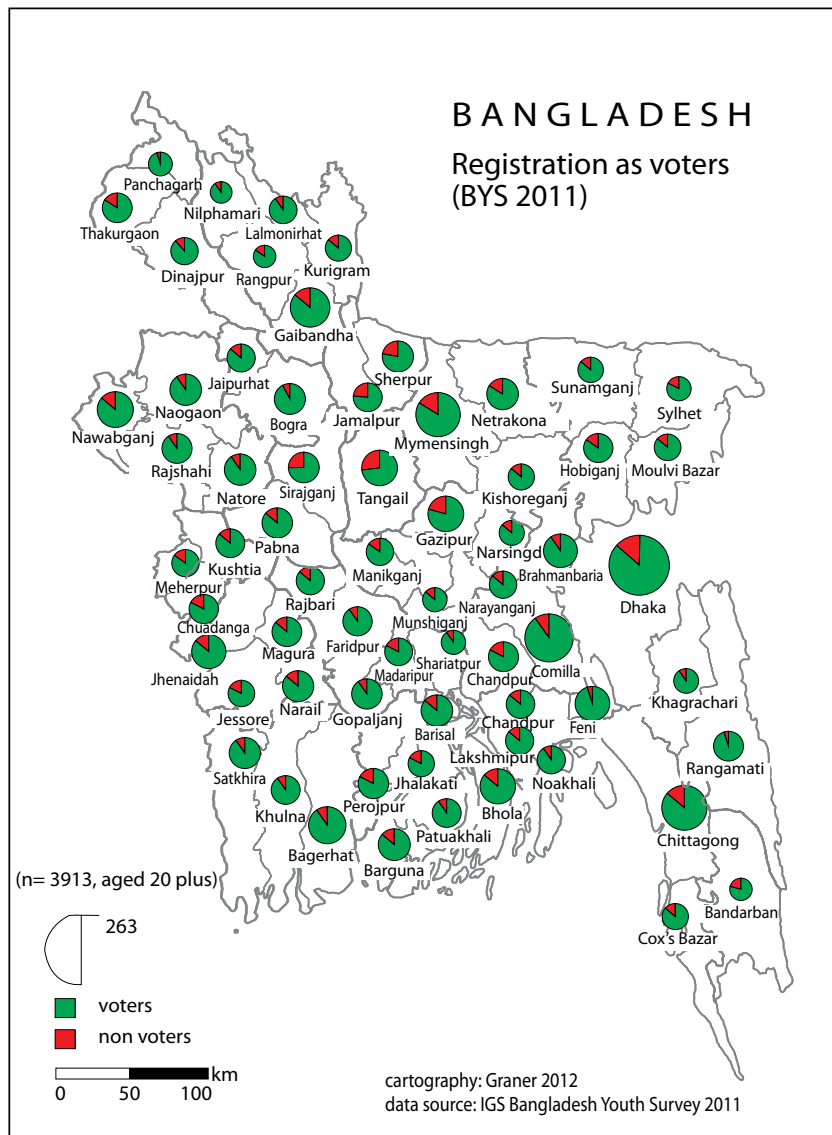
Figure 5.3 Registration of young voters (20 and older, district-level)

A crucial question for us was to find out about the affiliation of young people to any particular political party. Only 2 per cent of the respondents stated that they are members of political parties. Although these data confirm the findings from the British Council's study "The Next Generation" (at one per cent; ibid. 2010, 15) we somehow assume that this number is underreported and that respondents are reluctant to disclose their involvement with any political party. At the same time, we also asked about the membership in other groups, such as youth groups or cultural groups. Again, percentages have been only three and two per cent, respectively. One possible explanation for this lack in participation could be due to the formulation of these questions, in the questionnaire and/or during the interview. This could have been misleading, and the term "engagement" could have been too formal for most respondents. Among those who stated their involvement with political parties, the average duration of doing so was 5 years, and thus slightly longer than 4 years for involvement in youth groups, and similarly long for those who are involved in social and cultural groups (4.9 years).

When asked about the involvement that students should have in politics, there was a strong consensus that students should participate as voters. Supporting candidates and becoming candidates was also favoured, although mainly "to some extent" and not "to a large extent". On the other hand, there was quite a pronounced opposition towards rallies, and even more so towards hartals (see Figure 5.4). Overall, there is also quite a strong opposition towards student politics. While a majority of young people support the need to get involved in youth politics (about 50 to 80 per cent), student politics is seen much more critically. There, the level of agreement is only about 15 to 22 per cent. When analysing the age pattern for these two aspects, levels of agreement are highest among the 20 to 25-year olds and among the 27-28 year olds, and considerably lower among the younger and older ones (see Figure 5.5)
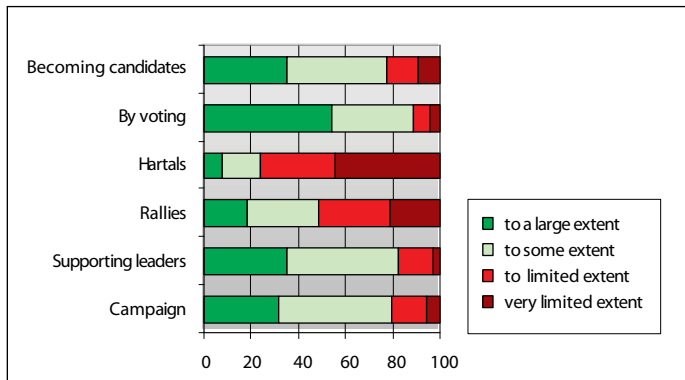
Figure 5.4   Forms of participation of students in politics
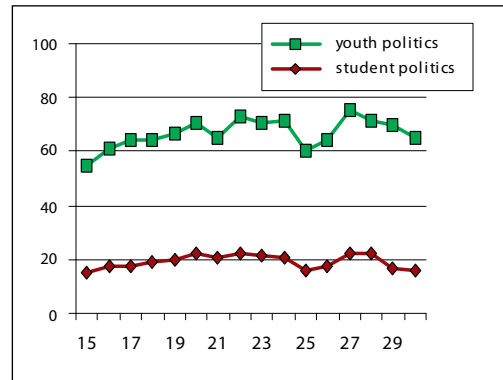
Figure 5.5   Participation in youth politics and student politics (by age)

5.3   Assessing Fair Elections and Deciding Whom to Vote For

Holding free and fair elections has always been a challenge for Bangladesh. To stabilise this crucial process, the idea of the caretaker government was introduced in 1996, in order to avoid the dominance of the ruling party or parties. When the current Awami League government decided to abolish the caretaker government in July 2011 and declared that the up-coming elections should (or will) be held under the ruling party, there was strong opposition, both from the major opposition BNP and from civil society (see Odhikar 2011, Human Rights Monitoring Report; Daily Star 2011). Several opinion polls, such as Daily Star – Nielsen in December 2011, or Prothom Alo (2011), have already shown that people prefer elections to be held under an interim Caretaker Government. Without taking up this debate, we asked the youth which are the factors that for them define free and fair elections. These included a strong role of the Election Commission and also a sub-set of three questions for defining the "code of conduct". The latter include that parties' respect each other, a mandatory disclosure of budgets, and that only candidates without a criminal record could participate.

Among these, two aspects received an overwhelmingly strong level of agreement, namely the strong role of the Election Commission, with nearly 80 per cent of "highly agree"- level and an additional 17 per cent in the "somewhat agree" level (i.e. a total agreement of more than 95 per cent). Nearly as much agreement was given for the parties' respect for each other (91 per cent, but a lower proportion in the highest level). Other aspects were supported, but much less strong. On the other hand, young people showed strong concerns about having the elections held under the ruling party, although only 46 per cent of the respondents either strongly or somewhat disagreed. When seen together, demanding a strong Election Commission and not

disagreeing on elections held under the ruling party seem to be contradictory. Either people believe that a strong role of the Election Commission is expected and people perceive that this is not possible under a political government. Alternatively, if a strong role of the Election Commission can be ensured, people will find elections much more credible. In all the opinions, the regional and gender variations are not pronounced, although young women and people living in rural areas are generally more supportive than men and youth living in urban areas. Yet, one aspect where gender disparities were quite substantial was the disagreement with elections held by the ruling party. There, the opposition from men was much more outspoken, with nearly 40 per cent at the "highly disagree" level, compared to less than 20 per cent among women.
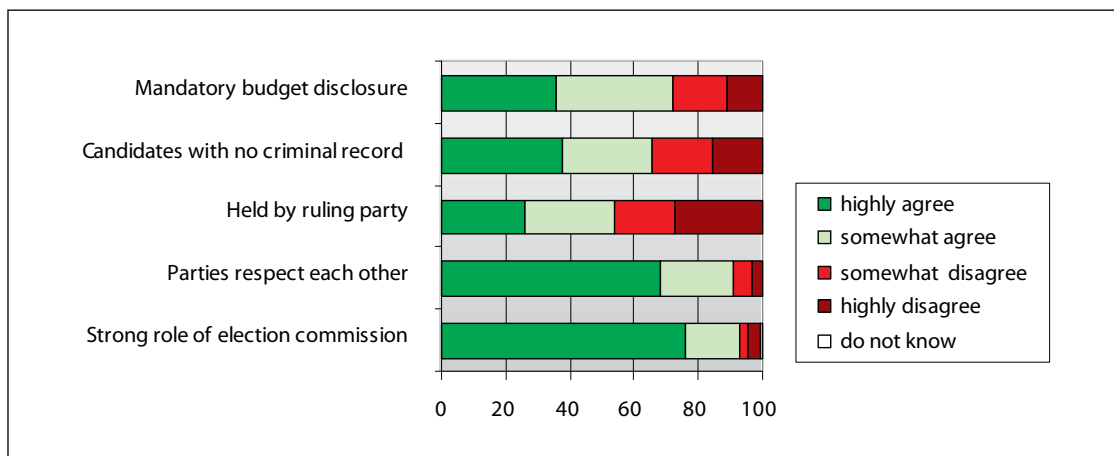
Figure 5.6   Criteria for defining fair elections

One quite interesting sub-set of questions inquired about the importance of factors that should influence the decision making process about voting. The criteria we suggested also included whether or not a party has a good manifesto and political leaders, or whether they consider local issues or issues related to youth. In addition, we had added some rather provocative statements, such as suggestions made by family and friends, but also whether a party is likely to win the elections. The most obvious pattern was that local issues and youth issues were considered most important (with "highly agree" of more than 70 and 80 per cent, respectively). The aspects of strongest disagreements were suggestions made by friends, and, somehow astonishingly, by other family members (with 70 and 50 per cent who "highly disagree", respectively). Compared to these figures, the aspects of "probability of winning the election" only received a moderate level of disagreement (see Figure 5.7).

As stated earlier, when we designed the questionnaire we were quite aware of the risk that many among the youth would generally tend to opt for "highly important" for whatever questions we might ask. One way of counter-balancing this tendency and getting more nuanced answers was to rank these options. This has been done for a few core questions, such as the one on voting decisions. Among all factors, respondents think that whether a party considers the interest of youth should be the most important determinant for voting, followed by a party's interest in addressing local issues (52 and 45 per cent, respectively). When ranked, the importance of youth issues was an even more dominant criteria (at 29, 28 and 19 per cent for being the first, second and third most important factor, respectively). Although the aspect of considering local issues has a similar overall share, this is mainly due to a high percentage of third priority, and not first. When assessing these rankings at weighted proportions, as done last year, the emphasis on the first matter would have been even more pronounced. Similarly, the party's manifesto is also listed as an important factor (at ca. 50 cumulative per cent), but again this is mainly due to second and third priorities (see Figure 5.8).

Based on these answers we thought that it might be an interesting exercise to correlate these to actual voting behaviour. Yet, when cross tabulating the two parameters, "have you always voted for the same party" and "the importance of party affiliation of a candidate", the result does not show any particular pattern. Although a small majority of those who have always voted for the same party stated that party affiliation should be considered for voting, another 45 per cent either strongly or somewhat disagreed. Interestingly, the same proportions also apply for those who did not vote for the same party.
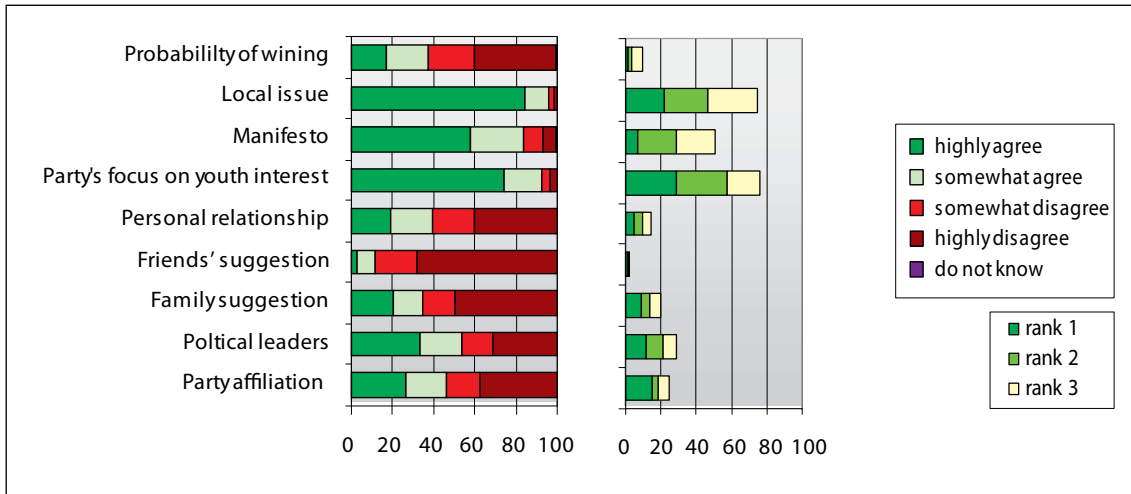
Figure 5.7   Criteria for deciding whom to vote for (levels of agreements)

Figure 5.8   Criteria for deciding whom to vote for (ranked according to importance)

5.4   Defining Democracy

One of the main objectives of our survey was to assess how youth define democracy. As done in the last year's Governance Barometer Survey, we have again provided five definitions for democracy and asked the respondents to rank the top three according to importance. Among political scientists, Dalton et al. (2007) argued that, generally speaking, survey responses on democracy can be grouped into three different types. The two major ones are to understand democracy as an outcome and to see democracy as a process. In addition, some surveys also define democracy also as "social benefit", as for instance related to the fulfillment of basic needs, particularly in low income countries (ibid., 145/46). When following this typology, the majority of youth in Bangladesh views democracy as a process.

Following our last opinion surveys, the definitions for democracy have included 1) elections every five years, 2) rule by consent, 3) free public debates, 4) participation in decision making, and 5) access to information on how the government works. Whereas last year, respondents were asked to rank all five, this year we only allowed for three answers, in form of first, second and third priorities. Overall, our survey reflects that Bangladeshi youths' perceptions about democracy are mainly defined by having free and fair elections. When ranked, this was given first priority by an overwhelming majority of 65 per cent, in addition to 18 per cent who ranked it either second (8 per cent) or third (10 per cent). Among all other options, rule by consent and access to information have been top priorities, while free public debates got the highest percentage as second most important factor. Again, access to information got the highest support as third ranked option (38 per cent; see Figure 5.9). Among all options, "free public debate" as a core feature of democracy got the lowest ranked percentage (at 26 percentage points).

When comparing these results to last year's Governance Barometer Survey "elections every five years" was also the most preferred option last year. On the other hand, the ranking of other responses has changed over the years and of course across groups. Overall, young citizens seem to be more concerned about the free flow of information, and thus they have ranked "ability to access information on how the government works" as the second definition of democracy. Interestingly, last year this option was ranked last. This year, the middle options "rule by consent" and "participate in decision making" and "free public debate" were ranked lowest, and overall agreement was mainly due to rank 2, particularly for "free public debate" (see Figure 5.9). Again, if weighted and indexed, the first definition, having regular elections, would get an even stronger consensus. Access to information, on the other hand, would be weighted quite low, as more than half was based on a third rank only.
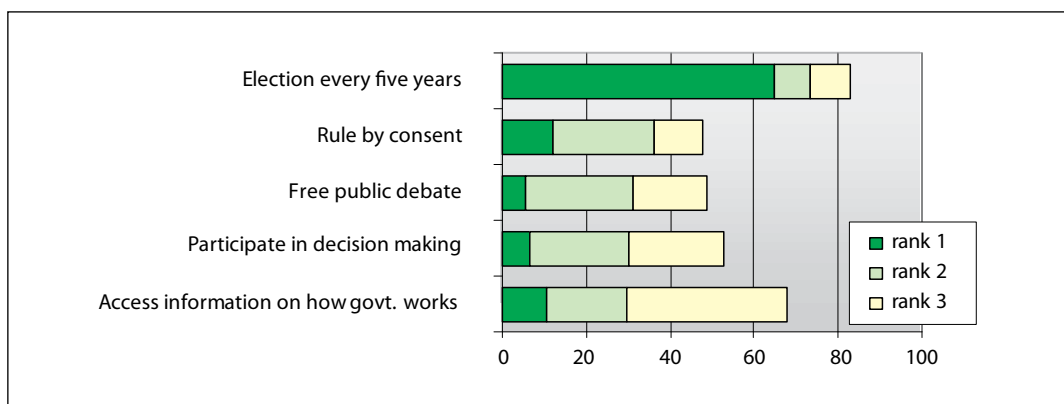
Figure 5.9   Defining democracy (based on ranked answers)

5.5   The Role of Media in Learning about the State

Access to information is viewed as one of the preconditions of ensuring participation in the democratic process. For doing so, media plays an essential role in collecting and disseminating information to citizens. Kim et al. (2003) argue that media has a strong role to play in creating the "opinion climate", i.e. to influence the public perception about political agents and events, but also to voice their disagreement and to demand changes. At the same time, an effective media also has the function to regularly inform the policy makers about the nation's "policy and development needs" (Hudock 2003, 34; see also Temin and Smith 2002 or Ali 2006). For this chapter on young citizens, it is quite important to learn more about their sources of information about the state. We have listed several types of media and asked them to assess the importance as a source of information regarding the state.

All respondents unequivocally accepted the role of news on television channels and newspapers as major sources of information about the state (85 per cent and 83 per cent respectively mentioned them as "highly important" and even 98 per cent for highly and somewhat important when combined). Interestingly, the third most important option is schools, although at more than 20 per centage points less (60 per cent highly agree), followed by radio. Overall, the least important factors are clubs. Political parties and talking to friends have received almost the same percentage of high agreement, whereas talking to friends receives much support as a "somewhat important" factor. Websites were mentioned as highly important by 30 per cent and somewhat important by another 35 per cent. At the same time, there is a pronounced number of youth who have stated

that they "can not say" (11 per cent), an aspect which we will take up later in the section about the "digital generation" section (see chapter 6.3, below).

Overall, the disparities, whether based on gender, locality, social groups or even districts, are much lower than we would have thought. There are no pronounced gender variations, except for two cases, namely websites (38 per cent versus 32 per cent for men and women, respectively) and talking to friends (29 per cent versus 21 per cent). Overall, rural-urban or socio-economic variations are neither pronounced. While these general assessments about the importance of different types of media show quite an optimistic picture about the interests of youth in the state, we also feel the need to question some of these statements. The overall importance of TV news might not reflect actual utilisation pattern, whether youth can actually watch TV, or even have electricity in their homes.

Similarly, the importance of reading the newspaper is also not reflected in their weekly leisure activities. This argument is even of higher relevance for internet utilisation, as will be discussed in more detail (see chapter 6.3, below). Overall, the analysis of other sections of the data base, and particularly leisure activities and the role of media, shows that these assessments have no direct link to whether or not youth actually utilise particular means of information. To have more information about these issues, it would be quite important for future surveys to include more specific questions and to analyse these in (much) more detail. Overall, this would also be quite an important aspect for ranking, in order to refine this crucial understanding.
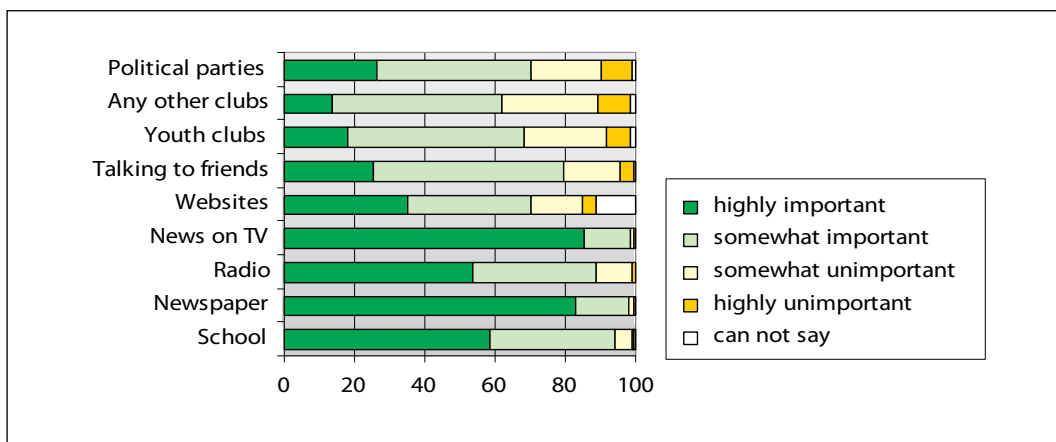
Figure 5.10   Role of Media in learning about the state

5.6   **Performance of Institutions**

Effective "institutions", in the sense of political bodies set up to deliver services, are necessary for having a government which performs well. How people evaluate the performance of a government depends by and large on how well functioning its institutions are. Based on this premise, we have included this set of questions in all of our past perceptions surveys, including the Governance Barometer Survey and the current Bangladesh Youth Survey. Following the past surveys, we have included eight core bodies, namely Members of Parliament (MPs) and Local Government Representatives, the Judiciary and village courts (shalish), the military and the police, as well as the Election Commission (EC) and the Anti-Corruption Commision (ACC). Overall, there is an overwhelmingly positive feedback about viewing the military as the one with the highest

level of satisfaction (with 92 per cent of support), followed by Local Government institutions (83 per cent), the Election Commission and shalish (local arbitration committees), at 79 and 77 per cent, respectively. Overall, the military was assessed with the widest acceptance in the highest level category ("very satisfied", see Figure 5.11, below).

At the other extreme, dissatisfaction is highest towards the police, who topped at 45 per cent dissatisfaction (combining "very dissatisfied" and "somewhat dissatisfied"). This was followed by Members of Parliament (32 per cent) and the Judiciary (25 per cent). Further disaggregations by experience show that those who have had any experience in dealing with the police during the past three years report a significantly higher level of dissatisfaction (67 per cent), compared to those without experience (42 per cent). This pattern is similar for MPs and the Judiciary, as well. Overall, these findings have been quite similar to the ones from our last year's Governance Barometer Survey (see Aziz and Graner 2011, 87) and have also been confirmed by a recent survey conducted by the Daily Star and Nielsen (ibid.). In the latter, a low satisfaction with the police was followed by the Judiciary and Parliament.

When the data is disaggregated by gender and locality, female respondents and respondents living in rural areas generally reported a higher level of satisfaction, compared to males and respondents living in urban areas and in city corporations. The dissatisfaction in regard to the police had an average level of about 25 per cent. At the same time, this aspect also had some quite pronounced regional patterns, as has already been shown in last year's Governance Barometer Survey. In some of the districts the level of dissatisfaction was as high as 40 to 50 per cent, as for instance in Gaibanda, Rangpur, Kurigram, Banderban, Moulvi Bazar, Nilphamari. As was shown last year, many of these are border districts (see Figure 5.13). In regard to gender disparities, there was a strong gender pattern for MPs, where men voiced a much stronger level of dissatisfaction than women, at 40 versus 24 per cent. For MPs, the level of satisfaction was much lower in city corporations, although dissatisfaction was not significantly higher (see Figure 5.12, below).
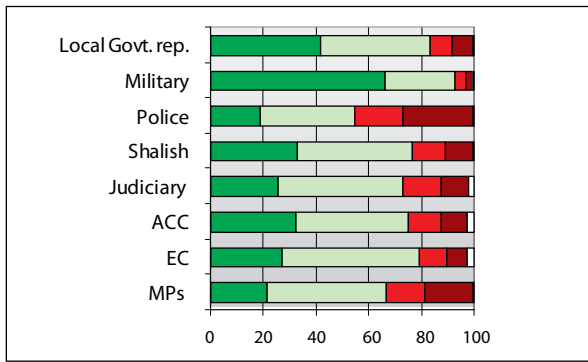
Figure 5.11 (Dis-)Satisfaction with key institutions
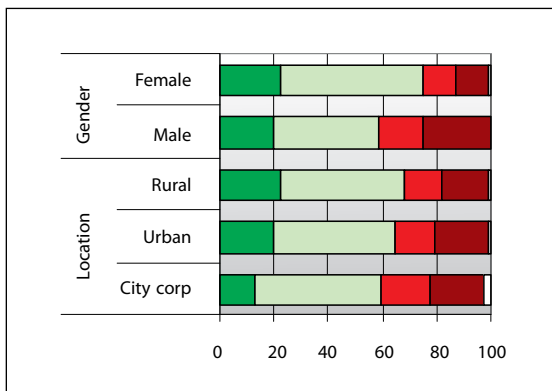
Figure 5.12 (Dis-)Satisfaction regarding MPs (by gender and locality)

Legend:
- ■ very dissatisfied
- ■ somewhat dissatisfied
- ☐ somewhat satisfied
- ■ very satisfied
- ☐ do not know
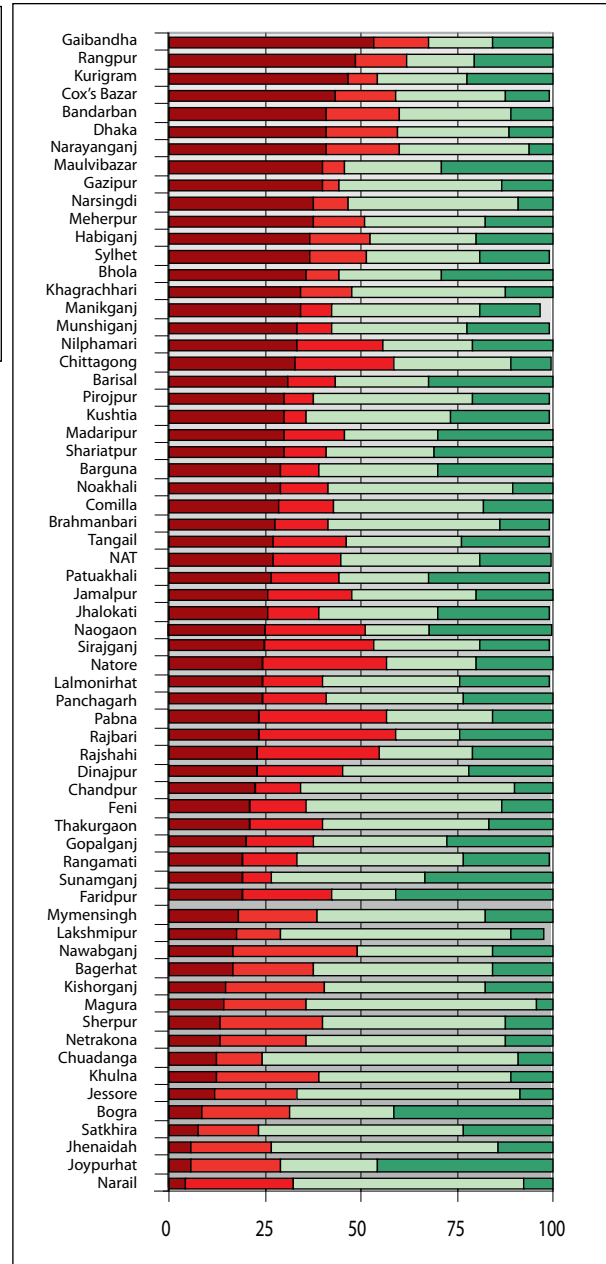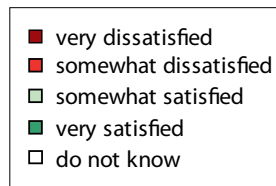
Figure 5.13 (Dis-)Satisfaction regarding the police (district-level)

5.7   Perceptions about Corruption and Crime

As a follow-up to last year's Governance Barometer Survey, we have again included a section about perceptions of corruption. The results show quite a high correlation to the ones regarding satisfaction with core institutions, in general. Thus, among all institutions, the Bangladesh police was perceived as the most corrupt entity (with 55 per cent in the "highly corrupt" and an additional 32 per cent in the "somewhat corrupt" category) followed by the judiciary (82 per cent). Hospitals and the health sector are viewed as highly corrupt

by 40 per cent of the respondents, followed by another 40 per cent of somewhat corrupt. The education sector, tax and NGOs are seen as the least corrupt entities, with 44 per cent, 32 per cent and 27 per cent overall disagreement, respectively. Overall, neither urban - rural variations nor gender ones are very pronounced.

