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Youth Employment and NGOs: Evidence from Bangladesh

Akira Murata* and Naoki Nishimura†

Abstract

Youth unemployment remains significant labor market and social challenges in many emerging and developing countries. Among others, high rates of unemployment among educated youth are one of growing global issues. This is the case for educated youth in Bangladesh. In Bangladesh, the increase of NGOs has played a decisive role not only in reducing poverty and improving social indicators like education and health, but in building a platform for young people to develop careers. Despite the increasing job opportunities, the NGO sector experiences high turnover rates and increasing difficulty in attracting qualified youth. This study uses interviews with university students and young NGO staff in Bangladesh to analyze the determinants of youth job preferences and job satisfaction. Empirical analyses reveal that job satisfaction is positively correlated with wages, gender, employment status, work location, and NGO size with statistical significance. Using a discrete choice experiment (DCE), we also gauge youth job preferences and examine the extent to which each job attribute influences job choice, as well as how adjusting these attributes could improve job attractiveness in the NGO sector. We find that the provisions of support for education and upgrading qualifications, and support for health insurance can increase the job uptake rates by more than 30 percentage points and more than 20 percentage points, respectively. We also find that providing housing benefits is not an effective fringe benefit. Particularly, this benefit is provided by small-sized NGOs. Requiring less overtime work increases retention rates by 10 percentage points for female employees, whereas it raises the rates by 4 percentage points for males. Our results suggest that, given that many NGOs are confronted by hard budget constraints, they can reduce high turnover rates by efficiently allocating their limited budget for staff welfare. This better understanding of the needs and desires of their employees can help Bangladeshi NGOs recruit and retain qualified young people.

Keywords: youth employment, job preference, discrete choice experiment, NGO, Bangladesh

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1. Introduction

Despite weak state governance, Bangladesh has made remarkable progress on poverty reduction and health and education indicators, leading to the achievement of various Millennium Development Goal (MDG) targets, such as reducing child mortality and improving maternal health (see Kabeer et al. 2010). The positive aspects of this “Bangladesh Paradox” are believed to stem mainly from the country’s large and active development of Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), particularly their widespread application of community-based approaches, which include investment in village-based community health workers and the use of female agency (Asadullah, Savoia, and Mahmud 2014; Sen 2013; World Bank 2003; World Bank 2006).

Many Bangladeshi NGOs undertake a wide variety of activities including: microfinance; health and education services; social safety net programs; agricultural extension; social forestry and environmental protection; safe water and sanitation; disaster management and relief; and legal and human rights education (see Zohir 2004). In addition to social development, these NGOs are active in the development of commercial enterprises. This promotes rural economic growth and employment by linking rural and urban markets (World Bank 2006).

The rapid growth of these NGOs in Bangladesh depends to a large extent on its population density, the availability of more foreign aid and better transportation infrastructure networks, the strengthening of institutional capacities—such as the development of leadership and management skills, staff incentives and monitoring systems—and “the franchising model.” This model refers to the nationwide replication of organizational structure and program design (World Bank 2006). As of July 2013, more than 2,200 NGOs were registered by the government’s NGO Affairs Bureau (Arifeen et al. 2013). This growth of the NGO sector has played a decisive role not only in expanding social services to rural Bangladesh, but in

generating substantial job opportunities within the country as well as in other countries of Asia (Afghanistan, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Philippines, Myanmar) and Africa (Tanzania, Uganda, South Sudan, Sierra Leone, Liberia). For example, with over 44,000 full-time staff, more than 100,000 community health workers, and more than 38,000 non-formal school teachers, BRAC,¹ one of the largest NGOs in the world, operates in more than 65,000 of the 84,000 villages in Bangladesh, and its microcredit and microfinance-based development program reaches around 120 million people (see Ahmed et al. 2013; BRAC 2013; “Bangladesh and Development” 2012). The franchising of branches within organizations remains relevant to the further growth of the NGO sector as a whole. In addition, investment in human resource management with a greater period of learning for managers and staff in branches is also considered important for scaling up financial products and developing more complex products to attract more clients (World Bank 2006).

Previous studies have reported that staff turnover rates in the NGO sector are high, mainly due to poor prospects for promotion and the lure of public sector employment, which remains attractive largely because of higher salaries and better benefits, more prestigious positions, extra earning opportunities, and additional job security (see World Bank 2005; World Bank 2006). The low attractiveness of NGO sector employment might also be related to common critiques of the NGOs, such as mission drift, high levels of centralization, lack of responsiveness to the rural poor, and poor working conditions for field workers (see Hashemi 1995; Fruttero and Gauri 2005; Ahmad 2000; Ahmad 2002). According to the recent School-to-Work Transition Survey (SWTS) of youth in Bangladesh, the unemployment rates are highest among those who have a tertiary level of education (26.1 percent), followed by those with secondary-level education (11.7 percent) and those with primary-level education (6.0 percent) (see ILO 2013; ILO 2014). Higher unemployment rates among secondary school and university graduates—the groups from whom the majority of NGO staff are

¹ BRAC, formerly the Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee.

drawn—indicate that the motivations for pursuing NGO employment may very well reflect the lack of alternatives (World Bank 2006). In addition, a lack of altruistic and progressive motives was reported among women fieldworkers working in NGO rural branches (Goetz 2001).

With regard to youth employment and NGOs in Bangladesh, this study examined the determinants of job preference and satisfaction among youth and analyzed the extent to which each job attribute influenced respondents' job choices. We conducted the survey in five cities of Bangladesh (Chittagong, Dhaka, Khulna, Rajshahi, and Sylhet) and interviewed university students and young staff working for NGOs.

The following sections of this paper are structured as follows. Section 2 presents a brief summary of the growth of the NGO sector in Bangladesh. Section 3 explains the country's youth employment situation. The surveys used for this study are explained in Section 4. Section 5 examines the determinants of job preference and satisfaction among the youth surveyed, and then Section 6 analyzes the extent to which each job attribute influenced their job choices. The last section will summarize the findings of the study and provide some recommendations to improve Bangladeshi NGOs human resource management practices to recruit and retain qualified young people.

2. The Growth of the NGO Sector in Bangladesh

Previous studies have summarized three main factors in the establishment and growth of Bangladesh's NGO sector: disasters, foreign donors, and a weak state in a strong society (Arifeen et al. 2013; Kabeer et al. 2010; Lewis 2004; White 1999; Hasan 1993; Korten 1990).

After a devastating tropical cyclone in 1970 and the Bangladesh war of independence in 1971, many NGOs emerged (Lewis 2004). During this period, NGOs were mainly involved in disaster relief efforts (Perry 2000). Korten (1990) points out the ways in which large-scale disasters may lead to collective efforts that provide the foundation for the NGO sector to

emerge. At that time, the government, realizing its own limitations in meeting the population's health and family planning needs, actively reached out to NGOs to assist with the delivery of services such as health, education, sanitation, and credit. The number of NGOs increased slowly in the mid-1970s and accelerated in the 1980s. Successive governments have maintained a supportive policy environment with very few constraints and regulations on the operation of NGOs, thus supporting to their expansion (Arifeen et al. 2013; Kabeer et al. 2010; World Bank 2005). During this time, the focus of the NGOs' service delivery shifted from disaster relief toward the wider target of poverty alleviation, as poor people were likely to remain poor and powerless without the provision of economic assistance. This shift created the need for strong donor support for programs related to microcredit, health, education, and advocacy.

Large-scale donor funds began to arrive for Bangladeshi NGOs during the late 1980s. Initially these were for small groups that have subsequently developed into larger organizations such as BRAC, the Grammen Bank, the Association for Social Advancement (ASA), and Proshika (World Bank 2006). These large NGOs receive the lion's share of donor funds to the NGO sector and dominate the microfinance institution (MFI) industry (World Bank 2006; Kabeer et al. 2010). The global prominence of neoliberalism has led to an increase in donor funds and has thus encouraged NGOs, as alternatives to government institutions and the state, to provide social services (Kabeer et al. 2010). The government then came under pressure to collaborate with NGOs in the delivery of social services such as the Oral Therapy Extension Program (OTEP) for diarrhea (Chowdhury and Cash 1998), the Tuberculosis Treatment Program (Chowdhury et al. 2013), the Child Survival Program (CSP) for reducing child morbidity with an increase in the rates of child immunization (Rhode 2005; Chowdhury, Bhuiya, and Aziz 1999), and the Female Secondary School Stipend Program (FSSSP) for increasing female enrollment in school (Asadullah and Chaudhury 2009). As a consequence of the development of the NGO sector in Bangladesh, the share of the total aid to NGOs out of

the total official development assistance (ODA) to Bangladesh rose, on average, from 14.4 percent during the period from 1990–1995 to 22.2 percent in 1996–2000, and further to 27.4 percent from 2001–2005. Similarly, donor funds to NGOs increased steadily from \$180 million in 1990 to over \$400 million in 2002 (see Figure 1). With an increase in aid to the NGO sector, the number of NGO projects in Bangladesh has raised concomitantly, from fewer than 500 in 1990 to more than 18,000 in 2011 (see Arifeen et al. 2013). The World Bank’s NGO Survey in 2003 revealed that the NGOs seem to be strikingly homogenous, with 92 percent of them providing microcredit. Other main services provided by NGO branches are health care, sanitation, child education, and drinking water (World Bank 2006). This institutionally-homogeneous set of the NGO sector in Bangladesh has been in evidence since the 1990s, and it has been driven by these donor funds, as well as the establishment of the Palli Karma-Sahayak Foundation (PKSF) for monitoring the performance of MFIs (Kabeer et al. 2010).

Historically Bangladesh has had significantly worse governance than countries with the same income levels (Asadullah, Savoia, and Mahmud 2014). According to the corruption perception index of the Worldwide Governance Indicators, the country has been ranked as one of the most corrupt countries in the world (Kaufmann, Krray, and Mastruzzi 2009).

Bangladesh was described as a weak state in a strong society (White 1999), and the state failure is commonly cited to explain the growth of the NGO sector in Bangladesh (Lewis 2004). In the chaotic aftermath of the war and the disaster, there were high expectations that the government would support rural people (Hasan 1993). However, at that time relatively few local NGOs were established, whereas many international NGOs came to the country. The absence of a functioning state led to the rapid evaporation of such high expectations for the government. In addition, a limited political democracy encouraged activists and social entrepreneurs to seek new institutional structures in order to solve public problems and take responsibility for their own career development (Lewis 2004).

The government's limited service delivery has hastened the development of partnerships with NGOs over time. Among others, the three most successful and long-standing partnerships are identified by Arifeen et al. (2013) as the Bangladesh Expanded Program on Immunization (EPI),² the National Tuberculosis Control Program,³ and the Diabetic Association of Bangladesh (BADAS).⁴

With closer ties to communities, NGO services generally run more efficiently and cheaply, compared to equivalent government operations. For this reason, donors often favor them as entry points for accessing communities in Bangladesh (Davis 2001). This has led to what is called a “franchise state” in which essential public services are run by NGOs funded by donors and/or the government (Davis 2001; Rahman 2006).

This growth of the NGO sector has provided many employment opportunities in Bangladesh. According to the report on Labor Force Survey 2010, there were 688,000 employed persons aged 15 years and over in the NGO sector. About half of them (337,000 employees) were professional and technical workers, accounting for more than half the number of workers in central and local government agencies (see BBS 2011). The share of professional and technical workers is the largest in the NGO sector (see Figure 2).

² In 1985, the government of Bangladesh sought assistance from several NGOs, including BRAC, CARE, and the Rangpur Dinajpur Rural Service to fulfil its goal of universal childhood immunization by 1990. During the late 1980s and early 1990s, its coverage dramatically increased at a time when the involvement of NGOs in the Bangladesh Expanded Program on Immunization (EPI) peaked (Arifeen et al. 2013).

³ In 1991 the government reorganized its tuberculosis program, created the National Tuberculosis Control Program within the Directorate General Health Services, and began to initiate partnerships with NGOs. Presently, the government delivers its directly observed treatment short-course strategy for tuberculosis control through ten NGOs, the two major ones being BRAC and the Damien Foundation (Salim et al. 2006). In each upazila, either the government or an NGO is responsible for the tuberculosis program, and over time, NGOs have taken responsibility for an increasing number of district-level tuberculosis programs (Arifeen et al. 2013).

⁴ The Diabetic Association of Bangladesh (BADAS) was founded in 1956 as a not-for-profit health-care organization that emerged out of necessity to provide care for patients with diabetes who needed long-term care not available in the public sector. BADAS is now the largest health-care provider after the government (Arifeen et al. 2013).

