Iraq
Human Development Report **2014**

Empowered lives.
Resilient nations.

Iraqi Youth
Challenges and Opportunities

Iraq
Human Development
Report **2014**

Iraqi Youth
Challenges and Opportunities

Iraqi youth draw their dreams on the T-walls

First Published 2014
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Ministry of Planning
And Baytal Hikma
Iraq

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Preface

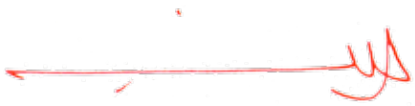
With the Iraqi government's adoption of the National Development Plan 2013–2017 and before it the National Employment Policy and National Education Strategy – and with the launch of the National Youth Strategy and this National Human Development Report (NHDR) 2014, which focuses on opportunities and challenges related to youth development – a promising foundation is being laid for the empowerment of the youth. These national efforts however depend on two things: first, actual implementation of the plans. Second, transforming the role of the government into a constructive role that realizes the potential of youth empowerment. Only then do the youth's ambitions remain connected to their own efforts and perseverance.

Because of our belief in the youth, we have engaged them in the whole process of preparing this document and later in the review workshops. Their contribution has revealed how much energy, resourcefulness, and literal potential the youth have. Their observations and interventions have informed the NHDR, positively affecting its findings and recommendations. We firmly believe that engaging the youth in other activities would reveal this energy, which has been intently marginalized for decades and has often been turned into something problematic rather than something that is part of the solution. While the role of the youth in the advancement of Iraqi society was neglected in the past, today's authorities should exploit this national wealth and turn it into an effective, productive resource, as Iraqi people have proved creative and innovative whenever decent work conditions are in place.

Through this NHDR, the Ministry of Planning reconfirms that the freedom of expression of authors' and experts' views and the absolute transparency with which youth opinions, visions, and aspirations have been presented have led to analyses, conclusions, and policies that will hopefully be useful for human development in Iraq in general and for the youth in particular.

The ministry's partnership approach to the development of this report, including the financing of some events and activities, particularly the panel discussions with young people in 12 governorates, highlights the willingness to cooperate in supporting such great efforts.

We extend our thanks and gratitude to all those who have contributed to this report: the chief author, the national coordinator, the Kurdistan Region coordinator, authors, readers, experts, reviewers, technicians, researchers, and the Youth Team. We also express our appreciation for the parties who have supported this work throughout: the United Nations Development Programme (Head Office and Iraq Office), the Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia, and Bayt Alhikma.



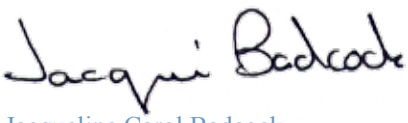
Dr. Ali Yusuf Al-Shukry

Minister of Planning

UNDP Foreword

The Iraq NHDR 2014 was in its final stages when the current crisis in the country began. On 9 June 2014 the city of Mosul fell to the Islamic State terrorist organization with armed groups taking control of large swathes of Iraq's governorates of Ninewa, Salah Al-Din, and Diyala. Since January large areas of the Anbar governorate have been under the control of armed groups. This has led to massive internal displacement, and Iraq is now contending with one of the largest Internally Displaced Population (IDP) in the world. Currently the Office of the Coordination for Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) estimates that over 1.8 million people have been displaced since January 2014. This figure is expected to increase if the crisis is not resolved. Priority needs of IDPs are shelter, food and non-food items- water, sanitation, financial assistance, and health care. A large portion of the population has occupied temporary shelters with no proper water and sanitation facilities. Large numbers of IDPs are facing competing needs and complete loss of livelihoods, especially those in Anbar, Duhok, and Erbil governorates. Host communities are also experiencing food shortages, price increases and livelihoods decline. The start date of the school year 2014/2015 may be delayed due to the number of schools that are still occupied by IDPs. Polio re-emerged in Iraq in early 2014. There is a critical gap in extending health services to IDPs and a shortage of medicine for chronic illnesses and insufficient medical staff in health facilities, particularly in the Kurdistan governorates that have received large numbers of IDPs over the last months. Despite the magnitude of the crisis, development process in the country must continue. Development partners are already on the ground and working alongside the government of Iraq and the international community to mobilize resources to respond to the humanitarian situation. The key challenge remains to identify appropriate institutional structures and funding to allow humanitarian, recovery and development needs to be addressed in parallel. The Iraq NHDR 2014 is, in essence, a document for recovery, reconstruction, and development that addresses the negative impact of many years of crises. Its analysis, findings, and policy recommendations remain valid for the cumulative impact of the successive crises including the recent events, which could be viewed as a continuation of the series of crises that preceded it. The events of 9 June 2014 in Iraq triggered a resolution of the protracted process of forming government following the stalemate resulting from the April 2014 Council of Representatives election. The composition of the central government cabinet is almost completed and the new government is pledging various policy reforms. The Iraq NHDR 2014 will find its right place in this reform climate, as the core of its messages call for urgent and candid action. Combined with the recent National Development Plan and the UN Development Assistance Framework, the new government possess the tools they need to restart the development process and address the aspirations of Iraq's Youths and indeed the development expectations of the wider population.

UNDP will work closely with the Ministry of Planning to ensure the best possible impact of the report on the recovery and development process. UNDP would like to thank the Ministry of Planning for its efforts in coordinating the development of this important document and looks forward to future cooperation with the esteemed Ministry for the benefit of Iraq's people in their transition from crises to a sustainable development process.



Jacqueline Carol Badcock
Deputy Special Representative of the UN Secretary General,UN Resident and Humanitarian Coordinator and UNDP Resident Representative for Iraq

Why a National Human Development Report?

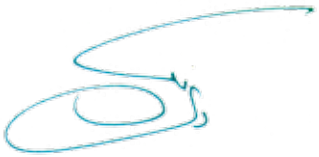
Issued in 2008, the second National Human Development Report (NHDR) succeeded in realizing one of the most important goals of Human Development Reports: raising a debate on development policies among government officials, academics, intellectuals, media professionals, and civil society organizations. Today, with the increasing need to promote the government's role as a caretaker of human development, this report focuses on Iraqi youth.

In a country where young people constitute a high percentage of the population, their success or failure will have a clear impact on society en masse. The number of Iraq's children and youth is increasing at an unprecedented rate. In 2010, Iraq had 5.1 million children and 6 million young people. These numbers are expected to run as high as 6.7 million and 9.6 million respectively in 2025, and 8.9 million and 14.9 million respectively in 2050.

This report is important given the data of the demographic window – that period of time in a nation's demographic transition when the proportion of the working age population is particularly prominent for a decade or more – which has become of interest to states. It is an opportunity to realize development in Iraq, though this is conditioned on the positive response of the country's socio-economic policies. Advancement is not guaranteed, as the demographic window can be transformed into an element of social relapse, short-lived economic growth, increased unemployment, and a disintegrated labour market, which can trigger a raft of problems if proper development policies and strategies are not in place.

National awareness of youth issues is on the rise at various policy- and decision-making levels. There is also general awareness of the important role of this social group. Despite the growing interest in youth issues after 2003, however, the projects designed to empower and integrate the youth and engage them in development priorities, plans, and strategies have been impeded by violence and instability.

Through factual analysis and the integration of the vision and priorities of Iraqi youth, this report develops an integrated structure that combines youth issues with various dimensions of the development process. This will help to develop policies that address the role of the youth in the current and future human development process. And what makes the recommendations of this report even more important is that many of them reflect a reality that our youth teams and field work groups have explored through interviewing young Iraqis of different genders, ethnicities, education levels, and social and geographical backgrounds.



Mehdi Al Alaq

National NHDR Coordinator

Acknowledgements

The authors of this report are deeply indebted to numerous organizations and individuals for their valuable contributions in the preparation of this report: the Central Statistical Organization, Ministry of Planning, Kurdistan Region Statistics Office, and Bayt Alhikma.

The NHDR team wishes to acknowledge their great debt to distinguished persons who wrote special contributions to this report and to the National Coordinator, Dr. Mehdi Al Alaq. His deep commitment to independent professional analysis and to the goals of human development has been a source of great strength to the team.

The National Consultation Committee, national readers, and reviewers from UNDP in particular provided extremely useful comments and suggestions during the drafting of the report. The authors would like to express their gratitude to Adib Nehmeh/ESCWA and Bilal Kiswani, who supported the statistical team till the finalization of the report.

The team is indebted to Professor Sabina Alkire and Dr. John Hammond of the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative for their distinguished contribution to and facilitation of the Multidimensional Poverty Index for Iraq and constructing the compound Youth Development Index.

The report has benefited from valuable comments from distinguished professors at the London School of Economics, King's College, London, who participated in two seminars conducted by the Middle East Centre at the institute. The team is grateful to the colleagues in the centre for hosting the events.

We acknowledge the Youth Team, who with the core team conducted focus group meetings, organized the youth conference, and prepared materials for the report.

We also acknowledge all the young men and women who participated in discussion meetings and workshops throughout a whole year of field work in all the governorates and the Kurdistan Region of Iraq.

Special thanks are extended to the Kurdistan Region Statistics Office and Departments of Statistics in all governorates for making data available and for conducting the special youth survey for this report in September 2012.

Special thanks are due to the statistical analysis team in the Central Statistical Organization for their deep commitment to supporting the report's analyses with statistics and the results of the many surveys and studies they produced in the year 2011–2013.

Acknowledgement is extended to the UNDP Iraq Country Office for supporting the preparation of the report, namely the support provided by Dr. Adam Abdelmoula, Country Director, Ms. Rini Reza, Deputy Country Director, and the UNDP Team including Peter Batchelor, former Country Director, Sudipto Mukerjee, Lionel Laurens, Thair Shraideh, Khalid M. Khalid, and Zina Aliback.

Last but not least, the report's team is very grateful to Dhia Muhsin Ismail who helped edit the Arabic version of the report, and to Edward Miller who edited the English version.

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Acronyms

CSO	Central Statistical Organization
EAR	Economic Activity Rate
ESCWA	Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia
GII	Gender Inequality Index
HDI	Human Development Index
HDR	Human Development Report
IHDI	Inequality-adjusted Human Development Index
IHSES	Iraq Household Socio-Economic Survey
IKN	Iraq Knowledge Network
ILO	International Labour Organization
KRSO	Kurdistan Region Statistics Office
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MoLSA	Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs
MoP	Ministry of Planning
MPI	Multidimensional Poverty Index
NDP	National Development Plan
NEP	National Employment Plan
NHDR	National Human Development Report
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NYS	National Youth Strategy
OPHI	Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative
PRS	Poverty Reduction Strategy
UNDG	United Nations Development Group
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
YDI	Youth Development Index
YUR	Youth unemployment rate

Preparing NHDR 2014: A Participatory Approach

The report preparation process followed a participatory approach:

- **Participation of the government** was through the Federal Ministry of Planning, the Central Statistical Organization (CSO), and the Kurdistan Region Statistics Office (KRSO). These statistics offices provided up-to-date surveys, which included the following:
  - The Youth Poll on the Status and Aspirations of Iraqi Youth, which was implemented through a survey that took place in September 2012 (see Technical Annex).
  - Support to the youth-focused group discussions.
  - The support provided by the Ministry of Planning to the Statistical Analysis Team that visited the University of Oxford in the United Kingdom to discuss the implementation of the Multidimensional Poverty Index and the construction of the Youth Development Index. The discussions took place with the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI) team, led by Dr Sabina Alkire.
  - Participation of three members of the Statistical Analysis Team in the discussions that took place at the London School of Economics in September 2012 on the conceptual framework related to dimensions of human development. The discussions included a group of professors from the institute and Dr. Sabina Alkire.
- **International participation** was maintained through the support provided by UNDP. The support included technical aspects such the valuable consultations provided by Mr. Adib Nehmeh, Senior ESCWA Advisor, and Dr. Bilal Kiswani, who supported the Statistical Analysis Teams in the Central Statistical Organization and the Kurdistan Region Statistics Office. UNDP arranged and facilitated numerous activities in 2012, which included strategic planning and capacity building such as the author team training and the Multidimensional Poverty Index training conducted by OPHI.
- **National participation** was overseen by Bayt Alhikma, an independent Iraqi think tank and research institute based in Baghdad, which UNDP assigned to implement the preparation of the report. Bayt Alhikma mobilized a number of national teams – Iraqi researchers, university professors, and youth networks – to contribute to the preparation of the report.

Preparation Methodology

The report's author team included 9 consultants, 22 authors, and 3 peer reviewers. The team members were mostly academics, civil society organization members, and civil servants from the Iraqi governorates, including the Kurdistan Region. A few expatriate academics also contributed to the report.

The Statistical Analysis Team consisted of 25 researchers. CSO led this team and Bayt Alhikma also provided their support to the author team and the report in general.

Youth Participation

Youth participation was ensured through the activities outlined below.

The Youth Support Team included 16 youth members, 5 of which were females. Three members of this team were selected to participate in the preparation of the report.

Focused group meetings and discussions were held with the youth. The report's focus on youth was established through listening to their voices through such forums. These included nine in the central and southern governorates of Iraq and two in the Kurdistan Region. The focused group discussions covered urban and rural areas and included male and female youth participants. A remote village on the fringe of the Iraqi marshlands was included in the discussions. Each focused group discussion included 25 to 30 youth,

encompassing students, media members, the employed and the unemployed, housewives, and those from slum areas. Additionally, a focused group discussion was conducted in Jordan to listen to the Iraqi immigrant youth.

Members of the Author Team participated in the focused group discussions in order to hear first-hand accounts of the youth's experiences and their issues. The participating youth could decide on the issues of priority in their governorates, within the framework of the report. The issues that the youth raised revealed their awareness of the issues that affect Iraqi society and included domestic violence, such as that found in Babil Governorate, poverty, such as that found in Dhi Qar, and human trafficking, such as that found in Kirkuk. The youth discussed possible solutions and, while putting the responsibility on the government to address these issues, did not forget their own role. The results of the focused group discussions are presented in the report in special boxes labelled "The Voice of the Youth".

A workshop was arranged in Baghdad on 13-14 March 2013, in which 161 young men and women participated. Seventy-five of the youth participants were from governorates other than Baghdad, including the Kurdistan Region. Sixty of the youth participants were female. The youth were university and secondary school students, journalists, artists, civil society organization members, and unemployed graduates. The Author Team participated, in addition to line ministry representatives. The report presents this workshop's findings in boxes labelled "Youth's Opinion".

The report has identified a number of distinguished social and cultural initiatives by the youth. These have been included in the text of the report in boxes labelled "Youth Initiatives". The report has also spotted some civil society initiatives related to the youth, and these were included in the report in boxes labelled "Initiatives".

Overview

Since the release of the National Human Development Report in 2008, Iraq has made significant progress in human development indicators, with the promise of achieving further successes towards a better standard of well-being and prosperity, based on the principles of all-inclusive democracy and representation. This progress, however, should be looked upon with caution because the opportunities it affords for sustainable institutional development are not accompanied by stability. This is due to the development pattern adopted by the state, which leads to the dissipation of human development gains or the disruption of their sustainability. Oil revenues are an enduring threat because, while economic growth creates ample opportunities for human development, it poses challenges that make the sustainability of this development questionable in the long run.

The basic pillars of the 2008 NHDR analyse a number of issues which five years later remain ostensibly unresolved, and transition has not completed its designated tasks yet. These issues are political and economic transformation, security, emigration and displacement, women, and education.

Reform continues to stumble, while the delivery of infrastructure, public services, and education is still unaccomplished. Improvements in living standards have been confined to the consumer spending associated with increased oil revenues and the expansion of the related trade, sale, and transportation services – activities incapable of setting the foundations of sustainable development that the public and private sectors can jointly, effectively, and efficiently achieve.

In the field of security, durable civil peace has not been established, and national reconciliation and transitional justice continue to be unpractised concepts, given the current terrorism and political and sectarian conflicts. Although the civil war came to an end in 2008, the threat of displacement and emigration persists with each new wave of violence. In addition, women's issues and rights continue to swing between two positions: on the one hand, conflicting traditions, cultural heritage, and radical fundamentalist ideologies, and on the other hand the tendency towards development and the acquisition of human rights based on the principles of justice and equality enshrined in the new Constitution.

The significant changes which came in the aftermath of the collapse of the totalitarian regime in 2003, including opening up to the outside world and embarking on economic reform, have not started the process of building a new economy or even resumed the development process that remained stalled for decades. Given the high expectations for achieving better standards of living and improved lifestyles, especially among the youth, the adopted approach to national economic management and resource allocation has failed to strike a balance between the size of unfulfilled needs and the steadily increasing oil revenues.

Moreover, the concept, values, and behaviours of the rentier state, which are deeply rooted in the minds of society and government, have not been abolished or replaced with alternative economic values and behavioural patterns that would recover broad-based, sustainable economic growth, produce radical economic reforms, and restructure the public sector.

Oil reserves in Iraq are considered the world's third-largest proven oil reserves, with 143 billion barrels. The 2013 reports of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank, as well as the National Development Plan 2013–2017, expect oil exports to increase from 3.2 million barrels per day in 2013 to 6 million barrels per day in 2017, a possibility which opens up vast development horizons for the future. However, this development is conditional on good governance and the eradication of poverty and corruption.

Some post-2003 changes further weakened the already weak inherited institutional frameworks, pending the end of the transition to a new economy. But this transition has not yet led to favourable structural transformations that enable the resumption of development and the creation of new opportunities for the youth, who soon realized that they were stuck in an indefinite transition period full of chal-

lenges, albeit with some opportunities.

Indeed, a number of the changes were associated with positive political and social movements, providing young people with ample space to play their role. A number of youth groups demonstrated positive characteristics in the face of various challenges, taking advantage of the free space given to them and the affordable state-of-the-art communication tools. Some came up with important initiatives to confront challenges, relying on their own abilities and on the significant support extended by international organizations, over and above the support given by certain state institutions and civil society organizations (CSOs). Thus, some young people found their way out of the chronic crisis.

1. Human development challenge: The indices of the Human Development Index (HDI) have improved, specifically life expectancy, education, and income. However, they have not been adequate enough to boost people's ability to control the resources necessary for leading decent and dignified lifestyles. Many inherited problems still threaten to impede comprehensive development, undermine sustainable progress, and weaken development efforts.

The data highlights the mighty challenges facing Iraq regarding human development based on quality, justice, equity, and sustainability. Individual achievements in the fields of health, education, and income generation, though significant, are likely to fail to achieve substantial progress if hampered by the existing circumstances. Human development trends in Iraq suggest that these achievements are inequitable and unsustainable. Discrepancies between men and women and among governorates are too large.

The HDI is a general figure for the whole population and does not reveal development trends for specific population groups, such as young males, whose share of human development is lower than the rest of population, and young women, whose share is even lower. These disparities pose significant challenges for social, economic, and developmental policies.

Chapter 2 elaborates the measurement and analysis of indicators and indices at the three levels of Iraq, Kurdistan Region, and the governorates. It also details a composite index for young people, namely the Youth Development Index (YDI). This data is quite detailed, given the irregular publication of NHDRs in Iraq.

2. Demographic challenges: These challenges are related to the following: high population growth rates; the younger demographic architecture of the population, which requires the expansion of educational services and the creation of jobs for new entrants into the labour market; emigration; displacement; overpopulation in cities; squatter settlements on the periphery of cities; and the social consequences of these trends. While Iraq is now experiencing a 'demographic window' – a period of time when the proportion of the working age population is particularly prominent – the country's GDP still largely depends on natural resources, which restricts its response to the increased proportion of working age people.

Chapter 3 discusses the demographic changes as challenges the policies affecting the HDIs are insufficient to address. Cultural and political factors are key determinants, but are unmeasurable. Three of these are primarily concerned with the youth: fertility rates, the younger demographic architecture, and migration.

3. The renteir economy challenge: Recent years have seen the accelerated growth of Iraq's GDP, with the GDP per capita rising from US$2,860 in 2009 to US$5,860 in 2012, according to World Bank figures. Economic growth has been linked with increasing oil revenues, and this economic structure has produced two issues that relate to a failure to accommodate the youth, prompting them to migrate. The first issue is stumbling economic development programmes and deteriorating growth rates in job-creating economic activities. The second issue is the emergence of an incoherent, inadequate, and unintegrated labour market that has turned into a major reservoir for unemployment and underemployment, as well as an embodiment of non-existent or ineffective supply and demand mechanisms.

The obscure role of the state and the private sector during transition, coupled with the private sector's growth opportunities being concentrated in the finance sector (which is associated with and benefits from the renteir economy), constitutes in all cases an obstacle to the growth of

youth-centred economic activities. Therefore, the challenge facing economic policies is how to increase the youth's economic participation, particularly young women, since their participation is only 12 percent.

Chapter 4 outlines the economic challenges and their consequences on youth employment. Two related pillars have been identified: unemployment and the renteir economy, which have a cause-and-effect interaction and are associated with the adopted methodology for national economy management and the pertinent roles of the public and private sectors.

4. Cultural and social structure challenges: The degenerative structural changes characterizing the problem-ridden nature of Iraq's modern history, as well as all the complexities produced by the successive stages – starting with the totalitarian system, through the series of wars as of the late 1970s, to the embargo and the toppling of the former regime in 2003, and ending with the consequent instability – have had multi-level impacts on all age groups, the youth in particular. These impacts affect not only the present, but also the future.

The youth in Iraq are still considered a mere 'stage' confined to a specific age. This stage has not evolved into the concept of a social group with a project that holds distinctive features, differentiating it from the prevailing social project and making it a promising initiator of change. The youth are often divided according to the divisions of society en masse, with its rivalries and loyalties. Having been merged into the larger society, they are indiscriminately identified with these various components. Furthermore, the family is no longer the absolute point of reference when it comes to character formation among young people, given the increasing influence of media outlets, cyberspace, and social networking.

The youth are witnessing this conflict, making their empowerment urgent and necessary. And herein lies the major challenge, because young people only feel they are effectively integrated when societal institutions – starting with the family – succeed in empowering them.

Chapter 5 analyses Iraq's social structure, including the family and the value system, as institutional elements empowering or impeding the integration of the youth, especially young women. It also identifies the elements of young women's exclusion, which are rooted in the family, determines people's outlook and behaviour towards women in general, and explains the manifestations of domestic and community violence.

5. Knowledge acquisition challenge: The efforts made to tackle the problems of illiteracy, school dropouts, and unequal educational opportunities between males and females, between urban and rural areas, and among governorates have failed to achieve their goals. In addition, the education system in Iraq could not change the nature of the social structure to achieve the youth's social integration on the one hand, and change the value system towards democratic cultural, intellectual, or behavioural transformations, particularly education for genuine citizenship, on the other.

The education system in Iraq seems to have failed to achieve youth-related goals, because of a number of problems and qualitative and quantitative shortages. Few students have been offered the opportunity to acquire the knowledge or skills needed to access a decent job, particularly because the training system that facilitates transition from school to work is still poor. Therefore, increasing numbers of graduates have become unemployed and poor. In this sense, education has lost its function as an effective empowerment tool. These shortages have become, or the education system itself has become as a result of these shortages, an indirect means for the social exclusion of the youth.

Chapter 6 covers the institutional determinants that minimize the opportunities provided by education as a youth empowerment tool. It also identifies the inadequacies in the quality of education and how well the education system responds to youth aspirations and labour market needs.

6. Transition to democracy challenge: The transition to democracy is a major challenge, though it provides an opportunity for the youth to participate and expand their options. The new decentralized structure under the federal state and the establishment of representative bodies and practical local authorities penetrate, albeit slowly, the existing cultures

of power. The expansion of CSOs similarly moves towards relative autonomy from the central political authority and its apparatuses. This trend is interpreted as a positive development that is in the youth's interest.

It may be argued that the new atmosphere of democracy and freedom has strengthened young people's ability to access information and communication technology (ICT) in a manner unattainable by past generations. The relative improvement in incomes has upgraded prosperity levels in general. These new changes, however, have negatively affected large segments of the youth. Many of them have been left without jobs that suit their ambitions, unleash their skills, and maximize their productivity. The challenge here relates to the economy's ability to create sustainable jobs with equitable income to increase youth participation in the affairs of their communities. The young people surveyed in this report therefore called for their empowerment to better participate in communities, CSOs, and social networks. With the possibilities that ICT provides, young people are determined to have a say in the affairs that influence their lives.

Chapter 7 is focused on young people's participation in politics and relating this to the concept of citizenship, as an opportunity for capacity building and the expansion of options. It identifies the shortfalls connected to 'citizenship education', which include the disintegration of a national identity, inadequate community participation, and disregard for political participation.

Chapter 8 concludes that the process of inclusive development can only be resumed when the potential of the youth is invested in and that empowering environments can only be created when the government commits to pursuing development policies that encourage and sponsor creativity and provide the youth with incubating institutions and supportive legislation and regulations. This can only be accomplished through openness, communication, the expansion of freedom and the rule of the law, and addressing society's developmental needs.

Chapter 1

Human Development: An Action Methodology and a Vision

Why Youth?

The UN proclamation of 1985 as the International Year of Youth was a major move towards highlighting youth issues and promoting their concerns. This inspired a number of countries to prioritize these issues and target the youth with socio-economic policies.

The recent revolution in information and communication technologies has posed new challenges – to the youth and to governments and societies as well. The youth, plunging eagerly into mobile communication and cyberspace, became the first to benefit from this revolution and also the first to be affected by it, both positively and negatively. With this openness and convergence, cultural and ideological debate increased, and we saw some negative trends: nationalist and ethnic fanaticism, intolerance, and violence. The problems surrounding migration were brought to the forefront, including integration challenges in host countries.

In Arab countries, the youth-led sit-ins and demonstrations against political regimes highlighted a newfound political and societal participation, made possible thanks to the information and communication technology revolution.

With the ensuing global interest, UNDP supported a Human Development Report (HDR) focus on youth issues in 23 countries, including some Arab countries – Lebanon, Jordan, Egypt, Qatar, Somalia, and Iraq.

Focus of the Report

In 2013, the Iraqi children who were born during the decades of wars, economic sanctions, and armed conflicts reached the age of youth. They were brought up in families that suffered from poverty, fear, and exclusion. However, they have also experienced a new climate with broader opportunities and freedom. It seems that ten years have not been enough to reap the benefits of the transition from a totalitarian regime to a pluralistic regime and from a centralized economy to a free market. Today, the youth of the nation are facing transition challenges in politics, the economy, society, and culture. This report will address the impact of these challenges on the youth and young Iraqis' role in facing them.

In this report, the youth in Iraq are defined as those in the age group of 15–29 years. Youth all over the world face challenges and complications in the journey towards maturity – a difficult task not only in societies under transition, but also in stable societies. It is thus not surprising that the challenges of a dual transition (societal/political and personal) make young people stressed, anxious, and uncertain. Education, health, work, and starting a family are core issues; managing how to move to the next stage is a personal matter for each individual, but it is at the same time affected by family, society, and state.

In countries witnessing chronic crises or post-crisis change, like Iraq, the youth become a vulnerable group; the more the risks there are, the more intense the exclusion is. Exclusion raises obstacles against building citizenship and capacities for integration and against human development as a whole.

Government attention to youth is reflected in such documents as the National Development Plan 2013–2017 and the National Youth Strategy 2013–2020. This report must be seen as complementing and supporting both those national programmes and the UN initiatives tackling issues related to the youth as a paramount development priority in Iraq over the period to 2020.

The UNDP-sponsored NHDRs are non-governmental reports intended to support

the decision-making process and are prepared by independent authors who use data and analysis to express different views – in this case, the views and aspirations of the youth. To do justice to the topic, it is not sufficient to simply examine data or explore academic literature, though these are remarkably present throughout this report. Given that young people are a social rather than an age group, the analysis has to involve them directly. "Nothing about us can be made without us," says one of them. "We do not want others to speak for us," says another.

That is why in presenting and analysing the challenges and opportunities of human development in Iraq, this report considers the youth's priorities, their understanding of their role in development, their self-awareness of their issues and problems, and the opportunities available to them. Indeed, the youth constituted the starting point in various NHDR issues and approaches. The exploration touched on unconventional aspects of the youth's choices and values, as well as the way they perceive the world, while also allowing them to express themselves on these issues. Their contributions therefore take up a considerable part of the report.

The acquisition of rights depends on opportunities, and opportunities are not the result of mere chance nor are they granted by others; rather, they are created. Consequently, empowering the youth becomes a priority in all development programmes. Young women have equal rights, but they need empowerment policies to realize justice and equity.

Iraq is in transition towards democracy. Democratic regimes provide freedom of expression, opportunities for acquiring knowledge, and awareness of rights, including the right to participate. The youth have the key to development and are expected to hold governments accountable for their actions as they meet their obligations towards society.

The report is directed not only towards how the government can act more effectively with a pro-youth focus, but also towards civil society at large, the private sector, the international community as partners in development, and, above all, young people themselves as the main element of development. The youth are the agent of change required to accomplish development and the key factor for its sustainability. They are the makers and heirs of the future and the hope for progress.

This report provides both the youth and the government with tools for monitoring, observation, follow-up, and advocacy. HDRs, the Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI), and the Youth Development Index (YDI), in addition to the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), will be useful for policymakers, as well as for the youth and their advocates.

BOX 1.1

Youth Statement

It is with great pleasure that we participated in this NHDR, which focuses on the youth. We have presented our concerns and our vision so as to deliver the genuine message of the Iraqi youth. We can say that the NHDR has acquired the youth's spirit and addressed our concerns. Our efforts have helped give the authors of this report insight into our perceptions and dreams, thereby conveying them to the wider society and decision makers.

On behalf of the Youth Team,
Issam, Hussam, and Muhannad

Conceptual Framework

Development goals relate to achieving advanced levels of well-being for all, developing people's capacities, and expanding their freedoms under a safe environment, democratic institutions, and societal relations based on justice, equality, rule of the law, respect for human rights, and dignity. In addition, the course of development should be sustainable; the rights of future generations should not be compromised while seeking to meet the needs of current generations.

Having spread widely since 1990, the concept of human development is a conceptual framework for these goals in a

planning/action approach that combines theory with implementation. It is at once a vision for the future; analysis and measurement tools for understanding the situation; and policy trends, alternatives, and options that help guide the development actors who are leading or contributing to changing the present and meeting the overall objectives. In a nutshell, it is an approach that gives priority to the human role and to goals that ensure the development of their capacities and their dynamic participation. It bypasses the goals of the social welfare approach, which sees people as beneficiaries of rather than participants in development.[1]

This report includes basic assumptions on human development which have been developed by HDRs since 1990. It also adopts an approach that expresses both national needs and youth needs and assimilates human development dimensions as they relate to the peculiarities of young people as a social group. It is thus appropriate to develop the Youth Development Index (YDI) in this report, since the multiple dimensions of human development are more related to youth than to other social groups. The report's measurement and analysis has also seen the continuous development of concepts and standards.

Keeping Pace with Concepts and Measurements

The HDR 2010 is particularly important since it was issued on the twentieth anniversary of the first HDR. It also provides a theoretical contribution to the concept of human development and to measurement as well. The report focuses more on improving the measurement of human development – the Human Development Index (HDI) – than on the improvement of human development itself. Hence it tackles the Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) as an alternative to the Human Poverty Index (HPI).

The Statistical Analysis Team has been committed to the amendments made to the methods used for producing the HDI and other indices, as well as the indicators used for measurement, to facilitate international benchmarking (see the Technical Notes Appendix).

"The human development approach is motivationally committed to concentrating on what remains undone – what demands most attention in the contemporary world – from poverty and deprivation to inequality and insecurity… those surrounding the conservation of our environment and the sustainability of our well-being and substantive freedoms," says Amartya Sen, in the introduction of the HDR 2010. He is the co-founder of this new approach, one of the most prominent human development theorists, and a partner of Mahbub ul Haq, who died in 1998. "The human development approach is flexible enough to take note of the future prospects of human lives on the planet."[2]

This vision opens the door wide to incorporate changes at the economy, politics, society, and technology levels and assimilate their impact on people and people's impact on them. It also provides a conceptually solid but procedurally flexible foundation on which to build a development approach for the present and the future. "Indeed, human development is an evolving idea – not a fixed, static set of precepts."[3]

The UN Secretary-General's report Realizing the Future We Want for All[4] contained a very important contribution to the concept of human development and to the link between it and the United Nations' Post-2015 Development Agenda, which will replace the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

The report uses the term "people-centred inclusive and sustainable development". By "inclusive" it means that the more advanced the development process, the larger the number of participants in it and the beneficiaries from it. This means it is a dynamic process that does not focus on only one population group. There is also a focus on, among other things, the concept of consistent policies and interventions. This is a call for more integration between policies and interventions rather than the fragmented sector-specific interventions that dominated previously.

Through its action principles and orientation, Realizing the Future We Want for All directs the activities of development actors who are leading or contributing to changing the present to realize this shared vision of the future. It thus establishes and paves the way for a new development plan.

Global Debate on the Post-2015 Development Goals

Recent major global changes require contemplating the development framework again. The world has moved beyond the era when the MDGs were first introduced in 2001. There are now more pressing developmental needs. In those Arab countries committed to the MDGs, the declaration of the Third Arab Economic and Social Development Summit – held in January 2013 – called upon Arab governments to address a raft of development issues, including employment, gender equity, food security, and poverty reduction.

BOX 1.1

Participation in Post-2015 Development [dialogue]

Under the UN Development Group (UNDG) support to consultations in the Arab region on the Post-2015 Development Agenda, the Ministry of Planning (MoP), supported by UNDP, held three workshops titled 'The Future We Want' in the governorates of Basra, Baghdad, and Erbil to listen to different social groups and understand their perceptions of the Post-2015 Development Agenda. The workshops brought together representatives from local governments and governorate councils, university professors, civil society organizations, media professionals, young people, and members of the NHDR team.[5] Discussions were about the following:

- Poverty alleviation, participatory development, and employment generation
- Community voices and political participation
- Provision of basic health and education services and their developmental impact
- Management of natural resources, provision of environmental services, and dealing with climate change

Following extensive discussions and presentations of views and ideas, including those related to the problems hindering the achievement of the MDGs in the governorates, there was agreement on complementary goals and objectives expressing Iraq's concerns and needs, which should be prioritized when determining the post-2015 development goals. From these, we draw the following messages:

- An assertive position on the importance of education, with an emphasis on quality
- The importance of good and efficient governance for development
- The empowerment of women and reduction of inequality
- Prioritizing the issues of peace, security, human development, and dignity
- The importance of global partnerships to support local efforts
- The need for consistent policies and an enabling environment conducive to the resumption of development.

Current global debate, in short, is about the need for a new era of development policies that consider development to be much more than achieving economic growth and getting social services. The wars, conflicts, and instability in Iraq (and the Arab world in general) suggest an urgent need for a developmental framework and a new policy that seek to restore peace, security, and stability based on broad participation and social cohesion. Youth should play a leading role and be an important part of the action to eradicate poverty and inequality, globally and nationally.

It perhaps goes without saying that policies, plans, and strategic frameworks should respond to this evolution. Space for dialogue is expanding and international endeavours are being accelerated to shape new developmental policies responsive to the issues of the contemporary world. And we in Iraq are in urgent need of them.

BOX 1.2

New Goals for Post-2015 Development Agenda

Since the current MDGs have not considered the issues of security, peace, equality, governance, and democracy, the post-2015 development goals should develop a clear strategy that takes into account the accelerated changes in the Arab region and the ensuing obstacles facing development. This strategy should be based on a clear theory founded on the human rights framework, which underlines the need for every person to enjoy all human rights, human security, equality, and non-discrimination, in addition to the need for monitoring progress towards achieving it. It is also important to consider future challenges we are likely to face in the coming decades and their impact on development efforts. This requires institutions to provide social protection and also mechanisms to settle disputes and redistribute resources to enhance equality.

Arab Development Forum: Post-2015 Priorities of Arab Development, Amman, 13-14 April 2013

Dr. Haifaa Abu Ghazaleh – Jordanian Ghad newspaper, 10 April 2013

Other Dimensions of Human Development

Some important aspects of the human experience – such as cultural diversity, human rights, value systems, and related social and political practices, which vary according to the behaviour of individuals, society, and the state – have a major impact on human development but are quantitatively immeasurable. This renders them 'deficient' dimensions which the HDI is unable to include, despite their importance in our countries.

The challenges facing Iraq, the Arab region en masse, and the region's youth make it imperative to give due attention to the expansion of development dimensions, especially a practical focus on the economic dimension while dealing with the other dimensions – social, environmental, cultural, and political – as either secondary products of economic growth or tools and means for serving the goals of this economic growth.

Therefore, this report reviews the political and cultural components of development, which were also the focus of the discussion meetings with young people. Both dimensions were included in the YDI and have had due attention in the analysis throughout this report.

BOX 1.3

The Importance of Political and Cultural Dimensions

We have focused on the political-institutional and cultural dimensions due to the requirements of community transformation in Iraq and based on what we have observed in other Arab countries. In other words, it is the result of a direct national need. We are not the only ones who deem these two dimensions important or believe that they have been neglected compared to the other components of development. Furthermore, we are totally aware of the theoretical importance of rehabilitating and integrating these two dimensions into the core of the human development concept as a requirement for the advancement of the concept itself.

In a valuable contribution by Sakiko Fukuda-Parr, she explores the new frontiers of today's concept of human development,[6] which are aligned with the approach of this report. She believes that the future evolvement of the human development concept will stress "human rights, cultural identity and political participation". Although it is possible to review the formation, her analysis directly affects the core of the subject: "In fact, the cultural dimensions of development have not been sufficiently examined from a perspective of economics, political science or philosophy."

She also believes that Mahbub ul Haq had always considered that only vesting power in a minority elite is a huge obstacle to development. He was zealous in defending political freedoms. His works however did not focus on the importance of the poor's political impact as a goal per se; he rather deemed that its absence contributes to socio-economic discrimination against the poor.

The first HDRs mainly focused on the socio-economic dimensions of people's choices and to a lesser degree on the political and cultural dimensions. This enhanced the conceptual confusion between major elements of development (socio-economic choices expressed by the HDI) and additional choices (political and cultural).

This analysis concurs with the approach this report has adopted. While the elements of the political dimension were clearer and more mature in Fukuda-Parr's analysis, her look at the cultural dimension focused more on cultural identity and multiple cultural choices than on culture as a complete, genuine developmental component equal to the other components.

Adib Nehme, ESCWA

Political Dimension

The UN Secretary-General's report Realizing the Future We Want for All stresses more than once the importance of the political and institutional dimension of development in its two related components of security and peace and democratic transition, including respect for human rights and good governance.

"Recent events in the Arab States have brought to the fore longstanding demands from civil society, especially from young people, for a development trajectory grounded in democratic governance, the rule of law and human rights. The events underscore the importance of addressing democratic governance deficits at the national and sub-national levels to ensure the legitimacy of development policies and to support the empowerment of people."[7]

The importance of democracy, democratic governance, and respect for human rights cannot be ignored in development. The recent socio-political street movements in Arab countries drew attention to the need to give due attention to the political and institutional dimensions in development. Moreover, what has happened over the last several decades in the

region and Iraq shows that political and institutional realities ('governance') can be the first obstacle to realizing the goals of development.

Quite simply, this report focuses on the political and cultural dimensions because it is necessary to do so. Had there been better management of the development process through respect for the rules of good governance and democracy at all levels and through effective institutions committed to the principles of human rights, and had citizen relations and positive cultural practices been more established and widespread, development results in Iraq would have been much better. Instead, socio-economic achievements have been limited and the social, political, and security challenges have been numerous.

Cultural Dimension

The cultural dimension of development in all its aspects – knowledge and skills gained through formal education and other means, values and behaviours which go beyond the cognitive and artistic to include the individual and societal culture of dealing with others, the prevalent political culture, the culture of citizenship or affiliations and sub-identities, the culture of work and production (based on initiative or dependence), or citizens' relations with **their peers and families and among generations – is strongly present in Iraq. Development cannot be achieved without real cultural change, a concept that is obvious to the youth, as this report shows.**

Accordingly, there is a need to deal with the cultural dimension in its totality;[8] education, knowledge, values, and behaviours are interrelated. In this context, each community has a value system that forms a basis for corresponding positions and behaviours. Therefore, people-centred inclusive and sustainable development necessarily includes an authentic cultural component and a core value system, which is often referred to as encompassing equity and justice, respect for human rights, productivity and work, tolerance and acceptance of diversity, and solidarity rather than fierce competition, among others things.

Interaction of Dimensions and Dialectic of Exclusion/Inclusion

The HDI dimensions – economic (income), social (education), and health (life expectancy) – are interrelated in such a way that no dimension can be developed in isolation from the other. This interrelation requires inclusive development with proper and sustainable political, institutional, and cultural dimensions. In Iraq, the last few decades have exceptionally entrenched the volatility and unrest of the political, economic, and social environment in all its forms. And within this environment, youth empowerment has been subject to serious damage, tantamount to a crisis. So many young men and women have been excluded from education and work or marginalized in poverty and isolated from the developmental mainstream.

In this report, we have focused on the youth's exclusion from core fields that express all the dimensions of human development.

This report benefits from the efforts made by many NHDRs that addressed youth or exclusion/inclusion in countries that experienced armed conflict. They found that the cultural dimension was a strong dynamic for triggering economic growth and restoring security and peace. In addition to the 2004 HDR, Cultural Freedom in a Diverse World, the 2010/2011 Moldova NHDR, the 2005 Serbia NHDR, and the 2006 Kosovo NHDR, there are also the reports of Lithuania 2001, Croatia 2004, Bosnia and Herzegovina 2007, Kyrgyzstan 2009, Cyprus 2009, and Honduras 2009.

The concept of social exclusion stems from the idea that "deprivation of human rights guaranteed by citizenship leads to a lack of or poor participation of an individual or a group in one or more areas of social life: economic, social and political. Social exclusion is associated with citizenship as a social-political concept based on the two rules of rights and responsibilities and the ensuing feelings of affiliation and loyalty. Through these rights and responsibilities, social responsibility, with all it entails of punishment and reward, is set."[9] This relates directly to youth participation and inclusion.

Exclusion, whether it is due to subjective or objective reasons, involves the total or partial denial of rights. This leads to imbalance in the social roles people must

play by a certain age and can also cause frustration, low self-esteem, and behavioural problems.

The concept of exclusion expresses relative phenomena; accordingly, there is no such thing as complete or absolute exclusion. This means that most people, whether individuals or groups, in any contemporary society are both integrated and excluded. For example, an individual might be out of the labour market and remain unemployed for quite some time, but continue to perform their political responsibilities and enjoy their rights as a citizen by joining a party or participating in an election.

Social exclusion is of an accumulative nature, where exclusion from education leads to exclusion from the labour market and also to poverty and the inability to start a family. It can also lead to isolation from society and antisocial or deviant behaviour. This view is consistent with some perspectives and theories from recent decades, which deemed welfare a logical product or outcome of the concept of citizenship and its rights.

It is important to consider forms of exclusion that have cultural roots, such as attempts to isolate migrants or ethnic groups and deny their political, cultural, and economic rights. In other words, exclusion could be individual or collective.[10] The history of humankind is teeming with examples of forced exclusion.

This report highlights the challenges of achieving a pro-youth policy, which implies that the social and economic indicators for the youth would improve more rapidly than those for the rest of society. Young women's empowerment should be a priority issue.

The Iraq NHDR 2014, building on extensive experience, attempts to bring the development issues of the youth to the forefront of public and policy debate, through the lens of human development. Its elaboration on the status of Iraqi youth will enrich the National Youth Strategy.

The report structure covers three main components. The first is a review of human development progress in Iraq. This component is important, as Iraq does not prepare NHDRs on a regular basis, the first being in 1995 and the second in 2008. Chapter 2 combines measurement and descriptive analysis to provide an overview of human development indicators and indices. The MPI is presented here as a newly introduced index. The most important presentation of this chapter is the Youth Development Index.

The second component, starting with Chapter 3, relates to challenges. The third component, beginning in Chapter 6, discusses opportunities. The report's final section presents some recommendations and the skeleton of a possible forward agenda for all stakeholders.

Chapter 2

The Challenge of Human Development in Iraq

The State of Human Development

In the midst of the controversy which has been on going for decades now over how to measure standards of living and ensure proper levels of welfare, the measurement and assessment fields took interesting quantum leaps forward, helped by huge technological advances in processing databases and a well-informed international commitment to the importance of developing systems of measurement.

In the early 1990s, UNDP started measuring human development – the latest episode in the development measurement efforts. When the late Mahbub ul Haq (1934–1998) laid the foundations for the Human Development Index, it did not occur to him or those around him that this measurement would last and spread the way it did, and that – after its initial process of creation and improvement – it would remain unchanged a quarter of a century later, without being subjected to any weakness or distortion. Moreover, making the index the basis for certain quality measurement and the reference for measurement and comparison makes it one of the international organizations' major achievements.

The great efforts that have been exerted to expand the knowledge base of all national dimensions of human development are a testament to the sustainability of the HDI, as are the achievements of many countries as they improved themselves in this context, though with different degrees of enthusiasm. Some of these countries even moved up the ladder among the categories of low, medium, and high human development.

Iraq was one of the countries that prepared NHDRs. The latest 2008 NHDR featured an objective description of the human development situation in Iraq. It showed declined values, a lower ranking in the HDI, and limited achievements of governorates. That description attracted the attention of policymakers, academia, and the media, especially since it compared Iraq to countries which Iraq had been ahead of 25 years earlier, and also since the report clearly showed declining development performance during the last two decades of the twentieth century. This was also evident after the war on Iraq in 2003, the armed conflicts, and the consequent terrorist events, which made security a priority in measurement and analysis.

The 2008 NHDR focus on the security factor was evident through its attempt to build a human security index based on an opinion poll conducted at the peak of the sectarian conflict in 2007.

Given that this NHDR focuses on Iraqi youth, their opportunities for a better life, and the challenges they face, the Youth Development Index was calculated based on an opinion poll conducted in 2012. Like other indices, this one was calculated for males and females, and at the governorate level.

The measurement also includes the MPI introduced in the 2010 HDR as the latest in a series of poverty measurements.

Measuring Human Development in Iraq

The HDI, Inequality-adjusted Human Development Index (IHDI), and Gender Inequality Index (GII) are the main measures for assessing the progress in human development dimensions: income, health, and education. This chapter summarizes the results and analyses them nationally, regionally, and at the governorate level. (For the details of measurement, see the Statistical Appendix.)

Human Development Index

A chronological review of Iraq's HDI values suggests that what the country experienced from the early 1990s to the early 2000s was at odds with sustainable development. Iraq ranked 76 when the HDI was first introduced in 1990 (when the

Using up-to-date data has given Iraq's HDI the credibility needed to meet international benchmarks and may pave the way for Iraq to climb the human development ladder.

first HDR was issued). At the time, it was better than all the neighbouring countries save Kuwait (see the 1990 HDR). It fell behind with the outbreak of the Gulf War in 1991 and the consequent economic embargo, which continued till 2003. It fell to 93 in 1991, then to 100 in 1994. With the sliding economic and development performance, it reached 126 in 2000 with an HDI that was lower than the world average of 0.650 and even than mid-level HDI countries.

The 2013 HDR ranks Iraq at 131 out of 186 countries with an HDI value of 0.590. In this report, the availability of new data improved the HDI estimate to 0.694, which is close to the world average of 0.695. However, it is still much lower than the HDI for neighbouring countries such as Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Iran, Turkey, and Jordan, but higher than Syria's, which is 0.632.

This tangible improvement can be ascribed to advancement in all of the index's components: health, education, and income (see Table 1 in the Statistical Appendix).

Iraq	HDI	Life expectancy at birth (years)	Mean years of schooling (years)	Expected mean years of schooling (years)	Gross national income (GNI) per capita US Dollar purchasing power parity 2012
	0.694	69	8	11	12738

Improvement in health and education is a major achievement, as income growth is not necessarily reflected in people's well-being unless it is directed towards investment in people.

In Iraq, investment in health yielded a short-term improvement in the life expectancy rate, from 68 years in 2007 to 69 years in 2011. The infant mortality rate declined from 37 to 32, while that for children under five declined from 42 to 38.[11] Better maternity care is associated with lower maternal mortality rates, declining from 295 per 100,000 women in the embargo decade of the 1990's to 84 in 2006 and 35 in 2013. Child delivery under health care specialists increased from 62 percent in 2000 to 78 percent in 2006 and 91 percent in 2013 (see Table 3 in the Statistical Appendix).

Most people (97 percent) were satisfied with their health, and 85 percent were satisfied with the quality of health care they receive, which is accessible within 20 minutes. As for younger people, though 99 percent were satisfied with their health condition, 54 percent had a negative view about the quality of health services. More than half of the young people had good knowledge about HIV; indeed, there were only 11 cases, 4 of them females, mostly in Baghdad, according to Ministry of Health figures.

Education Index

Investment in education has not been left behind, but it needs a generation, sometimes two, for its outcome to be realized. Illiteracy levels among the youth aged 15–29 now is an outcome of biased resource allocation in the past that was not human development centred. Current inefficiencies and failures in fulfilling mass literacy and primary education will similarly have their impact on future generations.

All indicators in education have shown some progress. Primary school attendance has risen to 94 percent, indicating the possibility of fulfilling the MDG related to primary education by 2015. On the other hand, a high illiteracy rate has been observed: 18 percent among those over 15 years of age and 15 percent among young people aged 15–29, with higher rates among females and the rural population. The more important observation is the slow improvement in the secondary school enrolment rate (48.6 percent in 2011), which is not yet capturing the level achieved in the 1980s. A gender gap is apparent: 52.5 percent for males and 44.6 percent for females.

Income Index

Gross national income (GNI) per capita[12] has increased significantly due to higher, more stable oil prices and exports.[13] In 2012 it approached US$5,86010[14]. Although GNP and GNI are not appropriate measures of human development, the latter does need and depend on income growth.

Clearly, Iraqi families have enjoyed better living standards in the past few years. Individuals' average monthly expenditure increased by 60 percent from

146,000 Iraqi dinars in 2007 to 247,ooo Iraqi dinars in 2012, with an increase of 63 percent in urban areas and 53 percent in rural areas[15] (see Table 13 in the Statistical Appendix).

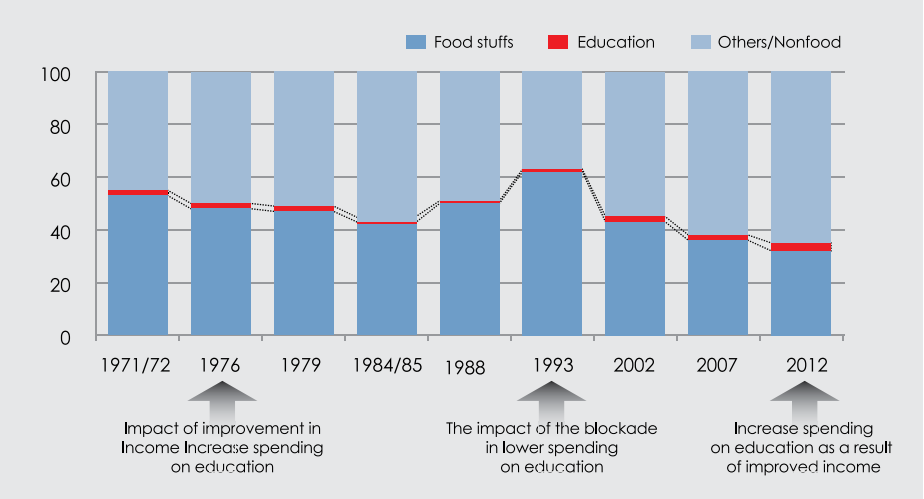
Income growth with a fair pattern of distribution leads to better human development performance. Poor families spend more on health and education as their incomes rise. With less income, they spend more on food and calorific intake. Between 2007 and 2012, expenditure on food in Iraq decreased from 35.6 percent to 33.5 percent of total household expenditures. In Erbil in the better-off Kurdistan Region, the figure was 25.6 percent, while the figure in Dhi Qar Governorate, which has high levels of poverty, rose to 40 percent (see Figure 2.1).

"In my opinion, the human development report should not stress, in its main elements, the level of income but the way it is disposed. Income itself can be used for buying basic medicaments; it can be used for buying drugs or for buying military equipment and tanks."

Mahbub ul Haq

FIGURE 2.1

Household Expenditure on Goods and Services



Source: CSO, Household budget surveys

Although education in Iraq is free from kindergarten to university, families attempt to improve education for their children by enrolling them in private schools and/or paying private tuition.

Iraqi family expenditure on education varies according to changes in their standard of living. With more welfare and better living conditions in the second half of the 1970s, expenditure on "education and culture", out of the total household budget, increased from 1.3 percent in 1971 to 2.5 percent in 1976 according to Household Budget Surveys. During the eight-year war with Iran in the 1980s, the figure decreased to only 0.8 percent, decreasing further to 0.4 percent in the 1990s, when the embargo left the households with no choice but to spend more on securing food, which amounted to more than 60 percent of total expenditure. In 2012, "education and culture" gained some importance again by representing 2.7 percent of total expenditure.

However, the relationship between education and economic growth is not a direct one. Progress in education is not always reflected in productivity and income growth because there might be limited employment opportunities in dynamic sectors (as is the case in Iraq). Still, it is evident that education has a positive impact on human development. Better health habits, food consumption patterns, family planning attitudes and practices, relationships within the family, and even youth

perceptions and initiatives, all rely on education, and female education in particular. Through better education, some countries have achieved higher levels of human development than countries with a comparatively higher income (2011 HDR). Performance and income aside, from an ethical standpoint education, health, and nutrition are valuable unto themselves for enhancing people's general capabilities.

Disaggregating Measurement at the Governorate Level

As for the progress achieved in the HDI in the governorates, though the lower level governorates have experienced some progress, they are still far behind the better governorates, particularly those in the Kurdistan Region, where , Erbil, and Duhok, in addition to Baghdad, occupied the first four ranks with an HDI value higher than the national HDI – Kurdistan Region's HDI value is 0.750, while the national HDI is 0.694. Muthanna, , and Maysan came last (see Table 1 in the Statistical Appendix). The same applies to each of the three dimensions of the HDI – they are highest in the governorates with the highest HDI.

- The Life Expectancy at Birth Index (LEBI) increased in all governorates and is higher than their HDI. For example, the LEBI value in Diyala is 0.74, which is the lowest among the governorates, while its HDI value is 0.666.
- The Education Index (EI) in all governorates save Diyala and Anbar declined. It is 0.435 in Maysan, which reflects school enrolment rates that have decreased to 76 percent for primary education and 31 percent for secondary school, already diagnosed in the MICS4 2011.

When it comes to income, it is evident that the governorates' GNI per capita is relatively lower than the HDI, except for the Kurdistan Region.

Human Development Index in Kurdistan

The security and political stability enjoyed by the Kurdistan Region for most of the last two decades have led directly to positive achievements in the HDI's three elements of health, education, and income compared to the 15 governorates of Iraq.

	HDI	
	Iraq	0.694
	Sulaymaniya	0.764
	Erbil	0.751
	Duhok	0.716
Kurdistan Region	o.750	

Building More National Capacities

The Kurdistan Region Statistics Office and the Central Statistical Organization conducted field surveys to calculate the indices and their main indicators in both Iraq and Kurdistan (see the Statistical Appendix). The solid partnership between the staff of the two bodies to do this work is a good example of sound cooperation and communication between the institutions of the federal government and those of the Kurdistan Regional Government.

Inequality-adjusted Human Development Index

The HDI ranks countries based on their achievements in the three areas of health, education, and income, and assumes that the fruits of development are distributed equally among all the social groups and geographic areas of each country, which has not been the case in all countries, for the total difference between the HDI and IHDI worldwide is 23 percent. This development inequality is lowest in very developed countries (5.6 percent in Norway) and highest in countries with limited development (52 percent in Chad). The difference in Iraq between the HDI (0.68) and the IHDI (0.60) is acceptable at 11.8 percent.

This comparison reflects differences in the sub-indices' values – 6.4 percent for the LEBI, 8.3 percent for the EI, and 19.1 percent for the income index. That means that differences in income and unequal opportunities are still preventing the achievement of the highest HDI (see Ta-

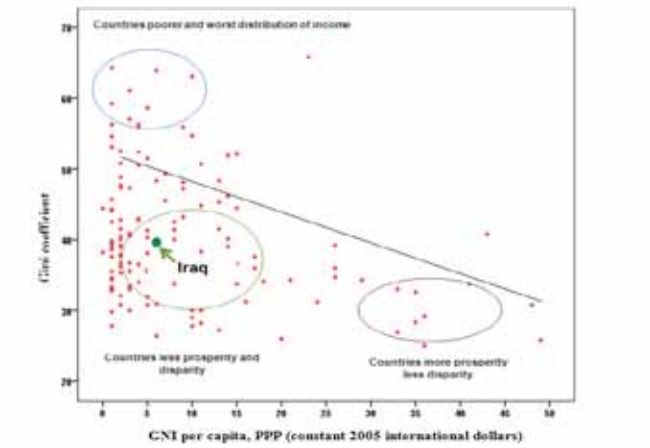
bles 1 and 2 in the Statistical Appendix).

The Gini coefficient is used to measure income inequality, which has a greater impact than the other dimensions. It increased from 37 percent in 2007 to 40 percent in 2012, but it is still low compared to other countries (Box 2.1).

BOX 2.1

Inequality (Gini Coefficient) and GNI Per Capita for 185 Countries

The scattered points represent 185 countries by degree of inequality (vertical axis) and the gross domestic product (GDP) per capita (horizontal axis). The sloping line represents the total negative correlation between the GDP per capita and inequality.



Source: UNDP, HDR, 2013

The situation revealed in Figure 2 can be explained by the fact that the countries with a degree of inequality equal to or lower than Iraq's are generally more prosperous, such as Sweden (25.0), Norway (25.8), Finland (26.9), and Germany (28.3). A large part of this prosperity can be ascribed to the deep-rooted traditions in those countries for achieving economic growth and social justice and providing good social services (2011 HDR, Table 3, Appendix).

In general, equality is a good thing, but Iraq's situation is different. Using its oil revenues, the government has depended on (untargeted) food subsidies, increasing employment in the public sector, and the distributive role of the public budget to achieve equality and increase consumption. It was a compromise that satisfied neither those on the top nor those at the bottom of the distribution. But this kind of social justice lack sustainability unless it is translated into increased opportunities and growth.

At the governorate level, the differences between the HDI and IHDI are very close, ranging between 6 and 9 points. However, these differences generally increase in the governorates with a high HDI value (, Erbil, and Duhok).

	IHDI	
	Iraq	0.579
	Sulaymaniya	0.644
	Erbil	0.628
	Duhok	0.612
Kurdistan Region	0.629	

Gender Inequality Index

The GII captures poor development performance due to gender inequality and uses three dimensions to do so: reproductive health, empowerment, and labour market participation. The GII ranges between 0 to 1, with 0 being 0 percent inequality, indicating that women fare equally in comparison to men, and 1 being 100 percent inequality, indicating that women fare poorly in comparison to men.

Calculations in this report set Iraq's GII in the middle between the best and the worst (see Technical Notes Appendix). However, the progress achieved by most neighbouring countries in reducing gender inequality is better than Iraq's. The GII in some countries, such as Kuwait, Turkey, and Iraq, improved their HDI ranking, while the GII worsened the ranking of other countries: Saudi Arabia and Iran.

Table 2.1: GII in Selected Countries

Country	GII	Ranking HDI	Ranking GII	Decline – Improvement +
Turkey	0.366	90	68	22
Iran	0.476	76	107	-31
Kuwait	0.274	54	47	7
Saudi Arabia	0.682	57	145	-88
Jordan	0.482	100	99	1
Syria	0.551	116	118	-2
Iraq	0.557	131	120	11

Source: UNDP, HDR-2013 / Table 4

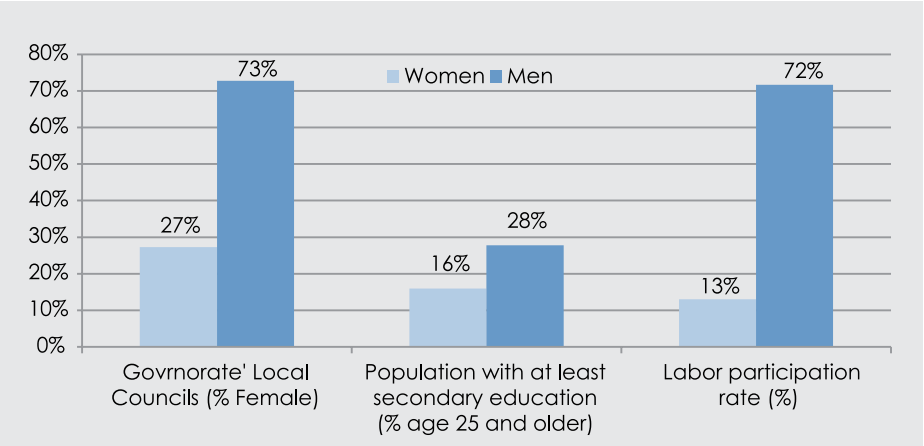
Women's Empowerment[16]

Figure 2.2 shows the differences between males and females in the basic aspects of empowerment. Women's representation in parliament (25 percent) is acceptable, but the gap is huge in education and economic participation, where the percentage of men holding secondary school certificates or higher is 28 percent compared to 16 percent of women. Poverty, a shortage of girls' schools in rural areas, insecurity, and traditions and cultural practices such as the early marriage of girls, among other factors, limit opportunities for girls' education.

The gender gap in economic activities is very wide; 72 percent of men are economically active compared to 13 percent of women. Women generally have lower working hours, more underemployment, and less paid work, but their proportion of secure jobs to total female employment is higher than men.

FIGURE 2.2

Gender-based Differences in Empowerment Indicators



Source: NHDR- 2014, Statistical Appendix -Table 3

The 2011 HDR shows that the largest losses from gender inequality are in low HDI countries, where they have high gender inequality across multiple dimensions. In South Asia and the Arab states, women lag behind men in educational attainment, national parliamentary representation, labour force participation, and decision-making participation. Women's mere presence in institutions is not enough to overcome entrenched disparities — additional changes and flexibility in institutional structures are needed to ensure that women can participate effectively in decision making. In some cases, the inclusion of women and other marginal groups is perceived as a way of maintaining the status quo or adhering to new 'rules' rather than addressing inequalities or achieving specific outcomes. What matters, then, is not simply women's presence, but the nature of their participation.[17]

In Iraq, women gained the right to hold at least 25 percent of National Parliament and Governorate Council seats according to the new Constitution of 2005. In Kurdistan Region, women have 33 percent of the total seats in the current parliament. This is an achievement when compared to the situation in Arab and neighbouring countries.

However, there is a consensus that the performance of parliamentarian women in the first and second elections has been inadequate. Women failed to fulfil voters' expectations, did not stand for women's rights, did not use their platform to tackle key issues, and failed to present initiatives to enhance their potentially visionary role. Quite simply, their voices were not heard, apart from those of a few individuals. The governmental report of 2011 to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) ascribes their unsatisfactory role to "lack of experience and unsatisfactory nominations of women by parties", which – aiming to fill spaces given by the quota (in the 2005 Iraq constitution 25% of Parliament seats are given to Women) – was based on ethnic, tribal, or sectarian considerations rather than the necessary qualifications. This applies to men as well.

Women's performance should not be separated from the performance of parliament as a whole, which was also weak considering the long list of laws waiting to be legislated, among them important laws such as those relating to labour and social protection, as well as oil and gas. Parliament also did not tackle their discriminatory approach towards women parliamentarians, who are excluded from party leaders' negotiations on political and security issues, and from chairing parliamentary committees, save those on family and social issues.

Gender Inequality Index by Governorate

The GII ranking in the governorates is the opposite of that of the HDI, given that the GII measures inequality while the HDI measures development. The lower value of GII reflects better empowerment of women in HDI dimensions.

The governorates with a GII value lower than the national value of 0.5oo are those of Kurdistan Region, Babil, Wasit, and Baghdad, reflecting a better status of GII indicators for women compared to the other governorates (Table 3, Appendix).

	GII	
	Iraq	0.500
	Sulaymaniya	0.422
	Erbil	0.406
	Duhok	0.421
Kurdistan Region	0.410	

In general, female secondary school attendance improved in all governorates except Anbar, where both male and female rates declined due to persistent instability since 2005.