In regard to socio-economic disparities, people in higher income groups generally report a higher sensitivity towards corruption than lower income groups. The difference of perception is highest for three sectors, namely power, health and tax (see Figure 5.15, below). This does not necessarily mean that poor people are less exposed to corruption, although for tax they might have a lower degree of exposure. Overall, we interpret this as different degrees of tolerance towards corruption.

When asking youth about their perceptions of crime, we provided them with an extensive list of crimes and asked them to rate these according to severity. Overall, there was an astonishingly strong perception about crime, and it would have been interesting to find out whether this is based on actual experience or overall perception. The top five crimes are murder, drug and alcohol abuse, dowry and personal property crimes, all with more than 80 per cent of response as "very severe". More than 70 per cent of the respondents also think that eve teasing, sexual violence, and women and child trafficking are also quite severe in Bangladesh. More than 60 per cent of the respondents have also reported kidnapping and demands for ransom, police harassment and extortion as major crimes. Only a few crimes, such as ethnic and religious violence, are not seen as severe (48 and 61 per cent, even when combining "somewhat severe" and "highly severe"). Some crimes have a strong gender dimension, and thus young women respondents reported a higher degree of severity for these crimes, such as eve-teasing, dowry, and sexual violence, although the differences are not highly pronounced (see Figures 5.14 and 5.15).
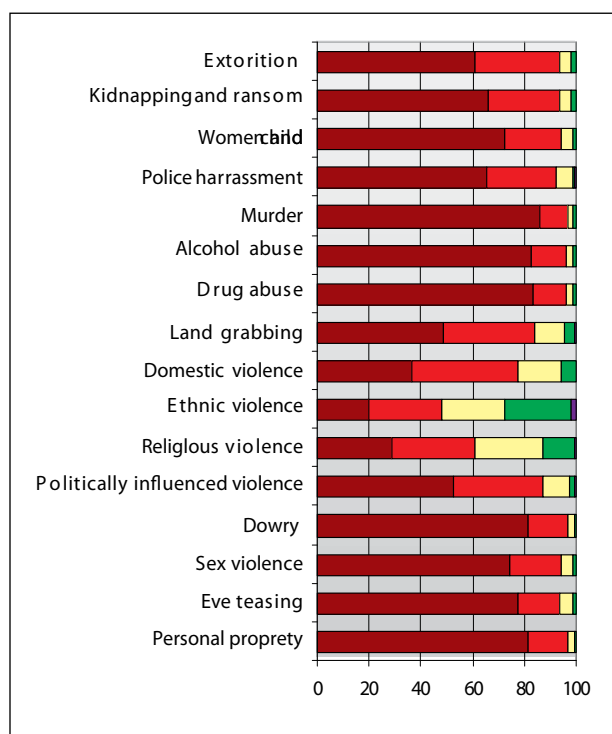
Figure 5.14 Assessing the most severe crimes
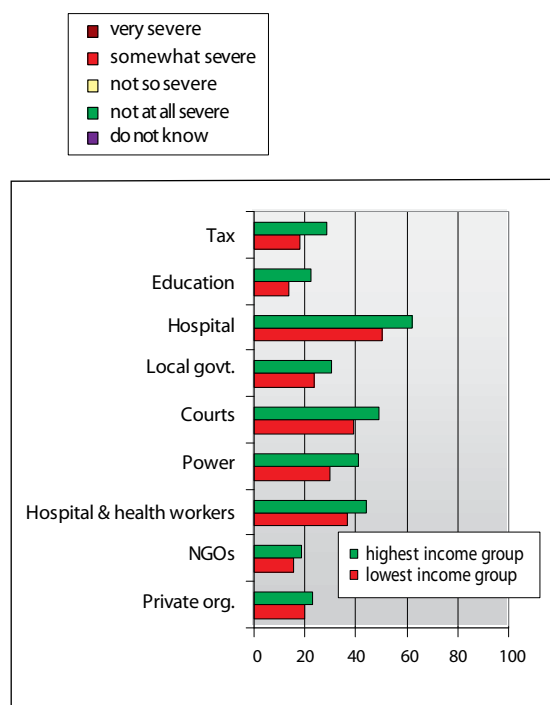
Figure 5.15 Assessing corruption (disaggregated by income groups)

Again, it is reflected that males are more exposed to political violence compared to females (58 per cent and 48 per cent very severe, respectively). At the same time, some of the crimes are much more prominent in urban areas and city corporations, such as land grabbing, murder and drug and alcohol (ab)uses. In city corporations, a higher percentage of respondents reported more police harassment compared to those living in urban and rural areas.

When asking how justice should be handled, we have provided a sub-set of formal and informal mechanisms, and asked the youth whether they agree or disagree. According to their perceptions, the judiciary, government executives, as well as family are the top three mechansims for handling justice (with 94, 90 and 90 per cent agreement, respectively). Yet, young people also perceive that shalish (local arbitration committees) and religious leaders should play an important role in handling justice (each with more than 70 per cent support). At the same time, there was some strong opposition regarding the involvement of politicians in handling justice. Thus, the majority either highly or somewhat disagree that they should be involved. The second strongest opposition was towards handling justice by religious leaders, although at a much lower level. One aspect of concern is that handling justice "on the spot" also received quite some support (74 per cent, when combining high and somewhat agreement). We assume that justice often gets delayed, due to lengthy and cumbersome procedures, and that this creates some form of support for handling it directly.

As a follow up of the question about handling crimes, we also included the aspect of how to reduce crime, by providing a sub-set of 12 options. Overall, the role of mobile courts in reducing crime got quite large support. At the same time, youth perceive that for crime prevention the special security forces (such as the Rapid Action Battaillon, RAB) have the most important role, followed by the judiciary (97 and 95 per cent, when combining highly and somewhat important). In addition, the role of the media, family and local elected representatives seem to be quite important for crime control (each with more than 90 per cent support). On the other hand, private security companies and, Ansar-VDP (Village Defence Party), are not seen as important for controlling crime.
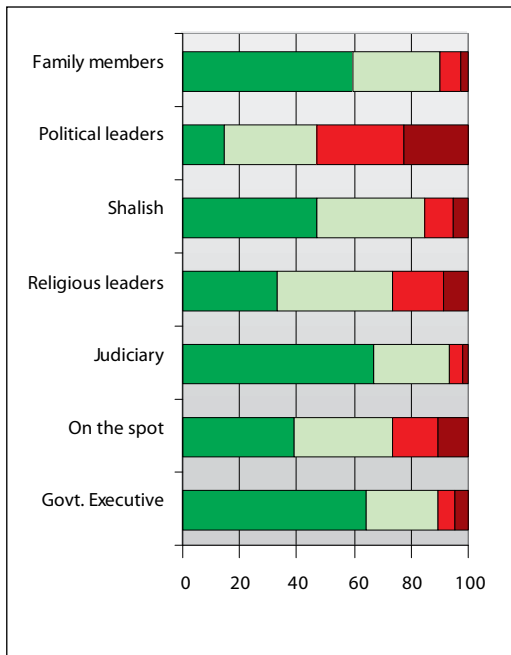
Figure 5.16   Who should handle justice ?
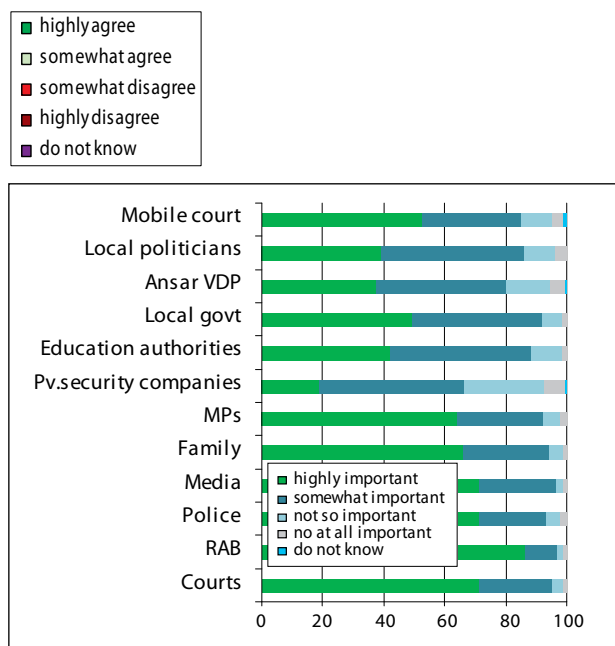
Figure 5.17   How to reduce crime ?

5.8   Assessing the Current Government

A standard question from our previous public opinion surveys is the one regarding assessments of the performance of the current and previous governments. Overall, this demonstrates a moderately critical assessment of both the current and the past elected government. The level of satisfaction with the performance of the two politically elected governments, both the current Awami League and the past BNP, is at about 65 per cent and 70 per cent, respectively. Generally, the majority has opted for a low level of satisfaction ("somewhat satisfied "), whereas only a minority of 20 per cent have stated to be "highly satisfied". At the same time, the present government has received quite a strong degree of dissatisfaction, at 35 per cent, compared to 26 per cent for the last BNP government and only 21 per cent for the last CTG. The latter has received a remarkably strong satisfaction, and about 78 per cent of all respondents are either "somewhat satisfied" or even "very satisfied", the highest overall level (see Figure 5.18). As was observed for many other aspects, gender and locational or district-level disparities are not very pronounced, although men and people living in the city corporation areas reported a stronger dissatisfaction than women and rural people (see Figure 5.19).
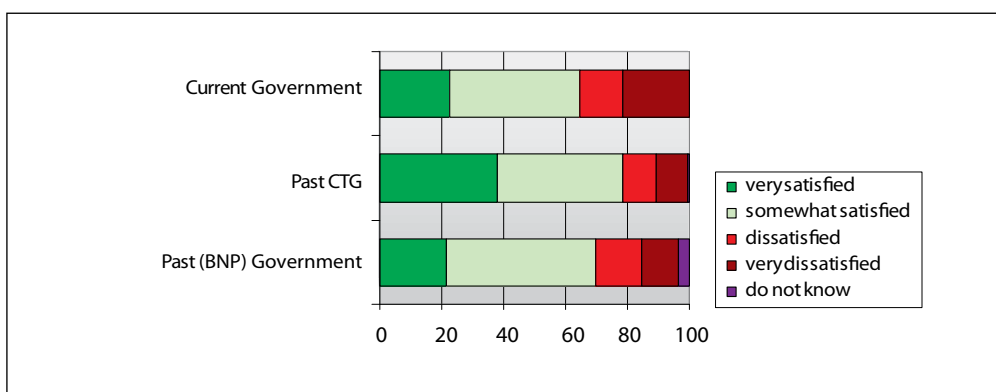
Figure 5.18   Assessing the current and past governments
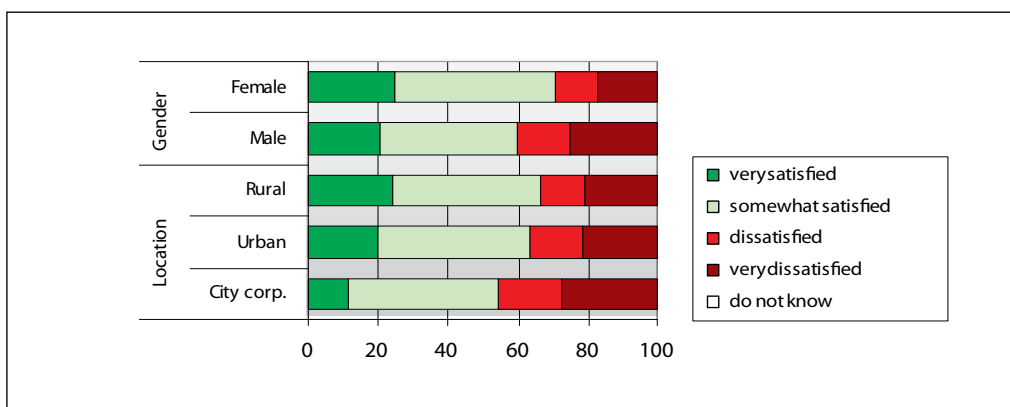
Figure 5.19   Assessing the current government (disaggregated)

6 The "Digital Generation" - Bangladesh's (Dis-)Connected Youth

Pabna X/2012

6.1   The Digital Generation - An Introduction

When speaking about the current generation, there is a strong tendency to epitomise them as the "digital generation". While the overall role of communication has already been emphasised in McLuhan's seminal publication on "Understanding Media" (1962) the more recent technical and technological changes of information technology (IT) have brought these developments to the doorsteps of countries, and their citizens, across the world. At the same time, these technological revolutions went hand in hand with massive internal social divides of those who have the access, and the purchasing capacities, to access and utilise these technologies. This debate, captured as the "digital divide" has given rise to more comprehensive studies about social inclusion and exclusion. The quintessence of these studies is to elaborate on the vast disparities of access to any form of digital media, particularly in (so-called) developing countries (see for instance Selwyn 2004, van Dijk 2006, Montgomery 2007).

At the same time, these global developments pose quite a challenge for any government. In terms of national policies, the current Awami League government and their "Digital Bangladesh" policy places a strong emphasis on modern Information Technology services. In their Election Manifesto, they point out their past achievements, and argue that these "made it possible for Bangladesh to enter the digital age" (ibid. 2009, 2). In their "Vision 2021" they have epitomised this policy as "Digital Bangladesh". This has several components, one is aiming at a country-wide coverage of IT infrastructural facilities, and also the provision of core government services at the lowest administrative (union parishad) level. In addition, they also aim at providing IT training at school level and to increase what could be termed "digital literacy" across the country (see also de Silva 2012 for Sri Lanka).

This section will start off by briefly summarising the current government's Digital Bangladesh Policy, and its evolution. As argued above, this policy is not directly linked to youth, although many of the policy components do focus, whether explicitly or merely implicitly, on youth (chapter 6.2.). We will then provide information from the BYS on how young people have access to and utilise several different types of communication media, in the form of mobile phones (chapter 6.3.), internet and digital networks (chapter 6.4.). This section was originally included in the chapter on "leisure activities" (for more details see chapter 7.6, below) but we felt that the richness of the data deserves a chapter of its own. As the "Digital Bangladesh" Policy is also a flagship of the current Awami League government we also felt the need to create appropriate data for better-informed debates and policy reforms.

We are aware that the title of this chapter is "slightly" provocative, indicating both inclusion and exclusion. While mobile phones have experienced a rather wide and comprehensive coverage during the last years, personal computers and internet facilities, and utilisation even more so, are still inaccessible to a vast majority. From these findings, we would question the notion of a "Digital Generation", as of now, and also argue for the strong need to revise the policy.

6.2   The Government's Digital Bangladesh Policy

In Bangladesh, the first ICT Policy dates back to the previous Awami League government in 2002. The policy had the ambitious vision of delivering services to citizens, stating that the "Government shall implement ICT systems to provide nationwide coverage and access by any citizen to the government databases and administrative systems which can be used to extend public services to the remotest corner" (GOB/MSICT

2002, 3.6.2). The actual ICT Act was passed in 2006. Along with the latter Act an "E-government Cell" was established in 2006 under the Prime Minister's Office. This had the main task of coordinating and monitoring all ICT related activities within government (Taifur 2009, see also IGS 2010, 93ff).

In June 2008, during the past Caretaker Government, a National Information and Communication Technology Review Committee (NICTRC) was formed (GOB Gazette 28). Their policies were quite ambitious, aiming to provide access to the internet/universal world of information to all citizens within five years, as well as to extend fibre optics up to the upazilla level, so that rural people could have access to the internet and upgraded services. From development partners, the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) provided technical assistance to this cell through their Access to Information Programme (A2I). So far, the A2I Program has carried out the strategic planning for the Digital Bangladesh Initiative (IGS 2010, 92), and a strategic plan was formulated, the "Digital Bangladesh Strategy in Action". Yet, both the ICT Policy 2002 and ICT Act 2006 were only poorly implemented. Earlier, IGS has argued that this was due to "weak implementation capacity this policy was never fully realised" (IGS 2009, 86).

When drafting their Manifesto in 2008, the Awami League pointed out their crucial role in advancing IT and communication services. Thus, they point out that "by abolishing monopoly in the mobile telephone sector and making mobile phones available to everyone at low prices and increasing access to information technology by reducing import duties [..] the Awami League government made it possible for Bangladesh to enter the digital age" (ibid. 2009, 2). For the overall IT sector, their "Digital Bangladesh" Policy has some core targets that are quite ambitious. Overall, they state that "our vision is to make Bangladesh digital in 2021" (ibid., ca. 9). On the one hand, this is quite an ambitious policy, yet on the other hand, the formulation is also slightly vague. They do not explicitly state that they aim at reaching their target "by" 2021, and thus during their term of government. Rather they state that this target should be reached "in 2021", i.e. at a time when they might not be in power.

Leaving aside this rhetoric and linguistic considerations, they have quite ambitious plans for reaching their target, attributing a strong role to young people. Thus, they argue that "software industry and IT services will be developed by providing all possible assistance to talented young people and interested entrepreneurs" (ibid.). With regard to education, they state that "IT education will be made compulsory at secondary level by 2013 and at primary level by 2021" (ibid.). When assessing the past (BNP) government's policy, they use quite straight forward language, arguing that "the task force on ICT that was established during the Awami League rule but rendered ineffective by the BNP-Jamat Alliance will be reactivated" (ibid.).

The current government approved the new ICT Policy in 2009. The e-government agenda, while not specifically mentioned in the policy, is embedded in the vision of using ICT tools to bring about a "transparent, responsive, and accountable government" (GOB/MSICT 2009, 3; see also IGS 2010, 86). In terms of infrastructure, this includes quite ambitious plans. High-tech parks, software technology parks, ICT incubators and computer villages will be set up at suitable locations in the country. For public use, the tele-density of internet connection will be increased by 70 per cent within five years, i.e. by the year 2014. By 2015 the broadband connections should be increased by 30 per cent and by 2018 by 40 per cent. In order to make facilities available at the district-level, initiatives should be taken to provide internet connections at the same rates as in Dhaka city. In addition, WiMax and other wireless technologies were to be made available all over the country within five years. Overall, the Ministry of Post and Telecommunication (MOPT), the Bangladesh Telecommunication Regulatory Commission (BTRC), and private telecom companies are to be responsible for providing the above mentioned services. At the same time, a unified policy was to be formulated to give access to all citizens.

With regard to service delivery from the government, IT facilities were to be set up at many local (union and upazilla) level offices. In addition, for education facilities each school and college should have a computer laboratory with at least 20 computers and each institution should have at least one high speed (one mega byte per second (MBPS)) internet connection. They also advised that educational institutions need to increase the number of teachers of science and English. Logistically, the Ministry of Science and Information and Communication Technology (MOSICT) is made responsible for the provisions. In addition, the Ministry of Education was encouraged to arrange for libraries at each school with technical books. In terms of practical experience, all ICT graduates should have a one-year on the job training, where the government was to provide 80 per cent of the salaries to the software companies.

For the national labour market, the Digital Bangladesh Policy envisages that the Government "encourages developing a local ICT sector and skilled ICT professionals" (GOB/ MOSICT 2009). The policy also states that the training costs of the ICT professionals would be reduced (by 50 per cent) and that women would be given preferences. They also provide financial assistance to young entrepreneurs who intend to build up ICT ventures. For doing so, a special entrepreneurship fund would be formed, and the Bangladesh Bank, the Bangladesh Computer Council and private financial institutions are the designated authorities. Based on the global demand, the ICT training should be updated so that local ICT professionals are able to seek employment abroad. For higher studies abroad, there would be educational loans of up to four years.

In terms of overall infrastructure, the Digital Bangladesh Policy states that fibre optics would be extended to the upazilla levels, so that the rural people could have access to internet and upgraded services. For social inclusion, Bangladesh Road Transport Corporation (BRTC) was also asked to bring the costs down, although this measure has had, so far, a rather limited success (see below). Overall, this policy still has considerable inconsistencies. The institutional arrangements are quite complex and the responsibilities are vested with various bodies. The Ministry of Primary and Mass Education, for instance, is made responsible for increasing the power supply, while the MOSICT is being made responsible for increasing the numbers of (IT) teachers. While, overall, the policy states highly ambitious plans for developing the local ICT sector and professionals, it remains silent about overall budgets and funding.

6.3   Connected Youth – The Vast Spread of Mobile Phones

Mobile phone facilities can be seen as a first step to participating in the digital era. In our last year's Governance Barometer Survey we included information about the vast spread of mobile phones across the country, but we also pointed out some persisting regional disparities. Thus, in February 2010, about 70 per cent of the population had access to mobile phones. This figure was slightly lower than the coverage suggested by the British Council's "The Next Generation" report, which states that "73 per cent of youth own a mobile" (ibid. 2009, 26 and Masud 2009, 28). By December 2011, mobile phones had further spread substantially and were available to 84.5 per cent of all youth. Yet, whereas overall access has seen some quite promising development, there are still pronounced social disparities. Above all, access to these phones should not be mistaken for a high level of utilisation, as we will discuss below.

Overall, gender disparities are minimal and disparities across age groups are not of high importance. This piece of information is quite different from the findings of "The Next Generation", where gender disparities were quite substantial (81 per cent among men but only 64 per cent among the women; British Council Dhaka 2009, 26). In terms of age patterns, the likelihood of having mobile phones increases slightly along age groups,

at least for younger ages of 15 to 18. After that, the pattern is inconsistent (see Figure 6.1). When analysing the availability of mobile phones based on income groups, there is also a promising trend, as coverage has increased quite substantially, particularly among the lower income groups. Nevertheless, the social gap of not having mobile phones is still pronounced, while only 8 per cent among the highest income quintiles did not have mobile phones, this was more than 22 per cent among the lowest income quintile (i.e. a disparity index of 2.7). At the same time, for youth from lower income households, mobile phones are a much more recent phenomenon. While nearly half of all upper income youth have had mobile phones for more than five years, this share is only 25 per cent for the lowest income quintile. At the same time, more than 40 per cent among the latter have had access to mobile phones only for the past one or two years (see Figure 6.2).
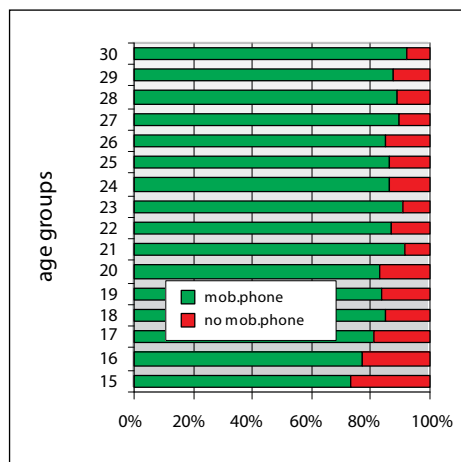
Figure 6.1   Availability of mobile phones (by age groups)
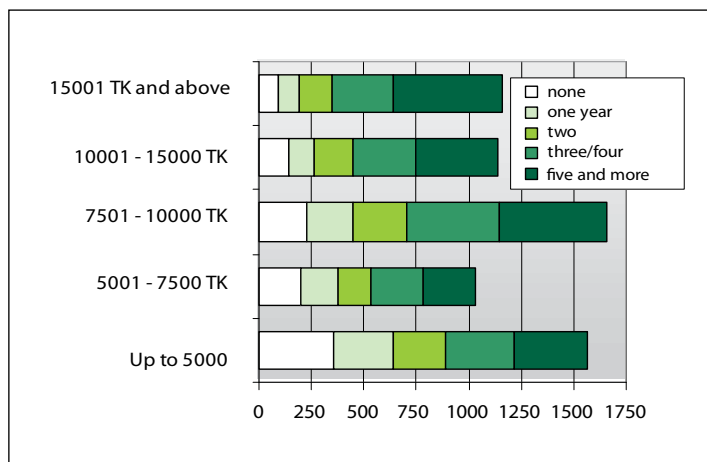
Figure 6.2   Histories of mobile phones (total number of cases by income groups)

In terms of regional disparities, the last few years have seen a substantial spread of mobile phones across the country (see Figure 6.3). By December 2011, young people in most districts had mobile phones, at an average proportion of about 80 to 85 per cent. Yet, there were a few districts, particularly in the north-western region and in the south-eastern hill districts, where mobile phone densities were much lower. This was the case in the districts of the Chittagong Hill Tracts (at 53 to 60 per cent), but also in the Comilla, Feni and Noakhali area (at 63 to 69 per cent). These data clearly indicate that significant regional disparities are still persistent.