3. Youth Employment Situations in Bangladesh

Youth unemployment remains significant labor market and social challenges in many emerging and developing countries. Among others, high rates of unemployment among educated youth are one of growing global issues. This is the case for educated youth in Bangladesh. Among educated Bangladeshi youth, there has been much less reliance on public sector employment due to private sector growth. These educated youth are hired mostly by modern private sector establishments, ranging from NGOs, to banking, insurance, and leasing companies, and export firms and overseas companies (Hossain, Sen, and Sawada 2012). In this section, the employment situations for young people, particularly educated youth in Bangladesh, will be explained in the context of socio-economic factors such as sector of employment, gender, wages, and unemployment.

Figure 3 shows the distribution of employed youth by sector and by gender. Agriculture is the primary sector for youth in the country overall (34.5 percent) followed closely by services (32.9 percent) and industry (30.6 percent). Each sector's share of the employed youth labor force differs depending on gender. More female youth are employed in industry (40.6 percent) than male counterparts (28 percent), suggesting an increase in young female employment opportunities in the industrial sector, primarily in the Ready-Made Garment (RMG) sector. On the other hand, more young males are engaged in the agriculture, forestry, and fishing sector (ILO 2014).

Youth working in public sector agencies receive on average higher wages than those who work in private enterprises, NGOs, or household enterprises/self-employment. However, for those with higher educational attainment, private enterprise provides higher wages, particularly for males (Figure 4). Investing in education brings a clear pay-off, as average monthly wages increases incrementally with each additional level of educational attainment

(ILO 2014). For example, university graduates can earn wages nearly three times as high as those with no education (Figure 5).

However, the ILO's labor market transitions survey of youth in 2013 reveals that the unemployment rates among youth increases with their educational levels. For example, the unemployment rate among young university graduates is 26.1 percent, while the rate is much lower for those with the completion of secondary education (11.7 percent), primary (6 percent), and for the least educated (3.2 percent) (see Figure 6). Ironically, the probability of being steadily unemployed increases with the acquisition of more education. Furthermore, the unemployment rates for young women are higher than those for young men across all levels of educational attainment. But the most significant gender gap was at the tertiary level, taking into account both the average monthly wage levels, as well as the rates of unemployment (Figures 5 and 6).

4. Data

This study exploits the 2014 JICA Job Preference Survey in Bangladesh, which interviewed two groups of Bangladeshi youth during the period of March through May 2014, namely university students and young NGO staff. They mainly answered questions related to their job preferences and their perceptions of employment opportunities. The study examines youth job preferences and perceptions between two groups and compares the results of two groups. The first group is comprised of youth not currently in the labor market, most of whom will look for a job after graduation; the second group includes youth who have already been working in the NGO sector. The surveyed university students consist of those from twelve universities⁵ in

⁵ Together with Young Consultants, the JICA Research Institute conducted the survey at 12 universities in Bangladesh. Their locations are as follows: Bangladesh University of Engineering and Technology (Dhaka); Dhaka University (Dhaka); North South University (Dhaka); Chittagong University (Chittagong); Premier University (Chittagong); Khulna University (Khulna); Khulna University of Engineering and Technology (Khulna); Northern University (Khulna); Rajshahi University (Rajshahi); University of Information Technology and Sciences (Rajshahi); Leading University (Sylhet); Shahjalal University of Science and Technology (Sylhet).

five cities in Bangladesh (Chittagong, Dhaka, Khulna, Rajshahi, and Sylhet). The total number of student respondents was 1,285, consisting of 646 males and 639 females, who were randomly selected by their student identification numbers from the lists at each university. The surveyed university students in Bangladesh are majoring in different subjects—engineering, business studies, and economics—at both public and private universities. The surveyed NGO staff are aged 29 and younger, randomly chosen from 20 NGOs⁶ of different sizes⁷ located in the five cities mentioned above. There were 1,158 total NGO staff survey respondents, consisting of 587 males and 571 females. The more detailed sample distributions of university student and NGO staff surveys are summarized in Table 1 and Table 2, respectively. Figure 7 shows the survey location maps.

The above-mentioned survey is composed of individual questionnaires for university students and young NGO staff, as well as key informant questionnaires for universities and NGO offices including both their headquarters and regional branches. The former questionnaires ask the respondents a wide variety of questions about job preferences, individual and family characteristics, lifestyles, motivations for work, perceptions of the local labor market, political views, and willingness to take risks. The latter questionnaires gather required information on the number of students and academic staff at universities, and the

⁶ Together with Young Consultants, 20 NGOs were surveyed in Bangladesh. Their branch office locations are as follows: BRAC (Dhaka, Chittagong, Khulna, Rajshahi, Sylhet); BURO Bangladesh (Dhaka, Chittagong, Rajshahi, Sylhet); Thengamara Mohila Sabuj Sangha (Rajshahi, Sylhet); Jagaroni Chakra Foundation (Khulna); Uddipon (Chittagong, Rajshahi); Padakhep Manabik Unnayan Kendra (Sylhet); NGO Forum (Sylhet); Rural Reconstruction Foundation (Khulna); Rupantor (Khulna); Gram Unnayan Karma (Rajshahi); Voluntary Association for Rural Development (Sylhet); Reliant Women Development Organization (Sylhet); Community Development Centre (Chittagong); Mamata (Chittagong); Sajida Foundation (Dhaka); Prodipon (Khulna); Proyas (Rajshahi); Friends in Village Development Bangladesh (Sylhet); Shushilan (Khulna); and Ghashful (Chittagong).

⁷ As for NGO sizes, the categories are decided depending on the number of branch offices as follows: (1) large NGOs with more than 1,000 branch offices (i.e., BRAC); (2) medium NGOs with 100–1,000 offices (i.e., BURO Bangladesh, Thengamara Mohila Sabuj Sangha (TMSS), Jagaroni Chakra Foundation (JCF), Uddipon, Padakhep Manabik Unnayan Kendra, NGO Forum); (3) small NGOs with fewer than 100 offices (i.e., Rural Reconstruction Foundation (RRF), Rupantor, Gram Unnayan Karma (GUK), Voluntary Association for Rural Development (VARD), Reliant Women Development Organization (RWDO), Community Development Centre (CODEC), Mamata, Sajida Foundation, Prodipon, Proyas, Friends in Village Development Bangladesh (FIVDB), Shushilan, Ghashful).

positions, activities, and number of workers at each NGO. They also provide information on the services provided by each university and NGO for their students and staff, respectively.

Almost all student respondents express a willingness to work after graduation regardless of their gender, except for those who pursue further education. In terms of job preferences, Figures 8 and 9 show the first, second, and third most important attributes influencing job choice among the university students and the NGO staff surveyed, respectively. It is obvious that “wages” are one of the most important attributes. Besides “wages,” “professional environment” and “work location” are regarded as important factors both for the students and the NGO staff. Female respondents put relatively less importance on “wages” and more importance on “professional environment” as well as “work location” than their male counterparts. The survey found that the respondents do not consider the sector of employment to be an important factor when they decide upon a job. This is found to be the case even among NGO staff. The next section will elaborate on the attractiveness of NGOs as employers to young people.

5. NGO Sector’s Job Preference and Satisfaction

In the JICA job preference survey conducted in 2014, 54 percent of the interviewed young NGO staff indicate that they want to quit their jobs. Based on the two-group mean-comparison test, their job satisfaction is found to be significantly lower than those who do not want to quit their current NGO job.⁸ A majority of them seek their next job in a different sector, mostly in public agencies (71 percent), followed by private enterprises excluding NGOs (18 percent). According to the focus group discussion with the selected respondents, the attractiveness of public sector employment relates to the occupational prestige and the leeway of extra income

⁸ The t-statistics ($t=14.1087$) is much larger than the critical value allowing us to reject the null hypothesis of equal means.

and job security, which is consistent with the findings of previous studies (see World Bank 2005; World Bank 2006).

According to the student survey, the mode and median of university students' expected average monthly wages for NGO jobs are between 15,000 and 20,000 Bangladesh Taka (see Figure 10). However, the interviewed NGO staff state that their average wages are substantially lower, except officers working for BRAC, a large NGO (see Table 3). Another interesting finding is that officers at BRAC have much higher salaries than those at smaller NGOs, but field workers' wages at BRAC and other NGOs are about the same. Wage levels reflect the human resource management strategies of NGOs, particularly at a large NGO like BRAC, which can afford higher salaries to attract highly qualified youth.

Next, this paper will examine the extent to which specific factors influence the young NGO staff's decisions to stay or leave their current jobs, as well as their levels of job satisfaction. For the former estimation, a Probit model and a Multinomial Probit model are applied. Then, an Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) model and an Ordered Probit model are used for the latter estimation.

The Probit model, applied first, contains a dependent variable that is a dummy variable denoting whether or not the respondent wants to quit their current job. The second model applies a Multinomial Probit analysis that takes three categorical dependent variables: "want to stay in the current job," "want to quit the current job but is not searching for a new job," and "want to quit the current job and is searching for a new job." The Multinomial Probit model used for the analysis actually assumes independence from irrelevant alternatives (IIA), meaning that this model does not allow for any correlations in the unobservables determining the three outcomes modelled here. The third and fourth models are an OLS regression and an Ordered Probit model. Both estimation models take the level of job satisfaction measured with the range zero (most unsatisfied) to nine (most satisfied) as a dependent variable. These four models use the same explanatory variables: the logarithm of the monthly wages in Bangladeshi

Taka; dummy variables related to gender, educational attainment, employment status, and workload of the respondents; the size and location of NGOs for which they work; negative events/experiences in their workplace; and their personal motivation including altruism, personal reputation, work centrality, passion for work, achievement, and power motivation, measured on a four-point Likert scale (agree strongly, agree a little, disagree a little, disagree strongly). The definition of the variables used in the analyses and the summary statistics are shown in Table 4.

Table 5 provides the estimation results of the four regression analyses mentioned above. Wages correlate significantly with job satisfaction. Wages also correlate positively with wanting to quit the current NGO job though they do not significantly influence the decision as to whether or not to search for a new job. However, this is obviously not a causal relationship. There is likely an unobserved confounding variable correlated with wages and the decision to either stay or leave the current job. A possible explanation for this might be that the wage level may be considered a proxy variable for the NGO worker's unobservable capacity, and thus the qualified young NGO staff tries to seek more attractive job opportunities elsewhere. This view is supported by World Bank (2006) which points out that according to a health facility survey conducted in 2004, most NGO professional staff are satisfied with their jobs but about half of them are dissatisfied with their salaries and benefits levels. Thus, more than two-thirds of them feel that there is poor potential for career development and future promotion opportunities in their organization. This leads to high turnover rates in NGOs, mainly due to poor prospects for promotion and the lure of public sector employment. Furthermore, in the Key Informant Interviews (KIIs) conducted during the survey period, one senior NGO staff mentions that it is increasingly difficult to attract qualified youth into the NGO sector. The NGO officers were highly paid compared to private sector workers 20 years earlier. However, the recent economic development and an increase in foreign direct investment (FDI) have generated higher wages for educated youth in the private sector, so the attractiveness of the NGO sector has been

undermined as firms in the private sector make more attractive job offers. Consequently, many young NGO staff with better skills and qualifications tend to quit and search for new jobs in private enterprises. This opinion is consistent with the finding of the estimation result from the Multinomial Probit model that high educational attainments are related to decisions to quit a current job at the NGO and search for a new job elsewhere.

The results also show that young female NGO employees are more satisfied with their current jobs than their male counterparts. With regard to the factors related to employment status, the findings of this research reveal that temporary employment status is associated with the desire to quit a job but not with the decision to search for a new job, while working as a part-time employee correlates positively with job satisfaction. Young people working for the NGOs located in Dhaka show a strong tendency to want to stay in that city, and NGO employment seems to have a higher satisfaction level in Dhaka than in other cities. NGOs with more than 100 branch offices provide young staff with a more satisfying work than those with fewer than 100 offices. A possible explanation for this might be that the larger NGOs can afford to provide better salaries and more attractive staff benefits.

Table 5 also illustrates that more overtime work is associated with lower job satisfaction, but does not seem to be related to a desire to quit a job. Similarly, having negative events/experiences in the workplace substantially undermines job satisfaction. Unlike overtime work, this can significantly affect the desire to quit and lead NGO staff to seek other job opportunities. Particularly, people who have been bullied by superiors, teased at work place, or professionally ostracized by colleagues are more likely to quit a job.

