



The Republic of the Union of Myanmar

The 2014 Myanmar Population and Housing Census

THEMATIC REPORT ON GENDER DIMENSIONS

Census Report Volume 4-J



**Department of Population
Ministry of Labour, Immigration and Population**

With technical assistance from UNFPA



AUGUST 2017



The 2014 Myanmar Population and Housing Census

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Volume 4-J**

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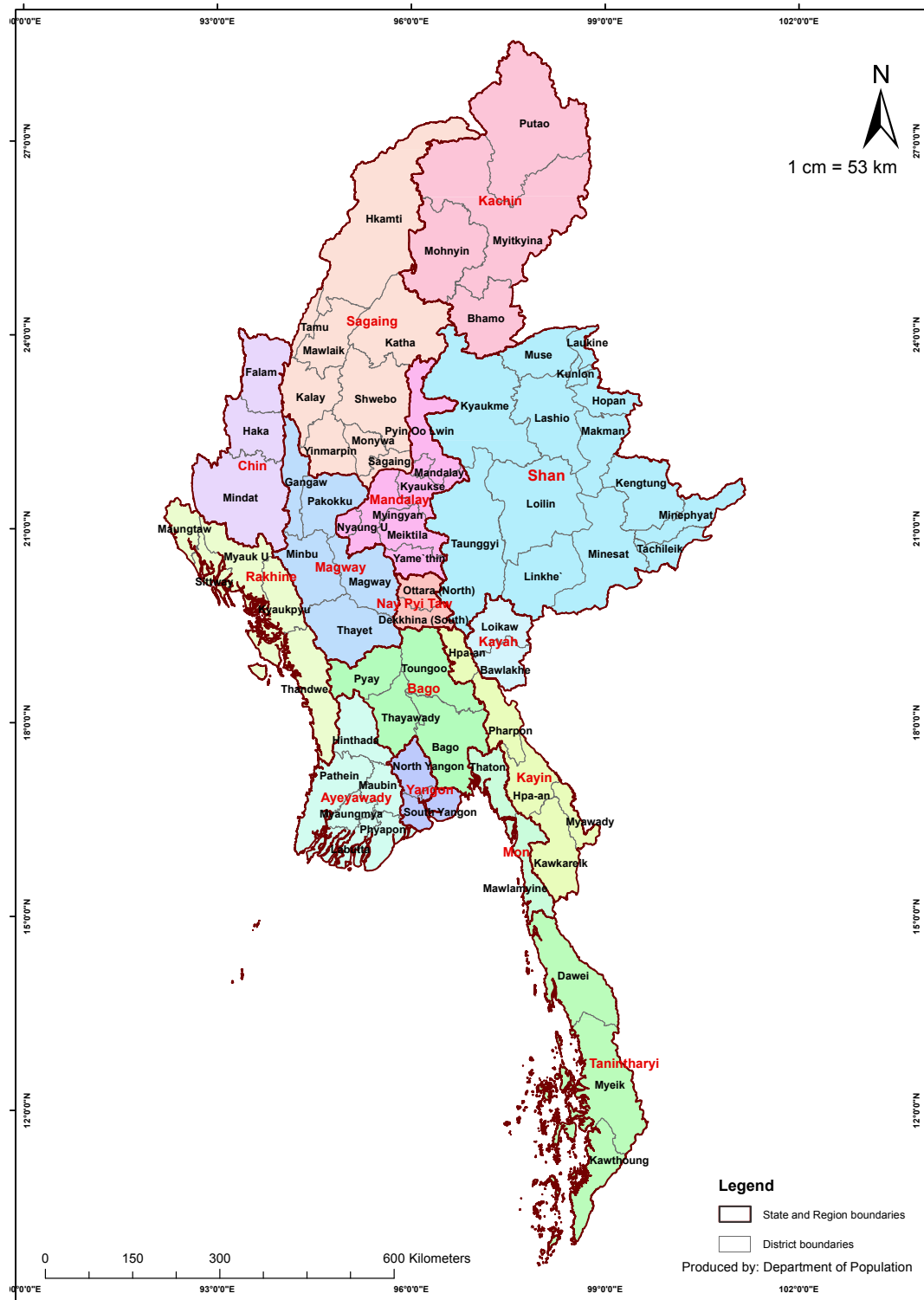
**Department of Population
Ministry of Labour, Immigration and Population**

Office No. 48, Nay Pyi Taw, MYANMAR

**Tel: +95 67 431 062
www.dop.gov.mm**

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Figure 1
Map of Myanmar by State/Region and District



Foreword

The 2014 Myanmar Population and Housing Census (2014 Census) was conducted with midnight of 29 March 2014 as the reference point. This is the first Census in 30 years; the last was conducted in 1983. Planning and execution of this Census was spearheaded by the former Ministry of Immigration and Population, now the Ministry of Labour, Immigration and Population, on behalf of the Government, in accordance with the Population and Housing Census Law, 2013. The main objective of the 2014 Census is to provide the Government and other stakeholders with essential information on the population, in regard to demographic, social and economic characteristics, and housing conditions and household amenities. By generating such information at all administrative levels, it is also intended to provide a sound basis for evidence-based decision-making, and to evaluate the impact of social and economic policies and programmes in the country.

The results of the 2014 Census have been published so far in a number of volumes. The first was the *Provisional Results* (Census Volume 1), released in August 2014. The Census Main Results were launched in May 2015. These included *The Union Report* (Census Report Volume 2), *Highlights of the Main Results* (Census Report Volume 2-A), and the reports for each of the 15 States and Regions (Census Report Volume 3[A-O]). The reports on *Occupation and Industry* (Census Report Volume 2-B), and *Religion* (Census Report Volume 2-C) were launched in March 2016 and July 2016, respectively.

The current set of the 2014 Census publications comprises 13 thematic reports and a Census Atlas. They address issues on Fertility and Nuptiality; Mortality; Maternal Mortality; Migration and Urbanization; Population Projections; Population Dynamics; the Older Population; Children and Youth; Education; Labour Force; Disability; Gender Dimensions; and Housing Conditions and Household Amenities. Their preparation involved collaborative efforts with both local and international experts as well as various Government Ministries, Departments and research institutions. The thematic reports published to date include: Fertility and Nuptiality; Mortality; Maternal Mortality; Migration and Urbanization; Population Dynamics; Population Projections; the Labour Force; Education; and Housing Conditions and Household Amenities.

Data capture for the Census was undertaken using scanning technology. The processes were highly integrated, with tight controls to guarantee accuracy of results. To achieve internal consistency and minimize errors, rigorous data editing, cleaning and validation were carried out to facilitate further analysis of the results. The information presented in these reports is therefore based on more cleaned data sets, and the reader should be aware that there may be some small differences from the results published in the earlier set of volumes.

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in September 2015, contains 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), of which SDG 5 aims to achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls; the attainment of which is an important element to realize many other SDGs and targets. This report aims to make an important contribution to understanding gender equality and inequality in Myanmar by providing quantitative evidence based on the results of the 2014 Census about the differences between boys and girls, youth and adults across a wide range of demographic and socioeconomic characteristics covering mortality; marriage; education;

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employment; disability; migration; household headship; and housing quality and access to housing amenities. The report borrows heavily from the results presented in several of the 2014 Census thematic reports published to date, and underlines the importance of such data in tracking progress towards the achievement of national as well as international goals.

While the Census itself can provide no qualitative information on the underlying factors responsible for gender differences observed in this report, the Government hopes that the findings presented here will nevertheless provide the information required for evidence-based public policy formulation and programme implementation, as well as stimulate further research into gender issues in Myanmar.

On behalf of the Government of Myanmar, I wish to thank the teams at the Department of Population, the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) and the authors for their contribution towards the preparation of this thematic report. I would also like to thank our development partners, namely: Australia, Finland, Germany, Italy, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom for their support to undertake the Census, as well as the technical support provided by the United States of America.



H.E U Thein Swe
Minister for Labour, Immigration and Population
The Republic of the Union of Myanmar

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List of Acronyms

ADB	Asian Development Bank
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
ASFR	Age-Specific Fertility Rates
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women
DoP	Department of Population (within the Ministry of Labour, Immigration and Population, Myanmar)
GAD	General Administration Department (Myanmar)
GEN	Gender Equality Network
GII	Gender Inequality Index
GPI	Gender Parity Index
GSi	Gender Status Index
ICPD	International Conference on Population and Development
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMR	Infant Mortality Rate
JMP	WHO/UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme (JMP) for Water Supply and Sanitation
LAO PDR	Lao People's Democratic Republic
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MoE	Ministry of Education (Myanmar)
MPs	Members of Parliament
NSPAW	National Strategic Plan for the Advancement of Women
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SIDA	Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency
SMAM	Singulate Mean Age at Marriage
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
USA	United States of America
WAD	Women and Development
WHO	World Health Organization
WID	Women in Development
WSSD	World Summit on Sustainable Development

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As reported in the 2014 Census, Myanmar's population comprises more females than males, with an overall sex ratio of 93 males for every 100 females. Sex ratios are slightly higher in rural than urban areas, and vary from one State/Region to another, with Magway recording significantly fewer males than other parts of the country. The sex ratios also vary with age: there are more males than females below the age of 15 years (103 males for every 100 females), but the gender balance changes from the age of 15 upwards. The sex ratios are significantly low (more females than males) among the population aged 60 and over.

Females generally constitute the majority (52 per cent) of the population in the most economically productive age groups (15-64 years), but Kachin State stands out with a sex ratio of 115 males for every 100 females, the only State/Region to have a ratio of over 100.

The proportion of females who are married is greater than that of males for the population aged 15-34 but thereafter begins to decline at around ages 40-44, while that of males starts to decline after the age of 55 years, with proportions of married females declining more sharply as higher levels of older male mortality begin to take effect.

Though the mean age at marriage in Myanmar is 24.7 years of age, women tend to marry earlier (at about 24 years) than men (at about 26 years), a gender disparity of two years. Adolescent girls are also more likely to marry at an earlier age than boys; at the time of the 2014 Census, 13,108 girls and 3,860 boys aged 15 were married. The highest rate of births to adolescent girls was reported in Shan and Chin, while the lowest was in Yangon. This has implications for the health of both young mothers and their children, which should be of concern to health policymakers.

Widowhood is more prevalent among females than males (10 per cent of women are widowed compared to just 3 per cent of men). This pattern is consistent across all States/Regions and is the effect of lower life expectancy among men.

Following global trends, infant mortality rates are lower for girls than for boys nationally and in all States/Regions, with Magway and Ayeyawady reporting the highest gender differences. Life expectancy for women at birth is 9.16 years longer than for men. The female survival advantage is highest in Kayah, and lowest in Chin, and is higher in urban than in rural areas. While female life expectancy is usually higher than that of males globally, there is a need to investigate and address, in particular, the underlying factors associated with the lower life expectancy of males in Myanmar.

There are negligible differences between the proportions of males and females who are lifetime migrants between Townships in the same District (5.5 per cent and 5.7 per cent respectively); those who are migrants between Districts in the same State/Region (4.1 per cent for both males and females); and those who are inter-State/Region migrants (9.8 per cent and 9.3 per cent respectively). More than half of recent migrants reported in the 2014 Census (those who had moved in the five-year period prior to the Census) were females. Females are more likely to migrate for family reasons while males more often move for employment purposes.

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Urbanization is on the rise in Myanmar, with more females than males living in urban areas, except in urban Kachin, where there are more males than females. A higher proportion of females than males in Myanmar's urban areas have attained university and postgraduate level education, yet labour force participation rates for women in urban areas remain lower than those of men, evidence of gender inequalities in access to economic resources. There is therefore a need for affirmative action policies to increase women's visibility in economic spheres in order to enhance their contribution to the economic development of Myanmar.

Adult literacy rates are higher among males (93 per cent), than among females (87 per cent). The gender gap is wider in rural than in urban areas. Chin State has the widest gender gap in literacy rates while Yangon has the lowest. This necessitates literacy intervention programmes to ensure that more women in the population are literate. Literacy levels fall for older cohorts, and gender differences become more apparent above the age of 25, with disparities to the disadvantage of women more pronounced from the age of 60 onwards. This calls for an expansion of alternative literacy programmes (outside the formal education system) to improve women's literacy levels.

Nationally, gender disparities in school attendance (currently attending) for the population aged 5-29 years are minimal in Myanmar, and only appear significant between the ages of 15 and 20, with a lower attendance of males. However, there are variations among States/Regions, with Rakhine having the widest gender disparity, with lower attendance of females. There is a need for further research into factors underlying the variations in attendance rates across the country, especially in a State such as Rakhine where the disparity is wide, to the disadvantage of females.

Disparities in attendance also vary by the broad age groups that correspond to levels of education. Attendance rates of children aged 5-9 (primary school age), are slightly higher for females than males, a phenomenon mirrored across all States/Regions. For the age group 10-15 (secondary school age), attendance is higher for males than females, with some variations across the country. Beyond secondary school age, attendance rates mainly favour females.

In terms of educational attainment, higher proportions of women aged 25 years and over than men have either not completed any level of education (19 per cent of women, and 13 per cent of men) or have not completed primary school. Higher proportions of females compared to males have attained levels higher than secondary school, especially graduate and postgraduate levels. While there is a need for programmes to encourage more males to pursue higher levels of education, further research would reveal factors leading to the phenomenon of higher female educational attainment beyond secondary school.