From a policy and governance angle this gives cause for concern as some of these districts are also critical in regard to poverty alleviation. If service delivery from the government is to be made available through mobile phones, then a substantial number of households would not be reached. In addition, there is a further critical aspect. As argued above, data about having or not having mobile phones should not be mistaken for actual utilisation. Often, such a type of communication data in regard to mobile phones (or internet) is enumerated in form of binary coding, where there is a yes or no answer. Yet, this leaves a blind spot on actual utilisation patterns. Whereas possessing a mobile phone is a crucial prerequisite it by no means implies a guarantee for actual utilisation. Indeed, purchasing capacities, particularly among young people, are usually rather limited. During our first round of FGDs we had several discussions about this issue. Many among the young people stated that they mainly use their mobile phones for giving each other "missed calls", a phenomenon that is common worldwide (see for instance Collin and Burns 2009, 283ff).
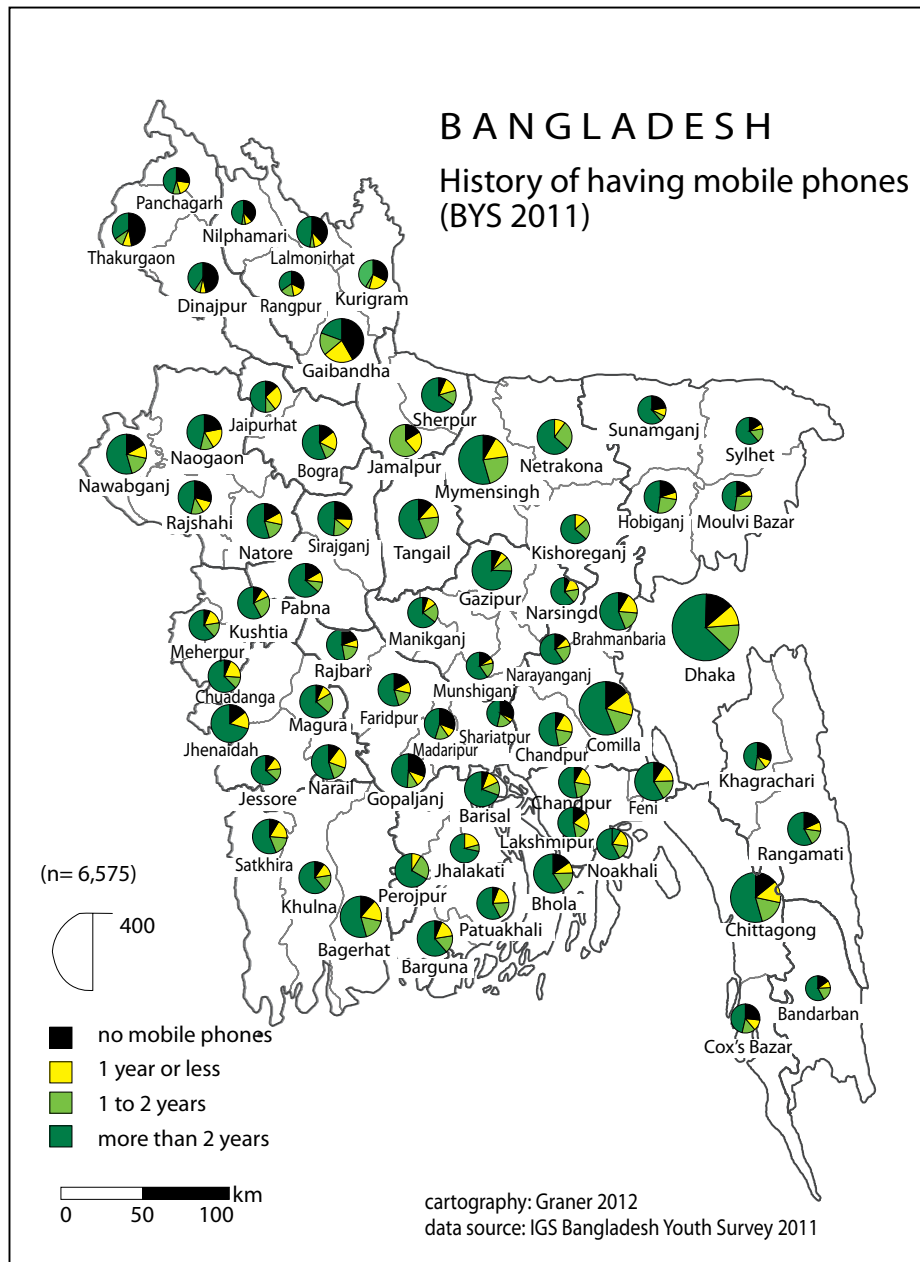
Figure 6.3   History of mobile phones (district-level)

As this is quite an interesting piece of information we felt the need to obtain more information about actual costs for several means of communication, including mobile phones. Overall, monthly expenditures for mobile phone charges are at less than 150 Taka (i.e. about 1.50 Euro or 1.8 USD) for the majority of youth. About one fifth of all young people spend only 50 Taka or less per month for recharging their mobile phones and about one third spend ca. 150 to 400 Taka. Less than 10 per cent spend more than 600 Taka, although some of them spend up to 3,000 Taka. Our assumption that actual utilisation costs would have a strong gender or age pattern could not be verified. Disparities existed only for the lowest expenditure group, who accounted for 18

- 30 per cent among the younger youth (15 to 20) but only 10 - 15 per cent for older youth (25 to 30). Similarly, expenditures of more than 400 Taka were done by only a small section among the younger group (10 to 22 per cent) but by 25 to 30 per cent among the older ones (see Figure 6.4). Presumably these expenditure patterns are governed by overall increasing incomes. Astonishingly, actual monthly expenditure for mobile phones among the different income groups are also not as pronounced as expected. While more than 50 per cent of the lowest income group have low expenditures (of less than 150 Taka), all other income groups also have a substantial number of youth with similarly low expenditures (see Figure 6.5).
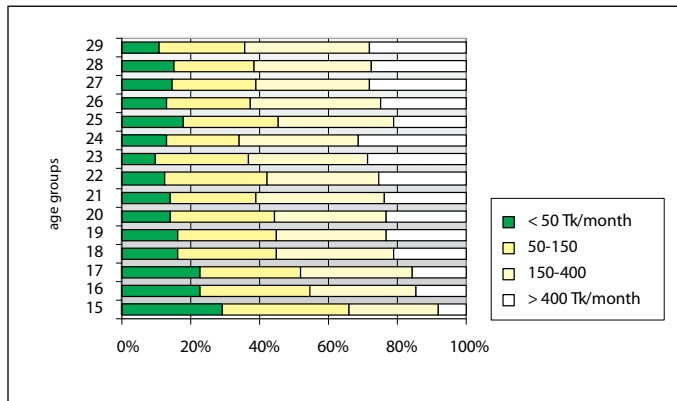
Figure 6.4   Monthly costs for mobile phones (by age)
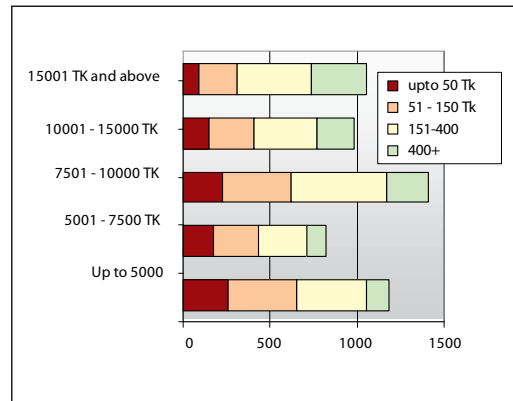
Figure 6.5   Monthly costs for mobile phones (by income groups)

6.4   Disconnected Youth – The Un-Digital Generation of Bangladesh

While mobile phones have provided the technical means to connect youth quite considerably, it is a similarly interesting exercise to obtain more information about the availability and utilisation patterns of personal computers, internet and digital networks. Within the section about leisure activities (for details see chapter 7.4, below) we have included a set of questions about the importance of computers, internet and social networks. The answers given had a clear indication that these were of importance to a small minority only. This is even more obvious when asking the respondents about the actual time, and money, spent on these activities. In addition, there was a considerable gap between what youth stated as being important and their actual utilisation patterns.

Among the youth, only 10 per cent have categorised themselves as internet users. This figure is unexpectedly low, as the British Council's "The Next Generation" documents 15 per cent for 2008 already. This decline is difficult to explain but we doubt that there is an overall negative trend. Most likely this figure is due to a stronger cross-country representation of our sample, where we have purposively aimed at representing youth from all parts of the country and across all social groups. In terms of disparities, the age pattern is again much less pronounced than expected. The highest proportion of internet users exists among those aged 17 to 21 (12 to 16 per cent), whereas it is only about 8 to 10 per cent among those either younger or older. Yet, there is a sharp decline among those who are 26 and older, where the internet is merely accessed by 3 to 6 per cent (see Figure 6.6, below). Similarly high disparities exist for income groups, whereas less than 5 per cent among the lowest income group utilise the internet, this is more than 22 per cent among the highest (see Figure 6.7). With a disparity index of 4.9, this was one of the highest disparities found in the entire survey.

When asked for their leisure priorities, only 130 persons (among 6,575, i.e. less than 2 per cent) attributed any importance to either personal computers, internet or digital networks. Among these activities, personal computers were by far most important. For internet and digital networks there were 20 and 3 persons in the entire sample (i.e. a single digit per mille proportion). Even as a second priority none of these activities are of great importance, and the cumulative share was less than 7 per cent (with all together 45 cases). Again, personal computers are much more important than either internet or digital networks. Only as a third priority these forms of activities are of any importance to, overall, less than 30 per cent of the youth. Again, personal computers are by far the most important aspect, for about three quarters of the total numbers.

Among these activities, gender disparities are highly pronounced only for internet and digital networks. For personal computers the importance for men and women is nearly equal, in all three priority groups. Yet for internet, and even more so for digital networks, the proportions among men are nearly double that for women. Yet, as stated above, this disparity index of 2 is much lower than the social disparity index of nearly 5 (see above). While these latter data give some reason for optimism, actual utilisation patterns are again distinctly different from attributing importance. The most astonishing part of our analysis was when disaggregating those who ranked IT utilisation as a third priority. When analysing actual utilisation patterns, it was obvious that more than half did not actually use IT facilities.
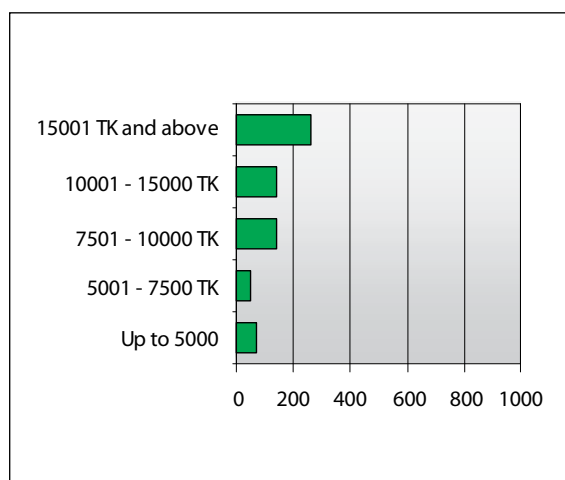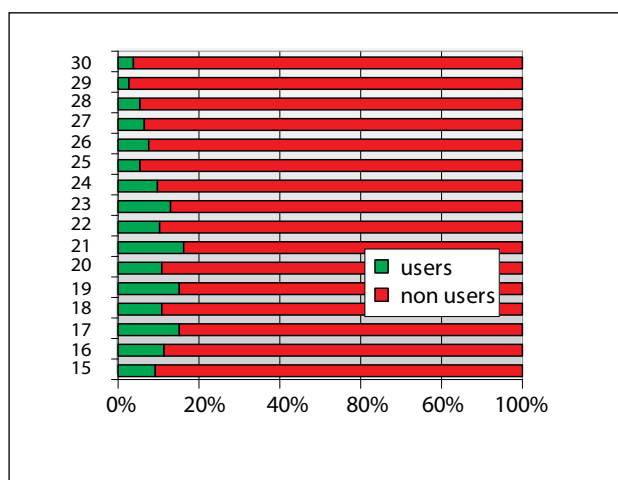
Figure 6.6   Internet (non-) users (by age groups)   *Figure 6.7   Internet (non-) users (by income quintiles)*

6.5   Assessing IT Literacy -   A Modest Picture

As demonstrated above, the "Digital Generation", even among the country's youth, is quite a way into the future. A third aspect of this issue, in addition to access and utilisation patterns, is to gain some understanding of how young people assess their own IT skills. In the BYS we have included a few questions in regard to computer (writing and calculation) and internet skills. As a comparative variable we have also asked youth to assess their English language skills. Interestingly, there are vast disparities within these, and this was quite a surprise for us.

Overall, the self-assessment in regard to English language skills is quite promising. The largest single group stated that they are "somewhat skilled". Only 20-30 per cent of the youth assessed themselves as "totally unskilled". Even in rural areas, more than 40 per cent felt that their English language skills fall into the category

of "somewhat skilled". Gender disparities are moderate, among both men and women only about 30 per cent opted for the lowest skill group (totally unskilled).

On the other hand, assessments for computer skills are substantially lower, at about 15 per cent, even when combining the two levels of "somewhat skilled" and "highly skilled". Among those who do assess their skills positively, there is a rather modest level of doing so, only 2.5 per cent assess their skills at the higher level, compared to nearly 13 per cent at the lower level. What was quite a surprise for us was that the large majority (66 per cent) assess their skills as "totally unskilled". Overall, disparities are substantial, and gender disparities are more than 3-fold. While 23 per cent among men assess their skills positively, it is only less than 8 per cent for women. At the same time, even among men a large majority (nearly 60 per cent) assess their skills as non existent ("totally unskilled"), a proportion that is even higher among women (73 per cent).

Compared to gender disparities, locational disparities are overall slightly lower but at the same time more pronounced in regard to skill levels. Those who are somewhat skilled account for 11, 18 and 22 per cent, in rural and urban areas and city corporations. Yet, disparities for the highly skilled level are nearly 5-fold (at less than 2 per cent versus nearly 10 per cent; for more detailed data see Table A5, annex). Quite astonishingly, socio-economic disparities are not as vast as we would have thought. Even among youth from the highest income quintile, nearly 50 per cent have assessed themselves as "highly unskilled", compared to 75 per cent from the lowest income group. On the other hand, the two skill levels have a disparity value of 3 for "somewhat skilled" (8 versus 24 per cent) and even 10 for those who assess themselves as highly skilled (0.6 compared to 6 per cent).

While these self-assessments of computer skills are already extremely low, the pattern is even lower in regard to internet skills. At the lowest assessment level, differences are moderate, at an average of 71 per cent, in addition to more than 13 per cent who opted for "do not know". On the other hand, those who assessed their skills positively were merely 10 per cent. Gender disparities are again highly pronounced, at 3.4 per cent for women but 17 per cent for men, for the two skill levels combined (i.e. a gender disparity value of 5). Social and locational disparities are partly even higher. When combining the two skill levels, the lowest and highest income quintiles are 3.7 per cent versus 23.5 per cent, and disparties are thus more than 6-fold. Locational disparities are at 8 versus 25 per cent for the two skill levels, for rural areas and city corporations, respectively (see Figure 6.8, above). At the same time 1.6 per cent compared to 10 per cent when only considering the "highly skilled" groups (i.e. again more than 6-fold).
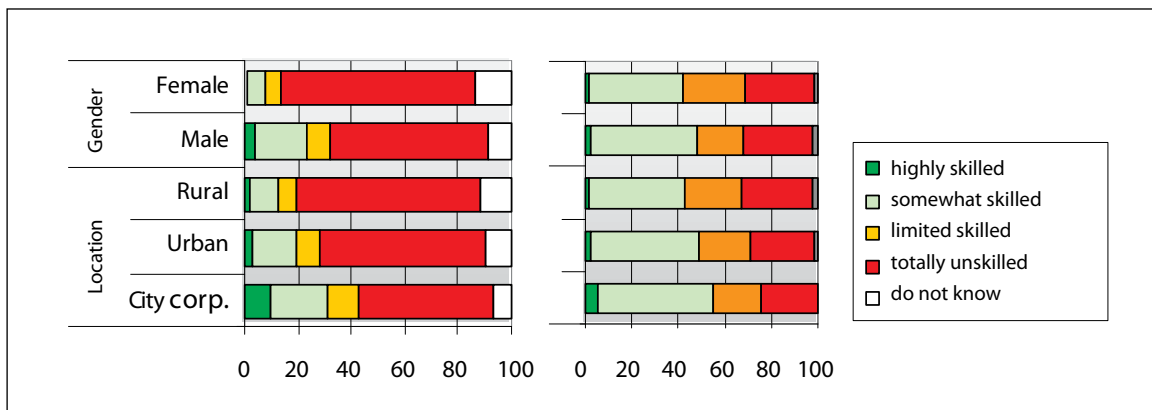
Figure 6.8   Self-assessment of computer skills (based on gender and locality)

Figure 6.9   Self-assessment of English language skills (based on gender and locality)

These self-assessments indicate a rather gloomy picture about how even the young generation assesses their skills in a field that is usually addressed as quintessential for the new generation. They could be interpreted as a form of modesty, yet we would argue that the self-assessments about their English language skills, at realistically quite a low level in rural areas, do not allow for such an interpretation.

6.6   "Digital Bangladesh" - Political Ambitions versus Actual Achievements

While there have been massive investments into the IT sector over the past decade, and even more so during the past three years, the actual paradigmatic changes that should have been brought about, are yet to be achieved. So far, a strong focus has been placed on providing the technical infrastructure for future utilisation across the country. Yet, the actual access and utilisation patterns do, as of now, not reflect this. While mobile phones have become a common feature across the country, or at least in a large number of districts, the utilisation patterns of other digital forms of media lag dramatically behind. When assessing both skill levels and utilisation patterns it becomes rather obvious that the country's young generation, until today, needs to be characterised as IT illiterate and, by and large, disconnected from modern digital technology.

These findings are certainly quite critical for those in charge of promoting and advancing digital services and skills. At the same time, these findings also ask for some rather immediate and comprehensive policy revisions in order to counterbalance these shortcomings. In addition to infrastructure, skill development needs to be seen as a quintessential component. What is crucial for immediate action is the need for the government to clearly regulate its own involvement, and clearly specify a division of a labour, and investment, with other core stakeholders, from both the private sector and NGOs.

For significant improvements, schools as well as community centres for youth could be quite instrumental. In addition to basic infrastructure and facilities, there is also a need to ensure that there are instructors with a moderately high level of teaching skills, particularly for clients who have, realistically, quite a low level of overall skills. For unemployed young people, both men and women, this could be an interesting option for at least part-time employment. For NGOs and CBOs this could also be a future field of operation, and development partners could consider supporting this field on a larger scale. Yet, overall, the massive investments needed also have to be supported by the private sector, in the form of public-private partnerships. One form of doing so could possibly be by providing second-hand equipment which could be installed at least at union parishad level offices. By doing so, young people could substantially improve their skills, and confidence, about modern technologies. At the same time, youth with improved IT communication skills will also be a great asset to the local communities.

7 Youth as Family and Community Members

Gazipur ii/2010

7.1   Family and Community - An Introduction

One standard set of questions in many youth surveys is the one regarding their ideas about family and community (see deSouza et al. 2009, Population Council 2009, Hettige and Mayer 2002). We have taken up some of these questions, for instance, asking the young people about the overall importance of family and community, and about the role of particular family members. In addition, we have included aspects such as the roles that youth attribute to their parents and siblings. For the crucial information about life cycle planning, we have asked the respondents about ideal ages of core aspects of adult life, such as completing education, getting married and having children and a few other questions (see chapter 7.3). As mentioned above, one aspect of great interest to us was the importance attributed to various leisure activities (chapter 7.6), as well as the acceptance, or unacceptance of social change (see chapter 7.8).

7.2   The Importance of Family and Community

Studies on youth in South Asia and elsewhere confirm that family and its members play a crucial role in shaping the lives of young people. They assist young people to develop their identity and personality, and provide them with skills that are essential for their lives. Other studies on youth in South Asia and the Arab world have shown that youth have considered their families the most important part of their lives (see Hettige and Mayer 2002, deSouza 2009 and Hettige et al. 2012). The BYS has covered this topic in several ways. One was to ask about the overall importance of family and more specifically about the importance of particular family members, from both the parental and their own generation. In addition, the section on leisure activities also includes a section on spending time with family. For further elaboration on their relations with the family, the BYS included a subset of questions about specific roles of parents, the level of freedom and restrictions, and selection criteria for spouses.

Among all family members, the importance given to 'mother' exceeds all other family members, and this pattern is similar irrespective of localities, income groups, age or gender. Overall, mothers were mentioned as the most important person within the family by 95 per cent of all youth. Compared to this, all other relatives had much lower values (see Figure 7.1). This predominant role was also confirmed during the focus group discussions. There, young people argued that fathers often maintain a distance when the children grow up. They often seek their assistance from their fathers to make important decisions, but they can rarely share feelings or open up to them.
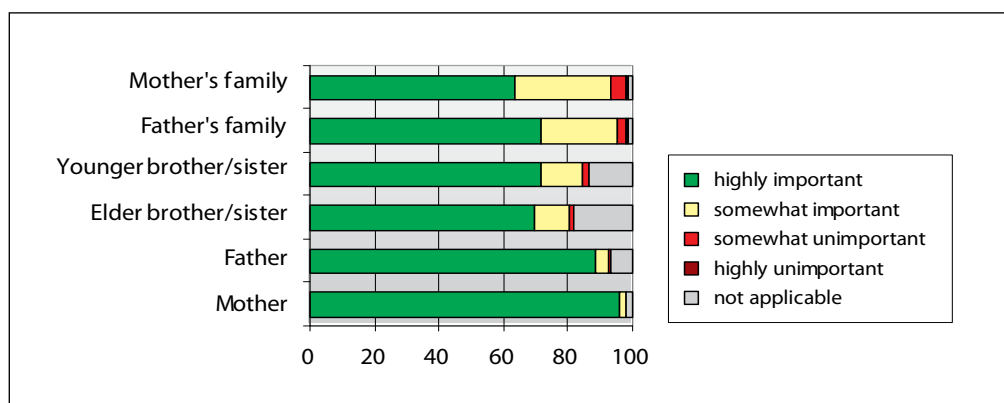
Figure 7.1   Important relations within the family

Elder siblings play an important role, as well. They assist them in studies and listen to their problems, help them to make decisions regarding studies and similar issues. On the other hand, it is good to have the younger siblings but it adds additional responsibilities to elder ones. The extended family is important, in that their opinions matter to the families. Sometimes if there is a successful relative then it helps to get a job. In order to measure the impact and implications of parental influence on young people, we inquired about several issues to get some feed back about their experiences and relationship with their parents. It was quite evident that they have rather clear ideas about what the role of the parents should be. Overall, there is a strong consensus that parents should be a good guardian, to provide guidance, and to encourage discipline. Thus, irrespective of gender, locality, age and income groups about 99 per cent agreed on this.

In the South Asian context, it is widely accepted that one of the core roles of parents is to select a spouse for their children. About 95 per cent of Bangladeshi youth are of the opinion that it is important for their parents to play a role in the selection of their spouses. Among these, a large majority of 80 per cent mentioned that it was even "highly important" for them. Interestingly, there were hardly any differences in opinion among the youth from different localities, income group, age groups and even gender. At the same time, only 1 per cent regard the role of parents in spousal selection as "highly unimportant".

In addition, other roles of the parents are slightly less important, less than 70 per cent think that the parents should provide them with financial aid, and only slightly more think so about education (about 75 per cent). These two aspects have a higher disparity level than the others. Youth from the 25-30 age group consider it to be"somewhat unimportant", a pattern that is also quite strong among youth from lower income groups . Our interpretation is that young people from lower income groups need to work from a very early age and therefore develop an attitude that parents are not solely responsible for providing financial means (and education). In the case of education, 8 per cent of youth from the 25-30 age group and a similar proportion from the lower income groups think that the parents are "somewhat unimportant" in providing education. 98 per cent (of which 83 per cent think it is highly important) consider that parents should have a role in disciplining their child.

Overall, these statements were also supported by statements from FGD participants. They mentioned that it was the parents who are largely responsible for disciplining the children, at times even physically. Similarly, the participants agreed that they firmly believe in the advice given by their parents and make the most important decisions based on their judgments.
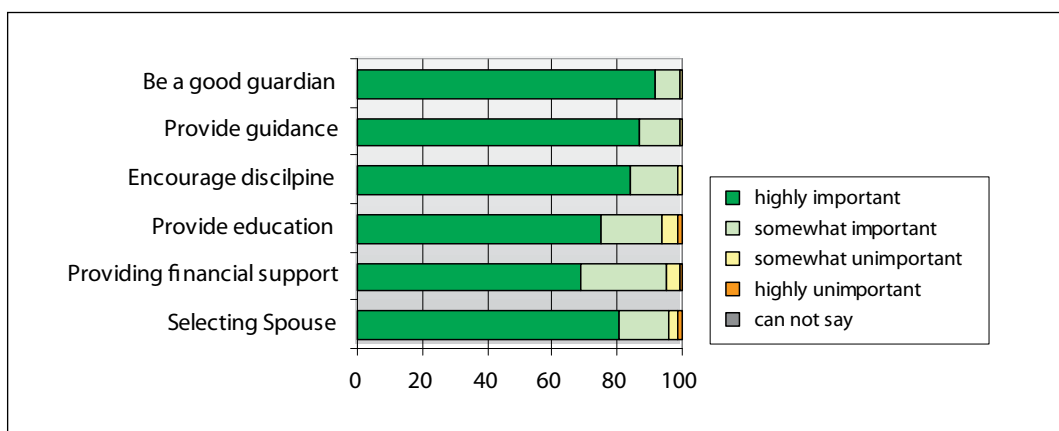
Figure 7.2   Important roles of parents

Besides family, the social groups and the persons living in the neighbourhood have an immense impact on

youth. In Bangladesh, many of these communities are characterised by a single religious group, although in some areas there are villages with mixed religious groups. In the survey, the section on community started off with an overall assessment about the importance of community, followed by a more specific sub-set of questions that addressed particular aspects of communities. This was followed by a sub-set of questions about religion, addressing different aspects, for both Muslim and non-Muslim communities.

Overall, there was a strong agreement that communities are "highly important", and this was shared by nearly 95 per cent. When specifying certain aspects, there was still a high level of agreement for most aspects mentioned, such as safeguarding the interests of the individuals, supporting all members in times of need, solving conflicts, encouraging religious behaviour, where about 95 per cent agreed, and most of them (70-75 per cent) in the category "highly agree" (see Figure 7.3). Some of the other options, such as supporting the activities of the state, providing a sense of security or safety, or preserving traditions and values still scored around 65 per cent in the highest category. While these statements are encouraging, we also feel the need to point out the bias these answers might have. As stated earlier, the survey responses generally had a strong tendency towards agreement, so perhaps these high values should not be over-interpreted.

At the same time, similar views were also expressed during the FGDs. There, respondents mentioned that the community played an important role in preserving the interests of individuals, resolving conflicts, providing a support base, sense of belonging and preserve the social, cultural and religious traditions and norms. This also implies that many important decisions of the family (and individuals) need to keep communal perspectives in mind. One of the examples given was the "need" to marry off daughters not too late, particularly among the middle class, lower middle and poor families. Another example was adult sons who remained unemployed for some time, which was an issue mentioned in small towns and rural areas.
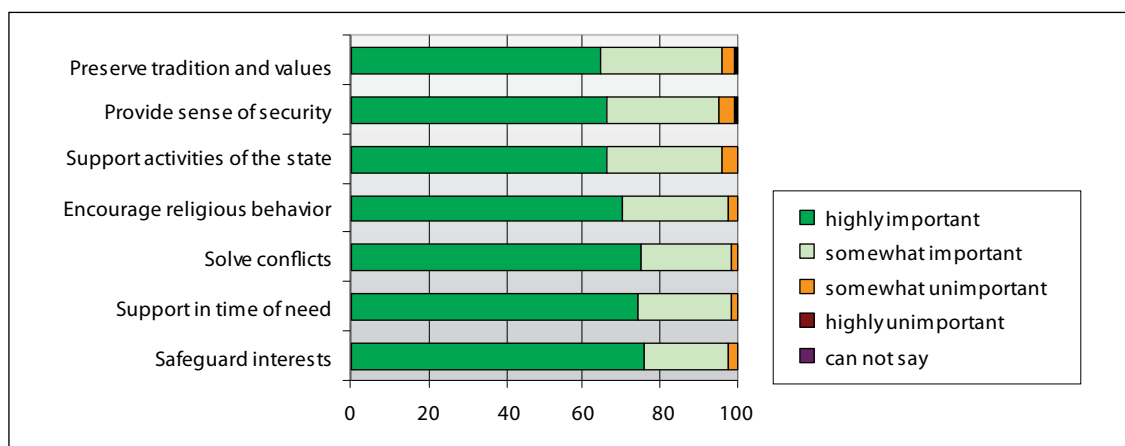
Figure 7.3   Reasons why communities are important

As stated above, the answers provided by the youth were generally of quite low variance, which is always a difficulty when interpreting them. One of the exceptions was when asking about who young people approach in time of need. An overwhelming majority stated that it is the family that is highly important (97 per cent) or somewhat important, and this was done irrespective of location, gender, age and income group. In comparison to the value, all other potential supporters, such as teachers, friends, religious leaders, community leaders, other members of youth groups, or political leaders received a much lower degree of confidence. Some of these, such as political leaders, other members of youth groups, or community leaders, religious leaders were even categorised as "somewhat unimportant" (see Figure 7.4). Friends and religious

leaders have similar positions of being more or less important. These findings have taken us quite by surprise as it is generally assumed that young people share their problems with their friends first.
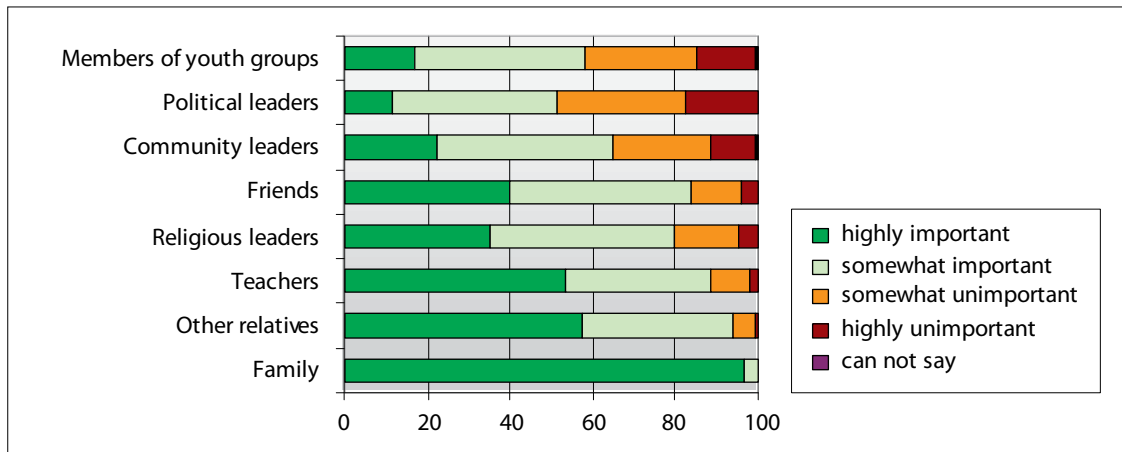
Figure 7.4   In time of need whose advice is sought

On the other hand, these findings have also been confirmed during FGDs. Many young people mentioned that in times of distress and trouble, they generally approach family members. Within the family, it usually depends on the types of problems regarding who the young people decide to approach. Some of them said that the parents might rebuke and even beat them, but in the end they would do anything to keep them safe and secure. Many among the young women stated that they generally seek assistance from their mothers or elder siblings. Depending on the gravity of the problem, the mother/siblings then discuss these matters with the father. Male members usually either seek help from elder brothers or friends. If the problem was related to family and a conflict arose, then they consulted local leaders, particularly political leaders. Otherwise they tended to stay away from influential leaders. These findings differ significantly from the last Indian Youth Survey, where the youth expressed that they would ask their friends for help, and only later family members or members from their community and caste (deSouza 2010). At the same time the findings from the Sri Lankan Youth Survey 2009 suggest a pattern similar to the one in Bangladesh, where parents are approached first, followed by friends, relatives and spouses (see Hettige 2009 and Hettige et al. 2012).