Kurdistan Region showed better performance in women's empowerment, with a female secondary school attendance rate of 79 percent; Maysan was 31 percent, ranking the lowest after Muthanna and Wasit. These three governorates are the poorest in income poverty, while Sulaymaniya has the lowest poverty percentage in the country (Table 14, Annex).

The fact that women have low economic participation and low education attain-

ment is overshadowed by the relatively high political participation measured by the Quota dividend of 25 percent.

Women's Participation in Governorate Councils

In the first election of Governorate Councils in 2009, there were 110 women out of a total of 44o. In the second election in 2013, the number increased to 117 out of 440. Their performance is not better than those in the national parliaments, as their admittance was based on the same criteria, and, nevertheless, time is needed for the whole experience of political participation to mature in an infant democracy such as Iraq's. It is important to assess this experience of women's participation as a challenge and breakthrough in itself, given that it is a society still dominated by tribal and religious rules.

Multidimensional Poverty Index

The MPI is an international measure for poverty developed by the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI) and used globally in the international HDRs since 2010, replacing the Human Poverty Index. The MPI complements the income poverty index and the Millennium Development Goal measures through identifying deprivation suffered by individuals in the main well-being indices, such as standard of living, basic services, health, and education. In other words, the MPI calculates individual achievements in a number of indicators and then calculates the number of indicators in which individuals are deprived. An individual is considered to be suffering from multidimensional poverty when they are deprived in 33 percent of the indicators.

Supported by UNDP, the Information Analysis Unit and the OPHI decided through consultations that the MPI in Iraq would be comprised of five dimensions in line with the priorities of the National Development Plan (NDP) and based on the results of one survey (IKN 2011). A group of 21 indicators control these dimensions: education (4 indicators), basic services (4 indicators), nutrition and health (4 indicators), standard of living (3 indicators), and employment (6 indicators). (See the Technical Notes Appendix.)

The dimensions were given equal weight, which suggests that they are equally important for a family's well-being. The indices within a same dimension were also given equal weight, except for standards of living and job opportunities; some indices, such as income and unemployment for both sexes, were given more weight to highlight their relative importance (Chart 2.1). To identify families with multidimensional poverty, it was agreed that they should be deprived in at least 33 percent of the indicators.

CHART 2.1

MPI Dimensions, Indices, and Weights

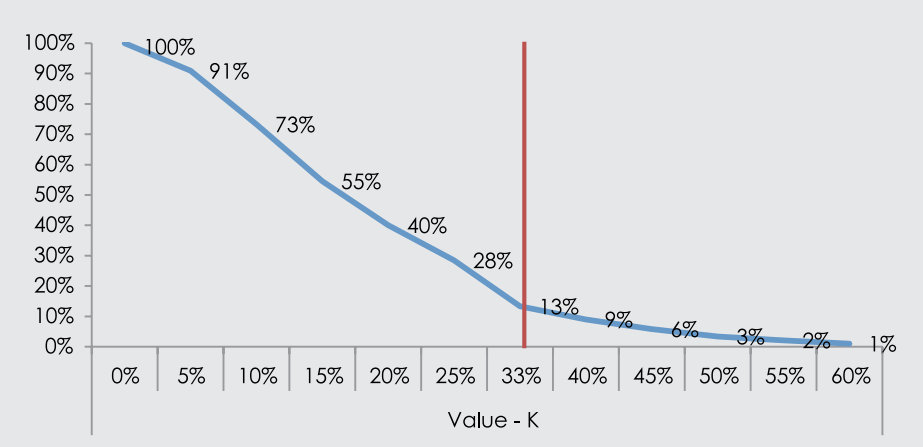
• Males elementary school enrolment • Females elementary school enrolment • Males illiteracy • Females illiteracy	5% 5% 5% 5%	**Education and Knowledge 20%**
• Income • Housing unit • Crowding	10% 5% 5%	**Level of living 20%**
• Water • Sanitation • Garbage collection • Electricity	5% 5% 5% 5%	**Basic services 20%**
• Balanced diet • Calories • Quality of health services • Remoteness of health services	5% 5% 5% 5%	**Nutrition and health 20%**
• Males' unemployment • Females' unemployment • Males' underemployment • Females' underemployment • Males' protected job • Females' protected job	5% 5% 2.5% 2.5% 2.5% 2.5%	**Employment 20%**

Who Suffers from Multidimensional Poverty in Iraq?

Based on a threshold line ('K') that differentiates between those who are deprived and those who are not, individuals are considered to be suffering from multidimensional poverty when they are deprived of 33 percent of their basic needs in terms of level of income, female's primary education, health services, electricity, and drinking water, which are the most common things the poor are deprived of. Accordingly, 13.3 percent of Iraq's populations suffer from multidimensional poverty.

FIGURE 2.3

Identifying the MPI poor and non-poor



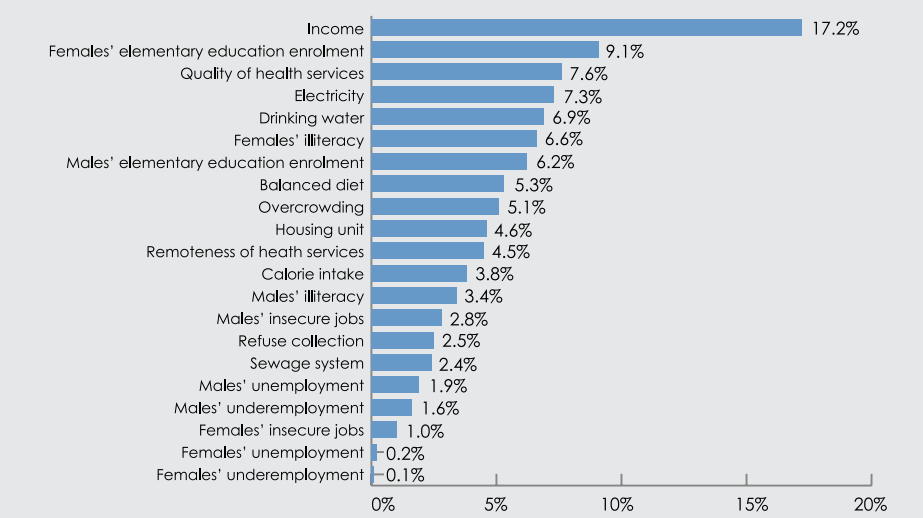
Source: Iraq knowledge network survey IKN -2011

Figure 2.3 shows that defining the poverty line is important in analysing the MPI, especially since the poor's percentage changes significantly depending on the value adopted. For example, the poor's percentage is 13 percent at a poverty line of K=33 percent, and 9 percent when K=40 percent. The diagram can enrich policy-making, when targeting, for example, individuals who suffer from abject poverty in 40 percent or 45 percent of the indicators.

One interesting characteristic of the multidimensional poverty analysis is that poverty can be divided into indicators that identify each indicator's contribution to the MPI as a whole (Figure 5). Low incomes (17.2 percent) and low elementary education enrolment rates among females (9.1 percent) contribute the most to the deprivation of individuals. Then come poor health services (7.6 percent), electricity (7.3 percent), and drinking water (6.9 percent).

FIGURE 2.4

Dimensions' Contribution to the Poor's Deprivation



Source:: Iraq knowledge network survey IKN -2011

Multidimensional poverty varies greatly from one Iraqi governorate to another. About 30 percent of the population in the governorates of Maysan and Wasit suffer from multidimensional poverty, compared to 4.3 percent in Baghdad and 1.4 percent in Sulaymaniya (Table 4, Statistical Appendix).

At the national level, more than 50 percent of the poor in Iraq live in **Nineveh, Dhi Qar, Basra, Wasit, and Maysan**. Map 2.1 shows the multidimensional poverty levels in each governorate.

MAP 2.1

The Multidimensional Poverty Index by Governorate

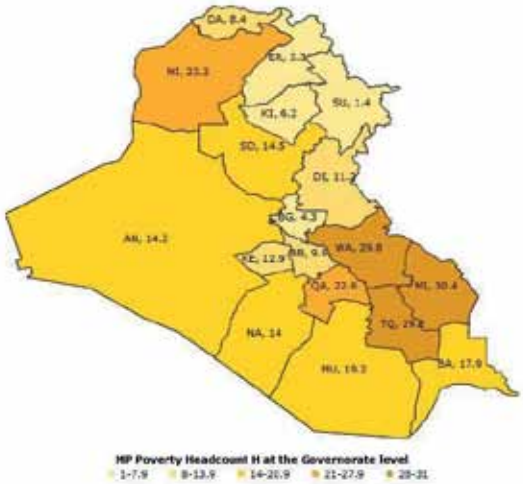
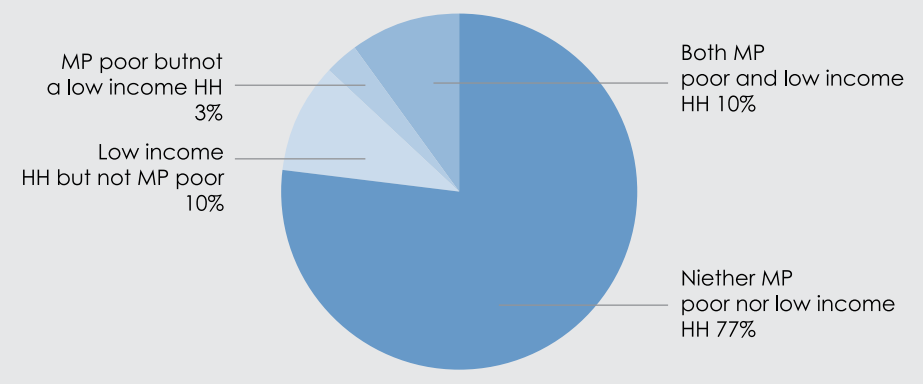


Figure 2. 5 summarizes families' poverty in the Kurdistan Region, Baghdad Governorate, and the other Iraqi governorates based on four categories:

- More than 90 percent of families in Baghdad and Kurdistan suffer neither from multidimensional poverty nor income poverty – a conclusion the above-mentioned HDIs also support. The HDI values of the Kurdistan governorates and Baghdad exceed 0.7, occupying the first four ranks: Sulaymaniya 0.764, Erbil 0.751, Baghdad 0.726, and Duhok 0.716.
- The families which suffer only from multidimensional poverty constitute 4 percent in the Kurdistan Region and Baghdad.
- The families which suffer only from income poverty in the rest of the governorates run as high as 13 percent.
- The families which suffer from both types of poverty in the rest of the governorates amount to 14 percent, compared to 3 percent and 2 percent in Baghdad and the Kurdistan Region respectively.

FIGURE 2.5

Iraqi Families with Income Poverty or MPI



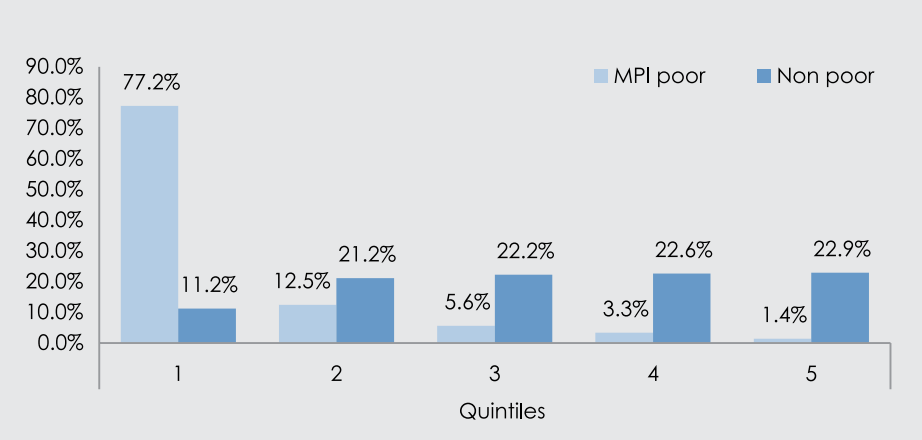
Source: Iraq knowledge network survey IKN -2011

Figure 2.6 shows that the highest percentage of those suffering from multidimensional poverty (77.2 percent) is in the lowest of the five spending categories, while the remaining 22.8 percent of this category are deprived in some of the main well-being indices.

Moreover, 1.4 percent of the individuals in the highest spending category are still suffering from multidimensional poverty, confirming that monetary measures are not adequate for addressing poverty in Iraq, since a household can suffer from a lack of municipal services, such as refuse collection and availability of drinking water, even though it has a high income.

FIGURE 2.6

People Living under the Income and MPI by Spending Category (%)



Source: Iraq knowledge network survey IKN -2011

BOX 2.2

The Multidimensional Poverty Index as a Tool for Fact-based Planning

The Iraqi government has shown a growing interest in developing national poverty measures, as governmental, academic, and civil circles have become aware that income (expenditure) poverty measurement alone does not adequately represent poverty, its prevalence, and the multiple reasons for it. As a result, poverty reduction programmes are not able to achieve their goals.

The government is committed to adopt, according to the 2005 Constitution, a mechanism that, when allocating resources to the governorates from the public budget or the investment budget to implement the development plan, considers both population and the extent of deprivation suffered by people when attempting to satisfy their basic needs. However, the ensuing political debates have prevented the adoption of this 'deprived people percentage criteria' when setting development priorities or distributing resources, and only the population of each governorate is considered.

The MPI and analysis of its findings allow for an in-depth understanding of the nature and severity of the deprivation of basic services, a fuller description of the level of living, and realistic standards for setting priorities when choosing investment programmes in the public and private service sectors.

Furthermore, the multidimensional poverty analysis is very important for UN agencies. Its results not only enrich NHDRs, but also support local development programmes and important projects of UNICEF, UN Women, and other organizations working in Iraq.

The MPI provides a simple methodology of poverty measurement that is capable of complementing income poverty. It can provide a policy tool and a guideline for local planning through estimating the needs for education, health, and other services, which represented the majority of deprivations of poor people, as the results above show. Income was responsible for 17 percent of their deprivation. The second in importance was female primary education at 9 percent, then unprotected jobs. These results may indicate priorities for social policies, of which youth will be the main beneficiaries.

BOX 2.3

Correlation Matrix between Human Development Indices and Some Economic Indicators

The correlation matrix (see Appendix) between different HDIs and other development indicators shows a clear consistency among the values of the correlation coefficients between each index and the indices or indicators adopted in the analysis at the governorate level. In this context, the HDI registers clear relationships (sometimes inverse) with the other indices and indicators.

- The correlation coefficients in the fifth row of the matrix suggest that the inequality indicator is inversely proportional to households' average monthly spending, the investment allocations per capita, and the IHDI, and directly proportional to the poverty percentage, the MPI, and the deprivation index.
- The negative value of the correlation coefficient (-0.61) with the MDG index shows that the declining achievements in gender equality adversely affect the achievements in the MDG indicators.

That the correlation coefficients are generally in line with what is expected leads to the conclusion that poverty worsens deprivation and that the improvement of human development is a result of empowerment initiatives.

Youth Development Index

The HDI, IHDI, and GII calculated in this chapter at the national, regional, and governorate levels reflect the improvement or stagnation of human development among the population in general. What young people have attained is beyond the capacity of those indices. An attempt is made to construct an index to measure youth achievements in human development dimensions, with an emphasis on the gender inequalities.

The Youth Development Index (YDI) is a complex measure built to explore the status of the youth by monitoring changes to gains made towards the youth-related Millennium Development Goals, such as universal education, gender equality, and the empowerment of women.

The YDI also assesses youth distinction in the HDI and measures other dimensions referred to in the first chapter (e.g. cultural and political dimensions), thus laying the ground for a development policy that focuses on the youth through a database that allows for following their progress, issues critical to their development, and areas where they are exposed to risks or are excluded. The database also brings attention to areas where empowerment is most needed to enable the youth to perform their role as agents for change in the transition to democracy; here again, disaggregation by gender and governorate is applied, making the YDI and its subindices and indicators a useful targeting tool for development programmes at the sectoral or regional level.

The YDI and its continuous follow-up enrich decision making and overall social policy evaluation. The government and other actors can use it for monitoring youth progress in relation to the priorities of development plans and programmes and the National Youth Strategy.

Finally, the YDI advocates youth issues, especially those related to females.

The Youth Development Index Measurement

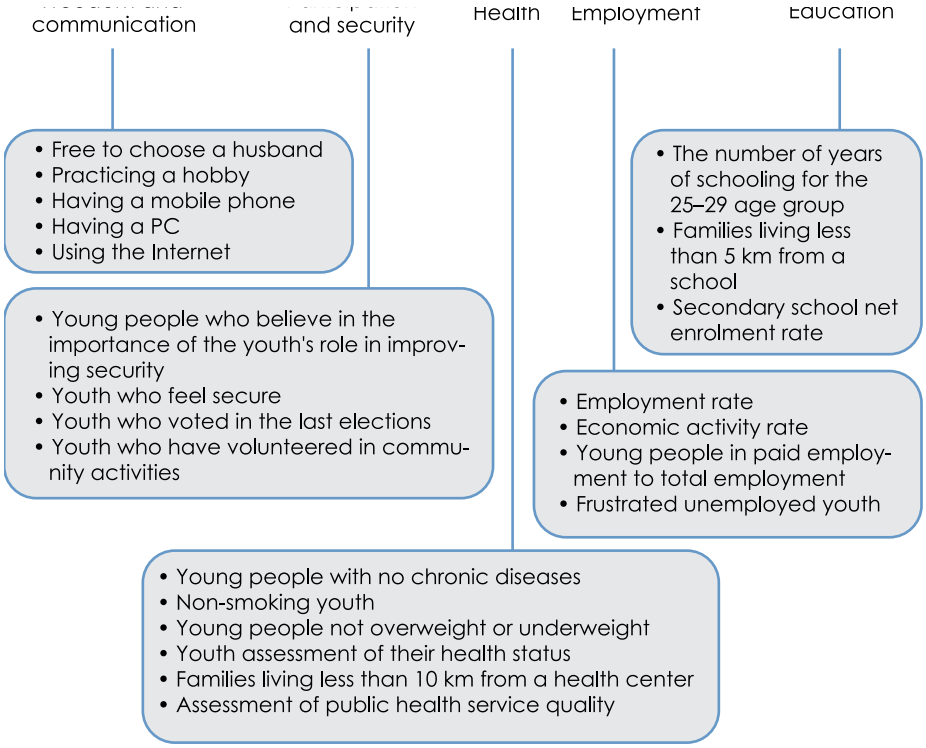
An overall national YDI was calculated, as well as a sub-YDI for young males and another one for young females to diagnose the gender gap. This YDI also measures youth development in Kurdistan Region and each governorate (see the Technical Notes Annex).

The Youth Development Index Domains

The YDI covers the HDI dimensions of education, health, and employment (instead of income). Two other dimensions are added: participation and security, and freedom and communication. Each domain includes a number of indicators that reflect the level of achievement based on the available data[18] (see Chart 2.2). The youth development benchmark indicators[19] measure the general state of the youth and the efficiency of youth development policies and strategies.

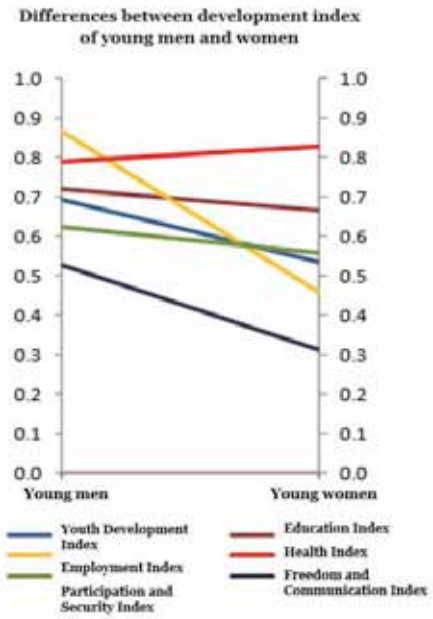
CHART 2.2

Youth Development Index– Areas and Indicators of Each Index



Youth Development Index: Visible Differences

- The YDI on the national level was 0.641, which is lower than the HDI (0.694).
- The YDI suggested a big gap between young males (0.694) and young females (0.535).
- The participation and security index (0.600) was also lower than the YDI.



The health index was the best (0.808), with the index for females (0.829) higher than that for males (0.788).Among the YDI dimensions (Figure 2.7), the dimension of freedom and communication was the lowest, at 0.535. Among the four indicators included in this dimension, owning a PC was the lowest (Appendix Table 5), especially for females. The index value drops to 0.433 when we add Internet usage, which is only 10.9 for females compared to 24.8 for males.

Except for the health sub-index, the other development sub-indices for males were higher than those for females, especially the employment index.

FIGURE 2.7

Youth Development Index

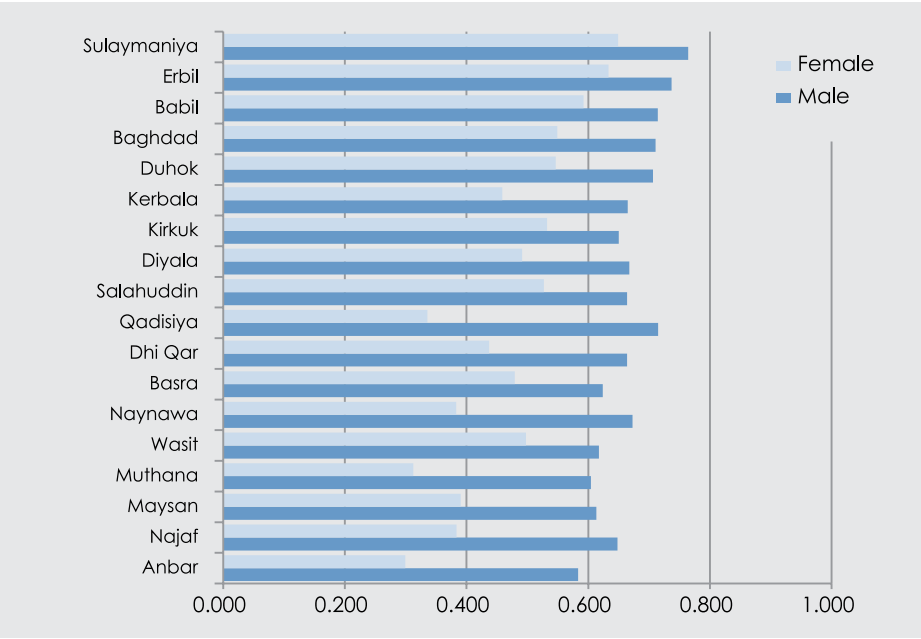
Source: Calculated by the Statistical Team of this Report

Youth Development Index in the Governorates

- The YDI was highest in the governorate of Sulaymaniya, followed by Erbil (both in Kurdistan Region), Babil, Baghdad, and then Kerbala, all of which were above the national YDI of 0.668.
- In the other 13 governorates, the YDI was lower than the national YDI, with Maysan, Najaf, and Anbar ranked in the last three places, with 0.586, 0.572, and 0.534 respectively.
- Figure 20 shows that the lower the YDI a governorate has, the wider the YDI gap between males and females. Hence, females are more affected by poor human development. While the development index for females was 0.680 in Sulaymaniya, it was less by half in Anbar.

FIGURE 2.8

The Youth Development Index Discrepancies by Governorate



Source: Calculated by the Statistical Team of the this Report

However, this order differs from one YDI dimension to another. The sub-index of Education was higher in the governorates of Sulaymaniya, Erbil, Baghdad, Duhok, Kirkuk, Diyala, and Basra than the national index. Furthermore, the education index for females was lower than for males in all governorates.

The Employment index also shows a wide gap between males (0.865) and females (0.457), which suggests a big difference among the elements adopted to measure this dimension (see the Statistical Appendix). The gap between males and females was highest in the governorates of Dhi Qar and Muthanna, with the index for females declining to less than 0.27; these two governorates ranked 15 and 18 respectively in the HDI. The same applies to comparisons with the IHDI.

Among the five sub-indexes, only the Health sub-index for females (0.829) was higher than that for males (0.788). Table 5 shows that this advantage applies to all the six elements of the health index in all governorates, which means that young women focus more on their health than young men do.

The value of the Participation and Security sub-index was 0.60 – lower than the previous three dimensions.

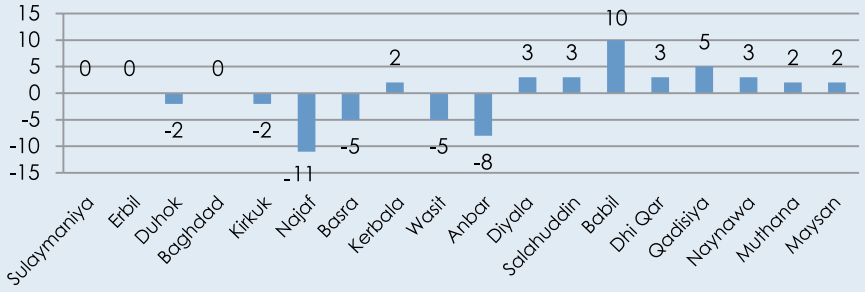
The index measured for both males and females did not register a big difference (0.623 for males and 0.558 for females), except for the first three governorates of Sulaymaniya, Erbil, and Babil. Strikingly, the female index was directly proportional to the YDI (correlation coefficient = 0.75).

The Freedom and Communication sub-index was the lowest, at 0.535, with a clear difference between males (0.637) and females (0.405). This value drops to 0.433 when the Internet usage indicator is added, due to the low number of young Internet users.

BOX 2.4

Differences between HDI and YDI Ranking

- The relation between the HDI and the YDI suggests that the latter, though based on relatively different dimensions, focuses on youth aspirations and empowerment, but these aspirations are somewhat affected by the circumstances of each governorate. The correlation coefficient measured in the governorates' ranking for both indexes was 0.544; an average positive correlation that suggests slight improvement in the YDI when the HDI improves in general.
- Figure 2.9 illustrates that while the governorates of Najaf and Kirkuk occupied an advanced rank in the HDI (6 and 7 respectively), they went down 11 and 4 places respectively in the YDI. And while the governorates of Babil and Dhi Qar ranked 14 and 15 respectively in the HDI, they occupied better places in the YDI, going up 11 and 6 places respectively.



YDI as A Tool for Monitoring and Advocating Youth Progress

The measurement of YDI identified five domains which represent three areas for empowerment, each indicator showing the needs of each domain. Low value of the index indicates lack of empowerment. The measurement showed significant differences between young males and young females and between governorates, suggesting a road map for youth empowerment policy:

- Social Empowerment: Health Index and Education Index
- Economic Empowerment: Employment Index
- Political Empowerment: Participation and Security Index, and Freedom and Communication Index

Priorities in Economic Empowerment

Raising the youth's economic participation rate:

Currently, 0.63 for young men and 0.12 for young women

Governorates: Muthanna, Dhi Qar, Nineveh

Priorities in Social and Political Empowerment

Raising the secondary school enrolment rate for both males and females:

Governorates: Maysan, Wasit, Muthanna

Participation and security:

Societal participation is very low, 0.06 for young men and 0.07 for young women

Increasing the youth's social and voluntary activities:

Governorates: Anbar, Najaf, Maysan

Freedom and communications indicators have low value and gender differences:

- Increasing the acquisition of computers
- Governorates: Muthanna, Diyala, Dhi Qar, and for young women in particular in Muthanna, Dhi Qar, and Najaf
- Increasing access to the Internet
- Governorates: Muthanna, Dhi Qar, Wasit, and for young women in particular in Muthanna, Qadisiya, Maysan

Chapter 3
Demographic Challenges

Although human development indicators are affected by population demographic characteristics, the HDI does not capture demographic changes. In Iraq, where the fertility rate is 4.2, demographic variables cannot be ignored. As in some other Arab and developing countries, demographic transition and the accompanying family change takes place slowly, constituting a challenge to human development.

A rapid decrease in infant and under five mortality rates, as well as maternity mortality rates, provides population momentum. The higher the rate of population growth, the bigger the families, which increases the dependency ratio, thereby limiting people's choices and enjoyment of life.

Behaviours and decision making within the family are subject to cultural values and social norms that determine fertility rates, population mobility, and age of marriage, among other things. This is why this chapter will elaborate on these issues, as they represent the impact of the cultural and political dimensions of human development. In Iraq, besides cultural factors, politics have had numerous effects on population displacement and migration, inside and outside the country, thereby defusing normal demographic patterns. An overall description and analysis of demographic changes will help in understanding important aspects of the youth's movement towards playing an important role in political transition.

How much is achieved in the well-being of people?

Progress towards achieving the MDGs may represent success in responding to the demographic challenges to human development, while revealing how development programmes are consistent with population changes (see Table 9, Statistical Appendix):

- Some improvement has been achieved in people's access to potable water, a safe environment, and housing.
- The infant mortality rate has decreased to 21 per 1,000, approaching the MDG target of 17 in 2015.
- Primary education enrolment increased to 93 percent, closing in on the MDG target of 94 percent for 2015.
- Women's empowerment is improving, particularly regarding political participation, but is doing so slowly in secondary education enrolment, economic participation, and the establishment of equal opportunities in other areas.
- Almost 19 percent of the population are below poverty line.

Three Demographic Challenges

Three demographic transformation factors in Iraq are challenges that are directly linked to the youth: the changing age structure of the population, fertility rates, and migration. These challenges will be the main pillars of this chapter, which will discuss how cultural, social, and even political factors interact to influence the three dimensions of human development, without being part of the HDI.

Slow Decline in Fertility Rates

The Iraqi population has grown rapidly due to previous demographic policies that supported the increase of population growth rates since the 1970s. In spite of the burden of wars, conflicts, and crises over the last 40 years, Iraq's population continues to grow.

The overall fertility rate in Iraq is still high compared to that of other Arab countries and also to the international rate of 2 live births per woman, even though it has been falling slowly over the last three decades, from 6.2 live births per woman in the 1980s to 5.7 in 1997 (latest official census year) and 4.2 in 2013.[20]

In trying to uncover the deep cultural roots behind the slow pace of demographic transition, it can be seen that young people are an intricate part of this. There continues to be a high rate of early marriage, women's labour force participation remains low, and enrolment rates for females in secondary and post-secondary education are low, as is made evident in the following chapters. Regarding the rights and reproductive health issues dealt with in the action programme of the 1994 UN population conference, the local data reveals unsatisfactory attitudes. The fact that 25 percent of women in the age group 15–49 had married below the age of 18 can be linked to early pregnancies and their frequency. Only half of the married

women knew about some kind of contraceptive[21] (Table 3, Appendix).

The economic situation nevertheless seems to have encouraged Iraqis to have smaller families; the average number of family members in Iraq fell from 7.7 in 1997 to 6.7 in 2012. This is evident in some survey results,[22] where female adolescents said they only wanted to have three children.

The average age at first marriage has not increased over the last three decades: 26 years for males and 23 years for females. It is slightly higher in the Kurdistan Region, at 27 and 25.

Iraqi society is still in favour of early marriages for both males and females. In 23.4 percent of total marriages in Iraq and in 22.4 percent of the marriages in the Kurdistan Region, the bride is under 18. In 5.7 percent of the marriages in Iraq and in 5.5 percent of the marriages in the Kurdistan Region, the bride is under 15. The proportion of women aged 15–19 who are currently married is 18.7 percent in Iraq and 19.1 percent in the Kurdistan Region. In addition, three out of ten women aged 15–49 who are currently married or have been married got married for the first time when they were under 18.

The birth rate for adolescent girls in Iraq (Table 3) is 59 births per 1,000 females aged 15–19. Although it has declined from 82 in 2006, it is one of the high rates among medium HDI countries. For example, this rate is 46 in Egypt, 53.5 in Palestine, 29.5 in Iran, and 39.2 in Turkey. However, it falls in Kurdistan Region to an average of 26 and differs from one governorate to another, the lowest being in Duhok (23.5) and the highest in Najaf (89).

The adolescent girl's birth rate is inversely proportional to educational attainment. The number of births runs as high as 122 for women with only elementary education and falls to 45 for women with a middle school certificate or higher. This rate and the related general preference for early marriage, among other factors, help to raise the total fertility rate due to the long fertility period. In general, when reproduction starts early, it continues till a late age.

While norms and values can explain youth attitudes towards early marriage and high fertility, lack of knowledge on reproductive health was behind many unhealthy practices among young girls in particular. Half of the youth surveyed in the 2009 youth survey knew nothing about reproductive health. This fact reveals the shortcomings of school curricula in youth sexual health and population issues in general.

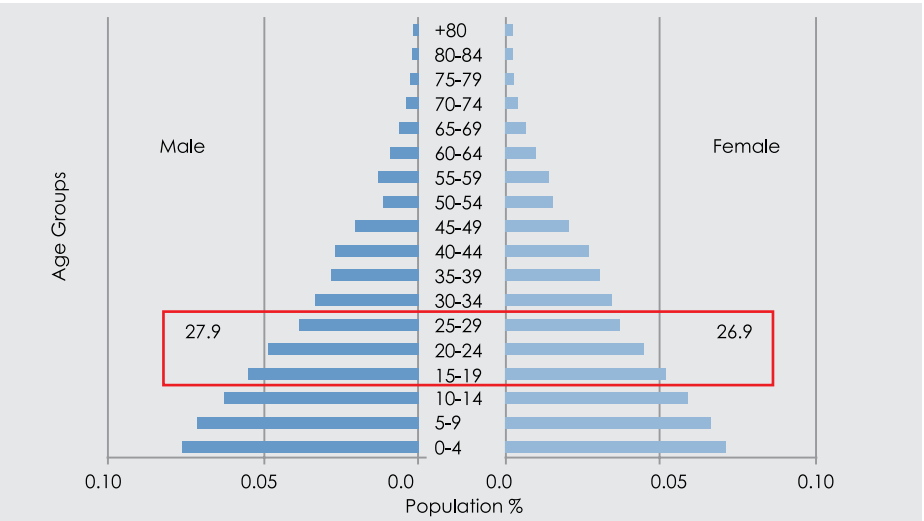
Youthful Population

The demographic characteristics in Iraq show that Iraqi society has been a youthful one for many decades. People aged 15 to 29 in 2011 amounted to 8.7 million, or nearly 28 percent of the population; half of them were females. The population projections suggest that the proportion of youth will increase before it becomes stable, then it will start to fall gradually. The youth population is expected to reach 17.6 million by 2040 (27.1 percent of the total population).

Sixty percent of Iraq's population are under 25, compared to 54 percent in the Arab countries and 48 percent in developing countries generally.

FIGURE 3.1

Iraqi Population by Age Group



Source: Iraq Poverty and Maternal Mortality Mapping survey IPMM -2013

Figure 3.1 suggests a high rate of young people aged 10–14 compared to the two older groups, meaning that most young people are adolescents, challenging the government to implement certain programmes and projects to meet their specific health and education needs. The needs of the two older age groups (15–19) and (20–24) are different, as they stand on the threshold of a new phase in life that will focus on finishing their education, seeking work, or starting a family.

Mortality rates represent the third factor effecting demographic change. The youth have been the victims of successive wars for the past three decades. As a result, which is obvious in Figure 3.1, the male age group of 45–54 in the population pyramid has shrunk. However, this chapter's emphasis on fertility and migration is derived from the importance that should be given to the youth in human development and population policy. Further studies are needed to assess the impact of violent conflict and immigration of the youth on the age structure of the population.

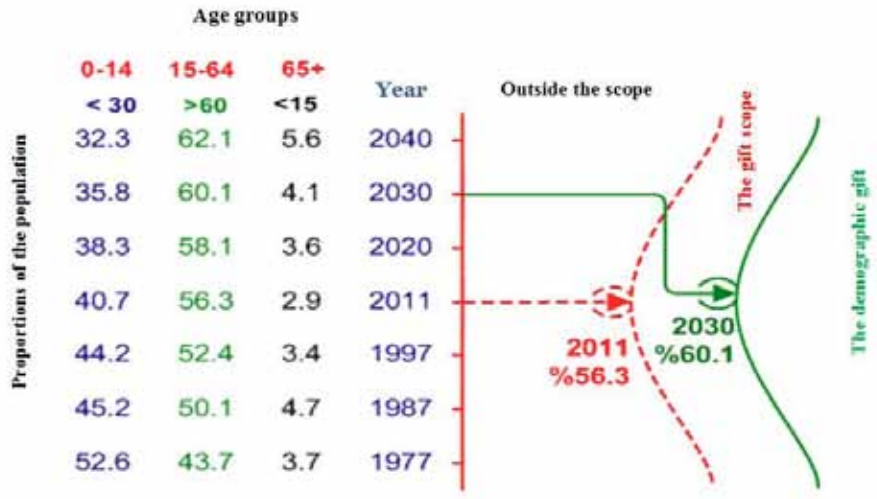
Is the Demographic Window a Real Dividend?

The increased number of young people imposes developmental challenges but also provides opportunities when youth reach the working age. When the population outside the labour force is less than the population inside it, productivity and income can increase. The field of demography labels this the 'demographic dividend' (the concept is also called a 'demographic window'), which can be seen when fertility rates decrease but the working-age youth population is still high. After this, however, population ages start to rise again and the dependency ratio becomes high. Population experts note that this period of 30 to 40 years with a large working-age population is a good demographic chance for economic growth. It however depends on timely, responsive social and economic policies. It is worth noting that the above-mentioned age structure transformation is projected to continue for more than one generation in Iraq due to slowly decreasing fertility rates and increasing life expectancy.

The window of opportunity appears "when the proportion of children and youth under 15 years falls below 30 percent and the proportion of people 65 years and older is still below 15 percent". This happens when the fertility rate falls to its replacement rate of 2.1 live births per woman, life expectancy reaches 73 years, and mortality rates fall.

CHART 3.1

The Demographic Dividend Scenario in Iraq



Source: NHDR, Box 2-6 / 2008

The youthful population is a developmental challenge, and Iraqi society still has characteristics that fuel population growth. Fast decreasing infant mortality rates, fixed high fertility rates, increased life expectancy, and a growing fertility-age population ensure that the absolute number of births remains high even if the fertility rate is expected to fall to its replacement rate. The significant increase in the number

of youth is a challenge for national development, social, and economic policies, as it requires more educational services, infrastructure, and decent job opportunities.

Population Mobility and Migration

Internal Migration

Until very recently, Iraq's modern history had not witnessed significant migration waves, due perhaps to a certain culture that did not encourage migration or the limited aspirations for migration, not to mention the legal and administrative constraints imposed by the government. Though the relationship between growing populations and dwindling resources explains many international migration cases, this economic factor alone is not enough to explain Iraqis' migration, particularly the youth, early this century, which is similar to the migrations from Syria, Lebanon, and Egypt in the late nineteenth century and early twentieth century.

In the absence of a comprehensive official census since 1987 (as Kurdistan Region was not included in the latest 1997 census), population movement (among governorates or between rural and urban areas) cannot be monitored adequately, but it is evident that prevailing imbalances are the outcome of population mobility, whether voluntary or forced. One major phenomenon is the concentration of the population in the capital and other big cities, which are encircled by shanties. These areas have non-existent or poor services and environmental deterioration, in a pattern that is not specific to Iraq, but can be seen in many developing countries which followed first-generation development strategies that focused on capital rather than human development.

The variation between governorates in HDI and MPI observed in Chapter 2 (Table 1, Appendix) reflects to an extent the correlation between health and education needs and the provision of services (see the correlation matrix, Table 6, Appendix).

The geographic distribution of Iraq's population in the governorates has a corresponding effect on the distribution of youth. With only 1 percent of Iraq's area, Baghdad has had the highest number of youth for the last three decades; they accounted for 28.3 percent of its population in 1977 and 21.4 percent in 2009. Since Baghdad is the centre for governmental, economic, and other activities, it is the number one destination for internal migration. Indeed, 39 percent of young people live in the three governorates which host the main cities: Baghdad, Mosul, and Basra. The governorates of Anbar, Muthanna, and Najaf, which together account for half of Iraq's area, only contain 11 percent of the Iraqi youth.

The implication of this on social policy is that more of a burden will be placed on social services, educational institutions, health services, and housing in these cities. The policy response should not aggravate the already biased pattern of investment among governorates and between urban and rural youth.

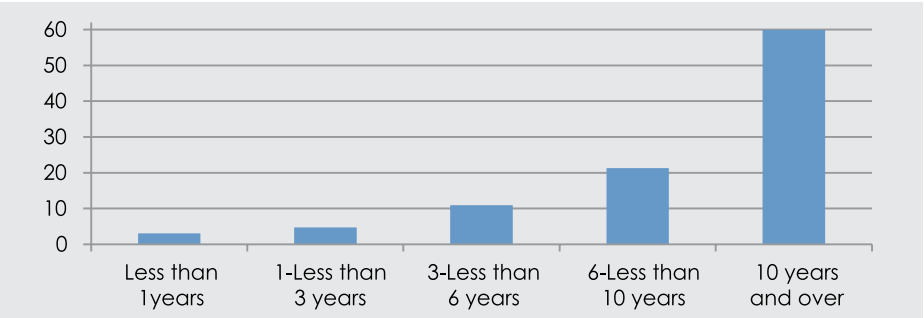
Forced Migration and Displacement

According to the UNAMI Newsletter, there are more than one million displaced people inside Iraq, most of them in Baghdad, Diyala, and Nineveh.[23] There have been waves of migrants since 2003 fleeing terrorist acts, organized crime, and sectarian violence.

The displacement occurred within and across governorates. Figure 3.2 shows that 40 percent of people changed their residence within the ten years prior to 2013 and 21 percent within the past six to ten years

FIGURE 3.2

Duration of Residency in current place (all population)

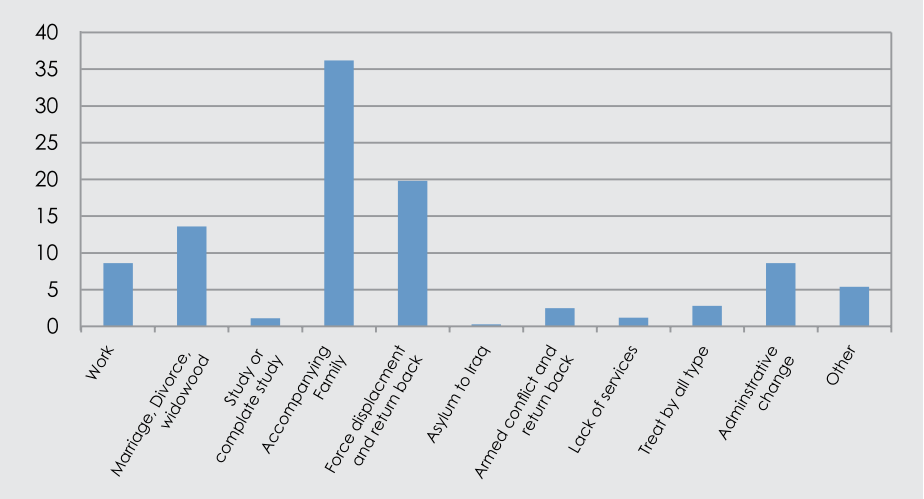


Source: Iraq Poverty and Maternal Mortality Mapping survey IPMM -2013

The reasons given for their displacement included threats and armed conflicts (25 percent) and accompanying the family (35 percent).[24] (See Figure 3.3.)

FIGURE 3.3

Reasons for Changing the Place of Residence



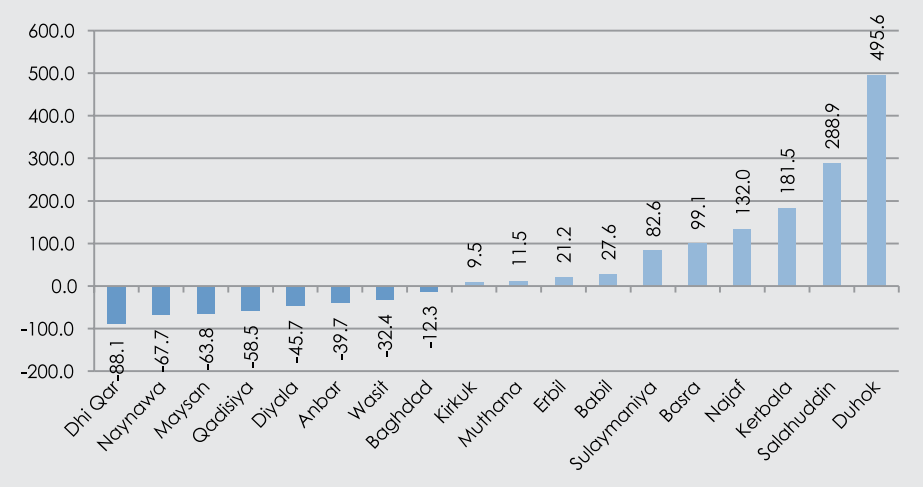
Source: Iraq Poverty and Maternal Mortality Mapping survey IPMM -2013

Figure 3.4 shows that Duhok is one of the most attractive governorates for the population, followed by Salahuddin. The governorate of Dhi Qar is the most repellent for the population, followed by Nineveh, which is still considered the most troubled in its particular security and political context.

The displacement statistics relating to the economic situation (e.g. employment reasons at 8.6 percent or poor services at 1.2 percent) do not provide sufficient justification by themselves for the massive movement of people, including the youth. Armed conflict through the past 10 years remain the major cause for displacement (changing residency) for families and youth alike.

FIGURE 3.4

Net Migration by governorates

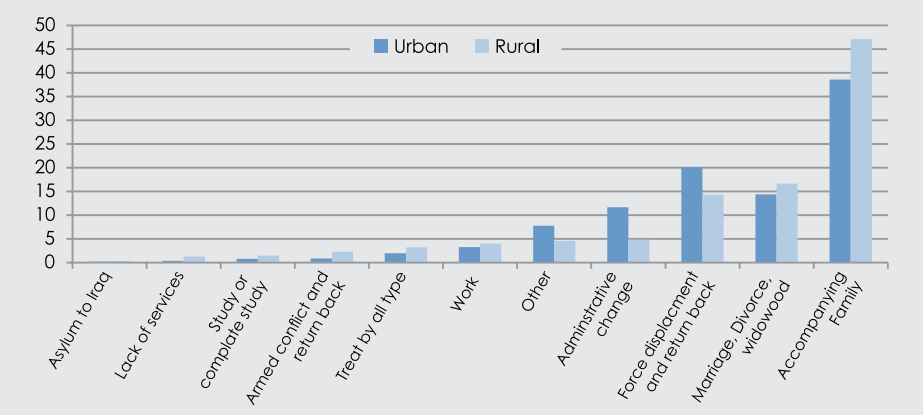


Source: Iraq Poverty and Maternal Mortality Mapping survey IPMM -2013

Indeed, the same survey results show a similar pattern of displacement for the youth. Twenty percent changed their place of residence because of threats and armed conflicts and 47 percent accompanied their families. Only 4 percent give work or poor services as a reason for their movement (Figure 3.5).

FIGURE 3.5

Reasons for Changing the Place of Residence (15–29 Years)



Source: Iraq Poverty and Maternal Mortality Mapping survey IPMM -2013

Youth Migration: Loss of Real Wealth

The UN Secretary-General's report suggests that migration enables youth to benefit from globalization and increase their well-being, hoping to get better opportunities. Migration around the world has increased thanks to the integrated global economy.

Though the relationship between growing populations and dwindling resources explains many international migration cases, it is not the case for Iraq (with abundant oil resources). The economic factor is enough to explain Iraqis' migration, particularly the youth, only in the embargo decade of the 1990s, which can be classified as voluntary migration.[25]

Despite a lack of accurate statistics or reliable figures (official or otherwise) on the Iraqi refugees abroad, international reports and studies reveal that a significant number of young people, especially males, with varying education levels left the country.[26] Many of those were medical and educational professionals, and the impact of their loss on the performance of these sectors is apparent.[27]

Why Do Young People Want to Migrate?

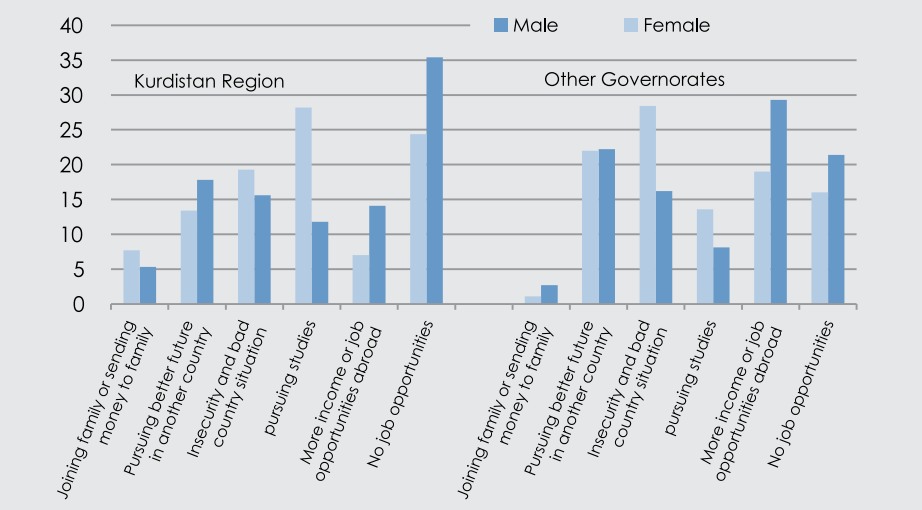
Decades of instability in Iraq led young people to be strongly desirous of migration. Youth migration and its continuity over the last three decades in Iraq is a response to the failure of successful interaction between the economic and political structures, which was instead characterized by disorder and violence that largely targeted the youth. This is apart from the demographic transformations in the country.

The 2012 Youth Survey showed that 22.2 percent of Iraqi young people aged 15–29 wished to migrate (29 percent of young males and 14 percent of young females; 23.5 percent in urban areas against 19 percent in rural areas).

This rate is higher in the Kurdistan Region (35.5 percent) than in the other Iraqi governorates (20 percent). This shows that the motives for migration are compound and not only due to insecurity or poor living conditions (Kurdistan Region is more secure and less poor than the other governorates). Other factors, such as the ability to meet the requirements for migration and individual ambition, clearly play a role.

FIGURE 3.6

Why Youth Want to Migrate



Source: Youth survey YS-2012

Among the most important motivations for youth migration is the search for job opportunities and a higher income. Nationally, 45.3 percent of the youth (50 percent of the males and 33 percent of the females) gave these reasons. The highest rate was for the 25–29 age group (27 percent), compared to 20 percent for the 18–19 age group.

How Youth Migrants or Displaced Youth Assess Their Conditions

During the preparation of the NHDR 2014, in order to incorporate youth problems and the perceptions of the youth, the youth team conducted focus group meetings and listening sessions. As neighbouring Syria and Jordan were the top Iraqi migrant recipient countries, and security was deteriorating in Syria, Jordan was chosen by the team as the best place to conduct a session outside Iraq. The meeting took place in October 2012 in Amman.

YOUTH VOICE

Iraqi Youth in Jordan – A Different View

Eighteen young men and eleven young women attended the meeting. They included high school and college students, NGO staff, and residents. Some only had temporary residency, while others were joining the queue to get asylum in another country.

It was clear from the dialogue session with this group of young Iraqi immigrants in Jordan that their immigration enabled them to distance themselves and look at their society's reality differently.

"Living in Jordan opened our eyes to many things that were either absent from our minds when we were in Iraq or we simply could not find there," said a female immigrant. "Unlike in Iraq, here we can freely express our psychological and personal feelings of joy, sadness, and depression."

The other group members quickly concurred with this view. "Here, there are no religious ceremonies or sectarian rituals that make you feel that you belong to a certain sect," said another young woman. "Here, we feel more nostalgic for each other than we did in Baghdad," commented a young man.

It has nothing to do with the estrangement which drives immigrants nearer to each other. In the Iraqi case, it expresses the rejection of political divisions based on sectarianism, which, they think, is illogical. "Here in Jordan, the only thing that divides the Iraqi youth is not sect, race, religion, or political affiliation, but rather the football teams we support: Real Madrid or Barcelona," said a young sports fan. "It is just a way of rejecting the dominant divisions in Iraq."

This meeting in Amman brought together young men and women; students and activists; employed and unemployed; Sunnis, Shiites, Christians, and Sabians; Arabs, Kurds, and Turkmen. It seems that such a meeting would have been impossible in Iraq. "Here, we overcome our divisions, and the CSOs gather the Iraqis despite their differences and diversity," added a participant. "Meeting is possible outside Iraq and outside politics."

Each one of them has their own migration or displacement story, and each has its fair share of trag-

edy. A participant migrated at the height of the sectarian conflict; another was abducted and was of the view that his friend was involved; the family members of a third were killed; and another could not find a job. Each one came from a different area and environment, but they all had been exposed to different forms of violence, which forced them to migrate. "When my parents decided to leave Baghdad, I strongly objected, but they forced me to migrate and I had actually no choice. Now, however, I am convinced that they were right," said a female participant.

Civil activists felt an even bigger difference between the two environments, perhaps due to their work. "We feel that others, like CSOs and international organizations, care about us," said a young participant. "Unlike in Iraq, the voluntary work here is more organized and respected. And it enables us to serve Iraqis more than others. It has nothing to do with evading responsibility; on the contrary, it is about the need to serve society and about self-fulfilment. Here, it is easy to study and work at the same time and change jobs freely, which is currently not possible in Iraq, especially for girls."

Freedom is the magical word. "They look at me dubiously and they feel I am a stranger," said a civil activist, explaining how she feels when she visits her relatives in Baghdad. "My relatives and friends do not even like my veil and I do not know why. I am religious and wear the veil because I am convinced about it. I do not understand what all the fuss is about."

"They look at us as if we were strangers and not like them, simply because we live in Jordan," concurred a young man.

This extreme sense of isolation is common during hard times and civil conflicts. Now, extremism dominates in Iraq. There is disdain and maybe some hatred towards all people who are different – whether for just being wealthier, having a better job or education, or even for wearing more liberal and colourful clothes. It is a well-known self-defence mechanism to fortify one's convictions and retreat into one's social milieu, with a narrowing of affiliations – from the world to the nation, then to the religion, tribe, clan, party, sect, etc. or to a mixture of these.

We asked the participants which things they wished could disappear once and for all from Iraq.

The answers were quick and disorderly: "Sectarianism, corruption, poor government performance, quotas, religious exploitation, oil, ignorance, intervention of neighbouring countries, unemployment, division, and concrete barricades." These words do not form a complete sentence, but they are important priorities for human development.

To complete the picture, we asked another question: Which things do you wish Iraq had? The answers poured out: "A return to what Iraq was like in the 1970s, once again safe and open; the Iraqi people become once again cooperative, tolerant, and united; good services in all areas; a favourable environment for agriculture; our social life as it used to be; integrity and commitment to work; Iraq's rivers returned to their prime; etc."

It was not surprising that all wanted Iraq to return to the 1970s. It is a legitimate nostalgia for security, welfare, and social freedoms, though these were actually not guaranteed at the time, as Iraqis then were also suffering from serious problems related to freedom, democracy, and equality, though different from the current ones. This nostalgia for the 'golden past' is part of crises and culture wars, when the future is bleak and uncertain. When young people neither see light at the end of the tunnel nor trust their ability to change the present, their dreams for the future are projected onto history. The return to the past, which is impossible in reality, is only considered when a better future seems impossible.

How Do Policies Respond to Demographic Challenges?

There seems to be wide awareness within society and among policymakers of the demographic challenges that impact on human development. These include high fertility rates and their impact on dependency, youth emigration and the need to sustain ties with them, the instability of an internally displaced population, and the necessity of responding to the demographic window.

The National Development Plan 2013–2017 responds through its goals:

- Integrating population issues into development programmes
- Gradually influencing the high population growth rates
- Increasing the life expectancy rate

In the National Youth Strategy (2013–2020), the demographic dimension is prominent as one of the reasons for the formation of the strategy: "The demographic dividend will require efforts to build human capital through knowledge, information, skills, increasing youth participation and productivity, and decreasing dependency rates significantly." (page 11).In the same context of responding to demographic challenges, Higher Population Council was established in 2013 (see Box 3.1).

Though it is one of the government's tasks, the realization of the above goals and their impact on the development of the youth remains the responsibility of the youth themselves.

BOX 3.1

Population Policy 2013 – No More Neglect of Population Issues

For many decades, the consecutive Iraqi governments did not pay special attention to population policies, unlike other countries. Nor were they enthusiastic about adopting the recommendations of relevant international conferences and symposiums. The decisions taken by the state in the 1970s supported maintaining high population growth rates, through providing incentives for families with high fertility, encouraging early marriage, and providing other kinds of material and non-material support accompanied by the banning of the promotion and selling of contraceptives for many years. They only started to be used in the early 1990s in reproductive health and family planning centres. In brief, population issues were not linked with development efforts.

Having issued the 2008 NHDR, the Ministry of Planning (MoP) realized that the lack of population policies thwarted development and the creation of a quality society that compared with developing countries which lacked Iraq's financial capabilities and natural resources. However, there are challenges to designing and implementing clear population policies in Iraq: a lack of development strategies and goals that can be used as the basis for population policies, an absence of specific entities tasked with population policymaking at the institutional and community level, and, due to the delayed census, a lack of integrated and comprehensive databases that can help develop population policies.

The Higher Population Council was formed in February 2013 according to the recommendations of the, which stressed the need for adopting workable and legally acceptable population policies based on a vision to achieve the national strategic goals to bring about changes in the quality and quantity of the population that are conducive to sustainable development, justice, and equal opportunities as soon as possible, as well as attain the International Conference on Population and Development's population goals and the MDGs.

Okud Hussein, Director of Population Policies

Chapter 4

The Youth and Economic Challenges

The Challenge of Youth Unemployment

The youth's right to work, equal opportunity, and engagement in social and political activities is an essential component of the development process. This right is emphasized in Article 22 of the 2005 Iraqi Constitution and in state policies referred to in the National Employment Policy 2010–2014, the National Development Plan 2013–2017, and the National Youth Strategy 2013–2020.

Work is not only an economic necessity for meeting one's daily needs, but is also assumed to be a life project for young people, through which they seek to realize themselves, their ambitions, and their dreams. Work also has an intrinsic and instrumental value as a tool for achieving other goals.

Article 22 of the Iraqi Constitution

First: Work is a right for all Iraqis to guarantee them a decent life.

THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN 2013–2017: STRATEGIC GOALS ASSOCIATED WITH LABOUR MARKET REFORM

1. Reducing the unemployment rate to 6 percent
2. Raising the economic activity rate to 60 percent
3. Developing labour market institutions
4. Improving labour productivity
5. Providing a decent working environment
6. Expanding the scope of secure work

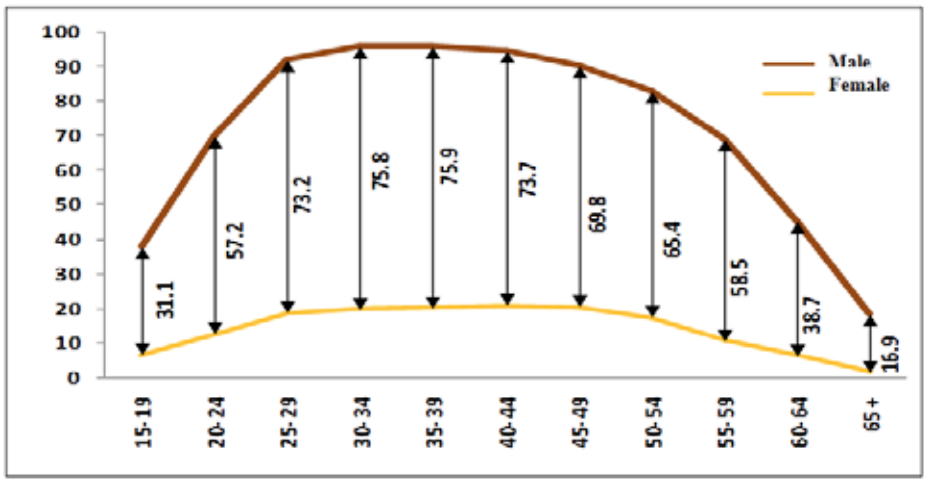
Youth Economic Activity

The economic activity rate (EAR) measures people's economic participation by looking at how many people in a certain age group are active or potentially active members of the labour market.

The EAR for the age group of 15–29 was 38.4 percent (63.4 percent for males and 12 percent for females).There is a clear gap between women's and men's EAR. The gap runs as high as 76 percent for the 25–45 age group. This difference, however, begins to decline after the age of 45 (Figure 13).

FIGURE 4.1

The Gap in Male and Female Economic Activity Rates (15 years+)



Source: Iraq knowledge network survey IKN -2011

The highest EAR for the age group 15–25 (61 percent) was among holders of

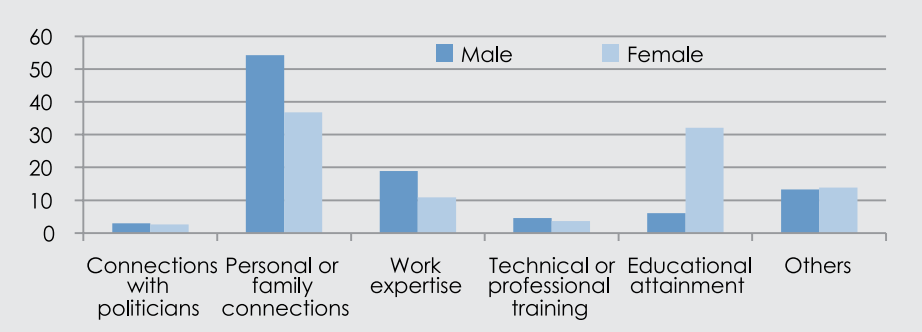
a diploma certificate or a higher degree. The highest EAR for males was among illiterate individuals (76 percent), while the highest EAR for females was among holders of a diploma or higher degree (50 percent). **This means that higher education is a more important factor in finding a job for females than for males.**

How Do Young People Get a Job?

The Youth Survey 2012 shows that young people got their jobs in the following ways: family and personal relationships (52.5 percent), work experience (18 percent), educational attainment (8.7 percent), technical or vocational training (4.5 percent), and other factors (13.4 percent). The rate of young males who acquired jobs through family or personal relationships (54.2 percent) was higher than that of females (36.8 percent). It is evident that young women's qualifications for the labour market largely depend on their level of education, with 32.1 percent compared to 6.1 percent for males (Figure 4.2).

FIGURE 4.2

How the Youth Get Jobs



Source: Youth survey YS-2012

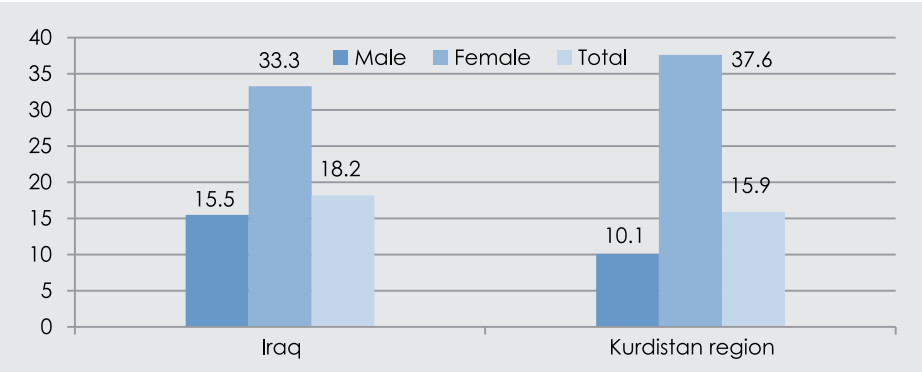
Youth Unemployment Characteristics

Figure 4.3 shows the different youth unemployment rates (YURs) between males and females aged 15–29, with the females having higher rates. In 2011, the YUR was 33.3 percent among females and 15.5 percent among males. These rates are high compared to the overall unemployment rate of 20.7 percent for females and 9.2 percent for males.

The fact that young women's unemployment rate is twice as high as young men's suggests a growing demand for employment among young women, which exceeds supply. The discrepancy in unemployment rates between young men and women (10.1 percent and 37.6 percent respectively) in the Kurdistan Region is very large, which reflects a greater need for employment among young women in Kurdistan, compared with the rest of Iraq's governorates (Figure4.3).