Myanmar's working-age population (those aged 15-64) is comprised of 52 per cent women and 48 per cent men, yet less than half of women (48 per cent in this age group) are employed, compared to over 80 per cent of men. Gender gaps in employment (the difference between the percentage of females and males employed) are high across all States/Regions, all to the disadvantage of women. The widest gap is in Tanintharyi, where 83 per cent of males aged 15-64 are employed compared with only 40 per cent of females. There is a need for policies and programmes to increase women's access to employment opportunities and contribute

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to the reduction of existing gender inequalities.

Gender disparities in labour force participation rates exist at all ages. The rates are generally low among young people aged 15-19, but female participation is still considerably lower. The higher labour force participation rates for males aged 15-19 is a result of the drop in school attendance rates for males observed around these ages.

A consequence of the higher levels of male labour force participation is that more females than males are economically inactive. The phenomenon of the majority of the economically inactive persons being women is persistent in all age groups, and in all States/Regions. Over three quarters of economically inactive females are engaged in household work, while the majority of inactive males are either full-time students or are engaged in other unspecified activities.

Educational attainment levels may not be the reason for inequalities observed in levels of labour force participation. Participation rates are lower for females than males even for those with the same educational attainment levels. In particular, rates for females are lower (62 per cent) than those of males (76 per cent) among those with attainment higher than secondary level despite more women than men possessing higher educational qualifications. This may be a pointer to existing gender inequalities in accessing employment opportunities.

In terms of the type of employment, females dominate in the category of contributing family workers (61 per cent). Also, close to three-fourths (73 per cent) of those employed in professional occupations are females. This high percentage is accounted for by the higher number of women working as teachers; most teachers in Myanmar are women. In contrast, over 90 per cent of plant and machine operators are men, thus reinforcing the observation by researchers that in Myanmar men more easily access jobs that require greater physical strength. It also reflects cultural stereotyping inherent in most patriarchal societies.

Most female professionals mainly work in the education sector. Females constitute over 80 per cent of all people aged 15-64 employed in education. Other industries where females constitute more than half of the workforce are: human health and social work (62 per cent); financial and insurance (60 per cent); accommodation and food services (59 per cent); manufacturing (57 per cent); and wholesale and retail trade (54 per cent). Males tend to dominate in transport (97 per cent); construction (90 per cent); and the electricity, gas steam and air conditioning supply industry (also 90 per cent), among others. This further reinforces known gender stereotyping.

Gender differences in unemployment rates are minimal at the national level (around 4 per cent for both sexes), but emerge at the State/Region level. Rakhine has the highest unemployment rate (over 10 per cent) with higher rates for females than males. Shan State has the lowest rate (2 per cent), with no significant gender disparity.

Many countries have adopted legislation that prohibits the employment of children, in accordance with international standards. In Myanmar, just over one fifth of children aged 10-17 are employed, with proportions higher in rural than urban areas, and varying from one

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State/Region to another. The majority of these working children are no longer at school, although there are small variations between States/Regions in the proportions still attending school. In Chin State, for example, this proportion is comparatively high at around 15 per cent, but with the proportion of girls lower than that of boys.

Working children in Myanmar are concentrated in just a few occupations namely: skilled agricultural forestry and fishery work (where the proportion of boys is higher than that of girls); elementary occupations; and craft and related trade work. As might be expected, working children are almost entirely absent in more skilled and qualification-based occupations. This emphasizes the need for interventions to retain children in school, more so for boys, in order to raise the level of education qualifications and to minimize child labour.

A little under 5 per cent of Myanmar's population has some form of disability, but proportions for females are higher than males for all three levels of difficulty reported (mild, moderate and severe) and all four domains. The highest prevalences of disability (over 7 per cent) are in Ayeyawady, Tanintharyi and Chin, with a correspondingly higher prevalence of female disability. In particular, the prevalence rate for females in Ayeyawady is exceptionally high. Prevalence of disability increases with age, especially after the age of 65, hence the need to scale-up programmes aimed at assisting persons with disabilities. Some of the programmes could be female-specific, targeting older females to enable them to live on their own.

Labour force participation rates are highest among those with seeing difficulties compared with other types of disability, with higher participation rates among males than females.

Over three quarters of households are headed by males. The proportion of female-headed households is higher in urban areas (28 per cent) than in rural areas (22 per cent), and varies between States/Regions ranging from less than 20 per cent in Ayeyawady to 29 per cent in Tanintharyi. The proportion of female-headed households increases with the age of the head. At the oldest ages (65 and over), 42 per cent of household heads are females, while among those aged 25-34 the proportion is only 14 per cent. Almost all male heads of households are married (92 per cent), compared with less than a third of female household heads. Half of female heads are widowed, reflecting women's relatively longer life expectancy.

The large majority of male household heads (86 per cent) are employed, in comparison with less than half (48 per cent) of female heads. Over half of female heads (52 per cent) are economically inactive compared with only 13 per cent of male heads. Additionally, higher proportions of female heads than male heads have either not completed any level of education (26 per cent compared with 15 per cent) or primary school (27 per cent compared with 22 per cent), which puts female heads at a disadvantaged position in the labour market.

Female-headed households score low in access to electronic communication/ICT assets (such as televisions, radios and mobile phones). Slightly over half of male-headed households have access to a television but less than half of female-headed households have such access. More male-headed households (37 per cent) than female-headed households (31 per cent) have access to radios. On the other hand, although differences are largely insignificant, slightly higher proportions of female-headed households than male-headed households have access

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to landline phones, computers and access to the internet at home.

In terms of the quality of housing, the proportions of female-headed households whose dwelling units are built from permanent materials or who have access to improved sources of water and sanitation are higher than those of male-headed households. The findings on the conditions of female-headed households possibly suggest that, contrary to common belief, households headed by females may not be poorer compared to male-headed households, although the report acknowledges that more research is needed to distinguish the effects of the differences in the urban/rural characteristics of households from the real gender differences of household headship.

More generally, the findings contained in this report point to the existence of some gender inequalities in Myanmar, in so far as these relate to the socioeconomic variables reported in the 2014 Census. However, the data from the 2014 Census analysed in the compilation of this report poses limitations in terms of the scope and depth required for a more comprehensive gender analysis.

While more data (including qualitative data), and to some extent multivariate analyses across dimensions would shed more light on the gender situation for policy and programme formulation, the findings contained in this report are a good starting point and provide useful data for policy and programme analysis. Findings also reveal areas that require interventions, and where existing programmes and strategies by government and other organizations could be scaled-up in an effort to promote greater contribution and participation by women in the current social, political and economic development taking place in Myanmar, and, in the process, reduce inequalities.

In conclusion, there is a need for the economic empowerment and enhancement of women's status through the expansion of education and economic opportunities. Specifically, intervention programmes could enhance access to education for all; ensure the provision of reproductive health services and family planning education to discourage early child marriage and adolescent fertility; and promote alternative, flexible and affordable education programmes to cater for the needs of different population subgroups. Furthermore, additional research is necessary to determine general as well as regional and urban/rural-specific factors contributing to observed gender disparities in different socioeconomic areas.

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1.1 Introduction

This thematic report covers the findings of the gender dimensions analysis based on the 2014 Myanmar Census. A census generally imposes some limitations as far as gender analysis is concerned as it provides sex-disaggregated data that can only be used to offer a basic understanding of the situation of men and women in any country, with no qualitative information on the underlying factors that are responsible for observed phenomena. Though census data have limited depth and scope in terms of gender issues, they do provide fundamental background information that allows further research into the differences between men and women as well as between boys and girls (UNFPA, 2014). It is against this backdrop, that a number of countries have been able to successfully compile analytical reports on gender, based on data from the 2010 round of censuses, including Timor-Leste, Kenya, Vanuatu, the Solomon Islands and Liberia. Through this thematic report, Myanmar is added to this list.

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in September 2015 contains 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), of which SDG 5 aims to achieve gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls. Additionally, the 2030 Agenda acknowledges that the achievement of SDG 5 is an important component that will contribute to the realization of other SDGs and targets (European Parliament, 2016). Development agencies have argued that all governments around the world should make the realization of SDG 5 a priority. Development actors should therefore promote this stance given that the agenda is universal, and that no country has yet succeeded in fully achieving gender equality (Roche, 2016).

Myanmar's constitution prescribes equal rights for all persons, and, in principle, does not discriminate against any person on the basis of sex. However, like many other countries, a mixed narrative prevails in relation to gender equality and the rights of women (Asian Development Bank *et al*, 2016). This report aims to make an important contribution to understanding gender (in) equality in Myanmar through providing quantitative evidence based on the 2014 Census about the situation of men and women. The report also underscores the importance of census data in tracking progress towards the achievement of national as well as international goals. The findings of this report will, hopefully, provide information required for evidence-based public policy formulation and programme implementation, as well as stimulate further research into gender issues in Myanmar.

1.2 Gender and related concepts

Over the last two decades, efforts have been made at both the national and international levels to develop and improve definitions, concepts and categorizations in relation to the collection of statistics related to the comparison of women and men (United Nations Statistics Division, 2015). This subsection is a review of the key concepts commonly used in research reports and publications focusing on gender issues in general. It begins with the definition of the key terminology, gender, a concept commonly and widely used in social circles as well as in relation to the development agenda, followed by other concepts relevant to this analysis.

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Readers are also referred to the Glossary of terms and definitions on page 131.

Gender is a social construct that refers to the roles and responsibilities of men and women within a given society or location. Gender roles and responsibilities are therefore defined, modified and influenced by prevailing social variables such as culture, economic status, age, religion and political milieu.

Sex refers to the biological and physiological difference between men and women, and is a natural distinction that is pre-determined at birth.

‘Gender’ and ‘sex’ are terms that are sometimes used interchangeably (University of Minnesota Libraries Publishing, 2016), for example ‘gender statistics’ can refer to data that is disaggregated by sex. Such data is collected, organized and presented separately for women and men, but additionally: “Gender statistics involves producing and disseminating statistics that reflect the realities of females and males of all ages, with a view to informing gender equality initiatives and policies” (UNFPA, 2014).

Gender equality means that males and females enjoy the same rights, resources, opportunities and protections (UNICEF, 2011). The definition implies a status where men and women are exposed to equal conditions to realize their human rights as well as to contribute to and benefit from social, economic, cultural and political development (UNESCO, 2003). Moreover, a society characterized by equality between adult men and women presents children with a model for a future with mutually respectful relationships (UNICEF, 2011).

Gender equity is related to measurable outcomes. When men and women enjoy equal rights, opportunities and entitlements (gender equality) it leads to outcomes that are fair and just (Derbyshire, 2002). Gender equity in any society is generally indicative of wider social equality in that society.

Gender analysis is the process of collecting and analyzing data that is disaggregated by sex to explore differences between men and women. Utilization of findings from such analyses enables policymakers and programme implementers to identify and meet the needs of both women and men effectively. The knowledge from gender analysis can identify gaps in existing policies and programmes, and inform where interventions could take place at national and subnational levels in order to address any inequalities.

Gender mainstreaming is the approach/strategy of taking into consideration the needs, concerns and experiences of both men and women in the design, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes. By analyzing census data and compiling an analytical report on the gender dimensions of a country’s population (alongside other reports), it is possible to highlight differences (or similarities) between women and men in relation to gender issues and inequalities that are likely to affect development, and which may therefore require policy and programme interventions at national or subnational levels.

Gender issues can be identified through the interpretation and analysis of census data. There are similarities and differences in gender issues from one country to another, since

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gender roles and responsibilities are influenced by social, cultural, economic and political factors. What is considered a gender issue in one context may not be seen as a gender issue in another context. Gender issues are important because principles of equality and human rights are expected to apply to all people universally, as evidenced by the existence of equality goals and targets agreed upon globally in a number of international declarations and treaties.

1.3 Global context: chronology of global events, treaties and agreements relating to gender issues and gender equality

The precursor events leading to the emergence of the discourse on gender issues and gender equality date back to the late 19th century/early 20th century, when waves of feminism in western countries (principally the USA and the United Kingdom) came to the fore in relation to advocacy for women's rights. These waves of feminism peaked in the 1960s and 1980s, a period when reports based on findings from research on women in less developed countries highlighted the role women played as producers of goods for subsistence as well as for markets, yet their contribution, especially in agricultural production was invisible vis-à-vis that of men.

Of great significance was Ester Boserup's published book: *"Woman's Role in Economic Development"* in 1970, which heralded a new way of thinking by highlighting the role of women in development. This greatly contributed to the emergence of the 'Women in Development' (WID) perspective (Turner and Fischer-Kowalski, 2010) in the 1970s. The WID approach emphasized improving the status of women by targeting them with women-specific activities as a way of integrating them into the existing development process. Besides WID, other approaches, such as Women and Development (WAD) and Gender and Development (GAD), also emerged as the discourse on equality and the integration of women into national economic growth continued. However, WID still remains a popular intervention approach for development programmes at the national and international levels, based on the premise that women in most cases lag behind men in terms of socioeconomic indicators in areas such as education and labour force participation. The GAD approach is still employed by development partners, organizations and national governments, alongside the WID approach, in an attempt to achieve gender equality in access to resources and services. The GAD approach emphasizes the need to analyse the situations of men and women (hence regarded as more gender-analysis driven, UNESCO, 2003), lending credence to the need for accurate and reliable sex-disaggregated data. Census data collection processes have therefore been improved over the years to ensure that all data collected is disaggregated by sex.