Personal motivation is also found to be a factor influencing the attractiveness and satisfaction of NGO sector employment for young workers. People who attach an importance to their personal reputation are more likely to stay at a current NGO job. The heterogeneity in the effect of personal motivation was examined using categorical dummy variables depending on the level of reputation measures. However, no heterogeneity in this effect was found. Our

finding revealed that there is no significant correlation between altruistic values and the desire to quit. A possible explanation for this might be that there is too little variation in this measure to permit a meaningful identification of the estimated effect. In addition to altruism and personal reputation, the study examined the effect of other personal motivation such as work centrality (see Misra, Ghosh, and Kanungo 1990), passion for work, achievement (see McClelland 1985), and power motivation (see McClelland 1985). Work centrality, which is related to the importance of work in life, is found to be not statistically significant. On the other hand, NGO staff who are passionate about their work tend to stay at a current job and have higher job satisfaction. People who attach importance to their achievements, which is related to the satisfaction obtained from doing well and a feeling of competition with others, are more likely to quit. Having a higher power motivation, which is measured with questions asking if people like to have a lot of control over others and events, significantly increases job satisfaction. However, these results should be interpreted with caution as it is difficult to claim causally identifiable effects due to the possible endogeneity of these personal motivation measures. For instance, what if there are individual unobservables, such as motivation, that determine the personal reputation trait but that also determine the propensity not to quit a job. This may lead to an upward bias on the estimates reported. There may be nothing empirically to be done about this but it should at least be recognized as a potential issue with this type of application when interpreting the results.

In addition to wage levels, which are obviously one of the most important attributes for a job choice, other monetary and non-monetary benefits can improve the attractiveness of NGO sector employment. Table 6 summarizes staff benefits provided by the surveyed NGOs. Sick leave, maternity leave, and bonuses are provided by all surveyed NGOs. Paid vacation leave, subsidized meals, and housing benefits are relatively common rewards in small-sized NGOs. The provisions of other benefits like uniforms, pension funds, and health insurance seem to be unrelated to institutional size.

6. Factors influencing job choice among young NGO staff

In this paper, a discrete choice experiment (DCE) was used to gauge job preferences among youth and examine the extent to which each job attribute influences job choice, as well as how adjusting these attributes could improve job attractiveness, particularly in the NGO sector. The DCE, which asked respondents to state their choice between hypothetical alternatives, allowed researchers and policymakers to uncover how much youth value selected attributes of employment. The detailed explanation on the methodology used for the analyses in this section is derived from Murata (2014), which applied a DCE to elicit job preferences among youth in Egypt.

For the empirical estimation, this section of the paper modeled job preference among youth who were given options for sectors of employment (i.e., wage employment at the public sector agency, wage employment at a private enterprise excluding NGOs, household enterprise or self-employment, or NGOs) under the assumption of a fixed work location. For the DCE, each respondent was presented with twelve job-choice questions, each with different combinations of job attributes, including employment sectors. The DCE was carefully designed to fulfill the necessary properties for discrete choice analysis, i.e., orthogonality, level balance, and minimum overlap.⁹ The probability of choosing a given job is determined by the job's perceived utility. Here it is assumed that this can be expressed by the following regression model:

$$V = \alpha_{wage}wages + \beta_1education + \beta_2workload + \beta_3housing + \beta_4infrastructure + \beta_5health + \beta_{6j}D_{sector_j} + \beta_9constant + \varepsilon \quad (1)$$

⁹ For more details, see WHO (2012).

where V is the utility derived from a given job, α_{wage} is the coefficient for the variable *wages* expressed in thousands of Bangladeshi Taka, ε refers to the error term, and all other variables are defined as follows: education opportunities or possibility of upgrading qualifications (*education*); working hours (*workload*); housing support (*housing*); IT infrastructure (*infrastructure*); and health insurance (*health*). For the sectors of employment, the sector dummy variables, D_{sector_j} ($j=0, 1, 2,$ and 3), are added to the regression model. They consist of a public sector agency as a base category ($j=0$) and the variables for private enterprise excluding NGOs ($j=1$), self-employment ($j=2$), and NGOs ($j=3$). The definition of the attributes and their levels used in the analyses are shown in Table 7. Given the binary choices presented to individuals, the conditional logit model was used to analyze the data. The estimated coefficients can only give information about the direction and significance of the effect of changing the levels of one attribute with all else being equal.

Table 8 shows the estimation results of regression models, explaining the extent to which each job attribute influences job choice among young NGO staff in Bangladesh. The types and levels of job attributes used in the analyses are defined in Table 7. As expected, “wages” were found to significantly influence job choice. The effect of the wage level is more pronounced for females and the highly educated. In addition, offering “education opportunities/possibility of upgrading qualifications,” “support for health care benefits,” and a “non-heavy workload” significantly influence job choice. With all else being equal, “wage employment at private sectors” is not significantly preferred to “wage employment at public sectors.” However, private sector employment becomes more attractive in the real world, taking into account its higher-than-average wage level. Furthermore, the provision of housing benefits was found not to significantly influence a job choice. The effect of providing housing benefits should be reviewed to improve human resource management at the surveyed NGOs as many of them, particularly small-sized NGOs, provided this benefit. In addition, the improvement in IT infrastructure such as internet and mobile connection and electricity supply

at the work place is not so important mainly because of the rising prevalence of mobile phone ownership even among poor households in the country.

Within the context of employment issues, inclusion of a wage factor allows us to estimate the monetary value of each job attribute—that is, how much of their wages a respondent would be willing to give up for an improvement in other aspects of the job. This can be estimated as the ratio of the value of the coefficient of interest to the negative of the cost attribute, that is, wages, in this analysis.

To create the policy options affecting the shift of job preference among young NGO staff in Bangladesh, the estimation results were used to calculate the willingness to pay (WTP) and policy impact measures. The WTP measures were calculated on the basis of the regression results of the equation (1). WTP measures the amount of wages somebody is willing to give up for some other attribute. As the variable *wages* is continuous, the WTP for attribute x is given by the following equation:

$$WTP(x) = -\frac{\partial U / \partial X}{\partial U / \partial wages} = -\frac{\beta_x}{\alpha_{wages}}, \quad (2)$$

where β_x is the coefficient of attribute x from the regression equation (1). This WTP measure was calculated for all levels of wages.

This research further investigated the impact of policy changing one of the attributes. This policy impact can be understood as a change in uptake rates of the baseline job. The change in the uptake rates is defined by:

$$\Delta Uptake Rates = P_{policy} - P_{base}, \quad i \neq k, \quad (3)$$

where P_{base} is the baseline job and P_{policy} is the job with an improvement in one of the attributes.

Table 9 shows the extent to which young NGO staff are willing to pay (WTP) or receive lower wages in exchange for receiving an additional attribute of a job, based on the estimation results shown in Table 8. Our findings reveal that with educational support during a contract, support for health insurance, and a non-heavy workload, the respondents are willing to give up a part of their wages for a job.

The study shows that there is a gender difference in the importance of job attributes, as measured by the WTP estimates. The findings from Table 9 reveal that compared to their male counterparts, young female NGO staff attach a higher value to a non-heavy workload. With regard to educational attainment, the WTP estimates for the provision of educational support are found to be more important for the less educated. In order to make NGO employment more attractive, the impact of possible policy options will be examined, taking into consideration the differences in gender of current NGO staff, as well as their highest educational attainment.

Figures 11 and 12 show the varying probabilities of taking a job in the NGO sector under the different scenarios. The former figure deals with gender differences, while the latter shows the job uptake rate by level of educational attainment. In order to make comparisons between job opportunities in different sectors, we assume that a current NGO staff has job opportunities in different sectors with their average youth wage levels as follows: 12,000 Bangladeshi Taka for the public sector; 20,000 Bangladeshi Taka for the private sector; 6,000 Bangladeshi Taka for the self-employment sector; and 10,000 Bangladeshi Taka for the NGO sector.¹⁰ The probabilities of taking these jobs with no benefit are estimated and used as a baseline, resulting in 0.27 (or 27 percent) for the public sector, 0.31 (or 31 percent) for private,

¹⁰ The average youth wage levels for public, private, and self-employment sectors are based on the School-to-work transition survey by ILO (2013). Due to lack of sample respondents for youth NGO workers in 2013 SWTS-Bangladesh, its mean wage was estimated based on 2014 JICA Job Preference Survey in Bangladesh.

0.19 (or 19 percent) for self-employment, and 0.25 (or 25 percent) for NGOs. Taking into account the average wage levels for youth, private sector jobs are found to be the most attractive, followed by jobs in the public sector. Given that the provision of better job attributes would increase the job uptake rates, this study examines the extent to which an additional benefit could contribute to an improvement in the attractiveness of the NGO employment. Among job attributes reported in Table 8 that significantly influence a job choice, this study reveals that offering “education opportunities/possibility of upgrading qualifications” contributes to an increase in job uptake rates by more than 30 percentage points, though its effect slightly shrinks for young staff who have completed tertiary education. The provision of “support for health insurance” also significantly raises the NGO job uptake rate by more than 20 percentage points, regardless of gender and whether staff completed secondary or tertiary education. Requiring less overtime work increases retention rates by 10 percentage points for female employees, whereas it raises the rates by 4 percentage points for males. This job attribute led to a significant but relatively smaller increase in the uptake rates.

7. Conclusion

NGOs, which have flourished in Bangladesh, can hire people from all backgrounds because the NGOs operate in a wide range of areas such as social businesses, health, and education. Social businesses need to hire accountants, marketing personnel, business development executives, and managers, just as private enterprises do. Health-based organizations need medical staff such as doctors, nurses, and midwives. In the field of education, many teachers work at NGO primary schools. Moreover, a lot of field-workers work directly with clients in service delivery.

Regarding employment status and the positions of employment, the larger NGOs depend on full-time or part-time salaried staff to fill the positions of program/professional employees. Management employees are split between full-time salaried staff and full-time

volunteers. Clerical and finance-based jobs in larger NGOs are done completely by full-time salaried employees. Smaller NGOs depend slightly more on full-time volunteers in the program or professional category, but hire full-time staff for management, finance, and clerical jobs. All in all, there is an abundance of full-time paid jobs in the NGO sector in Bangladesh. The NGO sector provides a platform for young Bangladeshi professionals to have careers (Abuwala 2015).

This survey was conducted in five cities of Bangladesh (Chittagong, Dhaka, Khulna, Rajshahi, and Sylhet), interviewing university students and young staff working for NGOs. The study attempted to examine the determinants of job preference and satisfaction among the youth surveyed and analyze factors influencing their job choices. Empirical analyses reveal that job satisfaction is positively correlated with wages, gender, employment status, work location, and NGO size with statistical significance. The findings of the survey also reveal that among highly educated youth, as well as current NGO staff, job opportunities in the NGO sector are regarded as less attractive than those in the public or private sectors, mainly due to lower wages. The study sought effective policy options for the development of more attractive NGO sector employment opportunities for young people in Bangladesh, particularly highly educated youth as the NGO sector could potentially absorb a greater number of professionals and technical workers.

Using a discrete choice experiment (DCE), we also gauge youth job preferences and examine the extent to which each job attribute influences job choice, as well as how adjusting these attributes could improve job attractiveness in the NGO sector. A key finding is that although the vast majority of highly educated young people appear to attach an importance to the level of wages when they choose a job, they are willing to trade wages for non-wage fringe benefits provided by the NGOs, particularly for support for education and upgrading qualifications and support for health insurance. We also find that providing housing benefits is not an effective fringe benefit. Particularly, this benefit is provided by small-sized NGOs.

Requiring less overtime work significantly increases retention rates more among female employees.

Given the hard budget constraints confronting many NGOs, the findings of this research enable all NGOs to improve human resource management practices by efficiently allocating their limited budget for staff welfare, and to lower high turnover rates. Staff members are the NGOs' most important asset for understanding the needs of local clients and delivering products and services to them. As Ahmad (2007) concludes based on a survey of field-workers in Bangladesh's NGOs, all NGOs should pursue policies that promote staff welfare. Also, donors should demand that NGOs improve their human resource management practices to ensure justice to their staff, particularly their field-workers, like employees in any other organization, to maintain and improve their motivation and performance. For example, among the NGOs interviewed in this research, there are organizations providing housing benefits, which is found to be an ineffective policy for staff welfare. Rather than implementing such ineffective policies, NGOs should, in the interest of a more stable, committed, and motivated workforce, review the needs and desires of their employees, including opportunities for education and upgrading skills and qualifications. More effective staff welfare policies such as these must be applied to recruit and retain qualified young people. More broadly, research is also needed to examine youth employment issues, particularly youth job preference, not only in NGO sector but also in the public, private, and self-employment sectors.