FIGURE 4.3

Youth Unemployment Rate in Iraqi Governorates and Kurdistan Region



Source: Iraq knowledge network survey IKN -2011

Young men's overall unemployment rate was as high as 20 percent in urban areas and as low as 14.9 percent in rural areas. However, it should be noted that concepts related to employment, unemployment, or underemployment could be different in rural areas when work within the context of a small or extended family (with or without pay)and labour hoarding are taken into consideration.

Similarly, young women's unemployment rate is higher in urban areas (58.2 percent) than in rural areas (10.4 percent), though rural women's economic participation is likely much higher than the officially published figures.

High unemployment rates are significant among educated youth and university graduates. Education did not adjust to the changes in the labour market, creating numerous graduates but limited demand for a highly educated workforce. Such a situation might be expected given the limited production capacities outside the crude oil sector, but also the cognitive, technological, administrative, and organizational backwardness accumulated over three decades.

For the age group of 15–29, the higher the educational attainment, the higher the unemployment rate. Out of the total number of unemployed people, 15.4 percent were holders of primary education certificates and 31.6 percent[28] were university graduates. Furthermore, the unemployment rate was 13 percent among holders of high school and lower certificates and 24 percent among holders of higher certificates.

Unsuccessful Measures

Government measures to address unemployment are more or less responsible for the high rates of underemployment among young people working in the public sector. These measures include the following:

- Adopting temporary contracts as an employment method aimed at reducing rates of open unemployment. These contracts particularly assisted young graduates, while also helping to reallocate the employees of ministries that had been closed.
- The public sector employment expansion policy, which was adopted after 2005 with a view to increasing the number of public sector employees, especially in the security apparatus.

The adoption of short-term policies to alleviate income poverty by absorbing some of the openly unemployed into part-time marginal jobs – positions such as guards, cleaners, or painters of bridges and pavement – has transformed them into underemployed persons.

BOX 4.1

Bridging the Gap between the Labour Market and Education

The Ministry of Planning is preparing the implementation of a Labour Market Survey in 2014 for the first time in Iraq. Early attempts to estimate the labour needs by education level in the public sector have proved unsuccessful because of lack of response of ministries. It became evident that both the education system and labour market were incapable of upgrading their standards or responding quickly to the fast-growing technical skills and professions needed for the growing and diversified economy.
MoP is looking forward for this achievement with the support of the International Labour Organization (ILO).

Mehdi Alalaq
Head of the Labour Market Survey Committee

Youth Underemployment

Based on the ILO definition of visible underemployment,[29] the rate of workers aged 15–29 who are in visible underemployment (36 percent) is higher than that of the total working-age population (32.2 percent). And the same applies to invisible underemployment. In addition, the rate of young people in underemployment

is 18.4 percent in rural areas and 21 percent in urban areas.

Underemployment is primarily observed within undereducated groups – illiterate persons, semi-illiterate persons, and those with an education below the high school level. The rate is lower for holders of diplomas and higher qualifications. This means that the higher the educational attainment, the greater the likelihood of having access to a secure, full-time job. A higher rate of illiterate or undereducated people work fewer hours, often in seasonal, temporary, and insecure jobs. It should be noted that the rates are similar for both sexes at this level (Table 4.1).

TABLE 4.1

Distribution of Underemployed Individuals by Age Group and Educational Attainment

Educational attainment	Underemployment (%)	
	Age 15–29	Age 15+
Illiterate/can read and write	23.4	20.5
Primary/high school	19.0	16.1
Diploma and above	13.9	8.8
Total	20.1	15.9

Source: Iraq knowledge network survey IKN -2011

Underemployed Young People's Workplace

Streets are the workplace with the largest number of underemployed workers; 41.3 percent of young males and 21 percent of young females work as peddlers and as drivers of carts or vehicles. Location is not a big factor, as this rate is 43 percent in urban areas and 37 percent in rural areas.

Construction sites/workshops rank second, with 28 percent of young males (four times higher than the rate of young females) working in them. This suggests a considerable number of job opportunities in the construction and building sector, probably due to the marked boom in the private construction sector in recent years (Table 10, Statistical Appendix).

Young Women's Working Pattern Suggests Exclusion

Generally, women are more active in agriculture (32 percent of women in general and 56 percent[30] of females aged 15–29), often as part of their family role. However, women's activities in rural areas are largely unpaid. In fact, 86.3 percent of working males over the age of 15 have paid work, compared to only 13.7 percent of working women of the same age group. Among working women in the age groups of 15–19 and 20–24, only 2.4 percent and 6.4 percent, respectively, are paid. In contrast, paid working males in the same age groups are 97.6 percent and 93.6 percent.[31]

Apart from seasonal harvesting crops in the countryside, young women are engaged in specific jobs, such as operating date presses and working in brick-making factories. Despite the work's material and human value, the gender pay gap and the absence of protection and security for these women are hugely exclusionary.

In cities, although it is widely believed that females seek work in socially acceptable places such as factories, offices, institutions, and manufacturing plants (19.5 percent), one in five females has a job that offends their dignity – for example, on the street or as a peddler. The total distribution of the female workforce in different workplaces suggests clear marginalization compared to the male workforce: females' jobs are unpaid, such as working in the family home (23 percent) and farm or agricultural work (17.5 percent), and are unstable, temporary, and insecure due to the absence of social security systems (Table 10, Statistical Appendix).

Unemployment and Poverty

Youth unemployment suggests structural and emergent gaps in the economic sys-

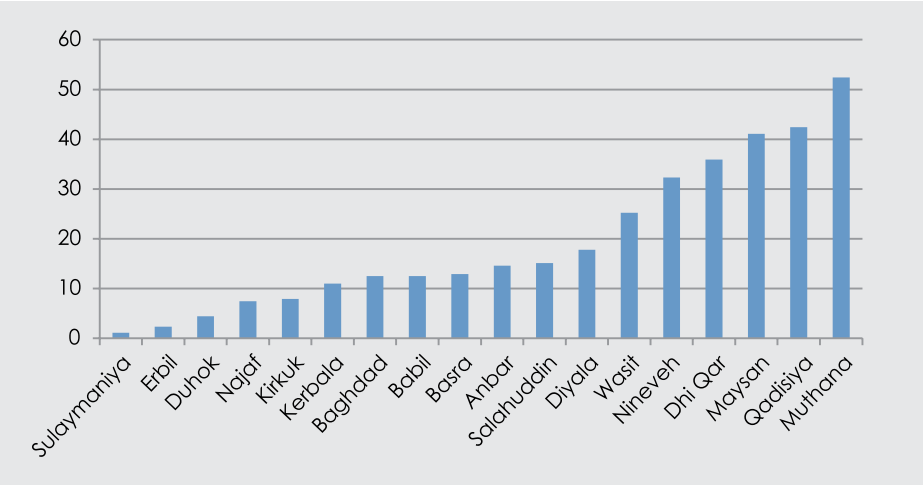
tem and a state of disassociation between education outputs and labour market inputs. While education systems have been expanded to accommodate young people, the lack of coordination between them enhances unemployment. The numbers of graduates are much greater than the available opportunities for proper training; indeed, training as an intermediate process that facilitates entry into the labour market is almost absent.

Unemployment is one of the major causes of tension among the youth and makes them worry about their uncertain personal future. This feeling intensifies among poor young people – the rate of income poverty for the youth comes to 17.9 percent, ranging between 52.4 percent in Muthanna Governorate and 1.1 percent in Sulaymaniya (Figure 4.4). Work becomes an indicator of exclusion when it is forced and unpaid, thus failing to enhance a human being's independence, self-confidence, and satisfaction.

While unemployment and the ensuing poverty have become the embodiment of inequality, the increasingly widespread feeling of injustice among young people constantly fuels the social and economic polarization that generates impoverishment and exclusion.

FIGURE 4.4

Income Poverty for the 15–29 Age Group



Source: Iraq household social -economic survey IHSES-2012

BOX 4.2

Wastage of Youth Potential

Working hard to earn a living: In the Shorja market and its surroundings in downtown Baghdad, one can see successive waves of short and long handcarts made from wood or iron, pushed or pulled by young men, passing quickly. They leave bystanders amazed, as their movement is unrelenting, and they go side by side or one after the other without colliding with each other. On the faces of the workers, you see no signs of tiredness. You only hear the word "Allah" with each lift or push.

It is a scene that does not belong to the 21st century. "Such is our daily work," says a young man. "We start in the early morning, paying no attention to hot or cold weather. We have our own carriages, and we deal with merchants according to the size of the goods or boxes. We are paid 2,000 dinars for each box we move. Thank God, by the end of the day, we get a good daily pay."

"It is a very tiring job, but we have to take it to provide for our families," says another. "We tried many temporary jobs, like construction, but we used to work one day and stay idle for ten days, waiting for another opportunity. Thank God, this job is permanent. True, it is exhausting, but we have got used to it and we now have acquaintances and friends among the merchants through whom we can find work. There is high demand for our work in Shorja because large trucks are not allowed to enter the Shorja market. Thank God, we earn a good living."

"Work is not shameful," says a 20-year-old man. "I do not care if I work as a porter or a shoeblack as long as I earn a living. People used to mock porters, but as you see now, thousands of young men work here. Unlike other places, there is work here and un-

employment is unfortunately is on the rise. More importantly, I do not return to my family with an empty pocket."

"Most workers here come from other governorates where there are no job opportunities," says his colleague. "Some of them are even university graduates. They work from early in the morning till afternoon when the transport activities fade. It is very tiring and exacting work, but it is better than nothing and better than staying at home. When we finish, we tie our handcarts with iron chains in different places, mostly in Al Rasafi Square, and we sleep in cheap hotels. Thank God, we can cover our daily expenses, and keep some money for our families, too."

Adapted from Abdujjabbar Utabi, 'They Waste Their Energies Pushing and Pulling Carts to Earn a Living: Young Men Have Become Horses around Shorja',www.Almutamer.com

At the end of this chapter, the question remains: if the generation gap, favouring boys over girls, the authoritarian culture in the family, and the dangerous behaviours of which we have given examples are all an expression of individual, familial, and social crises, is it possible to address them individually without comprehensively addressing the other social, economic, and political aggravating factors? This is what this report is trying to answer as it makes the argument that development is an integral, comprehensive, and indivisible process. In the following chapters, we will address other dimensions of the process to integrate the youth, including their roles in education and other development fields.

Fair Opportunity for Young Women

The 2013 public federal budget has allotted 10,000 jobs in the public sector to females, with priority given to widows and female breadwinners.

BOX 4.3

Successful Measures towards Poverty Alleviation

- In 2010, Iraq launched a national Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) that included multisector development policies as well as legislative reform programmes advocating for the interests of the poor.
- A distinctive feature of the PRSP was that it was not a mere national document, as it came into effect immediately after endorsement by the Council of Ministers, through Resolution 409/2009, and obligated ministries and governorates to include the PRS activities in their annual plans, in addition to allocating annual funds from the investment budget earmarked for service ministries and underprivileged governorates in 2012. In 2013, the allocations were increased to cover projects in poor areas in all governorates, where most of the funds were earmarked for building low-cost housing compounds, enhancing primary health care services, demolishing and rebuilding mud schools, and the Small Loan Fund for the Poor Project. Out of the 14 projects included in the 2012 investment budget, the following projects were found to be more relevant to youth:
- Remove mud schools in Iraq through demolishing and rebuilding 409 traditional or prefabricated clay schools in the governorates.
- Increase the numbers of mobile clinics for remote areas through purchasing three quality mobile clinics (equipped with an X-ray unit and binocular microscope to diagnose tuberculosis) and distributing them to the northern, central, and southern governorates.
- Provide 21 types of lab equipment and devices for health centres in the governorates.
- Support the Small Loan Fund for the Poor Project, which grants a small loan – totalling 5–10 million Iraqi dinars – according to specific controls and mechanisms to the following groups in the eight poorest governorates: the disabled, displaced returnees, widows, divorcees, female breadwinners, female ex-convicts, those affected by terrorist attacks, breadwinners of financially unstable families residing near landfills, and beggars.
- Implement projects to build low-cost residential complexes for the poor and provide the relevant necessary infrastructure: schools, hospitals, paved roads, and wastewater networks in Muthanna, Qadisiya, Salahuddin, Diyala, Babil, and Wasit.
- Build primary health care centres (establish 20 health care sites, each containing a caravan and a generator within a fenced piece of land and covering 200–1,000 people, to be distributed to the districts in Salahuddin Governorate).
- Organize markets in poor neighbourhoods (establish eight souks, each with 32 kiosks, in the districts of Salahuddin, and establish 100 kiosks in Qadisiya Governorate).
- Take measures to provide infrastructure for the low-cost residential housing unit projects for the poor, including public utilities and connections to the main road.

The PRS Executive Management Director-General Najlaa Ali Murad

The Challenge of a Rentier Economy[32]

After the collapse of the totalitarian regime in 2003, important changes such as openness to the world and the initiation of an economic reform process did not constitute the starting point for building a new economy nor did they lead to resuming development, which had stalled for decades. The expectations of a better standard of living and lifestyle were too high, especially among the youth; the management of the national economy and of the resource allocation policy failed to meet people's needs, despite growing oil revenues.

These changes have actually weakened the already weak inherited institutional frameworks, pending the completion of the transition to a new economy. The transition neither produced structural shifts conducive to development resumption nor created new opportunities for young people, who soon faced the reality that they were stuck in a long-term transitional phase with an undetermined destination.

With an average GDP per capita higher than that of Iraq in 1980, many countries in Latin America, the Middle East, and North Africa have made significant progress in the past three decades, while Iraq has lost growth opportunities. Wars, sanctions, and armed conflicts have led to a deficit of infrastructure and production capacities; poor institutions; and confused political, economic, social, and cultural structures. This affected young people and even the planning and implementation aspects of the development process, in which young people are supposed to be central.

At the same time, the population continued to grow, concentrated in the urban areas. Thus, over four decades, extraordinary circumstances have imposed a catastrophic situation for young people in all areas. Many young people lost their lives. Material and financial resources were allocated to internal and external conflicts under the 'war economy' prior to 2003, and to security issues under the 'security economy' after 2003. The priorities of successive governments deviated from the development process and instead focused on getting independence from the occupation, achieving internal security, fighting terrorism, and minimizing the corruption that was spreading in all institutions.

In Iraq the oil sector is the main generator of national income and the mainstay of the state budget; its revenues affect the overall economy. The years of sanctions revealed how fragile the Iraqi economy was without oil. When oil exports declined and then were blocked, there was a sharp decline in the GNI per capita from US$3,812 in 1980 to only US$180 in 1994.

Ten years after the announcement of the transition from a centralized economy to a market economy, the pillars of transition from a rentier state to a production-oriented one (as happened in other rentier countries, such as Norway, Indonesia, Chile, and Botswana) have not been established yet. Instead, the rentier state institutions are consolidated through the public budget policy, which continues to produce a rentier private sector and a society almost completely dependent on rent (revenue). Thus, the idea of a rentier state, established in the mind of government and society (the youth in particular), has not been removed.

Iraq's economy continues to heavily depend on the oil sector in light of the steadily declining contribution of non-oil commodity activities (agriculture, industry) to the GDP. Indeed, the contributions of manufacturing and agriculture to the GDP declined to 2 percent and 5 percent respectively, as opposed to their averages of 9 percent and 22 percent respectively five decades ago. The oil sector, with a contribution of 55–60 percent of the GDP, only employed 2 percent of the workforce, and the productivity of the remaining 98 percent of the workforce was very low in commodity and service production activities, with a contribution of no more than 30 percent of the GDP in 2011.[33]

Apart from the oil sector, the current contribution of services to the GDP is 50 percent at best; the Iraqi service economy is one of low productivity and diversity, and is dominated by fragile service activities. Therefore, the nature of the rentier structure affects the general employment structure and the number and nature of job opportunities generated by economic growth. And national income is directly affected by increased oil revenues rather than by increased productivity rates (Box 4.4).

BOX 4.4

National Development Plan 2013–2017 – No Choice but Oil

The NDP 2013–2017 states that "the Iraqi economy has not witnessed structural changes. The general trend still confirms the fact that the oil sector is the largest contributor to the GDP, which is somewhat temporarily consistent with the NDP investment policy which calls for the temporary acceptance of a continuous unilateral economy to increase oil production and exports in order to enhance the financial position of Iraq to finance development and reconstruction programs. Thus, the structural imbalance of the economy in 2009–2011 was intentionally outward, but it is almost internally sustainable for decades."

Therefore, "the revenues derived from crude oil production and export continued to constitute the largest contributor to the state's public revenues, with 97.4% in 2012. Oil revenues are expected to remain at the forefront and continue to influence the Iraqi economy during the NDP period 2013–2017 in light of the constant improvement of the productive capacity of the oil sector, as well as the implementation of contracts signed with foreign companies to increase production and exports. During 2013–2017, oil production and oil exports are expected to annually increase by 17.9% and 26.2% respectively on average and the total public revenues of the state are expected to amount to IQD 812.263 trillion, 95% of which are oil revenues and 5% non-oil revenues."

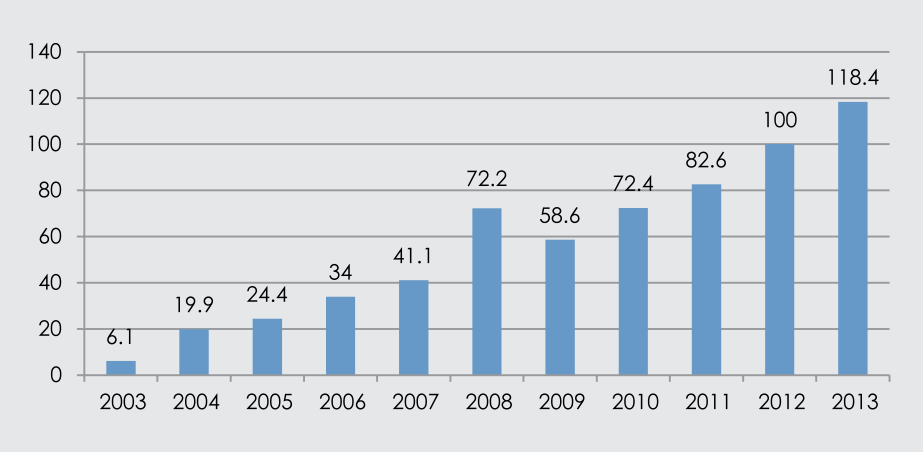
The Public Budget as a Tool to Steer the Economy

Increased oil revenues clearly affect the public budget, which now decides the movement and trends of the economy. Figure 4.5 shows the budgets from 2003 to 2013, which rely almost entirely on oil revenues. Oil exports account for 95 percent of government revenues, and their contribution to the GDP is nearly 70 percent.

The public budget policy continued to rely on setting allocations, rather than on specific developmental programmes. Therefore, since 2003 the federal budget has not witnessed any substantial change towards addressing the imbalanced public expenditure structure, which continued to favour operating expenditure at the expense of investment expenditure. This imbalance is attributed to the goal of promoting consumer welfare, as well as inefficient investment programme implementation, which clearly affected growth rates and job creation in the public and private sectors. The unemployment rate for young people, especially new graduates, was higher than the overall rate of unemployment (Chapter 8).

FIGURE 4.5

Iraq's General Budget 2003–2012 (US$ billions)



Source: Federal Budget Laws 2004–2013

Administrative and financial corruption and inefficient public expenditure management affect how the public budget functions, as well as how the government delivers infrastructure and public services, but do not affect households' share of oil income, which reached a much higher level than before the blockade.

Utilization of Oil Revenues

Rising global oil prices and increased crude oil production and export have led to an increased average GNI per capita through direct and indirect channels, most importantly public expenditure. The government wage bill (i.e. paying the wages of employees and retirees) constitutes up to 40 percent of government expenditure. In addition, there are social welfare remittances, compensation pay-outs, and in-kind provisions from the ration card.

There are also other channels for benefiting from government expenditure, such as public project contracting and supply contracts. The recovery of trade and transport activities are also based on government expenditure in general. Government banks have also extended their loan services to households. However, poor families have no access to these oil revenue channels – namely, working for the state (or its projects), contracting with it, or borrowing from it.

It is well known that a rapidly increased GNI due to higher crude oil revenue is not necessarily associated with more and better infrastructure and the improved quality and quantity of basic services. This is because a significant amount of time is needed to first improve the capacities required for such changes.

The above factors may reduce the positive effects of increased oil revenues on the population in general and young people in particular. However, increased government investment and operational expenditure, as well as an improved ability to import, lead to higher household income and consumption, so young people's lives get better despite their dependence on their families.

With the significant increase in the average GNI per capita (Figure 11), the Gini coefficient – used to measure income inequality (expenditure) – increased from 29 percent in 2007 to 32 percent in 2012,[34] and the disparity in rural areas (34 percent) remained higher than in urban areas (31 percent).

A more equitable income distribution pattern leads to better performance in human development; with an income increase, poor families spend more to improve their human development indicators: food, health, and education. The poorer the family, the more this income increase is spent on food and caloric intake.[35] The improved children's education also has positive effects.[36] The bigger the budget of a homemaker, the more the family spends on food compared to other items, according to field case studies, which confirms that a family rather than an individual is the core economic unit.

> Approximately 5.9 million people get benefits from government allocations (2.9 million receive salaries, 2 million are pensioners, and 1million receive subsidies and social benefits). Since there are about 5 million households in Iraq, it is obvious that most of the population, including young people, somehow connect to this network.

National Budget: The Main Generator of Employment Opportunities

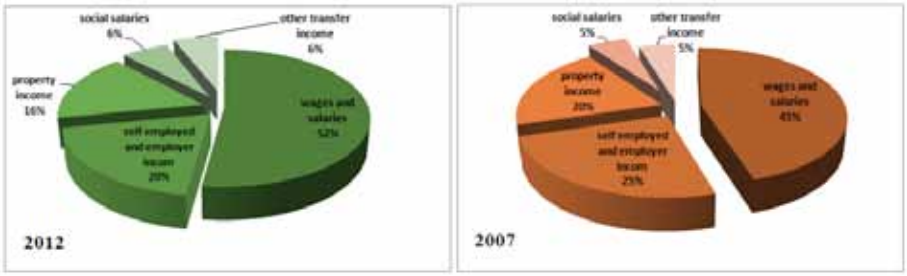
The operating expenditure in the general budget finances existing jobs and creates new jobs as well, in light of the weak and declining role of the private sector in all areas of economic activity. The average operating expenditures were 70 percent of the total expenditures of the federal budget for the fiscal years 2008–2012, while investment expenditures were 30 percent.[37]

According to the federal budget laws, the workforce of the centrally funded ministries and departments increased from 2.06 million in 2007 to 2.468 million in 2010, 2.75 million in 2012, and 2.9 million in 2013.

Assuming that the Iraqi population in 2013 was 34.4 million, and that the economic activity rate (EAR) was 26 percent, the number of economically active people, including the unemployed, is around 8,944,000. The above numbers show that civil servants represent one-third of the economically active population, which is a high proportion considering the current orientation towards a market economy and the state's movement away from production, save some limited activities that will soon be wrapped up.

FIGURE 4.6

Distribution of Family Income by Source

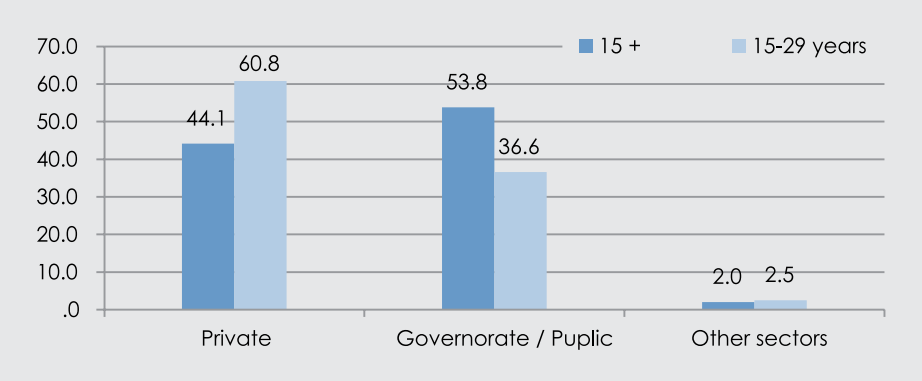


Source: Iraq household social - economic survey IHSES- 2007 & 2012

The proportion of civil servants in developed countries where the government plays a major role in the provision of public services, such as the EU countries, is as high as 10 percent of the population.[38] In Iraq, the increased government employment has not been accompanied by expanded government efforts in providing services or improving their quality. The nature of the rentier state imposes this increase in recruitment, but Iraq is also oriented towards social peace and pleasing the groups participating in the government. Maintaining this policy will only fuel public pressure to increase government employment.

FIGURE 4.7

Working People by Age Group and Sector



Source: Iraq household social -economic survey IHSES- 2012

The Political Economy of the Rentier State

Population studies predict the number of young people in Iraq to increase by 107 percent by 2040, and significantly decrease in several countries in the region (by nearly 41 percent in Iran, around 20 percent in Tunisia, and about 27 percent in Oman).[39]

This significant growth in Iraq will pump large numbers of young people into the labour market (Chapter 3). This large youth population is not necessarily negative. In societies with established institutions and a strong economy, young people can add a lot in terms of production and vitality. However, in societies that lack the social infrastructure necessary to integrate them, large numbers of young people constitute a burden on resources and a threat to social stability, especially if accompanied by ethnic and sectarian divisions. When social and economic conditions are of a radical nature, the youth response might be radical too.[40]

Nevertheless, if the state succeeds in using high oil revenues resulting from increased oil prices and exports to initiate long-term projects, it may be able to accommodate population growth without it becoming an acute crisis. These projects should aim at expanding the productive base in the agricultural, industrial, and service sectors, expanding the private sector, and supporting youth projects and

training programmes that target the youth as a workforce with the potential to make a valuable contribution in the current economic and technological environment.

On the other hand, floundering economic policies and total dependence on oil revenues (which might fall if prices decline), as well as continuous expansion of the public sector and the resulting reliance on the state for employment, are likely to cause future crises. At a certain point, the public sector will not be able to expand any more, especially if oil prices fall, and the economic and social value of government jobs will be higher, making them subject to more competition. With the current trend of exploiting appointments in the public sector as a tool to expand the authority of political parties, ethnic and sectarian factors will continue to impact on employment policies because of the priority given to loyalty.

A number of political forces complain of discrimination in appointments in the public sector based on ethnicity, religion, and sect. The problem they are identifying is related to the rentier state and the expanding public sector. Some call for establishing a balanced ethnic and sectarian system in public institutions, preferring an institutionalized solution to facing the risk of having the government employment card used as a political tool. However, even if the argument that an ethnic and sectarian balance in state institutions is useful for building a non-exclusionary political and administrative system is true, it seems unlikely to end the problem of rivalry for power and resources among ethnic and sectarian forces.

This situation has prompted many young people to rely on ethnic, religious, and sectarian loyalty as a way to get employment, which entrenches these divisions at the expense of a national identity. The fragmentation and lack of organization in the government apparatus is thereby maintained, with several power centres and their accompanying loyalties, but weak national loyalty.

If this trend continues, it may strengthen young people's feeling of alienation towards the state and its institutions, especially if the economic and social gap widens between those with a public job and those without.

Such a feeling might generate violent tendencies in the future. There is also the possibility that the sense of marginalization will cross ethnic, religious, and sectarian boundaries, activating a social movement that works according to a larger Iraqi identity.[41]

Unattractive Environment for Entrepreneurship

Public–private partnerships seem to be the economic management method for the transition to a market economy adopted by the Iraqi Constitution in 2005. However,as noted above, the public sector contribution to the GDP remains high. It was 65.4 percent in 2010 compared to 34.6 percent for the private sector, which confirms the latter's modest role in the management of development activities. The continued absence of an institutional environment attractive to national and foreign private investment is perhaps the main reason for this modest role and something that will keep the private sector from being a youth employment generator.

The NDP 2013–2017 adopts the public–private partnership model; the contributions of the public and private sectors in the total NDP investments are 78.6 percent and 21.4 percent respectively.[41]

BOX 4.5

The Public and Private Partnership (PPP) Project

The PPP is very important in creating giant infrastructure projects aimed at generating thousands of jobs for young people in various sectors and creating inclusive markets, especially in underdeveloped areas. The real value of this partnership is to introduce modern technology and know-how and ensure effective implementation procedures. This requires building government institutions' capacity at three levels of the PPP:

1. Policy level: supporting the enactment of a PPP-regulating law
2. Institutional level: supporting the establishment of centralized units for the PPP at the relevant ministries to manage tendering procedures
3. Capacity-building level: developing the capacity of relevant ministries in the management of large tenders and follow-up on the PPP implementation

Finally, the PPP and the attraction of international financing institutions are important aspects of the capacity-building process.
Review Team/UNDP

Young People in Business

The unclear role of the state and the private sector in this transition phase and the fact that the latter's growth opportunities are concentrated in the financial sector – linked to and benefiting from the rentier nature of the economy –constitute in all cases an obstacle to the growth of young people's economic activity. The areas of work available to young people in Iraq include small enterprises, non-financial services, and all aspects of real activity based on initiative. In a rentier economy, confining the economic role of the state to 'rent distribution' marginalizes the economic role of youth by pushing them to work in unsustainable activities which promote this parasitic behaviour. Thus young people are deprived of realizing their actual potential.

Entrepreneurship through small enterprises should be encouraged as a generator of employment and income and as a means to combat poverty, and is best mainstreamed in those policies proposed to address young people's problems. Since the youth are more inclined to independence, they prefer to be self-employed, which allows them greater freedom and satisfies their ambitions, but small enterprises have no supporting infrastructure in Iraq.

The success of this pattern in other countries, such as those in South and East Asia, is attributed to the link between nascent small businesses and microenterprises and large private enterprises (or privatized public ones) through supplementary relationships based on forward and backward linkages under an economy that is locally consolidated and integrated. These productive opportunities are not available for young people or anyone else in Iraq –an inevitable result of the dominance of small enterprise and individual activity over non-governmental economic activity, and the public sector possession and management of large economic enterprises in the sectors of industry, oil, and construction.

Young people had to resort to individual economic activities following the blockade in the early 1990s,sincethese were the only available work opportunities. Generally speaking, this situation is being challenged because activities with easy access suffer from severe overcrowding, while individual businesses that require skilled workers have remained within the range allowed by the ordinary development of skills through work. Education has not succeeded in increasing the number of skilled people. This has been left to apprenticeships, which operate in an uncertain, traditional, informal environment that is relational and dependent on the varying capabilities of the apprentices and their readiness to work. This is true for various types of construction, carpentry, and blacksmithing, as well as the repair of machinery, equipment, vehicles, etc.

In addition to inexperience, youth entrepreneurship is hampered by a lack of resources, fear of failure, significant competition, and marketing challenges. Moreover, production technology might be outdated and simple due to limited resources. An individual enterprise is usually based on a single product, which increases risk and heightens the possibility of withdrawal after a loss or difficulty.

YOUTH VIEW

The soft loans for young people for setting up small enterprises are not necessarily' soft':

- The complex controls and conditions of loans make youth reluctant to apply for them.
- Youth have a fear of entering the labour market.
- Interest and instalments are not affordable.
- New mechanisms to facilitate the youth's access to such loans are proposed.

(The NHDR Review Workshop, 13–14 March 2013, Baghdad)

Independence is a strong motive for young people who choose to engage in small business voluntarily. These individuals show a willingness to innovate and create new types of business. Those who voluntarily choose small enterprises are usually highly educated and from the upper middle class, while those who are forced into it are generally poor people with a low level of education. The types of small enterprises vary between high-technology activities, such as computer-related business and scientific laboratories, and service activities in retail, transport, food, and other sectors.

YOUTH VIEW

- Obstacles to self-employment:
- Fear of entering the labour market
- No capital or fear of losing limited funds
- Insufficient expertise
- A lack of government banking facilities
- Unstable labour market, with no regulation

(The NHDR Review Workshop, 13–14 March 2013, Baghdad)

Opportunities for young women are fewer than those for young men. The measures being taken to help males get suitable jobs, including those related to small-scale activities, may not be enough to remove the obstacles to young women's economic participation and entrepreneurship. It should be noted that, among young women, there is a clear reluctance to work, mainly for social and cultural reasons.

THE NATIONAL YOUTH STRATEGY 2013–2020

The strategy focuses on youth participation.

Strategic Goal IV: An active young generation in Iraq participating widely in their communities.

Outcome II: Young people are actively participating in political and social life.

Vital practical programmes are proposed to empower young people:

- A national programme to prepare young leaders, especially females, from all segments and groups, according to global standards, able to form youth groups and organizations in schools, villages, universities, clubs, and civil society organizations, in accordance with high standards
- A programme adopted by secondary and vocational schools and universities to encourage young people to work voluntarily in their community

BOX 4.6 SPECIAL CONTRIBUTION

National Development Plan 2013–2017 Advocates Young People's Aspirations

How democratic the political system in a country is defines the nature of its economic, social, and legal systems. A dictatorial political system with an improvised economy also determines certain features of the social system, including plans related to population growth. Over the last three decades, demographic shifts accompanied the wars and political events in Iraq. The state's neglect of these shifts and the limited political and executive interest suggest that the state is oblivious to population issues and is not keen on integrating them into development activities. This has widened the gap between the goal of improving quality of life and reducing poverty and the goal of economic growth and material production.

The NDP 2013–2017[42] emphasizes the importance of integrating population data into developmental activities to generate opportunities to measure the impact of population on development and the impact of development on the population. There was a need for adopting a national population policy that was informed and incorporated current trends in order to promote population growth rates that are responsive to the requirements of sustainable growth and the labour market. In addition, the policy would protect the rights of future generations in Iraq as a whole, ensuring the equal allocation and distribution of financial resources to federal budgets and regions' development programmes in order to promote decentralization and ensure sustainable expenditure.

We believe that the adoption of these policies is too late because the population growth in Iraq is one of the highest in the world, and tackling this problem is not an easy task for decision and policy makers. However, in line with the principles of sustainable human development, the NDP 2013–7032 adopts this vision: "Towards a harmonious popula-

tion policy integrated with economic and development trends and which effects quantitative and qualitative changes in people's lives to achieve sustainable development, justice, and equal opportunities."

Iraqi society is about to enter the so-called 'demographic gift', in which the working-age population is more than 55 percent of the total population. This could turn into a problem for Iraq, which depends on the public sector to create job opportunities. This sector is burdened with numerous underemployed, unproductive employees, but their recruitment has become a de facto systematic policy to silence voices clamouring for job opportunities. In addition, recruitment in the public sector has become a weapon the opposition uses to put pressure on the government. The unemployment situation has indeed become the most powerful weapon threatening governments.

If the NDP does not invest in the opportunity this demographic gift represents, it could turn into a challenge that exacerbates the problems facing the youth. Comprehensive, progressive policies should be adopted in the field of employment generation to turn the growing numbers of young people from an economic burden into an economic strength.

Although oil revenues constitute nearly 95 percent of the total revenues projected for 2013–2017 – thus exposing the NDP to another challenge – the allocation of approximately 40 percent of the total revenues (estimated at 812 trillion Iraqi dinars during the five years of the NDP) for investment would provide a historic opportunity to boost job generation to address unemployment and poverty, thereby promoting sustainable equity.

Employment surveys show that unemployment rates among young people, especially graduates of institutes and universities, are the highest in Iraq due to competition from older groups. The unemployment rate (according to the ILO definition) in 2012 was estimated at 12 percent in general and 24 percent for young people. About 25 percent of graduates of universities and institutes are unemployed or are underemployed in jobs incommensurate with their educational attainment.

What makes graduates' unemployment even worse is that the skill sets produced by the education system are not what the labour market requires. In addition, young graduates are reluctant to work in the private sector because they deem the public sector jobs more sustainable and advantageous. The new pension bill seeks to bridge the gap between the two sectors through considering employees' period of service in one sector –for the purposes of promotion, bonus, and retirement – when moving to work in the other sector, as well as matching the pension rights in both sectors.

The NDP adopts several methods to realize its goal of halving the unemployment rate to 6 percent by 2017, including the promotion of labour-intensive economic activities. Other means of advocating for the entrance of young people into the labour market include ensuring an investment environment that is attractive to private capital, adopting empowerment programmes to develop the skills of the unemployed, and providing soft loans to unemployed skilled workers and craftspeople.

However, achieving this goal depends on addressing other challenges, most prominently the non-enactment of a privatization law and the delayed restructuring of public institutions. In addition, the delayed enactment of social security and labour laws has frozen most of the initiatives and intervention options of the National Employment Plan 2010–2014. Furthermore, the work environment in the private sector is somewhat discouraging due to political instability, poor export conditions, and the limited infrastructure and proper systems related to electricity, fuel, security, and tariffs.

Although the gender gap in education is closing, with enrolment rates in primary school almost the same for males and females, the rates for both males and females in secondary and higher education are declining. This shows that education is being influenced by cultural systems, social customs and traditions, and economic and security conditions, as well as the poor job prospects after graduation. The university admission rate in Iraq is estimated at about 14 percent of the university-age population (13 percent for females and 16 percent for males), which is much lower than the world average of 27 percent.

Having identified the problem of poor alignment between the education system outputs and the labour market, and the low qualitative investment in improving the university education environment, the NDP 2013–7032 developed its vision of "creating educational opportunities for every one that meet the requirements of the labour market and the knowledge economy and promote the values of citizenship".

The vision coincides with the launch of the National Education Strategy 2012–2020, which emphasizes the broad development of higher education; the promotion of internal and external efficiency; the improving of the quality of all education stages; the encouragement of scientific research for peaceful purposes; and the values of excellence, creativity, innovation, and distinction. This better enables the NDP objectives in the education sector in terms of providing the financial allocations required over the five years, offering scholarships to students in all stages (including literacy course students), and improving quality. I hope that all these trends will create more opportunities for the youth.

Ali Yousef Shukri Minister of Planning

Chapter 5

Social and Cultural Challenges

Youth and Family

The youth are a nation's real wealth. They constitute a demographic and development opportunity, but, as shown in Chapter 3, can turn out to be a burden that thwarts these expectations – unless society succeeds, through appropriate policies, to build their capabilities, expand their choices, and allow them to participate willingly and efficiently in their communities throughout their lives.

Wasting this opportunity by excluding the youth and marginalizing their role not only deprives them of their rights and impedes their ambitions, but it also weakens society's ability to establish better conditions for its present and future existence.

Do the constitution, law, and society perceive the youth as citizens with capacities and rights, such as the right to participate and bear responsibility? Or are they defined by words such as protection, care, and guidance, and treated as mere receivers of training and education in order to perform duties specified by the prevalent culture and social reality? This chapter will answer these questions.

Do Iraqi families embrace the roots of youth exclusion? Or do they facilitate the social integration of youth?

We shall start with family, since some roots of youth exclusion begin there and get deeper when empowerment mechanisms fail at a later stage to facilitate social integration in the public sphere.

Family in essence raises the individuals in a community. It is through family that a human being's character grows and is oriented, and their first vision of the world gets defined. And it is within the family that a person plays their first role in society.

However, family is no longer the biggest influence on children. There are now larger social influences, let alone the powerfully emerging 'third domain', which has turned, at least in one aspect, from a domain dominated by real facilities and institutions into a virtual domain made by media and communication technology. Some express concern about the influence of this virtual domain on the youth's dissociation from family and society, a trend which makes the need to empower young people more pressing. In fact, those communities where the youth feel more integrated are the ones in which institutions, starting with family, have succeeded in empowering them.

It is evident from analysing family structures that a person's early upbringing produces the values, standards, and restraints that contribute to behavioural patterns and attitudes later in life.

The family is the first to set rules, limits, and constraints and to highlight the values related to:[43]

- Social roles and the separate spheres inhabited by the sexes
- Dos and don'ts in terms of behaviour, ethics, and dealing with others
- Putting adolescents on a track which will foretell their future achievements in school, work, and family

Although Iraqi families have experienced profound structural and functional changes, the traditional value system, which establishes the roles and authority for each family member and determines the manner of upbringing inside families, is still deeply rooted. It is a paternal (hierarchically male-dominated) social unit at its centre, and discrimination is still present, based on gender and age. The method of upbringing is authoritative, with a clear tendency towards tribalism,[44] in a semi-hybrid model which some researchers call the new paternal family.[45]

ARTICLE 29 OF THE 2005 PERMANENT IRAQI CONSTITUTION STATES:

First: The family is the foundation of society; the state shall preserve its entity and its religious, moral, and patriotic values.

The state shall ensure protection during motherhood, childhood, and old age, and shall take care of children and youth and provide them with the appropriate conditions to further their talents and abilities.

Second: Children have the right to a proper upbringing, care, and education from their parents. Parents shall have the right to respect and care from their children, especially in times of need, disability, and old age.

Third: Economic exploitation of children shall be completely prohibited. The state shall take the necessary measures to protect them.

The values of the Iraqi family seem entrenched in spite of the radical changes it has gone through as a result of the exceptional conditions of the last two decades. This resilience is thanks to the place of family in Iraq's cultural and religious legacy, which supports its structure and enhances its bonds. Also, tribal relations and values, which have been enhanced over the past two decades, now have more influence on individuals' behaviour inside their families, especially since Iraqis in general live within relatively big families. According to the tentative results of the 2009 census, the average number of family members is around 6.7 individuals (7.8 in rural areas compared to 6.3 in urban areas).

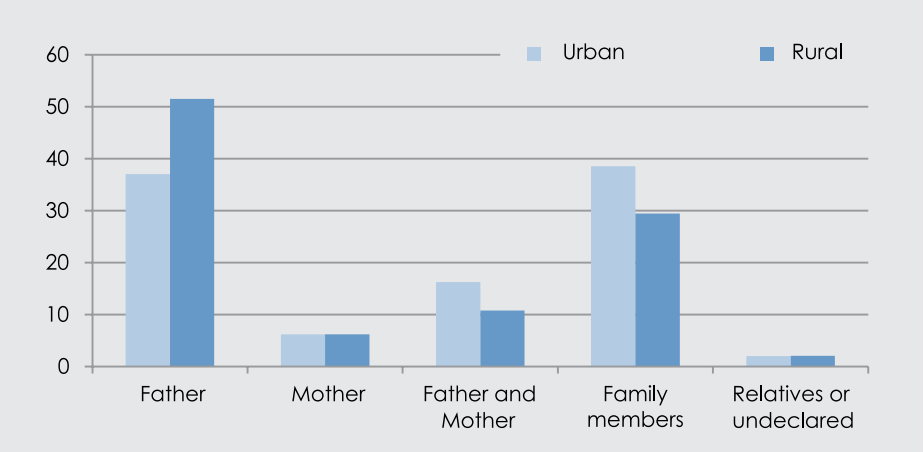
In this context, Iraqi laws expand the concept of family to include, besides two parents and their children, the siblings and parents of these two people. A family therefore is a group of people brought together naturally by marriage, and includes relatives to the fourth degree and whoever is added to it under the law.

In Iraqi and Arab families in general, the elder the member the more respect they should be given, and males are superior to females. Thus, the father is the head of family and its source of wisdom and of knowledge. He consequently manages family affairs and may even interfere in his children's choices and try to influence their stands.

The 2012 Youth Survey makes evident the importance of the father's role. Important decisions are taken by the father in 41 percent of families and by the mother in 6.2 percent; mutually by both parents in 14.7 percent of families and mutually by all family members in 35.9 percent of families.

FIGURE 5.1

Who Makes Decisions in the family



Source: Youth survey YS-2012

The relational problems the youth have with adults is fuelled by the fact that adults' authority has diminished somewhat, as youth now have numerous sources of knowledge, more independence, and various personal experiences. However, adults are holding on to what they consider their traditional social rights in the

context of the prevalent paternal culture, which takes its legitimacy from different sources – religion, lineage, the values of filial piety and compassion, personal fortune, inherited power, strength, etc. This is why most manifestations and signs of the crisis between generations are hidden and take the form of a silent dispute that has varying intensity in rural and urban areas, among social groups, and among families. This dispute is affected by many factors, such as education, modern sources of knowledge, social environment, etc.

Youth Dependence on Family

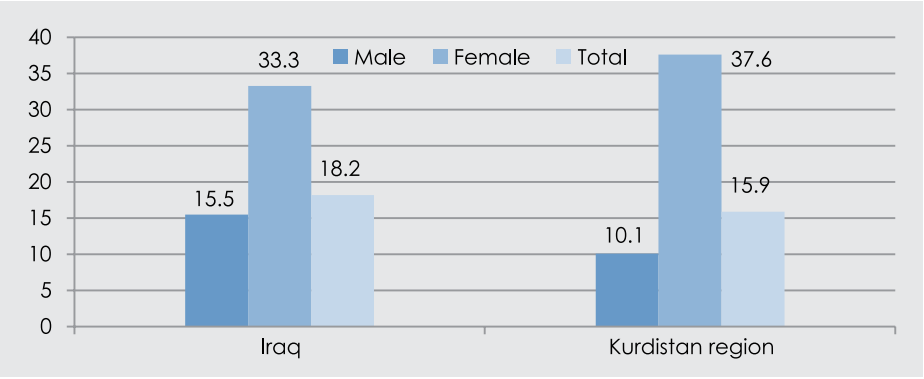
Some changes in power distribution within family happen when a family member becomes less dependent on the parents. Through work, young men and women become materially independent and contribute to their family's expenses. In this way, work becomes a source of self-confidence and character building.

"I was satisfied with my family covering my expenses, but now I feel that I am a burden. I have graduated from university, but am yet to find a proper job. My elder brother still gives me pocket money, which makes me submissive to him. I have no faith in the future," says a university graduate.

Family relations play a core role in Iraqi society and affect its political, economic, and cultural behaviour. Moreover, an Iraqi family is typically large in number and heavily involved in making crucial decisions concerning its children. It is difficult for an individual to live independently from their family, not only because of social traditions, but also their economic reliance on parents, siblings, and relatives. The youth's financial reliance on family is still significant, whether in Iraq or Kurdistan, with 65.3 percent of the youth aged 18 to 30 years totally or partially depending on the family (Figure 5.2).

FIGURE 5.2

Dependence on Family Financial Support



Source: Youth survey YS-2012

Though the youth naturally aspire to independence, they still need their family. A family, and even a tribe, still constitutes a means of protection and mediation when it comes to problem solving,[46] especially when society is subjected to successive crises and the rule of law becomes weak, as is always the case during transition.

In light of the absent or poor official social protection systems in all their forms – due to the poor performance of centralized and local government agencies in many fields, including security and citizens' protection – family is a safe haven for offspring, even when they become adults.

From a family's point of view, this reliance can help to strengthen family bonds. In fact, according to the 2009 National Youth and Adolescent Survey, young people's relationship with their family seems to be positive, since 61 percent of them are happy to be with their family while 33 percent are happy to be with their friends. About 75 percent of the youth declared that they had no problem with their family, 13 percent said the family's insufficient income was a problem, 6 percent suggest-

ed that the house was too crowded, and 3 percent said that domestic disputes were an issue.[47] With these relationships better in rural areas, it would seem that family ties are stronger in non-urban areas.

The survey however shows some changing dynamics and a possible generation gap. The older the youth, the more this positive relationship with the family tends to regress, which suggests increased family problems with the increased independence of youth.

Marriage and Starting a New Family: The Road to Social Integration

Iraqi society encourages marriage and starting a family, considering family one of the most important cultural values. Indeed, Article 29 of the Iraqi Constitution states that family – rather than individuals – is the foundation of society, and that both children and their parents have a right to care and protection, among other things. The constitution ensures and protects those rights.

Therefore, a family considers the marriage of youthful members a priority, aspiration, and duty and helps them in this endeavour whenever possible, believing that marriage protects the youth from deviation – since extramarital relations are forbidden – and ensures both the youths' integration and the family's growth and continuation. This trend, despite having some variations, is a feature of traditional paternal societies, where the community rather than the individual is the core value.

In 2011, 61.8 percent of the population aged 15 years and above were married, and 62 percent of Iraqi women at reproduction age were already married, which is a high rate compared to most Arab states. Furthermore, slightly less than half of males had never been married before.[48]

According to the Higher Judicial Council 2011 statistics, however, the number of new marriages was 230, 470, down from 262,554 in 2004, with a decrease rate of 12.2 percent. The divorce rate increased dramatically from 28,690 cases in 2004 to 59,515 cases in 2011, an increase rate exceeding 100 percent. This increase is due to a number of accumulated problems, mostly social and economic – early marriage, violence against wives, and others. This indicator suggests that the quality of social life is deteriorating, in addition to the complications familial relationships face. It appears that the means for settling conflicts are deficient, whether these disputes occur before marriage or after it.

In the findings of the latest survey, Iraq Poverty and Maternal Mortality (IPMM-2013, see the Technical Notes Appendix), 20 percent of married males and 32.7 percent of married females are in the age group 15–29.

Early marriages seem to be unsuccessful; in 2013, 42 percent of all divorced males and 37 percent of divorced females were in the age group 15–29.

YOUTH VOICE

Marriage Is a Major Crisis in Our Life (Duhok's Youth)

The marriage crisis was the first subject young participants brought up in the discussion session held in Duhok Governorate in Kurdistan.

"We all want to get married, but our financial crisis is the problem. We cannot afford the wedding costs of the bride-to-be's jewellery, reception, and other requirements," said a participant. "The cause is the girls themselves, since they and their parents hold on to customs and traditions, and attach too much importance to the manifestations of a wedding," added another one.

The girls participating in the discussion session however defended this stand fiercely. "The quantity of gold and money offered by the groom to his bride-to-be reflects her status and that of her family in society in general, and among her friends and acquaintances in particular," said a participant. "Moreover, the required quantity of gold is a guarantee for her future. In fact, the wife often sells her gold to buy or build a family house." It seems the matter is not related to the opposing convictions of young men and women, but the influence of prevailing traditions. However, these 'traditions' are not necessarily old. They might be a mix of tradition and the prevalent culture of consumption, with added complications brought by unstable situations and increased economic difficulties.

"The parents and relatives directly interfere in choosing the husband, and we often find ourselves obliged to marry men we do not want," said a female participant. "But nowadays there is a growing interest in girls' opinions," replied a male participant, but other participants did not seem to think this interest was enough.

An argument then started between the two groups on girls' freedom. A young lady challenged the young men with this question: "Would you approve of your sister having a relationship with a

young man?" Some young men replied positively: "Complete frankness and mutual trust between brothers and sisters make them accept this matter as a natural fact." Others however refused such a situation: "The customs and traditions prohibit this, and this is out of the question." The discussion on this point was a dead end.

A young man raised the issue of increased suicide attempts in Duhok, especially among girls, citing some figures. "The parents, the parenting methods, and the increasing openness of society to aspects of modernity, due to the introduction of communication technology, are responsible for that," explained a participant.

Another participant narrated the story of a young girl she knew, which deeply affected her: "A 12-year-old girl burnt herself, and while dying, she confessed that she did it because she thought her family would sympathize with her following a problem she had with them. She also said she did not want to die and did not know that what she did would be so dangerous." As this case shows, when there is no more communication among family members, the feeling of despair can be lethal.

Analysing families in which dialogue and communication are minimal, the participants identified the causes of such situations and the effects on youth:

- Parents' negligence of their adolescents, which makes the latter prefer to spend most of their time with their friends and also makes them spend a lot of time using electronic communication
- Feelings of injustice and marginalization, which negatively affect the psychological state of the youth, particularly girls
- Low self-confidence and lack of hope and faith
- Suppressed emotions, which result from a fear of causing aggression or creating a worse environment

Familial Relations Do Not Limit Youth Choices

The broader family still plays an important role in any family member's decision to get married, even though this decision mainly affects that member. And it is not necessary that these young people, especially the men, meet all the requirements for marriage, since parental pressure, particularly in rural areas, often forces them to get married.

Although the paternal family dominates in Iraqi society, the 2012 Youth Survey shows significant freedom and participation in issues related to study and marriage, especially for young men in urban areas, where the rates of those who are free to choose their university major and marriage partner are 71 percent and 93.3 percent respectively for men and 67.1 percent and 75.7 percent respectively for women. In rural areas, however, marriage has a social function that youth can only submit to.

Given the above-mentioned societal context, it is not surprising that marriage is a priority for the youth. Being unable to start a family is frustrating to them and a sign of incomplete social integration. It seems that the youth are highly aware of the responsibilities related to marriage; this is why, according to the 2012 Youth Survey, it is the fourth priority for them after finishing studies, getting a job, and buying a house.

YOUTH VOICE

I Sold My Cow to Get Married and Please My Father (AbuKhasaf/Maysan)

The group of youth the NHDR team met in the village of Abu Khasaf in Hawizeh Marshes in Maysan Governorate said that males there get married between the ages of 18 and 22 and females do so at an even younger age. "Our parents are used to getting their children married at an early age in order to see their grandchildren and ensure their children's stability through starting a family," said one of them. "Usually we marry our relatives in the village. The father provides for his family and the family of his newly-wed child due to unemployment."

This is the life cycle of the village community. The function of marriage there is to ensure family continuity, and children are expected to marry even if they are not ready or are unwilling to do so. Early marriage is often a condition for the stability, continuity, and reproduction of the village community and those connected to it.

"I used to earn a living through selling the milk of my cow, but I had to sell it in order to get married and please my father. Now, I am unemployed and I am afraid that this might make me deviate from the right way to make a living," said one of the participants. We asked him: "Why did you agree to that?" He replied: "These are our customs and traditions. We cannot refuse any request by our parents, even getting married, although we are neither psychologically nor financially ready for that."

The Generation Gap and Social Exclusion

The generation gap does exist in all societies. In developing societies, including Iraqi society, the generation gap benefits adults, especially decision makers and those highly ranked in society. In addition, the older generation holds negative views and limited expectations regarding the ability of the youth to properly assume their roles in society. Therefore, the generation gap is another factor in the youth's social exclusion. In response, young people may become more inclined to challenge, rebel, and reject, and might detach themselves from the past and from the prevailing social values.

Youth views on this issue dominated most focus group meetings. They believe that their rights and freedoms have been denied by the older generation. In fact, the gap widens when placed in the context of Iraqi social life, which is divided according to age into two completely different ways of thinking and facing problems. All this is due to the social dominance of older people, as a result of customs and traditions which eventually exclude the youth and prevent them from playing a fuller social role. According to these customs, the youth have to be obedient and willing to please, which enhances their psychological and social dependence and weakens their initiative and independence.

Familial exclusion takes place when parents inhibit the psychological growth of their children through negligence, preference of one child over another or boys over girls (gender exclusion), disparagement, unfair punishment, unfulfilled promises, etc. The most destructive psychological effect of such practices is low self-esteem, which consequently triggers feelings of frustration, revenge, and aggression towards society in general.[49]

Discrimination and Violence against Young Women

Measuring the GII in Chapter 2 identified gender inequality and fewer achievements for women in HDI dimensions, income and education in particular. The YDI value for females is lower than that for males. Social and development policies can be blamed for that and can respond through positive interventions. The cultural dimension which is not captured by HDI explains the gender gap in human development. Generally speaking, young women are marginalized in society, especially with regard to particular social positions. This marginalization is due to traditions, mindsets, and negative social stereotypes. Differences in education and care still exist in the family in favour of the boy, and gender-based discrimination in society limits women's access to employment, their freedom of choice, and their ability to make decisions, all of which are remarkably constricted compared to men.

Discriminative Upbringing

Many of the roots of the exclusion of girls and young women grow within the family and enhance their broader marginalization in society. The indicators of social exclusion appear at an early age. At birth, girls are not welcomed as boys are. The way they are brought up often is discriminatory, as they are prepared to play a traditional role, whether in their parents' house or later on as mere housewives. They are sometimes forced to drop out of school, which excludes them socially and forces them to get married at an early age.

Family pressure placed on males is much less than that placed on females, and young men's opportunities in the public sphere are more abundant than young women's – joining social and sports clubs, participating in political and recreational activities, etc. This increases young men's knowledge and develops their physical and psychological potential, thus enhancing their positive perception of themselves and making them more capable of making personal decisions independent of family pressures. Consequently, young men are more likely to challenge authoritarianism within the family than young women are, especially if they have achieved a certain amount of independence from the family. In this context, females are often more financially dependent on their families.

Thirty-seven percent of girls aged 10–24 say that at least one of their parents prefers boys over girls in terms of education or privileges, whether consistently or occasionally.[50] This rate is probably higher, as there is a culture of discretion and girls may not be willing to reveal family secrets to others. This behaviour of families towards girls may be related to the educational level of parents; better

treatment for girls is associated with higher HDI values, as found in Sulaymaniya, while the lowest levels are in Basra.

TABLE 5.1

The Opinions of Girls Aged 10–14 Years on Equality between Them and Their Brothers

Indicator	Governorate with lowest rate (Basra)	Governorate with highest rate (Sulaymaniya)	Iraq
They believe they and their brothers are equal	31.4%	80.9%	49.3%

Source: Iraq woman integrated social and health survey I-WISH 2011

Gender discrimination among the youth reveals itself in the higher degree of independence for young men, who are sometimes granted a family role that includes a sort of authority over their sisters. They also have more responsible roles at work, especially when it is family owned. Some young men even assume part of their father's authority within and outside the family.

Family Violence Excludes Young Women

In Iraqi families, young women are exposed to many forms of violence, which are described as disciplinary or necessary actions for controlling or rectifying their behaviour. A substantial percentage of girls and women experience this, as the violence is not meted out to males alone. The I-WISH shows that 58 percent of women aged 15–49 believe that their husbands have the right to beat them once or repeatedly for one or several reasons.[51] Only 38.6 percent believe that men and women have equal rights. In addition, 55.1 percent and 59.4 percent of them believe that there is discrimination in favour of men when it comes to making decisions within the family and to ownership respectively.[52] However, submissiveness and acceptance of inferior conditions compared to the males of the family could be some kind of self-defence mechanism aimed at avoiding violence and cruel forms of isolation.

Members of the NHDR core team joined the youth team in their trip to Maysan Governorate, southern Iraq, where we met a number of families in a village on the outskirts of the marsh. The girls were not allowed to talk to us, even to the women in our team. We were able to talk to some mothers. All of those were of the same opinion – that girls, according to tribal traditions, must get married at 14 and sometimes earlier.

"We agree because we are afraid that our daughters might get hurt in this time when honesty and ethics are lost," said a mother enthusiastically. "What will they do if they do not get married? The only primary school in the area is mixed, and fathers do not allow them to pursue their studies after the age of 11. In addition, there is no nearby middle school they can later join. I am a 39-year-old literate mother who has not found any job yet, so what is the use of school then? Marriage is safer and better."

But she went on with evident sadness: "My daughter is very clever and she was the first in her school before her father forced her to drop out."

It seems that Iraqi youth are aware of this problem. In the discussion sessions, they said there is a "taming culture" for young women that makes them accept secondary roles besides accepting the violence to which they are subjected, to the extent that they defend their oppressors and waive their rights. In addition, a large percentage of women are unaware of these rights, which makes them accept without protest the violence against them. As such, the society's violence is enhanced culturally and then reproduced in daily life.

Family Violence Restrains Youth Freedom (Babil)

The dialogue session with Babil youth addressed the importance of the youth's role in society and how to develop and optimally invest in their potential.

"The government is responsible for developing youth potentials and giving them the opportunity to play their role in building the future," said a young man. The other participants spoke about the problems they were facing, and it seemed that most of these problems had their roots in family violence. When asked about the main reasons for disharmony between parents and children and the extent to which the relationship between their fathers and mothers affects them, the youth identified the violence to which they were subjected. Their reasons were as follows:

- Increased gap between youth and adults due to the burgeoning communication technology, and also to youth being affected by their friends
- Low family income, which cannot satisfy the youth's increasing needs

Participants complained about girls in rural areas being forced to drop out of school for an arranged early marriage.

"I come from a poor village where even the simplest things which citizens are supposed to be entitled to are not available," said a participant. "Moreover, we cannot go out of the home because of the customs and traditions observed by our parents. I was only able to go out of my home in order to participate in this workshop after severe resistance by my father. My uncle has forced his daughter to marry my brother. All the details of our life are decided by our parents, without us having any say in this."

A Transgenerational Violence Culture

When we asked the young participants about how many of them had been exposed to violence during the previous week, all of them replied positively, except for one young man who said he had been out of his home for nearly one month because of the violence within his household.

It seems that family violence begets violence. When asked how many of them had used violence during the previous week, none of the participants answered. When a participant was asked whether she used violence with her 2.5-year-old daughter, who was present with her in the session, she said she beat her almost every day when she did something wrong. From their answers to different questions, it appeared that most of the participants had used violence during the previous week.

The youth also said that, in addition to the pressures they faced within the family, the teaching staff at school treated them in a rather violent manner, which affected them psychologically. This confirms that violence is passing from the family to other social institutions.

At the end of the session, the youth asked us to submit the following recommendations to the competent officials to prevent family violence:

- Enforce compulsory education, especially for girls
- Enact anti-early marriage laws
- Enhance the media's role in raising awareness about women's rights, especially family rights
- Support civil society's efforts to fight violence against women
- Increase family income

Youth are under the pressure of customs and traditions, defending the culture of violence against women. The concept of 'family prestige and honour' seems to be less related to males than to females. The 2009 Adolescence and Youth Survey shows that in the case of fornication, nearly 62 percent of the respondents agreed that the female should be killed and 33.2 percent agreed that the male should be killed. These percentages clearly reveal the gap between the prevailing culture and the culture of citizenship and human rights.

Marriage of Underage Girls: a Typical Form of Family Violence

Early marriage is common in Iraq, especially in the countryside, where most spouses are relatives, due to inherited traditions and customs that see in marriage a social and economic necessity. Females in the countryside do not pursue studies for as many years as females in the city do.[53] This trend, however, started to extend to cities two decades ago. It is one of the most serious and obvious social effects of decades of embargo, wars, disputes, and insecurity, as well as the disintegration of state and civil institutions and value systems (Table 6).

The 2011 MICS4 shows that the rate of women who get married before the age of 15 is 5.7 percent in Iraq and 5.5 percent in the Kurdistan Region, while the rate of girls aged 15–19 years who are currently married is 18.7 percent in Iraq and 19.1 percent in Kurdistan Region[54] (18 percent in urban areas and 19 percent in rural areas).[55] The percentage of girls getting married before the age of 18 increased from 22.6 percent in 2006 to 24.2 percent in 2011.

Three out of ten women aged 15–49 who are married or have been married

before got married for the first time and started their reproductive life before they were 18. The average marriage age for women is 22 years in Iraq and around 26 years in Kurdistan Region.[56] The percentage of single young women aged 15–19 is less than that of single young men.

Marriage rates of underage girls are on the rise, although health institutions warn that the risk of death during pregnancy or delivery for women aged 15–19 is double that of women aged 20–24.

These facts show the dangerous effects of the violation of females' rights during childhood and adolescence. Forcing them to get married puts an end to their education opportunities and makes them both unable to raise their children properly and unqualified to take care of their own health during and after pregnancy and that of their children. An underage wife does not know her rights, neither as a child nor as a mother, which makes her more exposed to violence. In addition, early marriage is one of the main reasons for family disintegration, according to the Higher Judicial Council divorce records. Fertility rates among underage mothers are high – on average, there are 82 births for each 1,000 married women aged 15–19 (Table 3).

Marriage of Underage Girls

A field study shows that marriages of underage girls are greatly increasing, with 244 marriages (around 30 percent) out of the 764 registered in the Family Court in the Shaab District, eastern Baghdad, during the five first months of 2010 involving girls aged 15–17.

Social worker Saja Abdurrida, the Shaab Area Court, Baghdad

Although the Iraqi Civil Status Law No. 188 of 1959 is somewhat compatible with the international laws that set the marriageable age at 18 (the said law sets it at 15 and makes marriage of girls aged 15–18 conditional on a judge's discretion and the parents' approval), the legitimacy given to marriage contracts entered into outside of the courts, especially those concluded by offices of imams, helps circumvent the law.

TABLE 5.2

Aspects of Violence against Women – Early Marriage Age

Indicator	Governorate with lowest rate (%)	Governorates with highest rate (%)	Kurdistan	Iraq
Percentage of women who were under 15 when they got married	Kerbala (3)	Muthanna (8.4) Wasit (7.2) Najaf (7.1)	4.5%	4.9%
Percentage of women who were under 18 when they got married	Diyala (16.6)	Muthanna (30.4) Najaf (27.9) Maysan (26.9) Dhi Qar (25.6)	19.2%	21.7%

Source: Iraq woman integrated social and health survey I-WISH 2011

In the absence of laws that deter the forcible marriage of female minors, and in an environment where levels of education have largely deteriorated over the past two decades, protecting young girls from these childhood violations is not an easy task.