Influenced by the early feminist movements and, to a greater extent, the writings of researchers such as Boserup, the United Nations convened the first major conference on women in Mexico (1975), where the main emphasis was on the inclusion of women in development processes. This forum led to the declaration of the United Nations Decade for Women (1975-1985) (Sadia, 2013). In addition, a number of global forums, international declarations and agreements in the last three or so decades have also been instrumental in highlighting the role of women in sustainable development, and additionally contributed to

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an increased awareness of the importance of statistics not just on women but also on gender issues in general (United Nations Statistics Division, 2015, p 172). Some notable forums and agreements include:

- (i) Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) adopted by the United Nations Assembly in 1979. The theme of the forum was based on the premise that observed gender inequalities were the result of discrimination against women.
- (ii) International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) convened by the United Nations in Cairo, 1994, which emphasized the need for equality and the empowerment of women globally.
- (iii) World Summit on Social Development (WSSD) in Copenhagen, Denmark (1995). The declaration signed by world leaders at the end of the conference included making efforts to achieve equity and equality between women and men as a way of promoting social development.
- (iv) Beijing Platform for Action (1995) agreed upon at the United Nation's Fourth World Conference on Women. This focused on the empowerment of women, and was more specific on the inclusion of gender analysis in areas of concern as well as equal opportunities for men and women. Emphasis was placed on the collection, analysis and presentation of data disaggregated by age, sex, socioeconomic and other relevant indicators on a regular basis for use in programme planning and implementation.
- (v) Through the United Nations Millennium Declaration at the United Nations Millennium Summit in 2000, world leaders committed to achieving eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by the year 2015. Several goals encompassed women's rights, with gender equality and the empowerment of women clearly articulated by MDG 3.
- (vi) The Dakar Framework of Action arising from the World Education Forum convened in 2000 by UNESCO in Dakar, Senegal. Among the goals that national leaders committed to achieve was the elimination of gender disparities in primary and secondary school education by 2005, and the achievement of gender parity in education by 2015.
- (vii) In the post-MDG 2030 Agenda, agreed upon in September 2015, world leaders committed to pursue 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) that aim to end extreme poverty, inequality and climate change by 2030. SDG 3 (good health and well-being), SDG 4 (quality education), SDG 5 (gender equality) and SDG 10 (reduced inequalities) are of particular interest in confirming that gender issues, and particularly gender equality, have remained core issues in the global development agenda.

The signed declarations and agreements necessitated the availability of quality data to identify inequalities, as well as to monitor progress in achieving specific targets. This further underscores the need for the collection of reliable and accurate data that can be effectively utilized for gender analysis, with the ultimate goal of informing policy and decision-making processes.

1.4 Gender issues in the Myanmar context

1.4.1 General overview

Myanmar is the largest mainland country in South-East Asia, bordering countries with expanding economies such as China, Thailand and India. Research findings from Myanmar indicate that social and cultural norms have a profound impact on men and women in terms of their personal lives; the value attached to their work; education opportunities; health status and access to services; as well as their participation in development at the community level and in national affairs (Thein, 2016). Notwithstanding, there is a dearth of information on gender issues in Myanmar, as the topic remains under-researched and hence poorly understood. The lack of data has, over the years, also cemented a culturally-held view that Myanmar culture does not exhibit any gender discrimination. Consequently, gender inequality has historically not been acknowledged as an issue of concern in Myanmar, but awareness has recently been increasing about gender inequality as an impediment to development as well as the attainment of human rights (Gender Equality Network, 2015).

The Government of Myanmar has been making efforts to take gender issues into consideration, in particular, in improving the status of women. As a lack of gender parity is articulated and evidenced through research, raising awareness of, and commitment to addressing gender inequalities has been espoused by, for example, the first Myanmar woman in President Thein Sein's Cabinet, Her Excellency, Dr Daw Myat-Myat Ohn-Khin, Union Minister, Ministry of Social Welfare, Relief and Resettlement, who, in 2012, reaffirmed the commitment of her government to achieving gender equality:

Like all countries around the world, Myanmar has a responsibility to ensure that women's rights are guaranteed. This includes women's equal access to resources, opportunities and services, and their representation and participation in decision and policymaking at all levels and in all spheres of society (Myanmar National Committee for Women's Affairs, 2013).

Despite the rising awareness, global indices continue to paint a picture of gender inequality in Myanmar. The 2014 Gender Inequality Index (GII) ranked Myanmar 85th out of 155 countries included in the country ranking. GII values range from 0 to 1, whereby a value closer to 0 implies high equality, and a value of 1 signifies extreme inequality. Myanmar's value was 0.413 in 2014. The GII is a measure of gender-based inequality based on three dimensions: reproductive health, empowerment and economic activity. Table 1.1 shows the comparison of Myanmar's GII with other ASEAN countries. Among the ASEAN countries, inequality is highest in Indonesia (GII of 0.494 and lowest in Singapore (0.088)).

Table 1.1

Comparison of Gender Inequality Index for Myanmar and selected ASEAN countries, 2014

Country	Gender Inequality Index (GII) value	Ranking (out of 155 countries)
Indonesia	0.494	110
Cambodia	0.477	104
Philippines	0.420	89
Myanmar	0.413	85
Thailand	0.380	76
Viet Nam	0.308	60
Malaysia	0.209	42
Singapore	0.088	13

Source: United Nations Development Programme (2015). Human Development Report Annexes.

The release of the 2014 Census data is disaggregated by sex thus providing evidence of areas and activities where equality and inequality exist. The production of this report provides further information on what has been achieved in terms of gender equality, as well as areas where gender gaps exist, and provides a starting point to formulate best practice and sound policy interventions in the future.

1.4.2 Existing policies on gender equality

In consonance with international agreements and the outcomes of forums emphasizing gender issues and gender equality, such as the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), the Beijing Platform for Action, and the Millennium Declaration, the Government of Myanmar has formulated the National Strategic Plan for the Advancement of Women (NSPAW) 2013-2022.

In principle, and by implication, gender equality is assumed in Myanmar. This is partly because Myanmar is a member of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations' (ASEAN) Committee on Women as well as the ASEAN Commission on the Protection of the Rights of Women and Children (Asian Development Bank *et al*, 2016). The 2008 Myanmar Constitution also prohibits discrimination against any person of the Union of the Republic of Myanmar on the basis of race, birth, religion, official position, status, culture, sex and wealth. Section 348 specifically prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex. Despite the existence of such legal provisions, Myanmar, like many other countries, has its share of inequalities across different sectors.

1.4.3 Representation and participation of men and women in decision-making

According to a research report by Oxfam (2013), women in Myanmar are under-represented in most areas of political and public life and few are involved in senior decision-making roles across various sectors. Table 1.2 shows, for example, the level of representation of women in Myanmar's Parliament in 2016. A comparison with some ASEAN countries (Table 1.3) shows that Myanmar has one of the lowest participation rates.

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Table 1.2

Representation of women in Myanmar's Parliament, 2016

Parliamentary category	Number and proportions of female Members of Parliament (MPs)								
	Elected MPs			Military-appointed MPs			Total MPs		
	Total	No. of women	% women	Total	No. of women	% women	Total	No. of women	% women
Pyithu Hluttaw (Upper House)	323	44	13.6	110	2	1.8	433	46	10.6
Amyotha Hluttaw (Lower House)	168	23	13.7	56	0	0.0	224	23	10.3
Pyidaungsu Hluttaw Assembly of the Union	491	67	13.6	166	2	1.2	657	69	10.5

Source: Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (2016).

Table 1.3

Proportion of seats in Parliament held by women in selected ASEAN countries

Country and year of election	Lower House			Upper House/Senate		
	Total	Female	% Female	Total	Female	% Female
Myanmar (2015)	224	23	10.3	433	46	10.6
Cambodia (2013)	123	25	20.3	61	10	16.5
Indonesia (2014)	555	95	17.1	-	-	-
Malaysia (2013)	222	23	10.4	64	14	21.9
Philippines (2016)	292	87	29.8	24	6	25.0
Singapore (2015)	101	24	23.8	-	-	-
Thailand (2014)	197	12	6.10	-	-	-
Viet Nam (2016)	494	132	26.7	-	-	-
Lao PDR (2016)	149	41	27.5	-	-	-

Source: Inter-Parliamentary Union. (2016).

The level of representation of women in Myanmar's Parliament does not reflect the higher levels of educational attainment achieved by women. While 8.8 per cent of males aged 25 and over had achieved higher than upper secondary school education, the rate for women was 9.3 per cent (Department of Population, 2017a).

The NSPAW is geared towards increasing women's participation in political decision-making processes at all levels. It is envisaged that the full implementation of the NSPAW will ensure "women's equal access to resources, opportunities and services, and their representation and participation in decision and policymaking at all levels and in all spheres of society" (Myanmar National Committee for Women's Affairs, 2013).

1.5 Analysis of gender dimensions

1.5.1 General overview of some common gender analysis approaches

Most publications to date have focused largely on the situation of women (status of women) as opposed to their situation relative to that of their male counterparts. Such reports that describe the situations or achievements of women without comparing them to that of men do not yield adequate information on gender inequalities (Young *et al*, 1994). Ideally, gender analysis should include the quantitative (statistical) component as well as the qualitative (analytical and relative) aspects (SIDA, 2015). Nevertheless, data disaggregated

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by sex is a starting point for providing basic information that unearths gender disparities in socioeconomic spheres such as education and employment, as well as demographic-related aspects such as mortality and life expectancy, among others.

Regular national surveys and censuses provide the bulk of data that have generally been utilized to construct indicators on gender issues. Over time, and especially in the last two decades, some common indicators that are comparable across different countries have been developed and have been continuously improved, for example, in education, comparisons of women and men by indicators such as literacy (or illiteracy), school attendance, and educational attainment rates.

At the simplest level, researchers have traditionally considered measures such as absolute numbers and absolute differences of men and women, or boys and girls, to show disparities (UNESCO, 1997). However, descriptive statistics derived from absolute numbers, such as rates, ratios and proportions, give a clearer picture of the magnitude of differences (or similarities) than absolute numbers. Various gender disparity measures, in the form of gender gaps, gender indices and gender advantage/disadvantage measures, are further computed using the rates, ratios or proportions; the suitability of each disparity measure being dependent on the area of focus and the type of indicator.

In the computation of rates, ratios or proportions, two approaches may be employed. In one approach, the denominator is the total number of females (or males) in a particular socioeconomic sector or demographic category, for example, the percentage of females aged five and over with no education is computed by taking the number of females aged five and over with no education divided by the total number of females in the same age group, irrespective of their education level. A similar computation for males then enables the quantification of the difference between the female and male proportions. In the second approach, the denominator is taken as the combined total of both females and males, for example, the percentage/proportion of women with no education out of the total population (males and females) indicates which of the two proportions is higher, or lower, than the other.

Sex ratio is an indicator commonly used to provide basic information on a particular attribute in a population. It is obtained by dividing the male population by the female population, but is sometimes computed by dividing the female population by the male population to emphasize the position of females relative to that of males. The value ranges from 0 to 1, with values closer to 0 signifying extreme inequality and those closer to 1 implying near parity. Very often, it is expressed as a percentage, and the value interpreted differently, for instance, as the number of females per 100 males.

A **gender gap** shows the size of disparity between males and females, and may be computed from actual population figures (absolute gap) or from percentages. The latter approach is more commonly employed than the former, whereby the male percentage is subtracted from the female percentage (F-M) and expressed in percentage points. A negative value indicates inequality in favour of males, and a positive value in favour of females for any particular indicator.

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A **relative gap** may also be computed, for example, in the case of illiteracy levels, to indicate the proportion of illiterate members of a given sex that need to be literate to achieve parity with the opposite sex. The formula for the calculation is $(F-M)/F \times 100$.

Gender Parity Index (GPI) is used in some publications to focus on the disparity in access to resources. It can be used to measure access to education in relation to school enrolment. The enrolment ratio for girls is divided by the enrolment ratio for boys. The closer the value is to unity, the lower the magnitude of disparity and vice versa, with values greater than 1 implying enrolment in favour of girls.

The **Gender Status Index (GSI)** is commonly used in labour force statistics. It is technically the same as the gender parity index but measures relative economic power. It is computed by dividing the percentage of women in a particular labour force category by the percentage of males in the same category. Where women tend to dominate, the value is greater than 1; where they are disadvantaged, the value is lower than 1.

1.5.2 Use of census data in the analysis of gender dimensions

In a population and housing census, each individual in the population, household and living quarters is expected to be enumerated and their characteristics recorded separately. A census is considered the principle means of collecting basic population and housing data, and therefore expected to provide a comprehensive source of statistics for economic and social development planning (United Nations Statistics Division, 2015, p 5).

In recent years, census data has increasingly become a source of sex-disaggregated data that can be utilized for making gender-based analyses. A number of countries that have carried out population and housing censuses within the last two decades have therefore included an analytical report on gender dimensions as part of their census reports. According to UNFPA: “Gender analysis of census data helps build up the evidence base, informing development policies and programmes in a way that takes into account the specific needs of women and men, and girls and boys” (UNFPA, 2014).