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Tables and Figures

Table 1: Sample size of JICA Job Preference Survey for Bangladeshi university students, 2014 (number of respondents)

Location	Public university			Private university		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Chittagong	120	60	60	125	67	58
Dhaka	180	91	89	120	57	63
Khulna	186	91	95	62	33	29
Rajshahi	125	62	63	121	62	59
Sylhet	121	61	60	125	62	63
Total	732	365	367	553	281	272

Source: 2014 JICA Job Preference Survey in Bangladesh

Table 2: Sample size of JICA Job Preference Survey for Bangladeshi NGO staff aged 29 years old and less, 2014 (number of respondents)

Location	Large NGO (more than 1,000 offices)			Medium NGO (100-1,000 offices)			Small NGO (less than 100 offices)		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Chittagong	60	30	30	64	34	30	121	62	59
Dhaka	60	30	30	66	38	28	67	37	30
Khulna	62	31	31	61	29	32	120	54	66
Rajshahi	59	30	29	57	29	28	117	60	57
Sylhet	61	30	31	63	33	30	120	60	60
Total	302	151	151	311	163	148	545	273	272

Source: 2014 JICA Job Preference Survey in Bangladesh

Table 3: Actual wages of full-time Bangladeshi NGO staff aged 29 years old and less, 2014 (in Bangladeshi Taka)

NGO size	Type of full-time NGO staff					
	Officer			Field worker		
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Max	Mean	Std. Dev.	Max
Large NGO (more than 1,000 offices)	23,578	12,105	65,000	9,731	3,728	17,725
Medium NGO (100-1,000 offices)	12,288	3,578	24,000	10,397	2,170	25,000
Small NGO (less than 100 offices)	12,967	5,425	31,000	8,210	3,172	15,000

Source: 2014 JICA Job Preference Survey in Bangladesh

Table 4: Descriptive statistics

<i>Panel A:</i>						
<i>Job preference/satisfaction</i>		Description	Obs.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min Max
want to quit the current job	Binary variable that takes the value 1 if the respondent wants to quit his/her current job.		1,158	0.541	0.499	0 1
want to stay in the current job	Binary variable that takes the value 1 if the respondent wants to stay in his/her current job.		1,158	0.459	0.499	0 1
want to quit not searching for a new job	Binary variable that takes the value 1 if the respondent wants to quit his/her current job but not searching for a new job.		1,158	0.054	0.227	0 1
want to quit searching for a new job	Binary variable that takes the value 1 if the respondent wants to quit his/her current job and is searching for a new job.		1,158	0.486	0.500	0 1
job satisfaction	Job satisfaction: 0 (most unsatisfied) to 9 (most satisfied).		1,158	6.056	1.692	1 9
<i>Panel B:</i>						
<i>Individual characteristics</i>		Description	Obs.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min Max
lnwages	The natural logarithm of the monthly wages in Bangladeshi Taka.		1,158	9.137	0.658	6.9 11.1
female	Binary variable that takes the value 1 if the respondent is female.		1,158	0.493	0.500	0 1
completed tertiary	Binary variable that takes the value 1 if the respondent completed tertiary education.		1,158	0.439	0.496	0 1
temporary	Binary variable that takes the value 1 if the respondent works as an employee with temporary employment status.		1,158	0.239	0.427	0 1
part time	Binary variable that takes the value 1 if the respondent works as a part time employee.		1,158	0.051	0.220	0 1
heavy work	Binary variable that takes the value 1 if the respondent works more than 10 hours per day.		1,158	0.419	0.494	0 1
bullying order	Binary variable that takes the value 1 if the respondent was made do things he/she didn't want to do by others at work place.		1,158	0.047	0.213	0 1
tease	Binary variable that takes the value 1 if the respondent was made fun of or called names at work place.		1,158	0.046	0.209	0 1
being professionally ostracized	Binary variable that takes the value 1 if the respondent was left out of activities by other staff at work place.		1,158	0.039	0.193	0 1
verbal abuse	Binary variable that takes the value 1 if the respondent was exposed to verbal abuse and/or confrontation with their clients at work place.		1,158	0.288	0.453	0 1
physical threat	Binary variable that takes the value 1 if the respondent was exposed to the thread of physical harm or injury at work place within the past 1 year.		1,158	0.044	0.205	0 1
altruism	Importance to help people around me and to make them happy: 4 (Agree strongly), 3 (Agree a little), 2 (Disagree a little), and 1 (Disagree strongly).		1,158	3.917	0.353	1 4
personal reputation	Importance to become hugely successful and to have others recognize me: 4 (Agree strongly), 3 (Agree a little), 2 (Disagree a little), and 1 (Disagree strongly).		1,158	2.735	1.245	1 4
work centrality	Measured by a single question related to the importance of work in life: 4 (Agree strongly), 3 (Agree a little), 2 (Disagree a little), and 1 (Disagree strongly). See Mishra, Ghosh, and Kanungo (1990).		1,158	3.347	1.000	1 4
passion for work	Measured by a single question related to passion for work: 4 (Agree strongly), 3 (Agree a little), 2 (Disagree a little), and 1 (Disagree strongly).		1,158	3.738	0.574	1 4
achievement	Measured as the sum of five questions related to the satisfaction obtained from doing well and a feeling of competition with others. Each question ranges from 4 (Agree strongly) to 1 (Disagree strongly). The aggregated figures are standardized into the range of [0,1]. See McClelland (1985).		1,158	3.741	0.341	1 4
power motivation	Measured as the sum of three questions related to planning and deciding what other people should do and to control over events. Each question ranges from 4 (Agree strongly) to 1 (Disagree strongly). The aggregated figures are standardized into the range of [0,1]. See McClelland (1985).		1,158	2.849	0.832	1 4

Source: 2014 JICA Job Preference Survey in Bangladesh

Table 4: Descriptive statistics (*continued*)

<i>Panel C:</i>		Obs.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
<i>NGO size dummy</i>						
	Description					
large	Binary variable that takes the value 1 if the respondent works for the NGO with more than 1,000 branch offices.	1,158	0.261	0.439	0	1
medium	Binary variable that takes the value 1 if the respondent works for the NGO with 100-1,000 offices.	1,158	0.269	0.443	0	1
small (base category)	Binary variable that takes the value 1 if the respondent works for the NGO with less than 100 offices.	1,158	0.471	0.499	0	1
<i>Panel D:</i>		Obs.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
<i>Location dummy</i>						
	Description					
dhaka (base category)	Binary variable that takes the value 1 if the respondent works in Dhaka.	1,158	0.167	0.373	0	1
chittagong	Binary variable that takes the value 1 if the respondent works in Chittagong.	1,158	0.212	0.409	0	1
khulna	Binary variable that takes the value 1 if the respondent works in Khulna.	1,158	0.210	0.407	0	1
rajshahi	Binary variable that takes the value 1 if the respondent works in Rajshahi.	1,158	0.201	0.401	0	1
sylhet	Binary variable that takes the value 1 if the respondent works in Sylhet.	1,158	0.211	0.408	0	1

Source: 2014 JICA Job Preference Survey in Bangladesh

Table 5: Determinants of job preference and job satisfaction among Bangladeshi NGO staff aged 29 years old and less, 2014

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	Probit	Multinomial Probit	Multinomial Probit	Multinomial Probit	OLS	Ordered Probit
	want to quit the current job (dummy)	want to stay in the current job (dummy)	want to quit not searching for a new job (dummy)	want to quit searching for a new job (dummy)	job satisfaction (scale 0-9)	job satisfaction (scale 0-9)
<i>Individual characteristics</i>						
lnwage (Bangladeshi Taka)	0.0653** (0.0322)	-0.0670** (0.0323)	0.0197 (0.0129)	0.0474 (0.0325)	0.3288*** (0.0888)	0.2165*** (0.0602)
female (dummy)	-0.0930*** (0.0329)	0.0909*** (0.0329)	-0.0253** (0.0126)	-0.0656** (0.0329)	0.2548** (0.1025)	0.1669** (0.0687)
completed tertiary (dummy)	0.0263 (0.0344)	-0.0301 (0.0342)	-0.0300** (0.0140)	0.0600* (0.0342)	-0.1269 (0.1025)	-0.0831 (0.0683)
temporary (dummy)	0.0871** (0.0426)	-0.0878** (0.0428)	0.0210 (0.0148)	0.0668 (0.0427)	0.1918 (0.1192)	0.1264 (0.0793)
part time (dummy)	-0.0256 (0.0790)	0.0242 (0.0792)	-0.0025 (0.0344)	-0.0217 (0.0805)	0.4385* (0.2430)	0.3122* (0.1619)
heavy work (dummy)	-0.0289 (0.0433)	0.0296 (0.0432)	-0.0001 (0.0172)	-0.0294 (0.0432)	-0.5653*** (0.1415)	-0.3813*** (0.0942)
bullying order (dummy)	0.2522*** (0.0883)	-0.2539*** (0.0881)	-0.0036 (0.0260)	0.2575*** (0.0849)	-0.4102* (0.2331)	-0.2763* (0.1549)
tease (dummy)	0.0757 (0.0900)	-0.0737 (0.0897)	-0.0096 (0.0266)	0.0833 (0.0875)	-0.5628** (0.2678)	-0.3697** (0.1766)
being professionally ostracized (dummy)	0.1967** (0.0945)	-0.1908** (0.0936)	0.0361 (0.0269)	0.1547* (0.0915)	-0.2092 (0.2346)	-0.1399 (0.1562)
verbal abuse (dummy)	0.0888** (0.0355)	-0.0876** (0.0354)	0.0093 (0.0130)	0.0783** (0.0355)	-0.7488*** (0.1076)	-0.5029*** (0.0731)
physical threat (dummy)	0.1127 (0.0798)	-0.1048 (0.0792)	0.0281 (0.0243)	0.0766 (0.0779)	-0.4099* (0.2347)	-0.2693* (0.1519)
altruism (scale 1-4)	-0.0144 (0.0435)	0.0160 (0.0436)	0.0085 (0.0167)	-0.0245 (0.0437)	0.0610 (0.1431)	0.0439 (0.0947)
personal reputation (scale 1-4)	-0.0403*** (0.0129)	0.0402*** (0.0129)	0.0004 (0.0049)	-0.0406*** (0.0129)	0.0380 (0.0384)	0.0251 (0.0257)
work centrality (scale 1-4)	-0.0102 (0.0161)	0.0102 (0.0161)	0.0127** (0.0063)	-0.0229 (0.0161)	0.0741 (0.0466)	0.0464 (0.0310)
passion for work (scale 1-4)	-0.0966*** (0.0292)	0.0975*** (0.0292)	-0.0159* (0.0090)	-0.0816*** (0.0288)	0.2773*** (0.0819)	0.1881*** (0.0540)
achievement (scale 1-4)	0.1447*** (0.0498)	-0.1520*** (0.0497)	-0.0247 (0.0166)	0.1767*** (0.0498)	0.0544 (0.1588)	0.0313 (0.1066)
power motivation (scale 1-4)	0.0116 (0.0204)	-0.0130 (0.0203)	-0.0049 (0.0078)	0.0179 (0.0205)	0.2267*** (0.0596)	0.1590*** (0.0397)
<i>NGO size dummy (base: small)</i>						
large (dummy)	0.0017 (0.0404)	-0.0005 (0.0403)	0.0039 (0.0157)	-0.0034 (0.0399)	0.3117*** (0.1192)	0.2099*** (0.0794)
medium (dummy)	-0.0185 (0.0375)	0.0176 (0.0375)	-0.0062 (0.0150)	-0.0114 (0.0378)	0.1971 (0.1200)	0.1299 (0.0800)
<i>Location dummy (base: dhaka)</i>						
chittagong (dummy)	0.2175*** (0.0508)	-0.2136*** (0.0511)	0.0833*** (0.0227)	0.1302** (0.0515)	-0.6486*** (0.1649)	-0.4398*** (0.1128)
khulna (dummy)	0.1025* (0.0555)	-0.1054* (0.0557)	0.0602** (0.0244)	0.0452 (0.0564)	-0.5985*** (0.1709)	-0.4152*** (0.1158)
rajshahi (dummy)	0.2714*** (0.0539)	-0.2760*** (0.0543)	0.0475* (0.0264)	0.2285*** (0.0545)	-0.7250*** (0.1704)	-0.4808*** (0.1162)
sylhet (dummy)	0.1267** (0.0528)	-0.1314** (0.0531)	0.0556** (0.0252)	0.0759 (0.0533)	-0.9795*** (0.1647)	-0.6671*** (0.1140)
constant					5.3038*** (1.1248)	
N	1,158	1,158	1,158	1,158	1,158	1,158

Notes: (a) standard errors are in parentheses. (b) * p<0.10, **p<0.05, *** p<0.01. (c) Marginal effects are reported for Models (1)-(4), while coefficient estimates are reported for Model (5) and Model (6). (d) The variables used in the analyses are defined in Table 4.