Human rights activists suggest that the Civil Status Law is defective or that certain constitutional or legislative provisions have not been properly interpreted or implemented. Pursuant to the law, a judge may conditionally approve the marriage of underage girls, but some judges use the law and Islamic Sharia to approve the marriage of a 15-year-old girl based on the fact that she can have sexual intercourse and bear children, but without considering her mental, psychological, and social capabilities.

This issue should be prioritized because of the huge scope of the problem and its ongoing transfer from rural areas to urban centres, but also because it reflects general social and culture deterioration.

The response of parliament and government to this issue has not been positive yet. Women and human rights activists are working widely with the support of international organizations to illuminate

such practices. Lately they demanded the revocation of the tribe and clan bill, warning that the bill – submitted by the parliamentary Tribe and Clan Committee to the Council of Representatives for discussion – is unconstitutional. It contradicts Article 14 of the Constitution, and Article 45 – related to tribes – does not provide for the enactment of such a law. It is thought that the bill, if passed, will make more room for the impacts of customs and traditions on society en masse. Activists are concerned because some political blocs have approved the bill and referred it to the Council of Representatives for endorsement.

BOX 5.1 ANTI-UNDERAGE MARRIAGE

An Initiative by Women's Organizations

Under a campaign aimed at curtailing violence against women, Burj Babil for Cultural and Media Development and Model Iraqi Woman Organization, supported by UN Women, found it necessary to highlight underage marriages as a means for tackling violence against underage girls.

The campaign aimed at drawing the attention of those concerned with this issue to the ensuing risks of early marriages and the need to enact laws that minimize them. A radio programme was broadcast over three months, a number of articles were published, and a documentary was produced featuring interviews with divorced women who got married when they were underage. For such women, there is no official document proving their marriage (or even their divorce), because these marriages are usually approved by an imam. The girl and her parents often do not keep a copy of the marriage contract, which completely deprives her of her rights. When she gives birth to a child, she will be unable to send them to school because she has no relevant official documents.

The above-mentioned documentary film features two women who were beaten by their husbands before being divorced 15 days and 6 months, respectively, into their marriage. Neither of them has any document proving marriage or divorce. They could only seek recourse through an international organization which follows up on such cases and tries to obtain the relevant official documents before taking the matter to courts of law to claim the affected women's rights.

In the film, a physician states that underage girls are not eligible for the medical services available to pregnant women because they cannot prove their marital status.

A family court judge also speaks about the risks of this phenomenon, which requires quick intervention and increased efforts by all involved parties to curtail it. Such a marriage, says the judge, "is a mere machine to produce victims", namely the underage girls and their children. The message the film wants to deliver is that the root causes of this issue are poverty, the lack of a legal culture, and poor legal deterrents. The film also highlights the need to develop a relevant, comprehensive strategy to address the problem.

Dhikra Sarsam, Activist

When Traditions Become Persecution

A Real Nightmare for Underage Girls Who Are Mutilated by Their Parents on the Pretext of Purification

Islam does not adopt or support female genital mutilation (FGM). The Kurdistan Region is the only area in Iraq where FGM is practiced as an old tribal tradition. Most old women in Kurdistan were subjected to this kind of violence during childhood and under duress. Their parents often initiated it on the pretext of purification or removal of their sexuality.

Young people despise this. However, the mutilation is sometimes voluntarily –women over 18 are often subjected to insults and despised if they are not circumcised. This prompts some of them to get circumcised for fear of being abandoned by their husbands. According to relevant reports compiled in a number of villages,

10 to 50 percent of females have undergone FGM; most of them were circumcised during the 1980s. FGM is still quite widespread, especially in villages and remote border areas.

Activities of civil society organizations and pressure from international human rights organizations have caused the Kurdistan Regional Government to issue a law that prohibits FGM, an important step towards the elimination of this practice. The Anti-Family Violence Law approved by the Kurdistan Parliament on 21 June 2011 criminalizes FGM, globally known as a form of violence against women. Sentences include imprisonment of up to three years and fines of a maximum of 10 million Iraqi dinars.

This law is only an initial step towards eliminating this phenomenon. Uprooting negative inherited values and traditions, especially those related to women, requires administrative procedures, awareness, and a culture that responds to the enforcement of such laws, not just to their issuance.

Protection from Family Violence

Article 1 of the Iraqi Anti-family Violence Bill defines family violence as "any form of physical, sexual, psychological or economic abuse committed or threatened to be committed by a family member against another member based on the former's authority, guardianship or responsibility within or out of the private life context".

Based on Iraq's international obligations pertaining to accession to international agreements and treaties on human rights, fighting family violence, and protecting women and children, an anti-family violence law is being drafted.

- The draft law is now being examined by the State Shura Council, and there is still a long way to go before its issuance.
- In May 2013, the Iraqi Council of Ministers approved a strategy to combat gender violence.
- Kurdistan Region issued the Anti-Family Violence Law No.8 of 2011.

THE NATIONAL YOUTH STRATEGY 2013–2020

The NYS document accentuates the protection of youth from family violence and the dissemination of a culture of gender equality. Its success, however, depends on how committed the stakeholders are and their ability to efficiently reach the stated goals: "Young people live in a family and community environment that helps protect them from individual and family violence, exploitation and abuse.

Capacities of governmental and non-governmental institutions working with youth developed to protect them from individual and family violence, exploitation and abuse.

A national programme aimed at disseminating a gender-based equality culture and raising awareness about family violence among all social groups developed.

Safe spaces for youth in neighbourhoods and educational institutions made available."

Youth and Social Values System

A young person's character develops during their biological, physical, and mental transformation phases. This transformation happens in a social and cultural context, and the interaction between an individual land the community is fertile land for their maturing character. At the end of the day, the full development of a person's character depends on the success or failure of the previous development phases.

As children grow, there is a move towards a higher degree of independence and the roles for the youth inside and outside the family become clearer. For males, this can include control and authority over their sisters and significant work responsibilities, particularly if the business is owned by the family. Some young men may start taking over the father's authority inside and outside the family.

Family influence strongly overlaps with that of the external environment and peers. Society controls the youth's behaviour and tries to make them acquiesce to the cultural heritage and its values by emphasizing three things: vice, damages, and danger. This happens under the authority vested in adults to practice social control

over young people and children. Some, however, abuse this authority, and others even turn it into a tool for social oppression.

The social structure problems in Iraq are closely related to two factors: an assumed transformation from a traditional to a modern society, which took place over a number of decades that witnessed three consecutive wars and armed conflicts, and a quick openness to globalization. Each of these factors has its own ramifications on the youth and on their relationship with society, the economy, and the state.

Given the country's large oil reserves and the consequent political and economic behaviour and values, Iraq did not move from a traditional economy based on agriculture to an industrial economy and society based on the ethics of work and production. In this modernization process, no major changes were brought about in family structures, institutions, values, and social relationships. An individual did not have a new stand-alone value. A direct relationship governed by the constitution, laws, or voluntary self-affiliation was not established between individuals and the state or the society.

This kind of individualism did not happen for a number of reasons. The large-scale migration from rural to urban areas was not linked to a move from a traditional economy, particularly in the rural areas, to an industrial one in the cities. The majority of townspeople are originally country people who had old traditional relationships based on oppression and exploitation; they migrated due to a weak agricultural economy. Accordingly, the move from rural to urban areas has not led to tangible changes in societal values. Overwhelmed by commercial and service activities, the cities have become incubators of rural, traditional values thanks to these numerous rural in-migrants. The internal structures of the newcomers' communities have continued to embrace authoritarian values, kinship ties, and tribal, sectarian, and ethnic relationships instead of embracing urban values.

Youth development challenges can only be understood when attention is paid to the profound cultural and social transformations undergone by Iraqi society over the last three decades. These led to complicated social and behavioural problems, most prominently broken social institutions; limited job opportunities; deteriorated living conditions; poor education and health systems; and increased numbers of unemployed and displaced persons, including street children, beggars, disabled people, and other vulnerable groups with limited capabilities. These groups often fail to handle life's challenges and are thus forced to stay at the bottom rung of society, emptied of any feeling of belonging. This is coupled with poor official and unofficial social control, which paves the way for violence and crime.

Continued insecurity, violence, and poor control mechanisms inevitably caused a broken-down social value system. That in turn has led to negative behavioural patterns, a disturbed family authority hierarchy, vandalism of public property, administrative corruption – bribery, forgery, and embezzlement–the widespread breaching of social responsibility norms, and other phenomena and challenges which threaten human and national security.

The young people's crisis is no longer their own; rather, it has become a double crisis combining their own movement to maturity and the tumultuous transition the Iraqi society and political realm are currently undergoing. Other countries have undoubtedly witnessed the same situation, particularly those with long wars and conflicts or deep societal transformations, such as Palestine, Lebanon, Yemen, etc. Some NHDRs touched upon these problems (see the HDRs of Lithuania 2009, Cyprus 2009, and Kosovo 2006).

Nowadays, young people experience a violent conflict of values due to the above-mentioned deep transformations in society, but also broader changes in the world, including the spread of media and communication technology, which have brought new and different values. The youth often adapt their behaviour to those values that seem more contemporary or exciting. Most adults consider these changes to be a serious problem, as they challenge the existent values and social and moral standards. The older generation sees these changes in what they perceive as growing perversion and uncommon behavioural patterns, which in turn threaten society's security and stability.

Despite the openness to globalization and the relatively sudden changes in the youth's lifestyles, which have been accompanied by a significant improvement

in the HDIs, a similar transformation has not happened with regard to negative traditional values. For example, getting rid of the values of revenge and gender discrimination has not happened with the same fast pace. Iraqi youth may change their material lifestyle, but their customs can remain fixed, untouched, and even strengthened, allowing them to be passed on to the coming generations.

In the Kurdistan Region, this conflict between the old and the modern is there, but the region's youth are more inclined towards modernity. This is evident in the increased contributions by modernists to Kurdish literature in recent years. Furthermore, the large-scale migration to Europe and North America and the easy return to the region created new bridges between traditional Kurdish society and modern societies, making the clash between the old and the modern less severe than in the other Iraqi governorates. This clash also manifested itself in different forms, given the importance of the Kurdish identity, as well as a political party structure that is still in the form of a 'national liberation movement' which has not yet achieved all of its goals and which the citizens still support. There is therefore a special relationship among members of the Kurdish society, but also between this society and the authorities.

Cultural Heritage

Young people develop their identity by sorting through a variety of (often competing) religious, linguistic, political, and cultural dimensions. Their patterns of response to their environment are hugely informed by their family and their social network.

Youth culture emerges as a response to local and international changes. That response may include a rejection of dominant values through alternative forms of cultural expression. Embracing one culture and discarding another may lead the youth to rebel against the dominant standards and values in society and try independently to create a special kind of language, values, conduct, and behaviour. It is evident from listening to the youth's views that they are divided between these two cultural currents. This division, however, is insufficient to be considered a cultural conflict, as political dimensions play a significant role in the divisions that exist among the youth. This is one characteristic of coexisting, multicultural societies such as Iraq's.

Thus, heritage, along with its material and spiritual dimensions, becomes an effective element in the development process and in connecting the past with the future. Many young people cling to everything related to heritage, while others call on discarding it altogether to 'catch up' with global progress. Others advocate fully transforming society through modernity.

Upbringing and education should together help children and youth recognize the value of their heritage, both as an important human development cycle and as a history with many contributions to human civilization.

Religious Values

Being religious is a quality shared by many humans, and in numerous societies religious people are respected and held in high esteem. Religiousness is still a quiet, safe, and socially cherished way for Iraqi youth to discover themselves, particularly in a society where traditions and religion still play a major role.

Youth agree that "religious and spiritual values represent a major part of our social philosophy and that violence and the other uncivilized conducts are symptoms of a psychopathic personality, as they contradict the most established controls of the social structure. The religious values inculcated by the family, in essence, encourage love, peace, and tolerance." Linking violence to religion is worrying for both young people and the social and educational institutions looking into the growing number of youth joining the so-called 'political Islam' movements.

Psychologists believe that the emergence of this phenomenon in Iraq can be ascribed to the psychological crisis suffered by many youth, who face numerous closed doors related to job opportunities, education, social and moral goals, and even marriage and starting a family. All these problems eventually cause one form or another of suppression, which might in turn lead to violent responses. At the same time, the intellectual, spiritual, or violent counterculture movements that do exist are actively trying to attract young people. This link between religion and extreme political movements is also wor-

rying for other peoples, particularly those undergoing transition (see Kyrgyzstan's HDR2009).

The balance among the various sources of religious consciousness is clearly flawed, and this is harmful to families, schools, religious institutions, imams, and worship houses, which are all part of a community's fabric. This flaw makes politicized religious thought one of the most challenging threats for families and for the social and traditional hierarchies of authority and prestige, and it leads to an unstable youth value system.

In general, those who think that young people will give up their affiliation to religion or sects are wrong, as these have existential, human, and historical value for young people. Thus, religious institutions should focus on making religiousness among young people a moral example and on raising awareness in order to separate religiousness from intolerance and extremism. The dimensions of this responsibility depend ,inter alia, on reforming the religious education curricula so that religion focuses on the productive morals and values needed to build a just state and virtuous society.

YOUTH VIEW

Religious Discourse and Its Impact on the Youth

- Some youth believe that religious discourse adds nothing new, since it only humours the audience and is directly or indirectly subject to their wishes lest it should lose their support.
- Others see this discourse as highly influential when a proper environment is available to spread its ideas; it can serve as a form of pressure on the government to tackle certain issues in society.

Youth Discussion of the NHDR Workshop, Baghdad, 13–14 March 2013

Tribal Values

The modern civil institutions represented by the state and its economic, political, and social system was unable for more than half a century to cancel, replace, or weaken the role of traditional institutions such as the extended family and the clan in a harmonious way that would help transform the community structure and allow it to adopt civil values. Thus, primary allegiances thrive, interact in the social arena, and overlap with the political one.

Despite a changing environment with respect to work, education, and social status, young people are still controlled by their communities' primary authority. Nepotism is still the easier way to obtain benefits, make gains, and secure social and work positions (see Table 7, Youth Survey Appendix).

The 2012 Youth Survey In the absence of objective systems and standards, a large percentage of youth (54.2 percent of males and 36.8 percent of females) only has access to jobs through favouritism.

When Iraqi youth face these choices, a lack of social and economic security will tip the scales in favour of the family and the clan. These traditional institutions not only provide needed human and psychological security, but also the social and economic guarantees which the state and its modern institutions are still unable to provide. They also provide protection in case of any conflict with the law or the authorities.

The demographic changes in Iraq were not the result of natural conditions, since wars and armed conflicts played a major role in reshaping urban and rural areas through displacement and migration. In February 2012, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) estimated that 51 percent of the families internally displaced by the wave of violence in 2006 went to live in governorates other than their original ones. The rural/urban duality is still enhancing.[57]

The rural/urban duality is still enhancing clans' roles and strengthening their established values. It also explains an important aspect of the youth's different behavioural patterns. The major migration waves in Iraq from rural to urban areas

have transformed city life itself, and not only in terms of the growing number of those coming to the cities. For example, in the 1987 census, 35 percent of Baghdad's population and about 12 percent of Sulaymaniya's were not originally from these two cities. This demographic reality affected economic activities, housing patterns, forms of expression, politics, culture, arts, and social life, as those who came to urban areas did not fit into and were not integrated into the urban environment's civil socio cultural paradigms and dynamics. As a result, the youth found themselves dealing with a double culture in which traditional and tribal elements continue to grow.

YOUTH VOICE

The Tribe's Function Is Continuous: Baghdad's Youth

The discussion session with young people in Baghdad (Rusafa) included an opinion poll about tribes and tribalism and their attitudes about these issues. Their answers were compound and multifaceted, expressing ideas about the overlapping social, political, and cultural functions of clans. They also noted the overlapping of traditional functions with new ones resulting from the new situation after 2003. The opinions varied and were not always in agreement.

The majority of the youth agree that tribe influences their social relationships "because the Iraqi society's structure is composed of a group of clans". This perception of the social structure was undisputed among the participants, regardless of their various negative and positive attitudes towards clans. In general, they believe that "the clans' role was established and increased during the post-2003 insecurity and crises. The decreased ability of the state to impose security led clans to fill in the gap and become the protector of their members, since location affects a clan's domination; their authority in urban areas is more acquiescent to the rule of law and institutions, unlike in rural areas."

"The weaker the state's authority, the greater the clans' role and vice versa," said a young man." Generally speaking, however, the clans' role is important and supportive of the state's work."

"Politicians play the clan card to obtain political, electoral, and party gains. Hence the distorted state structure. Do we live in a civil and institutional state or a state of tribes? I believe that political parties are using clans to strengthen their authority," commented another one.

This oscillation between two views is quite natural, and it is difficult to have a clear-cut stance on either a modern, civil state or a tribal one. Upon closely examining the youth's views, it is evident that they realize that the political parties' use of clans is a temporary one not linked to clans' traditional functions. The clans' traditional influence is used to achieve current party goals – an additional overlap between the state and the clans in both authority and politics.

From a social and cultural point of view, the youth believe that a lot of "tribal practices, such as blood money and the marriage of a girl from the murderer's family to a man from the victim's, are incompatible with basic human rights, religious teachings, and Islamic sharia." On the other hand, "some tribal practices are positive and contribute to stability, especially since Iraq has newly come out of a conflict and a sectarian fight. Tribal traditions achieve reconciliation and appease grudges and hatred. A clan includes members of the two main sects and thus can achieve reconciliation inside the clan itself."

"It is the state, its institutions and laws that regulate life, rather than clans," said another young man, disagreeing. "Otherwise, what is the use of courts, police stations, and other state institutions? In some previous times, there was a need for such things, but now things are different. In practice, some clan heads issue orders based on their whims and desires without any logical or religious bases or agreed-upon principles."

The participants agreed that young people are affected by each other more than by adults. They listen to their peers when they feel that those agemates are experienced and can handle problems and find appropriate solutions: "Technological advances have reduced the significance and role of the clans in enhancing youth relations. As a young man, I establish my relationships and friendships through my place of study and work, through travelling, or through social networks such as Face book and Twitter, and not through clans," said a young participant.

"But clans have a major role in strengthening relationships among the youth of different clans. My opinion is based on a life experience: when my cousin had an accident with a man from another clan, many of the latter's relatives came and I got introduced to many of them and we became friends," said another one, disagreeing.

Such assessments and opinions are often anecdotal and subjective, but they are definitely common among the youth. However, differences among the youth on other issues are far fewer. When asked if they want to be a 'clan head', they were surprised and gave amusing responses. "If a young man became a clan head, he would not be able to impose his vision and views due to adults' negative views towards youth," said a young man." Thus, he would not be respected by clan members,

as we are living in a patriarchal society which only accepts the opinions and views of adults. Young people embrace whatever is new; therefore, adults may accuse them of disobeying dominant social values, making them in constant disagreement with them, and that what is called the generation gap."

"Young people are energetic and adventurous and love exploring things. This is why old people believe they discard conventional things," said another, disagreeing. "Many young people rebel against social and political situations which do not provide them with adequate opportunities to play their role and achieve their ambitions."

Crisis of Youth or of Society?

There is a huge gap between the youth's aspirations and their ability to choose new social values and behaviours responsive to the challenges of transition. This causes a young individual to feel anxiety, internal conflict, frustration, and dissatisfaction and leads to a failure to play socially assigned roles. In other words, this creates a gap between the ideal picture and the real behaviour.

The answers of the participants in the discussion sessions give many examples of people's reactions to crises since "wars destroy some moral rules and permit some taboos to the extent that they become preferred or even obligatory".[58]

The answers also reveal the fear and pessimism that correlate to the many concerns felt by young people in daily life. Iraqi society's general 'perversion', as some participants put it, has created a new situation characterized by insolence and a lack of fear of legal and moral repercussions, which is complicating things in the short term and restraining the government's movement towards reform and reconstruction.

Many youth believe that not adhering to values has made many people influenced by previously unacceptable tendencies. Material affluence has become a much higher value than honesty, and closeness to authority is a measure of prestige more important than integrity. The values of solidarity, faithfulness, and sharing have changed and been replaced by new value systems that honour fraud, cheating, lying, etc. As a result, young people have become confused –in theory, positive values and ideals are praised and corrupt conduct is rejected, but on the ground these negative values and acts are common and acceptable.[59]

Young people are unable to have self-fulfilment in legitimate labour markets, forcing them to be involved in illicit social and economic activities. The majority of these changes have been mixed with inherited value systems that have negative aspects. The injustices visited upon Iraqis may be the reason for such negative values, and a lot of these habits and social practices are now common. Some people do not even scorn those who violate the law, break street lamps, refuse to queue up, or help thieves. Some may even respect them and consider them strong people who challenge the government and do not fear it.[60]

Wars and crises are a real test for society's institutions. One indicator of their failure is that each major institution generates a parallel shadow one. In the economic institution, for example, financial corruption, forgery, illegal branding, and others become a shadow institution. In the family institution, prostitution and extramarital relationships become a shadow institution. The situation becomes more dangerous when the shadow institution overlaps with the official one, such as when a family forces its female members to prostitute themselves or get married for commercial reasons, or when a family (parents and children) becomes beggars.

Pluralism and the Iraqi Case

Iraq is one of the first countries in the Middle East to recognize racial, religious, and sectarian pluralism. Kurds, Turkmen, and Assyrians enjoy full freedom to speak their languages and practice their cultures, which is good, but the degree of acceptance of and interaction among Iraq's various cultures is another thing.

The Kurdistan Region's youth believe that pluralism and tolerance are more stable and fixed in that region than in the other governorates. The region's media played a major role in this regard, particularly after the intolerance the area experienced during the conflict, which has now become a lesson well learned; nobody wants to go back to such circumstances, and all actors now stress tolerance, both

at the political level and within society en masse.

The freedoms given to Iraq's cultural groups were in fact the political result of a long struggle which all the groups took part in, particularly those that had their rights violated in previous eras. However, these achievements are not enough; the degree of openness and interaction between different ethnicities is still substandard.

Arab youth in Baghdad could not build real bridges with the other Iraqi cultures. Their schools, media, and culture were negligent in this regard, while non-Arab intellectuals learned about the Arab culture and read and write in Arabic.

Issues of Concern to Youth

Young people discussed two issues of major concern to them, namely the extreme family disintegration in Kirkuk and the proliferation of drugs in Anbar. While this report includes quantitative and qualitative research aimed at understanding and analysing the situation and identifying how better to deal with existing problems, examining the aforesaid two extreme issues can clarify to some extent the societal conception of these problems and how youth view the causal relationship between the reasons and the results.

Examining these two issues reveals the dangerous behaviours and consequences that can result from authoritarian familial and social relationships and poor or minimal dialogue between generations. Although these extreme cases are relatively limited when compared to other widespread but less dangerous issues, they are in fact the tip of the iceberg. Such cases can only exist when enhanced by a huge raft of other problems, which have not yet produced their full negative effects, but which must however be treated without delay.

YOUTH VOICE

Issues of Concern to the Kirkuk Youth –Human Trafficking, Family Violence, and Sexual Abuse

The youth participating in the dialogue session in Kirkuk related many stories of sexual abuse and the organ trade and said these cases resulted from family violence. They believe that poverty and family and social disintegration are the key drivers.

However, such extreme issues usually result from a number of correlated reasons rather than only one. In Kirkuk, such phenomena are found in the city's growing slums, which are still receiving large numbers of displaced families fleeing conflict in other regions in Iraq. These displaced families are mostly poor, and some of them have lost identification documents, which makes it difficult for them to get jobs or even food aid.

The slums' demographic composition is a hybrid mix of different regions and ethnic groups, mainly displaced persons. This means that the traditional bonds between families and their original environment have been broken – forcibly in most cases – and are not being replaced by any urban or civil bonds that may exist.

At the household level, there is poverty and a lack of resources, coupled with the family disintegration that results from non-existent parents and from displacement. The traditional family hierarchy has been diminished; if the father is present, he is likely unemployed and cannot provide for his family. In a new environment and under difficult circumstances, extreme cases of violence, sexual abuse, and human trafficking are not unusual, particularly when there are no external deterrence measures.

The opinions expressed by the youth on this subject blame economic factors, noting that households are struggling with price inflation, unemployment, and skyrocketing house rents.

According to the youth, the social and familial reasons for such behaviour are as follows:

1. Family disintegration, family violence, favouring of certain children, and drugs. Family violence, such as beating, burning, torture, and depriving children of food, pushes young people to flee home, while the children of drug addicts suffer from numerous psychological and social problems.
2. Customs and traditions, specifically a culture of authority and forcefulness. There are related practices such as early marriage and choosing husbands for girls. In addition, society can traditionally be intolerant, for example by not allowing ex-convicts to reintegrate.
3. Parents who are not understanding, which makes it impossible for young people, especially young women, to tell the truth. This pushes children to commit suicide or run away from home, in which case they might be abused by other parties.
4. Some families make a deal with criminal gangs and use the their younger members in illegal activities in order to make money (this was addressed in the previous chapter).
5. Inability to properly understand religion, and using misinterpretations to justify immoral activities.

6. Blame for delinquent children is placed on the mother; the parents do not take equal responsibility.
7. Alarmingly fast-growing slums in the governorate due to migration from other governorates, and a lot of the inhabitants trade in women and human organs.
8. Families are large but are disintegrating; meanwhile, the youth find it too expensive to get married, resulting in unusually high rates of unmarried people, especially women.
9. Women's poor awareness of their rights and the increasing illiteracy rate among them.

The way these reasons are viewed and prioritized differs among the youth and within society.

Some of the youth believe that it is Islam that forces women to stay at home and makes society reject their employment in many fields. Others argue that it is not religion itself but the rigid interpretations by some persons that are to blame. However, a large and influential social group still believes that the home is the right place for women.

Since Kirkuk accommodates multiple ethnic groups and sects, there are different views on the role of customs and traditions in causing this situation.

A certain understanding of religion has become so prevalent, it appears that popular culture affects religion more than religion affects popular culture. People often mix up religion with customs and traditions, and confuse customs, which have been recently formed, with traditions, which are supposed to have some historical roots. Incoming harmful customs are often considered part of the tradition, though they are not.

While the youth had different opinions concerning the above-mentioned points, they agreed on other aspects – acknowledging, for example, that there are inadequate procedures and mechanisms to eliminate the problems. For instance, anti-trafficking laws only impose financial penalties on violators, with no sentence. The youth also agreed on the need to review adultery laws so as not to discriminate against women. They however disagreed on who to blame for this dangerous behaviour: is it the whole family, the father, the mother, the husband, or the young woman herself? They also expressed doubts about the use and sustainability of treatment. It was as if they believed that change was almost impossible or as if they were unable to recognize the signs of change.

YOUTH VOICE

Anbar's Youth Warn about Drugs

The youth who participated in the dialogue session in Anbar complained that the country has had a drug trade with neighbouring countries since the mid-1990s. Drugs have permeated society due to insecurity and the series of wars and disputes in Iraq over many years. Departure, forced displacement, and the introduction of numerous satellite channels after 2003 played a role in bringing practices inconsistent with the traditions of Anbar's closed tribal society.

One of the youth said nine persons of one family were killed because of a television serial, while another serial caused many divorces. A lot of problems have emerged between couples and between parents and children due to watching such serials. Although this interpretation appears simplistic because it omits more complex factors behind the family and social problems, it reveals how fragile the bonds and basics of marriage and family are. Marriages are often arranged by the parents and not based on a real relationship or understanding between the spouses, which makes them shakeable – even because of a television serial.

The youth also expressed resentment about the spread of ecstasy and alcoholic drinks among young people, which some of them publicly boast about. This, say the youth, reflects despair, a lack of confidence in the future, poor religious and moral deterrents, and the influence of bad company. It is an attitude that defies the family and society, through which the abusers express their rejection of being deprived of their rights, especially decision making. Through drugs, they escape to an imaginary world.

A participant said ecstasy – an empathogenic drug of the phenethylamine and amphetamine classes of drugs – is popular among the youth. Many of those youth are under the effect of these pills most of their time. Gangs and individuals who are generally well known to society sell these pills in coffee shops, casinos, and clubs, and even in broad daylight. Some have even been sold in universities, with officials neglecting to address the issue. Intoxicants have also become widespread because they are easy to buy and because governorate officials are turning a blind eye or even promoting them.

Some of the youth underlined that the reason behind the rapid spread of this problem is poor legal deterrents and weak health and border controls. Others argued that unemployment is the cause. A participant said that the law was only applied to the weak, and that family turbulence and social violence in Anbar, including murders, forced displacement, violence, limited rule of law, and the growing influence of tribal customs, were the most influential factors.

The youth also believe that the spread and easy use of digital satellite receivers have an important

role in encouraging this behaviour among the youth. Many young people are emulating celebrities in their behaviour, their relationships, and the way they deal with others. Another main reason behind the addiction is young people's unorganized spare time.

A participant stressed the need for government institutions and civil society organizations to develop awareness programmes. All the participants expressed their fear of the consequences of addiction on youth and society.

Youth Recommendations

The youth believe that fighting this problem should be made not only through a security/legal approach, but also through a comprehensive approach that includes social awareness and the promotion of a culture of health. Their recommendations in this respect were as follows:

1. Coordinating the efforts of the Ministries of Health and Interior and the governorate councils in order to develop a database on the addicts, and cooperating with the anti-drug centres run by security services in order to minimize the trade in drugs.
2. Enhancing synergy between the ministries dealing with youth, education, health, justice, and internal issues, with the goal of holding awareness workshops in education institutions.
3. Coordinating with religious institutions in order to explain the consequences of drug abuse.
4. Activating the role of the Ministry of Health and its affiliated departments in monitoring pharmacies and medicine distribution outlets, especially those dealing with psychiatric drugs.

Chapter 6

Education Opportunities for the Youth

Right to education in the 2005 Iraqi Constitution: Article 34

First: Education is a fundamental factor in the progress of society and is a right guaranteed by the state. Primary education is mandatory, and the state guarantees the eradication of illiteracy.

Second: Free education is a right for all Iraqis in all its stages.

For two generations[61] of Iraq's youth and perhaps for one more generation to come, empowerment has not been easy or satisfactory. The previous chapters reveal the significant challenges that young people's exclusion manifests. Ten years after the end of successive wars and international sanctions, the education system still suffers certain imbalances that make it fall short of two key goals: providing basic knowledge to young people, and establishing a cognitive basis for developing the adequate and proper skills to empower them.

Education is a human right and an opportunity for empowerment and capacity building. The Iraqi Constitution guarantees this right to the youth.

What do youth want first?

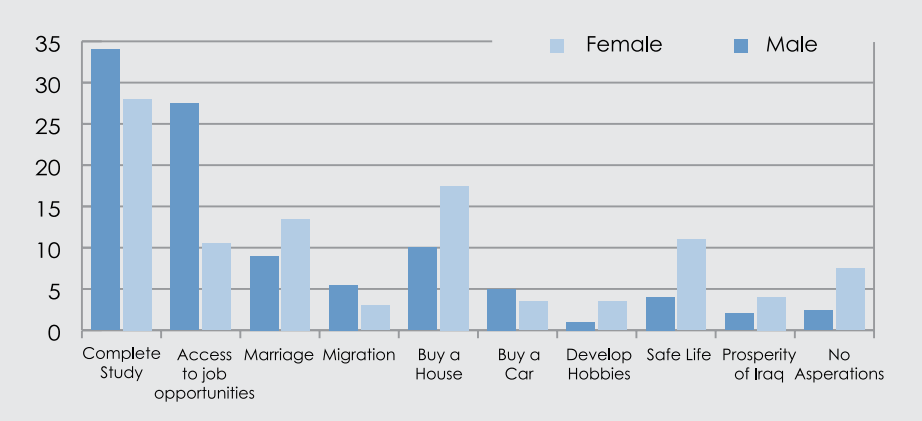
Education is still a top priority of the youth: approximately 30 percent of the youth in the central and southern Iraqi governorates and 39 percent in Kurdistan Region consider education a priority.

One explanation for this is that education is almost exclusively associated with improving job prospects. For Iraqi youth, access to job opportunities is the second priority after education and before housing and marriage.

This could mean that Iraqi youth do not regard education as a source of knowledge, culture, freedom, and character building, but rather as an obligation to ensure the material needs of life. These priorities are organically interrelated, as Figure 6.1 reveals.

FIGURE 6.1

Youth Priorities



Source: Youth survey YS-2012

Getting an academic degree is a goal of the youth, but it is related to a more important one. According to the 2009 National Youth and Adolescent Survey, 63 percent of youth aged 15–29 want to have a university degree, which goes in line with the youth's positive perception of education. Further, 60 percent believe that acquiring a university degree helps them both get a job and improve their social status, while 29 percent believe that it only helps them get a job opportunity, and 12 percent think it only enhances their social status.

About 37 percent of males and 27.7 percent of females believe education helps them get a job opportunity. However, the rate of females who believe that education helps improve social status is higher than that of males, which might confirm the assumption that professional status (rank and achievements at work) is more important to males than familial or kinship

status. Acquiring a high academic degree appears to ensure a respectable social status for females within their family and community or among their friends.

Therefore, the youth's motivation to pursue academic studies is great even though they are aware that job opportunities are rare – 43 percent of university graduates are unemployed, according to the 2011 IKN Survey. Indeed, in the current situation each additional year of education only raises the hourly wage by 2.6 percent(the international equivalent is nearly 6 percent).[62]

Is Education a Portal to Social Integration?

As a basic dimension of human development, education provides, through the acquisition of knowledge, opportunities to integrate into or improve various aspects of social life: work, professional/social status, cultural awareness, political participation, etc. It also plays an important role in social mobility, especially when it ensures equal opportunity and succeeds in providing people with basic knowledge and skills.[63] But this is not always the case, as many young people are excluded from their right to education either because of family or institutional barriers. The following indicators shed light on the situation.

High Illiteracy Rate

In spite of efforts decades ago to eradicate illiteracy among adults, illiteracy is continuing in the new generation. The rate of illiteracy for the age group of 15–29 is 15.3 percent (19.7 percent among females and 11.1 percent among males).[64]

The 2012 Youth Survey shows that illiteracy rates, while high, are generally lower among males and lower in Kurdistan Region.

The 2012 Youth Survey

Illiteracy rates for those aged 15–29 (%)	Iraq governorates			Kurdistan		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
	10.3	18.5	13.9	4.6	11.6	8.0

These high illiteracy rates among young people are due to economic factors, which make a family neglect its children's right to education.

Low Educational Attainment of the Youth

Educational attainment among the youth is low: 33.4 percent of the age group 15–29 are illiterate or semi-literate, 32 percent have completed their primary education, approximately 28 percent have completed middle or high school, and 7 percent have finished post-secondary education. These rates are incommensurate with the requirements of the labour market and development programmes in general.

Unequal Educational Attainment of the Youth

While the primary enrolment rate is improving generally (94 percent for males and 90 percent for females), the gap between males and females in secondary education enrolment is still wide (52.5 percent against 44.6 percent respectively), although female enrolment improved in all governorates save Anbar, where it decreased to 35.5 percent in 2011 from 38 percent in 2006.

The lowest enrolment rate was in Maysan Governorate, at 31.4 percent, followed by Muthanna and Wasit, while the highest rates of secondary education enrolment in 2011 were in Kurdistan Region, where Sulaymaniya Governorate ranked first at 79 percent.

Disparities in Enrolment Rates of the Youth

The overall enrolment rate of the youth at the secondary education level varies across the Iraqi governorates. It was 15.4 percent in Maysan, 20 percent in Muthanna, 20.9 percent in Basra, and 21.2 percent in Naynawa. The highest rates were in the Kurdistan Region of Iraq, where it reached 42.3 percent across the governorates.

In university education, young women's participation has increased noticeably. The percentage of female students in the University of Baghdad reached 59 percent. It is even higher in Kufa Univer-

sity in Najaf Governorate, where it approached 61 percent. In Maysan University it is 62 percent, and it is 65 percent in Babil University. Dhi Qar University has 70 percent female students, whereas their presence is low in Naynawa University at 40 percent.[65]

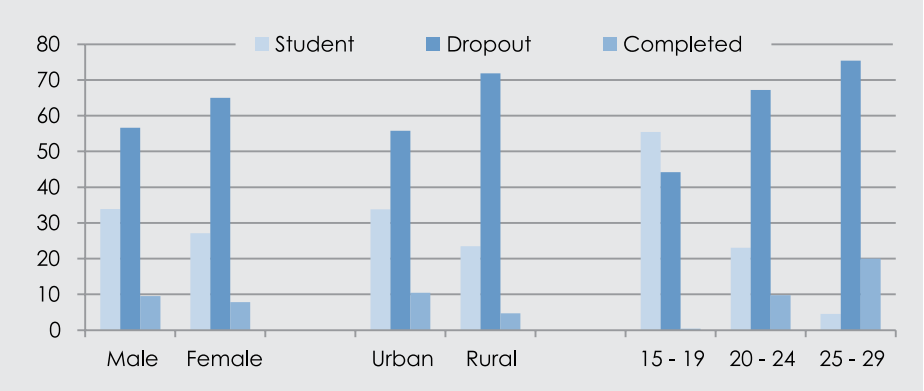
These high percentages are mainly due to the low enrolment of male youth, who drop out of universities to join the labour force. Overall, most of the youth who complete their education all the way to universities are from middle income groups or higher.

Dropping Out

Young people's education enrolment rates are low (21 percent in high school and 14 percent in higher education). In addition, there is a clear discrepancy in the education enrolment rates between males and females (44.4 percent for males against 33.5 percent for females).

FIGURE 6.2

Educational Status of Youth Surveyed



Source: Youth survey YS-2012

3.4 million youth turn their back on education

1.5 million male youth out of school:

16.2% 12-14 years
35% 15-17 years
61.4% 18-21 years

1.9 million female youth out of school:

33% 12-14 years
53.3% 15-17 years
69% 18-21 years

The gender gap in university education, however, is diminishing. The percentage of young women in the academic year 2012–2013 was 54 percent, while in technical education it was 40 percent, and in private universities it was 35 percent.

The youth opinion poll conducted in 2012 showed that the percentage of school dropouts reached 60 percent (57 percent male and 65 percent female), as shown in Figure 6.2.

The school dropout rate was highest in Najaf, where it reached 75 percent, closely followed by Naynawa at 74 percent. In Basra it was 66 percent and in Wasit 65 percent. In the Kurdistan Region, dropout rates were the lowest nationally: Erbil 37 percent, Sulaymaniya 46 percent, and Duhok 56 percent. The order closely follows that of the poverty rates and the Human Development Index by governorate (see tables in the Statistical Annex).

The available data, however, does not show what the students who dropout or do not enrol do. It is not clear how many have joined the labour market, how many are unemployed, and how many are simply being supported by their families. It is difficult to estimate who among them was forced to drop out. Also not known is whether girl students dropout to get married.

In the absence of such specific information, the sheer number of school dropouts is a substantive issue of great importance. There is a need to evaluate the sufficiency and efficiency of the educational system in terms of policies and plans that are in place.

Why do the Youth Drop Out?

As noted, the data does not answer certain questions: What are dropouts doing? How many of them work and how many do not? How many are dependent on their family? Have they dropped out voluntarily or have they been forced to? Have young women dropped out for marriage?

The high rate of dropouts is a major concern at the level of education-related policymaking and academic research.

The Iraq Socioeconomic Household Survey 2012 might help in clarifying the reasons behind such high dropout rates. This survey shows the following in the

same order of importance: unwillingness to complete education, social reasons, working for the family, and the inability of the family to bear education expenses.

Depriving Children of Education

A number of complex factors keep a family from sending its children to school. Some of these factors have a certain degree of continuity, while others are temporary. For example, poverty and family carelessness (or disinterest in education) have a historical and cultural dimension and thus a relative continuity, while insecurity and non-availability of schools are factors that can change when situations improve.

Enrolment rates are similar in rural and urban areas, which suggests that attitudes and approaches to education do not radically differ. However, specific factors do differ, some of which lead to the radical exclusion of females in particular, while others are related to the non-existence of schools. In addition, poverty pushes families to force their children to drop out and get a job to increase the collective income. Moreover, the higher the grade/class, the higher the cost. Primary education's direct costs amount to 6.3 percent of an individual's average monthly expenses (5.5 percent for the poor and 8.9 percent for the rich).

The higher the educational attainment of the parents, the greater the probability that they send their children to school. Furthermore, if the father is educated, it increases the possibility of sending the boys in the family to school, while if both parents are educated, the probability of sending the girls to school increases.[66]

Data resulted from the 2009 National Youth and Adolescent Survey unveil that dropping out is an involuntary choice; 21.2 percent of dropouts or those who did not enrol in education said it was due to poor financial conditions, while 19.5 percent said they wanted to work. Thus, economic factors constitute at least 40 percent of the reasons.

Questions linger about why the youth do not wish to continue with their schooling. The available data does not answer that clearly. Some reasons given by dropouts relate to the quality of education, such as the unavailability of a nearby school, mistreatment by educational staff, and the inflexibility of school hours.

From the above, the conclusion could be made that the regression in education is mainly the result of the reducing interest in education within Iraqi society's current culture. Families do not nurture the importance of education in their children, while schools do not attract interest due to deteriorating school buildings, unhealthy relationships in school, the chosen academic subjects, and the traditional teaching methods. This situation constitutes a big challenge to the education system.

Additionally, the disconnect between education and employment opportunities outside the government has discouraged youth from putting value on education. Students do not feel that schools will provide exclusive knowledge that they could not get through information technology, which is now in direct competition with schools in providing knowledge. As a group of young salespeople said, "It is enough for us to learn what is needed [through] a mobile phone and the Internet for our personal benefit, because these are the skills needed for the employment opportunities that are available in the market, which basically have the capacity for employing more youth."

Youth in the slums say: "We do not need the formal education that teaches us to read and write in Arabic. The heavy subjects that they teach are not useful for us in our future because the job market does not require the knowledge that the school subjects provide." Dhi Qar is one of the poorest governorates in Iraq. In its centre, Al Nasiriya city, the youth have a different opinion. They think that the poverty in the city is the result of lack of education.

YOUTH VOICE

They Are Poor because They Are Deprived of Education, and Deprived of Education because They Are Poor (Al Nasiriya Youth)

The youth of Al Nasiriya are concerned about poverty among young people, and they have the conviction that dropping out is mainly due to poverty, since most dropouts are from the poorest families. Thus, the lower the income, the higher the possibility of dropping out. They consider education one of the most powerful weapons against poverty and unemployment, and they believe that the eradica-

tion of poverty can only be achieved through ensuring a good, proper education.

The youth who participated in the discussion pointed out that if the schools and institutions which were supposed to be a protective umbrella for children had done their work properly (improving education standards and controlling the dropout rate), poverty would have surely decreased. They also stress that most children who work or beg in the streets are dropouts who have lost education opportunities and will not have society's respect when they grow up. Some of the youth put the blame on family for not taking control of this problem, while others hold schools responsible, as they appear not to have a clearly defined plan or work programme that encourages students to continue their education.

The youth demand that government education programmes target dropouts who now work, especially young women in rural areas who mostly work in the informal sector. They also call for improving the quality of education, not merely eradicating illiteracy, as well as providing educational opportunities to all Iraqis throughout their life.

The issue that needs to be addressed at the government and social levels is the negative attitudes of the youth towards education. Such attitudes contradict the high status of knowledge, education, and educators in Iraq and within the Arabic cultural legacy in general. The quality of education has negatively impacted on the youth's vision and will certainly have its effects on future generations.

We have to note that the youth might not be interested in benefitting or able to benefit from the current traditional education approach. This requires considering various innovative educational approaches that are designed to meet the needs of the youth and the shifts in their perceptions. Such an education would address their growing interest in modern technology and at the same time be sensitive to the local culture and the particular attitude towards girls. One of the main reasons for the dropout of girls from schools in rural areas is the unavailability of girls' schools (see Youth Voice 9).

Encouraging initiative might help to address this situation. The government has to recognize the risks inherent in the high dropout rates, and it should encourage families and their children to enrol in schools and complete their education. The Ministries of Education and Higher Education actually started a programme in 2013 to provide cash to students in public universities, where each student gets a monthly payment of US$90. The Ministry of Education will start giving US$27 to each student in primary and secondary levels starting in 2014.

The National Youth Strategy 2010–2012 suggested a programme which, if implemented, could be an important instrument in understanding youth issues and addressing them in order to achieve higher enrolment of the youth and change their attitudes towards education. The programme implementation will depend on state spending trends, the private sector's desire to do their part, and families' ability and willingness to prioritize education.

However, the situation requires an urgent search for more innovative alternatives.

PROGRAMMES SUGGESTED IN THE NYS 2013–2020

The National Youth Strategy suggests an expanded programme to provide the youth with education:

1. A national programme for youth-friendly schools designed and implemented in a number of Iraqi areas, especially the most disadvantaged areas
2. A national programme to engage schools, communities, and NGOs in defining issues and concerns related to youth needs in society and in encouraging them to conduct scientific research related to their issues of concern implemented
3. A national programme for developing the life skills of young people, especially those living in the most disadvantaged communities and those with special needs, to help them develop positive behaviour and enable them to participate in education and learning as well as decision making that affects their lives and communities implemented
4. A national programme involving policymakers, local leaders, communities, and parents to enhance the enrolment of youth in educational institutions, particularly females and youth with special needs, in an equal manner in all areas and among all social groups and ensure their completion of school, vocational, and university education programmes implemented
5. A national programme for erasing illiteracy and accelerating the learning of young male and female dropouts funded and implemented to allow them to gain access to new education opportunities

Alternative Educational Approaches

Alternate educational approaches are not difficult to find, and the experience of many countries provides successful models that could be followed. International organizations such as UNESCO and UNICEF provide very useful resources for the benefit of governments and civil society institutions. Mobile schools, remote learning, the Internet, television, and mobile phones are widely used and could be effective channels for knowledge. The most suitable model to be applied depends on the educational targets and cultural nature of the society.

Alternative educational approaches are not restricted to educational institutions. In fact, this relationship between the service provider and the recipient should be reviewed in order to find possibilities for innovative approaches. It is worth listing here some local initiatives by families dedicated to their children's education:

- In a Nahiya (area) in Kerbala Governorate, an agriculturalist donated some land and other locals contributed money to construct a school in their town. They requested the local government to arrange for the teachers and their salaries.
- In Khan Beni Saad town in Diyala Governorate, the locals leased a house and have pledged to pay the rent while the government pays the salaries of the teachers.

Institutional Challenges

Evaluation reports indicate that the education system itself poses a major challenge to young people's educational process. Several factors combine to enhance the irregularities in the structure and performance of the education system. These factors vary depending on geographical location, gender, and state of transition. They also vary according to whether or not schools meet the requirements for quality education (availability and operation of science labs, experienced teachers, etc.). These requirements are more often met in Baghdad and in governorate centres than in rural areas and small towns. This situation deprives many youth of a large number of educational opportunities.

The National Education Strategy 2011–2020 identifies a raft of challenges facing secondary and higher education, as outlined below.

Education Sector Challenges

Item	Major challenge
Institutional context	Obsolete administrative, financial, and legislative systems (or components thereof) and poor administrative practices
Infrastructure	Severe deficit in the number of school and university buildings and an inadequate regulatory system and education environment
Available opportunities	Decreased number of quality education opportunities (enrolment, equality, and efficiency) at all educational levels
Quality	Poor quality control and limited application
Financing and spending	Low budget allocations to the education sector and poor management of such allocations
Scientific research	Poor scientific research capacities, activities, and products

Source: National Education Strategy/Iraq 2011–2020

Limited Capacity of Secondary Education

Quantitative educational indicators, such as the number of students or schools, are often deemed useful indicators of empowerment opportunities (scientific, professional, preparatory, and training-related), which are of course required for getting a job or simply acquiring knowledge. These indicators in Iraq reflect imbalanced institutional structures, infrastructure, and course content. This is aggravated by

The low coverage of the education system and the irregular distribution of educational services have helped decrease youth enrolment in educationally marginalized areas and have affected their opinion about the benefits of completing their education.

The disparity in the provision of educational services among regions and also among educational levels enhances discrepancies in the net enrolment rate.

The persistent gap among the three stages suggests a structural imbalance, since the number of students enrolled in middle school accounts for less than half of those who finished the primary stage.

the unequal distribution of educational services between urban and rural areas, between males and females, among governorates, and among educational stages.

Secondary education coverage in 2010–2011 was as follows:

- The number of secondary schools in Iraq totalled 5,472: 2,396 boys' schools (43.7 percent), 1,863 girls' schools (34 percent), and 1,213 mixed schools (22 percent).
- The number of students for this stage reached 1,953,766: 58.8 percent male and 41.2 percent female, and the average number of students per school was 358.
- The number of secondary school teachers amounted to 136,446: 59,923 male teachers (43.9 percent of the total number) and 76,523 female teachers (56.1 percent). The teacher–student ratio was 1:14.3, which is acceptable according to international standards.

Gender Disparities

Data for 2004–2012 reveals a disparity between the enrolment rates of males and females, which suggests that the education system has failed to bridge this gap. The net enrolment rate for primary school and intermediate school is 93 percent and 40 percent respectively for males compared to 83 percent and 34 percent for females.

As for secondary school, the rate was a low 18 percent for both sexes. This is attributed to the continued influence of social traditions which impede girls' completion of education, and also to the increased engagement of males in the labour market after the age of 15. Those who continue to university generally come from middle and upper class families, especially in urban areas where differences between the enrolment rates of males and females are socially, culturally, or economically based.

In spite of the high HDI in the Kurdistan Region compared to the other Iraqi governorates, there were still gender-based discrepancies in the enrolment rates in Kurdistan's three governorates: out of the total number of students, the female enrolment rate was 46 percent in Erbil and Duhok and 48 percent in Sulaymaniya, according to the Kurdistan Educational Statistics Report 2011–2012.

Rural–Urban Disparities

There is a clear degree of educational deprivation in Iraq's rural areas, both in terms of distribution and quality. Primary schools in rural areas account for 51 percent of the total number of primary schools, while the rural population only constitutes 31 percent of the Iraqi population. This is not a positive indicator. It is a result of the geographic remoteness of villages and rural communities. While urban schools can have 6, 12, 18, or 24 classrooms, rural schools usually have 6 classrooms – a very limited capacity.

Other indicators suggest other inequalities. About 34 percent of Iraqi teachers work in rural areas; this region tends to act as an expeller of the accumulated education expertise, since teachers prefer to move to urban areas two years or less into their service. Official data also suggests a lack of teaching aids and school labs in rural areas, and some schools even lack basic needs such as drinking water.

Disparities in Education Stages

If primary and secondary schools are evenly distributed, it ensures a smooth transition from one stage to another. This is a basic pillar that helps improve education quality, ensure equal educational opportunities, and promote the continuation of students' education. The uneven distribution of schools, on the other hand, paves the way for dropping out.

There is relative improvement in the primary school to middle school rate, which was 29.6 percent in 2004/2005 and increased to 34.4 percent in 2011/2012 (although the enrolment rate in middle schools did not improve). However, this rate differs among the governorates: it was highest in Baghdad/Karkh/3 (47.4percent), Baghdad/Karkh/1 (45.9 percent), and Baghdad/Rusafa/2 (39.5 percent) and lowest in Naynawa (21.8 percent), Maysan (21.9 percent), and Muthanna (22.1 percent).

As for the overall middle school to high school rate, it remained approximately the same in 2004/2005 and in 2011/2012 at 69.2 percent. There was a fair amount of variance in the governorates. In 2004/2005, it was highest in Baghdad/Karkh/1 (92 percent) and lowest in Najaf (54.7 percent), while in 2011/2012 it was highest in Baghdad/Rusafa/2 (83.2 percent) and lowest in Dhi Qar (57.4 percent).

The gap between middle school and high school is not as large, but remains significant. This means that between one-third and two-thirds of the students in each stage will not be able to access the subsequent educational opportunities within the scheduled time limit.

In the Kurdistan Region, the education system focuses more on basic education. This is why high schools constitute only 4 percent of the total number of schools in Kurdistan, with the highest rate in Erbil (7 percent) and the lowest rate in Duhok (1 percent). This is a weakness in the education system. It seems that the difficult geographical terrain affects the distribution of schools. Schools are unevenly distributed among the governorates: Erbil has 69 percent of them, followed by Sulaymaniya with 17 percent. This distribution will adversely affect children's future educational attainment.

The 2004 Living Conditions Mapping Report indicates that the development pattern in Kurdistan has a centralized and urban nature, which explains the great disparity between the region's cities and rural areas, a situation reflected in the concentration of schools. These development indicators require a long time before they change, expanding the development plan to cover areas outside the urban centres.

YOUTH VOICE

Marginalized Youth in the Maysan Marshlands: Schools Are Distant

The village had no schools prior to 2003;a primary school was established in 2006. Education levels are low: the youth who participated in the dialogue session included six illiterate individuals, seven dropouts, two primary school graduates, and four middle school graduates.

When asked about the reasons for dropping out, participants said that, due to poverty, students prioritized work. Another reason mentioned was the remoteness of the middle and high schools and the youth's inability to afford the commuting costs – the closest middle school is 15 kilometres away, while there is no high school in the whole region.

The participants also brought up the poor academic performance of students in general. The number of students who pass exams is very low; one year, only 17 out of 200 students passed the primary education exams. The youth also pointed out the prohibitive costs of school supplies and tutors. In addition, since the village did not have any school before 2003, the students in the primary school are relatively old compared to their peers around the country.

Vocational Education Does Not Attract Youth

The number of students admitted to vocational education programmes has decreased since 2008, though the number of dropouts has also decreased.

The number of students admitted to vocational education industrial programmes was 11,626 males and 870 females in 2012/2013; in commercial programmes, 2,404 males and 3,378 females were admitted. There is a preference for this programme because of the possibility to enter colleges later – mostly private colleges, with very limited access to state universities. However, this limited access is an important factor behind the youth's unwillingness to attend vocational programmes, as there is a chronically negative view towards jobs associated with vocational education. The education system is to blame for this as well.[67]

Additionally, there are 261 educational units nationwide that provide certificates that are equivalent to those of the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Higher Education. Eighteen of these provide a diploma that is equivalent to the Technical Institutes Certificate, 50 are nursing and midwifery preparatory schools, and the remaining 185 are religious institutions that provide primary and secondary education certificates.[68]

Despite the increase in the number of vocational schools from 289 to 298 and the increase in the number of teachers from 12,426 to 12,745, the number of vocational education students decreased from 61,091 in the year 2008/2009 to 58,689 in the year 2012/2013. Vocational education also shows high dropout rates. However, the number of dropouts has decreased from 5,029 in 2009/2010 to 2,820 in the year 2012/2013.[69]

The reluctance of students to pursue secondary vocational training (trade, industrial, and agricultural) is actually a chronic phenomenon and is not the result of the current situation in Iraq. Some of

the reasons are the result of higher education policies that do not allow graduates of these institutes to complete university education. Other reasons relate to a market that is unwelcoming to these specializations, despite their importance for development in Iraq. Another reason is cultural. Such specializations are looked down on because they are the only options available to those who do not have many choices in secondary and university education.[70]

The youth's aversion to these specializations is not restricted to the reasons mentioned above. The vocational training system itself suffers from obsolete programmes and curricula, and has a slow response to technical developments in the job market. It faces difficulties in modernizing its training equipment because of limited resources and has an inability to develop the capacities of the educational staff in line with the technical advancements. It is also too inflexible to upgrade its teaching methods.

Expanding University Education

Additional public universities have been established in Iraq, bringing their number from 19 in 2009 to 31 in 2012. In addition, the number of colleges increased from 249 public colleges and 22 private colleges in 2009 to 273 and 45 respectively in 2012.

These universities, however, do not have enough room and lack the quality to accommodate all high school graduates, which presents a major challenge to the education system if it is to be a means for youth empowerment.

In 2010/2011, 157,469 students were admitted to Iraq's public and private universities and technical institutes. This number has remained above 100,000 since 2003, except for 2006/2007 when a large number of students refrained from attending due to insecurity. The number of students at this level of higher education has effectively tripled in less than two decades.[71] Similarly, the number of graduates from these universities and institutes also increased by around two and a half times within the same period (1993–2010).

Private universities: a promising channel for youth empowerment

Private Universities

Private universities are a promising option for secondary school graduates who are not lucky enough to get admission to public universities, either because of their low marks or because these universities only admit limited numbers in some majors. They are also a good option for the graduates of vocational institutes – commercial, technical, and agricultural – as public universities will not admit these individuals. (This and the fact that the labour market does not accept vocational specializations despite their growing importance in Iraq have discouraged students from enrolling in vocational education.)

Private universities seek to accommodate these graduates of vocational schools, especially industrial schools and schools of commerce. Schools of commerce have high female numbers because it is the only vocational specialization available to them and the most likely to be accepted in private and public universities, though only in colleges of related majors such as business administration and economics.

Expanding Undergraduate Education: Equitable Opportunities for Young Women

The number of students admitted to public and private Iraqi universities and institutes increased by 41,252 students between 2003 and 2011. Out of this number, the proportion of females increased from 36 percent in 2003/2004 to 44.6 percent in 2010/2011 – an important step towards bridging the gap between the two genders.

In 2010/2011, 80 percent of students attended morning courses and 20 percent attended night classes, which provided education opportunities for those who quit university due to the difficult circumstances after 2003: forced displacement, violence, sectarian conflict, harsh living conditions, and the increased cost of living for youth and their families.

About 30 percent (9,467 students) of the total number of students attending night classes in 2010/2011 were females. Although such a percentage is relatively low, it suggests willpower and a desire to meet challenges and make changes.

Deferred Dreams: Where Do Graduates Go?

The large numbers of young graduates from public and private universities and technical institutes represent a big challenge for the labour market, which has failed to provide decent work opportuni-

ties. The economy and society are responsible for the education expenses, which are covered by non-renewable oil revenues.

The number of graduates from Iraqi universities increased from 38,054 in 1992/1993 to 74,676 in 2003/2004, and then decreased to 73,988 in 2009/2010 only to rise again to 98,673 students in 2011/2012.

The proportion of females increased from around 32 percent of the total graduates in 2003/2004 to 44.9 percent in 2011/2012.

Access to Higher Education Has Increased, but What about Education Quality?

Education Opportunities Out of Step with Youth Aspirations

The ability of public and private universities to accommodate more students has not been paralleled by a qualitative expansion that takes into consideration the specializations of secondary school graduates. Although 60 percent of students specialize in the sciences and 40 percent specialize in the arts, only half the former pursue scientific majors at university. They are denied the opportunity to realize their scientific aspirations and their right to choose their future career due to university laws and regulations, deficient education infrastructure, and the education system's failure to keep abreast of scientific developments.

Education Opportunities Out of Step with the Labour Market

Any education system must incorporate the latest knowledge and research and be able to accommodate both students' desires and the requirements of the labour market. While insecurity, the accumulated destructive impacts of the UN sanctions, and wars over the last few decades have led to a resurgence of illiteracy, an inefficient education system has given birth to a new problem – digital illiteracy. This is evidenced by the high rate of unemployment among graduates with a variety of majors; the labour market rejects them for not having the required skills, most prominently advanced technological abilities and English language proficiency.

A 2011 exploratory survey conducted in business administration and economics colleges suggested that the curricula are poor. The following are the key results of the survey:[72]

- Some students said defective curricula were largely responsible for the deficiency in skills, while newly graduated employees said the curricula were not entirely responsible.
- Most new graduates said official and unofficial on-the-job training was the best way to acquire the necessary skills.
- Seniors pointed out the need to develop students' skills in the field of software and specialized databases.
- Poor English language proficiency was the most common deficiency among the majority of surveyed students, teaching staff, and bankers.
- The deficiencies included' direct' skills and 'indirect' skills, the latter referring to social and moral/cultural skills such as knowledge of a code of ethics, negotiation skills, leadership skills, etc.

About 72 percent of youth aged 15–24 do not practice any skill, while 9.7 percent practice technical skills; the remainder practice skills in the commercial, industrial, and agricultural sectors. Nearly 24 percent of the youth have talents and capacities that their families have often helped to develop. This is a remarkable fact: a family's material and moral support enhances enrolment for remedial courses and tutorage, thus enabling youth to be integrated into the education field – but not into the education system.

The education system does not help young people build their skills.

The Education System Does Not Offer Young Students Appropriate Disciplines

Education reflects certain aspects of social integration, and examining student's majors can help us understand this situation. The contemporary world is more interested in natural and applied sciences than in human and social sciences, despite the complex problems humanity is facing.

In Iraq, however, more students study the human and social sciences than the applied sciences such as engineering and information technology, with the exception of medicine. Although the youth can achieve their right to an education and are thereby better integrated socially, the education system does not provide the theoretical and practical skills required in the

The education system does not respond to young students' desires.

labour market.

A large proportion of students aged 19–24 pursues studies in the arts and social sciences, as follows: humanities (20.2 percent); educational sciences (14.8 percent); and economics, business administration, and general management (12.9 percent). On the other hand, only 7.5 percent of students study information technology, computer sciences, life sciences, physics, engineering, architecture, construction, agriculture, and veterinary medicine.[73]

The number of technical colleges and institutes remained 16 and 27 respectively in 2009 and 2012. However, five colleges of applied studies were created.

In an initiative to correct the situation, new science colleges and sections have been created in the public universities (2012/2013):

- 30 colleges, including 25 science colleges, of which 22 are in the governorates
- 45 science sections, of which 11 are in the governorates
- 1 technical institute

The Education System Does Not Provide the Infrastructure for a Knowledge-oriented Society

Iraq lacks the integral infrastructure for information and communication systems, and this has limited the ability of its schools and universities to incorporate knowledge elements into their curricula. In 2011, there were 24 students per computer, 21 postgraduate students per computer, and 7 teaching staff per computer.

BOX 6.1

Sectarian Conflict Limits Freedom of Choice

Following the escalation of sectarian violence in 2006, educational services in Iraq became even more inequitable. In addition to the pre-existing administrative and institutional reasons, social factors came into play as a consequence of doctrinal, sectarian, and regional rivalries, bringing the country to the brink of civil war.

Before that, no secondary school student from Wasit or Anbar, for example, would hesitate to consider an engineering college in Naynawa, Basra, or Salahuddin as an option for further studies. Today, however, the sectarian factor affects options to the extent that students prefer to join an institute rather than joining a university in a governorate where the majority of the population is of a different sect.

Therefore, after overcoming the shortages and problems in the education system itself, education-related human and economic development efforts should aim at building the concept of Iraqi citizenship, which is not a geographical concept, but rather one that involves opportunities for harmony, exchange, and better living among all citizens, and better connections between citizens and the state.

Education policy should consider building this sense of citizenship before examining the issue of creating livelihoods; otherwise, the education system could be turned into a huge machine that produces scientific competencies but at the same time boosts the brain drain that has been ongoing over the last three decades.

Such circumstances are tantamount to the inefficient use of Iraq's economic and human resources. It is incumbent on the government, should it want to follow a rational course and use the available resources optimally, to reconsider its options and management patterns and work at creating an ideal situation that strikes a balance between disseminating education and improving its quality, and ensuring young people's equal access to education.

Ali Alzubaiydi, background paper

The Youth's View: How to Make Education Better

According to the 2009 Youth and Adolescent Survey, only about 61 percent of the youth were satisfied with the quality of education. Respondents in the 2012 Youth Survey (see Figure 6.4) believe that the most important steps towards improving the quality of education are the development of teachers' skills (51 percent) and the provision of technology and better curricula in schools (19 percent). Indeed, traditional teaching methods involving dictation and memorization negatively affect education quality; methods that give importance to analysis and deduction would help promote the spirit of initiative and creativity among the youth.