The inclusion of gender analysis in census-taking goes beyond simple statistical analysis of data by sex; rather it begins with the gender-responsive selection of questions that can be answered through the analysis, as well as the interpretation of sex-disaggregated data within the framework of power relations between men and women. Therefore, not all data that is disaggregated by sex can be used for the analysis of gender dimensions.

To ensure that in censuses sufficient data is collected for a comprehensive analysis of a wide range of topics that include gender dimensions, a number of countries, when carrying out censuses, have made deliberate efforts to include an assessment and review of the adequacy of statistics in identifying the diversity of both women’s and men’s lives, right from the early stages of developing census plans. A great deal of emphasis has been placed on the importance of improving statistics and statistical methods in relation to gender and prioritizing these aspects at all stages of the census taking process - from planning to data collection, analysis and dissemination (United Nations Statistics Division, 2015, p 173).

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1.5.3 The 2014 Myanmar Census data

The 2014 Population and Housing Census of Myanmar was carried out by the Department of Population (DoP) within the then Ministry of Immigration and Population (now the Ministry of Labour, Immigration and Population), on behalf of the government and in accordance with the Population and Housing Census Law No. 19 of 2013. The general objective of the Census was to create an inventory of the country's demographic characteristics and manpower resources.

The specific objectives were to:

- (i) Obtain an up-to-date count of the population by age and sex
- (ii) Provide the geographical distribution of the population by demographic and socioeconomic characteristics
- (iii) Provide a sampling frame for surveys and other statistical programmes.

It should be noted here that some degree of coverage and content errors cannot be ruled out in any population census. In the 2014 Census, some populations in three areas of the country were not enumerated. This included an estimate of 1,090,000 persons residing in Rakhine State, 69,800 persons living in Kayin State and 46,600 persons living in Kachin State (see Department of Population, 2015 for the reasons that these populations were not enumerated). In total, therefore, it is estimated that 1,206,400 persons (less than 1 per cent of the total population) were not enumerated in the Census. The estimated population of Myanmar on Census Night, both enumerated and non-enumerated, was 51,486,253.

The analysis in this report covers only the enumerated population. It is worth noting that in Rakhine State an estimated 34 per cent of the population were not enumerated as members of some communities were not counted because they were not allowed to self-identify using a name that was not recognized by the Government. The Government made the decision in the interest of security and to avoid the possibility of violence occurring due to inter-communal tension. Consequently, data for Rakhine State, as well as for several Districts and Townships within it, are incomplete, and only represent about two-thirds of the estimated population.

Generally, however, initial analysis showed that the Census produced credible quality data (Department of Population, 2015). Information collected during the enumeration phase included the sex of every individual, as recommended by the United Nations (United Nations Statistics Division, 2008), and the data produced was disaggregated by sex, an elementary requirement for gender statistics, and which renders the 2014 Myanmar Census appropriate for the analysis of gender.

1.6 Overview of the report

The provisional results of the 2014 Population and Housing Census of Myanmar were released in August 2014, approximately four months after the enumeration phase. The main results, comprising the Union report, as well as reports for each State/Region, were released in May 2015, preceding the in-depth analysis and consequent production of thematic reports

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covering a wide spectrum of socioeconomic and demographic topics. This report utilizes information from many of these reports, and in addition presents findings from further analysis of the Census data, to present a gender dimension perspective of the 2014 Census results. Additionally, supplementary information from other sources has been utilized, where appropriate, to identify some plausible explanations for emerging patterns.

1.6.1 Objectives

This report is a useful source of information for the assessment of indicators related to gender equality. The particular objectives of the report are to:

- (1) Present a global methodological and policy overview of the gender thematic area based on a literature review.
- (2) Place the report analysis in the context of gender issues and gender equality in relation to sustainable development and within the Myanmar context.
- (3) Identify key demographic and socioeconomic areas and indicators for the analysis of gender perspectives.
- (4) Undertake further analysis of data provided in other thematic reports to highlight gender perspectives, differentials and gaps.

1.6.2 Thematic areas of focus

The report focuses on gender dimensions along the following thematic areas:

- Demographic aspects
- Socioeconomic aspects including:
 - › Education
 - › Labour force
 - › Disability
 - › Household headship
 - › Housing amenities.

The indicators for each of the thematic areas are detailed under the relevant sections of the report. Where possible, comparisons are made with similar indicators from other countries, especially ASEAN countries.

1.7 Methodology

Information in this report is presented in various ways, depending on the area of focus. Percentages/proportions and rates computed from the actual population figures are commonly used to show the existence (or non-existence) of disparities in selected socio-demographic and socioeconomic spheres, and to highlight gender issues of concern. Where appropriate, population figures and proportions are used to further compute ratios or gaps that help identify disparities and possible areas of gender inequality in relation to a given thematic area. For some of the indicators, the rates/ratios are obtained directly from the already compiled thematic reports.

Chapter 1. Concepts, context and methodology

1.8 Organization of the report

This report has been organized into seven chapters. Chapter 1 is an overview of concepts, context and methodology. Chapter 2 covers the comparison of men and women in Myanmar from a demographic viewpoint. Chapter 3 is an analysis of the gender dimensions of education. Chapter 4 presents the economic activity status and labour force participation aspects viewed from a gender perspective. The gender dimensions of disability are covered in Chapter 5, and household conditions and housing amenities are covered in Chapter 6. Chapter 7 is a summary of findings with some suggested recommendations for policies and programmes.

Chapter 2. Men and women: a demographic overview

A country's population is defined by its demographic profiles. This chapter presents a broad picture of the demographic characteristics of Myanmar's population as evidenced from the 2014 Census, with a focus on gender-relevant findings.

2.1 Trends in sex composition

Table 2.1 shows that the 2014 Census reported that there were more women than men in Myanmar, both in urban and rural areas. At the Union level there were 93 males for every 100 females – a profile that differs from the global sex ratio of 101 males per 100 females (UNFPA, 2012). Data from the 1973 and 1983 censuses indicate that the number of men relative to women appears to be on a downward trend, from a level of 99 males per 100 females in 1973 and 98 males per 100 females in 1983.

Table 2.1

Population and sex ratios, Union, 1973, 1983 and 2014 censuses, urban and rural areas, State/Region, 2014 Census

	Both Sexes	Male		Female		Sex ratio*
		Number	%	Number	%	
1973	28,084,513	13,962,774	49.7	14,121,739	50.3	99
1983	35,307,913	17,518,255	49.6	17,789,658	50.4	98
2014 Union	50,279,900	24,228,714	48.2	26,051,186	51.8	93
Urban	14,877,943	7,114,224	47.8	7,763,719	52.2	92
Rural	35,401,957	17,114,490	48.3	18,287,467	51.7	94
State/Region						
Kachin	1,642,841	855,353	52.1	787,488	47.9	109
Kayah	286,627	143,213	50.0	143,414	50.0	100
Kayin	1,504,326	739,127	49.1	765,199	50.9	97
Chin	478,801	229,604	48.0	249,197	52.0	92
Sagaing	5,325,347	2,516,949	47.3	2,808,398	52.7	90
Tanintharyi	1,408,401	700,619	49.7	707,782	50.3	99
Bago	4,867,373	2,322,338	47.7	2,545,035	52.3	91
Magway	3,917,055	1,813,974	46.3	2,103,081	53.7	86
Mandalay	6,165,723	2,928,367	47.5	3,237,356	52.5	90
Mon	2,054,393	987,392	48.1	1,067,001	51.9	93
Rakhine	2,098,807	989,702	47.2	1,109,105	52.8	89
Yangon	7,360,703	3,516,403	47.8	3,844,300	52.2	91
Shan	5,824,432	2,910,710	50.0	2,913,722	50.0	100
Ayeyawady	6,184,829	3,009,808	48.7	3,175,021	51.3	95
Nay Pyi Taw	1,160,242	565,155	48.7	595,087	51.3	95

* Males per 100 females.

The variation in the sex ratio across the country is an indicator of underlying social and economic factors. In 2014, the ratio in rural areas was 94 males for every 100 females, and slightly lower (92) in urban areas. The profile of low sex ratios (more women than men) also persists across most States/Regions but one in particular (Magway) reported significantly fewer men than elsewhere (only 86 males per 100 females). Conversely, Kachin stands out as the only State/Region where males outnumbered females (109:100 females). In Kayah and

Chapter 2. Men and women: a demographic overview

Shan, there was parity in sex ratios (with equal proportions of men and women).

From a gender perspective, the results imply that females have higher survival chances in Myanmar than males. But the imbalance can be partly explained by the greater extent of migration of men in search of employment, leaving behind an increasingly female-dominated population (Department of Population, 2017b). From a gender equality point of view, where women outnumber men in a country, their numbers are expected to be reflected in most development spheres; social, political and economic, but this is not the case in Myanmar, as illustrated by the example of political representation in Chapter 1, where the proportion of women is still low.

2.2 Population, age and gender

2.2.1 General age-sex distribution

The age and sex structure of a population influences policy direction in that different age groups have particular needs in terms of access to social services such as health and education. Table 2.2 shows that sex ratios begin falling from around the age of 15, suggesting that outmigration in search of employment could be affecting the gender composition of the population in Myanmar. At older ages, the absence of men is more pronounced, with the gender gap significantly widening from the age of 65 as higher male mortality and longer life expectancy of females takes effect.

2.2.2 Population aged 0-14

The population aged 0-14 represents children in their formative years, whose access to services such as health and education is critical not only to their individual growth and development but also in determining the future manpower supply and the direction of development of a country.

Table 2.3 shows that in 2014, there were more boys than girls aged below 15 (103 boys for every 100 girls) in contrast to the national ratio of 93. This conforms to the international norm of there being more boys than girls at young ages. The world sex ratio for children aged 0-14 in 2015 was estimated at about 102 males per 100 females (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2015). This is the legacy of the greater ratio of male to female births (around 104 male births per 100 female births) - a pattern that is observed in most countries (Department of Population, 2016a, p 27).

Chapter 2. Men and women: a demographic overview

Table 2.2

Population by sex by age, 2014 Census

Age group	Both sexes	Male		Female		Gender gap*	Sex ratio**
		Number	%	Number	%		
UNION	50,279,900	24,228,714	48	26,051,186	52	-4	93
0 - 4	4,472,130	2,262,783	51	2,209,347	49	+2	102
5 - 9	4,819,077	2,438,372	51	2,380,705	49	+2	102
10 - 14	5,108,362	2,595,749	51	2,512,613	49	+2	103
15 - 19	4,625,989	2,290,998	50	2,334,991	50	0	98
20 - 24	4,331,069	2,091,525	48	2,239,544	52	-4	93
25 - 29	4,146,134	1,995,465	48	2,150,669	52	-4	93
30 - 34	3,898,861	1,884,549	48	2,014,312	52	-4	94
35 - 39	3,563,480	1,705,630	48	1,857,850	52	-4	92
40 - 44	3,283,073	1,548,942	47	1,734,131	53	-6	89
45 - 49	2,946,148	1,375,041	47	1,571,107	53	-6	88
50 - 54	2,559,232	1,182,341	46	1,376,891	54	-8	86
55 - 59	2,051,937	935,979	46	1,115,958	54	-8	84
60 - 64	1,576,845	712,040	45	864,805	55	-10	82
65 - 69	1,064,493	466,618	44	597,875	56	-12	78
70 - 74	713,170	301,679	42	411,491	58	-16	73
75 - 79	553,298	228,315	41	324,983	59	-10	70
80 - 84	335,576	130,875	39	204,701	61	-22	64
85 - 89	158,069	56,979	36	101,090	64	-28	56
90 +	72,957	24,834	34	48,123	66	-32	52

* Percentage male – Percentage female.

** Males per 100 females.

Table 2.3

Percentage of population aged 0-14 by sex, State/Region, 2014 Census

State/Region	Relative proportion of males and females		Gender gap*	Sex ratio**
	% Male	% Female		
UNION	51	49	+2	103
Kachin	51	49	+2	103
Kayah	51	49	+2	103
Kayin	51	49	+2	103
Chin	50	50	0	102
Sagaing	50	50	0	102
Tanintharyi	51	49	+2	103
Bago	51	49	+2	103
Magway	50	50	0	101
Mandalay	51	49	+2	103
Mon	51	49	+2	104
Rakhine	51	49	+2	103
Yangon	51	49	+2	104
Shan	51	49	+2	102
Ayeyawady	51	50	+1	102
Nay Pyi Taw	51	49	+1	103

* Percentage male - Percentage female.

** Males per 100 females.

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2.2.3 Population aged 15-64

The population aged 15-64 years is significant to a country's economic growth as it represents the most economically productive age group. Equal access to resources and services (including education, employment and health care) is essential for increasing their productivity. The population aged 15-64 (often referred to as the working-age population) is also responsible for supporting the country's dependent population (0-14 and 65 years and over).

Table 2.4 shows that, overall, in 2014 the working-age population comprised a higher proportion of women (about 52 per cent) than men, suggesting that women form the greater part of the productive population and potential labour force supply in Myanmar.