Source: 2014 JICA Job Preference NGO Staff Survey in Bangladesh

Table 6: Staff benefits provided by the surveyed Bangladeshi NGOs, 2014

NGO size	Type of staff benefits								
	Sick leave	Paid vacation leave	Maternity leave	Subsidized meals	Housing benefit	Bonus	Uniform	Pension fund	Health insurance
Small NGO1 (less than 100 offices)	✓	✓	✓			✓			
Small NGO2 (less than 100 offices)	✓	✓	✓			✓			
Small NGO3 (less than 100 offices)	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓			
Small NGO4 (less than 100 offices)	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓			
Small NGO5 (less than 100 offices)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓
Small NGO6 (less than 100 offices)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓
Small NGO7 (less than 100 offices)	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓		✓	
Small NGO8 (less than 100 offices)	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓			
Medium NGO (100-1,000 offices)	✓		✓		✓	✓	✓		
Large NGO (more than 1,000 offices)	✓		✓			✓	✓		✓

Note: A check mark denotes that staff benefits are provided by the surveyed Bangladeshi NGOs.

Source: 2014 JICA Job Preference Survey in Bangladesh

Table 7: Types and levels of job attributes

Variable labels	education	workload	housing	infrastructure	health	wages	sector
Attribute types	Education opportunities/ possibility of upgrading qualifications (dummy)	Workload requirements (dummy)	Housing benefit (dummy)	IT infrastructure (dummy)	Health insurance (dummy)	Monthly wages (Bangladeshi Taka)	Sector of employment (category)
Level 1 (=0)	No educational support	3 hours of extra work per day	No housing benefit	Unreliable Internet/ Mobile connection/ Electricity	No support for health insurance	12,000	Public sector agency
Level 2 (=1)	Educational support during contract	1 hour of extra work per day	Support for housing benefit	Good Internet/ Mobile connection/ Electricity	Support for health insurance	24,000	Private enterprise excluding NGOs
Level 3 (=2)						36,000	Self employment
Level 4 (=3)							NGOs

Notes: (a) Variable labels are consistent with those used for Table 8, Table 9, Figure 11, and Figure 12. (b) The variable *wages* denotes the monthly wages (measured in thousands of Bangladeshi Taka) for a specified job. The levels of wages used for the choice sets are 12,000 Bangladeshi Taka, 24,000 Bangladeshi Taka, and 36,000 Bangladeshi Taka. (c) Level 1 attributes show the base category. (d) Attributes with two levels (i.e. *education*, *workload*, *housing*, *infrastructure*, and *health*) are dummy variables. (e) Sector of employment has four categories (i.e. public sector agency, private enterprise excluding NGOs, self-employment, and NGOs).
Source: 2014 JICA Job Preference Survey in Bangladesh

Table 8: Attributes influencing a job choice among Bangladeshi NGO staff aged 29 years old and less, by gender and educational attainment subgroup in 2014

	Dependent variables: Binary variable that takes the value 1 if the respondent selects a specified job choice.				
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Total	Gender		Educational Attainment	
		Male	Female	Completed Secondary	Completed Tertiary
wages (Bangladeshi Taka, in thousand)	0.0448*** (0.0022)	0.0421*** (0.0028)	0.0475*** (0.0033)	0.0389*** (0.0035)	0.0480*** (0.0026)
education (dummy)	0.0954*** (0.0044)	0.0882*** (0.0058)	0.1031*** (0.0067)	0.1241*** (0.0069)	0.0649*** (0.0053)
workload (dummy)	0.0183*** (0.0033)	0.0088** (0.0044)	0.0291*** (0.0049)	0.0210*** (0.0051)	0.0151*** (0.0040)
housing (dummy)	-0.0004 (0.0032)	0.0043 (0.0042)	-0.0057 (0.0050)	-0.0043 (0.0051)	0.0038 (0.0039)
infrastructure (dummy)	-0.0021 (0.0032)	0.0025 (0.0042)	-0.0075 (0.0050)	-0.0082 (0.0051)	0.0037 (0.0039)
health (dummy)	0.0603*** (0.0032)	0.0607*** (0.0042)	0.0594*** (0.0048)	0.0636*** (0.0049)	0.0557*** (0.0040)
<i>sector dummy (base: public sector agency)</i>					
private enterprise excluding NGOs (dummy)	-0.0242*** (0.0049)	-0.0178*** (0.0063)	-0.0313*** (0.0075)	-0.0288*** (0.0075)	-0.0199*** (0.0060)
self-employment (dummy)	-0.0003 (0.0048)	0.0095 (0.0061)	-0.0117 (0.0075)	-0.0102 (0.0076)	0.0091 (0.0056)
NGOs (dummy)	0.0060 (0.0047)	0.0079 (0.0061)	0.0042 (0.0071)	0.0057 (0.0073)	0.0054 (0.0056)
constant	0.0818*** (0.0068)	0.0907*** (0.0092)	0.0702*** (0.0099)	0.0822*** (0.0102)	0.0756*** (0.0086)
N	27,792	14,088	13,704	15,528	12,192

Notes: (a) Attributes of job choice sets for the discrete choice experiment questionnaire are used as explanatory variables. A dependent variable denotes whether or not a respondent selects a specified job in the job preference survey. The types and levels of job attributes used in the analyses are defined in Table 7. (b) The variable *wages* is one of job attributes used, denoting the monthly wages (measured in thousands of Bangladeshi Taka) for a specified job. The levels of wages used for the choice sets are 12,000 Bangladeshi Taka, 24,000 Bangladeshi Taka, and 36,000 Bangladeshi Taka. (c) *education* is a dummy variable that takes a value of one if a specified job offers education opportunities/possibility of upgrading qualifications, and zero otherwise. (d) *workload* is a dummy variable indicating whether a specified job requires, on average, 3 hours or 1 hour of extra work per day. (e) *housing* is a dummy variable denoting whether or not a specified job provides housing benefits. (f) *infrastructure* is a dummy variable indicating whether supplies of internet, mobile connection, and electricity at the work place are good or unreliable. (g) *health* is a dummy variable denoting whether or not a specified job provides support for health insurance. (h) *sector dummy* denotes whether or not a specified job is in the following sector of employment (i.e. public sector agency, private enterprise excluding NGOs, self-employment, and NGOs). (i) The estimation results are reported for all respondents in Model (1), and by gender of respondents in Model (2) and Model (3). The results are estimated separately for respondents who only finished secondary education as a highest educational attainment in Model (4) and those who completed tertiary education in Model (5). (j) * p<0.10, **p<0.05, *** p<0.01. Source: 2014 JICA Job Preference Survey in Bangladesh

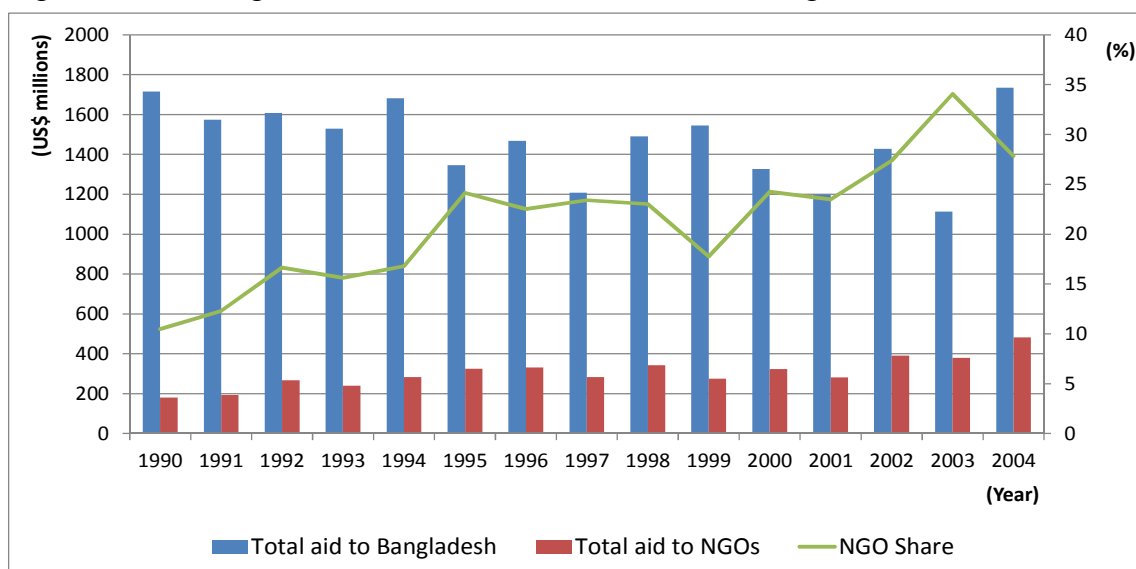
Table 9: Willingness to pay (WTP) estimates among Bangladeshi NGO staff aged 29 years old and less, 2014 (in Bangladeshi Taka)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Total	Gender		Educational Attainment	
		Male	Female	Completed Secondary	Completed Tertiary
education (dummy)	21,310 [17,826 24,794]	20,944 [16,165 25,723]	21,712 [16,635 26,789]	31,873 [23,557 40,188]	13,531 [10,462 16,600]
workload (dummy)	4,081 [2,638 5,524]	2,089 [76 4,103]	6,120 [3,997 8,243]	5,404 [2,777 8,031]	3,156 [1,527 4,784]
housing (dummy)	-84 [-1,505 1,336]	1,033 [-944 3,009]	-1,196 [-3,250 858]	-1,115 [-3,678 1,448]	791 [-817 2,399]
infrastructure (dummy)	-476 [-1,892 941]	593 [-1,375 2,560]	-1,576 [-3,627 476]	-2,106 [-4,683 471]	772 [-832 2,376]
health (dummy)	13,480 [11,433 15,527]	14,406 [11,479 17,333]	12,517 [9,665 15,368]	16,323 [12,145 20,500]	11,602 [9,495 13,708]
<i>sector dummy (base: public sector agency)</i>					
private enterprise excluding NGOs (dummy)	-5,409 [-7,490 -3,328]	-4,225 [-7,071 -1,379]	-6,585 [-9,636 -3,535]	-7,397 [-11,285 -3,510]	-4,151 [-6,463 -1,840]
self-employment (dummy)	-70 [-2,160 2,020]	2,261 [-602 5,125]	-2,469 [-5,566 628]	-2,627 [-6,495 1,241]	1,895 [-452 4,243]
NGOs (dummy)	1,346 [-748 3,440]	1,873 [-1,060 4,807]	879 [-2,110 3,868]	1,468 [-2,299 5,234]	1,121 [-1,242 3,484]
N	27,792	14,088	13,704	15,528	12,192

Notes: (a) The WTP estimates show, on average, how much of monthly wages respondents are willing to forgo for another job attribute. Numbers in square brackets are 95 percent confidence intervals. (b) *education* is a dummy variable that takes a value of one if a specified job offer education opportunities/possibility of upgrading qualifications, and zero otherwise. This WTP estimate is the largest among the staff who only completed secondary education. (c) *workload* is a dummy variable indicating whether a specified job requires, on average, 3 hours or 1 hour of extra work per day. Female staff show the higher WTP estimates. (d) *housing* is a dummy variable denoting whether or not a specified job provides housing benefits. This estimate was found to be not statistically significant. (e) *infrastructure* is a dummy variable indicating whether supplies of internet, mobile connection, and electricity at the work place are good or unreliable. This estimate was found to be not statistically significant. (f) *health* is a dummy variable denoting whether or not a specified job provides support for health insurance. This WTP estimate is the largest among the staff who only completed secondary education. (g) *sector dummy* denotes whether or not a specified job is in the following sector of employment (i.e. public sector agency, private enterprise excluding NGOs, self-employment, and NGOs). With regard to the WTP estimate for private enterprise excluding NGOs, the staff who are female or less educated show the lower estimates than their counterparts, meaning that they are reluctant to take private sector jobs compared to the public sector. No significant differences in the WTP estimates were found for self-employment and NGOs compared to the public sector.