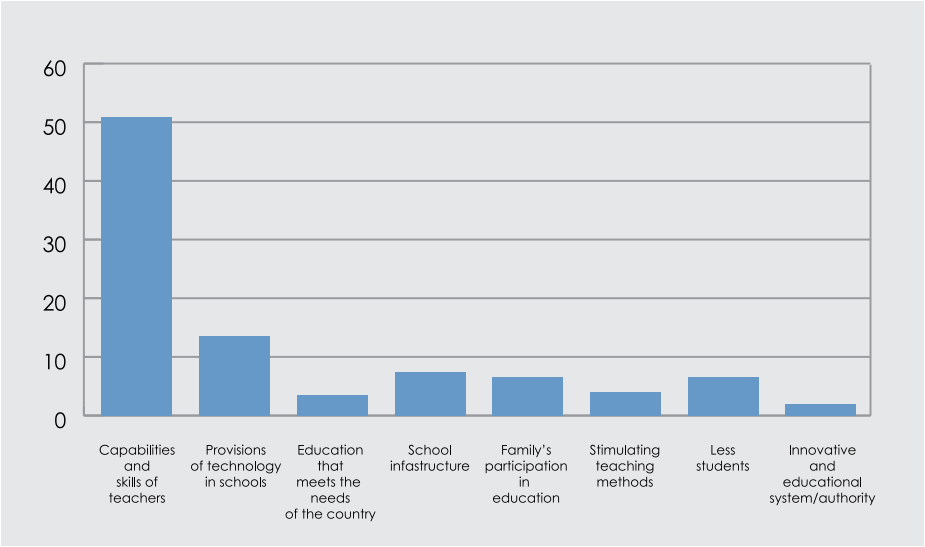
Considering that 9 percent of respondents in the 2012 Youth Survey mentioned factors such as teaching methods and the number of teaching hours, a total of 60 percent believe that the problem centres around teaching efficiency. This is striking, as other factors are often considered

more important, and due attention should be given to this aspect.

An additional 9 percent saw school infrastructure, such as buildings, furniture, and the availability of books, as most important; and 7 percent said it was the family's participation in education. The order and relative importance of these factors are the same by gender and age group. The improvement of education quality also clearly depends on education budgets, as well as the funds earmarked for research, development, and capacity building.

FIGURE 6.3

How to Make Education Better



Source: Youth survey YS-2012

The development of students' knowledge will not result from merely providing the material resources. It requires updating existing systems according to modern scientific and knowledge developments. Knowledge and science are now universal. There are global standards which students and universities try to achieve through a process of certification that is also global. Long years of war and sanctions since the 1980s have deprived generations from studying abroad. Youth who participated in the focus group discussions identified the difficulty of obtaining a scholarship to study abroad among other factors related to the development of education.

It is worth noting that the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research is increasing the number of educational missions, in addition to launching the initiative of the Office of the Council of Ministers in 2009, to increase the number of scholarship missions to 10,000 (see Box 6.2).

BOX 6.2 SPECIAL CONTRIBUTION

The Education Initiative– Fulfilling the Aspirations of the Youth

The Education Initiative was launched in 2009 with the objective of sending students to study in recognized international universities in all scientific and humanitarian fields related to the strategic needs for the country's development. The initiative started with a pilot scholarship programme in 2010. This programme included 500 scholarships in recognized universities in the United States of America. The institution in charge, the High Committee for Education Development (HCED), adopted the latest methods in implementing the programme. Applications for scholarships are submitted online to the committee's website (www.hcediraq.org). Applicants can follow up on their applications online, and the administration of interviews, lectures, and instructions, prior to the students' departure, could all be performed through the website. The inquiries of the students and their needs are all addressed according to established rules and regulations. The HCED has also assigned representatives in the countries of study to respond to any eventuality that might arise. Application criteria and conditions have been es-

tablished and are applied objectively and fairly to all the applications, irrespective of the political or sectarian affiliation of the applicants. The scholarships covered all Iraqi governorates, including the Kurdistan Region, and are distributed in proportion to the size of population in each governorate. The HCED has established the conditions to select students with the highest grades in the various educational levels, as this reflects on their performance in the scholarship universities. These conditions have resulted in good feedback from the universities, which have often commended the outstanding performance of the students sent and were grateful for the successful selection process. In the last two years, the HCED has launched a programme for staff development in Iraqi ministries. In its first stage, 50 scholarships were allocated to the Ministries of Health, Oil, Education, Agriculture, and Foreign Affairs, as well as the Central Bank. The programme will be expanded to include other ministries in the coming stages. The latest statistics reveal that the number of applicants to the fourth stage of the programme in 2013 reached 2,722, out of which 28 percent were females. These applicants will compete for the available 1,000 scholarships. The number of the programme graduates so far is 150, representing all 18 Iraqi governorates. All the graduates have returned to the country, and those who are employed in the ministries have returned to their office with a higher level of technical and administrative capacity, which will contribute to the development of their ministries. The HCED has also supported those graduates who were not assigned work to find jobs in the ministries and institutions that need the newly gained knowledge. The HCED's ultimate objective is to reach 10,000 scholarships in all humanitarian and scientific fields. The HCED's advanced operational methodologies, the good work of its staff and their team spirit, and strong channels of communication with the applicants and the scholarship institutions make the Education Initiative a centre of excellence and an example of a best practice that can be followed by other government institutions.

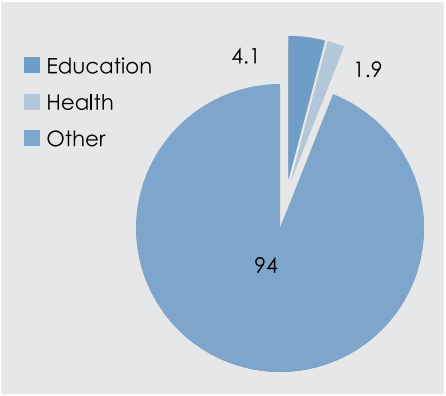
Dr. Hamid Khalaf Ahmed

Finance: Does It Limit the Youth's Attainment of Education?

There is an urgent need to examine education-related expenditure according to the two indicators of education spending, namely percentage of GDP and general government expenditure. The allocation mechanisms and the way it is spent must be examined and the entire system carefully controlled. Rentier economies such as Iraq's often have a sense of financial abundance resulting from the income of the rentier source (in this case, oil), which weakens the relationship between government spending and its efficiency or returns thereon. However, from a human development perspective, it is necessary to learn efficiency in the process of building a solid foundation for youth education and creating a strong system.

FIGURE 6.4

Expenditure on Education and Health, GDP 2012 (Percentage)



Source: CSO, National Accounts Statistics -2012

During the 1970s and until 1983, the education budget was over 20 percent of the total general budget. This is why the education system was able to accommodate all school-age children and the net enrolment rate was 100 percent; the total enrolment rate even exceeded this percentage when dropouts started re-joining school. But this bright picture began fading when the budget allocations for public education went down from 11.2 percent in 1990 to 10.8 percent in 1997 and 5.7 percent in 2002. They went up again to 6.5 percent in 2010 and 7.8 percent in 2011 before going down to 6.9 percent in 2012.

Higher education was not better off, as its allocation out of the total general ex-

penditure was 3 percent in 2010, going down to 2.7 percent in 2011 and then to 2.6 percent in 2012.

From a human development perspective, successful education spending should do the following:

- Strike a balance between the needs of the present generation and those of future generations.
- Ensure equal access to education, whether geographically – between urban and rural areas, for example – ethnically, etc. This can help to bring the education system in line with the needs of the national economy, redistributing job opportunities and boosting growth.

Since the education costs are totally covered by the government, it is natural for the education budget to be affected by the ups and downs of social and economic indicators at the macro level, and by the importance the government gives to education. Despite this proportional relationship, public education expenditure should not be less than a specific minimum, which is determined by various factors (population, number of school-age children, etc.).

TABLE 6.1

Education Budget per Student and School between 2004 and 2011, Excluding Kurdistan Region

	2004	2007	2011
General Education Budget	1,239,832	2,289,079	7,762,290
Number of students in all grades	5,218,737	5,854,949	7,037,236
Annual share per student of the Education Budget	0.238	0.391	1.103
Number of schools in all levels	15,053	17,390	20,540
Share per school of the Education Budget	82.4	131.6	377.9
Annual share per school of the Investment Budget	1.9	20.6	31.4

Source: Ali Alzubaidy, background paper

Despite increased education allocations over the last few years (allocations per student and per school have almost doubled), the education indicators have not become more positive. On the contrary, the number of dual-shift schools has multiplied more than four times from 1,049 in 2006/2007 to 4,451 in 2007/2008, and likewise for triple-shift schools. This means that the education system has failed to fully benefit from the increased allocations, either because of defective financial operations or inefficient spending. It is incumbent on the relevant officials to examine the reasons for the problem that are specific to the education system, not just the reasons that are in common with other sectors/ministries, such as the delayed issuance of the budget, implementation-impeding contractual terms, and inefficient disposal of available resources.

The structural defects in the budget prevented the education system from making full use of its financial allocations during the 2004–2011 period, which amounted to 29,090,963 million Iraqi dinars (29.1 trillion), of which 27,053,060 million dinars is current budget and 2,037,903 million dinars is investment budget. Adding other financial resources, such as international donations or the other allocations earmarked to education from the budget of the Governorate Development Project and the Reconstruction Project – both launched in 2006 – shows the size of lost opportunities for reforming the education system and expanding its capacity to accommodate all school-age children.

Public–Private Partnerships

Education is an attractive sector for both investment and human resources. There are many retired staff – teachers and academics – or those who want to make extra income. The investments of the private sector have noticeably expanded since 2003. However, it is still a weak partner to the public sector in terms of school education services, since there were only 1,128 private elementary and high schools in 2008/2009 – 816 schools in the main Iraqi governorates and 312 schools in the Kurdistan Region. These schools had only 63,070 students or 0.1 percent of the total number of students in Iraq's main 15

governorates and those in the Kurdistan Region.

- The number of private schools increased from 286 (125 kindergartens, 87 elementary schools, and 74 high schools, with a total of 4,999 students) in 2009/2010 to 558 (223 kindergartens, 156 elementary schools, and 176 high schools, with a total of 63,070 students) in 2010/2011.
- The number of private university students went up from 13,973 in 2009/2010 to 20,631 students in 2010/2011, with an absolute increase of 47.6 percent.
- The rates of male and female students admitted during the 2009–2011 period were 65 percent and 35 percent respectively.

The situation at the university level is no different from the lower levels. The number of colleges increased from 249 public colleges and 22 private colleges in 2009 to 273 and 45 respectively in 2012. Although the number of private universities doubled between 2009 and 2012, they only constituted 16.4 percent of the total number of universities in 2012. This rate suggests that the accommodation and other capacities of private universities fall short of what is required to establish a genuine partnership with public universities and tackle the challenges the higher education system is facing.

The 2005 Iraqi Constitution: Education is a guaranteed right.

Article 34 (Fourth): Private education is guaranteed and shall be regulated by law.

Acquisition of Knowledge Beyond Education

Humanity stands at the threshold of a new era, variously termed the knowledge age, the information and communications technology revolution, or the electronic era. This age is distinguishable from previous eras by its foundation in shared knowledge and new technologies, the various follow-on economic characteristics, and new methods and opportunities for employment, education, and innovation.

Today, the education indicators of total and net enrolment rates and educational attainment are no longer enough. Globally, efforts to improve education quality are rapidly being stepped up towards a knowledge-based economy and towards including its mechanisms and tools in education systems, thereby promoting youth knowledge, developing their skills at all stages, and harmonizing education outputs with the new labour market requirements. In Iraq, these objectives have not yet been achieved.

Knowledge influences the youth's personalities. Education systems and teaching methods are largely responsible for this transfer of information, but they are no longer the only source of knowledge. Knowledge is renewable, and its sources continuously increase. Even when it is effective, normal education cannot monopolize knowledge dissemination. Of course, the situation gets worse when these formal systems are unable to cover all school-age children and slow to develop curricula and tools, as is the case in many Arab countries, including Iraq (Chapter 4). Thus, young people seek knowledge from non-traditional sources such as the 'information technology revolution'.

However, knowledge acquisition itself and its importance and quality are historically and socially conditional. In the case of Iraq, the challenges inherited from decades of successive wars, the massive challenges and costs of transition, and the concomitant crises, have placed education at the bottom of the national priorities. This has deprived young people of formal knowledge accumulation, which is the cornerstone of the democratic project, and has also led to a wide, multifaceted knowledge gap that delays the youth's integration into the knowledge community – a situation shared by all of the Arab countries.

The desire for new knowledge is a feature of human society; knowledge itself is expanding rapidly and has become a development necessity.[74] The successful employment of knowledge products in all areas of economic and social activity contributes to the expansion of people's options, setting new frontiers for their freedom and aspirations.

Young people are aware of this fact, but they do not always distinguish between knowledge that requires learning and information received from various media and the internet. This issue can widen the generation gap between parents and teachers and the youth. It is controversial and complicated because it relates

to attitudes, opinions, and approaches to academic research. The problem in the relationship between traditional knowledge sources – especially books and other written sources – and new electronic sources – television, film, and the Internet – relates to the actual content being provided by the various sources, as well as the social divisions resulting from the ability to use or access them, which varies from one generation to another and from one socioeconomic situation to another.

Young People Do Not Read

Reading is an accessible traditional source of knowledge. However, young people do not read; they appear not to be oriented to the activity, nor does it seem to meet their psychological and cognitive needs.

The IHSES 2007 shows that 79.5 percent of young people do not read daily newspapers and that 73.3 percent do not read other materials. This is an important indicator, suggesting low interest in this kind of knowledge and a declining cultural and social awareness among young people. These written sources are arguably still the most important knowledge and information source in Iraqi society, given that the use of computers and the Internet is still limited, particularly in fields other than entertainment and social networking.

Teachers now complain that most young people have completely abandoned fruitful reading and prefer the new media, especially that related to entertainment and recreation rather than science and education. Consequently, young people often lack a solid cultural base that builds their personalities. Many youth now do not know certain intuitive basics and appear to make silly mistakes. Though this view might seem extreme, there does appear to be a major cognitive gap resulting from the neglect of a key traditional source of knowledge (books). The view is also a manifestation of the generation gap, as adult intellectuals commonly look down on the new knowledge sources. They believe that these sources do not have the standards that can distinguish between the good and the bad.

This move away from reading is not only because of the dominance of the new media, but also because parents, caregivers, and others do not instil the practice in children. Sometimes young people find it difficult to read or understand textbooks and other books, which makes them hate reading even more.

A Free Press Attracts Young People

In the Kurdistan Region, there is a common complaint by teachers and educated parents that the current generation of youth has almost abandoned reading and devoted most of its time to the Internet. This is a global phenomenon and looks logical: the easier the access to information, the greater the demand for it. Though the Internet is faster, broader, and more able to provide information, the press in the Kurdistan Region remains very active, with an opposition press and a multiparty press. This tug-of-war between the two types of press undoubtedly boosts journalistic production. Young people throng to read these articles and monitor current events. In addition, there are many magazines that are targeted at and attractive to young people.

The Youth Workshop

"No subject satisfies our orientations or desires or attracts us. Elite writers write for themselves, and what prevails is an elitist literature that neither addresses our minds nor touches our hearts."

YOUTH VIEW

Print Media versus Electronic Media

- Young people prefer electronic media, viewing it and the topics presented as different and interesting.
- The cost and unavailability of books make the youth prefer electronic media.
- The attractiveness of the print media has declined because the youth prefer electronic reading, which provides information more quickly.
- Young people are reluctant to read due to the elitist writing of some writers, who address topics unattractive to them.
- Few writers have literary abilities that impress the youth.
- Young people are unaware of the role of reading in the development of their own personality and wider culture.
- Iraqi youth are exposed to a kind of cultural alienation through the torrent of outside material presented in the media. This is why there should be both print and electronic media that address the historical, cultural, and social heritage of Iraqi society, keeping young people away from the negative impact of such influences.

Youth Discussion of the NHDR Workshop, Baghdad, 13–14 March 2013

The study also shows that upon graduation, secondary school students will have spent nearly 15,000 hours watching TV, and no more than 10,800 hours in the classroom at best. In addition, the attendance rate at university is 600 hours per year, while TV watching amounts to 1,000 hours per year on average.

Such comparisons may sometimes be overwhelmed by a prejudice against such apparent passivity among the youth. However, we must not compare the number of hours spent in the classroom to those spent in front of a TV screen. Who says the former should be longer than the latter or than the hours spent on any other recreational activity?

TV is a school itself, and so is the Internet and the cinema. These are information sources and, at their best, windows into the human experience. It may be true that some programmes are harmful, and that is why guidance and the role of the family are important. Off-school hours are free time, when a student experiences other aspects of life; they should not be an extension of school hours – a fact confirmed by civil education.

BOX 6.3

Iraqi Youth Celebrate Books

During the preparations for the celebration of Baghdad as the 2013 Capital of Arab Culture, and with the widening gap between books and the Iraqi youth, some young people launched the 'I am an Iraqi, I read' campaign in order to boost both the reading culture and the wider culture.

Four young people who are attendees of the cultural activities and book market on Mutanabbi Street launched the idea on a Facebook page, which had the name of the campaign and the following slogan: 'A rally in Baghdad for reading. We will meet to demonstrate to the world our ability to start all over again to educate ourselves.'

The initiative was launched on 8 September 2012, which marks International Literacy Day, in the Abu Nuwas Street gardens. It aims to reach 10,000 readers of various religious affiliations and political orientations to prove that reading unites rather than divides. This event is neither politicized nor biased towards any party or group. It is a purely Iraqi initiative with no ethnic, sectarian, or class discrimination. It is seeking to include many governorates and address all those willing to be part of the initiative.

Those in charge of the campaign have collected books from benefactors, including writers or bookstore owners, and bought others with their own money.

In gardens, streets, and public vehicles, they have made books available to everyone. Young people and adults have interacted with them, and Baghdad has regained some of its relationship with culture, literature, and art. The campaigners have turned reading into a social activity.

The initiative and its events have spread to public parks in Kirkuk, Najaf, Nasiriyah, and other places all over Iraq.

The initiative marked its first year on 21 September 2013 at the Scheherazade and Shahryar statues on Abu Nuwas in order to keep pushing for the dream of a widespread celebration of books and culture. The presence of thousands of young people from different cities at this reading festival was the best response to the extremism that produces violence.

With such initiatives, Iraqi youth are devising new methods to face radicalism and close-minded people. Iraq belongs to young people who read.

Media Outlets Favourable among Young People

It is not surprising to find that most media programmes are directed at children, adolescents, and the youth – they represent the largest audience. Due to the spectacular and rapid development of various means of communication, the electronic media now have the undeniable authority and ability to shape behavioural patterns, attitudes, and aspirations. The media promote a global youth lifestyle and culture, and the youth can move beyond family and community and access things common to their wider generation, thus enhancing a sense of belonging. Media outlets in this sense can empower the youth to make important transitions in their lives.

Prior to 2003, the state monopolized mass media, and the regime exploited this monopoly to build its ideology of dominance. However, the post-2003 youth are no longer subject to that dominance. They now live in a completely different information and media age. The formal media platform can no longer be a monopolist, imposing one official value system on the youth.

Voicing different points of view is allowed now, and the information revolution, TV, and the Internet have increased

the options for communication. These tools play a major role in forming young people's personalities and building their value systems and sense of identity. The information revolution could contribute to a positive political and social culture among the youth, making them more aware of diversity and the plurality of ideas and more able to think critically.

TV as Entertainment and a Source of Knowledge

Media outlets of various technologies provide daily information that significantly influences youth trends and attitudes. The 2009 Youth and Adolescent Survey shows that around 87 percent of young people mainly watch TV,[75] while 4.3 percent listen to the radio – mostly FM stations because their programmes are in line with the youth's preferences and tastes and young people can participate in their contests via mobile phone or the Internet.

That TV ranks first is in line with the impact of images; people are more inclined towards images than linguistic symbols. In addition, TV meets young people's entertainment and leisure needs, often playing the role that a hobby might play. Since there is relatively easy access to TV, the numbers of TV viewers in urban and rural areas are similar. TV's role as a source of information is limited compared to its entertaining role. The more leisure time young people have and the more difficult it is for them to have hobbies, the more time they spend watching TV. There is more time spent in front of the TV in rural areas than in urban areas, and females spend more time watching than males.

Studies show that 44 percent of young people aged 15–24 are interested in sports programmes, nearly 31 percent in cultural programmes, 26.5 percent in religious programmes, about 22 percent in scientific programmes, 19.3 percent in contests, and only 6 percent in political programmes. This order reveals that TV's entertainment role is likely the most important for young viewers.

The 2009 Youth and Adolescent Survey also reveals that TV is favoured as a source of new knowledge, whether in rural areas (71.8 percent) or in urban areas (63.7 percent).This is due to the weak spread of or poor interest in other sources such as newspapers and magazines, and also to illiteracy, the easy use of TV sets, and the multiplicity of satellite channels.

"Even long power outages do not prevent us from watching TV. The smallest and cheapest source of electricity – an inverter running off of a car battery – enables us to turn on a TV set," said a young man.

Certain issues need to be investigated here. The knowledge young people look for in the electronic media is not necessarily of a scientific, theoretical, or researched nature, but of a practical nature related to life skills. Such knowledge and skills are not available in schools, due either to societal taboos or inflexible curricula and education programmes.

Information on health, especially sexual health, is an example. The 2009 Youth and Adolescent Survey shows that 81.8 percent of respondents believe that television is the most effective means to raise awareness about sexually transmitted diseases. The proportions of males and females who prefer TV as a source of health knowledge are similar – 67.7 percent and 63.5 percent respectively. However, more females than males prefer accessing health knowledge from other sources. These sources include primary health care centres (13 percent for females compared to 8.7 percent for males), newspapers and magazines (18.2 percent and 15.7 percent), and family (8 percent and 4 percent).

"We do not want to be like our mothers who continued to conceive until exhausted. I bought a contraceptive injection I heard about in a movie from a pharmacy in the city. Its effect lasts for six months," said a young woman from a southern village.

Strikingly, a young woman or man tries to pick up useful information from any channel – talk shows, movies, or series – rather than from health education programmes or awareness programmes, which are few in number and often boring, especially those produced locally or in the Arab countries.

An improved education system will contribute to young people's empowerment, which will hopefully be attained through the National Education Strategy 2011–2020.

Strategic Objectives

1. Equal access to education: Education in all its stages should be available to everybody and should ensure equal enrolment opportunities and equal treatment with regard to gender; urban and rural areas; various national characteristics; and citizens' aspirations and psychological, social, and economic needs.
2. Quality education: Education should be true to the nature of Iraqi society and should benefit from the best international practices so as to develop the concepts of scientific thinking and creativity and make Iraqi society an active contributor to the production and dissemination of knowledge.
3. Education conducive to comprehensive development: Education should help achieve citizens' well-being and comprehensive and sustainable development in all human, social, and cultural domains.
4. Education satisfying the requirements of a civilized society: Education should help develop a civilized society and realize the principles of good citizenship, democracy, human rights, and peace.
5. Active and dynamic education system: It is necessary to reform and develop the education system, especially with regard to the optimal use of human, financial, and material resources.

Chapter 7

Youth, Participation, and Citizenship

In a democratic society, youth can participate in choosing the organizational models they deem appropriate for their needs and which support efforts to achieve their goals. However, their ability to influence the course of their life and their community or society depends on their own capacities, how well they are engaged in social events and institutions, and the extent of participation objectively allowed by these institutions. Building youth capacities is a prerequisite for their success in these endeavours.

'Participation' in human development literature has changed from the concept of gaining membership in contemporary society to the idea of empowering this membership through the provision of education, training, and health service to ensure an ability to work, earn an income, and play a political role. This is in addition to establishing employment policies, providing recreational facilities, and improving access to groups such as civil society organizations to promote young people's contribution to public affairs.

However, these empowerment measures rarely give young people sufficient power to actually influence public affairs. In the eyes of society – and perhaps in their own eyes too –young people need guidance (and correction)from adults because adults have gained maturity through years of practical experience.

This means that participation alone is not the decisive factor in determining the extent, nature, and effectiveness of the youth's role, but must be combined with removing the constraints, obstacles, and prejudices which prevent them from engaging in activities in which they make full use of their capabilities.

The concept of politics itself has undergone a profound transformation. In the last two decades, politics seems to be no longer confined to the state, or the so-called political authority; rather, it now means society's capacity to manage itself without state intervention, as well as society's role in governance. In one sense, this means practicing politics that do not go through the state or the traditional political authority, and this has expanded the areas of youth participation.

Therefore, global development literature, including the definitions adopted by the UN and international organizations, has expanded the concept of participation beyond political participation. It now encompasses four pillars:

- Economic, including labour and production
- Political, including decision making, society management, state-building, and political systems
- Social, including all aspects of societal life and social formations, from family and community to assembly and civil action
- Cultural, including arts, cultural values, all means of expression, and the system of values and norms governing or supporting societal activity

Thus, participation extends from decision making within a family to political decision making at the national level and beyond.[76]

On the other hand, the public sphere itself is no longer limited to a traditional context following the formation of the virtual sphere and its rapid spread among young people in particular, as noted in the previous chapter.

Youth Citizenship and National Identity

The positive influence of a state can be seen when citizens feel they belong to it rather than merely hold its nationality. When sectarian and ethnic polarization increases, this feeling of belonging to a joint culture and history lessens. On the other hand, a continuous civil peace can create a collective national culture in which citizens feel that they are unified and that the interests and fate of the citizens and the state are the same. This process in Iraq was disrupted by its long

history of conflicts and wars, which destroyed individuals, the social fabric, and any sense of citizenship. This experience has resurrected traditional sub-identities at the expense of a single national identity.

The 2005 Iraqi Constitution and official political discourse adopted the 'liberal citizenship' principle, which refers to respecting civil and political rights, protecting individuals' choices and private lives, and securing freedom of expression, association, and participation in elections. At the same time, individuals must respect the law and observe their obligations towards the state.

However, this concept has not been attained. Division and political and societal instability in recent years has led to a political and social polarization which has prevented young people from developing a positive character with better professional, administrative, and organizational capabilities. It appears that the youth fell victim to the dominant intellectual and cultural viewpoints that came together to produce the current crisis.

The confused view many youth have of the concepts of 'homeland', 'citizen', and 'state' and the conflict between sub-identities and a single national identity are part of the above-mentioned vicious circle.

In a 2009 report compiled by Columbia University's Centre for International Conflict Resolution, in cooperation with Iraqi civil society organizations, Iraqi youth are described as "a generation that has lost not only its sense of identity within Iraq, but also its confidence in the country and its future".[77]

It is these contradictions experienced by Iraqi youth, as well as their family, societal, and political upbringing, which have led them to the current situation.

Social Upbringing

The social upbringing confusions contribute to an identity crisis within large sections of the youth. With continued insecurity and disintegrating institutions, radical movements have influenced the youth with narrow-minded ideas derived from sub-identities. The Columbia University report referred to this point: "The current feelings of a lack of direction and a sense of hopelessness felt by many Iraqi youth often makes it easy for extremists to shape their minds and rogue groups to recruit them."[78]

It is obvious that the Iraqi youth will continue to grapple with opposing forces during their upbringing, especially since the state, which is still the main representative of the Iraqi nation, faces disparate currents that undermine its ability to produce an inclusive and open national identity. In a diverse and multicultural society such as Iraq's, the effect of these various forces on the youth is potentially dangerous.

Youth and Multiculturalism

A 2004 study covering 132 countries found that only 11 countries had uniform societies. Iraq is a diverse society ethnically, linguistically, and religiously. Many groups in the country are convinced that the absence of democracy throughout history has deprived minorities and vulnerable groups of their cultural rights and caused feelings of oppression. The emergence of a strong state has decreased the sense of belonging among minorities.

As can be seen in this analysis of the country's youth, Iraqi society's pluralism is culturally and socially present but politically absent, which is the most serious problem in diverse societies. Arab and other pluralistic societies suffer from this paradox; namely, recognizing diversity and calling for cultural freedom, while rejecting political pluralism.

In fact, any form of democracy in any diverse society can only be achieved through recognizing both that pluralism and human rights. Language is a cultural right many ethnic groups and minorities have struggled to protect. The recognition of pluralism in the Constitution should be present in politics too. A political regime with all its components, mechanisms, and structures should engage all citizens to form institutions democratically and fairly and allow political expression at all levels, so youth voices can be heard.

Communication and National Identity

Communication helps to form social identities. Historically, most national identities were formed through and concurrently with communication systems and their infrastructure; the birth of mass media was important to this process. A major way to enhance national identities at the expense of sub-identities is to attempt to

make inter-group communication greater than intra-group communication.[79]

Due to wars and international sanctions since the 1980s, Iraqi transportation infrastructure has hugely deteriorated and its growth has not been proportional to population growth. Consequently, fast and effective movement among governorates, which would maximize communication among localized groups and develop untraditional relationships, is hampered.

Limited movement inevitably leads to weak communication and makes intra-group communication stronger than inter-group communication. The poor transportation and communication infrastructure and the subsequent restrained movement has indeed resulted in social recession, community divisions, continued emotional barriers, and a weakened sense of belonging to one national space. This reality has been very influential in forming young people's identities.

Decentralization Supports Youth Citizenship

Democratization is consistent with decentralization and broadening the base of local governance. The transfer of decision-making centres from the central authorities to smaller administrative units – closer to citizens – consolidates the concept of participation and increases everyone's contribution to the governance process. The Constitution supports this trend and laws strengthen it, notably Governorate, District and Sub-district Council Election in Kurdistan Law No. 4 of 2009, which allows people above the age of 25 to run.

THE NATIONAL YOUTH STRATEGY 2013–2020

The strategy focuses on the promotion of a national identity among young people.

Strategic Goal III: The young Iraqi generation enjoying their rights and their national identity.

Outcome I: Young people play an important role in enhancing the values of citizenship and civil rights and promoting a culture of peace and respect for other opinions:

- Concepts of human rights and citizenship incorporated in educational curricula and extracurricular activities in schools, colleges, and universities and in the activities of youth centres, clubs, care institutions, and civil society organizations
- A youth national programme to enhance their awareness of their political and social rights and responsibilities funded and implemented
- Institutional and community rules and procedures to help young people, especially dropouts and the disabled, exercise their citizenship rights safely

Education System

A unified education system is a key pillar of national identity. It exposes children and youth, regardless of their backgrounds, to a holistic system of values and standards.

Many interpret nationalism and a national identity as an attempt by the state to instil its own values at the expense of other traditional allegiances. However, the state is supposed to represent public interest, and this is clearly embodied in the education system, which champions certain morals and values and certain interpretations of history, politics, and the concepts of the nation, citizenship, rights, and duties. However, a serious problem in Iraq is the wide gap between official discourse and actual political practices. While the state represents the main modernizing apparatus and the main tool for national identity building, those in control have been behaving according to traditional allegiances and exclusive, discriminatory views that dismantle rather than unify.

While children and young people learn modern values and lessons at school, a lot of them are exposed to a different upbringing in their cultural environment (family, area of residence, friends, colleagues, etc.). While Iraqi society has been influenced by modern achievements and developments and many of its traditional lifestyles have changed, its modernization has been incomplete, distorted, par-

tial, and in many cases superficial. There is now a wide gap between what students learn at school about their country and what they learn in their social environment. The official school version mostly expresses the general national sentiment, often according to the ideology of the political ruling class, while the people's version is based on an unofficial, traditional heritage which is often incompatible with the official version.

The contradictions young people experience enhance their clash with the adults' world – they get more education but fewer job opportunities, more information but less authority, more moral autonomy but fewer financial choices.

Citizenship Education

Citizenship education has three main components: knowledge of civil concepts and systems; civil life processes, including human rights and democracy education; and civil participation skills and public conduct, which include the commitment and belief in belonging to the nation and the shared ethics and values.

Many factors contribute to the formation of the values and skills that build a democratic society. These include formal education, extra-curricular activities, and the general cultural environment in schools. Civic education, which includes citizenship education, is a component of public education in the Arab region.

The political, social, and economic factors affect educational systems in general, particularly citizenship education. The need to prepare the youth to become participating citizens in an open society is emerging persistently. This preparation process starts in education.

- Civil principles, such as human rights, which were added to the educational curricula, often contradict other principles in the curriculum.
- The typical educational practices do not support the formation of modern citizenship skills and participation. Citizenship education encourages the routine recitation of the material only. Classes are led by the teacher, who endorses the official, political, and religious points of view.
- Teachers, who are the most important element in the education process, often lack the necessary training, support, and social status to embrace the challenge of educating youth on citizenship matters.
- The opportunity to put citizenship teaching to practice through extracurricular activities inside and outside school has been missed. This deprives students from real experience in citizenship matters and stunts the development of their citizenship skills and behaviour.
- The school environment in most Arab countries is commanding and oppressive in general and does not develop students' civil and youth leadership skills.

A recent study conducted by the Carnegie Endowment (Education in the Arab World, 2013) reveals interesting information about citizenship education in public schools in Arab countries. It shows that, though there are efforts to introduce topics related to democracy and human rights in the civil education subjects, the teaching methods and practices do not promote the required skills and participation needed for modern citizenship. This wide gap between the declared objectives and the application represent the core challenge that faces citizenship education.

The study sees that educational bodies in Iraq identified at an early stage the importance of reforming educational systems and curricula. They made efforts to introduce concepts such as democracy and human rights in textbooks and curricula.

School textbooks in Iraq completely endorse the concept of democracy and its practice. Three-quarters of the teaching of 'national education' is a presentation of the Iraqi Constitution and the functions of the various legislative, executive, and judicial systems in the country. There is a complete chapter on civil society and its organizations. By Grade 7, most of the curriculum relates to democracy. The first chapter on this subject focuses on political systems and emphasizes the democratic administrations. The last chapter discusses good citizenship. The book includes many references to verses from

the Qur'an and tradition that support the concept.

Schoolbooks in Iraq endorse the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and provide explanations of its items. They also discuss international agreements and charters related to women's and children's rights. For example, in the Grade 11 curriculum there is a chapter about human rights in Islam, very similar in content and presentation to the material taught in Egypt and Bahrain.

Iraq schoolbooks support freedom of belief, though with some implicit reservations. The social structure of Iraq is presented in 'national education' in Grade 7. Iraqi schoolbooks are exceptional among the Arab countries in that they present the "diverse ethnicities and religions" in the Constitution. However, the book in Grade 9 refers to the item that states "Islam is the religion of the majority".

Learning involves the development of new knowledge, skills, and behaviour. Knowledge then is an important element in citizenship education, but it is not enough, even when the curricula are very well prepared. Students need to develop citizenship skills through practical exercises and extra-curricular activities. They need to participate in decision making in their schools and join political and social activities outside them. The practical component is either short or completely missing in citizenship education in Iraq, as in other Arab countries. The extra-curricular activities that are actually practiced are few and non-political in nature.

Civil activities outside the school are not considered an educational requirement. Schools do encourage students to volunteer in social activities and services in their free time or during the summer holidays. However, this does not translate into systematic and constructive activities. This represents a missed opportunity, as political activity outside the school is no longer prohibited.

Young People's Political and Social Participation

The youth's political and social participation in Iraq was traditionally viewed with the youth's vision of politics in mind, which centred around the state, political parties, and political practices. At best, it meant the youth's participation in primary political activities such as elections. While an established school of thought deems elections a good way for individuals to participate in political decision making,[80] elections remain a mechanism for building political power and a tool of the political system, neither of which epitomizes the concept of real participation.[81]

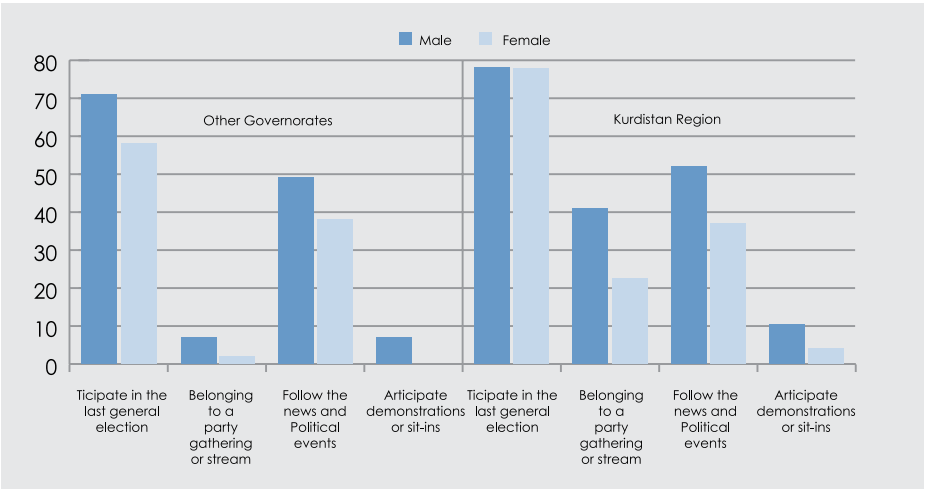
The large numbers of young people who participate in elections may prove that they consider it an effective way to bring about political change. However, high participation in elections is a characteristic of Iraqi society generally, not only of the young generation. This is found in all countries emerging from authoritarian periods or civil wars, where elections are seen as a means of reshaping the political system.

The 2009 National Youth and Adolescent Survey shows that 70.4 percent[82] of young people participated in the 2005 national elections,[83] while 68.5 percent of university students participated in the March 2010 parliamentary elections.[84] These percentages are similar to the public participation rates in the first parliamentary elections in January 2005 (79 percent), the second parliamentary elections in December 2005 (79.6 percent), and the 2010 parliamentary elections (62.4 percent).

The 2012 Youth Survey shows similar results, which enhances the analytical conclusions of previous studies.

FIGURE 7.1

Youth Political Participation



Source: Youth survey YS-2012

Iraqi youth in general, according to the results the Youth Survey of 2009, claim that their voices are not heard and that they are excluded. Their ultimate influence is confined to their circle of friends (88 percent), family (85 percent), neighbourhood (59 percent), tribe (34 percent), political organizations (5.8 percent), and unions (4 percent).

WE ARE EXCLUDED FROM DIALOGUE AND COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

"Despite the advantages after 2003, community dialogue is still limited. Our greatest concern is the absence of mechanisms for dialogue, participation, and interaction where we can apply our thoughts, concerns, and ambitions. Parents and other adults do not participate in the dialogue with us, which is often a fruitless internal dialogue. The public sphere in which we speak and express our opinion, through the media, social networking websites, or the press, is in fact our special world and a space far from institutions. However, the issues and questions we raise are inseparable from the society-wide issues we share with all people and all groups, despite our exclusion."

Youth Workshop

Despite their participation in elections, there appears to be a reluctance among the youth to invest time in politics and public affairs – this is an empirical result derived from field research. This reluctance might have limited previous efforts to explore the youth's unique political vision.

Though political participation is a means for inclusion, measuring this solely through voting trends is misleading. In Figure 7.1, young women's (aged 18–29) participation in the last election does not match with other forms of their interest in politics, suggesting that they may have been under pressure from the family (father, brother, or husband). Sometimes they are forbidden from voting where tribal values dominate, as in Anbar Governorate where young female participation is the lowest. The bottom line is that female voting is not necessarily a choice, because it is not necessarily a free vote.

No consideration has been given to the role of the youth in policymaking; their actual contribution to decision making; their influence in political institutions such as political parties; the nature of their loyalties, attitudes, and political alignment and perceptions that direct their behaviour in the public sphere; and their position on

political conflicts in which sub-identities play a key role. In other words, young people are not seen to be an active part of the political structure. Almost all the Iraqi data confirms this view, as do regional studies, reports, surveys, and statistics that deal with the youth.

However, the above observation must take into account some important variables related to the Iraqi context. The attitude of the youth is derived from their own or their families' experiences under the pre-2003 totalitarian regime: no real political life, no political development, no party life, no free elections, no means of participation, no accountability, no popular control, no free media, etc.

Hence, the youth refraining from political involvement is not so much a generational feature, but rather a feature of Iraqi society in general. As a country in transition from a totalitarian regime to a pluralist one, it has clear variations in its distance from the minimum global standards for a stable democracy.

Are the Youth Reluctant to Participate Politically?

The reluctance of young people to participate in the existing political institutions does not mean they have no desire to practice politics.

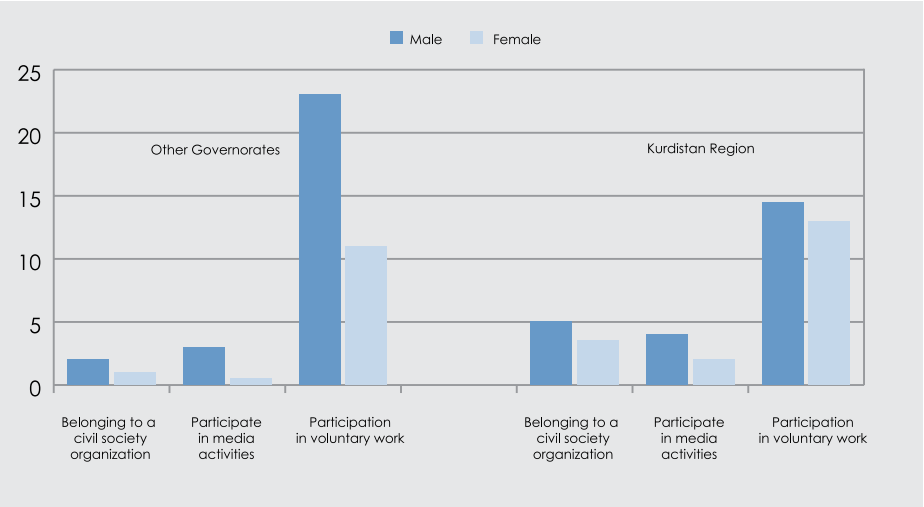
The 2009 National Youth and Adolescent Survey shows a clear difference between the youth's desire for participation and their trust in established political institutions. While the proportions of young people who trust in politics, believe that parties are important in public life, or believe that they have a chance to voice their opinions in political organizations are only 41.4 percent, 33.9 percent, and 5.8 percent respectively,62.2 percent of young people believe that they should participate in political activities.[85]

Moreover, only 28.7 percent of young people are interested in participating in student unions.[86] This is perhaps because they consider these unions to be part of the traditional institutions, as they were previously associated with political parties, especially those in power.

The 2012 Youth Survey supports this assertion. Party affiliation is very low in the 15 main governorates of Iraq (4.5 percent) compared to the Kurdistan Region (33 percent).This can be attributed to the Kurdish cause and parties' relationships with the so-called 'national liberation movements', which blur the lines between party affiliation, tribal identity, and national political activism.

FIGURE 7.2

Youth Participation in Social Activities



Source: Youth survey YS-2012

Affiliation to civil society organizations was low (1 percent and 4 percent), and young people's views of their activities have not changed much, though these fledgling organizations have only had a short life that began with the fall of the former regime.

YOUTH VIEW

What hinders young people's political participation?

- The level of popularity of political parties
- Political corruption and failure to apply the principle of 'the right person in the right position'
- Unequal opportunities
- Overlapping political and government action
- Unprogressive political culture
- Limited national identity and sense of responsibility
- Misinterpretation or misuse of religion by some political parties for personal interests
- Negative customs and traditions and social sanctions imposed on individuals, which especially affect females' willingness to participate
- The poor economic situation

Youth Discussion of the NHDR Workshop, Baghdad, 13–14 March 2013

As discussed above, young people in Iraq refrain from political activity. It is clear from the discussion sessions with youth in all the Iraqi governorates, including the Kurdistan Region, that they explicitly disapprove of employment discrimination based on party affiliation and say that access to job opportunities is not a sufficient incentive for them to join influential parties in their governorates. In addition to the effects of the current transition period and the previous regime, the political parties' models and activities have had an effect on the youth's reluctance to get politically involved. Both adults and youth have had negative experiences as members of the parties.

"Traditional parties did not better understand young people's aspirations," said the head of a winning bloc in the governorate council elections in 2013. "They wanted to imprison them in that old spirit of the past struggle. Some young people who led our election campaign were only ten years old when the former regime was toppled. They are a completely different generation who do not understand the past as we do and are not captive to it. A boon to our electoral bloc, young people introduced a different reality to the traditional parties: that people want to keep abreast of the spirit of this age without compromising their spiritual values."

BOX 7.1

Hope for Young Women

In this troubled environment, there is hope for women's participation based on equal rights, even despite the progressive quota system which grants women 25 percent of seats.

Out of the 378 winners in the 2013 governorate council elections, 99 were women. The proportion of women's representation in governorate councils was therefore 26 percent, with the highest percentage in the governorates of Najaf, Diyala, and Salahuddin (27.5 percent) and the lowest in Diwaniyah and Wasit (25 percent).

The Independent Higher Electoral Commission was able to achieve the women's quota of at least 25 percent in all governorates –unlike the previous elections in 2009, when only some governorates achieved the quota.

In the context of the closed list system, 66 female winners belonged to major lists, and 33 female winners were from 31 smaller lists, each winning 1 to 3 seats.

Iraqi youth have also associated political action with sectarianism. In Iraq, the problem of sectarianism is not so much the existence of different religious or ethnic communities and their various ways of expressing themselves, but rather the trend of trying to give those communities a closed and absolute identity and confer on them specific political functions and interests, particularly with regard to the other communities. This hinders integration.[87]

Young people are aware of this fact. In Baghdad, where the security situation is worse, they say they do not feel satisfied, secure, or reassured when it comes to the housing (20 percent) or general security (53 percent) situation. They think that they can be highly effective in improving security. The proportions in the 15 Iraqi governorates and the Kurdistan Region are similar, with the highest in Diyala, Kerbala, Qadisiya, and Muthanna (95 percent) and the lowest in Kirkuk (78 percent).

TABLE 7.1

Youth Role in Improving Security

	Youth aged 15–29 (15 Iraqi governorates)			Youth aged 15–29 (Kurdistan Region)		
Indicator	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Those believing that the youth can have an effective role in improving security (%)	90.4	90.3	90.4	89.2	88.5	88.9

Source: Youth survey YS-2012

In most identity-based conflicts, political leaders and militants use identity themes as an effective tool to mobilize people and achieve political gains. In a society such as Iraq's, where young people aged 15–29 constitute one-third of the population, these discourses are directed at them to mobilize them, to recruit them as fighters in militias, or to win their votes in elections.

Such mobilization largely addresses instincts and is based on simplified perceptions and efforts to direct social discontent towards the opponent – 'the other'. Ethnic or sectarian leaders can impose a kind of order within their group on the pretext of facing a threat posed by the other group. They then ignore the most pressing social problems around them in favour of mobilizing the youth and engaging in an external conflict. Unfortunately, many young people easily fall into this trap.

Young people in a youthful, divided, and unstable society such as Iraq's often face acute life and moral crises. Unemployment, poverty, economic inequality, weak civil society, and poor sports and art institutions are factors leading to these crises. In such a complex situation, many young people may be unable to consciously deal with such crises and understand the real reasons behind them. Thus, they accept simplistic narratives that focus on conspiracy and the risks facing the subgroup and that suggest that their group's victory over its opponents is morally motivated and ensures its members of a better life and a sense of superiority. All this is at the expense of the broader national identity. Weak, fragile, and socially ineffective state institutions strengthen this type of radical mobilization.

The political system established after 2003 was unable to solve the political conflict. Conflict in fact was aggravated, leading to continuous violence driven by identity divisions and fuelled by social fissures. A large portion of young job seekers engaged in the new military and security institutions or in the bureaucratic apparatus, which fluctuated in size. Another portion is still alienated and politically isolated because they are unconvinced of the newly adopted political structures. Eventually, large groups of young people became engaged in these conflicts.

Many young Iraqis joined violent groups because of the correlation between weapons and power. Some were driven by revenge after psychological and physical abuse by security men.[88] Iraq's power and government institutions are built on the basis of consensus, and any breakdown in this consensus results in a further failure of state institutions and the promotion of ethnic or sectarian discourse that mobilizes followers on different sides of the political conflict. This is usually called the 'security dilemma'.[89] A lack of active institutions able to build trust and oversee political competition makes certain groups feel insecure, which prompts them to mobilize their members against the other group.

Many young poor people, orphans, internally displaced persons, and even disabled people were exploited by militias, insurgents, and organized gangs, which provided them with financial resources and a sense of power as they carried out illegal activities and engaged in armed conflict.

The levels of violence have declined significantly since 2008 following the blows suffered by the militias and armed groups active outside the state framework, at the hands of American and Iraqi forces. Nevertheless, the political and social roots of the violence have not disappeared and will allow the continuous exploitation and mobilization of young people in this context. In addition, a significant number

of the young people who have been involved in militias and armed groups find it difficult to return to normal civilian life because they lose the social status they gained as fighters responsible for the protection of the group, thereby losing some power and self-esteem, which have been difficult to attain through other means.

The state has introduced important programmes to reintegrate and accept these young people as positive actors, socially and politically, in the official security forces, in state-funded semi-official fighting groups such as the 'awakening movement', or even in state institutions. Some of these programmes were carried out with foreign advice. The Coalition Provisional Authority – the civil administration of the US occupation after 2003 – initiated such programmes when it issued Directive 91 in June 2004, which included a plan to integrate the militias.

These programmes, however, have been stalled due to lacklustre official bodies, both military and civilian. Therefore, the state should consider new ways of integration and not reduce this process to employment in state institutions only. With growing numbers of young people (especially graduates), intense competition for jobs, and overly bureaucratic state institutions, there is a need to search for effective alternatives to accommodate young people and ensure that they are not attracted by violent groups and ideologies based on hatred and rejection of the other.

THE NATIONAL YOUTH STRATEGY 2013–2020

The strategy focuses on youth participation

Strategic Goal IV: An active young generation in Iraq participating widely in their communities.

Outcome II: Young people are actively participating in political and social life.

Vital practical programmes are proposed to empower young people:

- A national programme to prepare young leaders, especially females, from all segments and groups, according to global standards, able to form youth groups and organizations in schools, villages, universities, clubs, and civil society organizations, in accordance with high standards
- A programme adopted by secondary and vocational schools and universities to encourage young people to work voluntarily in their community

The focus on youth participation in politics only, including the opportunity for top administrative positions, constricts the concept of participation and ignores the value of broader involvements. Though political participation is important, young people's impact on policies and decisions regarding their living conditions, issues, and community ties depends on how engaged they are in social institutions and activities. The ideal economic and social systems promote and accommodate individuals' capabilities through providing opportunities in diverse professions and other social and economic roles, all within a context of human rights. This theme was the pillar of discussion among 28 young Kurdish men and women in Erbil, and they showed high awareness of their various roles.

YOUTH VOICE

Erbil Youth's High Political Awareness and Enthusiasm for Participation

The following are the views of a group of young people on social participation:

Challenges

- Gender-based discrimination, inequality, and social inconsistency
- Parents' use of domestic and social violence against children, especially females
- Family objections when a young man chooses his career and social life
- Society's adherence to outdated customs and traditions and rejection of young people's new approaches
- No justice and unequal opportunities for healthy and disabled young people

- A lack of attention to public health and poor performance of health institutions, especially regarding the mental health of young people
- Society's and some competent authorities' indifference towards young people's demands, marginalization of youth, and disregard for the youth's hopes and dreams, which produce unproductive, dependent individuals
- Uneducated individuals and families
- Some social constraints and poor awareness
- Poor education system in terms of teachers, curricula, and educational institutions, and substandard university admittance system

Obstacles

- Gender-based discrimination, which everyone agrees does exist; males are preferred over females and are given more opportunities, as Kurdish society, like any Middle Eastern society, is patriarchal
- Social obstacles that form a strong barrier to young women's social participation, particularly in rural and remote areas
- Weak initiative of young women to engage in collective or voluntary work in certain areas, as well as poor women's limited engagement in society
- A lack of credibility and intellectual compatibility between the sexes
- Significant control of the tribal system within some families in cities, but particularly in rural and remote areas
- A lack of self-confidence and self-reliance
- Poor livelihoods and living conditions
- Negative cultural elements, poor quality education, and incorrect interpretations of religion, leading to an intellectual imbalance among young people, which reduces engagement in political and social public affairs

Opportunities for social participation

- There are more opportunities for social than for political participation.
- Young people are optimistic about the country's progress and more openness in the future regarding social issues and women's issues.
- Competent authorities pay more attention to those with special needs.
- Young people are motivated when they seeing their peers in government and political positions, which stimulates a spirit of perseverance, competition, and hard work.
- Young people treat each other in a smoother and more flexible way than adults do.
- Kurdish young people have become more aware and educated compared to the previous generation.
- Security, stability, and the rule of law in Kurdistan have a positive impact on the youth's effectiveness and participation in all fields.

New Opportunities for Communication and Participation

The public sphere (in the traditional sense, with its cafés, mosques, markets, cultural councils, and direct dialogue sessions)[90] no longer ranks third after the home and the workplace as the main arena for human interaction. Successive social and technological developments have produced something beyond the public sphere – the virtual sphere, which expands the public sphere and creates opportunities to participate in social and communicative activities that do not require a personal relationship. This includes the Internet and computer networks, as well as a variety of other means of modern communication. E-governments are a form of virtual institutions open to all citizens without the need for face-to-face interaction.

Along with modern communication technology, this new virtual sphere has had a considerable effect on Iraqi society, particularly given the unprecedented openness to the outside world after 2003. Such a transformation contributes to the development of new forces and spaces which are in huge contrast to the previously very closed social and political situation. At the same time, this sudden openness subjects young people to a new package of conflicts.

The extent to which the youth engage in the public sphere is not only related to their abilities or desires, but also to the facilities available to them. The public sphere derives its distinctive nature from the characteristics of the community in which it appears, especially in terms of existent freedom, good governance, flexible value systems, social awareness, opportunities for coexistence, just laws, and respect for citizenship.

The Internet has only been introduced to Iraq recently. The use of satellite dishes and mobile phones had been prohibited under the former regime, and computers were limited. After 2003, when that regime was toppled, Internet cafes, Internet access at home, and mobile phone services became widespread. This has facilitated communication among citizens, especially after the telephone exchanges were destroyed and the conflict and ter-

rorist operations divided cities and isolated neighbourhoods.

The Internet's Impact on Young People

Families complain that the Internet isolates young people from the family. This has pros and cons: it makes them less interested in the issues and problems of their families, but may make them feel more free and independent, allowing them to acquire new knowledge that their family may not approve of because it is of an adult nature. Naturally, opinions about this incoming technology will be widely variant.

Young people in Kurdistan were introduced to the new electronic media and technologies long before young people in the rest of Iraq. Although some imams in their Friday sermons express reservations about some Internet programmes, Internet usage by the youth has not been officially prevented, hampered, or criticized. On the contrary, the Internet has started to spread in Kurdistan's schools, and there is a huge market for all the modern means of communication.

YOUTH VIEW

The Internet Is Indispensable

- The Internet reshapes concepts and ideas among young people (regardless of whether the influence is positive or negative).
- The Internet eliminates restrictions on social communication, especially for females.
- Online communication replaces face-to-face communication, which is a negative effect of the Internet.

Obstacles to the spread of the Internet among young people

- Poor services by some providers
- Refusal by some households to subscribe to the Internet
- Internet and computer illiteracy

Youth Discussion of the NHDR Workshop, Baghdad, 13–14 March 2013

Many expect that the Internet and the so-called 'new media' will provide space that is free from the dominance of the authorities and political forces and more reflective of individual and social needs.[91] The growing role and impact of social networks have strengthened these expectations. They have acted as tools for social mobilization, solidarity, and political movements, especially during the Arab Spring.

Over the last four years, Iraq has witnessed the emergence of youth groups that criticize both the political class and sectarianism and intolerance, and try to revive the Iraqi national identity. These groups played a major role in the protests from February to September 2011, which were inspired by the Arab Spring youth movement. With the slogan 'reforming the regime', these protests made the government adopt the '100-day time limit' reform programme, granted by the prime minister to the ministries to improve their performance.

Although this movement used the Internet and protest as an effective means for political participation, it has not turned into a force with real political weight. The movement might have an elitist base or be limited to the educated classes, or it might have turned into a rhetorical and oratorical forum.

Despite the positive potential noted above, the media openness experienced by Iraq after 2003 – represented by the large number of newspapers, satellite channels, news agencies, radio stations, and websites – may enhance societal divisions and recreate cultural fissures. A significant proportion of the media expresses fanatical or sectarian opinions, addressing specific segments of the public and certain cultural identities.[92]

Chapter Eight

Orientations and Policies

Summary and Conclusions

1. Measuring the HDIs in Chapter 2 shows some progress in the two dimensions of income and health, with a lesser degree in education. However, this development is inequitable, given the large disparity among governorates and between males and females. The Multidimensional Poverty Index and the YDI support that fact, which leads to an important conclusion that the levels of human development are connected not only to income, which is important, but also to the economic and social policies that direct or influence the index dimensions of income, health, and education, as well as the other influencing dimensions, especially the cultural and political dimensions. These are key determinants for, inter alia, the performance of individuals in general, and young people in particular, especially young women, in terms of their choices; capacity building; how much they acquire in terms of income, health, and knowledge; and how they participate in family, social, economic, and political life.
   - The HDI is lowest in Maysan with 0.655, and highest in (Kurdistan Region) with 0.764, followed by Erbil with 0.761 and Baghdad with 0.726. The Gender Inequality Index is lowest in Erbil (Kurdistan Region) with 0.406, and highest in Muthanna at 0.623.
   - The MPI differs significantly among the Iraqi governorates. More than 50 percent of those who are multidimensionally poor live in the governorates of Naynawa, Dhi Qar, Basra, Wasit, and Maysan; 30 percent of the population of Maysan and Wasit are multidimensionally poor. This percentage is only 4.3 percent in Baghdad Governorate and 1.4 percent in Sulaymaniya Governorate.
   - The major causes of deprivation among individuals are a low income (17.2 percent), followed by the declining number of females with primary education (9.1 percent), poor health services (7.6 percent), limited electricity (7.3 percent), and poor access to drinking water (6.9 percent).
   - The impact of the cultural and political dimensions is evident in the YDI value because when they are included in its calculation, it declines. These dimensions are sharply low for young women, but the Education Index for women is close to that for men, and the Health Index even higher for women.
2. Other dimensions are influential but unfortunately immeasurable, such as the demographic variables. In Iraq, dependency rates remain high and weigh heavily on the economically active population, adversely impacting the welfare level of children, teenagers, and adults. The encouraging policies of population growth in the 1980s led to high fertility rates, which is among the highest in the world now. The latest surveys has also shown poor reproductive education and ignorance by married youth. The impact of years of wars, embargos, and insecurity, leading to displacement and emigration, which has affected society in general and the youth in particular, remains beyond measurement. Chapter 3 presents the following important facts:
   - Iraq has a young population whose characteristics yield considerable momentum for population growth. The rapid decline of infant mortality rates, with early marriage and fertility rates remaining high, in addition to an increased life expectancy average and rising numbers of the population at reproductive age, ensure that the absolute number of births will remain high even with the expected decline of the fertility rate to replacement level. This is likely to pose a developmental challenge, unless school enrolment levels increase, considering the significant

It is necessary to assess human development losses or profits between internally and externally displaced people.

impact of education on the family's reproductive behaviour.

- The striking rise in the numbers of young people is also a challenge facing development policies, given the demand for more educational services, infrastructure facilities, and decent work opportunities.
- Youth migration, which has been on the rise over the past three decades due to a persistent desire to migrate, as shown by surveys and opinion polls – adopted by this report – is one of the youth's reactions to the disturbed economic and social infrastructure and to violence, which often targets young people.

3. Iraq has not achieved significant progress in the past three decades (the GDP per capita in 1980 was higher than that in most countries of South America, the Middle East, and North Africa). It lost the opportunities for development because of wars, sanctions, and armed conflicts, which caused a deficit in infrastructure and production capacity; institutional underperformance; confusion in the political, economic, social, and cultural structure; and failures in the planning and operational aspects of the development process.
   - Transition has failed to achieve the desired development of infrastructure and public services, or improve the performance of bureaucratic institutions. It has been accompanied by a concentration of wealth, a huge disparity in terms of distribution of income, and increased investment in sectors aligned with the rentier state pattern, such as financial and service activities, which are incapable of establishing the dynamics needed for sustainable development, all at the expense of declining investment in agriculture and industry.
   - The reform process has stumbled and Iraq has missed the opportunity to bring about radical economic reforms, restructure its public sector, and embark on consolidating alternative economic values and patterns of behaviour to replace those of the rent economy after 2003. This is aggravated by the absence of institutions responsible for effecting and ensuring the success of the transformation process, as has occurred in countries such as Malaysia, Brazil, South Korea, China, and India.
   - The youth unemployment rate has reached 18.6 percent.
   - With increased income and expenditure resulting from oil revenues, nearly one-fifth of the population and 12.2 percent of young people suffer from income poverty in the sense that they are excluded. This however does not mean that the other 82.8 percent are better off and integrated, because they might face other forms of exclusion, such as being deprived of education, housing, services, or even the ability to exercise political and cultural rights.
   - Regardless of their educational attainments, areas of residence, and age groups, young people are increasingly aware that the most important forms of their exclusion are related to their economic and living status. Youth unemployment and the consequent impoverishment have become a distinctive feature of the prevailing disparity and inequality. This increasing feeling of injustice fuels the dynamics of social and economic polarization among the youth.
   - Labour market disruptions themselves constitute a key factor for youth exclusion. The private sector is unable to create new jobs due to declined internal investments. Besides, political instability is perhaps one of the reasons behind investors' reluctance to invest in Iraq.
   - Financing opportunities by banks have improved and microfinance arrangements have been developed. However, these measures remain insufficient to effect substantive change. Legislation and controls have not been changed to alleviate the impact of government bureaucracy on private businesses. Government reform efforts must therefore focus on improving the business environment.
   - Social and cultural backgrounds play an important role in entrepreneurship, as Iraq's experience shows. They are not governed by the availability of funding, anticipated revenues, or the risks involved. Readiness for entrepreneurship,

especially among young people, is an essential element for economic progress. However, it is difficult to get rid of the cultural obstacles or the negative aspects of business structures through entrepreneurship education programmes. Although such programmes are likely to improve individuals' capacity, they do not drastically change the impacts of the cultural heritage of a rentier state on people who have always been taught to respect government jobs and deem them their rights as citizens.

- Unless the transition from a rentier state is achieved, the youth will continue to be passive recipients, awaiting their maximized share of the accruing revenues, which only enhances their dependency. The youth will thus complement the rentier production cycle, and inequality will continue to prevail. Moreover, the values of work and productivity will deteriorate. The established goals can only be attained when economic growth happens at a distance from oil dependency. The oil economy makes it difficult to improve young people's job opportunities and boost their social participation parallel to national economic growth. Indeed, the structure of the economy should be changed through developing its productive capacities in agriculture, industry, and other activities that are removed from the realm of governance and crude oil.

4. Chapter 5 analyses cultural and social challenges from the perspective of human development. An analysis of the youth and family in a crisis- and conflict-ridden society such as Iraq's is highly important and can explain many young people's tendencies, undisclosed by the HDI. The improvement or decline of any sub-indicator is not associated with what the family can offer to its youth or what its presence means to them, apart from its spending on their health, education, and livelihood. Thus, its role remains marginalized.
   - The family and the community have a role to play in empowering the youth in their transition to adulthood, considering that the family, the extended family, and the tribe in a crisis situation are viewed as a safety and protective umbrella for their members. The values they inculcate in the youth may facilitate their integration or, conversely, protect their exclusivity and deepen the fragmentation of the national identity.
   - The values of family in Iraq appear to be deep-seated despite the exceptional circumstances and radical changes the country has experienced in the past two decades. This perseverance of the family is thanks to the cultural and religious heritage which supports its structure and increases its cohesion.
   - In spite of growing migration rates from rural areas since the mid-1900s, families' cultural characteristics have not changed. The impact of migrants on urban areas has been great, and tribal bonds and values which determine the behaviour of individuals within their families have been firmly grounded; however, this situation has hampered the formation of an urban culture.
   - The development pattern in Iraq has not achieved sufficient gains to empower young people without reliance on the family. In other words, the government has failed to provide other alternatives to integrate or protect the youth.
   - Public education systems are no longer sufficient or efficient, and completing education means continued reliance on the family. Youth independence is no longer possible given the skyrocketing costs of living. Besides, no social protection systems for young people or children are available, such as social security, health insurance, or unemployment and social welfare grants.
   - Apart from the religious institution, there are no intermediary institutions among the state, family, and tribe to embrace, integrate, or protect young people; non-profit or charitable social institutions are limited or non-existent.
   - Like other Arab societies, Iraqi society is characterized by a high degree of dichotomy between traditions and modernity, especially among young people and teenagers who

are caught in the middle of this conflict. The majority of youth share the same worry, and it is even stronger in the Kurdistan Region. This situation represents an unfavourable environment that impedes and delays autonomy for young people. In the context of globalization, this dichotomy deepens by virtue of the polarized nature of global and national development at various levels, including the different responses to the impacts and values of globalization.[93]

- The Iraqi family is an integration mechanism for young men, but not for young women. The exclusion of young women is rooted in the family's approach to raising children. Some families adopt methods damaging to individuals' psychological growth, including neglect, a lack of interest, a preference for boys over girls – gender-based exclusion – and arbitrary practices such as female genital mutilation in the Kurdistan Region, or marriage of minors and young girls, in addition to other forms of domestic violence regarded as a source of concern and psychological problems for young women. Young men and women are also exposed to the risk of exclusion when the empowerment mechanisms of education and labour later fail to integrate them into the public domain. Female exclusion, however, remains more rooted in the family.