Table 2.4

Percentage of population aged 15-64 by sex, State/Region, 2014 Census

State/Region	Both sexes	Male		Female		Gender gap*	Sex ratio**
	Number	Number	%	Number	%		
UNION	32,982,768	15,722,510	47.7	17,260,258	52.3	-4.6	91
Kachin	1,084,096	579,063	53.4	505,033	46.6	6.8	115
Kayah	176,934	88,335	49.9	88,599	50.1	-0.2	100
Kayin	888,642	431,388	48.5	457,254	51.5	-3.0	94
Chin	264,605	122,635	46.3	141,970	53.7	-7.4	86
Sagaing	3,468,865	1,615,885	46.6	1,852,980	53.4	-6.8	87
Tanintharyi	858,419	426,938	49.7	431,481	50.3	-0.6	99
Bago	3,175,185	1,492,733	47.0	1,682,452	53.0	-6.0	89
Magway	2,578,796	1,170,691	45.4	1,408,105	54.6	-9.2	83
Mandalay	4,186,385	1,963,525	46.9	2,222,860	53.1	-6.2	88
Mon	1,278,995	601,640	47.0	677,355	53.0	-6.0	89
Rakhine	1,305,561	598,624	45.9	706,937	54.1	-8.2	85
Yangon	5,219,941	2,463,600	47.2	2,756,341	52.8	-5.6	89
Shan	3,712,196	1,858,154	50.1	1,854,042	49.9	0.2	100
Ayeyawady	4,004,350	1,931,506	48.2	2,072,844	51.8	-3.6	93
Nay Pyi Taw	779,798	377,793	48.4	402,005	51.6	-3.2	94

* Percentage male – Percentage female.

** Males per 100 females.

At the State/Region level, only Kachin had more men than women in this age group (115 men for every 100 women) hence the widest gender gap (+6.8) in favour of men. In Kayah and Shan the number of women and men were almost equal (a sex ratio of 100 in both States).

The findings underscore the impact of the migration phenomenon in Myanmar, where many men in their productive ages leave the country in search of employment. It also calls for policy changes that will ensure more women are engaged in productive economic activities, since within this productive age group, they form a majority. Appendix 1, Table A1 shows the share of males and females in the population at the Union level and in urban and rural areas by age group.

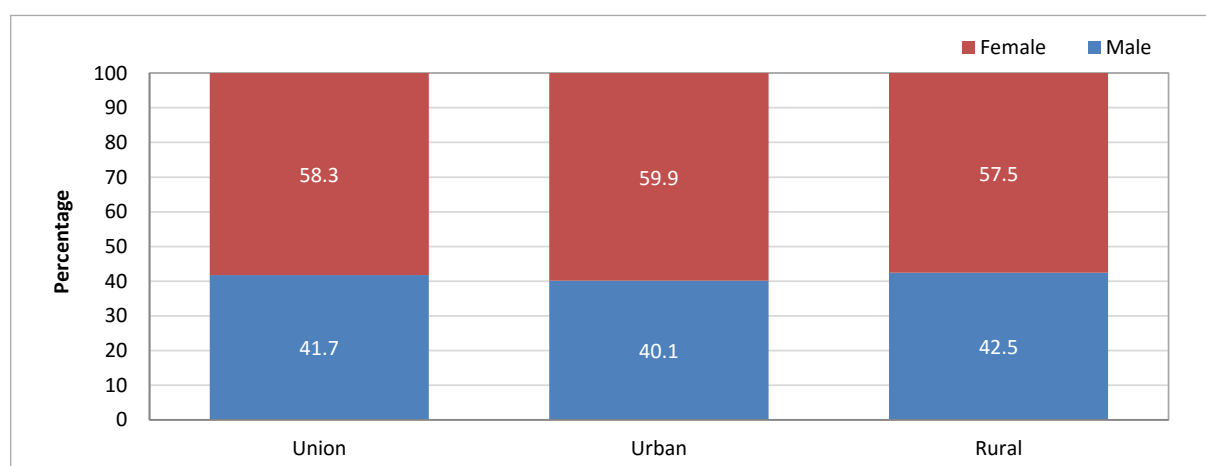
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2.2.4 The older population

The population aged 65 and over is usually described as the dependent population, along with children aged 0-14. Its sex composition reflects the differences between male and female life expectancy, and has implications on the social support needs of a country. At the Union level, Figure 2.1 shows that 58.3 per cent of the older population were women at the time of the Census, but that this proportion rose to almost 60 per cent in urban areas, attributable to better living conditions especially in terms of access to health care for older women. At the Union level, the sex ratio was 71.6 males per 100 females, somewhat lower than the global average of 80.3 (He *et al*, 2016).

Figure 2.1

Percentage of the population aged 65 and over by sex, urban and rural areas, 2014 Census



2.3 Marriage and fertility

2.3.1 Marital status

Marriage patterns in a country may directly, or indirectly, affect the economic and social well-being of men and women. The 2014 Census reported that, at the Union level, the proportion of women aged 15 and over who were married was lower (57.8 per cent) than that of men (61.4 per cent). However, reflecting the lower life expectancy of men, widowhood was more prevalent among women (10.4 per cent) compared with just 3.1 per cent of men (Figure 2.2 and Table 2.5). This pattern of a higher proportion of men than women married was reported in the majority of States/Regions, but not all (as shown in Table 2.5). In Kayah, Tanintharyi and Shan, for example, the opposite was the case, with proportionately more married women than men, and particularly so in Kachin, where the lowest proportion of married men was reported (54.0 per cent).

Chapter 2. Men and women: a demographic overview

Figure 2.2

Percentage of the population aged 15 and over by sex by marital status, 2014 Census

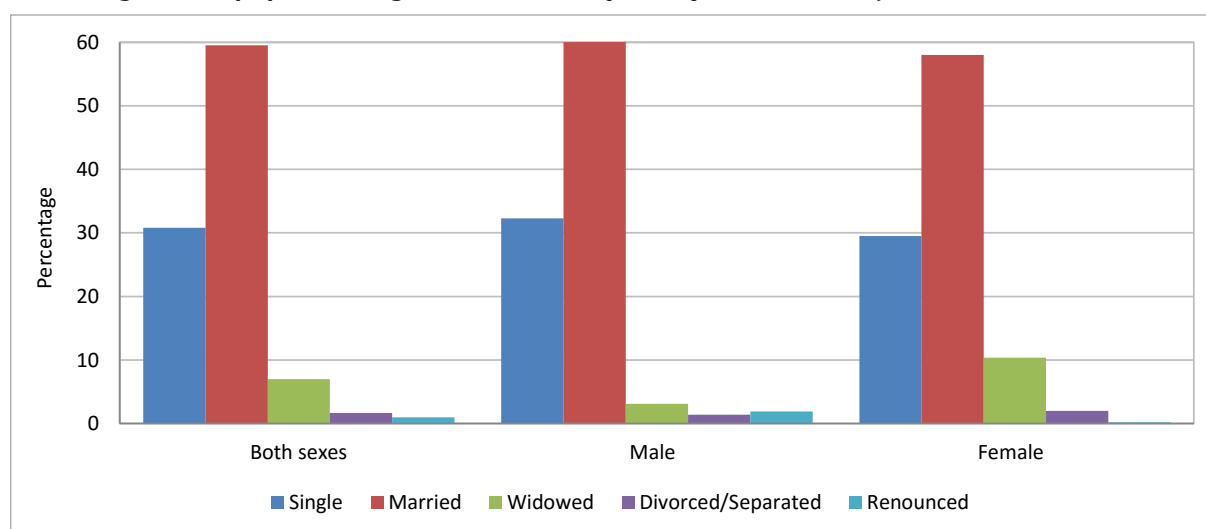


Table 2.5

Percentage of the population aged 15 and over by marital status by sex, State/Region, 2014 Census

State/ Region	Percentage by marital status														
	Single			Married			Widowed			Divorced/Separated			Renounced		
	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female
UNION	30.8	32.3	29.5	59.5	61.4	57.8	7.0	3.1	10.4	1.7	1.4	2.0	1.0	1.9	0.2
Kachin	36.1	42.2	29.3	56.0	54.0	58.2	6.2	1.9	10.9	1.2	1.0	1.5	0.6	0.9	0.2
Kayah	33.5	37.6	29.4	58.0	57.6	58.3	6.3	2.5	10.1	1.4	1.1	1.8	0.7	1.2	0.3
Kayin	26.8	30.1	23.8	62.9	63.0	62.9	7.5	3.5	11.3	1.6	1.3	1.8	1.1	2.0	0.3
Chin	29.9	33.2	27.1	60.9	63.0	59.2	7.2	2.7	11.0	1.8	0.8	2.6	0.2	0.3	0.1
Sagaing	32.1	32.2	32.0	58.6	61.8	55.9	6.9	3.0	10.2	1.3	1.0	1.6	1.1	2.0	0.3
Tanintharyi	31.6	35.0	28.3	59.4	59.1	59.6	6.5	2.9	10.0	1.7	1.6	1.9	0.8	1.4	0.2
Bago	28.0	28.6	27.5	61.6	64.4	59.2	7.5	3.4	11.0	1.8	1.5	2.1	1.1	2.0	0.2
Magway	29.5	28.7	30.1	60.5	64.7	57.0	7.7	3.7	11.0	1.5	1.2	1.8	0.8	1.7	0.1
Mandalay	34.1	34.0	34.1	56.7	59.5	54.3	6.5	2.9	9.7	1.4	1.1	1.6	1.3	2.6	0.2
Mon	28.6	30.0	27.4	59.9	61.3	58.7	7.8	3.6	11.4	2.0	1.7	2.2	1.8	3.4	0.4
Rakhine	24.9	27.0	23.2	63.3	66.2	60.8	8.6	3.6	12.9	2.4	1.6	3.0	0.8	1.6	0.1
Yangon	36.2	37.4	35.1	54.4	56.6	52.5	6.4	2.5	9.8	1.8	1.4	2.2	1.1	2.0	0.3
Shan	28.6	32.6	24.7	62.0	61.6	62.4	6.6	2.8	10.3	2.0	1.5	2.4	0.9	1.6	0.1
Ayeyawady	26.6	27.9	25.4	63.6	65.1	62.2	7.2	4.0	10.1	1.9	1.7	2.2	0.7	1.4	0.1
Nay Pyi Taw	30.1	31.7	28.5	61.3	63.0	59.8	6.0	2.4	9.4	1.8	1.4	2.2	0.8	1.5	0.1

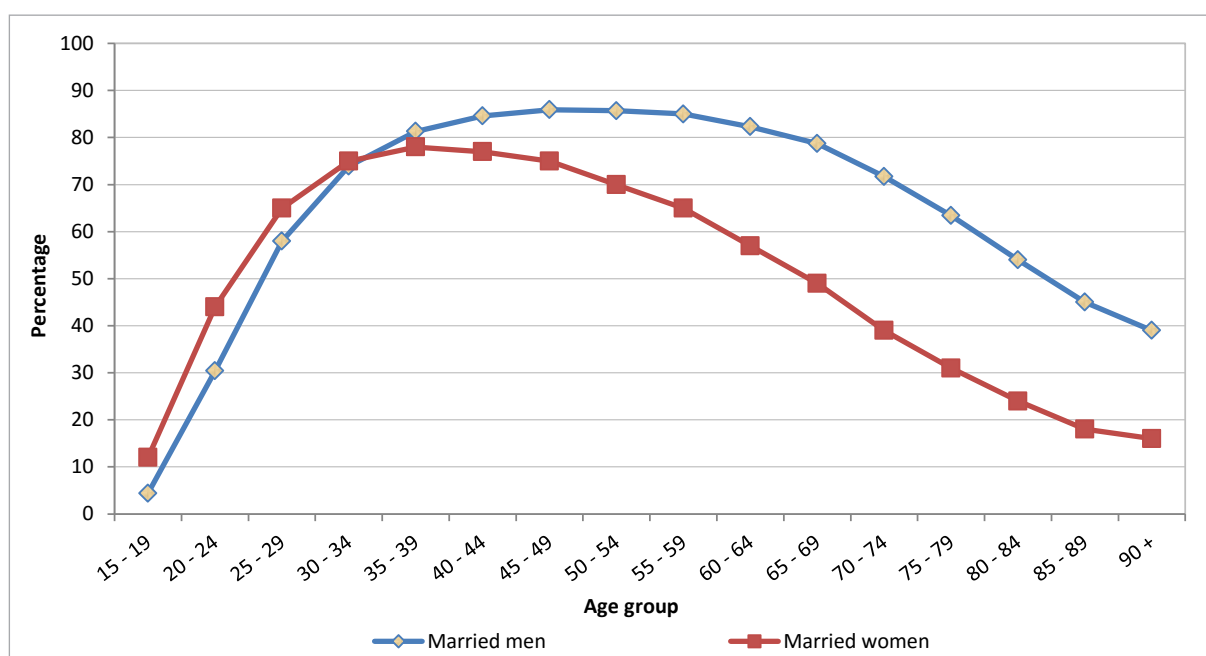
The pattern of greater prevalence of widowhood among women was, however, persistent across all States/Regions. The highest levels of widowhood among women were reported in Rakhine, but it should be noted that a rate of 12.9 per cent is likely to have been affected by the level of under-enumeration in that State. The next highest rate (11.4 per cent) was reported in Mon. The lowest proportion of widowed women was in Nay Pyi Taw (9.4 per cent), while the lowest percentage of widowed men was in Kachin (1.9 per cent).