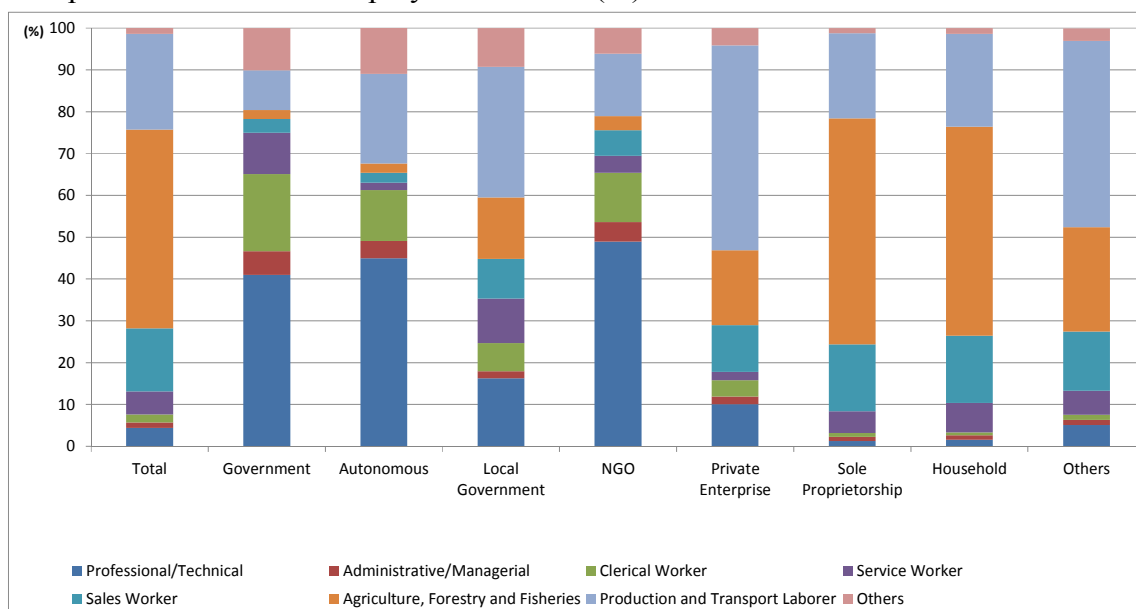
Source: 2014 JICA Job Preference Survey in Bangladesh

Figure 1: Increasing trends in the share of aid to NGOs in Bangladesh, 1990–2004



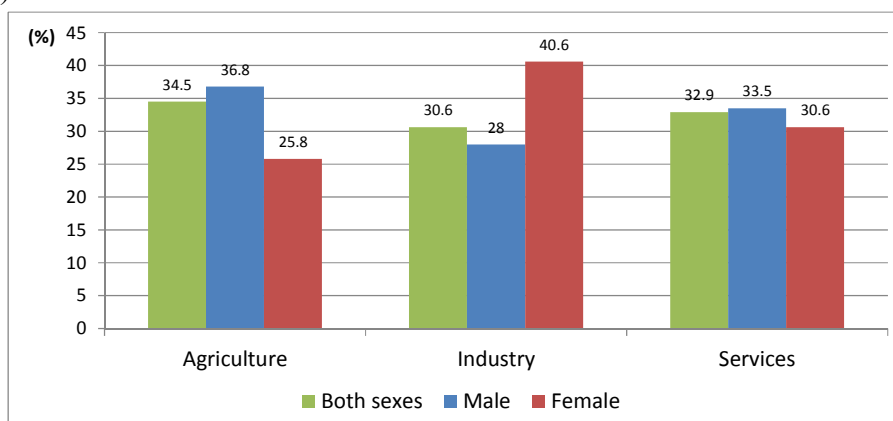
Note: The NGO share is calculated by dividing the total aid to NGOs by the total aid to Bangladesh.
 Source: Authors' calculation based on Table 3.1 in World Bank (2006)

Figure 2: Share of employed persons aged 15 years and over in Bangladesh, by major occupation and sector of employment in 2010(%)



Note: Employed persons are defined as all persons who worked for pay, profit, or family gain for at least one hour in the survey week plus those who are temporarily absent from their jobs.
 Source: Author's calculation based on Table 4.6 in the Report on Labour Force Survey 2010, p.51

Figure 3: Share of employed youth aged 15–29 in Bangladesh, by sector and gender in 2013 (%)

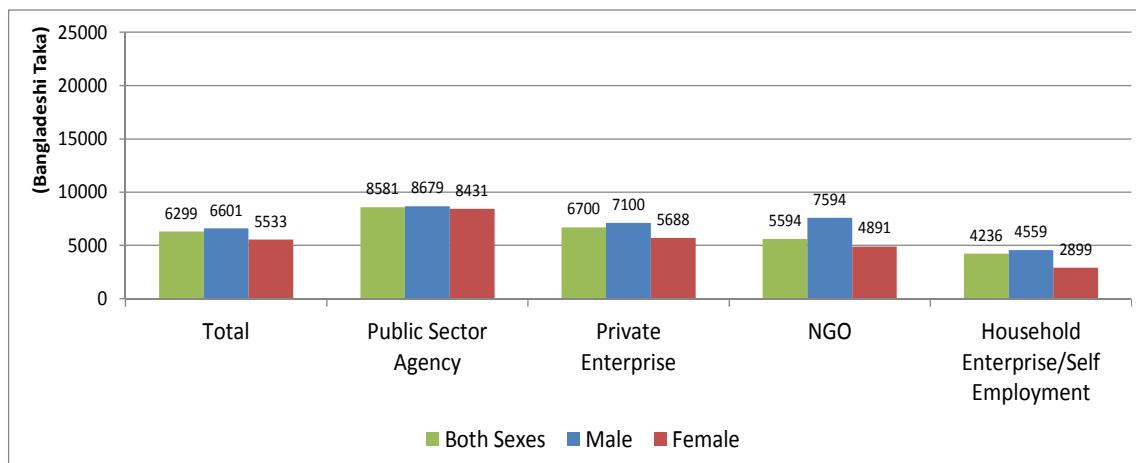


Note: Employed youth are defined as young people aged 15-29 who worked for pay, profit, or family gain for at least one hour in the survey week plus those who are temporarily absent from their jobs.

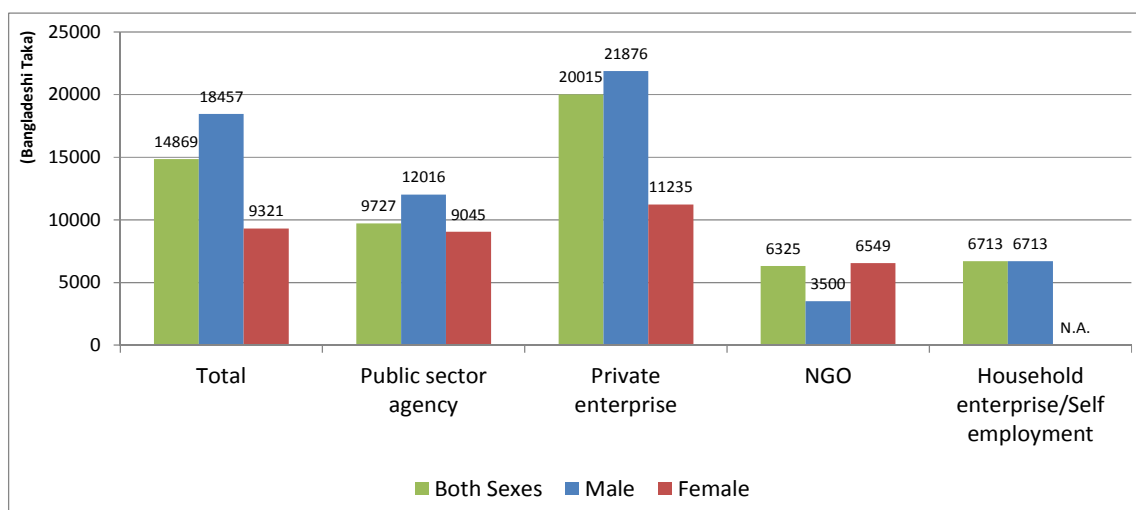
Source: ILO (2014)

Figure 4: Average monthly wages for wage and salaried workers among Bangladeshi youth aged 15–29, by gender and ownership of employment in 2013 (in Bangladeshi Taka)

(1) Youth Total



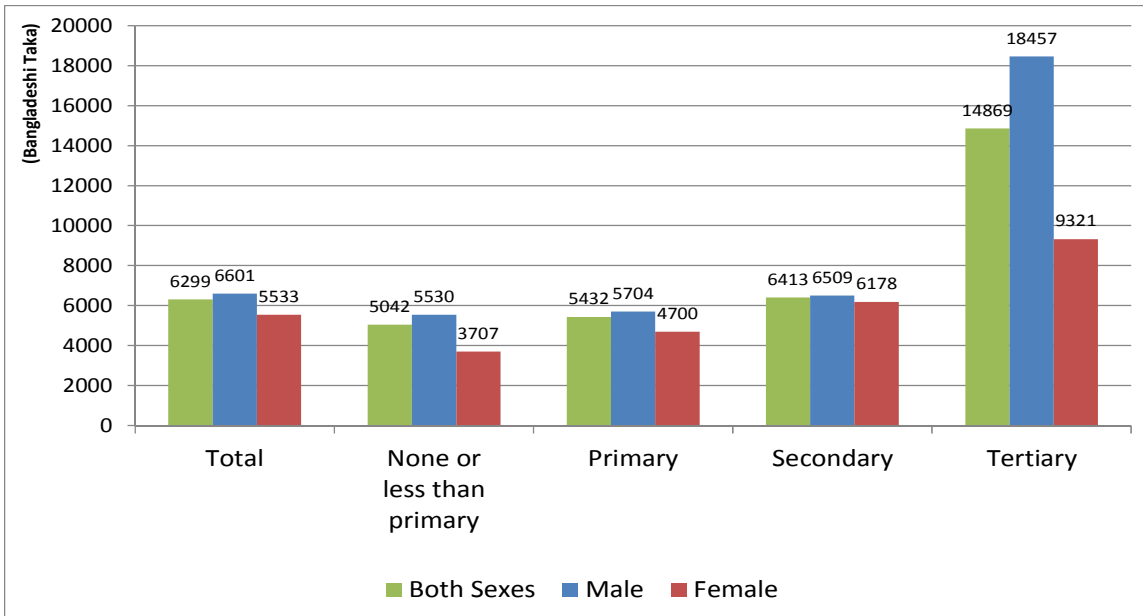
(2) Educated Youth



Notes: (a) Youth are defined as a young people aged 15–29, while educated youth are the youth who have completed tertiary education. (b) Due to the limited sample sizes, the figures might not be representative for the educated youth working in NGO and Household enterprise/Self-employment.

Source: Author's calculation based on SWTS-Bangladesh, 2013

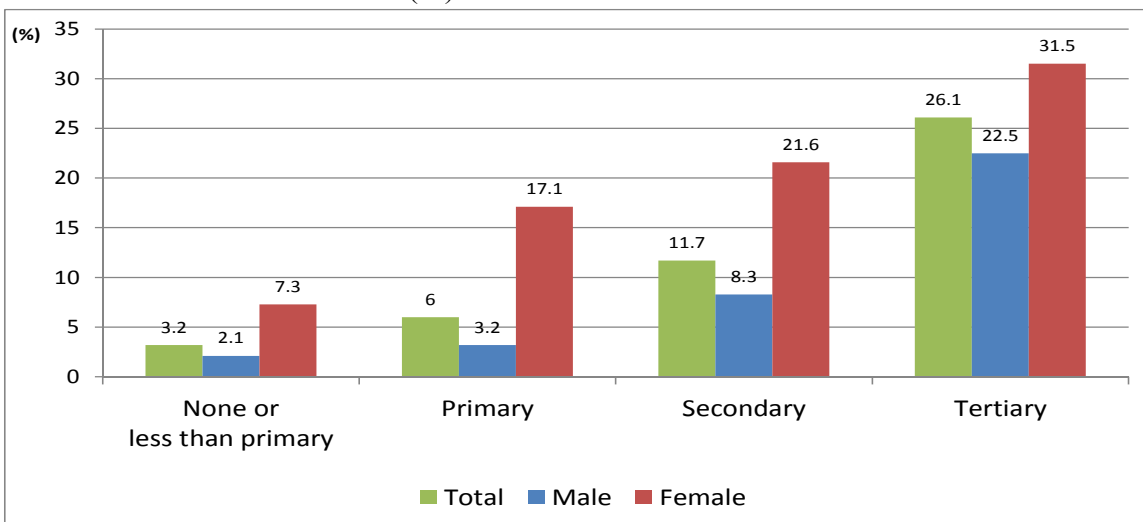
Figure 5: Average monthly wages of wage and salaried workers among Bangladeshi youth aged 15–29, by gender and level of completed education in 2013 (in Bangladeshi Taka)



Note: Youth are defined as a young people aged 15–29.