5. There is a tendency toward expanding educational opportunities as a tool for youth empowerment. But these opportunities seem to be constrained by institutional and structural determinants that require urgent reform. The education system has not been able to:
   - Address the problems of illiteracy, school dropouts, and failure to provide equal educational opportunities at all levels between male and female students, between urban and rural areas, and among governorates.
   - Achieve the desired interaction with the demographic and economic infrastructure to realize development goals, such as raising the level of economic participation for the working-age population, particularly the youth, in addition to increasing labour productivity and achieving a knowledge-based economy and society.
   - Respond to or change the nature of the social structure to achieve the social integration of young people on the one hand, and change the system of values in line with what the transition to democracy requires of cultural, intellectual, or behavioural transformations (most important is citizenship education) on the other.
   - Achieve the goals aspired to by young people. The education system in Iraq seems to have failed to achieve youth goals due to several problems and qualitative and quantitative shortages. Few students have been offered the opportunity to acquire the knowledge or skills needed to secure a decent job. Therefore, increasing numbers of graduates have become unemployed and poor. In this sense, education has lost its function as an effective empowerment tool. These shortages have become, or the education system itself has become as a result of these shortages, an indirect means for social exclusion of young groups.

In its addressing of education as a right and an opportunity for empowerment and integration, Chapter 6 reveals the following facts:

- The education system must be reformed to eliminate illiteracy, cover all people up to the end of the primary stage as a minimum, and encourage families and juveniles to at least finish middle school so as to complete no less than nine years of schooling.
- School curricula, especially for post-basic education levels, do not teach practical knowledge and the skills necessary to help young people have a smooth transition to the later stages of their lives. In addition, the education system, including technical and vocational education, does not enable graduates to work; hands-on skills are not gained, and educated youth avoid manual labour. Therefore, advanced educational levels are characterized by a lack of practical skills, leading to the problem of unemployed graduates (the demand

for manpower in various fields is connected to very specific skill sets).
- The aggravated youth unemployment is an indication of a split between education outputs and labour market inputs, which undermines the importance of science, education, and knowledge, as well as the status and role of educational institutions in the minds of young people.

6. Although the youth differ in terms of the loyalties, attitudes, and political perceptions which direct their behaviour in the public domain, and their positions vis-à-vis the political conflicts in which ethnic, religious, or sectarian identities play a key role, they share and advocate the same perception of being neglected when formulating public policies, having no voice in decision making, and having no influence in political institutions such as political parties. While the new political setting is encouraging participation and civil activities among youth, sectarian conflict has damaged National loyalty and left behind enhancing citizenship, which is the core of building a democratic state.

Democracy institutions have ample space for young people's participation and large opportunities for their integration. However, participation alone is not the only crucial element in determining the scope, nature, and effectiveness of the future role played by the youth. Removal of the limitations and obstacles that prevent them from unleashing their potential, engaging in their activities, and playing their various roles is a major requisite.

Towards a Youth-empowering Environment

There is an inevitable correlation between social structure and economics, with interplay between a society's economic life and its social movements. Although the youth look forward to the type of development that prioritizes and brings together democracy, good governance, social justice, and decent job opportunities (as we have seen in the 'youth views'), a successful transition in this context is not certain. Such a transition depends not only on understanding the youth's views but also on moving towards a better political and economic track and presenting it as a project to resume comprehensive, inclusive development for the youth themselves.

General Orientations

Achieving advanced human development that all social groups, especially the youth, contribute to and benefit from, requires the necessary ingredients. Most prominently, this includes laying out a development strategy that focuses on integrating political, economic, social, cultural, and environmental components, and that abides by a developmental orientation towards midterm and long-term goals, using policies and other means of action. Generally speaking, this means:

- Ensuring security and peace and establishing the prerequisites of democratic and good governance
- Developing and adopting macro and sectoral economic policies that attain inclusive economic development
- Setting policies that achieve social justice and eradicate all aspects of human rights inequalities
- Empowering women and fighting all manner of discrimination and violence against them
- Working on improving cognition through teaching, training, and promoting critical thinking, in addition to building the culture of citizenship, peace, and development at all levels
- Exploiting natural resources in a rationalized and sustainable manner, and ensuring a healthy environment for all

As shown in this report, young people must be a core and active party in developing, implementing, and benefiting from these orientations. The report indicates that this youth role must be part and parcel of the social context itself, affecting it and affected by it. Approaching youth issues in isolation from the social context and the general developmental prerequisites only leads to deficient knowledge, work, and developmental outcomes.

A Human Development-sponsoring State

After identifying procedurally feasible action mechanisms, the state can employ its resources towards creating a society that respects human rights, reduces poverty, and generates decent job opportunities. This is indispensable for inclusive and sustainable economic growth and is con-

ditioned on the pioneering, efficient role of the private sector.

The imbalances of the labour market are a main factor in youth exclusion. The private sector is currently unable to generate new job opportunities due to decreased investment. Political instability may be a reason for investors' wariness of investing in Iraq. The orientation of Iraqi economic policy towards the market economy has meanwhile paved the way for unconditional imports from different countries, leading to the dumping of cheap commodities on the Iraqi market. This has limited the capability of the private sector to compete, in terms of both price and quality.

Investment of resources and turning their diverse forms into elements of growth in a society that respects human rights, reduces poverty, and generates decent jobs are indispensable actions for sustainable and all-inclusive economic development and are conditional on an effective and leading role by the private sector. The following are the Iraqi state's top tasks based on the work mechanisms and tasks the 2013 International Human Development Report identifies for a developmental state:

1. Getting policy priorities right in order to empower the youth and promote their opportunities while protecting them against downside risks resulting from destabilized socio-economic conditions.
2. Investing in youth capabilities as a top development priority towards economic growth. The human development approach entails that the state should expand the scope of education, health, and public services. The exploitation of oil revenues in these sectors is a source not only for producing human capital, but also for creating jobs –'employment multiplier effect'– and expanding the market –'income multiplier effect'.
3. Investment in infrastructure, health, and education is the way towards achieving and sustaining human development while committing to equal opportunities (economic growth supports social policies, which in turn support development).Appropriate social policies are therefore important.
4. Greater priority to job creation. Policies can enhance the relationship between economic growth and human development. Increased employment opportunities do not imply increased productivity and incomes in an oil-rich country, considering that income growth sources are generated from oil and from the public sector rather than from the private sector or agriculture. They are also not associated with a tangible rise in economic activity, especially for women. Moreover, economic participation is not associated with more numerous paid or protected jobs, or jobs in diverse productive sectors. It is necessary to examine the nature of growth and employment intensity in growth-driving sectors.
5. Integration between the state and the market. The rapid and sudden opening up to global markets in 2003 led to the closure of public economic institutions without setting up new private industrial activities to attract investment. The successful experiences in China (the private economic zones) and India (abolition of licensing regulations and deregulation) have not been used to attract more investments.

Policy Recommendations

The Economic Policy

Many countries in the south achieved rapid development, so we must learn lessons from them when setting our development policy:

- Under the conditions of generalized poverty and high and rising unemployment, social safety nets, employment-oriented social funds for development, and other redistributive social welfare schemes are not sufficient. More intrusive state-led macroeconomic management is required to enlarge public investment and create a wider fiscal space for development expenditure, which is crucial for accelerating job creation and poverty reduction.[94]
- Inclusive economic development and general economic growth cannot be achieved without a regulatory framework at the national level. In fact, contrary to the neoliberal economic theories, the assumption that the market and other economic mechanisms can actually work without a regulatory legal framework, institutions, or non-economic regulations is a false premise that

goes against the entire economic history of humankind. In the case of Iraq, the correlation between national regulation and economic growth is even stronger given its heritage of totalitarianism and conflict and their impact on the national economy. This economy has to rise again in accordance with new rules and under a globalized economic system, which is inappropriate for developing countries given its bias towards large, globalized economic forces, under which countries have lost a great deal of freedom in economic decision making.

Eradicate poverty.

Given the prevailing poverty circumstances and the increasing unemployment rate, social safety nets, social funds, and other welfare schemes that rely on redistribution plans are not sustainable solutions. Hence, it is necessary for the state to manage macroeconomics and intervene to maximize the volume of public investment and provide greater financial space in order to fund development expenditures and minimize related economic and social costs.[95] At the same time, policies are equally as important.

Increase economic growth away from crude oil.

It is difficult to improve the youth's job opportunities and chances of successful social participation without enhancing the national economy and changing its structure by improving its production capacities in agriculture and industry and moving away from the current core activities of crude oil export and government management. Young people could then be employed in a way that contributes to the national well-being and sustainable growth; these sectors have wages that are proportional to productivity and involve technological modernization.

Activate the private sector and widen the scope of its business

By minimizing those areas the state intervenes in directly (especially the banking sector)and by enacting laws which will help create new investment opportunities and jobs for the youth – most importantly, the customs tariff law, labour law, and social insurance law. These actions should be based on national interests, striking a balance between economic and social goals, and also balancing the interests of all social groups in harmony with development goals.

Initiate institutional reforms.

Delaying reform may lead to a failure to deliver the long-awaited improvements in infrastructure and public services. Furthermore, increasing and mobilizing financial resources for public spending is not the same thing as efficiency, which is a prerequisite for progress. While investment allocations have been increased, the current situation in the construction sector and the habitual ways of awarding, implementing, and receiving investment projects are not encouraging. There might be a quantum leap forward if the bodies responsible for managing projects are restructured and the construction sector is promoted. This would ensure more job opportunities for young people in the private sector and encourage their entrepreneurship.

- Increase the efficiency of public spending. Government spending is undoubtedly the engine for the entire Iraqi economy; the GDP and family income mainly depend on the volume and components of government spending. Increased spending and oil resources have become the basis for sustaining the economy in Iraq, and consequently the social and political cohesion. The 2013 budget serves this issue in particular.
- Improve the efficiency of the budget. Given that the general budget constitutes the most important tool of economic policy, it is necessary to quickly improve data collection and prepare analytical methodologies that show detailed correlations between the data and various aspects of the national economy. Improving financial management by controlling costs and studying performance is also important, in addition to improving accounting and inspection activities in all their phases and purposes.
- Changing the budgeting pattern: A major objective of economic reform is pushing for the adoption of a new pattern of public budget so as to convert it into an executive, procedural, and institutional programme that allows for analysing the expenditure failures of the budget (a budget designed to be a budget of programmes and performance rather than one of total aggregate items whose allocations are made on a sectoral basis). This procedure is likely to

promote young people in various fields and allow for addressing the failures of government programmes developed for this purpose. The implementation of the poverty alleviation strategy programme is a successful model that can be adopted to implement youth empowerment programmes by stakeholders, including ministries, local governments, the private sector, CSOs, and youth organizations.

Efficient and Fair Employment Policy

Improved employment is a major goal of economic policy. The improvement of the youth's social environment largely depends on economic restructuring that moves towards a more productive society. In such a society, work and professional relations play an essential role in shaping young people's character and improving their social status.

While unemployment is both a cause and a result of a lack of empowerment, the poverty resulting from it has come to embody disparity and inequality. A growing sense of injustice among the youth further complicates the impoverishment- and exclusion-generating dynamics of this social and economic polarization.

Youth unemployment and poverty restrict their political freedom, which ideally would allow them to create and increase opportunities. Hence, the gravest forms of youth exclusion and marginalization are related to their economic and livelihood status. This reality is shared by all young people, regardless of their level of education, place of residence, or age group.

BOX 8.1

Jobs Needed in the Next Phase

Despite an improved Iraqi labour market due to the entry of a quality-based local workforce after opening up to the world after 2003, this market is still suffering as a result of decades of isolation from the outside world, no training for new entrants, unenforced labour legislation, increased informal markets, etc. However, the labour market, sooner or later, will join global labour markets, and its structure will change due to the quality of entrants, who will require high quality education and training. Perhaps the skills in high demand will be those related to communications engineering, computers, and network security. And should Iraq's banking sector experience an opening up, demand would be also high for experienced accountants and business administration professionals, as well as oil sector technicians, technical experts, and supportive mid-level cadres in the fields of industry and health.

Efficient Training Policy

Training: The Missing Link

Increased unemployment rates are a major concern for the government, which has sought to address this calamity in a serious manner since 2003, including through employment and training centres under the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. The training at the centres is linked to soft loans. These centres have managed to find a number of job opportunities for unemployed males and females, but this success seems to be rather limited, as the culture of employment through the centres has not yet spread widely. Therefore, these centres must be reactivated.

- Social responsibility: enhancing the role of the youth as drivers for socio-economic development through inclusion and participation in local development planning and frameworks at the grass-roots level through the capacity development of youth associations/CBOs.
- Business/communities linkages: empowering the youth with the necessary skills and competencies to increase their employability through the formation of youth community service centres that link youth up with businesses.
- Establishing business start-up programmes to support the growth of small and medium-sized enterprises, in addition to apprenticeship programmes that build youth employability and hand-in-hand with credit programmes with a specific focus on young women.

With regards to education, the following points are also suggested:

- There is a need to link the market demand with the university/education sector outputs in order to bridge the gap between demand and supply in the market. It is thus recommended to in-

troduce business management courses as a minor' programme in all university faculties to enable youth to acquire education and management skills.

- There is also a need to enhance the vocational training for unskilled labour through introducing new technologies to the vocational training centres and even initiating twinning techniques in partnership with European technical institutions, and in south/south cooperation to upgrade the training level. Access should be increased to technical, vocational, and entrepreneurial skills training, with a special emphasis on information and communications technology.
- Furthermore, the establishment of business development centres and business incubators inside Universities and Vocational Institutes will help youth to start up their businesses, manage their small projects, and shift from being job seekers to being job creators.

Relevant recommendations:

- Increase the number of training centres all over Iraq.
- Promote the quality of training programmes to include training on modern agricultural systems and modern handicrafts in order to empower rural youth and build their capacities in these areas.
- Create special training centres for women and adopt non-traditional training programmes (e.g. sewing, cooking, and hairdressing).
- Engage the private sector and civil society organizations in training activities in order to prepare young people for working in the private sector.
- Adopt both material and intangible incentive systems to increase young people's interaction with training programmes.
- Adapt training systems and programmes to the high-tech skills the labour market requires.
- Link vocational and university education with training, in accordance with the job description system.

BOX 8.2

Innovative Project to Train the Youth

As part of its participatory governance programme in Iraq, UNDP is working on a Training Needs Assessment project to address some major challenges faced by Iraqi youth through providing them with the knowledge and skills they currently need.

In April 2013, the project published an online membership registration form and created a group on Facebook called 'Youth Café':https://www.facebook.com/#!/groups/youthcafee/?fref=ts

The group aims to introduce young activists from all over Iraq. Through the online form, nearly 1,000 subscribers have registered. The number of 'Youth Café' Face book members at present is 1,524, from all over Iraq. This page has become a means of communication, and it will continue to keep up with the project implementation. 'Youth Café' has become a space for young people to share information and opportunities and follow up on the project implementation and assessment procedure.

In addition, five regional meetings were held – in Baghdad on May 18, Babil on June 7, Maysan on June 8, Sulaymaniya on June 21, and Kirkuk on June 22– assisted by communication via the 'Youth Café' website with young people. A committee comprised of young UN officers chose 80 young activists (29 percent women and 71 percent men) from different governorates to participate in the meetings. The Training Needs Assessment Report was developed as a basis for a training programme for young activists. About 70 young men and women will participate in a training camp by the end of August 2013. The programme will include training of trainers, project management, and youth mobilization.

The Social Policy

Social Policy Reforms

To ensure high quality health services, higher levels of public expenditure are needed for the upgrade and increase of these services. There is a need for a medical insurance scheme, as household expenditure on health services has increased (currently at 4 percent). Family plays an important role in youth life, but they lack social support system apart from the Food Ration Card, which is far from being considered as an empowerment measurement.

The youth also lack comprehensive protection and social security systems.

Young Women's Empowerment

Women's empowerment and bridging the gender gap at different levels is a priority in Iraq for the realization of development goals, starting with enhancing good governance and democratization; then building peace, security, and stability; and finally achieving economic, social, and environmental goals. Further, the status of women is an extremely telling indicator in the assessment of progress towards the required cultural transformation.

The following are the three most important priorities related to young women, as detailed in this report:

- Increasing women's economic activity rate, which would not only decrease the level of dependency and increase household income, but also redistribute income and wealth. In addition, progress in this regard would improve women's social status.
- Improving the post-primary education enrolment rate for females and thereby bridging the gender gap in education. This is extremely important since this gap in Iraq has widened in recent times, going against earlier trends in Iraq and the current trend in neighbouring countries.
- Addressing some negative social phenomena which have re-emerged in Iraq in domestic and personal life, particularly early and forced marriage and domestic violence against women. These issues had subsided earlier, but have thrived again due to violence, conflict, and the fragile state and national identity.

Education as an Empowerment Mechanism

Developing education and transforming it into a youth empowerment mechanism requires developing a reform policy that looks at all levels of education and the system of production and dissemination of skills, knowledge, values, and behaviour. The reforms must help Iraq gain access to information and development. The education system in Iraq faces multidimensional challenges; some are conventional, fundamental, and quantitative, while others are qualitative. Both the National Employment Plan and National Youth Strategy involve these concepts in their outputs, outcomes, and purposes.

This report identifies the following challenges:

- Addressing the problems of illiteracy and dropping out and achieving equal access to education at all levels between males and females, rural and urban youth, and all governorates
- Achieving the necessary interaction with the demographic and economic structure in order to attain developmental goals, such as increasing the working-age population's economic activity rate (youth in particular);increasing labour productivity; and establishing a knowledge-based economy and society
- Responding to the requirements of the transition to democracy – including cultural, intellectual, and behavioural transformation – to achieve the social integration of the youth
- Reforming government funding for the education sector. The rationalization of government spending requires developing mechanisms to link education with the labour market to ensure the parallel and balanced progress of the macro economy. Financial planning for the education system should involve careful budgeting to identify the ideal amount of spending to promote education and improve its quality. Too large a budget (a surplus) results in the waste of financial resources; too small a budget (a deficit) wastes human resources.
- Removing imbalances in the education budget and striking a balance between current and capital spending in order to rehabilitate the infrastructure of the education system; and getting rid of the major imbalance where salaries and wages account for the majority of the current budget at the expense of the other items, the funding of which could reform the sector
- Understanding that formal education as a process and a system – school, textbook, and teacher – is no longer the only source of knowledge; the diversity of information sources and tools in the age of the information revolution requires creating new tools to meet the needs of not only school youth, but also female, rural, and poor dropouts
- Selecting flexible education systems with numerous choices for students regarding majors, specializations, and modules, including, for example, the credit hour system instead of the annual

system, as well as open learning and distance education

Policies for Youth Participation in Political Stability

As the previous chapters of the report indicate, there have been some dangerous gaps in the state-building process over the past decade, and the state has failed to overcome many external and internal – as well as objective and subjective –challenges that contribute to fragmentation and the reproduction of rentier characteristics in different areas. While the transformation from a totalitarian and extremely centralized state to a democratic and development-oriented one is a difficult, complicated, long, and gradual process, extended stagnation and a failure to achieve gradual and irreversible progress frustrates young people and makes them despair of this democratic transformation –they then realign themselves according to sub-national identities instead of the unifying national identity.

The post-2003 events constituted an important turning point at the political, economic, and social levels. This change was accompanied by an armed conflict and a political dispute that is ongoing and could take a turn for the worse at any time. Furthermore, migration, displacement, and security, economic, social, and psychological threats (particularly to young people, women, and children) have grave social consequences. Some young people and teenagers now believe that disorder, destruction, and violence are normal patterns of life.

Building a Culture of Peace and Security and Safeguarding Social Cohesion

Three decades of wars, conflicts, and embargo have reduced the quantity and quality of public services, particularly education and health, and have wasted development gains. The lack of social justice and growing frustration among young people have affected social cohesion.

Therefore, a long-term process seeking to build social cohesion depends on establishing a new social, cultural, and political setting that acknowledges the basic rights of individuals, social groups, and communities as a core component of citizenship. This transformation must also be institutional, economic, and cognitive. From a developmental perspective, youth empowerment through education and the reform of the education system is the realization of lifelong learning. Furthermore, the development of content, curricula, teaching and training methodologies, and value systems is an indispensable part of social transformation towards sustainable human development.

- Enhancing youth visibility and knowledge of their civic rights/obligations and the political system through awareness campaigns in partnership with youth community-based organizations to be formulated at the local level.
- Improving the youth's effective participation in decision-making processes through offering mechanisms to access information, as well as facilitating experience and knowledge sharing with regards to youth policy. This can be strengthened through working towards the activation of the role of the Youth Parliament.
- Social accountability: empowering youth as partners in enforcing social accountability and rule of law at the local level to enhance transparency, social justice, and equal opportunities through youth-sensitive skills training in monitoring and evaluation.
- Social stability: improving the image of young people by involving them in reconstruction and community development programmes.
- Rehabilitation programmes and integration of ex-combatants will enable youth that were previously involved in militias to change their approach and play vital positive, creative, and nonviolent roles in their communities.

Civil Society and Youth

Democracy is not only about politics and the state, but also about civil society and the activities of communities. Civil society is the cornerstone of the state. Building and maintaining a democratic state must involve the engagement of citizens in their communities.

- The 2003 change in Iraq caused a boom in mass media, which has indirectly contributed to promoting a modern social and political culture among young people, raising their awareness of diversity and the plurality of visions

and points of view and enabling them to think critically and make their own choices.

- The education model and system have not raised the youth's collective awareness; rather, it is technology that has played a key role in formulating the youth's thoughts and establishing them as a distinct social group. The mass media and telecommunications have offered the youth a new culture that has brought young people together regardless of their social or economic class or regional affiliation. The differences in opinions and aspirations of young men and women between Kurdistan region and the other governorates are only significant when income differences are considered.
- Youth participation in social projects and charities is on the rise, while partnerships and groups are increasing. The youth seem to be losing confidence in top-down bureaucratic solutions and increasingly gaining confidence in bottom-up innovations. For example, after losing faith in the government's security measures, young people living in residential areas at the heart of the political conflict have installed closed-circuit television to monitor their alleys and identify violators.
- Ensuring that young people participate in the internal transformations necessary to entrench democracy and build political institutions and the rule of law
- Replacing state-dominated, top-down programmes with wide partnerships that include civil society organizations, especially youth institutions
- Promoting the culture of citizenship, as a true democracy is not possible without democratic citizens who understand the responsibility and meaning of citizenship and believe in democratic norms and values
- Spreading the culture of democracy
- Promoting a civil national culture to address the thorny issues of traditional culture, religion, race, and ethnicity
- Enhancing the youth's democratic standards, skills, and aspirations

Civil society organizations offer young people a chance to practice the values of trust and cooperation in their daily lives, engage in reconciliation and trust building, and replace the ideology of hate with an ethical vision based on national identity.

Although this report focuses on young people, these ideals apply to society as a whole. Ultimately, development requires a strong and efficient state capable of planning and managing the development process successfully. Such a state must be built on the established standards of good governance, as a modern, institutionalized state within situations that abide by the law, enjoying a great deal of impartiality towards the existent political variations in the regime and society, and working in accordance with established, clear rules that are within the law. Above all, as a result it must be a state capable of continuously ensuring security and stability. It must gain its legitimacy through the acceptance of different social groups, despite the fragmentations that have occurred in Iraq.

Annex I
Statistical Tables

Table 1 Human Development Index (HDI) and its componets

	Governorate a	HDI b	Life expectancy at birth (years)	Mean years of schooling (years)	Expected mean years of schooling (years)	Gross national income (GNI) per capita	Life Expectancy at Birth Index (LEBI)	Mean Years of Schooling Index	Expected Mean Years of Schooling Index	Education Index	GNI Index	Non-income HDI	GNI per capita rank minus HDI rank c
	rank by HDI a		2011	2011	2011	2012							
1	Sulaymaniyah	0.764	72	7.8	14	23825	0.813	0.592	0.788	0.699	0.784	0.754	0
2	Erbil	0.751	71	8.0	13	23521	0.800	0.614	0.713	0.677	0.782	0.736	0
3	Duhouk	0.726	69	7.7	13	19780	0.773	0.674	0.604	0.655	0.757	0.711	0
4	Baghdad	0.716	71	8.8	11	12738	0.811	0.586	0.700	0.652	0.694	0.727	2
5	Kirkuk	0.687	67	7.6	11	14838	0.745	0.581	0.568	0.608	0.716	0.673	-1
6	Najaf	0.686	70	7.7	10	13125	0.782	0.589	0.565	0.590	0.699	0.679	-1
7	Basra	0.681	69	8.1	10	11075	0.780	0.578	0.612	0.600	0.674	0.684	4
8	Kerbala	0.680	70	7.6	10	11230	0.792	0.621	0.570	0.588	0.676	0.682	2
9	Wasit	0.679	71	7.9	9	10972	0.808	0.569	0.578	0.576	0.673	0.682	4
10	Anbar	0.677	70	7.5	10	11069	0.784	0.579	0.557	0.586	0.674	0.678	2
11	Diyala	0.675	67	8.0	11	11260	0.740	0.604	0.526	0.615	0.677	0.674	-2
12	Salah al-Din	0.673	69	7.6	10	12065	0.767	0.615	0.560	0.581	0.686	0.667	-5
13	Babel	0.669	67	7.5	10	11968	0.745	0.609	0.594	0.587	0.685	0.661	-5
14	Thi Qar	0.669	70	7.8	10	8562	0.788	0.571	0.577	0.596	0.637	0.685	1
15	Qadisiya	0.662	68	8.1	10	7844	0.762	0.592	0.574	0.608	0.625	0.681	1
16	Nineveh	0.655	67	7.5	10	9004	0.748	0.566	0.476	0.583	0.645	0.661	-2
17	Muthana	0.643	71	6.8	9	7522	0.804	0.571	0.570	0.534	0.619	0.655	0
18	Misssan	0.639	71	7.4	9	7216	0.804	0.521	0.524	0.530	0.613	0.653	0
	Kurdistan Region	0.750	71	7.8	13	22738	0.798	0.598	0.740	0.680	0.777	0.737	
	Iraq	0.694	69	8.0	11	12738	0.780	0.609	0.599	0.618	0.694	0.694	

Definitions

HDI: A composite statistic of the three dimensions of human development: life expectancy, education, and income.

Life expectancy at birth: The number of years a newborn is expected to live if the modes of mortality rates by age groups when it is born remain the same throughout its life.

Mean years of schooling: Years that a 25-year-old person or older has spent in schools.

Notes

a: The governorates have been sorted in ascending order according to the HDI.

b: The average of the calculated indices does not exactly match the HDI due to rounding.

c: The positive numbers suggest that sorting the governorates by the HDI is better than by GDP per capita while the negative numbers suggest the other way round.

Main sources of data

Column 1: Determined based on the HDI in column 2.

Column 2: Calculated based on the data mentioned in columns 7-11.

Columns 3 and 5: Calculated based on the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS4) 2011.

Column 4: Calculated based on the Iraq Knowledge Network (IKN) Survey 2011.

Column 6: Given that there is no GDP per capita Index at the level of the governorates, the GDP per capita at the level of Iraq has been modified so as to include per capita spending in all the governorates to reach the above-mentioned index.

Column 7: Calculated based on the data in column 3.

Column 8: Calculated based on the data in column 4.

Column 9: Calculated based on the data in column 5.

Column 10: Calculated based on the data in columns 8 and 9.

Column 11: Calculated based on the data in column 6.

Column 12: Calculated based on the data in columns 3,4 and 5.

Column 13: Calculated based on the data in columns 2 and 6.

Table 2 Inequality-Adjusted Human Development Index (IHDI)

Governorate		IHDI			Inequality-adjusted LEBI (ILEBI)		Inequality-adjusted Education Index (IEI)		Inequality-adjusted Income Index		Gini Coefficient
		Value	Total difference (%)	Change in rank	Value	Loss (%)	Value	Loss (%)	Value	Loss (%)	
1	Sulaymaniyah	0.644	0.12	0	0.750	0.078	0.623	0.108	0.573	0.161	0.430
2	Erbil	0.628	0.12	0	0.744	0.069	0.593	0.123	0.561	0.176	0.418
3	Duhouk	0.605	0.13	1	0.723	0.064	0.575	0.122	0.534	0.187	0.369
4	Baghdad	0.612	0.10	-1	0.754	0.070	0.600	0.080	0.507	0.145	0.376
5	Kirkuk	0.593	0.09	0	0.689	0.075	0.562	0.076	0.539	0.124	0.340
6	Najaf	0.577	0.11	1	0.729	0.068	0.529	0.103	0.497	0.167	0.382
7	Basra	0.582	0.10	-1	0.729	0.065	0.550	0.083	0.491	0.144	0.354
8	Kerbala	0.571	0.11	4	0.742	0.063	0.534	0.091	0.469	0.184	0.324
9	Wasit	0.571	0.11	2	0.754	0.066	0.518	0.101	0.476	0.167	0.291
10	Anbar	0.574	0.11	0	0.742	0.054	0.525	0.105	0.485	0.155	0.362
11	Diyala	0.574	0.10	-2	0.689	0.069	0.560	0.090	0.491	0.146	0.413
12	Salah al-Din	0.575	0.10	-4	0.722	0.059	0.531	0.086	0.496	0.154	0.337
13	Babel	0.568	0.11	1	0.697	0.064	0.535	0.087	0.490	0.161	0.349
14	Thi Qar	0.569	0.10	-1	0.739	0.062	0.545	0.086	0.457	0.148	0.362
15	Qadisiya	0.542	0.13	2	0.712	0.066	0.548	0.099	0.408	0.221	0.363
16	Nineveh	0.545	0.12	-1	0.700	0.064	0.527	0.097	0.440	0.191	0.353
17	Muthana	0.543	0.10	-1	0.754	0.062	0.477	0.108	0.445	0.141	0.386
18	Misssan	0.538	0.11	0	0.756	0.060	0.481	0.093	0.429	0.162	0.331
	Kurdistan Region	0.629	0.12		0.741	0.071	0.601	0.117	0.559	0.173	0.422
	Iraq	0.579	0.12		0.727	0.067	0.559	0.095	0.477	0.197	0.396

Change in rank by IHDI.
Loss ratio = HDI - IHDI.

Definitions

IHDI: The HDI accounting for inequality in the three key dimensions of human development index.
IEI: The Education Index accounting for unequal distribution of years of schooling based on the data of the household surveys in the main sources of data.
Inequality-adjusted Income Index: The Income Index accounting for unequal distribution of income based on the data of the household surveys in the main sources of data.

Main sources of data

Column 1: Determined based on the data in columns 7 and 11 in Table 1.
Column 2: Calculated based on the geometric mean of the data in columns 7, 9 and 11.
Column 4: Calculated based on the data in columns 2 and 3.
Column 5: Calculated based on the data in columns 2 and 4.

Table 3 Gender Inequality Index (GII)

Governorate	GII		Maternal mortality ratio	Adolescent fertility rate	Seats in governorate councils	Population ages 25+ with at least secondary education (%)		Labor force participation rate (%)	
	rank	Value				Females	Males	Females	Males
Erbil	18	0.406	33	28	33	13	22	15	68
Duhouk	17	0.421	31	24	38	13	20	11	65
Sulaymaniyah	16	0.422	23	27	17	12	18	15	68
Wasit	15	0.466	40	62	32	16	29	19	74
Baghdad	14	0.478	35	57	28	26	37	15	73
Babel	13	0.483	33	71	27	14	27	17	71
Anbar	12	0.489	41	53	24	12	31	19	73
Najaf	11	0.497	26	89	25	14	31	18	75
Diyala	10	0.503	35	53	28	15	29	12	70
Thi Qar	9	0.529	33	54	26	13	23	10	69
Qadisiya	8	0.535	35	66	21	16	26	11	71
Nineveh	7	0.538	45	36	30	11	24	9	73
Kerbala	6	0.540	27	74	30	15	23	9	74
Missan	5	0.554	38	73	26	12	27	11	74
Kirkuk	4	0.561	40	60	15	11	25	13	73
Basra	3	0.566	32	82	20	18	28	10	72
Salah al-Din	2	0.578	45	71	14	9	28	15	71
Muthana	1	0.623	37	59	15	9	17	7	75
Kurdistan Region		0.410	29	25	27	13	20	14	67
Iraq		0.500	35	59	27	16	28	13	72

Notes

Column was prepared put the health of mothers tipping maternal mortality National (35 per 100 000 live births) in terms of the health status of mothers (the use of contraceptives, review the health centers during pregnancy, birth under the supervision of health) in the provinces (for details see the Technical Notes).

They include births supervised by health workers other than doctors, nurses and midwives.

Definitions

GII: A composite measure reflecting inequality in achievements between women and men in three dimensions: reproductive health, empowerment and the labour market

Main sources of data

Column 2: Calculated based on the data in columns 3-10

Columns 3, 4: Calculated based on IPMM 2013.

Columns 8,9,10: Calculated based on MICS4-2011

Column 5: Calculated based on the data of the Council of Ministers in 2010.

Columns 6 , 7: Calculated based on the IKN-2011.

Table 4 Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI)

	Governorate	The proportion of people who are multidimensionally poor	Deprivation in per capita expenditure	Adjusted poverty rate	Geographical distribution of poverty
	rank by MPI	2011	2011	2011	2011
1	Sulaymaniyah	0.014	0.408	0.006	0.53
2	Erbil	0.033	0.393	0.013	1.07
3	Baghdad	0.043	0.434	0.018	1.79
4	Kirkuk	0.062	0.426	0.026	2.16
5	Duhouk	0.084	0.414	0.035	3.18
6	Babel	0.099	0.436	0.043	3.33
7	Diyala	0.112	0.407	0.046	3.46
8	Kerbala	0.129	0.462	0.060	4.13
9	Najaf	0.140	0.463	0.065	4.38
10	Anbar	0.142	0.430	0.061	4.64
11	Salah al-Din	0.145	0.433	0.063	5.02
12	Basra	0.179	0.450	0.081	6.14
13	Muthana	0.192	0.430	0.082	6.44
14	Qadisiya	0.226	0.479	0.108	7.58
15	Nineveh	0.232	0.453	0.105	8.55
16	Thi Qar	0.298	0.448	0.134	9.86
17	Wasit	0.298	0.451	0.134	12.90
18	Missan	0.304	0.489	0.149	14.86
	Kurdistan Region	0.038	0.407	0.015	3.78
	Iraq	0.133	0.448	0.060	100.00

Notes
The MPI in Iraq is comprised of five dimensions: education, labour, basic services, living standards, and health.

Definitions
The MPI uses different factors to determine poverty beyond income-based lists. It has replaced the previous Human Poverty Index. The MPI is an index of acute multidimensional poverty. It shows the number of people who are multidimensionally poor (suffering deprivation in 33.33% of weighted indicators) and the number of deprivations with which poor households typically contend. It reflects deprivations in very rudimentary services and core human functioning. Countries are sorted in an alphabetical order in two groups by the year of the survey used to estimate the MPI.

Main sources of data
Column 1: The number of people with multidimensional poverty divided by the total number of population.
Column 2: Deprivation in per capita expenditure.
Column 3: Prevalence of multidimensional poverty by deprivation in per capita expenditure.
Column 4: People living under the national poverty line.

Table 5 Youth Development Index (YDI)

	Governorate	YDI			Education Index			Employment Index		
	rank by YDI	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
1	Sulaymaniyah	0.764	0.649	0.724	0.795	0.785	0.791	0.848	0.508	0.734
2	Erbil	0.737	0.633	0.703	0.777	0.739	0.758	0.871	0.481	0.735
3	Babel	0.714	0.592	0.673	0.675	0.607	0.643	0.875	0.547	0.762
4	Baghdad	0.711	0.549	0.662	0.767	0.745	0.756	0.878	0.431	0.746
5	Dahuk	0.706	0.547	0.644	0.759	0.721	0.740	0.849	0.482	0.720
6	Kerbala	0.665	0.459	0.628	0.690	0.681	0.685	0.916	0.293	0.764
7	Kirkuk	0.650	0.532	0.622	0.748	0.682	0.716	0.891	0.504	0.775
8	Diyala	0.667	0.492	0.617	0.729	0.679	0.705	0.844	0.376	0.717
9	Salah al-Din	0.664	0.527	0.615	0.697	0.589	0.646	0.842	0.531	0.739
10	Qadisiya	0.715	0.336	0.609	0.666	0.587	0.628	0.843	0.324	0.696
11	Thi Qar	0.664	0.437	0.596	0.689	0.603	0.647	0.819	0.269	0.684
12	Basra	0.624	0.479	0.583	0.703	0.692	0.698	0.831	0.363	0.714
14	Wasit	0.617	0.498	0.583	0.658	0.578	0.622	0.904	0.615	0.796
13	Nineveh	0.673	0.383	0.582	0.667	0.568	0.621	0.876	0.321	0.741
15	Muthana	0.604	0.313	0.554	0.610	0.507	0.560	0.911	0.105	0.761
16	Missan	0.613	0.391	0.551	0.625	0.499	0.565	0.876	0.398	0.744
17	Najaf	0.648	0.384	0.545	0.676	0.627	0.653	0.913	0.510	0.793
18	Anbar	0.584	0.299	0.500	0.734	0.618	0.682	0.817	0.575	0.730
	Kurdistan Region	0.748	0.631	0.706	0.780	0.755	0.767	0.857	0.496	0.732
	Iraq	0.694	0.535	0.641	0.721	0.666	0.695	0.865	0.457	0.741

To be continued

Notes

a: The index is comprised of five sub-indices of education, labor, health, participation and security index, and empowerment. These indices have been calculated for both males and females, in addition to the total indices.

b: For more information on each index indicators see : Table (6).

c: For more information on detailed calculations, please see the Technical Note Annex.

Table 5 Youth Development Index (YDI)

Governorate		Health Index			Participation and Security Index			Freedom and Communication Index		
	rank by YDI	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
1	Sulaymaniyah	0.834	0.838	0.838	0.719	0.724	0.721	0.645	0.478	0.566
2	Erbil	0.789	0.828	0.809	0.589	0.626	0.608	0.691	0.552	0.625
3	Babel	0.804	0.864	0.835	0.694	0.698	0.715	0.565	0.363	0.471
4	Baghdad	0.798	0.850	0.822	0.647	0.573	0.625	0.521	0.320	0.438
5	Duhouk	0.723	0.788	0.761	0.618	0.451	0.536	0.610	0.396	0.509
6	Kerbala	0.802	0.824	0.809	0.551	0.557	0.604	0.466	0.222	0.383
7	Kirkuk	0.831	0.844	0.837	0.346	0.503	0.422	0.607	0.293	0.476
8	Diyala	0.822	0.858	0.839	0.702	0.661	0.688	0.373	0.199	0.307
9	Salah al-Din	0.785	0.819	0.800	0.579	0.538	0.562	0.483	0.296	0.410
10	Qadisiya	0.726	0.737	0.735	0.923	0.172	0.751	0.496	0.177	0.346
11	Thi Qar	0.812	0.826	0.820	0.800	0.666	0.738	0.352	0.179	0.280
12	Basra	0.787	0.827	0.806	0.397	0.334	0.372	0.518	0.364	0.452
14	Wasit	0.763	0.806	0.784	0.511	0.555	0.570	0.387	0.191	0.303
13	Nineveh	0.757	0.823	0.791	0.541	0.333	0.489	0.577	0.165	0.377
15	Muthana	0.705	0.754	0.723	0.581	0.538	0.571	0.354	0.139	0.297
16	Missan	0.760	0.844	0.791	0.457	0.378	0.426	0.457	0.143	0.358
17	Najaf	0.747	0.757	0.754	0.483	0.178	0.309	0.515	0.193	0.397
18	Anbar	0.781	0.818	0.800	0.298	0.043	0.222	0.485	0.191	0.355
	Kurdistan Region	0.793	0.823	0.810	0.672	0.656	0.663	0.657	0.497	0.580
	Iraq	0.788	0.829	0.808	0.623	0.558	0.600	0.527	0.312	0.433

continued

Table 6 Youth Development Index

Domain	Indicator	Value of indicator		Index		
				Males	Females	Total
Education	Youth literacy rate 15 - 29 years	Males	88.9	0.721	0.666	0.695
		Females	80.3			
		Total	84.7			
	Years of Schooling 25-29 years	Males	8.4			
		Females	8.0			
		Total	8.2			
	Secondary School net attendance ratio	Males	52.5			
		Females	44.6			
		Total	48.6			
	Percentage of households with distance from school less than 5 km		90.1			
Employment	Employment Rate	Males	84.5	0.865	0.457	0.741
		females	66.7			
		Total	81.8			
	Labor Force Participation Rate	Males	63.4			
		Females	12.0			
		Total	38.4			
	Ratio of youth earning to average earning of employed	Males	81.8			
		Females	76.6			
		Total	80.9			
	Percentage of discouraged unemployed youth	Males	2.3			
		Females	4.3			
		Total	3.2			
Helath	Percentage of youth not suffering from chronic disease>	Males	95.8	0.788	0.829	0.808
		Females	96.6			
		Total	96.2			
	Percentage of youth not smoking	Males	73.9			
		Females	98.8			
		Total	85.0			
	Youth not suffering from Overweight or Underweight	Males	79.9			
		Females	77.5			
		Total	78.8			
	Self assessed health 15-19	Males	98.4			
		Females	99.0			
		Total	98.7			
	Youth perceptions of public health service quality	Males	45.6			
		Females	46.8			
		Total	46.2			
	Percentage of households for which the nearest Health Centre is less than 10 km		94.4			

Table 6 Youth Development Index

Domain	Indicator	Value of indicator		Index		
				Males	Females	Total
Participation and Security	Percentage of youth considering that there is role for youth in improving the security in Iraq	Males	90.2	0.623	0.558	0.600
		Females	90.0			
		Total	90.1			
	Percentage of Youth Feeling Secure	Males	86.8			
		Females	87.3			
		Total	87.0			
	Proportion of youth voting in elections	Males	72.4			
		Females	60.1			
		Total	67.1			
	Proportion of youth volunteered in community work	Males	6.5			
		Females	6.9			
		Total	6.7			
Freedom & Communication	Freedom to choose husband/wife	Males	93.3			
		Females	75.7			
		Total	85.6			
	Have a hoppy	Males	58.4			
		Females	34.6			
		Total	47.8			
	Have a cell phone	Males	89.8	0.527	0.312	0.433
		Females	49.0			
		Total	71.6			
	have a personal computer	Males	33.6			
		Females	21.0			
		Total	28.0			
	Using internet	Males	24.8			
		Females	10.9			
		Total	18.6			

Table 7

Correlations Matrix between HDI; Consistent Significations; Poverty Enhances Deprivation

Indicator	Poverty rate	Average monthly household expenditure	MDG's achievement extent	HDI	GII	IHDI	MPI	Urban rate	Deprivation Index (DI)
Poverty rate	1	-0.787	-0.723	-0.781	0.630	-0.828	0.561	-0.478	0.789
Average monthly household expenditure	-0.787	1	0.627	0.806	-0.710	0.778	-0.646	0.404	-0.574
MDG's achievement extent	-0.723	0.627	1	0.835	-0.612	0.821	-0.466	0.690	-0.502
HDI	-0.781	0.806	0.835	1	-0.803	0.971	-0.673	0.663	-0.633
GII	0.630	-0.710	-0.612	-0.803	1	-0.718	0.497	-0.423	0.445
IHDI	-0.828	0.778	0.821	0.971	-0.718	1	-0.722	0.660	-0.702
MPI	0.561	-0.646	-0.466	-0.673	0.497	-0.722	1	-0.103	0.521
Urban rate	-0.478	0.404	0.690	0.663	-0.423	0.660	-0.103	1	-0.416
Deprivation Index (DI)	0.789	-0.574	-0.502	-0.633	0.445	-0.702	0.521	-0.416	1

Table 8 Human Development Indicators

Indicator	Value
HDI	0.694
YDI	0.641
Life expectancy at birth (years)	69
Mean years of schooling (years)	8
Expected mean years of schooling (years)	11
GNI per capita (purchasing power parity in US dollars in 2005)	12738
LEBI	0.780
Mean Years of Schooling Index	0.609
Expected Mean Years of Schooling Index	0.599
Education Index	0.618
GNI Per Capita Index	0.694
Non-income HDI	0.694
IHDI	0.579
IHDI (total difference %)	0.121
ILEBI	0.727
ILEBI (loss ratio)	0.067
IEI	0.559
IEI (loss ratio)	0.095
Inequality-adjusted Income Index	0.477
Inequality-adjusted Income Index (loss ratio)	0.197
Gini Coefficient	0.396
GII	0.500
Maternal mortality rate	35
Adolescent fertility rate	59
Women's seats in governorate councils	27
Females aged 25+ with secondary education or above (%)	16
Males aged 25+ with secondary education or above (%)	28
Women's labor force participation rate (%)	13
Men's labor force participation rate (%)	72
Contraceptive prevalence rate (% of married women aged 15-49)	52
At least one prenatal visit (%)	75
Births attended by skilled health personnel (%)	91
The proportion of people who are multidimensionally poor	0.133
Deprivation in per capita expenditure	0.448
The proportion of poor population	0.060

continue

Table 8 Human Development Indicators

Indicator	Value
HDI	0.694
National income (MTD)	151687818.9
GNP (MTD)	169235526.9
GDP at current prices (million)	167373588.9
GDP at current prices (million dollars)	143054.3
GDP at constant prices (MTD)	57931.8
Per capita national income (thousand dinars)	4668.8
Per capita gross national product (thousand dinars)	5208.9
Per capita GDP at current prices (thousand dinars)	5151.5
Per capita GDP at current prices (thousand dollars)	4.4
Per capita gross domestic product at constant prices (thousand dinars)	1783.1
Public expenditure on education (% of GDP)	4.6
Public expenditure on health (% of GDP)	3.1
	continued

Main sources of data
IKN-2011
MICS4 2011
Directorate of National Accounts for the year 2010

Table 9 Millennium Development Goal Indicators

Goal		Sr.	Indicator	Baseline no.	Baseline year	Current no.	Year	Targeted for 2015
1st goal	Eradicating Severe poverty and starvation	1	% of people spending less than $2.5 a day	13.9	2007	11.2	2012	6.9
		2	Poverty gap rate (cases of poverty multiplied by poverty severity) (%)	4.5	2007	4.1	2012	2.5
		3	% of underweight children aged under five	9	1991	8.5	2011	4.5
		4	%of the populationbelow the minimum level of dietary energy consumption	20	1991	6	2011	10
		5	% of the food-insecure population	11	2003	6	2011	5.5
2nd goal	achieving universal primary education	6	Primary education net enrolment	90.8	1990	90.4	2011	100
		7	% of students reaching the fifth grade	75.6	1990	93.3	2011	100
		8	Literacy rate among people aged 15–24	78.6	1990	85.5	2011	100
3rd goal	strengthening the gender equality	9	Female-to-male ratio in basic education (%)	79.5	1990	94	2011	1
		10	Female-to-male ratio in secondary education (%)	64.1	1990	85	2011	1
		11	Female-to-male ratio in university education (%)	50.9	1990	87.5	2011	1
		12	Female-to-male ratio in higher education (%)	25.3	1990	66	2011	1
		13	Ratio of literate females to males aged 15–24	91.4	2004	91	2011	1
		14	Women's share of paid jobs in non-agricultural sectors	10.6	1990	14.7	2011	50
		15	Women's parliamentary representation	13.2	1990	25.2	2011	50
4th goal	reducing child mortality rate	16	Number of deaths of children aged under 5 per 1,000live births	62	1990	37.2	2011	27
		17	Infant mortality rate per 1,000 live births	50	1990	31.9	2011	20
		18	% of one-year old children immunized against measles	80	1990	75.4	2011	100
5th goal	Improving the health of mothers	19	Maternal death rate per 100,000 live births	117	1990	84	2006	29
		20	% of birthsattended by skilled health personnel	50	1990	90.9	2011	100
6th goal	Combating HIV / Aids, malaria and other diseases	21	Condom use rate of the contraceptive prevalence rate	0.7	2000	1.8	2011	58
		22	Number of malaria cases and deaths	5502	1995	6	2010	0
		23	Tuberculosis prevalence and deaths per 100,000 people	2	2000	1.4	2011	0
		24	% of tuberculosis cases detected and cured under directly observed treatment short course	86	2006	94	2011	100
7th goal	Ensure the availability of the reasons for the survival of environment	25	Percentage of wooded areas(%)	4	1990	3	2011	10
		26	% of the population using solid fuels	35	2003	-	-	-
		27	% of the population using improved drinking water sources in urban and rural areas (%)	81.3	1990	91.4	2011	91.6
		28	% of the population using an improved sanitation facility	71	1990	94	2011	87
		29	% of households with access to secure tenure	60.8	1990	83.2	2011	88

Table 9 Millennium Development Goal Indicators

Goal		Sr.	Indicator	Baseline no.	Baseline year	Current no.	Year	Targeted for 2015
8th goal	developing a global partnership for development	30	Unemployment rates for people aged 15–24 by sex	Total (7.1)	1990	Total (18)	2011	Total (3.6)
				Males (7.2)		Males (27)		Males (3.6)
				Females (6.3)		Females (17)		Females (3.2)
		31	Number of landlines per 100 people	5.6	1990	5.1	2007	11.2
		32	Number of mobile phones per 100 people	2.2	2004	94.3	2008	40
		33	% of households with a PC	3.6	2004	17.2	2011	7.2
		34	Number of PCs per 100 people	17.8	2007	17.2	2011	36
		35	% of households with access to the Internet	31.8	2007	9	2011	64
		36	Number of satellite dishes per 100 people	32	2004	96	2011	40

Table 10 Population Trends

Governorate	Population		Annual Growth 1997 - 2012	Urban areas (%)		Median age	Total dependency ratio (per 100 people Ages 15–64)		Total fertility rate (births per woman)	
	1997	2012		1997	2012	2013	1997	2013	1997	2013
Nineveh	2042852	3353875	3.3	50.1	61.0	17	103.0	88	5.5	5.3
Kirkuk	753171	1432747	4.3	70.5	71.9	20	86.5	74	4.2	5.4
Diyala	1135223	1477684	1.8	42.2	48.2	19	90.5	75	4.6	4.0
Anbar	1023736	1598822	3.0	52.7	48.7	18	106.1	80	5.5	4.0
Baghdad	5423964	7255278	1.9	89.4	87.3	21	78.4	68	3.8	3.3
Babel	1181751	1864124	3.0	47.9	47.5	18	92.8	80	4.7	4.2
Kerbala	594235	1094281	4.1	66.0	66.7	19	90.6	77	4.8	3.9
Wasit	783614	1240935	3.1	53.2	58.2	18	93.5	82	4.9	4.9
Salah al-Din	904432	1441266	3.1	45.0	44.5	18	104.6	83	5.5	5.4
Najaf	775042	1319608	3.5	69.9	71.3	18	91.8	81	4.5	4.3
Qadisiya	751331	1162485	2.9	52.9	56.7	18	95.9	85	5.2	4.3
Muthana	436825	735905	3.5	44.8	44.0	17	106.0	86	5.5	4.4
Thi Qar	1184796	1883160	3.1	59.1	63.2	18	101.4	85	5.5	4.3
Missan	637126	997410	3.0	66.1	72.6	17	102.4	90	6.0	7.0
Basra	1556445	2601790	3.4	79.8	80.1	18	89.4	86	4.7	5.0
Erbil	1095992	1657684	2.8	77.4	83.3	21	*92	71	**4.7	3.8
Duhouk	402970	1158633	7.0	74.6	73.6	19	*92	78	**4.7	4.1
Sulaymaniyah	1362739	1931561	2.3	71.5	85.1	23	*92	61	**4.7	2.9
Kurdistan Region	2861701	4747878	3.4	74.2	81.7	21	*92	68.1	**4.7	3.5
Iraq	22046244	34207248	2.9	67.3	69.2	19	92.0	77.1	4.7	4.2

Notes

Sinc census has not be conducted in the region, dependency ratio was estimated the based on national average *
Sinc census has not be conducted in the region, total fertility was estimated the based on national average *

Definitions

The annual growth rate of the population: the average annual growth rate during a specified period.
Urban population: the total of people living in urban areas classified according to the criteria adopted in the country or region.
Median age: the age at which the outcome of dividing the distribution comes on two slices of equal population, so that it is 50 per cent of the population over this age and 50 per cent without.
Overall dependency ratio: the proportion of people aged 0-14 and 65 years and above of the total population of the age group 15-64.
The total fertility rate: the number of children born to each woman aged (15-49 years).

Main data sources

column 1.4.7.9: results of the 1997 population census
Column 2.5: Report population estimates for the year 2012.
Column 3: Depending on the data contained in columns 2 and 1.
Column 6.8.10: Survey map of poverty and maternal mortality 2013 IPMM

Table 11 Health

Governorate	people with disability (%)			people with chronic diseases (%)			Assess individual health		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	6.4	5.6	6.0	13.1	16.1	14.6	96.9	97.0	97.0
Nineveh	6.2	3.7	4.9	8.7	6.2	7.5	96.8	96.9	96.9
Sulaymaniyah	3.7	2.9	3.3	7.4	12.9	10.2	95.7	93.7	94.7
Kirkuk	4.7	3.0	3.9	11.8	16.6	14.2	97.2	97.4	97.3
Erbil	6.0	4.3	5.2	11.8	15.6	13.7	96.7	96.5	96.6
Diyala	4.8	4.3	4.5	7.2	9.7	8.5	97.5	98.4	98.0
Anbar	4.7	2.6	3.7	7.0	8.2	7.6	98.6	98.7	98.7
Baghdad	3.6	3.1	3.3	12.8	14.1	13.5	97.4	97.6	97.5
Babel	5.5	2.8	4.1	10.3	13.5	11.9	97.6	97.5	97.6
Kerbala	3.7	3.0	3.4	11.5	13.1	12.3	96.6	96.9	96.8
Wasit	3.6	2.8	3.2	8.6	8.5	8.5	96.6	96.2	96.4
Salah al-Din	2.5	1.9	2.2	7.1	8.2	7.7	96.8	97.1	96.9
Najaf	2.8	3.9	3.4	16.9	18.5	17.7	96.8	96.0	96.4
Qadisiya	4.7	3.7	4.2	10.5	10.8	10.7	97.3	97.7	97.5
Muthana	4.9	1.9	3.4	8.3	8.4	8.3	97.4	98.2	97.8
Thi Qar	4.3	3.1	3.7	6.9	8.9	7.9	97.2	97.1	97.1
Missan	3.3	2.0	2.6	10.4	9.9	10.1	97.4	97.9	97.7
Basra	3.9	2.2	3.0	10.4	11.5	10.9	97.8	97.3	97.6
Kurdistan Region	5.2	4.0	4.6	10.3	14.6	12.5	96.3	95.5	95.9
Iraq	4.4	3.1	3.8	10.4	12.0	11.2	97.2	97.1	97.2

To be continued

Main sources of data
Columns 1and 2 Iraq Households socio-economic survey IHSES 2012.
Column 3 Iraq Knowleged network survey IKN 2011.

Table 11 Health

Governorate	Average time needed to arrive at a health center (min) (%)			individuals satisfied with medical services (%)		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	16.6	18.2	17.5	87.2	87.0	87.1
Nineveh	24.0	25.3	24.6	82.4	90.3	86.9
Sulaymaniyah	23.5	23.6	23.6	91.2	82.2	86.8
Kirkuk	19.9	17.2	18.5	89.5	91.4	90.5
Erbil	19.2	21.5	20.5	68.3	76.4	72.3
Diyala	30.1	27.8	28.8	86.4	90.2	88.3
Anbar	14.2	14.3	14.3	82.5	79.1	80.8
Baghdad	19.5	17.9	18.7	89.0	89.1	89.0
Babel	23.4	26.5	24.9	96.1	96.0	96.1
Kerbala	21.8	22.4	22.1	82.4	73.6	78.0
Wasit	31.5	35.0	33.1	79.8	84.6	82.1
Salah al-Din	31.5	30.7	31.1	80.3	80.8	80.5
Najaf	18.8	19.9	19.4	72.9	78.3	75.6
Qadisiya	17.7	18.6	18.1	78.7	81.0	79.9
Muthana	18.0	19.4	18.7	79.2	80.0	79.6
Thi Qar	19.8	21.4	20.6	88.3	93.3	90.8
Missan	26.4	30.7	28.7	81.4	81.5	81.5
Basra	18.1	18.0	18.0	80.5	84.4	82.6
Kurdistan Region	20.3	21.6	21.0	82.1	81.4	81.8
Iraq	19.7	19.7	19.7	84.1	85.6	84.9

Main sources of data
Column 1 socio-economic survey of households in Iraq IHSES 2012.
Column 2 survey network know Iraq IKN 2011.

Table 12 Education

Governorate	Mean years of schooling for (age 25+)			The literacy rate for (age 12+)			Student-teacher ratio			students aged 6+ who take 60 or more minutes to arrive at school or university (%)			students aged 15+ who are satisfied with education quality (%)		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	7.1	6.5	6.8	78.0	56.3	66.8				18.2	18.7	18.4	34.6	32.4	33.5
Nineveh	6.4	5.4	5.9	83.5	64.9	74.3	22.0	15.0	19.0	8.1	5.0	6.9	36.4	42.0	39.2
Sulaymaniyah	7.7	7.5	7.6	84.3	64.5	74.5				12.9	13.5	13.2	21.6	20.0	20.8
Kirkuk	6.8	6.4	6.6	88.1	72.6	80.3	29.0	15.0	22.0	15.7	15.0	15.4	24.9	26.4	25.7
Erbil	7.3	6.5	6.9	81.9	60.2	70.9				23.8	19.2	21.8	26.8	27.1	27.0
Diyala	7.9	6.7	7.3	91.2	74.5	83.0	16.0	11.0	13.0	23.8	19.7	21.9	47.0	50.0	48.5
Anbar	6.8	5.4	6.1	89.5	71.7	80.7	14.0	16.0	15.0	15.8	13.6	14.9	30.9	27.7	29.3
Baghdad	7.6	7.4	7.5	91.8	83.2	87.4	27.0	10.0	16.0	29.7	29.7	29.7	29.4	31.3	30.4
Babel	6.8	6.0	6.4	89.5	74.6	82.0	18.0	10.0	14.0	25.8	24.9	25.4	44.3	48.9	46.5
Kerbala	6.3	6.1	6.2	85.2	70.6	77.9	17.0	11.0	14.0	30.2	23.5	27.3	36.8	34.2	35.4
Wasit	6.6	5.2	6.0	85.0	64.4	74.6	19.0	9.0	14.0	22.0	12.6	18.2	42.0	44.5	43.3
Salah al-Din	6.7	5.2	6.0	85.9	65.6	75.6	27.0	14.0	21.0	18.5	13.6	16.6	39.4	39.0	39.2
Najaf	6.3	5.8	6.1	81.0	69.7	75.3	24.0	11.0	17.0	30.4	36.7	33.3	35.2	38.1	36.7
Qadisiya	6.1	5.2	5.7	79.6	60.7	70.0	15.0	9.0	12.0	22.6	14.9	19.2	37.7	40.5	39.2
Muthana	5.6	4.2	4.9	76.8	54.2	65.2	31.0	18.0	24.0	15.7	18.0	16.6	44.1	45.3	44.7
Thi Qar	6.4	5.2	5.8	82.2	57.7	69.8	16.0	12.0	14.0	6.2	5.6	5.9	41.9	43.3	42.6
Missan	5.7	4.4	5.0	79.7	57.8	68.5	21.0	16.0	18.0	11.1	9.4	10.4	44.0	42.6	43.2
Basra	6.7	6.4	6.6	87.3	74.0	80.9	23.0	10.0	15.0	21.8	20.5	21.1	33.0	33.2	33.1
Kurdistan Region	7.4	6.9	7.2	82.0	61.2	71.5				18.0	16.7	17.4	26.3	25.3	25.8
Iraq	6.9	6.2	6.6	86.3	70.1	78.2	21.0	11.0	16.0	20.4	19.5	20.0	34.3	35.6	34.9

Definitions
Youth literacy rate: The number of literates aged 15-29 divided by the total number of literates and illiterates aged 15-29.

Main sources of data
Columns 1 and 2: IKN-2011.
Column 3: Reports of the Educational and Social Statistics.
Columns 3 and 4: IHSES 2012.

Table 13 Economic activity for Age 15+

Governorate	Economic activity rate for (age 15+)			workers with secured jobs (%)			Unemployment for age 15+ (%)			Average weekly working hours for age 15+			underemployed Individuals aged 15+ in (%)		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	65.6	11.6	37.6	56.0	77.1	59.1	7.6	16.4	9.0	43.4	32.6	41.7	16.5	3.6	14.6
Nineveh	74.2	9.7	42.1	40.7	47.5	41.4	6.2	15.7	7.3	43.0	30.6	41.7	16.4	5.8	15.2
Sulaymaniyah	70.5	19.8	45.4	54.8	73.0	57.7	8.8	37.5	15.0	47.4	34.7	45.4	25.7	7.1	22.4
Kirkuk	73.4	12.6	42.8	46.6	45.4	46.5	2.3	3.4	2.5	41.2	27.5	39.3	4.5	3.0	4.3
Erbil	69.4	17.4	42.9	55.6	72.8	58.6	4.1	19.6	7.3	53.1	45.3	51.8	13.8	5.5	12.3
Diyala	71.0	12.6	42.3	45.2	69.5	48.0	11.9	33.0	15.0	41.2	29.9	40.0	17.1	3.2	15.1
Anbar	75.1	20.4	48.0	49.6	31.6	45.7	18.8	15.1	18.1	41.9	25.2	38.3	13.4	2.1	11.1
Baghdad	73.8	16.3	44.7	47.7	73.2	51.6	6.3	24.9	9.7	44.4	36.5	43.2	14.2	3.1	12.3
Babel	73.6	18.4	45.8	36.5	41.2	37.4	8.6	13.2	9.5	39.6	29.2	37.7	18.9	2.9	15.7
Kerbala	75.5	10.8	43.2	40.2	72.2	43.1	6.1	34.1	9.6	43.0	35.9	42.4	22.8	6.8	21.1
Wasit	74.6	19.3	46.8	39.8	35.2	38.8	9.6	9.9	9.7	39.4	31.6	37.8	13.8	2.7	11.5
Salah al-Din	71.8	15.3	43.1	46.7	30.0	43.5	13.5	7.4	12.4	45.0	32.4	42.6	15.4	1.6	12.9
Najaf	76.1	19.2	47.8	41.0	39.8	40.8	7.2	23.4	10.4	45.0	32.4	43.0	11.1	2.0	9.4
Qadisiya	71.9	12.6	41.8	43.2	75.9	47.8	12.3	21.2	13.7	44.2	32.6	42.6	18.5	3.2	16.3
Muthana	75.8	7.2	40.6	40.3	82.3	44.0	14.3	16.1	14.5	44.1	33.3	43.2	5.6	2.4	5.3
Thi Qar	71.1	10.4	40.5	42.6	63.0	45.1	18.7	24.4	19.4	47.2	37.4	46.0	20.8	2.6	18.6
Missan	76.1	11.9	43.2	46.2	54.9	47.4	15.3	16.1	15.4	41.6	26.2	39.5	23.2	9.5	21.4
Basra	74.6	10.1	43.6	41.1	75.4	44.8	9.9	13.2	10.3	43.3	31.9	42.1	24.4	4.3	22.2
Kurdistan Region	69.0	17.0	42.7	55.3	73.7	58.3	7.0	27.8	11.1	48.3	37.9	46.7	19.6	5.9	17.2
Iraq	73.0	14.7	43.8	45.6	58.6	47.6	9.2	20.7	11.1	43.9	33.1	42.3	16.6	3.8	14.6

Definitions

Adjusted EAR is the number of economically active people aged 15+ divided by the number of population aged 15+.