Chapter 2. Men and women: a demographic overview

Since women live longer than men, the marital status for most of them is likely to change with advancing age. A consequence of increasing levels of male mortality with age is that the proportions of women who are married decline more significantly with advancing age compared to married men. From around the age of 40, the proportion of married women begins to decline and much later for men at the age of 55, but the decline is more pronounced among women. By the time women reach the age of 65, Figure 2.3 shows that barely half were reported as married, and this proportion dropped to less than a quarter at around age 80.

Figure 2.3

Percentage of women and men married by age, 2014 Census

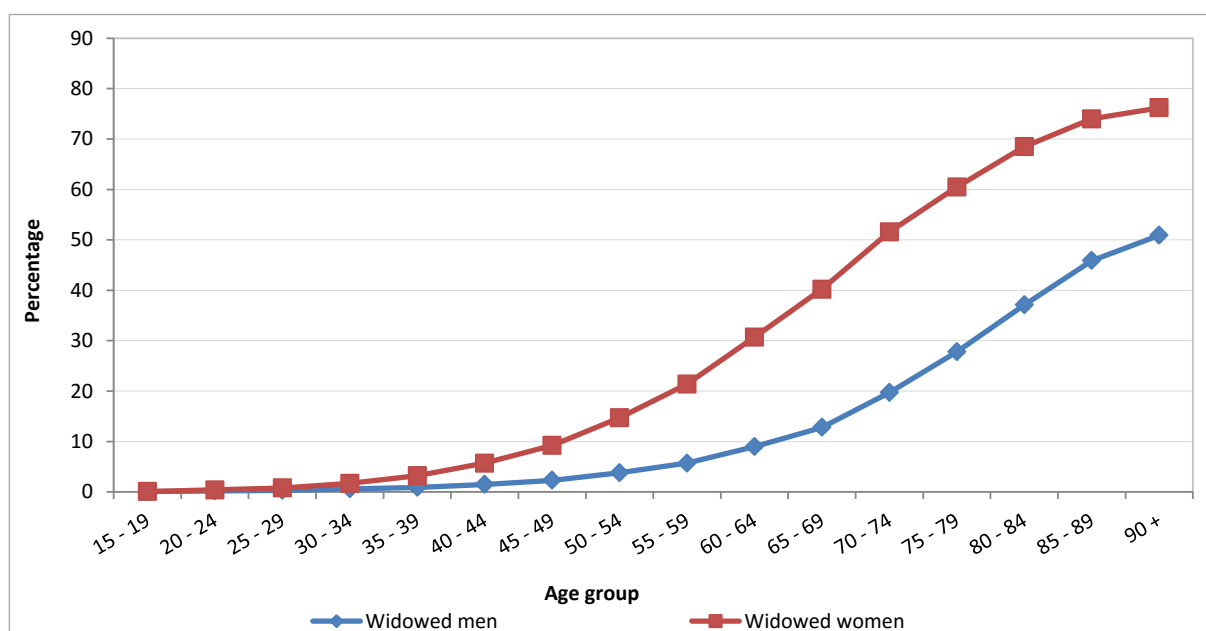


Looking at the other side of the same coin, the Census reported that the proportion of women who are widowed increased with age beyond the age of 30. Figure 2.4 shows that by age 70 over 50 per cent of women were widowed. Moreover, once widowed, women tend to maintain that status and do not re-marry in their later years.

Culturally, and in most patriarchal societies, most widowed women do not re-marry irrespective of their age. It has been estimated that in Africa, as well as central, southern and South-East Asia, 16 to 19 per cent of women between the ages of 45 and 59 are widowed (United Nations Department of Social and Economic Affairs, 2015b), but the increasingly high proportions of younger women being widowed in Myanmar is rather unusual.

Figure 2.4

Percentage of women and men widowed by age, 2014 Census



The high proportions of widowed women are dependent on support from their adult children in terms of health and other social services, since in Myanmar, older people are supported mainly by their families (Ministry of Health, 2014). Some empirical evidence from Myanmar shows that older people who experience marital disruption are likely to develop depression as a result of the traumatic experience arising from the unexpected loss of a spouse (Khin Dar and Minhat, 2015). Although the relatively higher life expectancy of females than males is acknowledged globally, it would be of interest to policymakers to address the root causes of the significantly higher loss of male spouses at older ages in Myanmar.

2.3.2 Age at marriage

Irrespective of whether they live in urban or rural areas, the Census reported that women tend to marry earlier than men, a phenomenon that conforms to wider global trends. Figure 2.5 and Table 2.6 show the singulate mean age at marriage (SMAM)¹ for women and men for each State/Region derived from the information collected in the 2014 Census. At the Union level the age gap between the sexes was 2.28 years, but in Kachin it was as wide as 4.24 years and as narrow as 1.45 years in Magway.

A positive aspect of the findings on marriage is that the SMAM for women in Myanmar falls above the age of secondary school completion (15 years). In this respect, marriage is not generally expected to have any effect on secondary school level educational attainment in Myanmar. However, the Census nevertheless showed that adolescent girls are more likely to enter into an early marriage than boys.

¹ The singulate mean age at marriage (SMAM) is the average length of single life among those who marry before the age of 50 and is calculated from the proportions single in five-year age groups from a census or survey. The method was proposed by Hajnal (1953, pp 111-136).

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Figure 2.5

Singulate mean age at marriage (SMAM) by sex, urban and rural areas, State/Region, 2014 Census

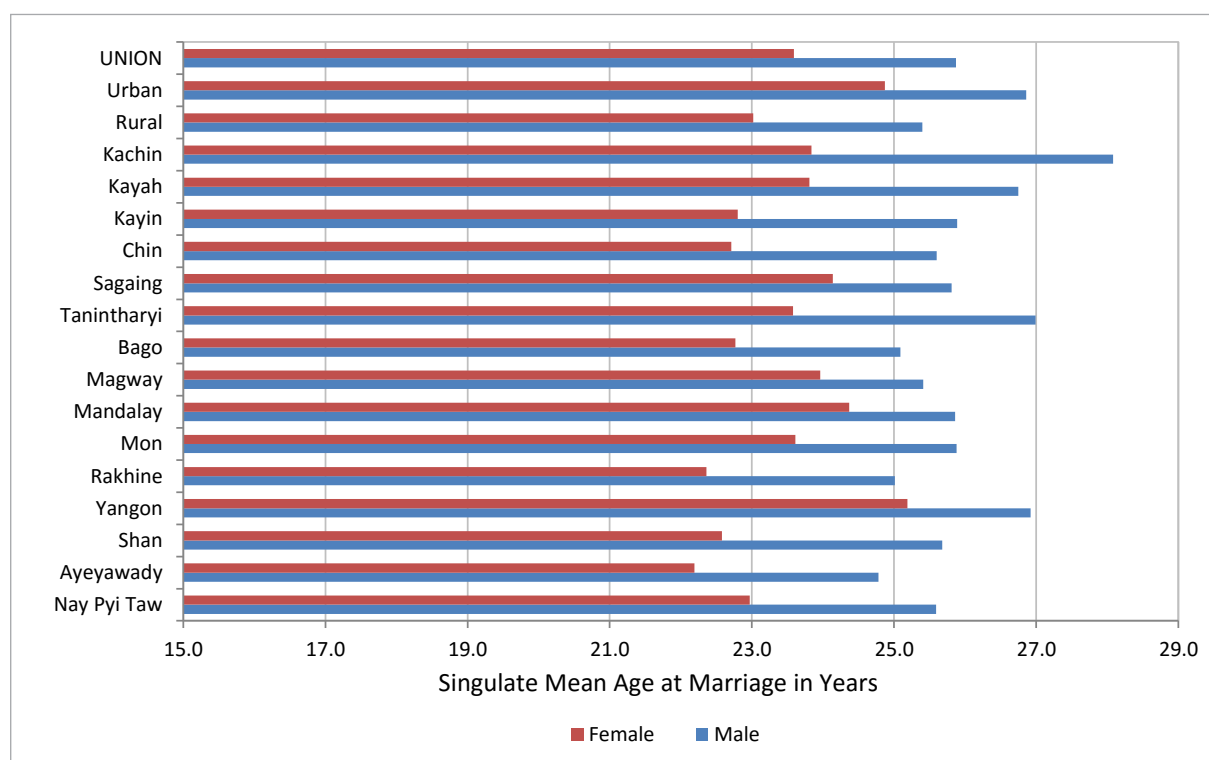


Table 2.6

Singulate mean age at marriage (SMAM) by sex, urban and rural areas, State/Region, 2014 Census

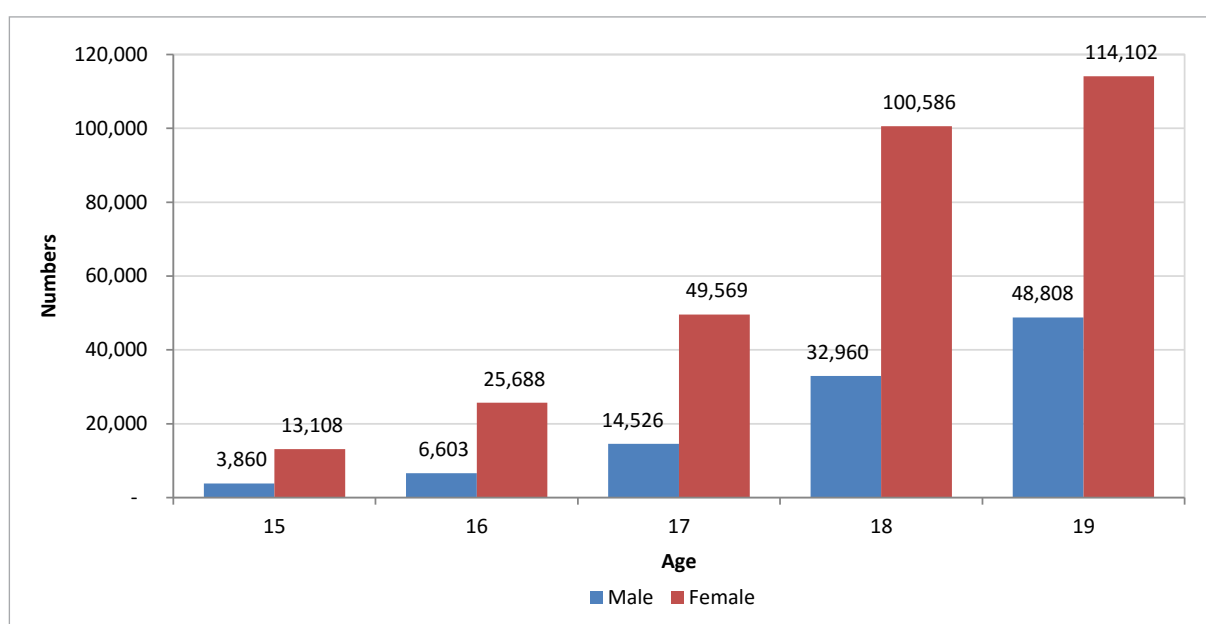
	Both sexes	Male	Female	Gender gap (in years)
UNION	24.71	25.87	23.59	2.28
Urban	25.83	26.86	24.87	1.99
Rural	24.19	25.40	23.02	2.38
State/ Region				
Kachin	26.22	28.08	23.84	4.24
Kayah	25.32	26.75	23.81	2.94
Kayin	24.33	25.89	22.80	3.09
Chin	24.04	25.60	22.71	2.89
Sagaing	24.94	25.81	24.14	1.67
Tanintharyi	25.31	26.99	23.58	3.41
Bago	23.90	25.09	22.77	2.32
Magway	24.65	25.41	23.96	1.45
Mandalay	25.09	25.86	24.37	1.49
Mon	24.71	25.88	23.61	2.27
Rakhine	23.59	25.01	22.36	2.65
Yangon	26.02	26.92	25.19	1.73
Shan	24.15	25.68	22.58	3.10
Ayeyawady	23.47	24.78	22.19	2.59
Nay Pyi Taw	24.28	25.59	22.97	2.62

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Early marriage of girls, considered to be a harmful practice in many less developed countries, has been linked to health risks for both mothers and children, as well as to increased fertility at the aggregate level due to the early onset of childbearing. Some empirical evidence also points to the limitations of education and employment opportunities for girls exposed to early child marriage before the age of 18 (Parsons *et al*, 2015). More girls than boys aged 15-19 were reported to be ever-married (married, divorced/separated or widowed) at the time of the 2014 Census, as shown in Figure 2.6.