7.3   The Importance of Religion

Among the total number of respondents, the large majority are Muslims (88.5 per cent), and the others were Hindu (9.3 per cent), Buddhists (2.1 per cent), Christians (0.14 per cent), and other religious minorities. When asking these groups for their understanding of the core aspects of religion, for Muslims this included four of the five pillars of Islam (praying, reading the Holy Quran, fasting during ramadan, performing the hajj, and zakat). As expected, all these practices are regarded highly, and they are all categorised as "highly important" (see Figure 7.5). Compared to this, wearing the hijab for women was slightly less important (but still 87 per cent). Two aspects that are comparatively less important are showing tolerance to other religions, where only 73 per cent agree that this is highly important, and tolerance to women's rights, where the number is slightly higher (79 per cent). Interestingly, the attendance of public jamat (65 per cent) has the lowest level and was rated much lower than we would have expected.
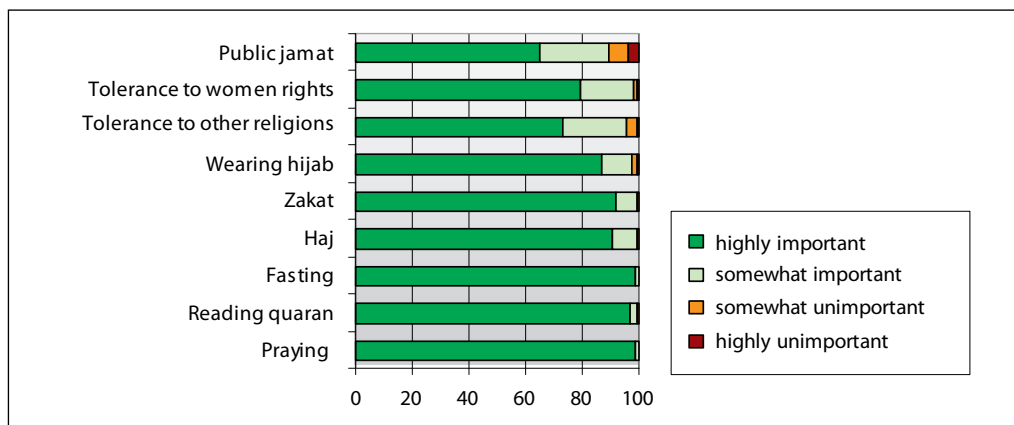
Figure 7.5   Importance of religion (among Muslims)

Overall, there are no significant differences among the respondents in terms of localities, age group, income group and gender. Religion as a topic was also discussed with several key informant interviews. There, we found that the participants are not very religious but have deep faith in religious beliefs and practices. They have the opinion that more young people now say their prayers regularly than the previous generations. Even those who do not pray, fast during ramadan. They believe that wearing the hijab depends on the mentality of the women, location and family. Many voice the opinion that it is good practice but should not be forced, rather encouraged. The youth in general showed secularist attitudes and expressed that people of other religions should be allowed to practice independently.

In the case of respondents from other religious communities, religion is equally important. A pronounced majority considers praying (96 per cent), reading religious texts (89 per cent), attending weekly congregations (86 per cent), and participating in annual festivals (84 per cent) as highly important. This is followed by tolerance towards other religions (80 per cent) and tolerance towards women's rights (83 per cent). Overall, the BYS clearly indicates that youth from Muslim as well as other religious communities are highly devoted to their respective religions, and firmly participate in religious practices. There are hardly any differences among the opinions of the respondents. One pronounced difference has been that among Muslims, many have one or two friends from other religions, whereas youth from other religions tend to have a much larger number of friends from other religious communities. At the same time, this could also be due to their low numbers.
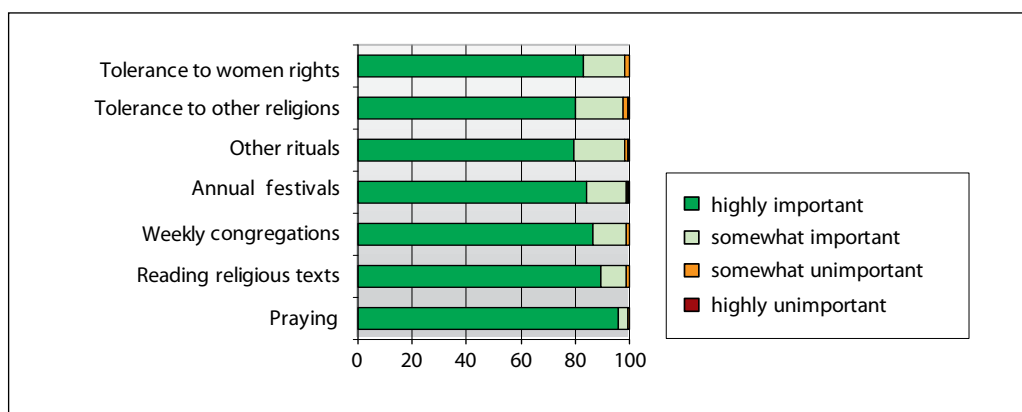
Figure 7.6   Importance of religious practices (among non-Muslim communities)

7.4   Life-Cycle Planning

As discussed in the introduction, youth is by and large characterised by several major transitions between childhood and adulthood. Investigating into ideas of life cycle planning is thus a common component of youth surveys and youth studies, more generally (see also Furlong 2009, unicef 2011, Hettige and Mayer 2002, deSouza et al. 2009). Core features of life cycle include the major events of one's personal life, such as getting married and having children. Other crucial stages of setting up one's life are completing education and starting work. As religion is a core feature of Bangladeshi society, we have also included one aspect from this field, namely undertaking a pilgrimage, hajj for Muslims or other pilgrimages for youth from other religious groups. In order to capture social change, we have asked for two different types of information for all these stages, namely ideal ages and actual ages, for those stages that have already been completed. When analysing the data, we have come across (vast) disparities between ideal and actual ages. In addition, gender and social disparities within actual ages are quite pronounced. As marriage is a major life cycle event, we have also asked about selection criteria (see below).

With regard to education, there was an overwhelmingly large consensus that the ideal age for completing education is 25. At nearly half of all respondents this was one of the widest consensus of the entire survey, other than with regard to religious matters. Quite astonishingly, this age was mentioned irrespective of gender, locality, age groups and income groups. At the same time, this variable was also the one where disparities between what youth thought to be ideal ages and actual ages are most pronounced. As has been mentioned before, drop-outs among the youth included in our sample start as early as at the age of 8, in addition to those 5 per cent who have never even been to school. When visualising these two sub-sets of data, the overlap for education has been minimal (see Figure 7.7, below).

A further critical stage of the transition between youth and adulthood is the gradual and final inclusion into the national, or in some cases even the international, labour force. This is again an aspect where ideal ages and actual ages are extremely disparate, at least among those who have already taken up some form of temporary or even permanent work or employment. When asked for ideal ages, there was again a moderately wide consensus that the age is either18, 20 or 25 years (with 9, 11 and even 21 per cent). However, in practice the average age of starting work was 16 years, and this includes quite a number who have started working (much) earlier, even as young as 8-9 years (see Figure 7.8). In addition, women generally start working earlier than men. Women, on average, begin to work at the age of 14 whereas men start at 17.

Closely related to the completion of education, and in some cases chronologically intertwined, is the stage of getting married. In Bangladesh it is a common phenomenon that women are married off early, although this is gradually changing. Yet, even among our 15-30 aged sample, some of the girls had been married off before reaching the age of 16. This is quite frequent in rural areas and among lower income groups, although these cases are also documented for urban areas. Again, responses about ideal ages vary quite substantially. On average, the age of 24 was considered to be the ideal age, with a slight difference between men and women, at 26 and 22, respectively. At the same time, this implies an average age difference of 2 to 4 years. These ideal ages have also been confirmed during our FGDs, while their actual experiences have been quite different.
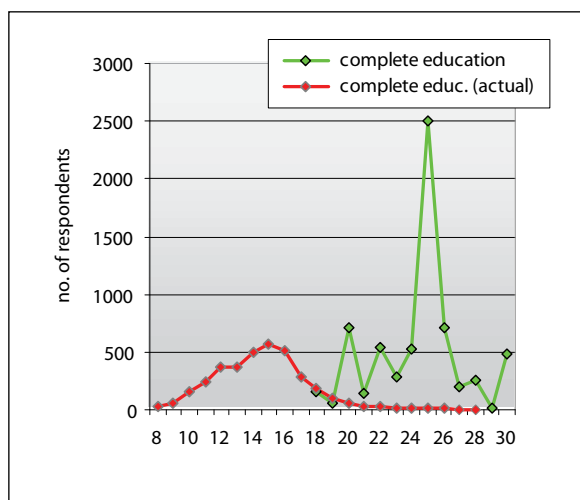
Figure 7.7   Ideal and actual ages for completing
 education
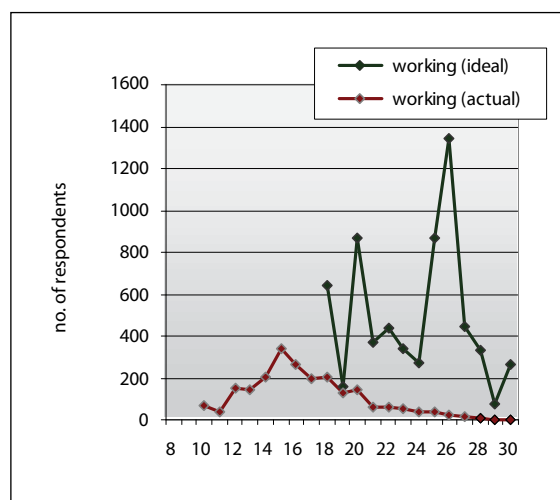
Figure 7.8   ideal and actual ages for starting work
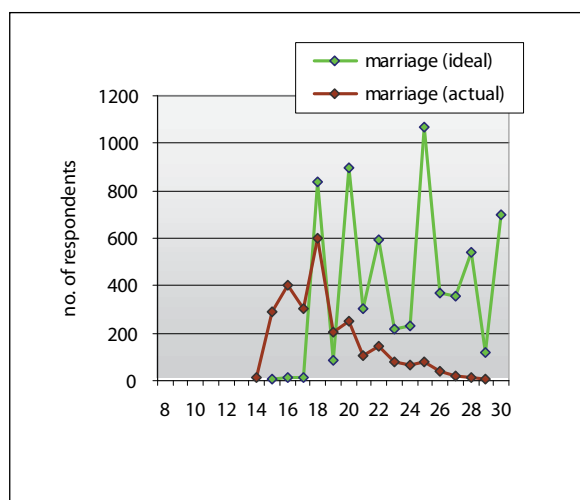
Figure 7.9 Ideal and actual ages for getting married
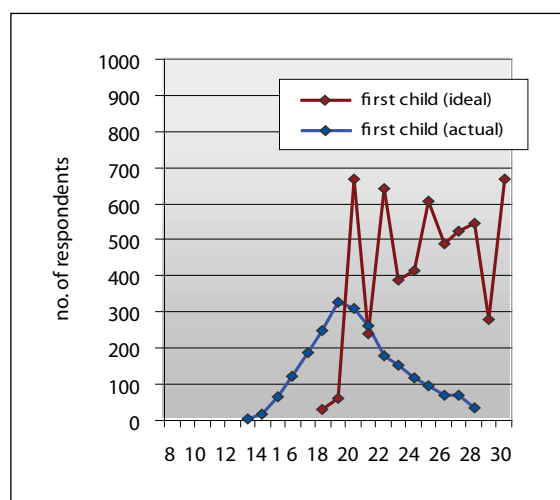
Figure 7.10   Ideal and actual ages for having children

In terms of fertility, it was difficult to compare ideal and actual ages, as only a small group among them already had children (n = 2285, i.e. 30 per cent). On average, the respondents think that 27 is the ideal age for having the first child. While disparities in localities are minimal (26.0 to 26.8), ideal ages for men and women are more than four years apart, at 28 versus 24, respectively. Interestingly, actual ages (22 versus 18) are also similarly apart, and thus both groups tend to think that setting up a family four years later would be ideal. Disparities in regard to ideal ages among age groups are negligible, although disparities based on income groups are there, with a gap of about two years, as the lowest and the highest income quintile aim at having children at a later age.

As elaborated above (see chapter 2.4), the actual life experiences of the youth are considerably different. While women stated that an ideal age is 24, the majority of them had their first child by the age of 18, and in some

cases as early as 14 to 16 years. Among men, this was less of an issue, although in some cases they were as young as 15. Actual ages also have a distinct social and locational pattern. Youth from higher income groups (above 15,000 TK) and youths from city corporations consider the ideal age at about 27 and 26 respectively, but for many among them actual ages are also 20 to 22. Overall, youth in Bangladesh become parents at quite an early age. During FGDs we met many women who were 16-17 and already have more than one child. Some mentioned that they got married right after their first menstruation. Among all, the consensus that it would have been better to get married later, was unquestioned. At the same time, they did not see any opportunity not to follow their parents' demands.

In addition to these life cycle aspects of personal life, we have also included three further aspects, two of them for future events. One was about the ideal age to retire from work. In general, the respondents answered that the ideal age is 57 which is the age determined by government for retirement. The second one addressed a religious part of life that is quite prominent in several religions, namely to make a pilgrimage. For the latter question, the ideal age was said to be 48. There are hardly any differences among the responses in terms of age, income, locality and gender.

Last, but not least, we asked our respondents about their plans to get involved in community or social work. The Next Generation Study had also included this, and it showed a rather strange pattern. Whereas most young people thought that it is important to do so, hardly any of them were actively involved (British Council Dhaka 2009, Majumder 2009, 20ff). From our survey, the responses were quite different. Although respondents mentioned that they think the ideal age to get involved is approximately 18, many of them got involved at a much younger age, and some even at 15. Even among the youngest age group (15-19) many had already been involved in social work, and some of them as early as the age of 14 years. Generally, women start a little later than men (at 17 versus 15 years).

This clearly shows that youth in general have a strong interest in getting involved in social/communal work. Similarly, participants in the FGDs mentioned that they all wanted to get involved in some kind of social work. Many mentioned that parents did not allow them to do so, fearing for their security. Women in particular were less encouraged, unless it was under the banner of established agencies such as scouts or Holud Pakhi. Fields of engagement included flood relief distribution, winter clothes collection, or child vaccination. The members of youth groups of various NGOs (such as TIB) mentioned that they arranged street drama in various places of their area, aiming at creating awareness among the people against corruption and informing them about government services.

7.5   Selecting a Spouse

When discussing the role of the parents, a most crucial role was selecting a future spouse (see chapter 7.2, above). Nevertheless, we also wanted to ask our respondents about their personal selection criteria. This list included personal aspects, such as a pleasant character as well as her/his family background and education and work. One aspect hotly debated was whether or not to include a question about having children. Among all options, having a pleasant character received an overwhelming agreement, and seems to be the most important aspect when choosing a partner.

At the same time, having a spouse from a good family (98 per cent) has been assessed as quite important, as well, and possibly one from a higher social status (87 per cent), and holding a good job (80 per cent). In addition, a good relationship - although a rather vague expression – is of importance. Compared to all these, the importance of the interest in having children was much less pronounced than we would have thought. Even more clearly, a persons' looks are quite unimportant (at 46 per cent). Interestingly, disparities regarding these opinions among youth from different social and age groups, localities and gender are quite low. Overall, we would argue that young people place much stress on a person's character and family background, as well as on a person's ability to maintain a good relationship. The focus group discussions have complemented and confirmed these findings.

At the same time, it needs to be pointed out that youth have a strong perception about not being independent when choosing their future spouse, particularly among women (see Figure 7.12). Thus, the general perception portrayed in many Bollywood movies and other TV series and novels, with romantic notions of "falling in love" and choosing their partners is quite out of place, even among most youth from urban and higher income families.
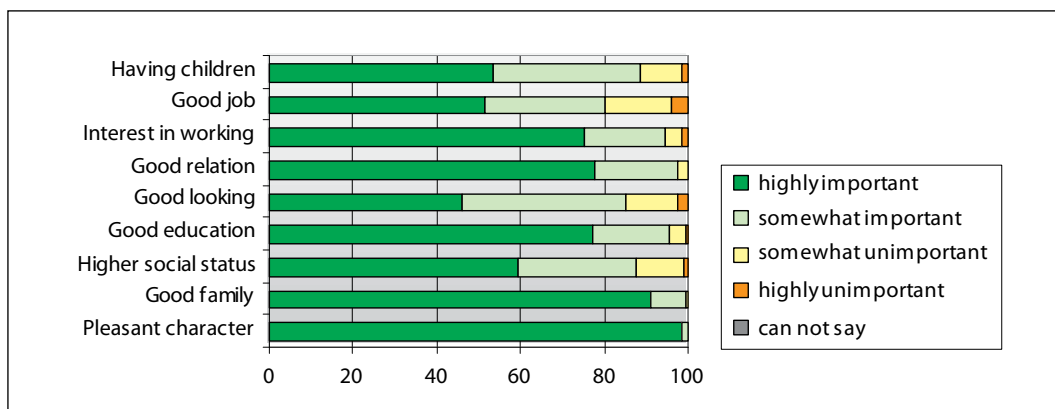
Figure 7.11   Criteria for selecting a spouse
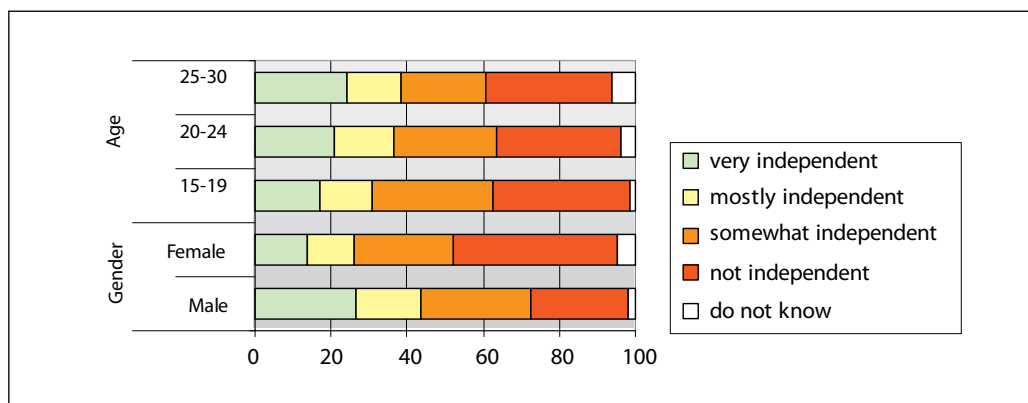
Figure 7.12   Independence to select future spouse (by age and gender)

Thus, the majority of the youth, agree on arranged marriages. During our FGDs an opinion that was often given was that if the marriage does not work out, they can seek assistance from the family, an aspect particularly addressed by young women. In the case of a love marriage, the blame for any failure would go to those who dared to choose their own partner. One aspect, not covered in our questionnaire, but raised by men was the

mentality to live with in-laws. In regard to whether women should be allowed to work, there was the general consensus that home and family members should not be neglected. Interestingly, urban men were more interested in having wives who work. Among students, many of the women hoped that their future husbands would be considerate enough to assist them in raising the children and allowing them to work.

7.6   Youth and their Leisure Activities

When considering childhood and youth, one of the major privileges, at least at first sight, is that a vast amount of time can be spent on leisure. During this time, young people in particular can get engaged in various activities, and these are discretionary and optional. While these activities are important for physical, social and emotional development of young people, it also prepares them with functional and organisational skills necessary for (later) employment. At the same time, it also provides an opportunity for the development of belonging to a community and society. On the other hand, it also needs to be pointed out that leisure is also characterised by vast social disparities, and a classical reference for this was provided by Veblen back in 1896, calling the American upper class the "leisure class".

For youth surveys, this is again a standard set of questions (see also deSouza et al. 2009, Hettige 2009; see also Furlong 2009). For the BYS we thought it was quite crucial to gain more knowledge about the importance of leisure activities of young people. At the same time it was a hotly debated issue to draft a list that is both comprehensive and concise. The compromise was a list of fourteen leisure activities, including the aspect of "religious activities". Leisure activities include reading books and newspapers, listening to music, watching TV, indoor and outdoor sports activities, or spending time with friends and family. As done for many other topics, we asked our respondents about the importance of these activities, again in form of a four-tier scaling, ranging from "highly important" and "somewhat important" to "somewhat unimportant" and "highly unimportant". Again, we were aware of the danger that youth might tend to attribute a high importance to nearly all activities. In addition, we felt that among the list of 14 they might get tired and bored, or both, thus rendering the entire exercise quite meaningless.

In order to avoid this, in a second step we have asked them to rank the five most important activities. For these, we have also added questions for more detailed information, including amounts of time spent and costs, as well as where these activities are taking place. One aspect that we had at the back of our minds was the assumption that in the present "digital era", young people are reading fewer books and spend more time watching TV and browsing the internet. When asking about importance, this is confirmed even in rural areas and among low income groups. Yet, when asking more detailed questions about actual priorities and utilisation patterns, this shows a different picture.

Across South Asia, religion is considered a part of everyday life. It is embedded in the lives of the people through prayers, regular rituals, religious festivals and holidays. The youth of Bangladesh grow up in a religiously influenced environment, irrespective of the religious community they live in. Methodologically it is difficult to include this in the list of "leisure activities", particularly when combined with ranking. Among the list of all 14 activities, religion is attributed the highest level of importance, at around 90 per cent of all responses in the "highly important". This answer was given irrespective of gender, age groups, income groups, or locality. This was also confirmed during our FGDs, where many participants mentioned that they did not say prayers regularly but that most of them fast and participate in religious festivals.

Overall, while ranking reading books, and newspapers, was given top priority. Reading is seen as quite an

important activity, and regional disparities are quite low. Approximately 72 per cent of all youth stated that reading fiction books is highly important, in contrast to merely about 1 per cent who think that reading books is not important. Similar figures were also given for reading newspapers. Overall, women have a slightly stronger interest in books (74 compared to 70 per cent among men), whereas more men consider newspapers to be important (73 compared to 66 per cent, respectively). A high interest was also stated for TV, among both men and women. At the same time, there are slight locational disparities, as was already observed for infrastructure and assets (see chapter 2.5, above). Yet, disparities are low, whereas 51 per cent among the urban youth stated that TV is of high importance, this proportion was even 47 per cent among rural youth. Interestingly, this figure is lowest in city corporations, at 41 per cent.

Compared to the importance given to religion and reading books, all other fields are much less important. Spending time with their families was somewhat or highly important for about 70 per cent, with considerable gender disparities (79 per cent among women but only 66 per cent among men). When ranked, this is mainly of second or even third priority. This finding is slightly different from the British Council's "Next Generation" study, which stated that identity of the youth of Bangladesh primarily revolves around their family and its members. Whereas we had assumed that friends play an important role in the lives of the young people, only about 25 per cent consider it "highly important" to spend time with friends, in addition to about 40 per cent who consider it to be "somewhat important". Again, there is a pronounced gender pattern, while among women the percentage was quite low (19 per cent), it was substantially higher among men (32 per cent). Among women there was a high proportion (32 per cent) who even categorised it as "somewhat unimportant". Interestingly, and of quite a surprise for us, the overall ranking of this field was one of the lowest (see Figure 7.14).
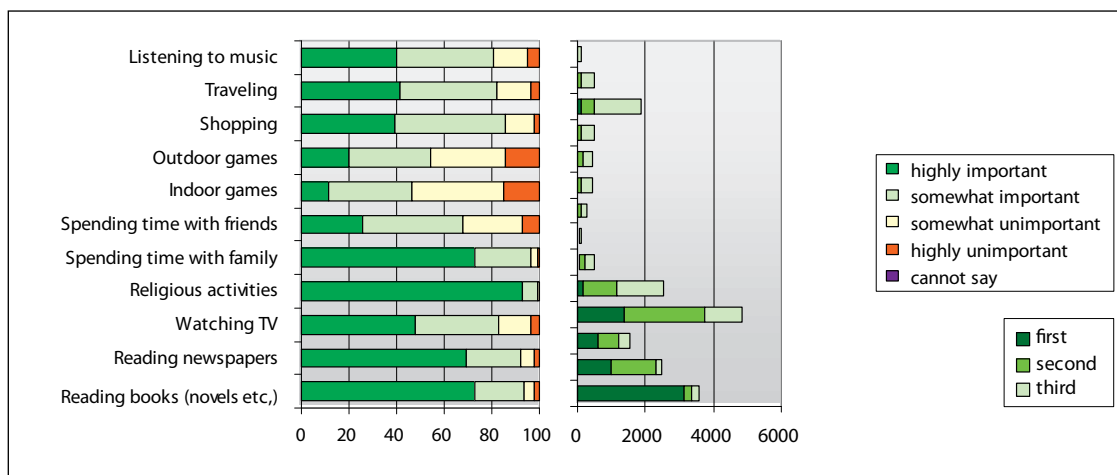
Figure 7.13   Importance of leisure activities   *Figure 7.14 Ranking of leisure activities*

Among other leisure activities, indoor and outdoor games are only moderately popular. Only 20 per cent of the youth found outdoor games important and this proportion was even lower for indoor games (10 per cent). There is an interesting gender pattern, while men prefer outdoor games (29 per cent but only 9 per cent among the women) women tend to prefer indoor games (13 per cent compared to 9 per cent). At the same time, there is an openly stated lack of interest, and the proportion of youth who opted for "somewhat unimportant" was quite high (approximately 40 per cent). Overall, we see this statement as being of high political importance, as in Bangladesh, as in many other countries, the Ministry combines these two core

functions, youth and sports. Given the low importance attributed to sports from most of the youth, we would argue that this combination is quite unfortunate.

On the other hand, travelling was seen as much more important, with a nearly equal share of "highly important" and "somewhat important" (approximately 40 per cent each). Gender disparities are moderate, although travelling is slightly more important for men (at 45 per cent compared to 37 per cent among women). At the same time, about 15 per cent of youth consider travelling to be unimportant, irrespective of locality and gender. Listening to music also had similar responses, although in actual practice we would have thought that this activity would be attributed a much higher importance. At the same time, only a few stated that they thought it was unimportant (around 5 per cent).

One further aspect of leisure was in regard to fashion, as this was placed quite prominently in the Indian youth survey (and particularly their denim cover page; see deSouza et al. 2010). From our readings, we had assumed that young people have a particularly strong interest in dressing nicely and fashionably, and that they spend a considerable amount of time and money on shopping. We also assumed that urban youth and women would emphasise this much more. However, the BYS data indicate that clothes are of similar importance (of about 36 to 41 per cent) in all localities, in addition to 44 - 46 per cent in the "somewhat important" category. Interestingly, gender disparities are negligible. Yet again, when asked to rank this activity, the importance was nearly negligible (see Figures 7.13 and 7.14, above).