Economically active people: The working people and the unemployed job-seekers aged 15+.

Unemployment rate: The number of job-seekers aged 15+ divided by the number of economically active people aged 15+.

Insecure jobs: The jobs workers are expected to lose in case of any crisis or a problem in the labour market (the following have been taken into consideration when calculating this variable: work sector, practical situation and work nature - oral or written contract as well as permanent, temporary or seasonal).

Main sources of data

Columns 1-5: IKN-2011.

Table 14 Indicators of the standard of living of the Iraqi individual for the year 2012

Governorate	Monthly expenditure per capita (1000 ID)			Monthly income per capita (1000 ID)			POVERTY (of total population %)		
	Urban	Rural	Urban and Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban and Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban and Rural
Dahuk	415	303	384	300	193	271	4.1	10.5	5.8
Nineveh	191	151	175	186	168	179	28.0	49.0	35.8
Sulaymaniyah	482	368	463	435	253	404	1.4	4.8	2.0
Kirkuk	331	198	288	317	182	274	6.1	15.4	9.1
Arbil	483	330	457	419	234	387	2.5	10.9	4.5
Diyala	242	197	219	222	153	186	15.2	25.2	20.5
Anbar	233	198	215	221	174	197	12.4	18.2	15.4
Baghdad	257	178	247	292	162	275	10.1	25.4	12.0
Babel	288	184	232	268	158	209	9.7	18.7	14.5
Kerbala	231	193	218	256	182	231	12.3	12.5	12.4
Wasit	229	191	213	220	110	174	21.3	32.8	26.1
Salah al-Din	263	210	234	216	150	180	11.1	21.1	16.6
Najaf	290	180	255	294	164	252	6.4	20.0	10.8
Qadisiya	178	119	152	179	114	151	32.0	60.2	44.1
Muthana	177	122	146	196	115	151	38.2	63.7	52.5
Dhi Qar	199	116	166	210	116	173	27.8	61.0	40.9
Maysan	160	95	140	202	104	172	29.1	73.0	42.3
Basra	220	198	215	227	191	220	13.7	19.6	14.9
Kurdistan Region	468	334	442	400	227	366	2.3	8.1	3.5
Iraq	276	185	247	274	159	237	13.5	30.7	18.9

Table 15 Environmental Sustainability

Governorate	People deprived from sewer systems (%)	People deprived from improved drinking water (%)	People deprived from shelter (%)	Individuals who consider that preserving the environment is one of their duties as citizens (%)
	2011	2011	2011	2009
Duhouk	1.9	2.0	2.0	28.0
Nineveh	2.6	16.5	0.8	4.9
Sulaymaniyah	2.3	2.5	0.3	29.6
Kirkuk	12.7	9.7	0.3	16.7
Erbil	2.6	0.7	0.7	19.9
Diyala	10.8	27.8	0.8	20.1
Anbar	1.5	18.1	0.6	11.3
Baghdad	7.5	17.3	0.5	11.5
Babel	5.8	29.8	0.4	13.9
Kerbala	6.1	40.2	0.8	12.3
Wasit	4.4	21.8	2.6	10.7
Salah al-Din	2.4	20.8	0.9	11.0
Najaf	5.4	76.3	0.8	30.7
Qadisiya	7.5	39.8	0.7	24.9
Muthana	0.3	74.0	0.4	16.1
Thi Qar	7.2	67.0	0.9	16.1
Missan	14.2	95.4	6.9	16.3
Basra	10.7	99.3	1.9	14.0
Kurdistan Region	2.3	3.9	2.9	25.8
Iraq	6.0	33.0	1.0	15.5

Definitions
Deprivation of improved sewer systems means no public pipeline, no facilities, as well as common facilities or facilities outside the housing unit (out in the open), etc.
Improved drinking water is water conveyed through the public network or protected well.
People deprived of shelter are those who live in a tent, caravan, etc.

Main sources of data
Columns 1-3: IKN-2011.
Column 4: National Youth and Adolescence Survey 2009.

Table 16 Youth Health

Governorate	Gouth with disability (%)			Youth with chronic diseases (%)			Youth who have inhaled solvents or taken sedatives, drugs or marijuana (%)		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	6.4	3.0	4.7	8.7	8.9	8.8	15.4	0.2	8.0
Nineveh	6.3	1.2	3.4	5.0	0.6	2.5	18.7	1.7	11.3
Sulaymaniyah	3.0	0.4	1.8	1.7	3.7	2.7	8.9	0.9	5.0
Kirkuk	4.1	2.6	3.3	5.4	6.7	6.0	13.3	1.0	7.3
Erbil	5.5	2.1	3.8	2.7	4.3	3.5	8.1	1.3	4.7
Diyala	4.0	3.7	3.9	1.8	1.4	1.6	5.3	0.0	3.2
Anbar	3.6	1.6	2.6	1.1	1.3	1.2	16.4	0.5	10.6
Baghdad	2.1	1.2	1.7	4.9	4.3	4.6	14.4	0.0	7.8
Babel	2.8	0.0	1.4	3.7	1.8	2.8	6.5	0.2	3.7
Kerbala	0.6	0.0	0.3	4.9	5.3	5.1	6.5	0.0	3.7
Wasit	1.4	1.3	1.3	3.6	1.3	2.5	9.9	0.5	5.9
Salah al-Din	1.7	1.6	1.7	2.8	3.4	3.1	6.1	0.1	3.2
Najaf	1.3	1.8	1.5	11.0	5.9	8.4	14.4	0.0	7.6
Qadisiya	3.6	1.9	2.7	5.6	4.3	4.9	9.8	0.1	5.1
Muthana	3.8	1.0	2.3	4.7	3.0	3.8	2.7	0.0	1.4
Thi Qar	2.5	3.4	3.0	3.1	2.4	2.8	13.2	0.3	7.5
Missan	1.6	0.3	0.9	2.1	1.7	1.9	4.5	0.0	2.5
Basra	4.8	0.8	2.7	3.0	2.4	2.7	4.2	0.0	2.3
Kurdistan Region	4.5	4.6	3.0	4.0	5.4	4.7	9.8	0.9	5.4
Iraq	3.3	1.5	2.4	4.2	3.4	3.8	11.1	0.0	6.2

To be continued

Main sources of data
Columns 1, 2 IKN 2011
Column 3 NYS 2009

Table 16 Youth Health

Governorate	Youth who say they have a good health (%)			Average time needed to arrive at a health center (min)			Youth satisfied with medical services		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	98.8	98.7	98.7	16.7	20.0	18.4	46.8	43.7	45.2
Nineveh	98.0	98.3	98.1	21.1	21.2	21.2	38.8	45.2	41.9
Sulaymaniyah	98.2	98.0	98.1	20.3	23.2	22.0	57.8	48.8	53.2
Kirkuk	98.8	99.1	99.0	14.3	15.4	14.9	49.8	53.8	51.8
Erbil	98.2	99.3	98.8	20.3	18.7	19.4	39.8	42.8	41.3
Diyala	99.0	99.1	99.1	29.8	27.0	28.0	51.9	56.7	54.3
Anbar	99.0	99.4	99.2	12.7	14.7	13.8	42.2	39.3	40.8
Baghdad	98.6	99.2	98.9	18.4	18.1	18.3	48.2	49.6	48.9
Babel	98.4	99.4	98.9	23.1	23.9	23.6	53.0	56.3	54.6
Kerbala	96.7	99.5	98.1	19.1	21.5	20.4	42.7	38.9	40.7
Wasit	97.1	98.1	97.6	27.0	34.4	30.2	44.8	46.9	45.9
Salah al-Din	98.1	98.9	98.5	26.4	29.3	28.2	44.9	46.4	45.7
Najaf	99.1	99.1	99.1	16.8	23.2	19.7	39.1	40.8	40.0
Qadisiya	98.3	98.9	98.6	19.0	18.5	18.7	41.7	43.1	42.5
Muthana	98.6	99.7	99.2	16.4	17.5	17.0	42.3	44.8	43.6
Thi Qar	98.0	99.1	98.5	25.8	23.0	24.2	45.0	47.6	46.3
Missan	98.4	98.7	98.6	16.5	15.7	16.1	44.5	44.3	44.4
Basra	98.8	99.1	99.0	19.0	18.5	18.7	41.8	43.6	42.7
Kurdistan Region	98.3	98.6	98.5	19.4	20.9	20.2	48.7	45.5	47.1
Iraq	98.4	99.0	98.7	18.6	19.2	19.0	45.6	46.8	46.2

continued

Main sources of data
Column 1 IKN 2011
Columns 2, 3 IHSES 2012

Table 17 Youth Education

Governorate	Youth literacy rate			Mean years of schooling for youth			Youth who take 60 or more minutes to arrive at school or university (%)			Youth satisfied with education quality (%)		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	86.6	73.2	79.7	5.9	3.6	4.7	36.2	51.5	42.7	62.6	60.2	61.4
Nineveh	86.0	73.4	79.9	7.3	4.6	5.9	36.7	30.5	34.8	71.2	78.3	75.2
Sulaymaniyah	94.2	86.9	90.7	6.1	4.0	5.0	24.2	25.3	24.7	41.7	42.3	42.0
Kirkuk	92.7	85.1	89.0	7.4	4.9	6.1	36.4	41.0	38.2	43.2	43.8	43.5
Erbil	88.5	76.4	82.3	6.6	4.0	5.3	43.7	41.0	42.5	47.5	48.9	48.2
Diyala	95.4	88.9	92.4	8.1	5.3	6.7	55.2	51.9	53.8	76.9	75.8	76.3
Anbar	92.4	82.5	87.6	7.9	4.7	6.3	43.9	44.2	44.0	59.3	52.4	55.9
Baghdad	93.4	90.3	91.9	8.9	7.2	8.1	49.4	54.4	51.7	45.8	52.6	49.2
Babel	90.5	85.0	87.9	7.9	5.4	6.6	44.8	52.8	48.2	76.5	81.1	78.8
Kerbala	86.0	80.1	83.1	7.2	5.3	6.3	56.6	39.9	52.5	60.2	60.9	60.5
Wasit	87.0	73.1	80.5	7.7	4.8	6.2	50.0	39.1	46.2	68.2	75.5	71.8
Salah al-Din	87.6	75.5	81.7	7.7	4.3	5.9	40.8	26.6	35.5	66.3	63.9	65.1
Najaf	79.3	76.6	78.0	7.7	5.3	6.4	58.3	78.2	66.6	53.7	68.4	61.0
Qadisiya	79.1	67.4	73.3	7.2	4.9	6.0	60.3	52.9	57.7	68.5	72.1	70.4
Muthana	83.6	64.8	74.1	5.6	3.4	4.5	34.1	60.0	41.2	78.2	77.4	77.8
Thi Qar	82.8	68.3	75.6	7.1	4.0	5.6	20.1	21.2	20.6	82.2	80.1	81.2
Missan	81.9	63.1	72.2	6.9	4.3	5.6	33.4	49.9	37.0	79.5	76.5	77.9
Basra	87.3	82.4	85.0	7.9	5.8	6.9	57.9	63.2	60.3	61.5	58.3	59.8
Kurdistan Region	90.3	79.8	85.1	6.2	3.9	5.0	34.1	37.6	35.5	49.0	49.2	49.1
Iraq	88.9	80.3	84.7	7.7	5.3	6.4	43.6	46.2	44.6	59.5	62.3	60.9

Definitions

Youth literacy rate: The number of literates aged 15-29 divided by the total number of literates and illiterates aged 15-29.

Main sources of data

Columns 1 and 2: IKN-2011
Columns 3 and 4: IHSES 2012

Table 18 Economic activity for youth

Governorate	Economic activity for youth			Youth labor force participation to total labor force participation			youth employment (%)			Youth unemployment (%)		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	51.6	12.4	31.5	78.7	107.6	83.7	57.1	6.8	32.2	10.7	26.6	13.9
Nineveh	66.8	7.3	38.2	90.0	75.0	90.6	52.4	2.9	28.0	10.2	29.3	12.0
Sulaymaniyah	57.0	16.9	38.0	80.8	85.5	83.7	59.7	9.2	35.3	12.3	46.6	19.5
Kirkuk	62.1	11.7	37.9	84.7	93.0	88.6	66.3	14.5	39.4	5.6	8.6	6.0
Erbil	56.0	14.7	34.9	80.8	84.4	81.4	56.4	10.9	34.5	6.7	33.2	12.4
Diyala	61.5	10.3	37.3	86.6	81.6	88.1	51.7	3.2	27.1	17.7	52.8	22.3
Anbar	66.6	18.9	43.6	88.6	92.8	90.8	60.6	3.7	33.5	31.2	25.3	29.9
Baghdad	64.2	12.0	38.4	87.0	73.7	86.0	51.9	5.9	29.3	12.0	45.3	17.1
Babel	64.9	15.4	40.9	88.1	83.9	89.4	63.7	16.4	40.5	13.2	24.0	15.2
Kerbala	69.4	7.8	39.0	91.9	71.9	90.3	58.7	1.1	31.7	9.3	57.9	14.0
Wasit	64.8	21.0	44.2	86.8	108.5	94.5	54.7	5.1	30.4	13.7	13.2	13.6
Salah al-Din	62.8	14.4	39.3	87.5	93.9	91.2	55.8	6.7	31.9	20.6	10.7	18.8
Najaf	68.0	16.4	43.7	89.4	85.7	91.6	65.6	5.3	36.5	11.0	31.6	14.6
Qadisiya	62.0	8.1	35.5	86.2	64.5	84.9	44.5	8.8	26.8	20.3	41.5	22.6
Muthana	71.7	5.9	38.5	94.6	82.6	94.8	57.1	3.8	29.3	19.8	31.8	20.8
Thi Qar	63.4	7.2	35.6	89.1	69.4	88.0	45.1	2.9	24.4	30.8	50.5	32.8
Missan	69.2	8.1	37.8	91.0	68.0	87.5	53.4	4.2	29.0	26.1	18.3	25.2
Basra	62.8	8.2	37.3	84.1	81.7	85.6	58.1	2.5	30.0	20.8	31.2	21.9
Kurdistan Region	55.3	15.0	35.3	80.2	88.0	82.6	57.9	9.2	34.3	10.1	37.6	15.9
Iraq	63.4	12.0	38.4	86.7	82.2	87.7	55.6	6.2	31.3	15.5	33.3	18.2

To be continued

Definitions

Youth labor force participation to total labor force participation is youth Economic activity rate divided by the Economic activity rate of age 15+. Some rates exceed 100 percent because youth EAR is larger than total the Economic activity rate.

Main sources of data

Column 3: IHSES 2012
Columns 1, 2 and 4: IKN-2011

Table 18 Economic activity for youth

Governorate	Youth unemployment to total unemployment (%)			Average weekly wage young workers to average weekly wage of all workers (%)			Average number of weekly working hours of young workers			underemployed young workers (%)		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	140.4	161.9	154.4	89.3	83.2	88.3	42.9	35.7	41.6	18.5	2.1	15.5
Nineveh	165.3	186.8	164.6	79.5	80.0	78.5	44.1	36.4	43.6	18.6	4.5	17.5
Sulaymaniyah	139.4	124.4	130.1	82.1	85.9	82.8	46.3	35.9	44.9	30.7	6.3	26.5
Kirkuk	238.3	255.2	241.7	82.1	84.0	82.9	42.6	25.3	40.2	7.7	4.2	7.1
Erbil	165.2	170.0	171.0	91.6	71.0	87.4	52.4	52.1	52.3	15.6	6.3	13.9
Diyala	148.8	160.4	148.8	77.2	68.0	76.0	41.4	30.2	40.5	20.9	3.0	18.6
Anbar	165.5	167.1	165.8	75.5	77.7	75.2	41.7	23.8	37.8	14.0	1.3	11.4
Baghdad	190.7	181.9	176.2	81.5	72.3	80.4	45.0	37.7	44.3	16.3	2.2	14.5
Babel	153.7	181.2	159.2	79.7	85.2	78.6	39.3	26.5	37.2	22.1	3.2	18.8
Kerbala	152.3	169.6	146.6	86.1	65.6	84.1	42.1	36.4	41.9	25.7	3.4	24.1
Wasit	141.8	133.7	140.0	93.6	91.8	92.7	40.2	29.4	37.8	13.4	1.2	10.7
Salah al-Din	152.8	144.0	152.1	79.4	75.6	79.0	46.6	36.1	44.6	17.0	2.9	14.5
Najaf	153.7	135.1	140.7	86.8	66.7	85.7	45.0	31.7	43.2	13.5	3.5	11.8
Qadisiya	164.6	195.7	165.7	79.2	66.8	76.3	45.2	33.9	44.3	23.6	2.8	21.5
Muthana	138.7	197.5	143.5	90.4	83.3	90.0	43.6	33.0	42.9	6.5	7.0	6.5
Thi Qar	165.1	207.4	169.0	81.4	59.9	79.8	48.7	41.1	48.1	22.2	0.0	20.3
Missan	170.3	113.8	163.6	87.9	108.1	90.2	40.9	27.7	39.3	25.7	12.5	24.3
Basra	209.8	236.6	212.8	73.3	74.3	73.2	41.6	32.5	40.8	33.1	11.0	30.9
Kurdistan Region	144.7	135.4	142.4	87.2	80.1	85.7	47.4	40.7	46.4	22.8	5.2	19.6
Iraq	168.5	161.0	163.7	81.8	76.6	80.9	44.1	33.4	42.8	19.4	3.7	17.2

To be continued

Definitions

The proportion of youth unemployment rate to total unemployment rate is youth unemployment rate divided by total unemployment rate of age group 15+. Some rates exceed 100 percent because youth unemployment rate is higher than the total unemployment rate.

Main sources of data

Columns 1-4: IKN-2011.

Table 18 Economic activity for youth

Workplace	underemployed youth by workplace (%)				
	Males	Females	Urban	Rural	Total
Factory, office, institution and plant	15.0	19.5	16.9	11.8	15.1
Work site and construction workshop	28.3	7.3	28.2	27.2	27.9
Kiosk	5.9	8.0	7.3	3.3	5.9
street Mobile places	41.3	20.7	43.0	36.7	40.8
Farm and agricultural land	6.5	17.5	0.8	17.9	6.7
Family house	0.7	23.1	1.2	1.1	1.2
A building adjacent to the family house	1.2	0.6	1.5	0.5	1.2
Another house (The house of the client or the employer)	0.3	1.3	0.3	0.4	0.3
Others	0.9	2.0	0.8	1.0	0.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

continued

Main data sources
Column 1 IKN 2011

Table 19 Living Conditions for Youth

Governorate	Youth deprived from food security (%)			Poor youth breadwinners (%)	Dependency rate	Overcrowded families (%)	Youth satisfied with their life as a whole (%)		
	Males	Females	Total				Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	24.1	24.7	24.4	1.7	4.6	15.2	88.6	91.1	89.8
Nineveh	18.9	19.8	19.3	26.3	4.4	21.6	67.3	72.8	70.2
Sulaymaniyah	9.7	10.2	9.9	0.0	3.6	8.7	88.7	90.0	89.3
Kirkuk	15.7	16.0	15.9	2.6	3.8	4.8	81.9	79.9	80.9
Erbil	11.0	10.4	10.7	3.0	3.9	15.3	80.4	83.2	81.8
Diyala	16.7	16.4	16.5	18.7	4.0	10.9	87.0	87.6	87.3
Anbar	11.1	11.6	11.3	13.6	3.8	11.0	73.6	70.5	72.1
Baghdad	15.4	14.3	14.8	7.1	3.7	13.6	69.9	70.3	70.1
Babel	13.5	14.8	14.1	10.6	4.0	18.3	82.5	87.9	85.2
Kerbala	12.0	11.5	11.7	28.8	4.1	17.1	75.9	79.5	77.8
Wasit	24.4	23.9	24.2	32.0	3.8	14.6	81.6	82.6	82.1
Salah al-Din	12.9	12.7	12.8	14.5	4.2	18.0	77.5	78.6	78.1
Najaf	18.1	18.0	18.0	7.2	3.7	20.2	86.2	88.3	87.3
Qadisiya	18.5	19.3	18.9	35.9	4.3	22.9	70.2	69.8	70.0
Muthana	12.5	13.3	12.9	40.1	4.5	22.3	79.5	77.9	78.6
Thi Qar	21.4	21.2	21.3	28.5	4.7	20.8	71.5	69.8	70.6
Missan	14.6	15.8	15.2	35.7	4.4	31.5	78.7	79.6	79.2
Basra	27.6	26.9	27.3	14.5	4.1	17.8	70.8	74.4	72.7
Kurdistan Region	13.8	14.0	13.9	1.0	3.9	12.2	85.8	87.9	86.8
Iraq	16.8	16.7	16.7	13.6	4.0	16.6	78.6	79.6	79.1

Definitions

Dependency rate: The population divided by the economically active people aged 15+.

Main sources of data

Columns 1, 3, and 4: IKN-2011.
Column 2: IHSES 2007.
Column 5: IHSES 2012.

Table 20 Political Participation for Youth

Governorate	Youth aged 15-29 who are volunteers in community activities. (%)			Youth aged (18-29) who are engaged in political action through signing a petition, participating in demonstrations, etc. (%)			Youth aged (15-29) who do not know what the main goal of their life is. (%)		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	4.7	2.2	3.3	21.6	12.1	16.2	1.2	11.5	6.5
Nineveh	4.0	5.3	4.7	19.9	7.4	13.2	3.2	15.4	8.4
Sulaymaniyah	11.6	11.5	11.5	32.2	26.5	29.3	2.3	7.9	5.6
Kirkuk	5.4	7.5	6.5	31.0	17.8	24.3	0.9	2.5	1.7
Erbil	4.4	4.9	4.7	25.5	16.3	20.5	2.6	6.6	5.0
Diyala	10.4	10.7	10.5	13.2	15.1	14.3	2.8	4.2	3.4
Anbar	1.2	0.9	1.0	17.8	10.9	14.3	4.6	14.4	8.0
Baghdad	7.3	8.2	7.8	26.6	19.3	22.6	1.6	4.5	3.0
Babel	8.3	13.6	11.1	15.9	8.6	12.0	2.5	9.6	5.5
Kerbala	6.1	14.2	10.4	25.2	15.7	20.1	1.6	9.2	4.9
Wasit	3.7	8.9	6.6	24.7	26.3	25.6	5.6	11.9	8.3
Salah al-Din	4.2	4.1	4.1	10.5	8.4	9.4	3.3	9.4	6.1
Najaf	2.3	0.0	1.1	10.9	8.3	9.6	3.2	7.6	5.4
Qadisiya	22.4	20.6	21.5	29.8	18.1	23.8	1.6	6.1	3.8
Muthana	4.0	4.0	4.0	12.8	10.6	11.7	2.8	12.2	7.3
Thi Qar	12.7	8.2	10.3	23.7	5.1	13.8	1.0	7.4	3.9
Missan	2.4	2.0	2.2	13.1	8.6	10.7	5.6	23.4	14.0
Basra	2.8	2.4	2.6	9.3	6.0	7.8	1.1	8.4	4.5
Kurdistan Region	7.4	6.9	7.1	27.2	19.3	22.9	2.1	8.4	5.6
Total	6.5	6.9	6.7	21.1	14.6	17.7	2.4	8.4	5.3

Main sources of data
Columns 1-2: IKN-2011.
Column 3: National Youth and Adolescence Survey 2009.

Table 21 Environmental sustainability of youth

Governorate	Youth who consider that preserving the environment is one of their duties as citizens (%).		
	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	27.6	29.0	28.4
Nineveh	5.0	5.0	5.0
Sulaymaniyah	33.2	26.9	29.3
Kirkuk	15.4	18.6	17.1
Erbil	18.5	19.6	19.2
Diyala	21.3	18.9	20.4
Anbar	10.8	9.0	10.1
Baghdad	14.3	8.2	11.4
Babel	14.0	15.4	14.5
Kerbala	13.3	12.1	12.8
Wasit	7.9	12.7	10.0
Salah al-Din	9.5	11.0	10.2
Najaf	28.7	32.7	30.7
Qadisiya	23.1	28.1	25.6
Muthana	15.9	16.4	16.2
Thi Qar	17.8	12.5	15.4
Missan	16.3	16.0	16.1
Basra	12.3	16.5	14.2
Kurdistan Region	26.6	24.9	25.5
Iraq	15.3	15.4	15.3

Main sources of data
Column 1: National Youth and Adolescence Survey 2009.

Annex II

Youth Survey Tables

Table 1 Education

Governorate	Student			Dropout			Completed study			Total		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	34.4	30.1	32.2	52.1	59.3	55.7	13.5	10.6	12.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Nineveh	29.3	13.2	21.3	63.9	85.2	74.5	6.8	1.6	4.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sulaymaniyah	44.5	38.4	41.5	45.4	46.7	46.1	10.1	14.9	12.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kirkuk	41.5	27.8	35.5	49.6	63.9	55.8	8.9	8.4	8.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Erbil	42.2	40.0	41.2	37.7	37.0	37.4	20.1	23.1	21.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
Diyala	38.8	19.5	31.2	49.7	69.4	57.4	11.5	11.2	11.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
Anbar	37.3	26.3	32.2	48.8	70.0	58.6	13.9	3.7	9.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
Baghdad	29.3	33.2	31.0	63.4	56.9	60.6	7.3	9.9	8.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
Babel	27.0	29.4	28.2	63.4	64.3	63.9	9.6	6.3	8.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kerbala	36.4	24.8	32.3	57.9	73.9	63.6	5.7	1.3	4.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wasit	37.4	20.5	29.7	54.2	78.0	64.9	8.4	1.5	5.3	100.0	100.0	100.0
Salah al-Din	43.2	25.5	35.8	46.8	69.8	56.4	10.0	4.7	7.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
Najaf	19.6	18.4	19.1	76.5	76.3	76.4	3.9	5.3	4.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
Qadisiya	42.2	33.6	37.5	55.4	59.9	57.9	2.4	6.5	4.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
Muthana	40.8	18.7	34.6	53.7	81.3	61.5	5.5	0.0	4.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Thi Qar	34.3	23.5	29.6	51.6	67.2	58.4	14.0	9.3	12.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Missan	25.0	22.4	24.1	57.5	70.2	61.9	17.6	7.4	14.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Basra	30.1	22.9	27.0	61.7	72.7	66.5	8.2	4.4	6.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
Locality												
Urban areas	34.8	32.6	33.8	54.6	57.3	55.8	10.6	10.1	10.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
Rural areas	31.4	14.2	23.5	62.0	83.4	71.8	6.6	2.4	4.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Age group												
15 - 19	61.6	48.6	55.4	38.0	51.0	44.2	0.4	0.4	0.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
20 - 24	25.6	19.4	23.0	65.0	70.2	67.2	9.4	10.3	9.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
25 - 29	6.3	2.4	4.6	71.1	80.9	75.4	22.6	16.7	20.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kurdistan Region	41.3	36.8	39.1	44.2	16.6	45.4	14.5	46.6	15.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
Iraq	33.9	27.1	30.9	56.6	65.0	60.4	9.5	7.8	8.8	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 2 Education

Governorate	Illiterate			Read only			Read and write			Elementary certificate		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	8.4	24.5	16.5	1.5	3.2	2.3	12.2	10.3	11.3	28.3	18.1	23.2
Nineveh	16.3	31.2	23.7	2.5	4.6	3.6	17.5	30.3	23.9	34.4	22.3	28.3
Sulaymaniyah	4.7	6.1	5.4	2.1	3.5	2.8	16.2	13.3	14.7	27.1	23.1	25.1
Kirkuk	10.2	12.6	11.2	0.4	9.9	4.6	13.8	15.7	14.6	37.4	24.1	31.6
Erbil	2.1	8.7	5.2	2.3	2.0	2.1	9.6	10.8	10.2	17.4	11.5	14.6
Diyala	9.4	11.4	10.2	0.9	3.6	2.0	10.1	13.6	11.5	33.8	32.4	33.2
Anbar	9.6	25.2	16.9	3.1	2.9	3.0	17.1	17.9	17.5	25.4	23.4	24.5
Baghdad	8.2	11.5	9.6	1.5	0.5	1.0	17.0	16.9	16.9	27.6	22.0	25.1
Babel	4.4	11.1	7.7	1.9	1.1	1.5	23.8	20.8	22.3	29.2	34.0	31.6
Kerbala	2.9	19.3	8.7	0.7	1.3	0.9	30.6	28.9	30.0	31.6	23.1	28.6
Wasit	12.6	30.8	20.8	3.5	7.5	5.3	24.6	22.9	23.8	25.6	14.2	20.5
Salah al-Din	3.6	14.4	8.1	1.8	1.7	1.7	11.2	11.9	11.5	36.0	47.4	40.7
Najaf	25.5	31.6	28.1	2.0	2.6	2.2	17.6	26.3	21.3	33.3	23.7	29.2
Qadisiya	21.3	26.6	24.2	1.6	2.0	1.8	8.3	19.5	14.4	28.0	8.3	17.3
Muthana	13.8	26.4	17.4	0.8	2.0	1.1	20.5	43.5	27.0	25.4	13.0	21.9
Thi Qar	5.3	11.2	7.9	1.4	0.6	1.1	12.0	19.5	15.3	23.6	31.1	26.8
Missan	9.3	22.6	13.9	2.1	3.8	2.7	14.7	11.7	13.6	26.3	24.0	25.5
Basra	13.4	16.7	14.9	1.2	0.6	0.9	19.6	23.5	21.3	25.1	26.5	25.7
Locality												
Urban areas	8.4	12.4	10.2	1.7	2.4	2.0	15.9	16.3	16.0	27.7	23.3	25.8
Rural areas	12.4	29.3	20.2	1.7	3.0	2.3	18.5	26.5	22.2	30.7	24.3	27.7
Age group												
15 - 19	7.9	14.7	11.1	1.3	2.3	1.8	14.3	18.9	16.5	33.2	23.8	28.7
20 - 24	10.7	17.8	13.7	2.5	2.0	2.3	17.2	18.5	17.7	25.4	22.6	24.2
25 - 29	10.2	21.3	15.0	1.1	3.6	2.2	19.1	20.9	19.9	26.3	24.5	25.5
Kurdistan Region	4.6	11.6	8.0	2.0	2.9	2.4	12.9	11.7	12.3	23.9	17.9	21.0
Iraq	9.5	17.4	13.0	1.7	2.5	2.1	16.6	19.3	17.8	28.5	23.6	26.3

To be continued

Table 2 Education

Governorate	Intermediate			High school			Diploma (Institute) or higher			Total		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	29.9	24.5	27.2	8.4	9.3	8.8	11.4	10.1	10.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Nineveh	15.1	9.1	12.1	8.4	0.8	4.6	5.9	1.6	3.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sulaymaniyah	28.4	27.4	27.9	10.5	11.1	10.8	11.1	15.5	13.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kirkuk	18.3	23.0	20.4	11.0	6.3	8.9	8.9	8.4	8.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Erbil	25.6	17.2	21.6	20.0	23.9	21.8	23.0	26.0	24.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
Diyala	24.1	25.5	24.7	10.1	2.2	7.0	11.5	11.2	11.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
Anbar	17.9	19.2	18.5	16.2	8.5	12.6	10.7	2.9	7.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Baghdad	26.5	25.6	26.1	11.3	13.3	12.2	8.0	10.4	9.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Babel	19.1	15.8	17.5	12.1	6.1	9.2	9.4	11.1	10.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kerbala	20.6	18.3	19.8	7.9	5.2	6.9	5.7	3.9	5.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wasit	22.3	16.6	19.7	1.7	5.0	3.2	9.7	3.0	6.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Salah al-Din	28.9	9.8	21.0	7.6	9.3	8.3	10.9	5.5	8.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Najaf	13.7	5.3	10.1	3.9	5.3	4.5	3.9	5.3	4.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
Qadisiya	30.1	27.8	28.9	7.5	9.3	8.5	3.2	6.5	5.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Muthana	25.9	13.0	22.3	8.0	2.0	6.3	5.5	0.0	4.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Thi Qar	29.8	21.1	26.0	13.8	9.9	12.1	14.2	6.7	10.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
Missan	23.7	18.7	22.0	7.5	13.4	9.5	16.4	5.8	12.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Basra	24.3	22.7	23.6	7.9	5.7	7.0	8.4	4.4	6.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
Locality												
Urban areas	24.7	24.1	24.4	11.1	10.8	11.0	10.6	10.7	10.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Rural areas	21.5	10.2	16.3	7.9	4.2	6.2	7.2	2.7	5.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Age group												
15 - 19	36.0	32.7	34.4	6.9	6.9	6.9	0.4	0.7	0.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
20 - 24	19.0	13.0	16.5	15.8	14.2	15.1	9.3	11.9	10.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
25 - 29	13.1	8.7	11.2	7.0	4.9	6.0	23.2	16.2	20.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kurdistan Region	27.7	23.2	25.5	13.4	15.0	14.2	15.4	17.7	16.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
Iraq	23.8	20.0	22.1	10.2	8.8	9.6	9.7	8.3	9.1	100.0	100.0	100.0

Continued

Table 3 Education

Governorate	Capabilities and skills of teachers			Provision of technology in schools (computers, etc.)			Education meets the needs of the country		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	58.4	49.2	53.8	5.0	8.2	6.6	0.6	0.0	0.3
Nineveh	59.2	51.5	55.4	10.9	13.3	12.1	2.1	2.1	2.1
Sulaymaniyah	74.9	74.4	74.7	4.9	8.9	6.9	3.8	4.5	4.1
Kirkuk	37.0	38.2	37.5	33.7	17.8	26.8	2.4	3.1	2.7
Erbil	55.3	58.5	56.8	4.1	1.5	2.9	2.7	0.9	1.8
Diyala	68.0	57.0	63.7	11.5	5.1	9.0	4.2	2.9	3.7
Anbar	50.4	49.7	50.1	14.0	9.8	12.0	0.9	6.0	3.3
Baghdad	45.3	31.9	39.5	13.3	19.6	16.1	1.5	6.3	3.6
Babel	34.4	48.9	41.5	21.9	18.1	20.0	5.5	5.0	5.2
Kerbala	47.4	42.7	45.7	18.0	15.3	17.0	7.2	12.7	9.2
Wasit	61.1	51.7	56.9	17.5	14.4	16.1	3.3	8.2	5.5
Salah al-Din	61.6	58.5	60.3	8.2	9.3	8.7	5.4	3.4	4.6
Najaf	47.1	44.7	46.1	15.7	21.1	18.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Qadisiya	71.4	71.4	71.4	9.1	4.9	6.8	0.0	1.3	0.7
Muthana	61.6	60.5	61.3	13.3	8.4	11.9	0.8	6.7	2.5
Thi Qar	39.4	34.4	37.3	6.1	5.5	5.8	3.7	4.8	4.2
Missan	80.0	76.3	78.7	2.9	0.5	2.1	9.1	9.9	9.4
Basra	45.2	46.4	45.7	24.8	26.8	25.7	2.4	2.1	2.3
Locality									
Urban areas	51.9	47.5	50.0	13.6	14.6	14.1	2.6	3.6	3.0
Rural areas	55.3	51.1	53.4	12.8	11.2	12.1	3.6	5.8	4.6
Age group									
15 - 19	51.5	48.7	50.2	12.8	12.4	12.6	2.8	4.3	3.5
20 - 24	51.5	45.6	49.0	14.5	15.4	14.9	3.1	4.1	3.5
25 - 29	56.7	52.2	54.7	12.7	13.2	12.9	2.7	4.4	3.5
Kurdistan Region	64.0	62.7	63.4	4.6	6.2	5.4	2.6	2.1	2.4
Iraq	52.9	48.6	50.9	13.4	13.6	13.5	2.9	4.3	3.5

To be continued

Table 3 Education

Governorate	Schools infrastructure (furniture, facilities, classrooms, building, etc.)			Family's participation in education			Stimulating teaching methods		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	9.8	11.6	10.7	4.9	5.8	5.3	2.2	3.6	2.9
Nineveh	10.0	13.6	11.8	5.9	4.2	5.1	2.2	5.2	3.7
Sulaymaniyah	8.4	2.5	5.5	1.3	4.1	2.7	0.6	0.0	0.3
Kirkuk	8.1	7.3	7.8	2.0	8.4	4.8	2.0	2.6	2.3
Erbil	1.1	1.3	1.2	4.6	6.4	5.4	5.3	3.8	4.6
Diyala	3.3	13.6	7.3	0.9	3.6	2.0	1.4	3.6	2.3
Anbar	10.3	9.3	9.8	7.1	7.7	7.4	5.9	6.6	6.2
Baghdad	7.3	6.2	6.8	8.8	10.9	9.7	5.5	9.0	7.0
Babel	10.6	10.9	10.8	5.6	3.6	4.6	3.8	0.0	1.9
Kerbala	9.4	14.0	11.0	1.2	3.5	2.0	4.3	3.9	4.2
Wasit	4.9	6.6	5.7	3.0	2.9	3.0	1.0	0.8	0.9
Salah al-Din	6.3	7.6	6.8	4.6	5.1	4.8	2.4	2.5	2.5
Najaf	15.7	5.3	11.2	7.8	5.3	6.7	3.9	2.6	3.4
Qadisiya	4.8	7.6	6.3	0.8	6.9	4.1	4.3	2.9	3.5
Muthana	9.1	8.0	8.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Thi Qar	9.0	5.5	7.5	19.7	27.9	23.3	3.7	4.8	4.2
Missan	2.1	7.2	3.8	1.0	4.6	2.2	3.5	0.0	2.3
Basra	3.0	5.6	4.1	4.3	7.0	5.5	5.7	3.1	4.5
Locality									
Urban areas	7.0	6.9	6.9	5.7	7.4	6.5	4.0	5.3	4.6
Rural areas	8.1	9.9	8.9	5.7	8.1	6.8	2.9	1.9	2.5
Age group									
15 - 19	7.3	7.0	7.2	6.2	7.0	6.6	4.9	4.8	4.8
20 - 24	7.7	8.5	8.0	5.5	9.7	7.2	3.2	3.1	3.2
25 - 29	6.8	8.0	7.3	5.4	5.9	5.6	2.7	5.0	3.7
Kurdistan Region	6.1	4.4	5.3	3.3	5.3	4.3	2.7	2.2	2.4
Iraq	7.3	7.8	7.5	5.7	7.6	6.6	3.7	4.3	4.0

To be continued

Table 3 Education

Governorate	Less students			System /creative teaching staff			Total		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	7.9	12.6	10.2	1.4	0.3	0.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
Nineveh	7.6	6.3	6.9	0.8	2.1	1.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sulaymaniyah	1.7	3.3	2.5	2.0	0.6	1.3	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kirkuk	3.3	13.1	7.6	0.0	0.5	0.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
Erbil	10.2	14.0	12.0	11.8	10.2	11.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Diyala	7.0	11.9	8.9	1.4	0.7	1.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Anbar	4.2	2.7	3.6	0.9	0.7	0.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
Baghdad	8.4	8.1	8.3	2.6	1.9	2.3	100.0	100.0	100.0
Babel	13.5	9.7	11.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kerbala	6.7	4.4	5.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wasit	3.8	3.4	3.6	1.4	0.4	0.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
Salah al-Din	6.6	8.9	7.6	1.2	0.4	0.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
Najaf	2.0	0.0	1.1	2.0	2.6	2.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
Qadisiya	5.6	2.0	3.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Muthana	8.0	14.1	9.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Thi Qar	2.8	1.2	2.1	10.0	6.5	8.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
Missan	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Basra	4.3	3.4	3.9	0.0	0.3	0.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Locality									
Urban areas	6.6	7.0	6.8	2.2	2.1	2.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
Rural areas	5.5	6.1	5.8	2.2	0.9	1.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
Age group									
15 - 19	8.0	8.2	8.1	1.7	1.7	1.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
20 - 24	5.6	5.2	5.4	3.2	2.0	2.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
25 - 29	5.0	6.3	5.6	1.4	1.7	1.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kurdistan Region	6.2	9.3	7.7	5.4	3.8	4.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
Iraq	6.3	6.7	6.5	2.2	1.8	2.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Continued

Table 4 Physical Health and Safety

Governorate	Weight gain or loss			A drug-addicted friend or relative			Awareness of HIV (AIDS)		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	33.7	35.3	34.5	0.0	0.5	0.3	76.0	55.7	65.8
Nineveh	20.6	14.1	17.3	0.8	0.0	0.4	63.3	34.6	48.9
Sulaymaniyah	13.9	21.0	17.4	2.5	0.0	1.3	59.1	40.3	49.9
Kirkuk	22.4	26.2	24.0	2.4	0.0	1.4	38.2	44.0	40.7
Erbil	12.7	17.3	14.8	0.4	0.0	0.2	37.0	39.1	38.0
Diyala	11.2	21.4	15.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	68.7	61.3	65.8
Anbar	20.8	19.2	20.1	4.3	0.0	2.3	65.3	44.8	55.8
Baghdad	15.0	16.6	15.7	11.7	9.0	10.5	72.8	65.7	69.7
Babel	19.0	20.4	19.7	2.9	3.0	3.0	53.0	47.7	50.4
Kerbala	17.7	10.4	15.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	58.9	41.0	52.6
Wasit	29.8	30.5	30.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	36.9	26.7	32.3
Salah al-Din	21.8	23.0	22.3	0.9	0.9	0.9	43.9	30.2	38.2
Najaf	33.3	50.0	40.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	47.1	44.7	46.1
Qadisiya	39.7	54.2	47.6	5.1	0.0	2.3	46.4	48.6	47.6
Muthana	51.7	53.2	52.1	0.9	2.4	1.3	49.8	59.6	52.5
Thi Qar	8.7	25.4	16.0	0.0	0.6	0.3	54.3	31.6	44.4
Missan	31.6	6.9	23.1	0.8	0.0	0.6	42.4	42.5	42.4
Basra	17.7	21.4	19.3	4.6	0.0	2.5	33.3	22.9	28.7
Locality									
Urban areas	21.4	23.0	22.1	4.8	3.0	4.0	57.4	50.3	54.3
Rural areas	16.9	21.3	18.9	1.4	0.2	0.9	53.0	33.2	43.9
Age group									
15 - 19	19.5	21.0	20.2	3.9	1.5	2.8	48.2	42.4	45.5
20 - 24	18.3	22.3	20.0	3.8	3.1	3.5	59.6	48.4	54.8
25 - 29	23.7	25.1	24.3	3.9	2.1	3.1	62.7	45.9	55.3
Kurdistan Region	18.1	23.3	20.7	1.1	0.1	0.6	55.1	43.8	49.6
Iraq	20.1	22.5	21.2	3.8	2.2	3.1	56.2	45.3	51.3

To be continued

Table 4 Health and Physical Safety

Governorate	Smoking			Average time to get to a public hospital or the nearest health center (minutes)
	Males	Females	Total	
Duhouk	46.9	2.2	24.4	12.3
Nineveh	22.9	3.4	13.1	13.7
Sulaymaniyah	27.1	1.0	14.3	17.6
Kirkuk	7.3	0.0	4.1	10.8
Erbil	25.6	1.7	14.4	18.0
Diyala	25.5	0.7	15.9	15.6
Anbar	28.9	1.7	16.2	12.8
Baghdad	30.3	0.5	17.3	22.4
Babel	30.9	1.1	16.4	19.0
Kerbala	13.9	0.0	9.0	17.7
Wasit	23.0	0.0	12.6	15.5
Salah al-Din	21.2	0.4	12.6	18.5
Najaf	23.5	0.0	13.5	14.4
Qadisiya	28.3	2.0	14.0	14.0
Muthana	29.0	0.0	20.7	18.0
Thi Qar	20.3	0.0	11.5	18.9
Missan	28.7	1.6	19.4	15.1
Basra	27.4	2.3	16.3	11.2
Locality				
Urban areas	26.6	1.2	15.4	15.0
Rural areas	24.7	1.1	13.9	21.3
Age group				
15 - 19	11.7	0.6	6.4	16.9
20 - 24	30.7	1.3	18.2	16.8
25 - 29	40.0	2.1	23.4	16.8
Kurdistan Region	31.2	1.5	16.8	16.6
Iraq	26.1	1.2	15.0	16.8

Continued

Table 5 Employment

Youth by employment status (%)

Level of disaggregation	Employed			Employed and wants to change jobs			Unemployed, a full-time student, etc.			Frustrated unemployed		
Governorate	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	53.5	9.4	31.3	5.2	1.4	3.3	31.6	75.6	53.7	1.8	7.0	4.4
Nineveh	39.8	2.5	21.2	18.7	0.0	9.3	22.2	87.8	55.1	6.3	7.1	6.7
Sulaymaniyah	45.8	12.1	29.3	10.2	2.1	6.2	27.9	43.7	35.6	3.0	9.2	6.0
Kirkuk	25.2	9.4	18.3	36.6	7.8	24.0	34.6	80.6	54.7	0.0	0.0	0.0
Erbil	39.7	17.4	29.2	7.1	0.4	4.0	26.1	45.2	35.1	7.0	11.2	9.0
Diyala	34.9	4.6	23.1	9.5	2.2	6.6	43.8	83.7	59.4	0.9	2.2	1.4
Anbar	35.2	3.0	20.3	15.0	0.4	8.3	32.1	87.8	57.9	2.2	0.0	1.2
Baghdad	34.3	6.6	22.2	19.1	0.5	11.0	27.1	82.4	51.2	1.9	0.9	1.5
Babel	52.8	5.4	29.7	13.3	5.4	9.4	21.4	76.7	48.4	0.9	0.0	0.4
Kerbala	30.9	0.0	20.0	28.4	3.5	19.6	31.8	95.2	54.3	1.9	1.3	1.7
Wasit	25.8	1.3	14.7	16.7	0.8	9.5	35.9	75.7	53.8	3.0	17.8	9.7
Salah al-Din	31.7	3.0	19.7	19.0	1.7	11.8	32.9	84.6	54.4	3.0	4.3	3.6
Najaf	27.5	0.0	15.7	31.4	0.0	18.0	19.6	78.9	44.9	0.0	2.6	1.1
Qadisiya	35.2	2.0	17.1	21.8	6.5	13.5	38.2	73.0	57.1	1.6	12.0	7.3
Muthana	27.2	6.0	21.2	28.9	0.0	20.8	38.4	94.0	54.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Thi Qar	20.9	3.9	13.5	7.0	1.2	4.5	35.0	66.2	48.5	3.9	6.5	5.0
Missan	32.6	6.5	23.6	16.9	0.0	11.1	18.5	59.3	32.6	1.1	2.1	1.4
Basra	22.0	2.1	13.2	19.8	0.0	11.0	30.3	93.0	58.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Locality												
Urban areas	33.6	6.0	21.4	16.7	1.2	9.8	30.0	75.7	50.2	2.1	4.8	3.3
Rural areas	35.6	4.5	21.3	20.3	2.6	12.1	27.9	81.8	52.6	2.9	3.2	3.0
Age group												
15 - 19	13.6	1.4	7.9	11.2	1.1	6.4	55.8	87.6	70.8	2.7	2.7	2.7
20 - 24	36.7	4.6	23.1	20.6	2.2	12.8	21.1	75.2	44.0	2.5	4.4	3.3
25 - 29	59.5	13.7	39.4	22.8	1.5	13.5	3.7	64.2	30.2	1.5	6.8	3.9
Kurdistan Region	45.4	13.2	29.8	7.9	1.4	4.7	28.1	52.2	39.8	4.2	9.3	6.7
Iraq	34.2	5.6	21.4	17.7	1.6	10.5	29.4	77.5	50.9	2.3	4.3	3.2

To be continued

Table 5 Employment

Youth by employment status (%)

Level of disaggregation	Studying and seeking for work			Unemployed seeking for work			Total		
Governorate	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	1.4	1.1	1.2	6.5	5.6	6.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Nineveh	1.4	0.0	0.7	11.5	2.5	7.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sulaymaniyah	8.5	6.7	7.6	4.7	26.2	15.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kirkuk	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.7	2.1	3.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Erbil	11.4	10.5	11.0	8.6	15.2	11.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Diyala	3.9	1.5	2.9	7.0	5.8	6.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
Anbar	5.2	0.0	2.8	10.2	8.8	9.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
Baghdad	0.8	1.4	1.0	17.0	8.2	13.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Babel	0.0	2.2	1.1	11.6	10.4	11.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kerbala	2.9	0.0	1.9	4.1	0.0	2.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wasit	3.5	0.0	1.9	15.1	4.5	10.3	100.0	100.0	100.0
Salah al-Din	3.3	0.9	2.3	10.0	5.6	8.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
Najaf	0.0	2.6	1.1	21.6	15.8	19.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Qadisiya	1.6	0.0	0.7	1.6	6.5	4.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
Muthana	0.9	0.0	0.7	4.5	0.0	3.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
Thi Qar	6.4	0.0	3.6	26.7	22.3	24.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
Missan	2.4	0.0	1.6	28.5	32.2	29.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
Basra	5.3	0.3	3.1	22.7	4.7	14.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Locality									
Urban areas	2.6	1.8	2.2	15.0	10.5	13.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Rural areas	4.3	1.2	2.9	9.1	6.8	8.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Age group									
15 - 19	5.0	2.2	3.7	11.7	5.0	8.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
20 - 24	2.8	1.6	2.3	16.2	12.1	14.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
25 - 29	0.7	0.8	0.7	11.8	13.0	12.3	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kurdistan Region	7.9	6.6	7.2	6.5	17.3	11.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
Iraq	3.1	1.6	2.4	13.4	9.4	11.6	100.0	100.0	100.0

Continued

Table 6 Employment

Youth by the economic sector of institution they work or wish to work in (%)

Level of disaggregation	Public sector			Private Sector			Other sectors			Total		
Governorate	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	52.5	92.2	58.7	45.0	4.9	38.8	2.5	2.9	2.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
Nineveh	29.5	0.0	28.3	65.2	..	66.7	5.3	0.0	5.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sulaymaniyah	54.1	60.3	55.3	42.9	37.0	41.7	3.0	2.7	3.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kirkuk	19.7	36.4	22.7	80.3	63.6	77.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Erbil	58.7	81.0	64.4	34.0	19.0	30.2	7.3	0.0	5.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
Diyala	27.0	89.3	32.6	73.0	10.7	67.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Anbar	40.9	51.8	41.5	56.9	36.2	55.8	2.1	12.1	2.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Baghdad	37.2	53.3	38.7	62.1	46.7	60.7	0.7	0.0	0.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
Babel	60.7	66.7	61.5	38.0	25.0	36.2	1.3	8.3	2.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kerbala	44.5	37.3	44.3	55.5	62.7	55.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wasit	43.6	40.0	43.5	56.4	60.0	56.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Salah al-Din	57.3	54.8	57.1	40.9	45.2	41.2	1.8	0.0	1.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Najaf	40.0	0.0	40.0	60.0	0.0	60.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Qadisiya	48.2	15.9	43.3	51.8	84.1	56.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Muthana	42.6	0.0	40.9	56.0	..	57.8	1.4	0.0	1.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
Thi Qar	51.4	59.8	52.4	44.7	28.2	42.7	3.9	12.0	4.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
Missan	60.1	..	62.6	39.9	0.0	37.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Basra	60.0	..	61.5	34.2	0.0	32.9	5.8	0.0	5.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
Locality												
Urban areas	46.0	65.6	48.0	52.2	33.8	50.3	1.8	0.6	1.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Rural areas	38.8	40.3	38.9	58.6	54.5	58.2	2.6	5.2	2.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
Age group												
15 - 19	27.6	37.6	28.4	70.9	57.5	69.7	1.6	5.0	1.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
20 - 24	37.0	52.2	38.2	60.9	46.7	59.7	2.1	1.1	2.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
25 - 29	57.4	67.4	58.6	40.5	30.9	39.3	2.1	1.7	2.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kurdistan Region	55.1	74.8	59.2	40.6	23.6	37.1	4.2	1.6	3.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Iraq	43.8	58.2	45.2	54.2	39.8	52.7	2.0	2.0	2.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 7 Employment

Youth by how they have got their current job (%)

Level of disaggregation	Relations with politicians			Personal or family Relations			Work expertise			Technical or professional training		
Governorate	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	5.7	0.0	4.8	56.0	17.6	50.0	18.3	9.8	17.0	4.5	7.8	5.0
Nineveh	1.4	0.0	1.3	58.8	17.8	57.1	18.7	64.4	20.6	5.1	0.0	4.9
Sulaymaniyah	11.4	14.7	12.1	40.2	42.7	40.7	26.6	6.6	22.6	2.7	4.0	3.0
Kirkuk	0.0	0.0	0.0	86.8	63.6	82.7	9.2	0.0	7.6	0.0	0.0	0.0
Erbil	10.7	2.4	8.6	50.3	19.0	42.4	16.2	14.3	15.7	2.4	2.4	2.4
Diyala	0.0	0.0	0.0	54.0	21.4	51.1	23.2	0.0	21.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Anbar	0.7	0.0	0.7	52.3	36.2	51.4	17.7	19.9	17.8	1.2	0.0	1.1
Baghdad	3.4	0.0	3.1	60.1	53.3	59.5	13.9	6.7	13.2	7.5	6.7	7.4
Babel	1.6	0.0	1.3	38.2	25.0	36.5	19.6	8.3	18.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Kerbala	0.0	0.0	0.0	58.8	62.7	58.9	19.8	0.0	19.2	2.4	0.0	2.3
Wasit	2.9	0.0	2.8	32.3	0.0	31.0	29.0	20.0	28.6	4.6	0.0	4.4
Salah al-Din	5.3	0.0	5.0	28.0	45.2	29.1	32.1	18.0	31.2	7.2	0.0	6.7
Najaf	3.3	0.0	3.3	56.7	0.0	56.7	20.0	0.0	20.0	10.0	0.0	10.0
Qadisiya	0.0	0.0	0.0	53.2	68.2	55.5	26.6	15.9	25.0	2.8	0.0	2.4
Muthana	1.6	0.0	1.6	60.7	0.0	58.2	23.9	..	27.0	7.5	0.0	7.2
Thi Qar	1.7	9.7	2.8	52.0	9.7	45.7	25.7	0.0	22.0	1.7	0.0	1.4
Missan	1.7	0.0	1.6	38.9	25.0	38.0	26.1	0.0	24.4	15.9	50.0	18.1
Basra	0.5	0.0	0.5	61.2	0.0	59.0	9.0	0.0	8.6	1.9	0.0	1.9
Locality												
Urban areas	3.4	3.2	3.4	53.5	35.2	51.6	17.3	10.2	16.6	5.6	4.9	5.5
Rural areas	2.0	1.1	2.0	55.9	40.9	54.4	22.4	12.4	21.4	2.3	0.6	2.1
Age group												
15 - 19	1.2	0.0	1.1	69.9	48.7	68.0	14.2	14.0	14.2	2.1	0.0	1.9
20 - 24	2.1	5.7	2.4	55.0	44.0	54.1	22.7	7.8	21.5	3.4	1.9	3.3
25 - 29	4.6	1.6	4.2	46.8	29.4	44.6	17.1	11.8	16.4	6.8	5.7	6.7
Kurdistan Region	9.7	7.0	9.1	47.5	28.4	43.5	21.1	10.4	18.9	3.1	4.0	3.3
Iraq	3.0	2.6	2.9	54.2	36.8	52.5	18.9	10.9	18.0	4.6	3.7	4.5

To be continued

Table 7 Employment

Youth by how they have got their current job (%)

Level of disaggregation	Educational attainment			Other			Total		
Governorate	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	10.7	47.1	16.3	4.8	17.6	6.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
Nineveh	7.2	0.0	6.9	8.7	17.8	9.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sulaymaniyah	9.1	25.4	12.3	10.1	6.6	9.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kirkuk	3.9	36.4	9.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Erbil	14.7	57.1	25.5	5.7	4.8	5.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
Diyala	14.4	78.6	20.2	8.4	0.0	7.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
Anbar	4.9	31.9	6.4	23.2	12.1	22.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
Baghdad	2.1	33.3	5.0	13.0	0.0	11.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
Babel	5.7	0.0	4.9	34.9	66.7	39.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kerbala	1.2	0.0	1.2	17.8	37.3	18.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wasit	12.9	0.0	12.4	18.4	80.0	20.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
Salah al-Din	4.2	18.4	5.1	23.2	18.4	22.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
Najaf	0.0	0.0	0.0	10.0	0.0	10.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Qadisiya	1.4	7.9	2.4	15.9	7.9	14.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Muthana	4.9	0.0	4.7	1.4	0.0	1.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
Thi Qar	11.7	29.0	14.2	7.3	51.7	13.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
Missan	10.3	25.0	11.2	7.1	0.0	6.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Basra	7.4	..	10.9	19.9	0.0	19.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
Locality									
Urban areas	6.5	40.4	10.0	13.7	6.0	12.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
Rural areas	5.0	12.0	5.7	12.4	33.0	14.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
Age group									
15 - 19	0.3	0.0	0.3	12.2	37.4	14.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
20 - 24	2.6	24.5	4.4	14.2	16.0	14.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
25 - 29	11.9	45.5	16.1	12.9	6.1	12.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kurdistan Region	11.3	42.4	17.7	7.3	7.9	7.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
Iraq	6.1	32.1	8.7	13.3	13.9	13.4	100.0	100.0	100.0

Continued

Table 8 Employment

Youth who believe information on job opportunities is available/believe job opportunities are available/ registered in the MoLSA employment offices in order to find or change job

Level of disaggregation	Information on job opportunities is available			Job opportunities are available			Registered in the MoLSA employment offices		
Governorate	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	30.9	21.2	27.4	14.6	7.1	11.9	39.1	14.1	29.9
Nineveh	36.7	32.2	36.3	29.0	50.0	30.6	16.1	32.2	17.4
Sulaymaniyah	48.8	40.5	44.2	26.9	18.2	22.0	19.3	23.1	21.5
Kirkuk	56.6	52.7	55.9	28.3	47.4	31.4	12.1	21.1	13.6
Erbil	74.0	81.8	77.6	22.7	16.6	19.8	53.6	65.2	59.0
Diyala	9.4	23.1	12.6	16.4	30.8	19.7	4.7	0.0	3.6
Anbar	31.1	9.7	26.9	34.0	14.6	30.2	6.7	0.0	5.4
Baghdad	48.1	54.9	49.2	27.2	54.9	31.9	5.0	14.7	6.6
Babel	26.7	40.4	32.1	19.9	28.7	23.3	19.9	0.0	12.1
Kerbala	17.6	37.3	18.7	51.1	..	53.6	2.0	0.0	1.9
Wasit	61.2	8.6	55.5	34.8	39.7	35.4	45.6	0.0	40.6
Salah al-Din	34.0	23.6	32.6	51.8	35.0	49.5	12.5	0.0	10.8
Najaf	11.1	57.1	20.6	18.5	57.1	26.5	0.0	0.0	0.0
Qadisiya	37.2	94.8	59.1	46.8	0.0	29.0	43.6	44.8	44.0
Muthana	69.7	0.0	69.7	58.7	0.0	58.7	25.6	0.0	25.6
Thi Qar	27.8	28.4	28.0	39.4	33.6	37.6	17.9	5.2	14.0
Missan	22.9	12.4	20.1	13.3	8.0	11.9	15.3	1.5	11.7
Basra	31.1	66.1	33.6	50.6	66.1	51.8	16.7	0.0	15.5
Locality									
Urban areas	38.5	48.4	40.8	32.9	31.6	32.6	13.8	18.5	14.9
Rural areas	39.1	38.2	38.9	31.8	31.0	31.7	18.2	16.7	17.9
Age group									
15 - 19	36.4	37.4	36.6	26.5	26.5	26.5	9.7	16.4	11.0
20 - 24	40.1	49.8	42.2	36.7	31.9	35.6	15.3	17.6	15.9
25 - 29	39.1	47.3	41.2	32.9	34.8	33.4	20.5	20.0	20.4
Kurdistan Region	57.5	54.9	56.2	23.3	16.7	20.0	37.4	38.4	37.9
Iraq	38.7	45.8	40.3	32.6	31.4	32.3	15.0	18.1	15.7

Table 9 Relationship with Parents

Youth by views on who makes important decisions in the family (%)

Level of disaggregation	Father			Mother			Father and Mother		
Governorate	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Dahuk	45.1	31.2	38.1	2.4	2.9	2.7	12.2	13.7	13.0
Nineveh	43.1	36.4	39.8	3.6	7.7	5.7	18.1	16.8	17.5
Sulaymaniyah	34.2	33.8	34.0	9.2	4.7	7.0	12.0	13.5	12.8
Kirkuk	63.4	44.5	55.1	4.1	1.6	3.0	4.9	12.6	8.2
Arbil	43.1	35.4	39.5	9.3	7.6	8.5	14.3	14.5	14.4
Diyala	48.5	25.5	39.5	10.3	7.5	9.2	5.1	7.3	6.0
Anbar	26.5	25.4	26.0	4.0	1.1	2.7	21.9	29.1	25.2
Baghdad	50.9	46.5	49.0	7.7	8.0	7.8	11.0	13.7	12.2
Babel	27.5	20.4	24.1	11.5	5.9	8.8	4.3	14.7	9.4
Kerbala	57.5	47.1	53.8	0.0	3.5	1.2	6.5	15.7	9.7
Wasit	59.1	46.7	53.5	4.7	7.4	5.9	5.1	8.1	6.5
Salah al-Din	38.4	32.9	36.1	6.2	7.8	6.8	20.5	23.7	21.9
Najaf	39.2	31.6	36.0	7.8	21.1	13.5	19.6	21.1	20.2
Qadisiya	41.6	43.3	42.5	2.4	2.7	2.6	20.0	13.9	16.7
Muthana	47.3	55.9	49.7	10.6	0.0	7.6	17.3	8.7	14.9
Dhi Qar	49.0	40.5	45.3	2.5	9.8	5.7	12.6	19.4	15.6
Maysan	48.0	48.4	48.1	2.9	4.9	3.6	9.1	6.3	8.1
Basra	29.1	27.1	28.2	6.9	0.3	4.0	25.8	29.6	27.5
Locality									
Urban areas	39.6	33.8	37.0	6.4	5.9	6.2	15.2	17.7	16.3
Rural areas	56.4	45.7	51.5	5.9	6.6	6.2	8.8	13.1	10.8
Age group									
15 - 19	50.0	45.3	47.8	4.6	5.1	4.9	16.5	21.7	18.9
20 - 24	44.5	36.2	41.0	6.7	6.3	6.5	11.9	14.6	13.0
25 - 29	36.1	25.7	31.5	8.0	7.6	7.8	11.1	9.8	10.6
Kurdistan Region	40.0	33.7	36.9	7.7	5.2	6.5	12.9	13.9	13.4
Iraq	44.3	37.3	41.2	6.3	6.1	6.2	13.4	16.3	14.7

To be continued

Table 9 Relationship with Parents

Youth by views on who makes important decisions in the family (%)

Level of disaggregation	Family members			Relatives or undefined			Total		
Governorate	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	40.2	48.1	44.2	0.0	4.0	2.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Nineveh	35.2	34.9	35.0	0.0	4.2	2.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sulaymaniyah	44.6	46.6	45.6	0.0	1.4	0.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kirkuk	27.6	41.4	33.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Erbil	32.5	42.4	37.2	0.8	0.0	0.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
Diyala	35.7	54.3	42.9	0.5	5.4	2.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
Anbar	46.2	40.4	43.5	1.4	4.0	2.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
Baghdad	29.6	26.5	28.3	0.7	5.3	2.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Babel	53.7	49.8	51.8	3.1	9.1	6.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kerbala	33.9	26.6	31.3	2.2	7.0	3.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wasit	30.8	37.0	33.6	0.3	0.8	0.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
Salah al-Din	34.3	35.2	34.7	0.6	0.4	0.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
Najaf	33.3	23.7	29.2	0.0	2.6	1.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Qadisiya	33.6	31.7	32.5	2.4	8.5	5.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Muthana	23.8	35.5	27.1	0.9	0.0	0.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Thi Qar	35.4	29.1	32.7	0.5	1.2	0.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
Missan	38.3	39.5	38.7	1.7	0.9	1.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
Basra	38.2	41.7	39.7	0.0	1.3	0.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
Locality									
Urban areas	38.0	39.2	38.5	0.8	3.5	2.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Rural areas	28.4	30.6	29.4	0.5	3.9	2.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Age group									
15 - 19	28.2	26.4	27.4	0.7	1.5	1.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
20 - 24	36.1	40.2	37.8	1.0	2.7	1.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
25 - 29	44.3	48.7	46.2	0.5	8.2	3.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kurdistan Region	39.2	45.6	42.3	0.3	1.6	0.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
Iraq	35.3	36.7	35.9	0.7	3.6	2.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Continued