Figure 2.6

Numbers of ever-married adolescents by sex and age, 2014 Census



2.3.3 Marital sorting patterns

Gender equality in socioeconomic spheres such as education and literacy may also influence some social characteristics and behaviours in a population such as marriage patterns. Marital sorting is a concept whereby people consider certain attributes in the process of selecting a spouse. While people generally prefer to choose partners with similar characteristics to themselves, some men and women may value attributes of partners differently (Lee, 2008). One of the common attributes that people are likely to value when choosing a spouse is educational attainment. One person in a household is usually identified as head of the household. In the 2014 Census, households that included another person identified as spouse of the head during enumeration therefore contained a married couple, one of whom - usually, but not always, the husband - was regarded as the head of household. These couples may be referred to as 'head couples'. The Census shows that most couples are likely to be in a union where spouses have similar educational levels

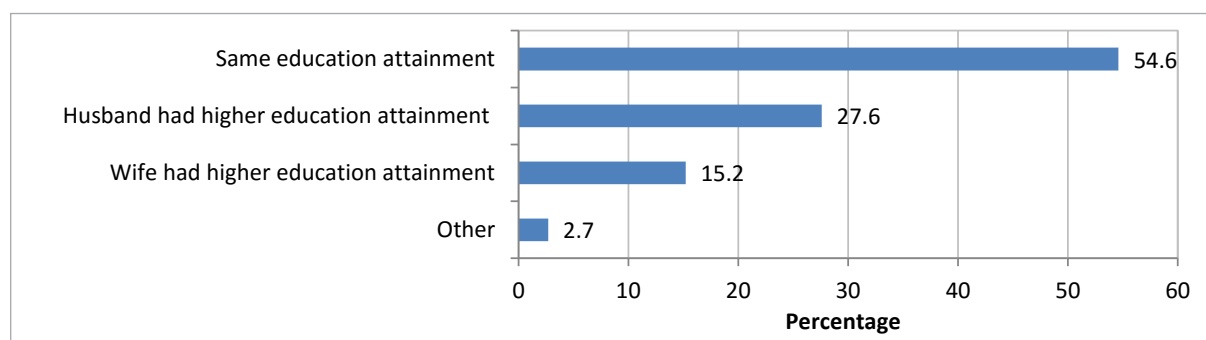
For the majority of head couples analysed, Figure 2.7 shows that both had the same educational attainment levels (54.6 per cent). In over a quarter of couples, the husband had a higher level of educational attainment than that of his wife, but a sizeable proportion of couples (15.2 per cent) reported that the wife had attained a higher level of education than the husband.

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Literacy proves to be an even more determining characteristic. In total 85.0 per cent of all women in head couples were literate compared to 91.8 per cent of all men. Between them, well over 80 per cent of head couples were both literate (Figure 2.8).

Figure 2.7

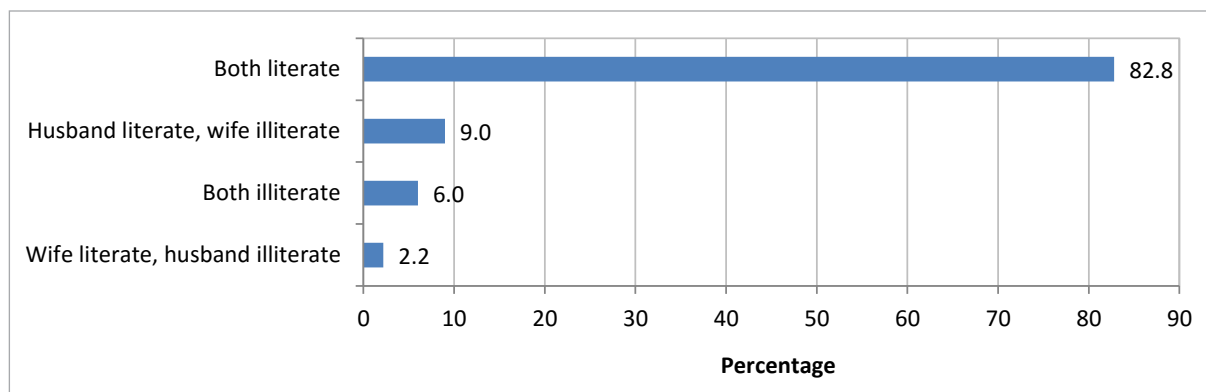
Marital sorting (percentage of head couples) by educational attainment, 2014 Census



Note: 'Other' refers to where either the husband's or the wife's educational attainment (or both) was reported as 'other' and where it was therefore not possible to determine which, if either, was higher.

Figure 2.8

Marital sorting (percentage of head couples) by literacy, 2014 Census



Such observations suggest that these two characteristics may determine to a large degree a preference in marriage partners. However, based on the current findings from the 2014 Census alone, it is not possible to conclude that this is the case in Myanmar.

2.3.4 Fertility and gender

The social values and norms related to the cultural and traditional beliefs of people play a significant role in determining the levels of fertility (Golmakani, 2015). Beliefs related to reproduction may influence gender and social relations and consequently important life decisions/events such as marriage. It is a universally accepted cultural norm in Myanmar that childbearing is expected to only occur within marriage. In the 2014 Census, information on the number of children born alive was therefore only collected for ever-married women. The age-specific fertility rate (ASFR) for all women in the age group 15-49 is usually lower than the marital ASFR in most countries. Table 2.7 shows that this trend was the same in Myanmar.

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The age-specific fertility rates were highest between the ages of 20 and 34 years. Some births, although comparatively few, were to adolescent mothers (aged 15-19), and hence represented adolescent fertility. From the information collected in the 2014 Census, these young mothers are, by definition, married adolescents. This calls for a greater emphasis on family planning/sex education at primary and secondary levels of education given that such married adolescents are not likely to have attained levels higher than secondary level education. It should also be noted that such early births have an impact on the health of young mothers especially in terms of the possibility of birth complications due to their young age.

Table 2.7

Mean number of children ever born and age-specific fertility rates, 2014 Census

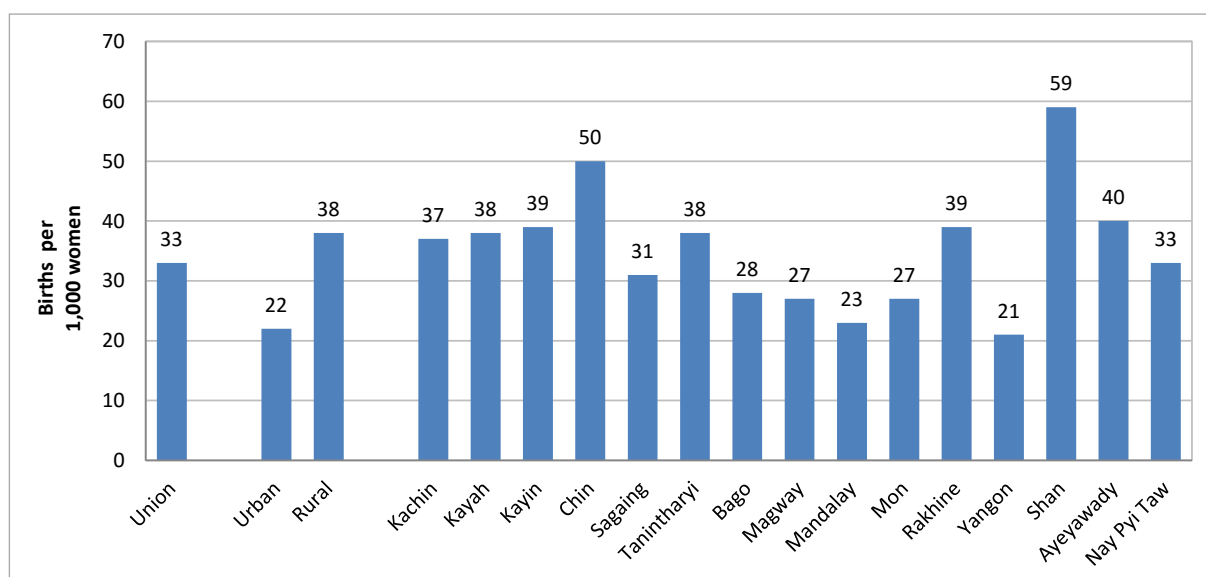
Age Group	Total number of women	Total number married	Percentage married (in age group)	Mean number of children ever born	Age-specific fertility rate*	Marital age-specific fertility rate (ASFR)**
15-19	2,334,991	290,045	12.4	0.0472	33	262
20-24	2,239,544	976,955	43.6	0.4079	109	241
25-29	2,150,669	1,399,437	65.1	1.0419	129	195
30-34	2,014,312	1,507,607	74.8	1.7317	112	149
35-39	1,857,850	1,442,787	77.7	2.3694	77	98
40-44	1,734,131	1,340,028	77.3	2.9001	33	43
45-49	1,571,107	1,176,860	74.9	3.2698	8	10

*Births per thousand women = $\left\{ \frac{\text{Number of births to women in a particular age group}}{\text{Total number of women in the same age group}} \right\} \times 1,000$

**Births per thousand married women = $\left\{ \frac{\text{Number of births to women in a particular age group}}{\text{Total number of married women in the same age group}} \right\} \times 1,000$

Figure 2.9

Adolescent fertility rate*, urban and rural areas, State/Region, 2014 Census



* Births per thousand women aged 15-19.

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Levels of adolescent fertility differ substantially between urban and rural areas and States/Regions. Figure 2.9 shows that the highest numbers of births to adolescents were reported in Shan (59 births per 1,000 women) and Chin (50 births per 1,000 women), while the lowest rates were in Yangon (21) and Mandalay (23). Yangon, in particular, is a large cosmopolitan city, and is, therefore, expected to be a melting pot of different cultures, where the traditional norms of childbearing may not be so apparent, thus accounting for the low rate in contrast to the high rates in States such as Shan and Chin. It is, perhaps, not surprising that the States/Regions with the highest and lowest adolescent fertility rates are the same as those with, respectively, the lowest and highest SMAMs noted at Table 2.6.

It is also important to look at the impact that adolescent childbearing has on completed levels of female education. Table 2.8 shows that mothers who had their first child in their teenage years were more likely to have attained no level of education. Almost 30 per cent of girls who gave birth at the age of 15 reported that they had not attained any level of education. This proportion declined with age at birth so that for those aged 19 at birth, only one in seven had no education.

Table 2.8

Percentage of mothers by age of birth of first child by completed level of education, 2014 Census

Completed level of education	Age at birth of first child					Total
	15	16	17	18	19	
None	29.5	21.5	19.1	20.2	14.7	17.6
Grade 1	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.8	1.5	1.6
Grade 2	3.6	4.4	4.5	4.7	4.6	4.6
Grade 3	7.5	7.8	9.0	8.9	8.7	8.7
Grade 4	8.9	11.3	11.0	11.6	12.0	11.7
Grade 5	16.3	19.9	21.2	20.0	21.8	20.9
Grade 6	5.8	7.8	7.6	7.1	7.5	7.4
Grade 7	6.2	6.6	6.6	5.9	6.0	6.1
Grade 8	6.2	5.7	6.2	6.2	6.3	6.2
Grade 9	6.2	5.2	5.5	5.6	6.5	6.0
Grade 10	5.8	4.0	3.6	3.7	4.9	4.3
Grade 11	1.9	3.1	2.5	2.7	3.7	3.2
College/Vocational Training	0.2	0.4	0.9	0.9	1.2	1.0
Undergraduate	-	-	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Graduate/Postgraduate	-	-	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1
Other	0.4	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

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However, the overall profile of educational attainment for adolescent mothers is not so very different from that of females generally. The 2014 Census thematic report on Education (Department of Population, 2017a) notes that 18.8 per cent of all women aged 25 and over reported having no education, and that the percentage distribution peaked at Grade 5 (22.5 per cent) in much the same way that it does for teenage mothers (20.9 per cent). Some 3.2 per cent of adolescent mothers reported completing Grade 11, compared with 4.4 per cent of all women aged 25 and over.

2.4 Mortality and life expectancy

Levels of mortality are a reflection of the quality of life of a country's population as well as the degree of access to services such as health, education, water and sanitation. Achieving SDG 3 (to ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages) is therefore crucial for any country making efforts to lower mortality levels and improve the life expectancy of the population.

2.4.1 Early-age mortality

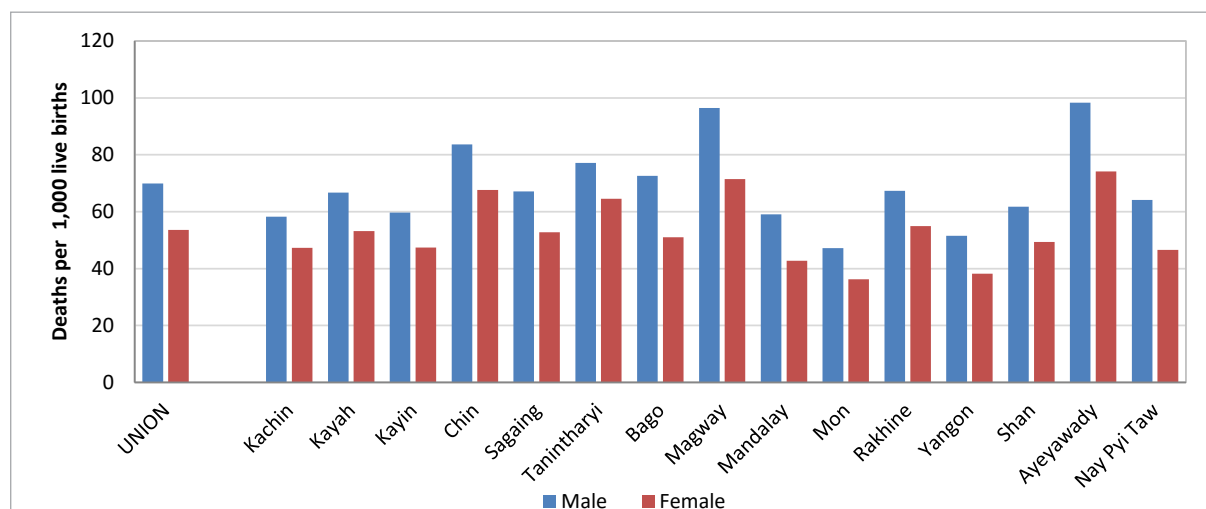
Levels of childhood mortality depend on the availability of good nutrition, immunization and other health care services for children within the first five years of their life, as well as on the general standards of living of the population. Mortality levels are also influenced by prevailing social conditions that have implications for child health, such as poverty levels and conflict or instability, which all affect food security and the provision of proper sanitation. Early-age mortality includes infant mortality (the number of deaths of infants under the age of one year per 1,000 live births in a given year) and child mortality (the number of deaths of children between the ages of one and four years per 1,000 live births).