7.7   Feeling of Independence

One last aspect in regard to youth and family was to get an understanding of whether and to what degree they think they are independent. In Western concepts, youth is seen as a transitional period, and also one of constant (re-)negotiations, between the young generation and their parents and other family members, in order to establish some degree of independence. While in many South Asian countries this might be an issue of low importance, we would argue that it might, at some stage, be a crucial indicator for social change. For documenting this process, the current survey will hopefully provide an important baseline. Again, it was a difficult task to conceptualise a handful of meaningful indicators that could most appropriately document this process. We included aspects for some of the major decisions to be made in life, such as choosing schools, future employment, friends, a future spouse, as well as aspects of daily relevance, such as how to spend money and which clothes to buy, as well as exercising mobility, in general.

Overall, the respondents stated that they felt quite independent in regard to most aspects. An astonishingly large proportion felt either "very independent" or at least "mostly independent" when choosing schools, future employment, friends or clothes. Yet, given the low degree of education and integration into the labour market it is questionable whether these answers are realistic or just hypothetical. On the other hand, one aspect where there was an overwhelmingly strong perception about the lack of independence is the aspect of choosing one's future spouse (see also chapter 7.4, above).
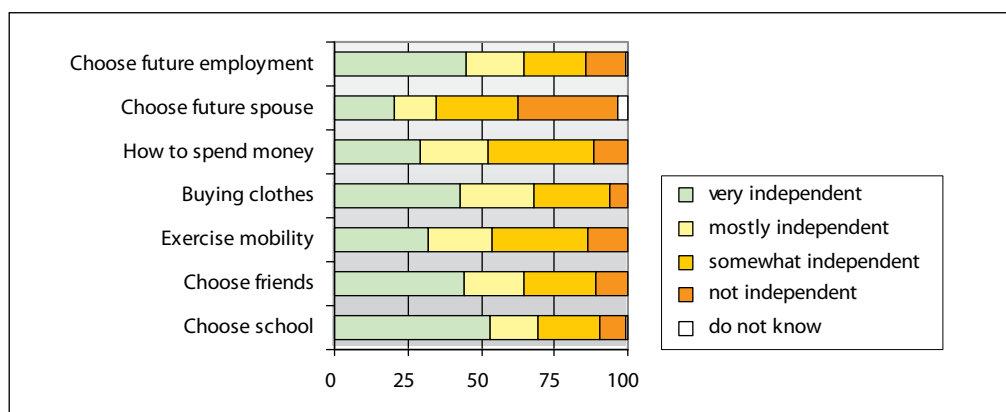
Figure 7.15   Youth and their perceptions about being independent

7.8   Acceptance of Social Change

When analysing social change, youth are usually depicted as being key agents. Some of these changes can be quite visible and openly discussed, some can happen rather quietly. One example is that over the past 20 years more women have pursued (higher) education and then taken professional careers. As a result, they are more visible and active, although this phenomenon is often limited to urban areas. For a better understanding of youth, their ideas about social change, and the acceptance, or non-acceptance of particular aspects, are quite crucial. When tapping into these ideas, we have included issues such as gender equality, working women, friendship with opposite gender, marriage without the consent of the parents, marriage at a later age, family planning, divorce, study abroad and work abroad. Overall, the survey has shown some rather pronounced patterns. While many aspects seem to have a general consensus, some other topics, such as divorce and marriage without the consent of the parents, face an extremely strong opposition. Some controversial issues, such as homosexuality and abortion, have not been included in this survey.

Topics where there is a wide consensus include gender equality, where nearly 81 per cent of the youth think that it is acceptable. Within this group, a large majority even think that it is "highly acceptable" (two thirds of those who agree). At the same time, gender disparities are quite substantial, whereas 78 per cent among the women consider it to be highly important it is only 56 per cent among the men. A similar pattern was also found for aspects of working women, and here gender disparities were even more extreme (76 per cent of women versus 47 per cent of men). This has also been confirmed during our FGDs, where women put much emphasis on establishing gender equality in all spheres of life, whereas men were much more reluctant to do so. In some cases, their body language was even more agitated than their words. One even said that all the NGOs and media were making women too "liberated" and thus they no longer appreciate their household chores. In addition, because women had their own incomes, they felt independent and the rates of divorce were going up as well. A few stated that there was already an acute shortage of work opportunities in Bangladesh and now the women would pose additional competition.

As stated above, the two most extreme cases of dissent were divorce and marriage without the consent of the parents. For the latter, 76 per cent mentioned that it was not only unacceptable but even "highly unacceptable". This confirms an aspect from the previous section, where about 95 per cent of the youth stated

that a most important role for their parents is the selection of their spouse, and that they felt quite restricted not to follow that advice. This clearly shows that the young people are not only extremely hesitant but even strongly opposed to the option of marrying the man/woman of their choice if the parents do not approve.

Similarly, divorce is, until today, religiously and culturally discouraged in South Asia. Again, about 85 per cent of the respondents classified it as "highly unacceptable". When further disaggregated, there are only minor differences in regard to age, income groups, gender and localities. Similarly, when the BRAC RED team was writing up their synthesis on youth in 2004, divorce was seen as a social risk for women. Respondents even mentioned that they see marriage as the ultimate security for a woman and that there is no other socially accepted status for women than a marriage (see Ali et al. 2006, several sections).

Compared to the findings from the Indian and Sri Lankan Youth Surveys this shows a much higher degree of conservatism. In the Indian Survey, quite a number of youth mentioned that marriages may not work and instead of destroying one's life, the couple should have divorce (deSouza et al. 2010, 29). Similarly, the Sri Lankan youth survey portrayed a negative opinion regarding divorce, only 65 per cent (Hettige and Mayer 2002 and Hettige 2010, 20ff).
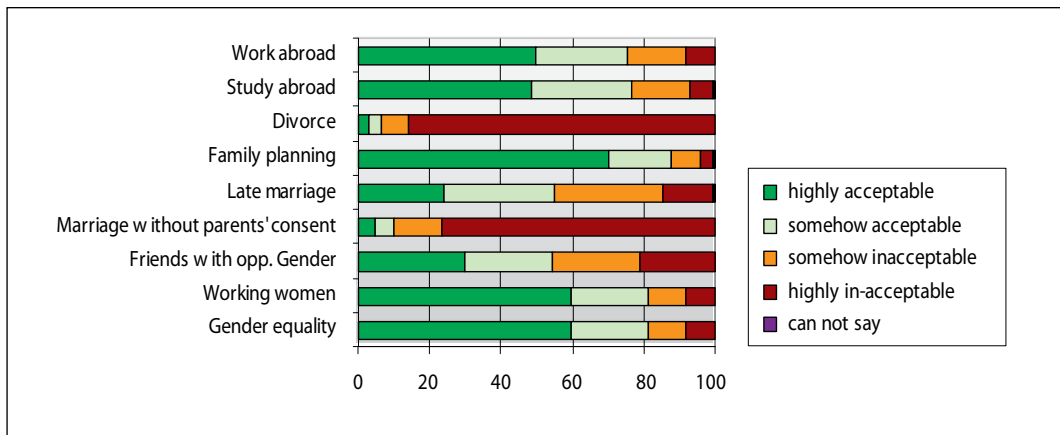
Figure 7.16   Acceptance of Social Change
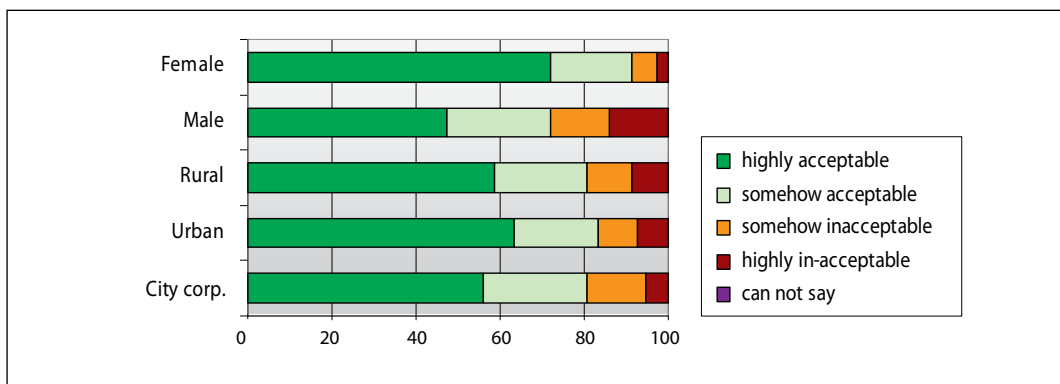
Figure 7.17   Acceptance of Social Change

8 Challenges and Opportunities

Sylhet xii/2011

8.1   Challenges and Policy Implications

One common aspect of most youth studies and youth surveys is to address youth as a critical phase of life. This implies that many challenges need to be handled, not only by the youth themselves but also by those who guide and guard them. The latter refers to both the parents and the state, and ideally the two operate hand in hand in order to facilitate that these transitional phases are as smooth as possible. On the other hand, youth policies often do not meet these criteria, and focus on aspects that are of less relevance for young people, for instance, sport activities. In addition, youth policies also often focus on providing services for those who need the support least, as their parents or other guardians are moderately well off and could safeguard the needs of their offspring quite well on their own. On the other hand, in a large number of families, and often those with a larger number of children, parents are not in a position to support their offspring to the extent that they need, and deserve.

Thus, it is particularly the latter group who need the strongest and most comprehensive support from the state - but who are also the ones who are least likely to get it. The World Bank, in their World Development Report "The Next Generation" argues that "youth policy often fails young people" (ibid. 2006, 214ff). In their analysis they point out that this is mainly due to poor coordination of policies, the weak voice of young people in monitoring, as well as due to the paucity of proven success (ibid.). From our angle of governance studies we would add that a comprehensive understanding of youth and the challenges they perceive is quintessential for fine tuning any youth policy. In addition, such an exercise also allows for better targeting of resources and interventions.

In this last chapter we will briefly elaborate on what young people think are the major challenges in their lives. As done last year for defining democracy, we have included this as the only open-ended question, and overall, the responses were both concentrated and wide ranging (see chapter 8.2). This chapter will also briefly discuss how young people perceive their own situation vis-a-vis other groups, in terms of advantages and disadvantages (see chapter 8.3). This is followed by crucial feed back and ideas on what young people think the government could be doing in order to support them (see chapter 8.4). One positive aspect is that, overall, there is a vast optimism about the future (see chapter 8.5). The last sub-chapter briefly provides some concluding remarks for this survey.

8.2   Discussing Major Challenges

One of the core objectives of our survey was to find out what young people perceive as major challenges in their lives. In order to do this, the survey included a set of options and we asked them what they consider as their priorities. Overall, there were several major concerns, and the one mentioned most frequently was getting a good education. Similarly, finding employment, securing and maintaining good health were also mentioned by a large number. Again, while asking for levels of agreement, results showed a strong agreement on a variety of issues. Yet, when asking about priorities, the pattern was much more focussed and revealing. In addition, we started off this section by asking them an open-ended question about what they thought were the major challenges faced by young people in the country.

Our list of challenges focussed on what we thought were the main needs for young people. As discussed in our methodology chapter, the FGDs that we have carried out both prior to and during the quantitative part

of the Bangladesh Youth Survey were quite crucial in our understanding of what young people thought were critical issues. The list includes getting a good education, finding employment, food security and maintaining good health, as well as maintaining political stability, coping with natural disasters, coping with increasing costs of living and the widening gap of rich and poor. When asked for importance, between 85 and 94 per cent ranked most issues as important, and most of them even as "highly important". Yet, when ranked, the pattern was much clearer. Overall, "good health" had the highest proportion as the first priority, whereas education had the highest cumulative share, when first, second and third priorities were added. If we had weighted these rankings, as done last year for the Governance Barometer Survey, the priority of health would have been more explicit. This clearly indicates the need for further studies that also include health related topics. On the other hand, coping with natural disasters had the lowest rank (3 per cent even when taken cumulatively), followed by political instability, income inequality and price hike.

Methodologically it was quite interesting to compare the different patterns of response from the overall feed back of priorities versus the ranking. At the same time, both were based on our list of what we thought priorities could be. Although this had been the result of comprehensive FGDs there could have been more or less pronounced biases while (pre-) selecting these issues. When addressing this topic in the form of an open-ended question, an overwhelming response was given for unemployment, with nearly double the number of responses than for the next two challenges, illiteracy and lack of money. Yet, the latter was also implicitly covered in a similar answer, namely poverty (ranked fifth). If seen cumulatively, this was mentioned as prominently as unemployment (see Figure 8.2). A rather strange pattern is that health was not mentioned prominently when respondents could provide their own list of three major challenges. There, health was only mentioned as a priority by less than 1 per cent.
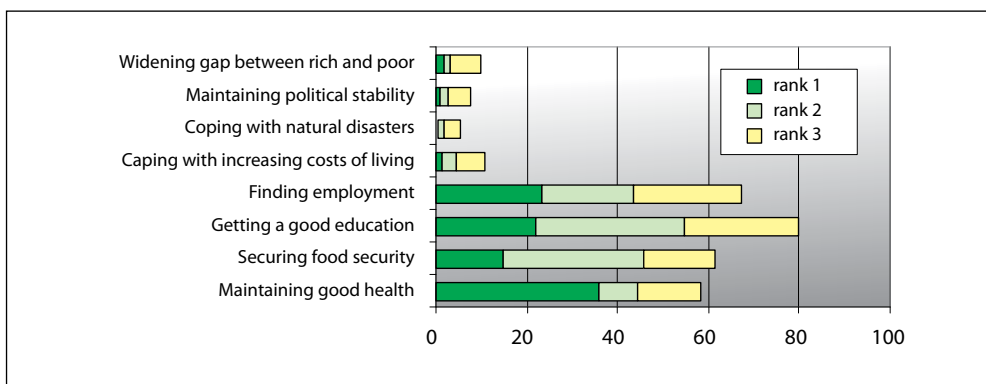
Figure 8.1   Major challenges seen by young people (ranked priorities)
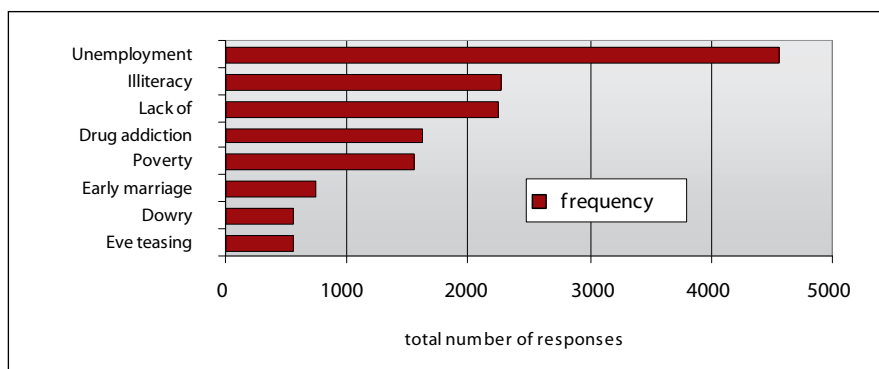
Figure 8.2   Major challenges seen by young people (open-ended)

Some of these challenges are common regardless of gender, income, locality, and at times even class. The top

issues included securing a moderately good standard of education and employment. Yet, there are distinctive issues for various social groups and we will briefly discuss these in this section. For rural youth, it was quite important to have educational institutions nearby, good teachers and that families would have financial solvency to prevent drop-outs. Poverty was identified as one of the main reasons for dropping out of school, a concern that has been stated in many other studies. Young parents in particular are highly worried whether they will be able to send their children to school and, above all, to afford to keep them there. Besides financial insolvency, educational institutional inadequacies are identified as a reason for hampering education. While the shortage of teachers in government schools was also an issue, it was even more of a concern that the mentality of the teachers towards their work was critical. Issues mentioned were the teachers' failure to provide quality education whilst "encouraging" students to participate in private tuition classes. For many youth from lower income families this was a major challenge in their own lives, and the fear of facing a similar situation for their own children was quite high.

Unemployment was also considered one of the critical concerns for young people, across all income groups and employment sectors. During the FGDs with students, both in colleges and at universities, many have stated that they are continuing their higher studies not only for the sake of studying but also because they could not find what they thought was adequate employment when trying to do so. They pointed out that the job market is highly corrupt and manipulated. Many stated that either family or (party) political networks and money are the most common determinants in accessing jobs. One frequent comment was that among their friends and fellow students the ones who got jobs were not the best students. While this pattern was particularly prominent for government jobs, many youth also voiced their concerns that the private sector, as well as the development sector, operated in similar ways. Similary, many young people from low and middle income families felt quite disillusioned and some even highly frustrated, as they said they felt marginalised and forgotten by the state. Neither educational results nor a high vocational or technical skill level nor merit or qualification were of any particular relevance. Some of them stated that they thought about becoming self employed but due to lack of capital they could not start any business or agricultural enterprise.

Other issues that were mentioned regularly, by both male and female youth, were concerns about social security. Men are mostly concerned that the law and order situation is deteriorating gradually and that rates of crime are increasing. The law enforcement agencies are equally corrupt and they harass those who need their help most, and the police are generally highly distrusted. Women tend to worry more about social security at the family and community level. For them, social norms and regulations pose a severe challenge. This also includes ideas that education for women is less important than for men, and that men, rather then the entire family, are responsible for the main decisions to be made in the household.

8.3   Assessing (Dis-)Advantages

While conceptualising this survey, our assumption was that young people might tend to see their situation rather pessimistically. If that were the case, it would then have been interesting to find out about their understanding of other people's lack of privileges. As young people generally see their situation quite optimistically (or at least they have stated that they do so) this question was not as important as we would have thought.

Nevertheless, it is of interest to tap into young people's ideas about whom they perceive as disadvantaged groups. Among the specific groups we suggested for comparison were rural and urban youth, as well as ethnic

and religious minorities. Overall, when comparing their own standard of living to youth in general, about 25 per cent stated that their situation is "very high" and an additional 60 per cent stated that it was "moderately high". Among these, there was a strong statement that their situation was much better than for rural poor, in particular. While urban poor are seen as disadvantaged by half the youth, their own situation in relation to rural poor is either high (42-48 per cent) or even very high (45-49 per cent), resulting in a cumulative share of about 90 per cent of the total respondents. Overall, neither gender nor locational disparities were very strong (see Figures 8.3 and 8.4).
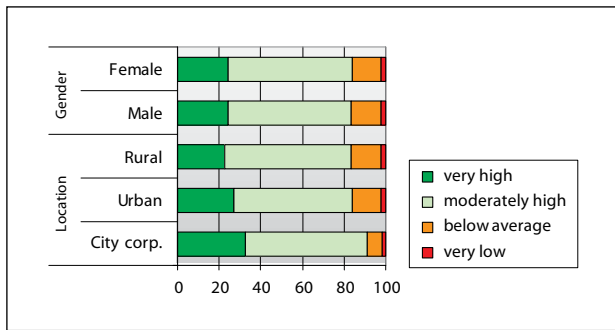
Figure 8.3　Assessing their own situation compared to other youth
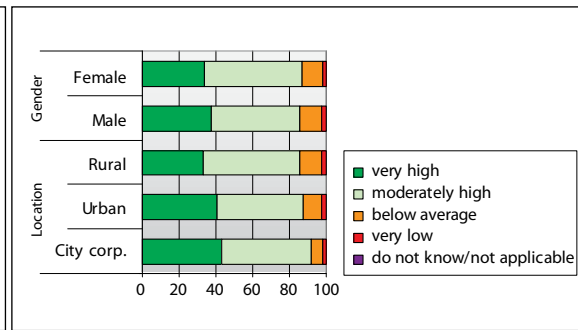
Figure 8.4　Assessing their own situation compared to rural poor

8.4　What the State Could Do

While assessing the major challenges is an important exercise in encouraging youth to think about their lives, it is also of interest to see how they would assess the role of the state, or rather the government, to support them. One way of capturing this was to ask about the level of agreement (or disagreement) about what should be the most important policy measures. Again, this was further refined by adding a ranking, in a second step. As discussed before, the high level of agreement provided no clear pattern. Yet, when asked for ranking, there was an overwhelming consensus that "improving the quality of education" was a major task that young people would want the government to do. Compared to this, even the provision of employment was only secondary (see Figure 8.5).

From these answers, it is quite obvious that youth regard education, and improved service provisions, as a quintessential task. For more than 80 per cent of them this is even more essential than generating more jobs. This high number also indicates that it is a cross-cutting concern, irrespective of gender and locality, or socio-economic groups. At the same time, the creation of employment is also a major issue to nearly a fifth of all young people (16 per cent), again across all income groups. When combining first and second priorities, the number of young people who have given employment as a government priority is even higher than for education. This clearly indicates that this perception is again shared by youth irrespective of locality and income groups. Interestingly, it is also irrespective of gender, although women are hardly integrated into the labour market, as discussed above.

When considering third priorities, there is a more specific gender pattern. Prevention of crime but also gender friendly policies have been mentioned most frequently. Among all respondents who addressed gender-friendly policies, more than 70 per cent were women while men gave a stronger priority to more general

issues, such as a corruption free business environment (see Figure 8.6). At the same time, in terms of policy requirements the latter ask for much more comprehensive approaches than the sectoral ones for education and employment.
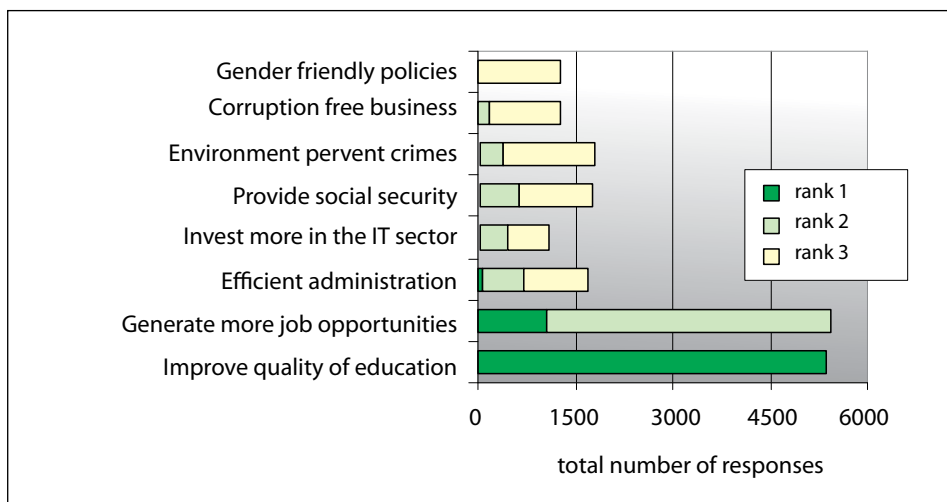
Figure 8.5   What the State could do
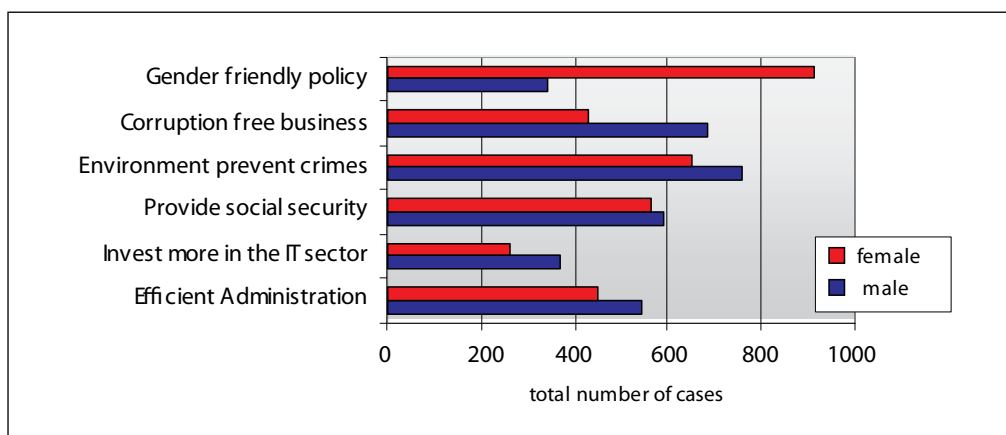
Figure 8.6   Third priority of youth policies (by gender)

8.5   Bangladesh Youth and their Optimism about the Future

One core feature of young people, irrespective of locality and social status, is their pronounced optimism about the future. This phenomenon was already pointed out in our Governance Barometer Survey 2010. Generally, assessments about the standard of living of their parents' household are "moderately" high, even among those from lower income households. Gender disparities are quite low, as are disparities based on locality. At the same time, only a minority of 15 per cent assess their parents' standard of living as "very high". On the other hand, when assessing their own standard of living after two years' time, the majority opted for "very high", irrespective of gender and age groups (see Figure 8.8). This optimism is even higher when asked about the standard of living after five years, when 70 per cent see themselves in the "very high" group.
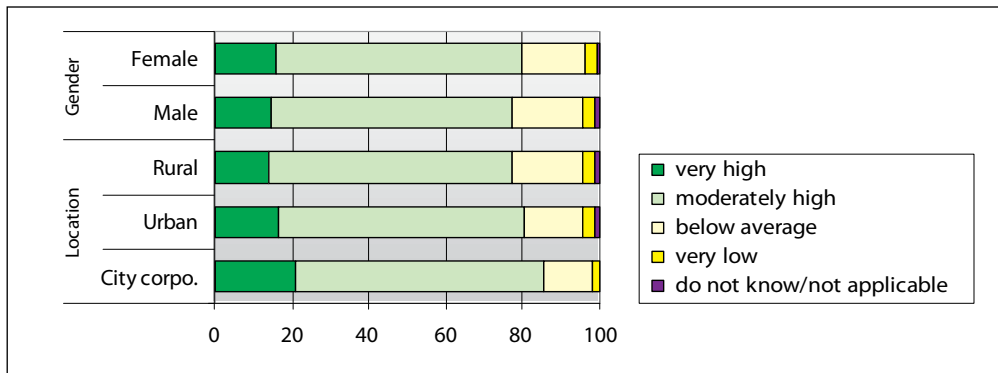
Figure 8.7   Assessing their parents' standard of living
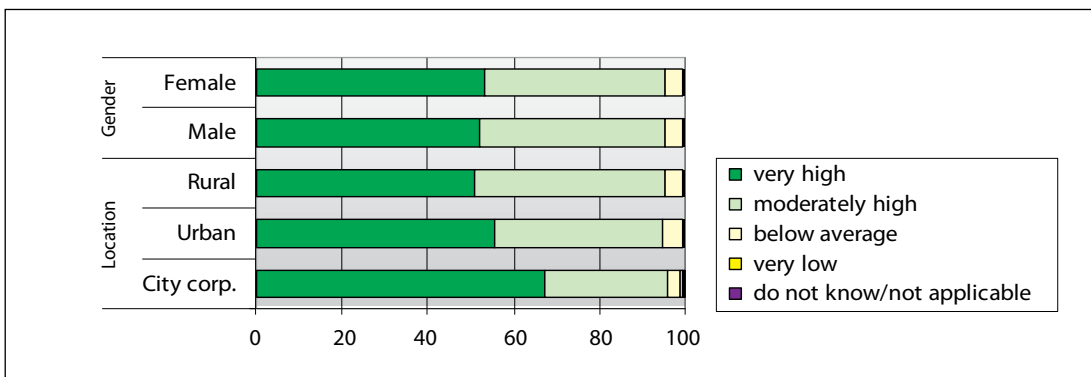
Figure 8.8   Assessing their own standard of living after two years

8.6   The Bangladesh Youth Survey - Some Afterthoughts

When conceptualising the Bangladesh Youth Survey we had in mind to provide a piece of research on youth in Bangladesh that is both conscise and comprehensive. Initially we had intended to write up two major types of reports, a summary report of about 50 pages, for sharing our findings soon after the actual survey, as well as a full report (of about 150 pages). Yet, while being enaged in the analysis and writing up, we felt that the data is so rich that it is hardly possible to summarise this in any brief form. We would even argue that the current report, in terms of data analysis, provides a brief glimpse about what we thought is most important from the survey and the research that was done along with it. At the same time, we also feel that this is the tip of the iceberg and we will certainly draw on the data base in many other ways. We also plan to share it with those who are interested in further analyses, while acknowledging the joint intellectual property rights of IGS and the funding agencies (SDC, UNDP and ANSA South Asia).