Table 10 Relationship with Parents

Youth by financial dependence on the family (%)

Level of disaggregation	Fully dependent			Partially dependent			Independent			Undefined			Total		
Governorate	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	41.4	68.8	55.2	29.6	19.4	24.5	29.0	11.9	20.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Nineveh	41.8	97.0	69.5	23.6	2.5	13.0	34.6	0.5	17.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sulaymaniyah	52.7	78.4	65.3	21.3	9.8	15.7	26.0	11.8	19.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kirkuk	40.2	86.4	60.4	43.9	11.0	29.5	15.9	2.6	10.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Erbil	56.9	81.7	68.6	16.9	7.7	12.5	26.2	10.6	18.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Diyala	51.0	82.7	63.4	25.2	10.5	19.5	23.8	6.8	17.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Anbar	44.4	94.3	67.4	28.0	0.8	15.5	27.6	4.8	17.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Baghdad	45.5	86.0	63.0	21.5	9.2	16.2	32.9	4.3	20.6	0.0	0.5	0.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
Babel	29.2	97.1	62.4	27.2	1.1	14.4	43.6	0.9	22.8	0.0	0.9	0.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kerbala	34.5	89.5	54.1	36.1	1.3	23.7	29.4	9.2	22.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wasit	56.5	86.5	70.0	26.6	11.2	19.6	17.0	2.4	10.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Salah al-Din	53.8	77.6	63.7	26.8	13.5	21.3	19.4	8.9	15.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Najaf	37.3	97.4	62.9	25.5	2.6	15.7	37.3	0.0	21.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Qadisiya	43.8	86.8	67.2	17.6	7.6	12.2	38.6	5.6	20.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Muthana	46.2	100.0	61.4	9.9	0.0	7.1	43.0	0.0	30.9	0.9	0.0	0.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Thi Qar	65.9	89.4	76.1	21.9	8.1	15.9	12.3	2.4	8.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Missan	40.1	80.9	54.1	22.3	13.3	19.2	37.7	5.8	26.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Basra	56.0	96.4	73.8	18.5	1.6	11.0	25.5	2.1	15.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Locality															
Urban areas	47.6	87.7	65.3	21.4	7.0	15.0	31.0	5.2	19.6	0.0	0.1	0.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Rural areas	45.4	88.6	65.2	30.4	7.6	19.9	24.3	3.5	14.8	0.0	0.2	0.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Age group															
15 - 19	72.1	94.6	82.7	19.8	3.2	12.0	7.9	2.0	5.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
20 - 24	41.2	89.1	61.4	28.5	6.8	19.3	30.4	4.2	19.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
25 - 29	19.6	75.8	44.2	23.2	14.2	19.3	57.1	9.7	36.4	0.0	0.2	0.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kurdistan Region	51.5	77.1	64.0	21.7	11.5	16.7	26.8	11.4	19.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Iraq	47.0	88.0	65.3	23.9	7.2	16.4	29.1	4.7	18.2	0.0	0.2	0.1	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 11 Youth Choices

Young people who are free to choose university/major/spouse (%)

Level of disaggregation	Free to choose university/branch			Free to choose spouse			practising a certain hobby		
Governorate	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	90.9	72.1	81.4	90.9	90.9	90.9	44.8	18.4	31.5
Nineveh	84.8	..	87.5	96.4	58.0	77.0	71.4	16.3	44.2
Sulaymaniyah	63.9	42.9	52.0	94.9	85.0	89.9	76.0	72.6	74.3
Kirkuk	64.4	..	76.8	85.9	67.6	78.0	72.0	40.9	58.4
Erbil	47.8	37.7	42.4	81.3	68.5	75.0	76.3	65.3	71.1
Diyala	90.6	82.7	88.3	93.0	68.0	83.4	32.5	18.7	27.1
Anbar	82.6	93.3	86.7	93.6	67.5	81.0	64.7	21.9	44.9
Baghdad	59.5	65.8	62.5	97.0	87.7	93.0	41.3	15.6	30.1
Babel	87.2	87.2	87.2	95.5	91.7	93.8	62.1	50.6	56.4
Kerbala	82.7	69.1	78.2	94.7	56.8	81.2	65.5	41.1	56.9
Wasit	72.9	76.2	74.4	87.8	74.8	81.9	55.5	38.0	47.6
Salah al-Din	69.1	79.4	72.9	87.6	75.8	82.8	68.0	45.8	58.7
Najaf	75.0	25.0	50.0	92.7	92.0	92.4	72.5	47.4	61.8
Qadisiya	91.1	..	97.3	83.4	47.8	63.9	88.5	65.1	75.8
Muthana	59.0	0.0	59.0	92.0	76.9	87.9	72.2	60.1	68.8
Thi Qar	87.3	84.2	86.3	93.6	69.8	83.8	59.1	30.6	46.7
Missan	79.0	..	82.3	90.8	78.9	86.8	56.2	12.7	41.2
Basra	64.5	62.0	63.6	96.0	82.0	90.2	49.7	43.7	47.0
Locality									
Urban areas	70.9	66.3	68.8	93.1	75.9	85.7	59.7	38.4	50.3
Rural areas	71.1	73.9	71.9	93.7	75.1	85.4	55.2	25.6	41.6
Age group									
15 - 19	67.3	78.6	73.7	90.7	73.0	82.4	67.3	36.6	52.8
20 - 24	68.6	66.8	67.8	92.3	75.8	85.3	57.7	34.7	48.0
25 - 29	74.5	62.8	70.0	96.0	77.2	87.8	46.9	31.3	40.1
Kurdistan Region	61.3	45.5	52.8	90.0	82.7	86.4	68.7	56.4	62.7
Iraq	71.0	67.1	69.3	93.3	75.7	85.6	58.4	34.6	47.8

Table 12 Security and Citizenship

Youth by hobbies and belief in the efficiency of security and citizenship

Governorate	Believing in youth effective role in improving public security			Feeling secure in their neighborhoods			Feeling socially secure		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	91.2	88.8	90.0	90.5	85.9	88.2	94.4	93.6	94.0
Nineveh	93.8	93.7	93.7	88.6	87.8	88.2	93.4	88.5	91.0
Sulaymaniyah	82.9	84.5	83.7	80.0	82.9	81.5	88.8	87.0	87.9
Kirkuk	71.9	86.9	78.5	93.9	98.4	95.9	95.9	95.3	95.7
Erbil	95.1	93.2	94.2	94.7	94.5	94.6	92.4	91.0	91.8
Diyala	95.6	95.6	95.6	69.0	61.5	66.0	75.0	65.1	71.2
Anbar	85.1	79.8	82.7	84.0	87.0	85.4	77.2	79.2	78.1
Baghdad	88.3	89.6	88.9	80.1	81.5	80.7	57.9	45.7	52.6
Babel	91.8	89.4	90.6	99.0	98.0	98.5	69.4	67.7	68.6
Kerbala	97.8	93.4	96.3	93.7	94.2	93.9	92.5	87.6	90.8
Wasit	89.5	86.6	88.2	85.4	86.4	85.9	89.6	90.7	90.1
Salah al-Din	92.5	87.7	90.5	83.5	81.5	82.6	77.6	75.9	76.9
Najaf	94.1	78.9	87.6	96.1	92.1	94.4	84.3	73.7	79.8
Qadisiya	98.4	98.0	98.2	95.7	98.7	97.3	45.7	36.7	40.8
Muthana	95.8	94.0	95.2	96.6	98.0	97.0	98.4	94.0	97.2
Thi Qar	94.0	93.5	93.8	94.9	94.5	94.7	93.4	82.4	88.6
Missan	86.8	86.8	86.8	72.5	76.5	73.8	80.7	80.2	80.5
Basra	90.1	93.8	91.7	92.3	90.5	91.5	86.1	85.6	85.9
Locality									
Urban areas	89.1	89.6	89.3	88.0	88.6	88.3	79.4	72.3	76.3
Rural areas	93.1	91.1	92.2	83.7	84.4	84.0	78.9	77.1	78.0
Age group									
15 - 19	89.3	89.6	89.4	87.5	85.5	86.5	80.7	72.1	76.7
20 - 24	90.4	90.0	90.2	86.6	89.1	87.6	78.9	74.3	77.0
25 - 29	91.5	90.8	91.2	86.2	88.0	87.0	77.6	75.5	76.7
Kurdistan Region	89.2	88.5	88.9	87.8	87.6	87.7	91.4	90.0	90.7
Iraq	90.2	90.0	90.1	86.8	87.3	87.0	79.3	73.7	76.8

Table 13 Societal and Political Participation

Youth by Societal and political participation

	Participation in the last elections			Affiliated to a party, assembly			Watching news and political events			Participation in demonstrations or sit-ins strike		
Governorate	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Females	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	83.5	77.1	80.4	70.3	48.2	59.6	71.4	59.2	65.5	7.9	8.4	8.1
Nineveh	71.5	45.0	58.1	8.2	0.0	4.1	49.1	33.4	41.2	6.7	0.0	3.3
Sulaymaniyah	75.6	74.9	75.3	35.9	17.3	26.7	41.2	24.4	32.8	20.0	8.5	14.4
Kirkuk	46.2	52.0	48.7	20.3	5.4	13.9	53.3	49.3	51.6	6.6	0.0	3.8
Erbil	75.8	80.1	77.8	26.4	9.4	18.5	49.7	29.6	40.4	5.8	7.7	6.7
Diyala	76.6	71.5	74.6	6.8	8.0	7.3	71.2	59.0	66.5	1.2	0.0	0.7
Anbar	73.6	49.4	62.0	0.5	0.0	0.3	43.9	23.9	34.4	8.7	0.0	4.6
Baghdad	76.4	60.0	69.4	5.2	2.5	4.0	50.1	37.8	44.8	7.9	0.6	4.8
Babel	72.6	61.0	67.3	5.6	1.4	3.7	56.3	30.1	44.4	7.0	0.0	3.8
Kerbala	59.2	49.3	55.7	1.9	0.0	1.2	44.1	21.2	36.0	2.3	0.0	1.5
Wasit	70.2	56.2	63.9	2.9	0.0	1.6	47.9	25.3	37.5	7.3	0.0	3.9
Salah al-Din	80.8	74.6	78.3	2.1	1.9	2.1	54.5	27.8	43.8	5.1	2.5	4.1
Najaf	78.0	72.0	75.8	24.4	8.0	18.2	48.8	48.0	48.5	2.4	0.0	1.5
Qadisiya	74.0	42.0	56.5	3.1	0.9	1.9	58.4	57.1	57.7	5.5	0.0	2.5
Muthana	77.4	67.5	74.7	5.8	0.0	4.2	44.1	8.4	34.0	9.3	0.0	6.7
Thi Qar	76.6	69.1	73.6	3.4	8.6	5.5	36.2	33.8	35.2	1.3	0.0	0.8
Missan	82.3	66.1	76.9	3.5	2.0	3.0	54.2	21.5	43.3	10.3	0.0	6.9
Basra	56.0	50.5	53.7	3.2	0.4	2.1	35.0	31.7	33.7	6.9	0.4	4.2
Locality												
Urban areas	70.3	59.0	65.4	12.0	5.9	9.4	48.6	34.7	42.6	6.9	1.7	4.6
Rural areas	77.9	62.9	71.3	5.5	3.2	4.5	52.2	37.8	45.9	6.7	0.5	4.0
Age group												
15 - 19	22.6	21.1	21.9	8.8	2.4	5.9	34.7	30.8	32.9	7.4	0.9	4.4
20 - 24	81.6	64.9	74.5	8.8	5.7	7.5	48.9	33.7	42.5	5.3	1.7	3.8
25 - 29	87.9	78.3	83.7	12.8	6.1	9.9	59.1	41.1	51.2	8.7	1.2	5.4
Kurdistan Region	77.6	77.2	77.4	41.7	23.3	32.9	52.8	35.8	44.6	10.4	8.2	9.3
Iraq	72.4	60.1	67.1	10.2	5.1	8.0	49.6	35.6	43.5	6.8	1.4	4.4

To be continued

Table 13 Societal and Political Participation

Youth by Societal and political participation

	Belonging to a civil society organization			Participating in media activities			Participation in voluntary works		
Governorate	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	2.0	0.7	1.4	4.7	2.1	3.4	15.9	14.3	15.1
Nineveh	2.1	0.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	45.2	16.0	30.5
Sulaymaniyah	2.6	2.8	2.7	6.3	1.5	4.0	18.2	9.3	13.9
Kirkuk	0.0	2.7	1.2	0.5	0.0	0.3	0.5	2.7	1.4
Erbil	9.4	6.7	8.2	1.4	1.1	1.3	10.0	12.1	11.0
Diyala	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.0	0.0	1.8	4.8	0.0	2.9
Anbar	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.5	0.0	1.3	23.8	11.9	18.1
Baghdad	0.9	0.0	0.5	0.5	0.0	0.3	7.3	3.8	5.8
Babel	1.2	1.4	1.3	2.2	1.4	1.9	64.4	42.6	54.4
Kerbala	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.1	0.0	0.7	23.0	2.0	15.6
Wasit	4.3	0.6	2.6	6.2	0.0	3.4	11.6	2.9	7.6
Salah al-Din	3.8	0.0	2.3	3.8	0.0	2.3	22.2	6.3	15.8
Najaf	9.8	8.0	9.1	4.9	0.0	3.0	87.8	52.0	74.2
Qadisiya	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0	0.0	0.5	2.1	0.0	0.9
Muthana	1.2	0.0	0.8	4.7	0.0	3.3	34.6	32.9	34.2
Thi Qar	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.9	0.8	21.1	9.8	16.5
Missan	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.0	0.0	2.0	11.0	0.0	7.3
Basra	0.5	0.0	0.3	6.7	1.8	4.7	19.1	6.6	14.0
Locality									
Urban areas	2.1	1.2	1.7	2.8	0.7	1.9	19.7	9.2	15.1
Rural areas	1.0	0.5	0.8	1.7	0.1	1.0	25.4	14.9	20.8
Age group									
15 - 19	0.7	0.6	0.7	1.3	0.5	0.9	16.0	8.5	12.5
20 - 24	1.5	0.4	1.0	2.5	0.4	1.6	23.3	10.3	17.8
25 - 29	2.8	2.0	2.5	3.0	0.6	2.0	21.6	13.0	17.8
Kurdistan Region	4.9	3.6	4.3	4.2	1.5	2.9	14.7	11.5	13.2
Iraq	1.8	1.0	1.4	2.5	0.5	1.6	21.3	10.8	16.7

continued

Table 14 Information Technology

Governorate	Youth by IT usage														
	Owning a mobile phone			Average monthly expenditure on mobile recharge cards (IQD			Owning a computer			Using Internet			Communicating via social media (Facebook, Twitter, etc.)		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	94.9	60.8	77.7	21482	12230	17843	49.7	41.4	45.5	44.1	23.2	33.6	88.4	63.7	79.8
Nineveh	87.5	23.7	55.5	16382	8576	14714	38.1	11.1	24.6	27.8	4.9	16.3	21.5	4.1	12.8
Sulaymaniyah	95.7	66.1	81.2	15787	10983	13876	45.3	31.5	38.6	35.8	19.3	27.8	86.5	66.3	79.7
Kirkuk	93.1	44.5	71.9	13996	13883	13965	43.1	21.0	33.4	33.3	8.4	22.4	25.6	4.3	16.4
Erbil	92.0	72.6	82.9	22362	13981	18900	55.4	43.4	49.7	49.8	36.5	43.5	90.8	83.9	88.1
Diyala	93.1	52.0	77.1	16619	12072	15421	16.0	8.0	12.9	16.0	5.8	12.0	11.7	5.1	9.1
Anbar	87.0	29.6	60.4	18350	11940	16893	33.1	18.7	26.4	15.4	3.1	9.7	11.4	1.8	6.9
Baghdad	90.0	60.3	77.0	20261	14254	18211	37.8	28.4	33.7	28.3	14.2	22.1	23.4	9.0	17.1
Babel	95.2	48.9	72.6	23150	12685	19708	40.9	26.0	33.6	25.0	10.8	18.0	19.7	3.9	12.0
Kerbala	88.5	37.4	70.4	13818	11685	13416	26.6	15.7	22.7	15.1	3.9	11.1	12.2	2.6	8.8
Wasit	82.6	35.3	61.3	16295	8842	14357	20.8	8.4	15.2	10.3	3.0	7.0	3.7	3.1	3.4
Salah al-Din	86.1	33.5	64.2	19335	13488	18066	26.9	22.1	24.9	19.0	8.9	14.8	13.9	4.2	9.9
Najaf	86.3	44.7	68.5	20443	12206	18148	25.5	5.3	16.9	24.5	2.6	14.9	17.6	0.0	10.1
Qadisiya	85.1	57.2	69.9	12217	14112	13061	23.2	7.1	14.5	20.6	1.3	10.1	17.4	0.7	8.3
Muthana	90.5	25.4	72.1	15260	9070	14644	14.3	4.3	11.5	6.4	0.0	4.6	5.5	0.0	4.0
Thi Qar	87.3	46.5	69.6	8920	8353	8755	16.7	5.1	11.7	6.7	3.7	5.4	5.6	3.0	4.5
Missan	93.4	41.6	75.6	13996	8064	12875	28.0	6.9	20.8	14.9	2.1	10.5	10.6	0.5	7.1
Basra	88.3	54.9	73.6	13178	9246	11884	32.2	22.6	28.0	27.4	14.4	21.6	24.2	9.5	17.8
Locality															
Urban areas	91.1	57.8	76.4	17732	12518	15991	38.2	26.4	33.0	28.6	14.1	22.2	25.9	11.2	19.6
Rural areas	86.6	28.1	59.7	16013	10229	14767	22.0	8.1	15.6	14.9	3.4	9.6	11.2	1.5	6.8
Age group															
15 - 19	78.5	31.6	56.3	13204	11126	12653	33.1	22.3	28.0	22.8	9.8	16.7	19.4	7.5	13.9
20 - 24	95.5	57.6	79.4	18706	12441	16782	36.1	20.9	29.7	27.0	13.5	21.3	24.4	9.7	18.3
25 - 29	97.9	66.0	84.0	19898	12558	17369	30.8	18.9	25.6	24.4	9.4	17.8	21.5	7.4	15.5
Kurdistan Region	94.2	67.0	80.9	19450	12371	16603	50.0	38.1	44.2	42.8	26.1	34.7	88.8	74.2	83.4
Iraq	89.8	49.0	71.6	17267	12132	15698	33.6	21.0	28.0	24.8	10.9	18.6	21.8	8.2	15.9

Table 15 Migration

Youth by current status of residence (%)

	Displaced			Migrant			Regular residence		
Governorate	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	15.7	17.4	16.5	3.6	3.7	3.7	80.3	77.0	78.7
Nineveh	2.1	4.1	3.1	2.1	2.0	2.0	95.9	93.9	94.9
Sulaymaniyah	7.0	5.2	6.1	3.9	3.7	3.8	83.1	84.5	83.8
Kirkuk	18.3	8.1	13.9	10.2	2.7	7.0	71.6	89.2	79.1
Erbil	0.5	1.1	0.8	1.4	0.6	1.0	86.8	88.8	87.7
Diyala	0.6	2.9	1.5	6.5	6.1	6.3	91.7	88.1	90.4
Anbar	5.3	3.8	4.6	0.5	0.6	0.5	94.2	95.6	94.9
Baghdad	4.4	3.9	4.2	1.9	3.2	2.4	92.7	92.3	92.5
Babel	4.4	1.2	3.0	0.0	3.8	1.7	94.6	91.4	93.1
Kerbala	5.3	2.0	4.1	1.9	0.0	1.2	90.6	95.9	92.5
Wasit	3.1	1.2	2.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	94.5	95.9	95.1
Salah al-Din	1.3	3.2	2.1	4.2	4.5	4.3	94.5	92.3	93.6
Najaf	2.4	4.0	3.0	0.0	4.0	1.5	97.6	92.0	95.5
Qadisiya	0.0	7.4	4.1	0.0	3.7	2.0	100.0	88.9	93.9
Muthana	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.9	0.8	100.0	97.1	99.2
Thi Qar	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	93.6	98.1	95.4
Missan	0.0	2.0	0.7	2.0	4.0	2.7	87.0	80.0	84.7
Basra	3.9	1.4	2.9	1.2	0.8	1.0	94.9	97.8	96.1
Locality									
Urban areas	4.2	4.6	4.4	2.3	2.8	2.5	90.8	90.1	90.5
Rural areas	3.9	2.2	3.1	2.0	2.0	2.0	93.6	94.9	94.1
Age group									
15 - 19	4.5	3.9	4.2	2.2	3.9	2.9	90.8	89.8	90.4
20 - 24	4.2	3.7	4.0	2.9	1.2	2.2	90.5	93.1	91.6
25 - 29	3.7	4.2	3.9	1.2	3.5	2.2	93.5	90.3	92.1
Kurdistan Region	6.7	6.8	6.8	3.0	2.7	2.8	83.7	84.1	83.9
Iraq	4.1	3.9	4.0	2.2	2.6	2.4	91.6	91.5	91.5

Table 16 Migration

Desire to immigration

Governorate	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	21.1	14.3	17.8
Nineveh	26.7	1.0	13.7
Sulaymaniyah	42.3	36.8	39.7
Kirkuk	27.4	19.6	24.1
Erbil	53.8	29.8	42.7
Diyala	13.8	12.8	13.4
Anbar	19.0	9.9	14.6
Baghdad	40.9	17.1	30.8
Babel	19.4	12.0	16.0
Kerbala	27.9	9.6	21.4
Wasit	17.2	4.7	11.6
Salah al-Din	15.8	6.5	12.1
Najaf	22.0	12.0	18.2
Qadisiya	11.5	19.1	15.7
Muthana	12.4	0.0	8.9
Thi Qar	22.7	4.8	15.5
Missan	36.3	16.1	29.6
Basra	22.4	6.0	15.7
Locality			
Urban areas	30.5	14.3	23.5
Rural areas	24.0	12.3	18.8
Age group			
15 - 19	28.2	16.9	23.0
20 - 24	30.3	14.7	23.7
25 - 29	26.7	10.3	19.6
Kurdistan Region	41.4	28.9	35.5
Iraq	28.7	13.7	22.2

Table 17 Migration

Youth by reason of migration (%)

	No job opportunities			Likelihood of obtaining a higher income or more job opportunities			Study			No security or stability		
Governorate	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	14.9	15.5	15.1	14.1	11.5	13.1	25.6	17.5	22.4	21.1	33.1	25.8
Nineveh	32.4	0.0	31.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	9.8	0.0	9.5	30.8	..	33.4
Sulaymaniyah	36.8	18.9	28.8	12.6	6.1	9.7	11.6	33.8	21.5	19.1	22.3	20.6
Kirkuk	7.4	0.0	4.8	25.9	0.0	16.9	1.8	44.8	16.9	37.0	17.2	30.1
Erbil	39.0	35.3	37.8	15.5	6.7	12.7	8.5	22.3	12.9	11.1	9.3	10.5
Diyala	17.4	22.5	19.3	8.7	15.0	11.0	13.0	0.0	8.3	30.4	22.5	27.5
Anbar	13.1	14.6	13.6	16.5	5.5	13.0	42.5	23.6	36.4	9.6	47.2	21.8
Baghdad	13.0	11.9	12.8	51.8	31.8	47.1	2.3	7.5	3.5	11.7	18.7	13.3
Babel	10.5	30.6	17.3	11.6	0.0	7.6	6.3	12.3	8.3	23.2	47.0	31.3
Kerbala	4.0	0.0	3.4	31.1	0.0	26.1	4.0	64.1	13.6	24.4	35.9	26.3
Wasit	43.7	60.6	46.8	19.8	13.1	18.5	13.8	0.0	11.2	10.8	0.0	8.8
Salah al-Din	32.5	0.0	25.6	5.4	0.0	4.2	10.8	10.2	10.7	32.3	69.9	40.3
Najaf	33.3	66.7	41.7	11.1	0.0	8.3	11.1	0.0	8.3	0.0	33.3	8.3
Qadisiya	36.4	0.0	12.1	0.0	4.5	3.0	18.2	4.5	9.0	36.4	62.6	53.9
Muthana	8.1	0.0	8.1	18.9	0.0	18.9	63.5	0.0	63.5	0.0	0.0	0.0
Thi Qar	44.0	40.0	43.5	5.6	0.0	4.9	11.2	60.0	17.2	5.6	0.0	4.9
Missan	49.9	34.3	47.1	14.3	16.1	14.6	5.5	12.4	6.8	13.8	0.0	11.3
Basra	24.0	23.4	23.9	27.2	46.8	30.2	8.7	0.0	7.3	4.3	23.4	7.3
Locality												
Urban areas	20.5	15.6	19.2	25.4	8.0	20.8	9.9	23.4	13.5	16.3	29.6	19.8
Rural areas	35.3	27.7	33.1	27.4	30.9	28.4	5.4	4.0	5.0	14.9	12.7	14.3
Age group												
15 - 19	23.3	13.5	20.0	16.7	14.3	15.9	14.5	32.2	20.5	17.7	24.6	20.1
20 - 24	22.5	17.5	21.2	27.8	16.0	24.7	8.6	14.7	10.2	14.1	24.1	16.7
25 - 29	26.8	26.5	26.7	28.3	9.6	24.0	5.7	11.3	7.0	18.0	28.1	20.3
Kurdistan Region	35.4	24.4	31.2	14.1	7.0	11.4	11.8	28.2	18.1	15.6	19.3	17.0
Iraq	24.0	18.7	22.6	25.9	13.9	22.7	8.8	18.4	11.4	16.0	25.2	18.5

To be continued

Table 17 Migration

Youth by reason of migration (%)

	Build a better future in another country			Join family or send Aids to family			Undefined			Total		
Governorate	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	16.2	7.8	12.9	8.1	14.7	10.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Nineveh	23.1	0.0	22.2	3.8	0.0	3.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sulaymaniyah	13.2	10.8	12.1	6.6	6.1	6.4	0.0	2.0	0.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kirkuk	27.8	37.9	31.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Erbil	22.4	19.0	21.3	3.5	7.4	4.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Diyala	13.0	40.1	23.0	17.4	0.0	11.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Anbar	18.2	9.1	15.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Baghdad	21.2	26.5	22.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.7	0.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
Babel	35.8	0.0	23.6	6.3	10.2	7.6	6.3	0.0	4.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kerbala	36.4	0.0	30.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wasit	12.0	26.3	14.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Salah al-Din	10.8	19.9	12.8	8.1	0.0	6.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Najaf	0.0	0.0	0.0	44.4	0.0	33.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Qadisiya	9.1	28.4	22.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Muthana	9.5	0.0	9.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Thi Qar	33.6	0.0	29.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Missan	16.5	37.2	20.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Basra	27.2	0.0	22.9	0.0	6.3	1.0	8.7	0.0	7.3	100.0	100.0	100.0
Locality												
Urban areas	22.7	18.1	21.5	4.0	3.5	3.9	1.0	1.8	1.3	100.0	100.0	100.0
Rural areas	16.3	21.8	17.9	0.7	2.8	1.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Age group												
15 - 19	25.0	9.3	19.7	2.7	2.4	2.6	0.0	3.7	1.3	100.0	100.0	100.0
20 - 24	20.0	22.7	20.7	5.3	4.3	5.0	1.6	0.8	1.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
25 - 29	20.9	22.2	21.2	0.2	2.3	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kurdistan Region	17.8	13.4	16.1	5.3	7.7	6.2	0.0	0.1	0.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Iraq	21.2	19.0	20.6	3.2	3.3	3.2	0.8	1.4	0.9	100.0	100.0	100.0

continued

Table 18 Youth future aspirations

Youth by future aspirations (%) (first priority)

	Complete study			Get job opportunities			Marriage			Migration			Buy a house		
Governorate	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	42.4	36.2	39.3	12.7	10.8	11.7	5.5	8.1	6.8	2.2	0.6	1.4	20.9	24.7	22.9
Nineveh	24.3	16.4	20.3	32.6	1.3	16.9	8.3	9.6	9.0	9.7	3.1	6.4	14.4	22.8	18.7
Sulaymaniyah	40.1	40.3	40.2	24.2	15.9	20.1	8.5	4.3	6.4	1.7	1.8	1.7	6.8	12.5	9.6
Kirkuk	50.0	41.9	46.5	24.0	2.6	14.6	6.5	5.8	6.2	0.8	0.0	0.5	10.2	15.2	12.4
Erbil	36.0	38.3	37.1	21.4	18.5	20.0	4.8	5.5	5.1	5.3	1.3	3.4	12.0	10.6	11.3
Diyala	37.2	18.5	29.9	33.2	19.9	28.0	11.1	24.6	16.3	5.1	5.4	5.2	5.1	11.9	7.8
Anbar	38.8	28.8	34.2	25.8	10.8	18.8	18.0	21.6	19.7	0.6	0.8	0.7	7.1	11.5	9.2
Baghdad	25.3	25.1	25.2	23.6	5.7	15.8	8.6	14.2	11.0	12.5	2.8	8.3	11.1	18.1	14.1
Babel	23.8	32.3	27.9	29.9	5.7	18.1	15.7	9.9	12.9	7.7	0.9	4.4	13.0	23.1	17.9
Kerbala	35.2	28.7	32.9	23.3	1.3	15.5	26.0	32.8	28.4	0.0	2.2	0.8	12.0	14.8	13.0
Wasit	49.4	38.9	44.7	27.0	11.5	20.0	4.0	12.1	7.7	6.1	0.4	3.5	7.2	23.3	14.5
Salah al-Din	43.4	28.9	37.4	19.2	8.9	14.9	8.7	14.8	11.3	1.8	0.4	1.2	9.1	10.2	9.5
Najaf	15.7	13.2	14.6	51.0	28.9	41.6	13.7	13.2	13.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	13.7	21.1	16.9
Qadisiya	43.2	38.3	40.6	33.6	26.1	29.5	4.3	2.7	3.4	2.4	3.6	3.0	10.9	20.3	16.0
Muthana	44.6	27.1	39.7	28.4	2.3	21.0	10.9	18.1	12.9	3.3	2.3	3.0	6.6	31.1	13.5
Thi Qar	37.6	25.3	32.3	41.6	15.4	30.2	3.9	16.5	9.4	1.4	0.0	0.8	7.2	19.5	12.5
Missan	40.4	27.4	35.9	41.6	33.1	38.7	9.4	6.5	8.4	1.1	3.7	2.0	3.4	22.7	10.0
Basra	28.6	21.6	25.5	32.0	10.2	22.4	9.3	21.8	14.8	2.9	1.3	2.2	10.3	18.9	14.1
Locality															
Urban areas	33.6	31.3	32.6	26.9	10.8	19.8	8.7	9.1	8.9	6.4	1.8	4.3	10.5	18.1	13.9
Rural areas	33.3	20.3	27.3	32.1	10.0	21.9	11.6	22.4	16.6	3.3	2.2	2.8	9.7	18.2	13.6
Age group															
15 - 19	53.7	45.1	49.7	19.8	7.9	14.2	7.0	15.5	11.0	4.4	1.3	2.9	3.4	8.2	5.6
20 - 24	27.1	22.1	25.0	34.9	11.9	25.1	11.4	13.1	12.1	5.9	2.1	4.3	10.8	21.6	15.4
25 - 29	13.9	8.2	11.4	31.2	13.0	23.2	10.4	8.9	9.7	6.6	2.6	4.9	19.4	29.8	23.9
Kurdistan Region	39.2	38.6	38.9	20.5	15.5	18.0	6.4	5.7	6.1	3.1	1.3	2.2	12.0	15.0	13.4
Iraq	33.5	28.1	31.1	28.3	10.5	20.4	9.5	13.0	11.1	5.5	1.9	3.9	10.3	18.2	13.8

Table 18 Youth future aspirations

Youth by future aspirations (%) (first priority)

	Develop hobbies			Safe life			Prosperity of Iraq			No aspirations			Total		
Governorate	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Duhouk	1.2	1.1	1.2	5.7	11.4	8.6	1.5	1.9	1.7	1.1	4.0	2.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
Nineveh	0.0	4.6	2.3	1.7	19.8	10.8	0.9	2.9	1.9	0.0	12.0	6.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sulaymaniyah	1.1	9.2	5.1	2.1	4.9	3.4	1.5	2.1	1.8	5.8	3.3	4.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kirkuk	0.8	2.6	1.6	6.5	21.5	13.0	0.0	7.9	3.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Erbil	4.0	8.3	6.1	3.8	7.7	5.6	1.1	2.6	1.8	3.4	2.6	3.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Diyala	0.0	1.5	0.6	5.0	1.5	3.6	0.5	9.3	3.9	0.0	0.7	0.3	100.0	100.0	100.0
Anbar	0.4	3.3	1.7	2.4	9.2	5.5	0.7	4.5	2.5	1.7	6.0	3.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Baghdad	0.4	0.5	0.4	5.1	12.3	8.3	3.7	2.4	3.1	3.3	17.5	9.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
Babel	0.0	1.1	0.5	1.9	10.4	6.0	2.7	4.1	3.4	0.0	11.6	5.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kerbala	0.0	2.6	0.9	0.7	15.3	5.9	1.4	0.0	0.9	1.4	2.2	1.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wasit	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.3	5.9	4.5	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.0	4.2	2.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
Salah al-Din	0.6	1.7	1.0	13.3	22.4	17.1	0.9	5.1	2.7	0.6	5.1	2.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
Najaf	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	10.5	4.5	2.0	5.3	3.4	0.0	7.9	3.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
Qadisiya	0.0	3.6	1.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.4	0.8	5.4	3.3	100.0	100.0	100.0
Muthana	2.8	6.7	3.9	0.0	2.3	0.7	0.9	8.0	2.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Thi Qar	2.3	3.9	3.0	3.6	11.4	7.0	0.0	3.9	1.7	1.4	4.2	2.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
Missan	1.1	0.0	0.7	1.3	0.9	1.2	0.8	0.0	0.6	0.0	1.9	0.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Basra	2.4	4.4	3.3	0.8	9.1	4.5	2.1	6.2	3.9	4.3	5.1	4.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
Locality															
Urban areas	1.0	3.5	2.1	3.4	10.9	6.7	1.9	3.6	2.7	2.3	8.6	5.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Rural areas	0.5	1.8	1.1	3.8	11.5	7.3	1.1	3.3	2.1	0.7	6.7	3.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
Age group															
15 - 19	0.9	1.6	1.2	3.6	7.5	5.4	0.9	3.0	1.9	2.1	8.9	5.3	100.0	100.0	100.0
20 - 24	1.0	3.3	2.0	2.0	12.1	6.3	1.8	4.4	2.9	1.7	6.6	3.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
25 - 29	0.7	4.8	2.5	5.6	15.7	10.0	2.8	3.1	2.9	1.7	8.5	4.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Kurdistan Region	2.2	6.9	4.5	3.6	7.5	5.5	1.4	2.2	1.8	3.8	3.2	3.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
Iraq	0.9	3.0	1.8	3.5	11.1	6.9	1.7	3.5	2.5	1.9	8.0	4.6	100.0	100.0	100.0

continued

Annex III
Technical Notes Appendix

Introduction

The national effort in compiling the data and indicators for the Iraq NHDR 2014 had some limitations and faced some challenges. Iraq has not conducted a general census since the last conducted in 1997. Yet it succeeded in completing the [enumeration and counting] of the General Census Project in 2009. This helped overcome the problems of monitoring the demographic and structural changes that took place since the 1997 census.

Another challenge that the Central Statistics Organization (CSO) was successful in overcoming was the continuous coordination with the Kurdistan Region Statistics Office (KRSO). This was important for achieving true national coverage, in addition to having access to the Human Development indicators in the Kurdistan Region.

The statistical efforts were successful in two statistical analysis methodologies:

- The first is the analysis and production of the Human Development indicators on the basis of the annual statistical data available and the recent field surveys implemented by the official statistical offices.
- The second is the construction of new statistical indicators on the basis of the opinion polls namely the Youth Opinion Survey in 2012, which could be considered a quality contribution in constructing Human Development indicators for the youth segment.

The implementation of a complete portfolio on the Youth Development Indicator was a target that the CSO worked on for more than two years. The Youth Opinion Poll conducted in 2012 [box], in addition to the results of other surveys, have provided the experimenting ground for testing the methodologies related to constructing the new Youth Index. We think that this indicator complements the four main indicators, namely the Human Development Index, the Inequality-adjusted Human Development Index, the Gender Inequality Index, and the Multidimensional Poverty Index, and will be useful for countries preparing NHDRs on youth.

This section presents the methodologies used in computing the indicators for the Iraq National Human Development 2013. However, more information on the surveys used in this report could be obtained by referring to the methodology details of these surveys.

1 Implemented Surveys

BOX A3

Sources used in computing the Human Development Index

Indicator	Title of Survey	Year	Size of Sample	Support Provided
Human Development Index (HDI), Inequality Adjusted Human Development Index (IHDI)	Iraq Knowledge Network (IKN)	2011	28,875	UNDP
	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey	2011	36,580	Ministry of Health, UNICEF
	Iraq Household Socioeconomic Survey, IHSES-II	2012	25,500	World Bank
Gender Inequality Index (GII)	Iraq Poverty and Maternal Mortality Mapping (IPMM)	2013	311,411	UNFPA, World Bank UNICEF, WHO
Youth Development Index	Iraq Household Socioeconomic Survey, IHSES-II	2012	25,500	World Bank
	Iraq Knowledge Network (IKN)	2011	28,875	UNDP
	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey	2011	36,580	Ministry of Health, UNICEF
	Iraq Household Socioeconomic Survey, IHSES-I	2007	18,144	World Bank
Multidimensional Poverty Index	Iraq Knowledge Network (IKN)	2011	28,875	UNDP

1.1 Iraq Knowledge Network Survey (IKN-2011)

This survey was implemented jointly by the CSO and the KRSO as part of the Socioeconomic Monitoring System project. This project was implemented in partnership with a number of UN Agencies, which include UNFPA, UNDP, and WFP.

The survey was planned to be implemented in two rounds. The first round took place in 2011, in which the field researchers were able to cover 28,875 families in the 18 Iraqi governorates. The recorded data provided the statistical basis for generating indicators on the national and governorate levels, as well as district level urban and rural areas.

1.2 Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS4-2011)

This is a periodic survey that is implemented every 4 years, and provides data on the status of children and women. The fourth round of this survey was implemented in 2011 by the CSO and the KRSO in partnership with the Ministry of Health. The survey was based on a random sample of 18,800 families.

The importance of this survey stems from the need to respond to the international agreements, mainly Millennium Declaration and the MDGs adopted by 191 countries in September 2000, and the World Fit for Children agenda endorsed by 189 countries in May 2002. Both these commitment are based on the International Community pledges in the World Summit for Children in 1990.

1.3 Iraq Household Socioeconomic Survey II (IHSES-2012)

This is another periodic survey that is implemented every 5 years. The first survey was conducted in Iraq in the year 1971. The results of this survey are the main source for implementing the following:

- The update of the Poverty Measurement and Analysis database and the monitoring of the implementation of the National Poverty Reduction Strategy that was launched in 2009;
- Assessment of the socioeconomic status of the Iraqi family and the preparation of indicators to levels of Human Development;
- Filling the gap in data needed for the National Accounts indicators;
- Provision of detailed indicators on the consumption expenditures and their variations. This serves the policy making and planning that is related to pro-

duction, consumption, imports, and exports. It also provides details on individual income and its sources.
- Computing the Consumer Price Index

IHSES 2012 represents the second stage of the National Poverty Reduction Strategy project implemented by the CSO and the KRSO with support from the World Bank. The World Bank financed portions of the project and provided capacity building support through technical experts and methodologies.

The sample frame covered 25,500 families in all 18 governorates. The sample frame was structured in layers covering the 118 districts in Iraq. The samples were equal for each district, irrespective of its population weight. The size of the sample in each district was formed of 216 families using the [enumeration framework] of the 2009 General Census project.

1.4 Iraq Poverty and Maternal Mortality Mapping (IPMM-2013)

This survey was implemented by the CSO and the KRSO in partnership with a number of UN Agencies that include UNFPA, World Bank, UNICEF, and WHO. The field work was implemented in the period December 2012 to February 2013.

The size of the sample frame covered 311,411 families (about 2 million individuals) in all Iraqi governorates including the Kurdistan Region of Iraq. The sample frame was based on the [enumeration and] that was implemented in 2009. The number of households in the urban areas was 179,040 versus 132,372 families in the rural areas.

This survey provided very detailed information on the level of the smallest administrative unit in Iraq. These are the sub districts (the Nahyia), which are 393 in Iraq in total. The aim of the survey is to provide updated demographic statistics and the identification of poverty pockets to support better targeting of the poor in projects included in the National Poverty Reduction Strategy (Ministry of Planning, 2009). It also aims to support health policies needed to reduce maternal mortality in Iraq.

1.5 National Youth and Adolescent Survey (NYS-2009)

This survey was conducted by national statistics teams and youth teams in partnership with UNFPA and the Pan Arab Project for Family Health (PAPFAM). The survey focused on aspects that are important to youth in Iraq in the age group of 15-30, with the aim to support the policies and programmes related to this age group. The survey was implemented in all 18 governorates and covered a random sample of 6,730 families interviewing 15,080 youth individuals in the age group. The objectives of this survey included:

- Studying the knowledge, attitudes, and practices of youth in Iraq, with focus on the political and social transformations that took place in Iraq since 2003. This will help in formulating a national youth strategy that addresses the needs and aspirations of this age group;
- Developing a database on this age group to assist decision makers in supporting the improvement of the knowledge, practices, and attitudes of the youth and directing it for better physical, psychological, social, and cultural achievements for the youth.

1.6 Youth Opinion Survey (YOS-2012)

To complete the set of demographic and health information needed by planners and policy makers, and to prepare indicators that reflect the level of youth development in Iraq, the CSO implemented an opinion poll on the status and aspirations of youth in the year 2012. The sample covered 2,478 families covering all Iraqi governorates and interviewing 5,357 youths in the age group of 15-29. This group includes a significant segment of the population that also varies in categories and conditions.

The chosen age group includes individuals at school age, yet others who are participating in the labour market. The design of the sample aimed to provide indicators that adequately represent the governorates and the Kurdistan Region. It also covers the rural and urban areas. The detailed results of the survey could be found in the report's annex.

The objective of the opinion poll is to assess the situation of youth and identify their aspirations, with focus on the effects of the transformations in Iraq that have taken place since 2003 and the sectarian events that took place in the period 2006-2008. The poll was also meant to support the construction of the indicators needed

in the National Human Development Report and the computation of the composite Youth Development Index. This index covers a wide gamut of indicators representing education, health, physical wellness, relationship with parents, uses of free time, security, citizenship, social and political participation, use of information technologies, migration, and future vision. In short, the aims of the poll include:

- Assessment of the situation and aspirations of youth in the age group 15-29
- Assessment of the situation and aspirations of youth by gender and by geographic and environmental distributions
- Support to the construction of the Youth Development Index for the year 2012

2. Calculation of the Human Development Indicators: the Methodology and the Measurements

2.1 Human Development Index (HDI)

The HDI has maintained the three dimensions of health, education, and income. However, the new changes introduced in 2010 in the global Human Development Report relate to the indicators used to measure education and income, and the method of compositing the indicators.

In new the education index, the mean years of schooling has replaced adult literacy rates. Gross enrolment is now replaced by the expected years of schooling for children at entering age. The number of years of schooling that a child is expected to have has added a qualitative aspect which many national and regional human development reports have shown.

In the health dimension, life expectancy at birth remains the best representation.

To measure the decent standard of living, the individual's share of the Gross National Income has replaced the share of the Gross National Product.

The construction of the HDI starts with the calculation of the three dimensions through setting a maximum and minimum value for each indicator. The maximum value is set to the highest value of the indicator in the observation period, while the minimum value is taken as the least value needed to sustain life or zero (for more details, please see the Statistical Annex Technical of the 2011 Human Development Report).

However, it is necessary to mention the sources of data used to compute the component indicators and the hence the main index. In this report, the results of the surveys listed in the previous section enabled the report's statistical team to compute the indicators for each of the Iraqi governorates, the Kurdistan Region, and the national level indicators. The notes in the bottom of tables in the Statistical Annex show the sources of data used in computing the component indicators, namely health, education, and income.

In view of the unavailability of individual's share of the Gross National Income indicators at the governorate level, this indicator was estimated as follows:

- The per capita income for the year 2012 was 6,578,930 Iraqi dinars.
- Using the purchasing power parity (PPP) in Iraq of US$, the GNI per capita was recalculated using the value 516 of the 2011 International comparison program and was found to be 12738 US$,
- To provide an indicator at the governorate level, the mean monthly expenditure is used as a weighing factor as follows:

$$\text{GNI per capita in governorate(i)} = \text{GNI per capita} \times \frac{\text{Mean expenditure per capita in governorate(i)}}{\text{Mean expenditure per capita (national)}}$$

If the mean per capita expenditure in the governorate is better than national mean, then the weight will be more than 1, meaning that the per capita share is higher than the national figure, and vice versa.

Differences between National and International Computation

The 2010 global Human Development Report has shown the differences between national statistics and the statistics used by the international agencies. This comes within the framework of the harmonization criteria that render national statistics of the different countries covered comparable. In cases where national statistics are not available, the international agencies estimate based on the available information. In these cases, the series of the internationally approved statistics do not use the latest national data, which leads to the differences between the international and national figures (2010 HDR). This actually provides countries the opportunity to update their statistics and indicators.

The Central Statistics Office in Iraq was able to provide professional and independent statistical data depending on its good capacity in the years 2010-2013. This was largely supported by the World Bank and the United Nations Agencies as illustrated in the table of the surveys used to prepare the report's indicators. This paves the way for the proper and transparent coordination between the national statistical offices and the international organizations to use official national data that comply with the organizations' criteria.

Table 1 shows that the mean life expectancy at birth is 69 years with clear differences among the governorates. This number is close to the number used in the global HDR 2011. The mean years of schooling was computed to be 8.0 years, and is much higher than the number used in the global report at 5.6 years. The mean of the expected years of schooling was found to be 10.8 years, again close to the number used in the international report at 10.0 years.

However, the biggest difference between national and international estimates is found in the per capita share of the Gross National Income. This mean has doubled in the period 2005 to 2011. Additionally the Purchasing Power Parity related to the price levels in Iraq was low and approached 516.

Gross Domestic Product and Gross National Income in Iraq

The Central Statistics Organization is the sole national institutions with the mandate to provide National Accounts data including the Gross Domestic Product and Gross National Income to international organization, including the United Nations Agencies, ESCWA, and the International Monetary Fund (IMF).

The following table shows the Gross Domestic Product data for three years as published by the IMF in its expert's report titled "Iraq: 2013 Article IV Consultation", page 28. The table additionally shows Gross National Income data which is not published in the report.

The table shows that the Gross National Income is slightly lower than the Gross Domestic Product. This is the result of the negative value of the net foreign transfers due to the compensations made to the State of Kuwait. It is worth noting that National Accounts data are revised periodically by the IMF and that these data are highly reliable.

Year	2010	2011	2012
Gross Domestic Income (Billion USD)	135.5	180.6	212.5
Gross National Income (Billion USD)	129.9	170.7	193
Gross National Income (Trillion IQD)	151.4	199.1	225
Population (Million)	32.5	33.3	34.2

xchange Rate 1 USD = 1,666 IQD

The box below shows the method of calculating the mean per capita share of the Gross National Income in the year 2012 adjusted by the Purchasing Power Parity:

2012 MEAN PER CAPITA SHARE OF NATIONAL INCOME BY PURCHASING POWER PARITY

Indicator	Value	Source
Mean per capita share of national income, 2012	6,578,930.6 IQD / 516 US$ = 12,738 US$	1. National Income, Directorate of National Accounts, Central Statistics Organization 2. Iraq population, Directorate of Population Statistics, Central Statistics Organization
Purchasing Power Parity (PPP, 2011)		Global purchasing power parities and real expenditures (2011 international comparison program),WB.
Per capita share of National Income adjusted by purchasing power parity		Computed from above

The closeness of the Gross National Income levels with those of the Gross Domestic Product levels shown in the IMF report confirms the reliability of the data. On the basis of the above, the authors of this report feel that the per capita share of Gross National Income adjusted by the Purchasing Power Parity is a more realistic than the indicator shown in the global Human Development Reports in a number of years, prior to the launch of Global purchasing power parities and real expenditures (2011 international comparison program),WB

2.2 Inequality Adjusted Human Development Index (IHDI)

The IHDI represents a method to show disparities among social groups and the differences in distribution among the population in each dimension of human development. The HDI is an indicator showing the overall development in the country and does not reflect the status of population segments for the dimensions of human development. The extent of difference between the HDI and IHDI show reflect the extent of disparities in the society. In this respect, the IHDI is more representative of the levels of human development.

The IHDI has two positive characteristics. The first is that this indicator treats all social groups equally, and changes in the development of a particular group are reflected in the indicator even if the level of the HDI remains the same. The second characteristic is that this indicator is independent from any other, in the sense that the order in which the data are collected from the various groups does not affect the result. There is no need for a specific sequence of data sources or a single source of data. These characteristics allow the calculation of the indicator using various sources from different countries.

Data related to inequality in life expectancy are taken from the mortality statistics that the countries prepare. Inequality in education is taken from the countries' living standards assessments. (For more details on the methodology, please see the Technical Notes annex in the global Human Development Report, 2011)

The AF methodology consists of two major steps; the Identification step defining whether a household is poor or not, and the Aggregation/Measurement step reporting the prevalence and intensity of poverty. For Iraq these steps were defined as below:
Identification:
The household is considered at the unit of analysis (i.e. deprivations are defined at the household level. The AF methodology makes use of a dual cutoff identification system: first is a dimension specific cutoff; which identifies whether a household is deprived with respect to that dimension, and the second cutoff delineates how widely deprived a household must be in order to be considered poor. In particular the steps for Iraq the identification step are defined as follows:
1) Identifying a set of indicators deemed relevant to household poverty/wellbeing.
2) Setting a threshold for each indicator to identify individuals who are deprived in each indicator (i.e. household whose achievement in a given indicator falls below the threshold).
3) Assigning weights to the different indicators that reflect the relevance of each indicator with respect to overall household poverty.
4) Calculating a weighted average of the number of indicators in which the household is deprived (i.e. weighted count of deprivations).
5) Comparing the weighted average of deprivations to the poverty cutoff "k-value" (the minimum number of -weighted count of- deprivations a household should suffer to be considered poor).
Aggregation/Measurement:
At the measurement stage we consider that household deprivations affect all household members (i.e. individuals), hence we report the results of MP for the population of individuals (rather than households) which is more intuitive and ease any comparison with income poverty or other socio-economics measures.
Given that some of the indicators are ordinal (not cardinal) the MP measures reported here are:
H (Poverty Headcount): The prevalence of multidimensional poverty (the number of individuals suffering from MP poverty divided by total population)
A (Average Deprivation Share): The average extent of a poor-individual' deprivations.
M0 (Adjusted Headcount Ration; M0= H*A): The prevalence of MP poverty adjusted to the extent of individual number of deprivations.

2.3 Gender Inequality Index

This index shows the challenges that women face in the three dimensions of reproductive health, empowerment, and employment, whenever such data is available. The index captures the discrepancy between men and women in development levels. Higher levels of equality are achieved when the differences in the value of this index with the HDI approaches 0. A value of 1 indicates complete inequality in all dimensions of the index. More details are available in the global HDR 2011.

In this report, a special approach was used to provide an indicator for maternal mortality at the governorate level, as these statistics are not reliable at this level. Consequently, the national figure of 35 for each 1000 live births was used and adjusted with a weighting factor representing the mean result achieved from three variables: one prenatal visit to a health centre, percentage of contraceptive use, and percentage of births conducted in the supervision of skilled medics.

2.4 Multidimensional Poverty Index: Definition and Measurement Method

Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) is an international measure of poverty, advanced by Oxford Poverty and Human Initiative, and recently used at a global level in 2010 Human Development Report replacing the Human Poverty Index. The MPI complements income poverty and the Millennium Development Goals measures by identifying the overlapping deprivations suffered by individuals in key wellbeing indicators, such as standards of living, essential services, health, and education indicators. In simplified words; multidimensional poverty accounts for the individual achievement in a set of indicators, and then counts the number of indicators in which the individual is deprived, finally an individual is considered multidimensional poor if it's deprived in 33 per cent of the indicators.

From the above we realize that three key decisions should be made in order to calculate MPI, these are: choosing the set of dimensions and indicators along with their respective deprivation' threshold, weights, and the poverty cut off. For Iraq these three decisions were selected in consensus with CSO and KRSO and with technical support from UNDP/IAU and OPHI.

As a result of the iterative consultations; Iraq MPI encompasses five dimensions, each dimension in turn is captured by a set of indicators (21 indicators in total). The dimensions and indicators were set with two goals in mind: to reflect the priorities of Iraq National Development Plan, and to produce an indicator suitable for measuring human development in Iraq that will feed eventually into Iraq NHDR.

MP dimensions and Indicators

1. Education and Knowledge

- Illiteracy Male: A Household is deprived if no adult[1] male member in the household can read and write.
- Illiteracy Female: A Household is deprived if no adult female member in the household can read and write.
- Educational Attainment Male: A Household is deprived if no adult male member in the household has completed primary education, which in this case translates to 6 years of basic education.
- Educational Attainment Female: A Household is deprived if no adult female member in the household has completed primary education, which in this case translates to 6 years of basic education.

2. Basic Services

- Drinking water: The Household is deprived in drinking water if the source of drinking water is not General Network and close well-spring (MDGs definition).
- Sanitation: The Household is deprived if the sanitation facility is not public network, septic tank or covered canal (Outside), or the sanitation facility is shared with other households.
- Electricity: The Household is deprived if the total connection to electricity from the public network, community generator and private generator is less than 12 hours per day.
- Garbage collection: The Household is deprived if the garbage is burnt out / buried, thrown in open areas, and others (this indicator is calculated only for urban areas).

3. Standard of Living

- Low Income Households: A Household is deprived if the real per-capita expenditure (PCE) of household members is less than the lowest expenditure quintile at the national level (equivalent to 91,116 ID per person per month)
- Housing unit: A Household is deprived if the type of housing unit is clay house, tent, caravan, and others, or if the exterior walls are made of blocks from the turnkey construction, clay/stone and clay, metal plates, wooden plates, and others.
- Crowding: A Household is deprived if more than three persons live per room in the household or bedrooms are shared with members from other households.

4. Nutrition and Health

- Balanced Diet: A household is considered as deprived in nutritional intake if any one of its members does not consume enough of one of the three macro nutrients (protein, carbohydrate, fat) and one of the three micro nutrients (iron, folic acid, and vitamin A) (FAO methodology).
- Calories intake: The Household is deprived if the calorie intake of any of its members is less than average required level (2,330 cals/day).
- Quality of Health Services: The household is deprived if it perceives/assesses the health services as bad or very bad.
- Distant Health Services: The household is deprived if it needs more than 30 minutes to reach the closest health service among: Primary Health Care, Public Hospital, Clinic/Government Health Centre, Clinic/Government Health Centre Complex, and Pharmacy.

5. Employment

- Unemployment Male: A household is deprived if any male member of the household in the labour force is unemployed.
- Unemployment Female: A household is deprived if any female member of the household in the labour force is unemployed.
- Underemployment Male: A household is deprived if any working male member of the household is underemployed.
- Underemployment Female: A household is deprived if any working female member of the household is underemployed.

5.5 Job Security Male: A household is deprived if no employed male member of the household works for the government/public sector, or has a secure job in the private sector (work contract and job benefits).

- 5.6 Job Security Female: A household is deprived if no employed female member of the household works for the government/public sector, or has a secure job in the private sector (work contract and job benefits).

2.5 Youth Development Index

The Youth Development Index YDI aims at assessing development as a process of enlarging youth (15-29 years old) choices and opportunities, and the extent of inclusiveness of youth in development gains. The index is disaggregated by gender to measure the gap in women gains from development. The YDI measures the average achievement in five dimensions of human development.

Levels of Presentation

The index is presented at the governorates level, and is presented by gender.

Method of Calculation

The YDI is geometric mean of the normalized indices of the domains, calculated for males, females, and for both. The domain indicators themselves are the geometric mean of the indicators representing the domain. The construction of the indicators does not differ from that of the HDI.

The calculation methodology could be summarized in the following:

To convert values to indicators the minimum and maximum values were incorporated and three directions were used to identify the minimum and maximum values as follows. The indicators are normalized to scale ratios between 0% and 100%, e.g. percentage of education, minimum value – maximum value observed for youth across the governorates and across gender. It was noticed that the rate of participation in labor force of youth is 6% lower in Muthana governorate, whereas it is the highest in the Muthana governorate. This is done by normalizing the level of the indicator with respect to the target level of the indicator. The minimum and maximum values for the years of education, which are the same minimum and maximum values observed across the governorates used in measuring the HDI in the year 2011.

TABLE A-1

shows the details of the domains, the indicators, and the minimum – maximum values.

After identifying the minimum and maximum values, the indicators are computed as follows:

$$X(i) = \frac{(\text{actual value} - \text{minimum value})}{(\text{maximum value} - \text{minimum value})}$$

Aggregating indices to construct the domain indicators

The domain indicator is the geometric mean of the normalized indices for total youth, and then for male and female youth. This produces the following indicators

Education Indicator	YEDUI
Male youth education indicator	YEDUIm
Female youth education indicator	YEDUIf
Youth employment indicator	YEMPLI
Male youth employment indicator	YEMPLIm
Female youth employment indicator	YEMPLIf
Youth health indicator	YHI
Male youth health indicator	YHIm
Female youth health indicator	YHIf
Youth participation and security indicator	YPSI
Male youth participation and security indicator	YPSIm
Female youth participation and security indicator	YPSIf
Youth freedom and communication	YEMPOI
Male youth freedom and communication	YEMPOIm
Female youth freedom and communication	YEMPOIf

Calculate the YDI as a geometric mean of the domains indices;
Male youth: YDIm=(YEDUIm * YEMPLIm * YHIm * YPSIm *YEMPOIm)1/5
Female Youth:YDIf=(YEDUIf * YEMPLIf * YHIf * YPSIf *YEMPOIf)1/5
Youth in General:YDI =(YEDUI * YEMPLI * YHI * YPSI *YEMPOI)1/5

Sources of Data

- Youth Opinion Survey 2012
- Iraq Socioeconomic Household Survey 2012
- Iraq Knowledge Network 2011
- Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey, MICS 2011
- Iraq Socioeconomic Household Survey 2007

Domain	Indicator	Source	Year	Minimum Value	Maximum Value
Education	Literacy	IKN	2011	0%	100%
	Average years of schooling for ages 25-29 years	IKN	2011	0 years	13.1 years
	Percentage of families by distance less than 5 Km to school	IHSES	2007	0%	100%
	Net enrolment in secondary school	MICS	2011	0%	100%
Employment	Youth employment rate	IKN	2011	0%	100%
	Youth economic activity rate	IKN	2011	6%	75%
	Average wage for youth total middle level wages	IKN	2011	0%	100%
	Discouraged unemployed youth rate	YS	2012	0%	100%
Health	Percentage of youth not suffering from chronic disease	IHSES	2012	0%	100%
	Percentage of non-smoking youth	YS	2012	0%	100%
	Percentage of youth who do not suffer from obesity or malnutrition	YS	2012	0%	100%
	Percentage health evaluation of youth individuals	IKN	2011	0%	100%
	Percentage of families who are less than 10 Km away from health centre	IHSES	2012	0%	100%

Participation and Security	Percentage of youth who are satisfied with the quality of medical services	IHSES	2012	0%	100%
	Percentage of youth who think that there is a role for youth to develop the society in Iraq	YS	2012	0%	100%
	Percentage of youth who feel secure	YS	2012	0%	100%
	Percentage of youth who voted in the elections	YS	2012	42%	84%
	Percentage of youth who volunteered in social activity	IKN	2011	1%	22%
Freedom and Communication	Percentage of youth who have the freedom to choose spouse	YS	2012	0%	100%
	Percentage of youth who engage in a specific hobby	YS	2012	0%	100%
	Percentage of youth who have a cell phone	YS	2012	0%	100%
	Percentage of youth who own a computer	YS	2012	0%	100%
	Percentage of youth who use the internet	YS	2012	0%	100%

- <?> 2 15 Years and more

NHDR Research papers		
1	Mehdi Al Alaq	Youth from the perspective of HD: Measurement and Analysis
2	Wafa Al Mehdawi	Youth Empowerment
3	Kareem Hamza	From Social Exclusion to Citizenship
4	Emad Abdullateef	Conceptual Framework
5	Yusif Hama Saleh	From social exclusion to citizenship
6	Haider Saeed	Participation and Citizenship
7	Heja Al Sindi	Youth and Culture

NHDR Background papers		
1	Mudher Mohamed Saleh	Youth Migration to Digital Societies
2	Ahmed Ibrehi	Social and Political Challenges to Development and Youth Opportunities
3	Ali Al Zubaidy	The Right to Education
4	Abdul Hakeem Jawzal	Youth and the State
5	Harith Al Garawi	Youth and National and sub national Identity
6	Usama Al Anni	Youth and Elections
7	Hassan Latif	Demographic Characteristics and Youth life Pattern
8	Omro Hesham	From study to work: Facilitating the Transition
9	Adnan Yassin	Analysis of Focus Group Meeting Reports
10	Ahmed Yassine	Demographic Characteristics of Youth
11	Qassim Enaiat	Role of Public Investment in Building Sustainable Development
12	Shaima Abdul Asis	Youth and Value
13	Badr Khan Al Sindi	Youth and Knowledge
14	Hazim Al Nuami	University Students Attitudes Toward General Elections

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11 The preliminary results of the latest survey in 2013 shows further decline to 22 and 27 successively

12 GNI per capita index used in calculating income index for the purpose of HDI has followed the method of equating it with purchasing power parity (see the Technical Notes Appendix)

13 What should be highlighted is the big increase in GNP per capita after the embargo on oil exports was lifted in mid-2003, jumping from 1300 US Dollars in 2004 t0 6300 US Dollars in 2012, due to increased oil production and export and high, stable oil prices. See IMF, Iraq consultation Report, April 2013, p5.

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15 Real increase approached 21% only-because inflation rate rose by 40% between 2007 and 2012. CSO, Iraq

16 This will be discussed further in relevant chapters

17 2011HDR, pp 62-63 Arabic version

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19 Several resources and tools to improve national indicators were used (The World Youth Report 2005, about adopting the Brazilian YDI as a policy development instrument, and the Youth Policy Formulation Manual produced by ESCWA in 2012) while setting the data of the baseline, which is a standard for measuring the changes during a certain period that result from implementing development programmes.

20 IPMM 2013

21 I-WISH 2011

22 I-WISH 2011

23 This is before Anbar governorate crises in 2013

24 CSO

25 A study estimated that in 2000 there were over 91,000 Iraqi migrants in the USA, 32,000 in the UK, 17,500 in Denmark, 14,700 in Norway, nearly 9,000 in Turkey, 3,000 in Finland, and around 5,000 in New Zealand.

26 According to the 2009 HDR, the number of Iraqi refugees in 2007 amounted to 2.28 million or 16 percent of the refugees in the world. The majority of Iraqi refugees are in North America, followed by Europe

27 IOM numbers

28 Iraq Knowledge Network, 2011, Table 4-33.

29 According to the ILO definition: Visible underemployment refers to persons who are in employment of less than 35

hours a week and who wish to work additional hours in their same job, have an additional job, or change their current job, while invisible underemployment refers to persons who are in employment of less than 35 hours a week and who wish to work additional hours in their same job, have an additional job, or change their current job due to low income, low number of working hours, or underutilization of skill, or because their current job is seasonal, temporary, or casual (Iraq Knowledge Network, 2011).

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