Source: Author’s calculation based on SWTS-Bangladesh, 2013

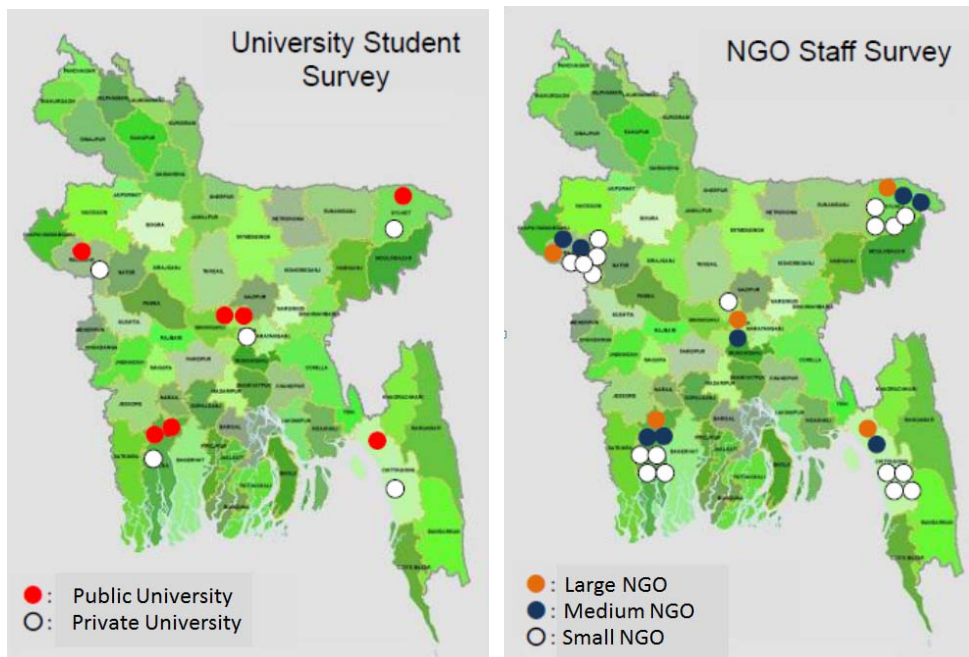
Figure 6: Unemployment rates among Bangladeshi youth aged 15–29, by level of educational attainment in 2013 (%)



Notes: (a) Youth are defined as a young people aged 15–29. (b) Youth unemployment rate is defined as number of youth who were: (1) without work; (2) currently available for work; and (3) seeking work as a percentage of the total labor force.

Source: ILO (2014)

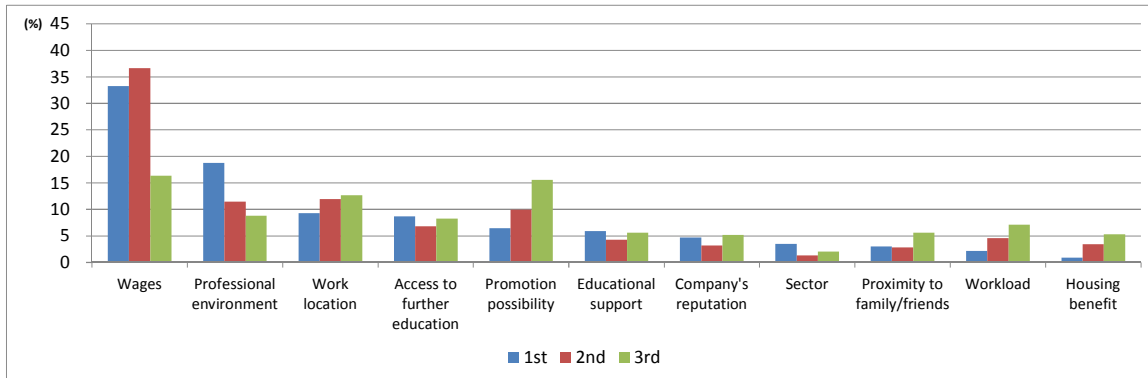
Figure 7: Survey locations of JICA Job Preference Survey in Bangladesh, 2014



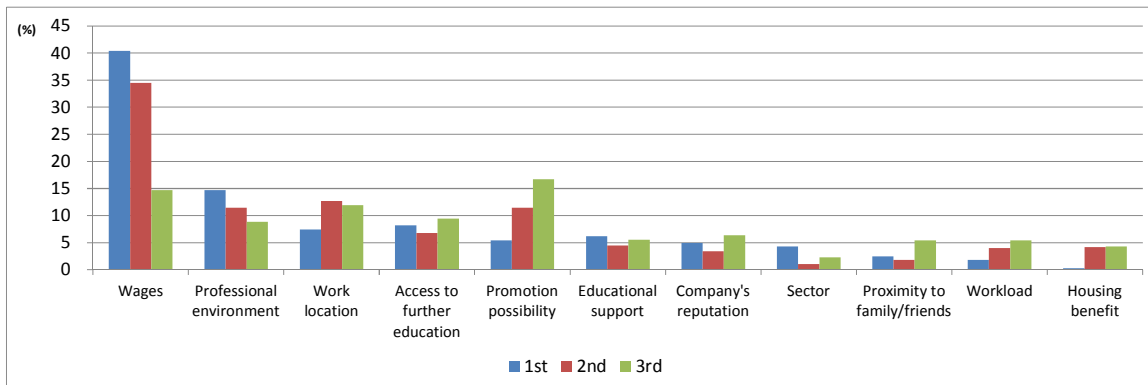
Source: The maps were made by Young Consultants.

Figure 8: Important attributes influencing job choices among Bangladeshi university students, by gender in 2014 (%)

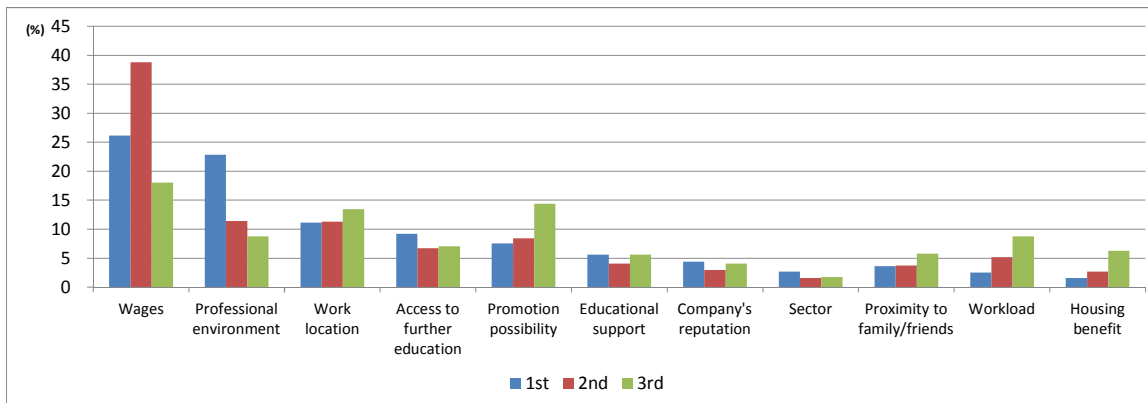
(a) Both Sexes



(b) Male



(c) Female

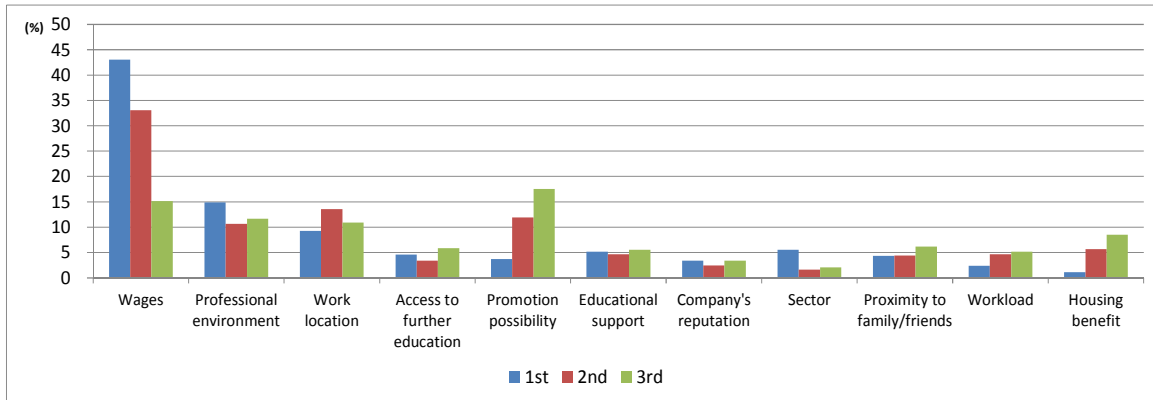


Notes: (a) This figure shows the first, second, and third important attributes influencing a respondent when he/she chooses a job. (b) Important attributes influencing job choice reported here are: wages; professional environment; work location; access to further education; promotion possibility; educational support such as education opportunities/possibility of upgrading qualifications or skills; company's reputation; sector; proximity to family/friends; workload; and housing benefit.

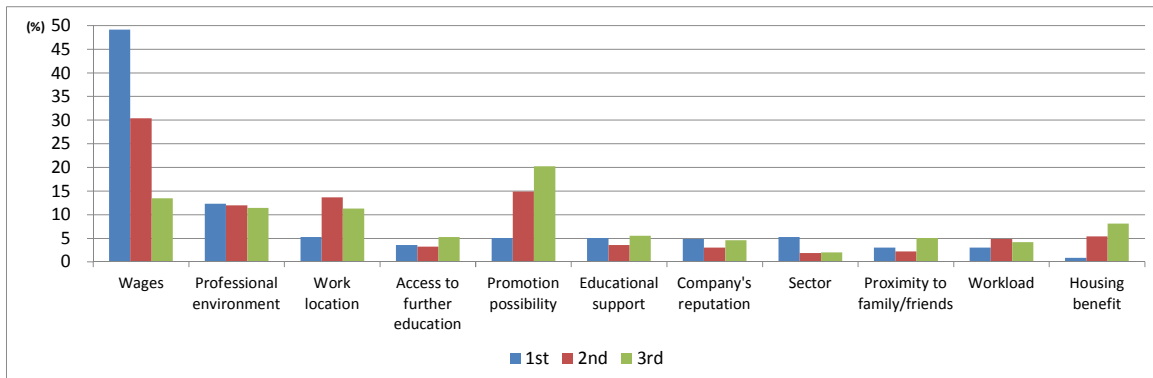
Source: 2014 JICA Job Preference Survey in Bangladesh

Figure 9: Important attributes influencing job choices among Bangladeshi NGO staff aged 29 years old and less, by gender in 2014 (%)

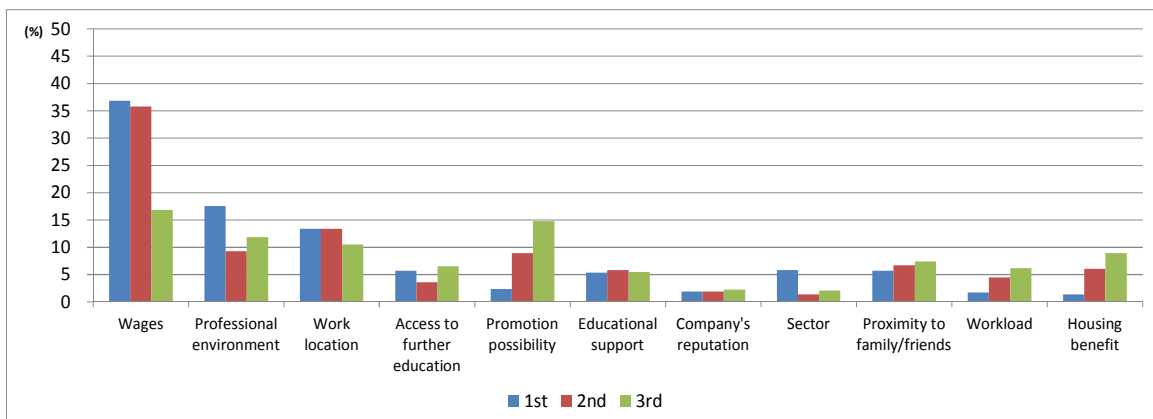
(a) Both Sexes



(b) Male



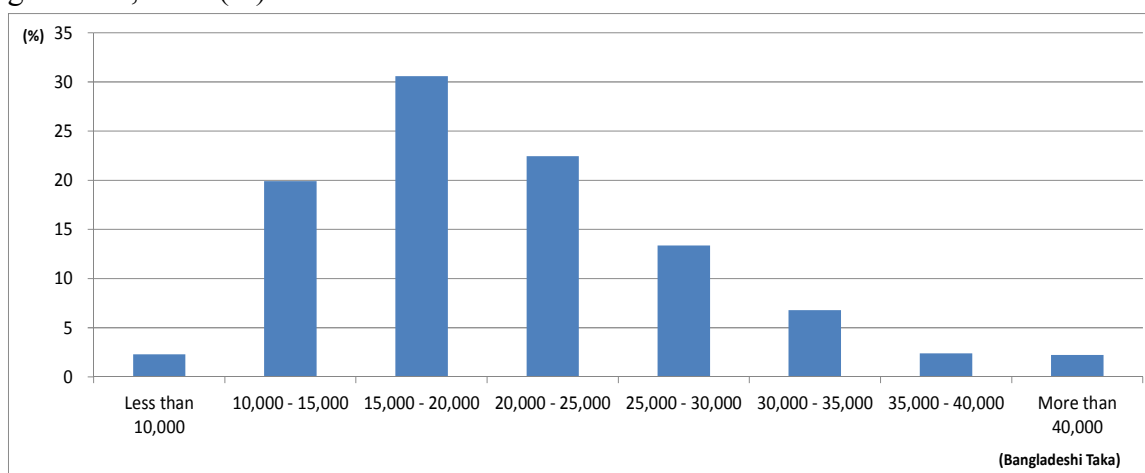
(c) Female



Notes: (a) This figure shows the first, second, and third important attributes influencing a respondent when he/she chooses a job. (b) Important attributes influencing job choice reported here are: wages; professional environment; work location; access to further education; promotion possibility; educational support such as education opportunities/possibility of upgrading qualifications or skills; company's reputation; sector; proximity to family/friends; workload; and housing benefit.