As stated in the introduction, we have already presented some of these findings at our Joint Regional Conference in Colombo in March 2012. The discussions for these three papers on education, political engagement and IT have inspired us for further analyses and readings, and this will certainly remain an ongoing exercise for quite a while. We also hope that this report will inspire other reaserch teams, whether national or regional, to enter into a dialogue with us and to carry out further analyses, and possibly engage in comparative studies. Such studies could be either based on existing data bases or conceptualise new research, as for instance on health

and gender. Our up-coming national dissemination workshops, in Dhaka as well as elsewhere in the country, will hopefully also contribute to gaining further interest for this study and sparking debate.

In addition, for the South Asian region, we hope to inspire research teams who will be interested to engage in similar types of research. Research and policy teams from South Asian countries that have already participated in the last conference were from India (CSDS and Lucknow University), Sri Lanka (Colombo University and Open University), Nepal (Social Science Baha), Bhutan (unicef and Ministry of Youth) and Pakistan (British Council and UNDP), and thus covering nearly the entire South Asian region. Ideally, within a few years there will be a series of similarly comprehensive studies across the region, and possibly even elsewhere. If so, this would provide a unique set of insights about social and political change among youth, and allow for regional comparisons. Hopefully, we can also organise similar conferences in the near future, to exchange and critically discuss these findings and learn from each other.

Last but not least, by setting up a network among scholars, policy makers and development partners, we also hope to strengthen both the research interest and capacity but also the critical linkages between these core stakeholders. While completing this report was a major task, we also see this as a starting point, rather than the completion of this project. By engaging in and providing this comprehensive analysis, we primarily aim to encourage policy makers and development partners to critically assess our analyses and engage in a dialogue in regard to possible, or even necessary, policy implications. By doing so, we aim at strengthening a policy reform process. Thus, ideally, this study will set in motion a country wide policy dialogue between youth and those who aim at supporting and strenghtening youth policies.

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A N N E X

Table A1   Ages of getting married (for women)

	Non	15 or less	16 to 17	18 to 20	21 to 24	25 and above
15	96.77	3.23	-	-	-	-
16	89.11	3.96	5.941	-	-	-
17	87.59	3.55	8.156	-	-	-
18	60.67	7.62	20.43	10.67	-	-
26	6.41	12.18	36.54	33.33	8.97	2.56
27	5.37	11.83	37.63	36.56	7.53	1.07
28	6.43	17.14	24.29	41.43	7.14	3.57
29	5.95	22.62	21.43	32.14	11.9	5.95

Table A2   Ages when studying in different classes

Age	Class 1	Class 5	Class 8	Class 10	Class 12	Graduation
5	1106					
6	3175					
7	1384	3				
8	437	18				
9	46	199				
10	37	1479				
11		2625				
12		1113	188			
13		304	1272			
14		109	1993	62		
15		37	747	613		
16			216	1217	47	
17			56	385	245	3
18			22	129	543	13
19				32	201	13
20					69	28
21					27	22
22					8	42
23						35
24						30
25						23
Sub -total	6185	5887	4494	2438	1140	209
never attended	20	318	1711	3767	5065	5996
P c. of never attending	0.3	5.1	27.6	60.7	81.6	96.6
Total no. included	6205	6205	6205	6205	6205	6205

Table A3   Reading websites as a media of learning about the state (by locality)

	Highly important	Somewhat important	Somewhat unimportant	Highly unimportant	Cannot say	Total
City corporation	96	115	64	14	22	311
Urban	644	554	232	57	173	1660
Rural	1557	1655	661	201	530	4604
Total	2297	2324	957	272	725	6575

Table A4   (Self-) Assessment of Computer Skills

	Location			Gender		Age			Income					
	City corp.	Urban	Rural	Male	Fem.	15-19	20-24	25-30	< 5000	5-7500 TK	7500-10000 TK	10-15000 TK	> 15001 TK	Total
Highly skilled	9.6	3.0	1.9	4.1	0.9	2.0	3.4	2.4	0.6	1.6	2.1	3.2	5.9	2.5
Somewhat skilled	21.9	16.7	10.9	18.8	6.9	15.6	14.3	7.6	7.6	7.0	11.3	15.7	24.6	12.9
Limited skills	11.6	8.3	6.7	9.0	5.6	9.2	6.5	5.7	5.7	6.1	7.3	8.8	9.2	7.3
Totally unskilled	49.8	62.8	68.6	59.6	72.9	63.0	65.2	71.6	75.5	76.3	67.5	60.7	48.5	66.3
Do not know	7.1	9.3	11.9	8.5	13.6	10.2	10.5	12.7	10.6	9.0	11.8	11.6	11.8	11.0

Table A5   (Self-) Assessment of Internet Skills

	Location			Gender		Age			Income					
	City corp.	Urban	Rural	Male	Fem.	15-19	20-24	25-30	Up to 5000	5001-7500 TK	7501-10000 TK	10001-15000 TK	15001 TK and above	Total
Highly skilled	10.0	3.0	1.6	3.9	0.7	2.4	2.7	1.8	0.6	1.5	1.7	2.1	6.5	2.3
Somewhat skilled	15.4	10.2	6.4	12.8	2.7	8.7	8.8	5.6	3.1	3.2	7.0	10.3	16.9	7.8
Limited skills	8.7	5.7	4.8	6.9	3.5	6.3	5.3	3.6	4.1	4.3	4.6	6.7	6.9	5.2
Totally unskilled	55.9	70.3	72.8	65.7	77.1	70.4	70.6	73.5	79.4	79.6	72.6	67.1	55.5	71.3
Do not know	10.0	10.8	14.5	10.8	16.0	12.2	12.7	15.6	12.9	11.3	14.2	13.8	14.2	13.4

Table A6   What could the state do to improve the lives of young people

	rank 1	rank 2	rank 3		pc/1	pc/2	pc/3
Improve quality of education	5350	4	5		81.4	0.1	0.1
Generate more job opportunities	1064	4385	2		16.2	66.7	0.0
Efficient Administration	62	647	997		0.9	9.8	15.2
Invest more in the IT sector	40	429	636		0.6	6.5	9.7
Provide social security	36	587	1155		0.5	8.9	17.6
Prevent crimes	23	357	1412		0.3	5.4	21.5
Corruption free business environment	166	1113			0.0	2.5	16.9
Gender friendly policies			1255		0.0	0.0	19.1

Informed Consent

Salam/Adab, My name is _____. I am from *Nielsen Bangladesh*, an International Research Firm. At present we are conducting a survey on public perception. I want to take your interview as a part of this survey. Your opinion and cooperation is very important to us. Your opinion is very important for the development of this country. It will take 60 miniutes for the interview and it will be really helpful for us if you kindly spare some of your valuable times for this interview. Your answer will be totally voluntary. If you are unwilling to answer any of the questions or feel embarrass to answer you may stop the interview any time you want. The information you will provide will be fully confidential and will be used in research purpose only.

সালাম - আদাব। আমি .... । আমি *Nielsen Bangladesh* নামের একটি আন্তর্জাতিক গবেষণা প্রতিষ্ঠান থেকে এসেছি। বর্তমানে আমরা একটি জনমত জরিপ পরিচালনা করছি। এই গবেষণার অংশ হিসেবে আমি আপনার সাক্ষাতকার নিতে চাই। আপনার মূল্যবান তথ্য আমাদের জন্য খুবই গুরুত্বপূর্ণ। আপনার দেয়া তথ্য বা মতামত দেশের সামগ্রিক উন্নয়নে সহায়তা করবে। সম্পূর্ণ সাক্ষাতকারটি নিতে প্রায় ৬০ মিনিট সময়ের প্রয়োজন হবে, আর আশা করি আপনি এ ব্যাপারে আমাকে সহযোগিতা করবেন। আপনি চাইলে সাক্ষাতকার চলাকালে যে কোন একটি প্রশ্নের উত্তর নাও দিতে পারেন বা পুরো সাক্ষাতকারটি বন্ধ করে দিতে পারবেন। আপনার দেয়া তথ্য সম্পূর্ণ গোপন রাখা হবে এবং তা শুধুমাত্র গবেষণার কাজে ব্যবহার করা হবে।

District		Upazila		Union		
জেলা		উপজেলা		ইউনিয়ন		
Village		Mouza/Ward		Location Category	City Corporation	1
গ্রাম		মৌজা/ওয়ার্ড			সিটি কর্পোরেশন	
Respondents Age (in complete years					Urban	2
উত্তরদাতার বয়স (পূর্ণ বছরে)					শহর	
					Rural	3
					গ্রাম	

SECTION A: Household Roster

QA1 Who are the Household members living in this address? [Please check all that apply and list the numbers]

এখানে বসবাসকারী খানার সদস্য কারা? (বয়সের ক্রম অনুসারে বড় থেকে ছোট সবার নাম লিখুন এবং যথাযথ কোড করুন)

No.	Respondent's Relationship with HH পরিবার প্রধানের সাথে সম্পর্ক (কোড)	Sex:(M-1, F-2)/ লিঙ্গ: পুরুষ - ১, মহিলা-২		Age (In complete years) বয়স (পূর্ণ বছরে)	Level of Education (Last class completed) শিক্ষাগত যোগ্যতা (সর্বশেষ যে শ্রেণী পর্যন্ত পড়েছেন)	Marital Status বৈবাহিক অবস্থা	Primary occupation মূল পেশা
1.		1	2				
2.		1	2				
3.	Selected respondent's code (1-10)						
	জরিপ উত্তরদাতার কোড (১-১০ এর মাঝে)						
4.	Total number of household members /খানার মোট সদস্য সংখ্যা						

A. Relation with HH head code: 1=Family Head, 2=Husband/Wife, 3=Son, 4=Daughter, 5=Father/Mother, 6=Father In Law/Mother In Law, 7=Grandmother/Grandfather , 8=Grand Daughter/ Grand Son, 9=Sister in Laws/Brother in Laws (endorsed with code 15), 10=Brother/Sister/, 11=Paternal/ Maternal Uncle, 12=Son in Law/Daughter In Law, 13=Cousins, , 14=Niece/Nephew, 15=Other Relatives, 16= Housemaid

খানা প্রধানের সাথে সম্পর্কজনিত কোডঃ ১=পরিবার প্রধান, ২=স্বামী/স্ত্রী, ৩=পুত্র, ৪= কন্যা, ৫=বাবা/মা, ৬= শ্বশুর/শাশুড়ি, ৭=দাদা/দাদী, ৮=নাতি/নাতনি, ৯=শ্যালক/শ্যালিকা, ১০=ভাই/বোন, ১১=চাচা/মামা, ১২=জামাই/পুত্রবধু, ১৩=চাচাত/মামাত/ফুফাতো/খালাতভাই/বোন, ১৪=ভাগ্নে/ভাগ্নী, ১৫=অন্যান্য আত্মীয়, ১৬=গৃহপরিচারক/গৃহপরিচারিকা

D. Level of education code: Write in 1, 2, 3, 11, 13 etc. format.

শিক্ষাগত যোগ্যতার কোড (সর্বশেষ যে শ্রেণী পর্যন্ত পড়েছেন) : ১,২,৩,১১ এই ভাবে লিখুন

E. 1=Married, 2=Unmarried, 3=Divorced, 4=Separated, 5=Deserted

বৈবাহিক অবস্থা কোড : ১=বিবাহিত, ২=অবিবাহিত, ৩=বিয়ের পর তালাক হয়ে গেছে, ৪=বর্তমানে আলাদা বাস করেন, ৫=পরিত্যক্ত/পরিত্যাক্তা

F. Primary Occupation Code: 1=Student, 2=Housewife, 3=Self employed (agri), 4=Self-employed (non-agri), 5=Day-labourer (agri), 6=Day labourer (non-agri), 7=Regular job holder (govt.), 8=Regular job holder (non-govt.), 9=Unemployed, 10=Irregular service-holder (govt./non-govt.), 11=Political Leader, 12=Employed to NGO, 13=School teacher, 14=Journalist, 15=College/ University teacher, 16=Advocate/Lawyer/Barrister, 17=Doctor (at least MBBS), 18=Local govt. representative (current or former), 19=Madrassa teacher, 20=Retired person, 21= Rickshaw/van puller/Bus driver/Truck driver, 22= Industrial worker, Others (Specify)....

উত্তরদাতার মূল পেশা সম্পর্কিত কোড: ১= ছাত্র, ২=গৃহিনী, ৩=স্বনিয়োজিত কাজ (কৃষি), ৪=স্বনিয়োজিত কাজ (কৃষি কাজ ছাড়া), ৫=দিনমজুর (কৃষি), ৬=দিনজমুর (কৃষি ব্যতীত), ৭=নিয়মিত চাকুরীজীবী (সরকারি), ৮=নিয়মিত চাকুরিজীবী (বেসরকারি), ৯=বেকার, ১০=অনিয়মিত চাকুরিজীবী (সরকারি, বেসরকারি), ১১=রাজনৈতিক নেতা, ১২=এনজিওতে চাকুরিরত, ১৩=স্কুল শিক্ষক, ১৪=সাংবাদিক, ১৫=কলেজ/ বিশ্ববিদ্যালয় শিক্ষক, ১৬=আইনজীবী (এডভোকেট/ব্যারিস্টার), ১৭=চিকিৎসক (এমবিবিএস পাশ), ১৮=প্রাক্তন/বর্তমান স্থানীয় সরকার প্রতিনিধি, ১৯=মাদ্রাসা শিক্ষক, ২০=অবসরপ্রাপ্ত, ২১=রিকসাচালক/ ভ্যানচালক/ বাস ও ট্রাক ড্রাইভার, ২২=শিল্প শ্রমিক, অন্যান্য (উল্লেখ করুন) ......

QA2 Does your household (or any member of the household) have any of the following items in working codition? (Multiple response)
[Please note that items in not –working condition would mean that they are permanently irreparable or out of order and should not be included]

আপনাদের খানায় কোন সদস্যের নিম্নলিখিত বস্তুগুলো আছে কি? বৃত্ত (সার্কেল) করুন (একাধিক উত্তর হতে পারে) নোটঃ একেবারে নষ্ট হয়ে গেছে এমন কিছু হিসেবের মধ্যে আনবেন না।

No.	Main assets		Yes	No	No সংখ্যা
A2.1	Family house/ apartment	পারিবারিক বাড়ি/ এপার্টমেন্ট	1	2	
A2.2	Bed/s	বিছানা	1	2	
A2.3	Fridge	ফ্রিজ	1	2	
A2.4	TV	টিভি	1	2	
A2.5	Bicycle/s	বাই সাইকেল	1	2	
A2.6	Other non-motorised	মোটরবিহীন অন্যান্য যান	1	2	
A2.7	Motorbike/s	মোটরসাইকেল	1	2	
A2.8	Car/s	গাড়ি	1	2	
A2.9	Mobile phone/s	মোবাইল ফোন	1	2	
A2.10	Approximate monthly income (guardian/parents'/if seperaed-write it by own)	আনুমানিক মাসিক আয় (অভিভাবকের)/ মা বাবা/ নিজের খানা (যদি পৃথক থাকে)	_____Taka		

QA3: Food security/ খাদ্য নিরাপত্তা

No.	Questions and Filters		CC*	Code	Skip
QA3.1	Do you produce food for your house?	আপনি কি আপনার খানার জন্য খাদ্য উৎপাদন করেন?	Yes	1	QA3.2
			No	2	QA4
QA3.2	For how many months do you have sufficient food in 2011?	২০১১ সালে কত মাস আপনার খানায় পর্যাপ্ত পরিমাণ খাদ্য মজুদ ছিল?	..Months NA/প্রন**	99	

 * Coding Categories ** Not applicable (NA) প্রযোজ্য নয় (প্রন)

QA4: As you know that there are different classes in society, I would like to know the social status and income of yourself in your opinion

আপনি তো জানেন যে, সমাজে বিভিন্ন ধরনের শ্রেণী আছে (যেমন- উচ্চবিত্ত, মধ্যবিত্ত ইত্যাদি)। আপনার মতে, আপনার আর্থ-সামাজিক অবস্থান কোথায়? [যদি উত্তরদাতা বাবা মার খানা থেকে পৃথক থাকে উভয় জিজ্ঞাসা করুন]

No			UC	UMC	MC	LMC	WC	NA
			উবি	উমবি	মবি	নিমবি	নিবি	প্রন
A4.1	Parents' Household	বাবা-মার খানা	1	2	3	4	5	9
A4.2	Own household (if seperated)	নিজের খানা (যদি পৃথক থাকে)	1	2	3	4	5	9

Upper class (UC), Upper Middle Class (UMC), Lower Middle Class (LMC), Working Class(WC)
উচ্চবিত্ত (উবি), উচ্চ মধ্যবিত্ত (উমবি), নিম্ন মধ্যবিত্ত (নিমবি) , নিম্নবিত্ত (নিবি), প্রযোজ্য নয় (প্রন)

SECTION B: Socio-economic Background of Youths

QB1 Now I would like to know about your educational background.
আপনার শিক্ষাজীবন সম্পর্কে তথ্য দিন।

No.	Questions and Filters		CC*	Code	Skip	
B1.1	Did you ever go to school?	আপনি কি কখনও স্কুলে গিয়েছেন?	Yes	1	Q B1.2	
			No	2	Q B2	
B1.2	Are you currently reading in school?	আপনি কি বর্তমানে লেখাপড়া করছেন?	Yes	1	Q B1.4	
			No	2	Q B1.3	
B1.3	Please tell the drop out age	যদি না হয়, তাহলে কোন বয়স থেকে লেখাপড়া করছেন না?	____ years			
B1.4	What was your age in given classes of study?	Class/শ্রেণী	Type of school (see code)/ স্কুলের ধরন (কোড দেখে বলুন)		Age of starting(in complete years)/ আপনার এই শ্রেণী গুলোতে পড়ার সময় বয়স	**NA/ প্রন**
		Class 1	১ম শ্রেণী	1		9
		Class 5	৫ম শ্রেণী	2		9
		Class 8	৮ম শ্রেণী	3		9
		S.S.C. completed	এস.এস.সি. পাশ	4		9
		H.S.C. completed	এইচ.এস.সি. পাশ	5		9
		Graduate and above	স্নাতক অথবা স্নাতকোত্তর	6		9
B2.2.5 Code: 1=Government, 2=Private, 3=NGO school, 4=From family members/friends, 5=Others স্কুলের ধরন কোড: ১=বিশ্ববিদ্যালয়, ২=সরকারি, ৩=বেসরকারি, ৪=এনজিও স্কুল, ৫=মাদ্রাসা, ৬=অপ্রাতিষ্ঠানিক প্রাথমিক শিক্ষা, ৭=অন্যান্য						

* Coding Categories

QB2 Please tell about your experiences of vocational and technical training.
আপনার কারিগরি প্রশিক্ষণের অভিজ্ঞতা সর্ম্পকে বলুন।

No.	Questions and Filters		CC*	Code	Skip
B2.1	Did you have any vocational or technical training?	আপনি কি কোন কারিগরি প্রশিক্ষণ নিয়েছেন?	Yes	1	Q B2.2
			No	2	Q B3.B

B2.2 Please mention the details of your vocational and technical training.
দয়া করে আপনার কারিগরি/ বৃত্তিমূলক প্রশিক্ষণের বলুন।

	B2.2.1 Type of training	B2.2.2 Age (in complete years)	B2.2.3 How many days	B2.2.4 Hours in a week	B2.2.5 Type of school (see code)	B2.2.6 Cost of training	
						Tk	No cost
	প্রশিক্ষণের ধরণ	কত বছর বয়সে (পূর্ণ বছরে)	প্রশিক্ষণের সময়কাল/দিনে	সপ্তাহে কত ঘন্টা ক্লাশ?	স্কুলের ধরণ (কোড দেখুন)	প্রশিক্ষণের ব্যয়	
						টাকা	কোন ব্যয় হয়নি
1.							99
2.							99
3.							99
4.							99
5.							99

B2.2.5 Code: 1=Government, 2=Private, 3=NGO school, 4=From family members/friends, 5=Others
কোড : ১=সরকারি, ২=বেসরকারি, ৩=এনজিও স্কুল, ৪=পরিবারের সদস্য/বন্ধুর কাছে থেকে, ৫=অন্যান্য

*Coding Categories

No.	Questions	CC*	Code	Skip
Q B3.A	Do you have any experience of regular paid or unpaid work? আপনার কি অর্থের বিনিময়ে বা অর্থ ছাড়া কাজ করার অভিজ্ঞতা আছে?	Yes	1	Q B3.B
		No	2	Q B4

*Coding Categories

QB3.B Please tell about your experience of regular paid/unpaid work
আপনার কাজের অভিজ্ঞতা (টাকার বিনিময়ে এবং টাকা ছাড়া উভয়ই) সর্ম্পকে বলুন।

No.			1. Age (in complete years)	2. For how long		3. Hours/ week	4. Sector	5. Income (Tk/month)	6. N/A
				Year	Month				
			বয়স (পূর্ণ বছরে)	কত দিন করেছেন?		সপ্তাহ/ ঘন্টা	কাজের ক্ষেত্র	আয় (টাকা/ মাসে)	প্রন*
				বছর	মাস				
B3B.1	Current work	বর্তমান কাজ							9
B3B.2	First unpaid work	প্রথম টাকা ছাড়া কাজ						■	9
B3B.3	First paid work	প্রথম টাকার বিনিময়ে কাজ							9

| B3B.4 | Work with highest salary/wage | সর্বোচ্চ বেতনে করা কাজ | | | | | | | 9 |
| B3B.5 | Longest period of work | সবচেয়ে বেশি সময় ধরে কাজ | | | | | | | 9 |

4. Sector (coding): 1=Agriculture, 2=Industry, 3=Trade, 4=Govt. services, 5=Other service sectors, 6= Others

৪. কাজের ক্ষেত্রের কোড: ১=কৃষি, ২=শিল্প, ৩=ব্যবসা, ৪=সরকারি চাকুরী , ৫=অন্যান্য চাকুরীক্ষেত্র, ৬ =অন্যান্য;

*প্রন - প্রযোজ্য নয়

QB4 Now I would like to know your experience of unemployment.

আপনার বেকারত্বের অভিজ্ঞতার কথা বলুন।

No.	Questions and Filters			CC*	Code	Skip
B4.1	Have you ever been unemployed? (Unemployed: those who couldn't manage job after seeking for 3 months)	আপনি কি কখনও বেকার ছিলেন? (বেকার বলতে ৩ মাস ধরে একাধারে কাজ খুঁজে কাজ না পাওয়া বোঝায়)		Yes	1	Q B4.2
				No	2	Q B5
B4.2	Are you currently unemployed?	আপনি কি বর্তমানে বেকার?		Yes	1	
				No	2	

Please mention the details of your experience of unemployment.

[শুধু যারা কখনো বেকার ছিল বা বর্তমানে বেকার তাদের প্রশ্ন করুন]

দয়া করে আপনার বেকারত্বের বিস্তারিত বলুন।

		1. Age (starting age) কত বছর বয়সে (শুরুর বয়স)	2. Duration কত বছর/মাস বেকার ছিলেন		3. Source of getting work (see coding) কাজ প্রাপ্তির উৎস (কোড দেখে লিখুন)	4. N/A প্রন**
			Years বছর	Months মাস		
B4.3	First phase of unemployment	১ম কবে বেকার ছিলেন					9
B4.4	Last phase of unemployment	শেষ কবে বেকার ছিলেন					9
B4.5	Longest phase of unemployment	বেকারত্বের দীর্ঘতম সময়					9

Coding for source of new work: 1=Family, 2=Friends, 3=Political affiliation, 4=Youth groups, 5=Advertisement, 6=Other groups

কাজ প্রাপ্তির উৎসের কোড: ১=পরিবার, ২=বন্ধু, ৩=রাজনৈতিক প্রভাব, ৪=যুব সম্প্রদায়, ৫=বিজ্ঞাপন ৬=অন্যান্য

* Coding Categories **প্রন - প্রযোজ্য নয়

QB4A What is your preferable occupation based on your qualification?
যোগ্যতা অনুযায়ী আপনার পছন্দনীয় পেশা সম্পর্কে বলুন।

NO			CC*	Code	Skip
B4A.1	What is your preferable occupation?(see occup. code)	আপনি কোন পেশায় যেতে চান বা চেয়েছিলেন? (পেশা সম্পর্কিত কোড দেখুন)			
B4A.2	Preferable occupation (sector)(see sector code)	আপনার পছন্দনীয় পেশার ক্ষেত্র বলুন (সেক্টরস্ কোড দেখুন)			
B4A.3	Do you plan to work elsewhere (place)?	আপনার কি অন্য কোনও স্থানে কাজ করার পরিকল্পনা আছে?	Yes	1	B4A.4
			No	2	QB5
B4A.4	If plan to take up work elsewhere: where (see migration codes)	যদি আপনার অন্য কোথাও কাজ করার পরিকল্পনা থাকে তা কোথায়? (মাইগ্রেশন কোড দেখুন)			

Occupation Code: 1=Student, 2=Housewife, 3=Self employed (agri), 4=Self-employed (non-agri), 5=Day-labourer (agri), 6=Day labourer (non-agri), 7=Regular job holder (govt.), 8=Regular job holder (non-govt.), 9=Unemployed, 10=Irregular service-holder (govt./non-govt.), 11=Political Leader, 12=Employed to NGO, 13=School teacher, 14=Journalist, 15=College/University teacher, 16=Advocate/Lawyer/Barrister, 17=Doctor (at least MBBS), 18=Local govt. representative (current or former), 19=Madrassa teacher, 20=Retired person, 21=Rickshaw/van puller/Bus driver/Truck driver, 22=Industrial worker, Others (Specify)....

উত্তরদাতার পেশা সম্পর্কিত কোড: ১=ছাত্র, ২=গৃহিনী, ৩=স্বনিয়োজিত কাজ (কৃষি), ৪=স্বনিয়োজিত কাজ (কৃষি কাজ ছাড়া), ৫=দিনমজুর (কৃষি), ৬=দিনজমুর (কৃষি ব্যতীত), ৭=নিয়মিত চাকুরীজীবী (সরকারি), ৮=নিয়মিত চাকুরিজীবী (বেসরকারি), ৯=বেকার, ১০=অনিয়মিত চাকুরিজীবী (সরকারি, বেসরকারি), ১১=রাজনৈতিক নেতা, ১২=এনজিওতে চাকুরিরত, ১৩=স্কুল শিক্ষক, ১৪=সাংবাদিক, ১৫=কলেজ/বিশ্ববিদ্যালয় শিক্ষক, ১৬=আইনজীবী (এডভোকেট/ব্যারিস্টার) ১৭=চিকিৎসক (এমবিবিএস পাশ), ১৮=প্রাক্তন/বর্তমান স্থানীয় সরকার প্রতিনিধি, ১৯=মাদ্রাসা শিক্ষক, ২০=অবসরপ্রাপ্ত, ২১=রিকসাচালক/ ভ্যানচালক/ বাস ও ট্রাক ড্রাইভার, ২২=শিল্প শ্রমিক, অন্যান্য (উল্লেখ করুন) ......

Sectors code: 1=Family, 2=Private, 3=Government, 4=NGO, 5= Self-employed, 6=Others
১= পরিবার, ২=বেসরকারি

Migration codes: 1=Dhaka, 2= Elsewhere in Bangladesh, 3= South Asia, 4= Malaysia, 5= Arab countries, 6=Western countries
১= ঢাকা, ২= বাংলাদেশে অন্য কোথাও, ৩= দক্ষিণ এশিয়া, ৪= মালয়েশিয়া, ৫= মধ্যপ্রাচ্য, ৬= পাশ্চাত্য দেশসমূহ

* Coding Categories

QB5 Which skills do you have of the following?
এখন আপনাকে কিছু দক্ষতার কথা বলবো, আপনি কি দয়া করে বলবেন, নিম্নোক্ত বিষয়গুলোতে আপনার কেমন দক্ষতা আছে?