Source: 2014 JICA Job Preference Survey in Bangladesh

Figure 10: Bangladeshi university students' expected monthly wages for fresh graduates, 2014 (%)



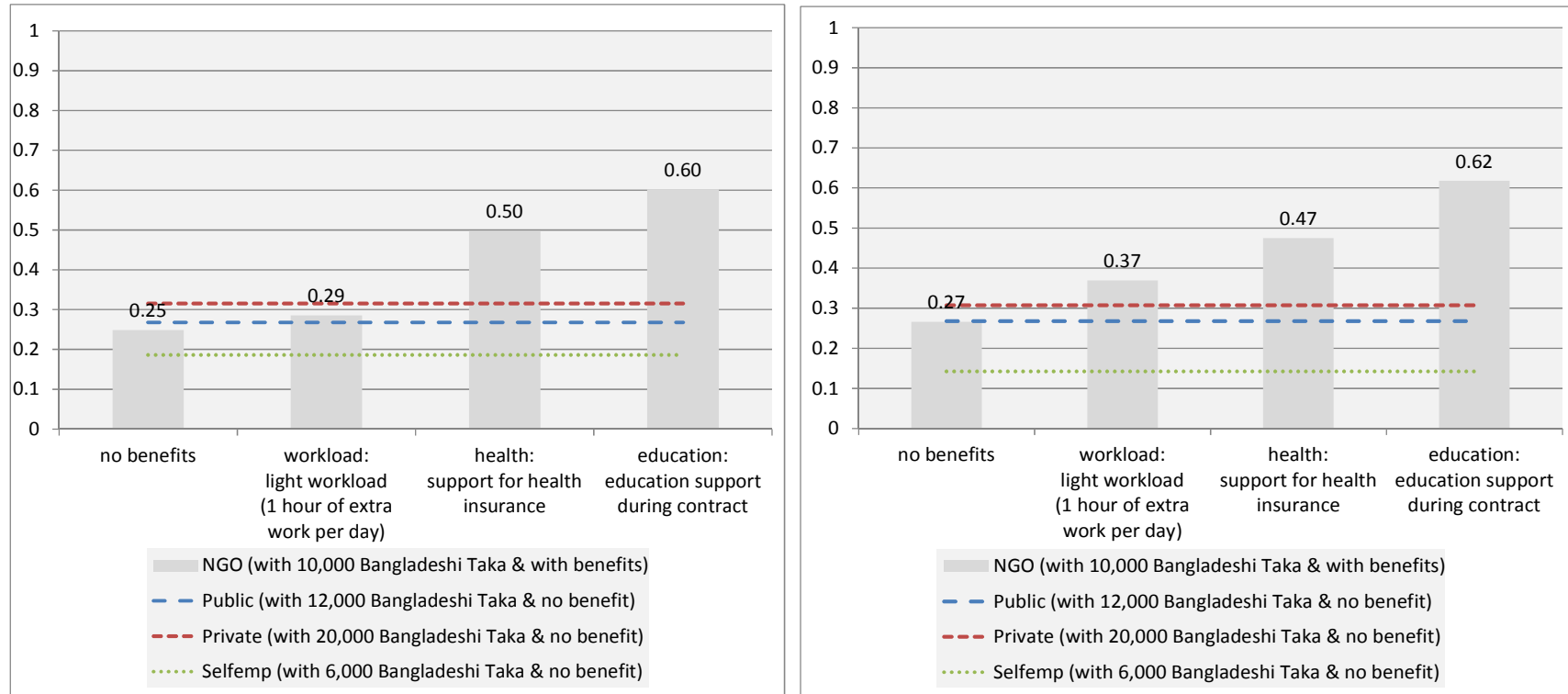
Notes: (a) The expected monthly wages are reported in Bangladeshi Taka. (b) 29 university student respondents answered "Don't know."

Source: 2014 JICA Job Preference Student Survey in Bangladesh

Figure 11: Job uptake rates among Bangladeshi NGO staff aged 29 years old and less, by gender in 2014

(a) Male

(b) Female



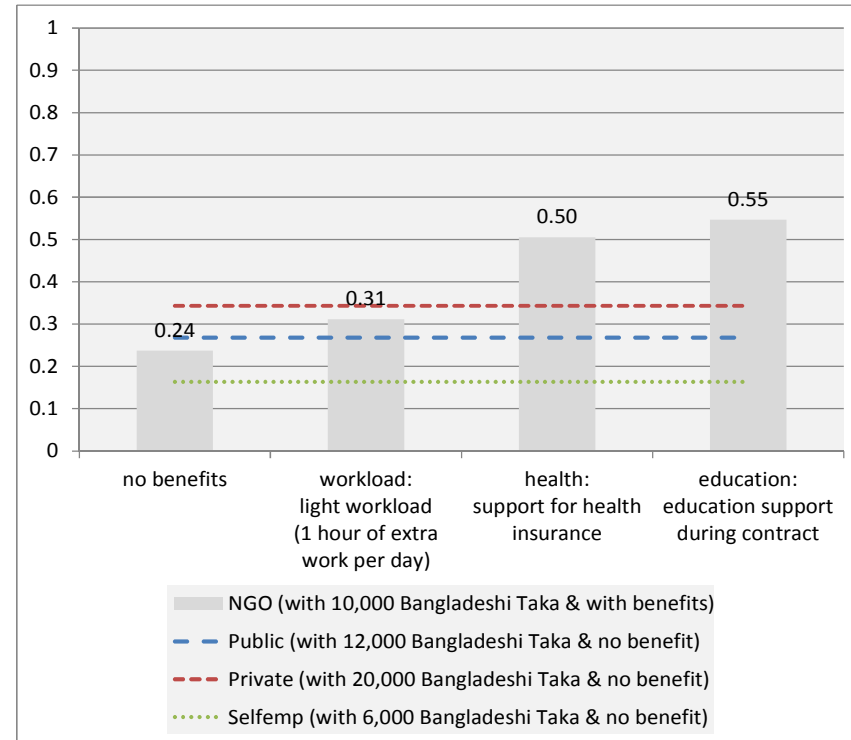
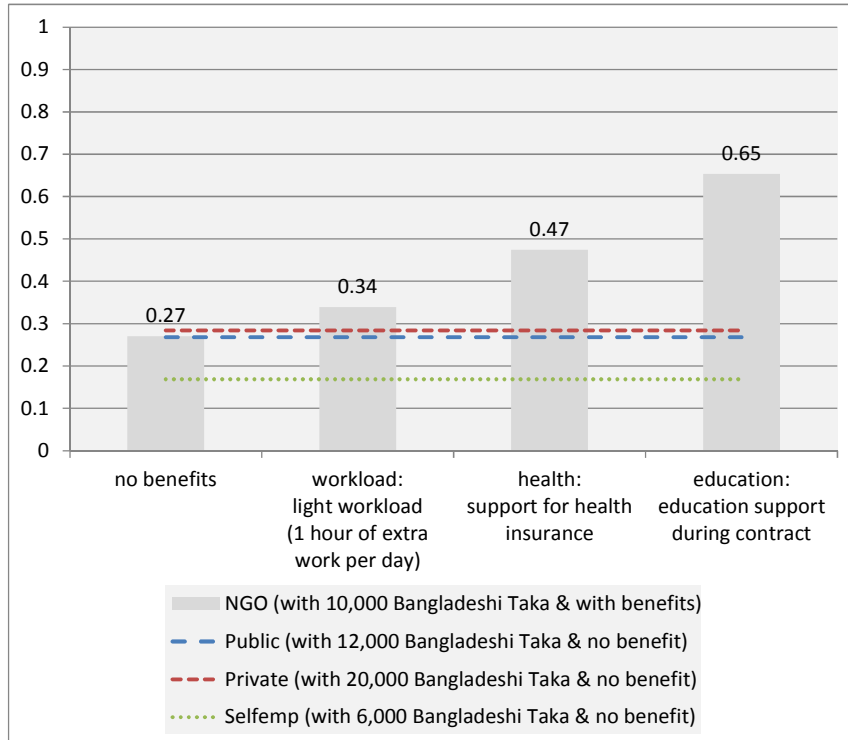
Notes: (a) The types and levels of job attributes used in the analyses are defined in Table 7. (b) *education* is a dummy variable that takes a value of one if a specified job offer education opportunities/possibility of upgrading qualifications, and zero otherwise. (c) *workload* is a dummy variable indicating whether a specified job requires, on average, 3 hours or 1 hour of extra work per day. (d) *health* is a dummy variable denoting whether or not a specified job provides support for health insurance.

Source: 2014 JICA Job Preference Survey in Bangladesh

Figure 12: Job uptake rates among Bangladeshi NGO staff aged 29 years old and less, by level of completed education in 2014

(a) Completed Secondary

(b) Completed Tertiary



Notes: (a) The types and levels of job attributes used in the analyses are defined in Table 7. (b) *education* is a dummy variable that takes a value of one if a specified job offer education opportunities/possibility of upgrading qualifications, and zero otherwise. (c) *workload* is a dummy variable indicating whether a specified job requires, on average, 3 hours or 1 hour of extra work per day. (d) *health* is a dummy variable denoting whether or not a specified job provides support for health insurance.

Source: 2014 JICA Job Preference Survey in Bangladesh

Abstract (in Japanese)

要約

若年失業は、多くの途上国において労働市場ならびに社会における重要な課題となっている。中でも、高学歴の若年層における高い失業率が懸念されており、バングラデシュも例外ではない。バングラデシュでは、NGO が活躍の場を広げ、貧困削減、保健・教育などの社会指標の改善のみならず、若年層のキャリア形成においても重要な役割を果たしている。NGO セクターは、若者に多くの就職口を提供している一方で、従業員の離職率が高く、意欲と能力のある人材確保が困難な状況にある。本研究では、バングラデシュの大学生と若手 NGO 職員を対象に、職業選好と仕事の満足度の決定要因についてインタビュー調査を実施した。実証分析の結果、賃金、性別、労働形態、ロケーション、NGO の規模が、仕事の満足度と統計的に有意な相関関係があることが分かった。さらに、離散選択実験 (Discrete Choice Experiment) を用いて、若年層の職業選択に影響を与える要因を測定し、NGO セクターの雇用機会をより魅力的にし得る福利厚生について検証した。調査の結果、教育・資格取得への補助が従業員の定着率を 30 ポイント以上高め、医療保険補助が定着率を 20 ポイント以上高める効果があることが明らかとなった。また、多くの小規模 NGO が提供している住宅補助は、NGO 従業員の定着率を高めるために効果的な付加給付 (fringe benefit) であるという証拠は得られなかった。残業が要求されない仕事は、女性従業員の定着率を 10 ポイント増加させ、男性従業員での増加分 (4 ポイント) より高い。本研究の結果を踏まえれば、厳しい予算制約に直面している NGO でも、従業員の福利厚生費を効率的に配分することで離職率を下げる事が可能である。従業員の雇用条件に対するニーズと要求を NGO がより深く理解し、福利厚生の効果を検証することで、意欲と能力のある人材の確保につながる。



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