No.			HS	SS	LS	TUS	DNK
			খুদ	মোদ	বিদন	এঅদ	জানা
B5.1	English language	ইংরেজী ভাষা জ্ঞান	1	2	3	4	9
B5.2	Computer (writing & calculating)	কম্পিউটার জ্ঞান (লেখা ও হিসাব করা)	1	2	3	4	9
B5.3	Internet	ইন্টারনেট ব্যবহার	1	2	3	4	9

Skill level: highly skilled (HS), somewhat skilled (SS), limited skills (LS), totally unskilled (TUS)
খুব দক্ষ (খুদ), মোটামুটি দক্ষ (মোদ), বিশেষভাবে দক্ষ নয় (বিদন), একেবারে অদক্ষ (এঅদ), জানি না (জানা)

QB6 Leisure activities. Would you please tell me to what extent they are important to you?
আমি এখন আপনাকে কিছু কাজের কথা বলবো, আপনি দয়া করে বলবেন কি কাজগুলো আপনার কাছে কতটা গুরুত্বপূর্ণ ?

No.			HI	SI	SUI	HI	DNK	Rank (1-3)
			অবেগু	কিগু	তেগুন	এগুন	বপানা	ক্রমানুসারে বলুন (১-৩)
01	Reading books (novels etc.)	বই পড়া (পাঠ্য বই ছাড়া অন্যান্য বই)	1	2	3	4	9	
02	Reading newspapers	খবরের কাগজ পড়া	1	2	3	4	9	
03	Watching TV	টিভি দেখা	1	2	3	4	9	
04	Religious activities	ধর্মীয় কাজ করা	1	2	3	4	9	
05	Spending time with family	পরিবারের সাথে সময় কাটানো	1	2	3	4	9	
06	Spending time with friends	বন্ধুদের সাথে সময় কাটানো	1	2	3	4	9	
07	Indor games	ঘরে বসে খেলা-ধুলা করা	1	2	3	4	9	
08	Outdoor games	বাইরে খেলা-ধুলা করা	1	2	3	4	9	
09	Shopping	কেনাকাটা করা	1	2	3	4	9	
10	Traveling	ভ্রমণ করা	1	2	3	4	9	
11	Listening to music	গান শোনা	1	2	3	4	9	
12	Use personal computer	কম্পিউটারে কাজ করা	1	2	3	4	9	
13	Using internet	ইন্টারনেট ব্যবহার করা	1	2	3	4	9	
14	Digital networks (eg:facebook, twitter)	সামাজিক যোগাযোগের সাইট (ফেসবুক, টুইটার)	1	2	3	4	9	

Rating: highly important (HI), somewhat important (SI), somewhat unimportant (SUI), highly unimportant (HUI), do not know (DKN)
অনেক বেশি গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (অবেগু), কিছুটা গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (কিগু), তেমন গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয় (তেগুন), একদম গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয় (এগুন), বলতে পারিনা (বপানা)

QB7 Importance of top 3 activities (from QB6) and time and money spent
এ উল্লেখিত কাজগুলোর মাঝে সর্বোচ্চ গুরুত্ব প্রাপ্ত ৩টি কাজের সম্পর্কে বলুন।

No.	Rank	A. Ranking (1-3) [Code of B6]	B. Hours per week (current)	C. Current costs (per month)
	ক্রম	সর্বোচ্চ গুরুত্ব প্রাপ্ত ৩টি কাজ	বর্তমানে ব্যবহার (ঘন্টা/সপ্তাহ)	খরচ (টাকা/মাস)
B7.1	1			
B7.2	2			
B7.3	3			
Code: 77=those who ranked but not using, 99=currently using but spends nothing 77=যারা QB6 ক্রমানুসারে বলেছে কিন্তু ব্যবহার করেনা, ৯৯ =বর্তমানে ব্যবহার করেন কিন্তু কোন ব্যয় হয়না				

QB8 Now tell me about your access to (digital) media

আমি এখন আপনাকে কিছু মাধ্যমের কথা বলবো, আপনি দয়া করে বলবেন নিম্নোক্ত মাধ্যমগুলোর সাথে আপনার সম্পৃক্ততা কেমন?

No.	Digital media		A. Since কবে থেকে	B. Where (see code) কোথায় (কোড দেখে লিখুন)	C. Current utilisation (hrs/week) বর্তমানে ব্যবহার (ঘন্টা/ সপ্তাহ)	D. Costs (Taka/ month) খরচ (টাকা/মাস)
B 8.1	TV	টিভি				
B 8.2	Telephones	টেলিফোন				
B 8.3	Mobile phone	মোবাইল ফোন			Talk time কথা বলার সময়	
B 8.4	Computer/ Internet/ Facebook/other networks	কম্পিউটার/ ইন্টারনেট/ ফেসবুক/ অন্যান্য সামাজিক যোগাযোগের সাইট				
Where (code): 1=at home, 2=at friends, 3=at school, 4=at public, 5=at club, 6=commercial, 7=other, 8=office, 9=don't know কোথায় (কোড): ১=নিজের বাড়িতে, ২=বন্ধুদের/ প্রতিবেশীর বাড়িতে, ৩=স্কুলে, ৪=গ্রামে/ হাটে/ জনসমক্ষে, ৫=যুব সংঘে, ৬= কন্টাকে/বাণিজ্যিক স্থানে, ৭=অফিস, ৮=অন্যান্য, ৯=জানিনা						

QB9 Please tell me about your current standard of living (socio-economic status) and expectations for the future

আপনার বর্তমান জীবনযাত্রা, আর্থ-সামাজিক অবস্থা সম্পর্কে বলুন এবং ভবিষ্যতে কি প্রত্যাশা করেন?

No.	Questions		VH খুভা	MH মোভা	BA তেভান	VL খুখা	DNK জানা/ প্রন
B 9.1	Standard of living of parents	বাবা-মায়ের জীবনযাত্রার মান	1	2	3	4	9
B 9.2	Current standard of living (If separated)	বর্তমান জীবনযাত্রার মান (যদি উত্তরদাতার আলাদা খানা হয়)	1	2	3	4	9
B 9.3	Past standard of living (two years ago)	পূর্বের জীবনযাত্রার মান (২ বৎসর আগে)	1	2	3	4	9
B 9.4	Expected standard of living within 2 years	ভবিষ্যতের আকাঙ্খিত জীবনযাত্রার মান (২ বছরের মধ্যে)	1	2	3	4	9
B 9.5	Expected standard of living within 5 years	ভবিষ্যতের আকাঙ্খিত জীবনযাত্রার মান (৫ বছরের মধ্যে)	1	2	3	4	9

Coding for Standard of Living: very high (VH), moderately high (MH), below average (BA), very low VL)

খুব ভালো (খুভা), মোটামুটি ভালো (মাভা), তেমন ভালো নয় (তেভান), খুব খারাপ (খুখা), জানি না/ প্রযোজ্য নয় (জানা/প্রন)

QB10 How do you see your own situation as compared to other young people (15-30 years)?
আপনার মতে অন্যান্য তরুণদের (১৫-৩০ বছর) সাথে তুলনা করে আপনার অবস্থান সর্ম্পকে বলুন।

No.			VH	MH	BA	VL	DNK
			খুভা	মোভা	তেভান	খারাপ	জানা/ প্রন
B 10.1	Other youths (15-30 years)	অন্যান্য তরুণদের তুলনায় (১৫-৩০ বছর)	1	2	3	4	9
B 10.2	Youths of urban poor	শহরের দরিদ্র তরুণদের তুলনায়	1	2	3	4	9
B 10.3	Youths of rural poor	গ্রামের দরিদ্র তরুণদের তুলনায়	1	2	3	4	9
B 10.4	Youths of ethnic minorities	আদিবাসী তরুণদের তুলনায়	1	2	3	4	9
B 10.5	Youths of religious minorities	অন্য ধর্মের তরুণদের তুলনায়	1	2	3	4	9

Coding: very high (VH), moderately high (MH), below average (BA), very low (VL),
খুব ভালো (খুভা), মোটামুটি ভালো (মোভা), তেমন ভালো নয় (তেভান), খারাপ, জানি না/ প্রযোজ্য নয় (জানা / প্রন)

QB11 What is your life cycle planning? [READ OUT to all]
আপনাকে কিছু বিষয় পড়ে শোনাব, আপনি কত বছরে কাজগুলো করতে চান? (সবাইকে পড়ে শোনান)

No.			Age (in complete years) কত বছর বয়সে কাজটি শেষ করতে চান?	
			A.Ideal age (in your opinion)	B. (If experienced) Age of experience*
			আপনার দৃষ্টিতে উপযুক্ত বয়স (পূর্ণ বছরে)	যদি অভিজ্ঞতা থাকে, কত বছর বয়সে করেছেন?
B11.1	Complete education	লেখাপড়া শেষ করা		
B11.2	Start working	কাজ শুরু করা		
B11.3	Getting married	বিয়ে করা		
B11.4	Having children	সন্তান নেওয়া		
B11.5	Social/Community involvement	সামাজিক/ এলাকার কর্মকান্ডে অংশগ্রহণ		
B11.6	Retire	অবসর		
B11.7	Undertake religious pilgrimage	হজ্জে যাবার জন্য/ ধর্মীয় তীর্থস্থান ভ্রমণ		

*use '-' for others/অভিজ্ঞতা না থাকলে '−' ব্যবহার করুন

SECTION C: Youth and the state

QC1 Where do you see the 3 major challenges for young people of Bangladesh?
আপনার দৃষ্টিতে বাংলাদেশের তরুণদের প্রধান ৩টি প্রতিবন্ধকতা/সমস্যা কি কি?

No.	Challenges	প্রতিবন্ধকতাসমূহ
1		
2		
3		

QC2 Where do you see the major challenges for young people? [READ OUT]
আপনার দৃষ্টিতে বাংলাদেশের তরুণদের প্রধান প্রধান প্রতিবন্ধকতাগুলো কি কি? (পড়ে শোনান)

	Challenges	প্রতিবন্ধকতা	Rank (1-3) গুরুত্বের ক্রমানুসারে বলুন (১-৩)
C2.1	Maintaining good health	সুস্বাস্থ্য রক্ষা করা	
C2.2	Securing food security	খাদ্য নিরাপত্তা নিশ্চিত করা	
C2.3	Finding employment	ভালো শিক্ষা পাওয়া	
C2.4	Coping with natural disasters	কর্মসংস্থান করা	
C2.5	Getting a good education	ক্রমবর্ধমান ব্যয় এর সাথে মানিয়ে চলা	

QC3 What is your overall assessment of the performance of the current and past governments?
আপনার বিবেচনাতে বর্তমান ও বিগত সরকারগুলোর কাজের মূল্যায়ন করুন

No.			VS খুস	SS কিস	SD কিঅস	VD খুঅস	DKN জানা
C3.1	Current government (2009)	বর্তমান সরকার (২০০৯-till now)	1	2	3	4	9
C3.2	Past CTG (2007-08)	বিগত তত্ত্বাবধায়ক সরকার (২০০৭-০৮)	1	2	3	4	9
C3.3	Past government (before CTG) (2001-06)	বিগত সরকার (তত্ত্বাবধায়ক সরকারের পূর্বে) (২০০১-০৬)	1	2	3	4	9

Rating: very satisfied (VS), somewhat satisfied (SS), somewhat dissatisfied (SD), very dissatisfied (VD), do not know (DKN)
খুবই সন্তোষজনক (খুস), কিছুটা সন্তোষজনক (কিস), কিছুটা অসন্তোষজনক (কিঅস), খুবই অসন্তোষজনক (খুঅস), জানি না (জানা)

No.	Questions			CC*	Code	Skip
Q C4A	Are you a voter?	আপনি কি ভোটার?		Yes/ হ্যাঁ	1	Q C4B
				No/ না	2	Q C5
Q C4B	How often have you participated in elections?/ আপনি কি আগে কোন নির্বাচনে ভোট দিয়েছেন?					
No.				Code		
				Frequency/কতবার		NA/প্রন
C4B.1	National election	জাতীয় নির্বাচন		_____Times/ বার		9
C4B.2	Local Govt. election	স্থানীয় সরকার নির্বাচন		_____Times/ বার		9
C4B.3	Have you always voted for the same party?	আপনি কি সবসময় একই দলে ভোট দেন?		Yes/হ্যাঁ	1	9
				No/না	2	

*Coding Categories** Not available (NA) প্রযোজ্য নয় (প্রন)

QC5 Are you a member of these groups/parties?/ আপনি নিম্নোক্ত দলগুলোর সাথে যুক্ত আছেন কি?

No.	Questions		Code		if Yes:for how many years যদি 'হ্যাঁ' হয় কত বছর ধরে
			Yes হ্যাঁ	No না	
C5.1	Are you a member of any political party?	আপনি কি কোন রাজনৈতিক দলের সদস্য?	1	2	
C5.2	Are you a member of any formal youth group?	আপনি কি কোন প্রাতিষ্ঠানিক যুব সংগঠনের সদস্য?	1	2	
C5.3	Are you a member of any other community/cultural group?	আপনি কি কোন সামাজিক/সাংস্কৃতিক দলের সদস্য?	1	2	

QC6 Which of these groups has been most strongly neglected over the past 5 years?
আপনার মতে নিম্নোক্ত গ্রুপগুলোর মধ্যে কারা বিগত ৫ বছর ধরে বেশি অবহেলিত?

No.			HA	SA	SD	HD	DKN
			পুএ	কিএ	কিদি	পুদ্ধি	জানা
C6.1	Young children	ছোট শিশু	1	2	3	4	9
C6.2	Urban youth community	যুব সম্প্রদায়	1	2	3	4	9
C6.3	Poor People	দরিদ্র মানুষ	1	2	3	4	9
C6.4	Elderly people	বৃদ্ধ মানুষ	1	2	3	4	9
C6.5	Women	নারী	1	2	3	4	9
C6.6	Ethnic minorities	আদিবাসী	1	2	3	4	9
C6.7	Religious minorities	ধর্মীয় সংখ্যালঘু	1	2	3	4	9
C6.8	Physically/mentally challenged persons	শারীরিক/মানসিক প্রতিবন্ধী মানুষ	1	2	3	4	9

Rating: highly agree (HA), somewhat agree (SA), somewhat disagree (SD), highly disagree (HD),   do not know (DKN)
পুরোপুরি একমত (পুএ), কিছুটা একমত (কিএ), কিছুটা দ্বিমত (কিদি), পুরোপুরি দ্বিমত (পুদ্ধি), জানি না

QC7 What is your overall assessment of the performance of these institutions?
আপনার বিবেচনায় নিম্নোক্ত প্রতিষ্ঠানগুলোর কাজের মূল্যায়ন করে বলুন।

No.			HS	SS	SD	HD	DKN	Experience in past 3 years	
								Yes	No
			খুস	কিস	কিঅস	খুঅস	জানা	অভিজ্ঞতা (গত ৩ বছরে)	
								হ্যাঁ	না
C7.1	MPs (in general)	এমপি	1	2	3	4	9	1	2
C7.2	Election commission	নির্বাচন কমিশন	1	2	3	4	9	1	2
C7.3	Anti-Corruption Commission	দুর্নীতি দমন কমিশন	1	2	3	4	9	1	2
C7.4	Members of the judiciary	বিচার বিভাগের সদস্যরা	1	2	3	4	9	1	2
C7.5	Members of local arbitration committee	সালিশের সদস্যরা	1	2	3	4	9	1	2
C 7.6	Police	পুলিশ	1	2	3	4	9	1	2
C7.7	Military	সেনাবাহিনী	1	2	3	4	9	1	2
C7.8	Any local govt. representatives	স্থানীয় সরকার প্রতিনিধি	1	2	3	4	9	1	2

Rating: highly satisfied (HS), somewhat satisfied (SS), somewhat dissatisfied (SD), highly dissatisfied (HD), do not know (DKN)
খুবই সন্তোষজনক (খুস), কিছুটা সন্তোষজনক (কিস), কিছুটা অসন্তোষজনক (কিঅস), খুবই অসন্তোষজনক (খুঅস), জানি না (জানা)

No.	Questions and Filters			CC*	Code	Skip
C8.A	Do you think that young people should involve in politics?	আপনি কি মনে করেন যুবকদের রাজনীতিতে সম্পৃক্ত হওয়া উচিত?		Yes/হ্যাঁ	1	
				No/না	2	
C8.1	Do you think that students should involve in politics?	ছাত্রদের কি রাজনীতিতে সম্পৃক্ত হওয়া উচিত?		Yes/হ্যাঁ	1	C8.2
				No/না	2	C9
	If Yes in C8.1: to what extent should students be involved in party politics? যদি C8.1 উত্তর হ্যাঁ হয়, তাহলে ছাত্রদের কি পরিমাণে রাজনীতিতে সম্পৃক্ত হওয়া উচিত?					
			LE	SE	SLE	VLE
			বেশি করে	কিছুটা	কম করে	খুব কম
C8.2	Participate in election campaigns	নির্বাচনী প্রচারণাতে অংশগ্রহণ করা	1	2	3	4
C8.3	Support leaders	নেতাদের সমর্থন দেয়া	1	2	3	4
C8.4	Participate in rallies	মিছিলে অংশগ্রহণ করা	1	2	3	4
C8.5	Participating in hartals	হরতালে অংশগ্রহণ করা	1	2	3	4
C8.6	By voting	ভোটদানের মাধ্যমে	1	2	3	4
C8.7	Become candidates	প্রার্থী হয়ে	1	2	3	4

To a large extent (LE), To some extent (SE), To some limited extent (SLE), Very limited extent (VLE)
*Coding categories

QC9 According to your opinion what should be the basis of voting? [READ OUT]
আপনার মতে নির্বাচনে ভোট দান কিভাবে হওয়া উচিত এবং তা আপনি কিভাবে সমর্থন করেন? (পড়ে শোনান)

No.			HA	SA	SD	HD	DKN	Ranking (1-3)
			পুএ	কিএ	কিদ্দি	পুদ্দি	জানা	ক্রমানুসারে বলুন (১-৩)
C9.1	Party affiliation	রাজনৈতিক দলকে দেখে	1	2	3	4	9	
C9.2	Political leaders	রাজনৈতিক নেতাদের দেখে	1	2	3	4	9	
C9.3	Suggestions made by family members	বাবা/ অভিভাবকরা/পরিবারের সদস্যরা যাকে দিতে বলে	1	2	3	4	9	
C9.4	Suggestions made by friends	বন্ধুরা যাকে দিতে বলে	1	2	3	4	9	
C9.5	Personal contacts	ব্যক্তিগত যোগাযোগের যার সাথে আছে	1	2	3	4	9	
C9.6	Whether the party considers the interests of youth	যে দল যুব সম্প্রদায়ের জন্যে কাজ করে	1	2	3	4	9	
C9.7	Whether the party has good political manifesto	যে দলের ভালো রাজনৈতিক মেনিফেস্টো/ইশতেহার থাকে	1	2	3	4	9	
C9.8	Whether party considers local issues	যদি দলটি স্থানীয় সমস্যাগুলোকে বিবেচনা করে	1	2	3	4	9	
C9.9	Whether a party is likely to win the election	নির্বাচনে যে দল জিতবে বলে মনে হয়	1	2	3	4	9	

Rating: highly agree (HA), somewhat agree (SA), somewhat disagree (SD), highly disagree (HD), do not know (DKN)
পুরোপুরি একমত (পুএ) কিছুটা একমত (কিএ) কিছুটা দ্বিমত (কিদ্দি), পুরোপুরি দ্বিমত (পুদ্দি), জানি না (জানা)

QC10 How do you define fair elections?/ আপনি কিভাবে সুষ্ঠু নির্বাচনকে ব্যাখ্যা করবেন?

No.			HA	SA	SD	HD	DKN
			পুএ	কিএ	কিদ্দি	পুদ্দি	জানা
C10.1	Strong election commission	শক্তিশালী নির্বাচন কমিশন	1	2	3	4	9
C10.2	Carried out by ruling party	সরকারি দলের মাধ্যমে নির্বাচন	1	2	3	4	9
C10.3	Only persons with no sentence of criminal record can be candidates	যারা সাজাপ্রাপ্ত তারা নির্বাচনে প্রার্থী হতে পারবে না	1	2	3	4	9
C10.4	Mandatory disclosure of budget for campaigns	প্রার্থীর নির্বাচনী খরচের হিসাব প্রকাশ করা	1	2	3	4	9
C10.5	Parties respect each other during election campaigns	নির্বাচনী প্রচারণাতে প্রার্থীদের একে অন্যের প্রতি সম্মান প্রদর্শন	1	2	3	4	9

Rating: highly agree (HA), somewhat agree (SA), somewhat disagree (SD), highly disagree (HD), do not know (DKN)
পুরোপুরি একমত (পুএ), কিছুটা একমত (কিএ), কিছুটা দ্বিমত (কিদ্দি), পুরোপুরি দ্বিমত (পুদ্দি), জানিনা (জানা)

QC11 What can the government do to improve the lives of young people?
আমি এখন আপনাকে কিছু কথা বলবো, আপনি বলবেন তরুণদের উন্নয়নের জন্য সরকারের কি করা উচিত?

No.			HA	SA	SD	HD	DKN	Ranking (1-3)
			পুএ	কিএ	কিদ্বি	পুদ্বি	জানা	ক্রমানুসারে বলুন (১-৩)
C11.1	Improve quality of education	শিক্ষার মানের উন্নয়ন করা	1	2	3	4	9	
C11.2	Generate more job opportunities	আরও চাকুরির সুযোগ তৈরি করা	1	2	3	4	9	
C11.3	Efficient Administration	কার্যকরী প্রশাসন	1	2	3	4	9	
C11.4	Invest more in the IT sector	তথ্য প্রযুক্তিতে আরও বেশি বিনিয়োগ করা	1	2	3	4	9	
C11.5	Provide social security	সামাজিক নিরাপত্তা প্রদান (বেকার ভাতা, প্রশিক্ষণ ইত্যাদি)	1	2	3	4	9	
C11.6	Prevent crimes	অপরাধ প্রতিরোধ/দমন করা	1	2	3	4	9	
C11.7	Corruption free business environment	দুর্নীতিমুক্ত ব্যবসায়িক পরিবেশ	1	2	3	4	9	
C11.8	Gender friendly policy	নারী পুরুষের সমমর্যাদা সম্পন্ন নীতি	1	2	3	4	9	

Rating: highly agree (HA), somewhat agree (SA), somewhat disagree (SD), highly disagree (HD),do not know (DKN)
পুরোপুরি একমত (পুএ), কিছুটা একমত (কিএ), কিছুটা দ্বিমত (কিদ্বি), পুরোপুরি দ্বিমত (পুদ্বি), জানি না (জানা)

QC12 How could the government improve education?
সরকার কিভাবে শিক্ষাব্যবস্থার উন্নয়ন ঘটাতে পারে?

No.			HA	SA	SD	HD	DKN	Ranking (1-3)
			পুএ	কিএ	কিদ্বি	পুদ্বি	জানা	ক্রমানুসারে বলুন (১-৩)
C12.1	More teachers	অধিক শিক্ষক নিয়োগ করা	1	2	3	4	9	
C12.2	Better training for teachers	শিক্ষকদের জন্য প্রশিক্ষণের ব্যবস্থা করা	1	2	3	4	9	
C12.3	Better books	পাঠ্য বইয়ের মান উন্নত করা	1	2	3	4	9	
C12.4	Better tuition classes for low-performing students	খারাপ মানের ছাত্র-ছাত্রীদের জন্য বিশেষ ক্লাস	1	2	3	4	9	
C12.5	Less exams	কম পরীক্ষা গ্রহণের মাধ্যমে	1	2	3	4	9	
C12.6	Regular school meals	স্কুলে নিয়মিত খাবারের ব্যবস্থা করা	1	2	3	4	9	
C12.7	Revised curriculum	পাঠ্যক্রমের পরিবর্তন করে	1	2	3	4	9	
C12.8	More schools	আরও স্কুল প্রতিষ্ঠার মাধ্যমে	1	2	3	4	9	

Rating: highly agree (HA), somewhat agree (SA), somewhat disagree (SD), highly disagree (HD),do not know (DKN)
পুরোপুরি একমত (পুএ), কিছুটা একমত (কিএ), কিছুটা দ্বিমত (কিদ্বি), পুরোপুরি দ্বিমত (পুদ্বি), জানিনা (জানা)

QC13 Overall, how important is vocational/technical (VET) training (& skill development)?
কারিগরী প্রশিক্ষণ বিষয়ে নিম্নোক্ত বিষয়গুলোতে আপনার মতামত দিন ?

No.			HA	SA	SD	HD	DKN
			পুএ	কিএ	কিদ্বি	পুদ্বি	জানা
C13.1	VTE is only important for less-educated people	কারিগরি প্রশিক্ষণ কম শিক্ষিত মানুষের জন্য প্রয়োজনীয়	1	2	3	4	5
C13.2	VTE should be mandatory for all	কারিগরী প্রশিক্ষণ সবার জন্য বাধ্যতামূলক হওয়া উচিত	1	2	3	4	5
C13.3	VTE is important only for the agricultural labour force	কারিগরী প্রশিক্ষণ শুধুমাত্র চাষাবাদে নিয়োজিত ব্যক্তিদের জন্য প্রয়োজন	1	2	3	4	5
C13.4	VTE is important only for the urban labour force	কারিগরী প্রশিক্ষণ শুধুমাত্র শহরের শ্রমজীবী মানুষদের জন্য প্রয়োজন	1	2	3	4	5
C13.5	VTE is important only for the labour force who plan to migrate (Gulf or elsewhere)	কারিগরি প্রশিক্ষণ শুধুমাত্র বিদেশে যাবার জন্য কর্মীদের প্রয়োজন	1	2	3	4	5

Rating: highly agree (HA), somewhat agree (SA), somewhat disagree (SD), highly disagree (HD), do not know (DKN)
পুরোপুরি একমত (পুএ), কিছুটা একমত (কিএ), কিছুটা দ্বিমত (কিদ্বি), পুরোপুরি দ্বিমত (পুদ্বি), জানিনা (জানা)

QC14 How can the government improve vocational and technical training?
আপনার মতে সরকার কিভাবে কারিগরি /বৃত্তিমূলক প্রশিক্ষণকে উন্নত করতে পারে?

No.			HA	SA	SD	HD	DKN
			পুএ	কিএ	কিদ্বি	পুদ্বি	জানা
C14.1	More hours for vocational and technical training	শিক্ষাপ্রতিষ্ঠানে কারিগরি প্রশিক্ষণের সময় বৃদ্ধি করা	1	2	3	4	9
C14.2	Start vocational and technical training in earlier classes	ছোট ক্লাসে থাকতে কারিগরি প্রশিক্ষণ শুরু করা	1	2	3	4	9
C14.3	More teachers	কারিগরি বিষয়ে আরও শিক্ষক নিয়োগের মাধ্যমে	1	2	3	4	9
C14.4	More practical lessons	বেশি ব্যবহারিক শিক্ষার আয়োজন করে	1	2	3	4	9
C14.5	Need to revise curriculum	পাঠ্যক্রমের পরিবর্তন ঘটিয়ে	1	2	3	4	9
C14.6	More lessons as placements in private companies	বিভিন্ন কোম্পানিতে কাজের সুযোগ দিয়ে	1	2	3	4	9

Rating: highly agree (HA), somewhat agree (SA), somewhat disagree (SD), highly disagree (HD), do not know (DKN)
পুরোপুরি একমত (পুএ), কিছুটা একমত (কিএ), কিছুটা দ্বিমত (কিদ্বি), পুরোপুরি দ্বিমত (পুদ্বি), জানিনা (জানা)

QC15 Please assess corruption level for the following institutions.
আপনার মতে নিম্নোক্ত প্রতিষ্ঠানগুলো কতটুকু দুর্নীতিগ্রস্ত ?

No.			HC	SC	NSC	NC	DNK	Experience of facing corruption in past 12 months	
								Yes	No
			খুদু	কিদু	তেদুন	এদুন	জানা	এই প্রতিষ্ঠানগুলোতে আপনার দুর্নীতির অভিজ্ঞতা (গত ১২ মাসে)	
								হ্যাঁ	না
C15.1	Private Organization/ Business Organisation	বেসরকারি প্রতিষ্ঠান / ব্যবসা প্রতিষ্ঠান	1	2	3	4	9	1	2
C15.2	NGOs	এনজিও	1	2	3	4	9	1	2
C15.3	Hospitals and Health force	হাসপাতাল ও স্বাস্থ্য কেন্দ্র	1	2	3	4	9	1	2
C15.4	Power sector	বিদ্যুৎ খাত	1	2	3	4	9	1	2
C15.5	Courts	কোর্ট	1	2	3	4	9	1	2
C15.6	Local government	স্থানীয় সরকার	1	2	3	4	9	1	2
C15.7	Police	পুলিশ	1	2	3	4	9	1	2
C15.8	Education	শিক্ষা	1	2	3	4	9	1	2
C15.9	Tax	আয়কর বিভাগ	1	2	3	4	9	1	2

Rating: HC-Highly corrupted, SC- Somewhat corrupted, NSC-Not so corrupted, NC-Not at all corrupted
খুব দুর্নীতিগ্রস্ত (খুদু), কিছুটা দুর্নীতিগ্রস্ত (কিদু), তেমন দুর্নীতিগ্রস্ত নয় (তেদুন), একদম দুর্নীতিগ্রস্ত নয় (এদুন), জানি না (জানা)

QC16 Justice should be handled by:
কার মাধ্যমে বিচার পরিচালনা করা উচিত বলে আপনি মনে করেন?

No.			HA	SA	SD	HD	DNK
			পুএ	কিএ	কিদ্ধি	পুদ্ধি	জানা
C16.1	By executive body of Govt.	প্রশাসনের মাধ্যমে	1	2	3	4	9
C16.2	Judiciary (Court)	বিচার বিভাগের মাধ্যমে (কোর্ট)	1	2	3	4	9
C16.3	Religious leaders (Imam etc.)	ধর্মীয় নেতাদের মাধ্যমে (ইমাম)	1	2	3	4	9
C16.4	Shalish	সালিশের মাধ্যমে	1	2	3	4	9
C16.5	Political leaders	রাজনৈতিক নেতাদের মাধ্যমে	1	2	3	4	9
C16.6	By family members	পরিবারের মাধ্যমে	1	2	3	4	9
C16.7	On the spot	অপরাধ সংঘটিত হবার স্থানে	1	2	3	4	9

Rating: highly agree (HA), somewhat agree (SA), somewhat disagree (SD), highly disagree (HD), do not know (DKN)
পুরোপুরি একমত (পুএ), কিছুটা একমত (কিএ), কিছুটা দ্বিমত (কিদ্ধি), পুরোপুরি দ্বিমত (পুদ্ধি), জানিনা (জানা)

QC17 What are the most prominent Law & Order problems?
আপনার মতে, বর্তমানে আইন শৃঙ্খলা পরিস্থিতির অবনতির ক্ষেত্রে কোন সমস্যাটি বেশি গুরুত্বপূর্ণ?

No.			HI	SI	SUI	HUI	DKN
			অবেগু	কিগু	তেগুন	এগুন	জানা
C17.1	Personal property crimes (theft, burglary, robbery, mugging)	ব্যক্তিগত সম্পদ সংক্রান্ত অপরাধ (চুরি, ডাকাতি, ছিনতাই)	1	2	3	4	9
C17.2	Eve teasing	ইভ টিজিং	1	2	3	4	9
C17.3	Rape	ধর্ষণ	1	2	3	4	9
C17.4	Dowry	যৌতুক	1	2	3	4	9
C17.5	Politically influenced violence	রাজনৈতিকভাবে প্রভাবিত অপরাধ	1	2	3	4	9
C17.6	Religious violence	ধর্মীয় নির্যাতন	1	2	3	4	9
C17.7	Ethnic violence	জাতিগত বিদ্বেষ/ নির্যাতন	1	2	3	4	9
C17.8	Domestic violence	পারিবারিক নির্যাতন	1	2	3	4	9
C17.9	Violence using firearms	আগ্নেয়াস্ত্রের ব্যবহার করে নির্যাতন	1	2	3	4	9
C17.10	Land grabbing and related disputes	জমি দখল সংক্রান্ত	1	2	3	4	9
C17.11	Drug abuse/use	মাদক ব্যবসা	1	2	3	4	9
C17.12	Alcohol abuse	মদ খাওয়া	1	2	3	4	9
C17.13	Murder	খুন	1	2	3	4	9
C17.14	Police/harassment	পুলিশী নির্যাতন	1	2	3	4	9
C17.15	Women and children trafficking	নারী ও শিশু পাচার	1	2	3	4	9
C17.16	Kidnapping and ransom	অপহরণ ও মুক্তিপণ	1	2	3	4	9
C17.17	Extortion	হুমকি	1	2	3	4	9
C17.18	Acid throwing	এসিড নিক্ষেপ	1	2	3	4	9

Rating: highly important (HI), somewhat important (SI), somewhat unimportant (SUI), highly unimportant (HUI), do not know (DKN)
অনেক বেশি গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (অবেগু), কিছুটা গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (কিগু), তেমন গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয় (তেগুন), একদম গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয়(এগুন), জানি না (জানা)

QC18 Who should be responsible for reducing crime?

অপরাধ দমন করার জন্য কার ভূমিকা আপনার কাছে গুরুত্বপূর্ণ বলে মনে হয়?

No.			HI	SI	SUI	HUI	DKN
			অবেগু	কিগু	তেগুন	এগুন	জানা
C18.1	Members of the public	সংসদ সদস্য	1	2	3	4	9
C18.2	Media: TV/newspaper etc.	গণমাধ্যম: টেলিভিশন/ সংবাদপত্র	1	2	3	4	9
C18.3	Parents/family members of perpetrator	অপরাধীর পরিবার/বাবা মা	1	2	3	4	9
C18.4	Private security companies	বেসরকারী নিরাপত্তা কোম্পানী	1	2	3	4	9
C18.5	Local education authorities/ teachers	স্থানীয় শিক্ষা প্রতিষ্ঠান/ শিক্ষক	1	2	3	4	9
C18.6	Local authorities/union councils	ইউনিয়ন পরিষদ/স্থানীয় প্রতিষ্ঠান	1	2	3	4	9
C18.7	Police	পুলিশ	1	2	3	4	9
C18.8	Courts	কোর্ট	1	2	3	4	9
C18.9	RAB	র্যাব	1	2	3	4	9
C18.10	Ansar/VDP	আনসার ভিডিপি	1	2	3	4	9
C18.11	Local politicians	স্থানীয় নেতা	1	2	3	4	9
C18.12	Mobile courts	মোবাইল কোর্ট	1	2	3	4	9

Rating: highly important (HI), somewhat important (SI), somewhat unimportant (SUI), highly unimportant (HUI), do not know (DKN)

অনেক বেশি গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (অবেগু), কিছুটা গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (কিগু), তেমন গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয় (তেগুন), একদম গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয়(এগুন), জানি না (জানা)

QC19 To you, what does "democracy" mean? [READ OUT]

আপনার কাছে গণতন্ত্রের অর্থ কি?

No.	= GBS 2010		Rank (1-3) ক্রমানুসারে বলুন (১-৩)
QC19.1	Election every five years	প্রতি ৫ বছর পর পর নির্বাচন	
QC19.2	Rule By consent	ঐকমত্যের শাসন	
QC19.3	Free public debate	জনগণের মধ্যে উন্মুক্ত বিতর্ক	
QC19.4	Ability to participate in decision making	সিদ্ধান্ত গ্রহণ প্রক্রিয়াতে অংশগ্রহণ করার সুযোগ	
QC19.5	Ability to access information on how govt. works	সরকার কিভাবে কাজ করে সে তথ্য জানার সুযোগ	

SECTION D: Youth and the Family

QD1 How important is family to you?
আপনার পরিবার আপনার কাছে কতটা গুরুত্বপূর্ণ?

	HI	SI	SUI	HUI	DKN
	অবেগু	কিগু	তেগুন	এগুন	জানা
Code	1	2	3	4	9

Rating: highly important (HI), somewhat important (SI), somewhat unimportant (SUI), highly unimportant (HUI), do not know (DKN)
অনেক বেশি গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (অবেগু), কিছুটা গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (কিগু), তেমন গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয় (তেগুন), একদম গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয় (এগুন), জানি না (জানা), নেই/ প্রযোজ্য নয় (প্রন)

QD2 Who are your most important relations within your parental family and how?
আপনার পরিবারে কার সাথে আপনার সম্পর্ক সবচেয়ে বেশি গুরুত্বপূর্ণ?

No.			HI	SI	SUI	HUI	DKN	NA
			অবেগু	কিগু	তেগুন	এগুন	জানা	নেই / প্রন
D2.1	Father	বাবা	1	2	3	4	9	7
D2.2	Mother	মা	1	2	3	4	9	7
D2.3	Elder sister/brother	বড় ভাই/বোন	1	2	3	4	9	7
D2.4	Younger sister/brother	ছোট ভাই/বোন	1	2	3	4	9	7
D2.5	Mother's family	মায়ের পরিবার	1	2	3	4	9	7
D2.6	Father's family	বাবার পরিবার	1	2	3	4	9	7

Rating: highly important (HI), somewhat important (SI), somewhat unimportant (SUI), highly unimportant (HUI), do not know (DKN)
অনেক বেশি গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (অবেগু), কিছুটা গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (কিগু), তেমন গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয় (তেগুন), একদম গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয় (এগুন), জানি না, (জানা), নেই / প্রযোজ্য নয় (প্রন)

QD3 Role of parents/guardian
আপনাকে কিছু বিষয়ের কথা বলবো, নিম্নোক্ত বিষয়গুলোতে আপনার বাবা-মার /অভিভাবকের ভূমিকা কি রকম ?

No.			HI	SI	SUI	HUI	DKN
			অবেগু	কিগু	তেগুন	এগুন	জানা
D3.1	Selecting spouse	স্বামী স্ত্রী নির্বাচনের ক্ষেত্রে	1	2	3	4	9
D3.2	Providing financial means	টাকা পয়সা দেবার ক্ষেত্রে	1	2	3	4	9
D3.3	Provide education	শিক্ষার ব্যবস্থা করার ক্ষেত্রে	1	2	3	4	9
D3.4	Encourage discipline	নিয়ম শৃঙ্খলা মেনে চলতে উদ্বুদ্ধ করার ক্ষেত্রে	1	2	3	4	9
D3.5	Provide guidance	নির্দেশনা দেবার ক্ষেত্রে	1	2	3	4	9
D3.6	Be a good guardian	ভালো অভিভাবক হিসেবে	1	2	3	4	9

Rating: highly important (HI), somewhat important (SI), somewhat unimportant (SUI), highly unimportant (HUI), do not know (DKN)
অনেক বেশি গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (অবেগু), কিছুটা গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (কিগু), তেমন গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয় (তেগুন), একদম গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয় (এগুন), জানি না (জানা)

QD4 What is the level of freedom of choice that you can exercise regarding the following aspects?
আপনার নিচের কাজগুলো করার ক্ষেত্রে আপনি কতটা স্বাধীন?

No.			VI	MI	SI	NI	DNK
			পুস্বা	বেস্বা	কিস্বা	এস্বান	জানা
D4.1	Chose school	শিক্ষা প্রতিষ্ঠান নির্বাচনের ক্ষেত্রে	1	2	3	4	9
D4.2	Chose friends	বন্ধু নির্বাচনের ক্ষেত্রে	1	2	3	4	9
D4.3	Mobility	কোথাও যাবার ক্ষেত্রে	1	2	3	4	9
D4.4	Buying clothes	কাপড় কেনার ক্ষেত্রে	1	2	3	4	9
D4.5	How to spend money	টাকা খরচের ক্ষেত্রে	1	2	3	4	9
D4.6	Chose future spouse	ভবিষ্যতে স্বামী স্ত্রী নির্বাচনের ক্ষেত্রে	1	2	3	4	9
D4.7	Future employment	ভবিষ্যতে কোন পেশাতে যাবেন তা নির্বাচনের ক্ষেত্রে	1	2	3	4	9

Rating: very independent (VI), mostly independent (MI), somewhat independent (SI), not independent (NI), do not know (DKN)
পুরোপুরি স্বাধীন (পুস্বা), বেশ স্বাধীন (বেস্বা), কিছুটা স্বাধীন (কিস্বা), একেবারে স্বাধীন নয় (এস্বান),জানি না (জানা)

QD5 Selection criteria for spouse [Ask to all]
সঙ্গী (স্বামী/স্ত্রী) নির্বাচনের ক্ষেত্রে কোন বিষয়গুলো আপনার কাছে গুরুত্বপূর্ণ? [বিবাহিত/অবিবাহিত সকলকে]

No.			HI	SI	SUI	HUI	DKN
			অবেগু	কিগু	তেগুন	এগুন	জানা
D5.1	Pleasant character	ভালো চরিত্র	1	2	3	4	9
D5.2	from a good family	ভালো পরিবার	1	2	3	4	9
D5.3	Higher social status	উচ্চ সামাজিক মর্যাদা	1	2	3	4	9
D5.4	Good education	শিক্ষিত	1	2	3	4	9
D5.5	Good looking	ভালো চেহারা	1	2	3	4	9
D5.6	Good relation	পরিবারের সাথে ভালো সম্পর্ক	1	2	3	4	9
D5.7	Interest in working	কাজ করতে আগ্রহী	1	2	3	4	9
D5.8	Holding a good job	ভালো চাকরি আছে	1	2	3	4	9
D5.9	Interest in having children	সন্তান নিতে আগ্রহী	1	2	3	4	9

Rating: highly important (HI), somewhat important (SI), somewhat unimportant (SUI), highly unimportant (HUI), do not know (DKN)
অনেক বেশি গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (অবেগু), কিছুটা গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (কিগু), তেমন গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয় (তেগুন), একদম গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয় (এগুন), জানি না (জানা)

SECTION E: Youth and the Community

QE1 Importance of community/ আপনার কাছে সমাজ কতটা গুরুত্বপূর্ণ?

No.			HI	SI	SUI	HUI	DKN
			অবেগু	কিণ্ডু	তেণ্ডুন	এণ্ডুন	জানা
E1.1	To safeguard the interests of the individuals	প্রত্যেক সদস্যের স্বার্থ রক্ষা করে	1	2	3	4	9
E1.2	To support all members in times of need	প্রয়োজনের সময় সব সদস্যকে সাহায্য করে	1	2	3	4	9
E1.3	To solve conflicts	বিরোধ মীমাংসা করে	1	2	3	4	9
E1.4	To encourage religious behaviour	ধর্মীয় আচরণকে উৎসাহিত করে	1	2	3	4	9
E1.5	To support the activities of the state	রাষ্ট্রের কাজে সহায়তা করা	1	2	3	4	9
E1.6	Provide a sense of security or safety	নিরাপত্তার আশ্বাস দেওয়া	1	2	3	4	9
E1.7	Preserve traditions and values	সামাজিক রীতি ও মূল্যবোধ সংরক্ষণ করা	1	2	3	4	9

Rating: highly important (HI), somewhat important (SI), somewhat unimportant (SUI), highly unimportant (HUI), do not know (DKN)
অনেক বেশি গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (অবেগু), কিছুটা গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (কিণ্ডু), তেমন গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয় (তেণ্ডুন), একদম গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয় (এণ্ডুন), জানি না (জানা)

QE2 Whom do you approach in times of your need within the community?
আপনাকে কয়েকজনের কথা বলবো, আপনি বলবেন আপনার যে কোন প্রয়োজনের সময় সমাজে কার ভূমিকা গুরুত্ব অনুসারে কতটুকু?

No.			HI	SI	SUI	HUI	DKN	Rank (1-3)
			অবেগু	কিণ্ডু	তেণ্ডুন	এণ্ডুন	জানা	ক্রমানুসারে বলুন (১-৩)
E2.1	Family	পরিবার	1	2	3	4	9	
E2.2	Other relatives	অন্যান্য আত্মীয়	1	2	3	4	9	
E2.3	Teachers	শিক্ষক	1	2	3	4	9	
E2.4	Religious leaders	ইমাম/ধর্মীয় নেতা	1	2	3	4	9	
E2.5	Friends	বন্ধু	1	2	3	4	9	
E2.6	Community leaders	সমাজের নেতা	1	2	3	4	9	
E2.7	Political leaders	রাজনৈতিক নেতা	1	2	3	4	9	
E2.8	Members of youth group	যুব সংঘের সাথে	1	2	3	4	9	

Rating: highly important (HI), somewhat important (SI), somewhat unimportant (SUI), highly unimportant (HUI), do not know (DKN)
অনেক বেশি গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (অবেগু), কিছুটা গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (কিণ্ডু), তেমন গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয় (তেণ্ডুন), একদম গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয়(এণ্ডুন), জানি না (জানা)

No.	Question		Coding categories		Code
E3	What is your religion?	আপনি কোন ধর্মের অনুসারী?	Islam	ইসলাম	1
			Hinduism	হিন্দু	2
			Buddhism	বৌদ্ধ	3
			Christianity	খৃষ্টান	4
			Others (specify)…	অন্যান্য (উল্লেখ করুন)	

QE3A [Ask only to Muslims] Importance of religion
[শুধু মুসলমানদের জিজ্ঞাসা করুন] আপনার কাছে এই ধর্মীয় কাজগুলো কতটা গুরুত্বপূর্ণ?

No.			HI	SI	SUI	HUI	DKN
			অবেগু	কিগু	তেগুন	এগুন	জানা
E3A.1	Praying	নামাজ পড়া	1	2	3	4	9
E3A.2	Reading Koran	কোরআন পাঠ করা	1	2	3	4	9
E3A.3	Public jamat	তাবলীগ জামাত	1	2	3	4	9
E3A.4	Fasting during Ramadan	রমজানে রোযা রাখা	1	2	3	4	9
E3A.5	Undertaking haj	হজ্ব করা	1	2	3	4	9
E3A.6	Giving zakat	যাকাত দেওয়া	1	2	3	4	9
E3A.7	Wearing hijab	বোরখা পরা	1	2	3	4	9
E3A.8	Tolerance towards other religions	অন্যান্য ধর্মের মানুষের সাথে ভালো সম্পর্ক রাখা	1	2	3	4	9
E3A.9	Tolerance towards women's rights	মহিলাদের অধিকার সম্পর্কে সহনশীল হওয়া	1	2	3	4	9

Rating: highly important (HI), somewhat important (SI), somewhat unimportant (SUI), highly unimportant (HUI), do not know (DKN)
অনেক বেশি গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (অবেগু), কিছুটা গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (কিগু), তেমন গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয় (তেগুন), একদম গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয়(এগুন), জানি না (জানা)

QE3B [Ask only to Non-Muslims] Importance of religion
[শুধু যারা অমুসলিম তাদের জিজ্ঞাসা করুন] আপনার কাছে ধর্মের ভূমিকা কতটা গুরুত্বপূর্ণ?

No.			HI	SI	SUI	HUI	DKN
			অবেগু	কিগু	তেগুন	এগুন	জানা
E3B.1	Praying	প্রার্থনা করা	1	2	3	4	9
E3B.2	Reading of religious texts	ধর্মীয় বই পড়া	1	2	3	4	9
E3B.3	Weekly congregations	সাপ্তাহিক প্রার্থনা	1	2	3	4	9
E3B.4	Annual festivals	বার্ষিক উৎসব	1	2	3	4	9
E3B.5	Other rituals	অন্যান্য ধর্মীয় অনুষ্ঠান/ (পূজা/বড়দিন)	1	2	3	4	9
E3B.6	Tolerance towards other religions	অন্যান্য ধর্মের প্রতি সহনশীলতা	1	2	3	4	9
E3B.7	Tolerance towards women's rights	নারীর অধিকারের প্রতি সহনশীলতা	1	2	3	4	9
No.	Question						Skip
E3B.8	[Ask to all] Among 10 good friends how many friends (ever) of other religion do you have?				Number........		E4
	[সকলকে জিজ্ঞাসা করুন] আপনার ভালো ১০ জন বন্ধুর মাঝে কত জন অন্য ধর্মের রয়েছে (যে কোনো সময়ের)?				.... জন		

Rating: highly important (HI), somewhat important (SI), somewhat unimportant (SUI), highly unimportant (HUI), do not know (DKN)
অনেক বেশি গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (অবেগু), কিছুটা গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (কিগু), তেমন গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয় (তেগুন), একদম গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয়(এগুন),জানি না (জানা)

QE4 Which aspects of education are most important?
আপনার কাছে শিক্ষার কোন দিকটি বেশি গুরুত্বপূর্ণ?

No.			HI	SI	SUI	HUI	DKN
			অবেগু	কিগু	তেগুন	এগুন	জানা
E4.1	Years of schooling	স্কুলে যাবার সময় কাল	1	2	3	4	9
E4.2	Type of school	স্কুলের ধরন	1	2	3	4	9
E4.3	Having good teachers	ভালো শিক্ষক	1	2	3	4	9
E4.4	Costs for education	শিক্ষার খরচ	1	2	3	4	9
E4.5	Develop creativity	সৃষ্টিশীল কাজ করার ক্ষমতার উন্নয়ন	1	2	3	4	9
E4.6	Acquisition of life skills	জীবন যাপনের জন্য প্রয়োজনীয় দক্ষতা অর্জন	1	2	3	4	9

Rating: highly important (HI), somewhat important (SI), somewhat unimportant (SUI), highly unimportant (HUI), do not know (DKN)
অনেক বেশি গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (অবেগু), কিছুটা গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (কিগু), তেমন গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয় (তেগুন), একদম গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয়(এগুন), জানি না (জানা)

QE5 How important to work for you? / কাজ করা আপনার কাছে কেন গুরুত্বপূর্ণ বলে মনে হয় ?

No.			HI	SI	SUI	HUI	DKN	Rank (1-3)
			অবেগু	কিণ্ড	তেগুন	এগুন	জানা	ক্রমানুসারে বলুন (১-৩)
E5.1	Provide income	উপার্জন করার জন্য	1	2	3	4	9	
E5.2	Provide opportunities for personal advancement	ব্যক্তিগত উন্নতির জন্য	1	2	3	4	9	
E5.3	Provide opportunities to exercise power	ক্ষমতার ব্যবহারের জন্য	1	2	3	4	9	
E5.4	Provide additional facilities	অন্যান্য সুবিধার জন্য	1	2	3	4	9	
E5.5	Opportunity for trainings/ further studies	বিভিন্ন প্রশিক্ষণ/ আরও লেখাপড়া করার জন্য	1	2	3	4	9	
E5.6	Opportunities to network	অনেক ধরনের মানুষের সাথে যোগাযোগ জন্য	1	2	3	4	9	
E5.7	Provide opportunities to travel	ভ্রমণের জন্য	1	2	3	4	9	

Rating: highly important (HI), somewhat important (SI), somewhat unimportant (SUI), highly unimportant (HUI), do not know (DKN)
অনেক বেশি গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (অবেগু), কিছুটা গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (কিণ্ড), তেমন গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয় (তেগুন), একদম গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয় (এগুন), জানি না (জানা)

QE6 How important is traveling to you?
আপনার কাছে ভ্রমণের এই দিকগুলো কতটুকু গুরুত্বপূর্ণ?

No.			HI	SI	SUI	HUI	DKN
			অবেগু	কিণ্ড	তেগুন	এগুন	জানা
E6.1	To learn more about own country	নিজের দেশ সম্পর্কে অনেক জানা যায়	1	2	3	4	9
E6.2	To learn more about foreign countries	অন্য দেশ সম্পর্কে অনেক জানা যায়	1	2	3	4	9
E6.3	To meet other people	নানা মানুষের সাথে দেখা হয়	1	2	3	4	9
E6.4	To learn about other cultures	অন্যান্য সংস্কৃতি সম্পর্কে জানা যায়	1	2	3	4	9
E6.5	To learn more about other religions	অন্যান্য ধর্ম সম্পর্কে জানা যায়	1	2	3	4	9
E6.6	To learn other languages	অন্যান্য ভাষা সম্পর্কে জানা যায়	1	2	3	4	9

Rating: highly important (HI), somewhat important (SI), somewhat unimportant (SUI), highly unimportant (HUI), do not know (DKN)
অনেক বেশি গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (অবেগু), কিছুটা গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (কিণ্ড), তেমন গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয় (তেগুন), একদম গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয়(এগুন), জানি না (জানা)

QE7 Media of learning about the state

আমি এখন আপনাকে কিছু মাধ্যমের কথা বলবো, আপনি দয়া করে বলবেন কি নিম্নোক্ত কোন মাধ্যমগুলোর মাধ্যমে রাষ্ট্র সম্বন্ধে জানতে পারেন?

No.			HI	SI	SUI	HUI	DKN
			অবেগু	কিগু	তেগুন	এগুন	জানা
E7.1	At school	স্কুলে	1	2	3	4	9
E7.2	Reading newspapers	খবরের কাগজ পড়ে	1	2	3	4	9
E7.3	Listening to radio	রেডিও শুনে	1	2	3	4	9
E7.4	Watching news on TV	টিলিভিশনে খবর দেখে	1	2	3	4	9
E7.5	Reading websites	বিভিন্ন ওয়েবসাইট পড়ে	1	2	3	4	9
E7.6	Talking to friends	বন্ধুদের সাথে আলাপের মাধ্যমে	1	2	3	4	9
E7.7	At youth clubs	যুব সংঘে	1	2	3	4	9
E7.8	Any other clubs	অন্য কোন ক্লাবে	1	2	3	4	9
E7.9	From political parties	রাজনৈতিক দলগুলোর মাধ্যমে	1	2	3	4	9

Rating: highly important (HI), somewhat important (SI), somewhat unimportant (SUI), highly unimportant (HUI), do not know (DKN)

অনেক বেশি গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (অবেগু), কিছুটা গুরুত্বপূর্ণ (কিগু), তেমন গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয় (তেগুন), একদম গুরুত্বপূর্ণ নয়(এগুন),জানি না (জানা)

QE8 Can you accept the following issues of social change?

আমি এখন আপনাকে কিছু বিষয়ের কথা বলবো, নিচের বিষয়গুলোকে আপনি কতটা মেনে নিতে পারেন?

No.			HA	MA	SA	HIA	DNK
			পুমাপা	অমপা	কিমাপা	এমাপানা	জানা
E8.1	Gender equality	নারী-পুরুষের সমমর্যাদা	1	2	3	4	9
E8.2	Women who are working	নারীদের কাজ করা	1	2	3	4	9
E8.3	Friendship with opposite gender	অন্য লিঙ্গের কারও সাথে বন্ধুত্ব করা	1	2	3	4	9
E8.4	Marriage without consent of parents	বাবা-মার অসম্মতিতে বিয়ে	1	2	3	4	9
E8.5	Marriage at a later age	দেরিতে বিয়ে করা	1	2	3	4	9
E8.6	Family Planning	পরিবার পরিকল্পনা	1	2	3	4	9
E8.7	Divorce	বিবাহ বিচ্ছেদ	1	2	3	4	9
E8.8	Study abroad	দেশের বাইরে লেখাপড়া	1	2	3	4	9
E8.9	Work abroad	দেশের বাইরে কাজ করতে যাওয়া	1	2	3	4	9

Rating: Highly acceptable (HA), mostly acceptable (MA) Somewhat Acceptable (SA), highly in-acceptable (HNA) don't know (DKN)

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The Institute of Governance Studies, established in 2005, is affiliated with BRAC University, a private institution of higher education in Dhaka, Bangladesh. The University, established in 2001, has a goal to provide a high quality, broad-based education with a focus on professional development to equip students with the knowledge and skills necessary for leading the country in its quest for development.

The mission of the University - to promote national development process through the creation of a centre of excellence in higher education that is responsive to society's needs is consistent with the long-term development objectives of its sponsoring institution, BRAC.

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Layout: Hummingbird Ltd.
Production: Color Line