Infant mortality rates are, generally, higher than child mortality rates, because once infants survive to their first birthday, their chances of survival over the next four years are higher. The infant mortality rate estimate derived from the 2014 Census data was 62 deaths per thousand live births which is a lot higher than the 2014 estimates by the World Bank for some ASEAN countries (for example, Brunei Darussalam 8.5, Malaysia 6.2, and Singapore 2.2 (World Bank, 2016a)).

The infant mortality rate is a good indicator that reflects the health status of a population (Population Reference Bureau, 2011). As with global trends, infant mortality rates (IMRs) derived from the 2014 Census were lower for females than for males, at the Union level as well as in all States/Regions. Magway and Ayeyawady reported the highest rates of both female and male mortality (Figure 2.10).

Figure 2.10

Infant mortality rates by sex, State/Region, 2014 Census



The difference between the female IMR and the male IMR measures the level of disparity, and can be interpreted as the level of female infant survival advantage over male infants in terms of reduced number of deaths. Table 2.9 shows that the female infant survival advantage was highest where IMRs were relatively very high, such that the differential was 25.0 in Magway and 24.2 in Ayeyawady. Conversely, the female infant survival advantage tended to be lower where IMRs were also lower.

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Table 2.9

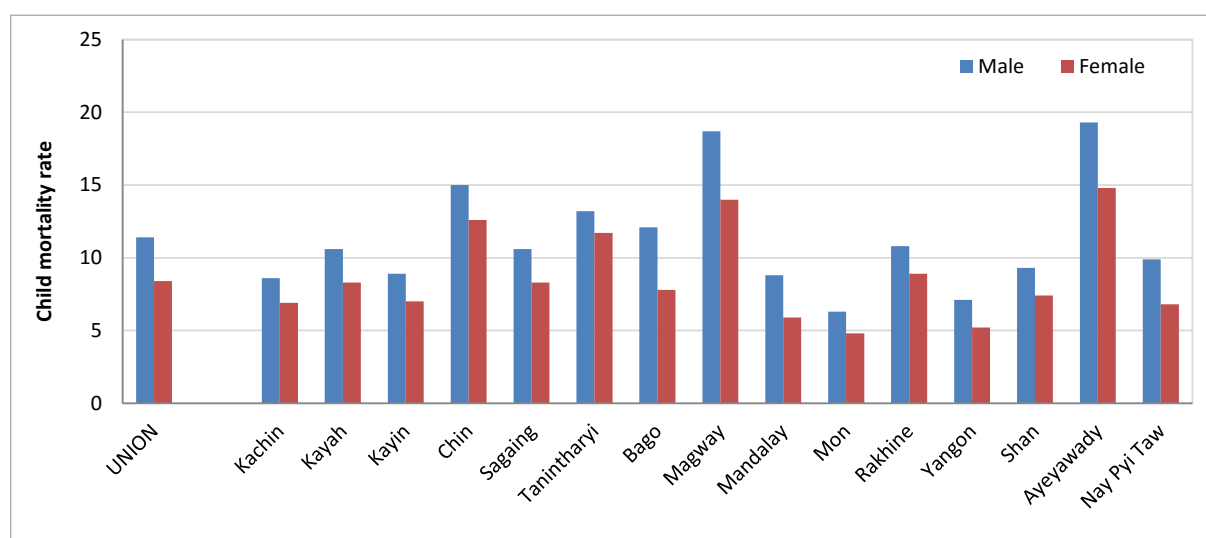
Infant and child mortality rates by sex, and female survival advantage, State/Region, 2014 Census

State/Region	Both sexes	Male	Female	Survival advantage (difference between male and female rate)
Infant mortality rates				
UNION	61.8	69.9	53.6	16.3
Kachin	52.8	58.2	47.3	10.9
Kayah	60.1	66.7	53.2	13.5
Kayin	53.6	59.7	47.4	12.3
Chin	75.5	83.6	67.6	16.0
Sagaing	60.0	67.1	52.8	14.3
Tanintharyi	70.8	77.1	64.5	12.6
Bago	61.9	72.6	51.0	21.6
Magway	83.9	96.5	71.5	25.0
Mandalay	50.3	59.1	42.7	16.4
Mon	41.9	47.2	36.2	11.0
Rakhine	61.1	67.3	54.9	12.4
Yangon	44.9	51.5	38.2	13.3
Shan	55.5	61.7	49.4	12.3
Ayeyawady	86.2	98.3	74.1	24.2
Nay Pyi Taw	55.4	64.1	46.6	17.5
Child mortality rates				
UNION	10.0	11.4	8.4	3.0
Kachin	7.8	8.6	6.9	1.7
Kayah	9.6	10.6	8.3	2.3
Kayin	8.0	8.9	7.0	1.9
Chin	14.1	15.0	12.6	2.4
Sagaing	9.6	10.6	8.3	2.3
Tanintharyi	12.6	13.2	11.7	1.5
Bago	10.1	12.1	7.8	4.1
Magway	16.7	18.7	14.0	4.7
Mandalay	8.1	8.8	5.9	2.9
Mon	5.4	6.3	4.8	1.5
Rakhine	9.9	10.8	8.9	1.9
Yangon	6.1	7.1	5.2	1.9
Shan	8.5	9.3	7.4	1.9
Ayeyawady	17.4	19.3	14.8	4.5
Nay Pyi Taw	8.4	9.9	6.8	3.1

When looking at child mortality, Table 2.9 shows that Magway Region again emerges as the State/Region with the highest female child survival advantage over male children, with 4.7 deaths per 1,000 live births less for female children compared to male children. The results imply that although, on average, the general pattern of infant and child mortality in Myanmar points to better survival rates for female children than male children in the first five years of their life (as in other parts of the world), this child growth transition period carries a relatively higher risk for male children in certain parts of the country than others (Figure 2.11). This may be enhanced by additional socio-cultural factors, since under normal circumstances the sex ratio at birth is high (more male children than female children are born).

Figure 2.11

Child mortality rates by sex, State/Region, 2014 Census



2.4.2 Life expectancy at birth

In most modern societies, women live longer than men (Alberts *et al*, 2014). Though the primary reason for the female (survival) advantage over men is believed to be biological/physiological, the magnitude of the difference between women's and men's life expectancy may be attributed to socioeconomic and cultural factors. Global life expectancy at birth in 2015 was 71.4 years (73.6 years for females and 69.4 years for males) (World Bank, 2016b), meaning that women worldwide live 4.7 years longer on average than men (a female advantage).

Table 2.10 shows that women in Myanmar have a 9.16 year female advantage in life expectancy over men. There is also a marked difference in the female advantage of women (as might be expected) between urban and rural areas. A female child born in urban Myanmar is expected to live more than 11 years longer than a male child, while in rural areas the female advantage is reduced to a little over 8 years.

Again, as with early-age mortality, the magnitude of the differences between life expectancy of women and men varies between States/Regions (Figure 2.12). The female advantage is highest in Kayah (11.12 years) and lowest in Chin (6.12 years). These States also have, respectively, relatively high and low levels of female life expectancy. However, it is important to stress at this point that the greatest female advantage value for any particular area does not necessarily imply that the female life expectancy rate is the highest in comparison with other areas. It only gives a measure of the difference between female life expectancy and male life expectancy. This is borne out by the figures at Table 2.10.

A comparison of life expectancy at birth with other ASEAN countries shows that women in Myanmar experience the second highest female life advantage after Viet Nam at 9.6 years (Table 2.11).

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Figure 2.12

Life expectancy at birth by sex, urban and rural areas, State/Region, 2014 Census

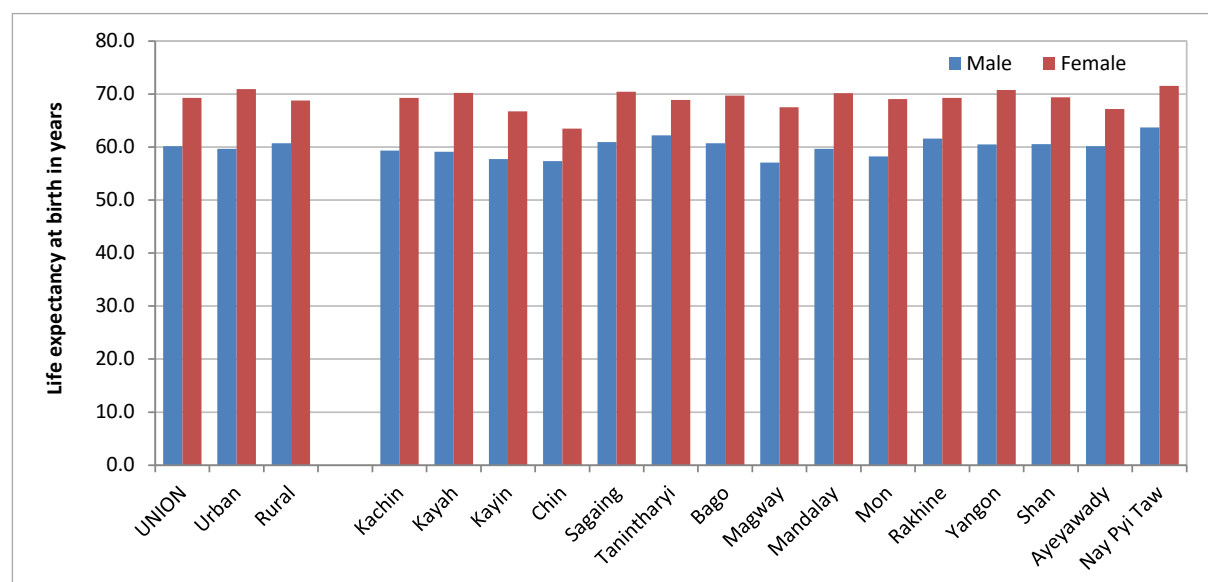


Table 2.10

Life expectancy at birth by sex, and female life advantage, State/Region, 2014 Census

State/Region	Both sexes	Male	Female	Female life advantage*
UNION	64.70	60.17	69.33	9.16
Urban	65.24	59.70	70.96	11.26
Rural	64.73	60.72	68.79	8.07
Kachin	64.23	59.36	69.31	9.95
Kayah	64.28	59.10	70.22	11.12
Kayin	62.08	57.74	66.72	8.98
Chin	60.48	57.37	63.49	6.12
Sagaing	65.75	60.96	70.43	9.47
Tanintharyi	65.53	62.20	68.90	6.70
Bago	65.20	60.72	69.75	9.03
Magway	62.27	57.08	67.49	10.41
Mandalay	64.89	59.68	70.17	10.49
Mon	63.50	58.24	69.07	10.83
Rakhine	65.47	61.60	69.26	7.66
Yangon	65.53	60.53	70.80	10.27
Shan	64.75	60.54	69.39	8.85
Ayeyawady	63.64	60.18	67.20	7.02
Nay Pyi Taw	67.66	63.68	71.56	7.88

*Female life expectancy - Male life expectancy.

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Table 2.11

Life expectancy at birth by sex, selected ASEAN countries

Country	Both sexes	Male	Female	Female advantage*
Myanmar (2014 Census)	64.7	60.2	69.3	9.2
Brunei Darussalam	78.4	76.6	80.4	3.8
Cambodia	67.6	65.5	69.5	4.0
Indonesia	68.6	66.6	70.7	4.1
Lao PDR	65.5	64.1	66.8	2.7
Malaysia	74.5	72.2	69.9	-2.3
Philippines	68.0	64.7	71.5	6.8
Singapore	82.6	79.6	85.6	6.0
Thailand	74.1	70.8	77.6	6.8
Viet Nam	75.6	70.7	80.3	9.6
Timor-Leste	67.7	66.1	69.5	3.4

*Female life expectancy - Male life expectancy.

Source: United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2015).

2.5 Migration

Migration has been cited as a pertinent issue due to the integral part it plays in the size and structure of labour markets and its impact on people's livelihoods, whether it occurs within countries, or across international borders. Some researchers have described migration as "a strategy of risk avoidance and resource diversification, with costs and benefits which can be shared by the individual, household and the wider group" (Gibson and Gurm, 2012).

Gender influences motivation for migrating; who migrates; the social networks that migrants utilize to move; the integration experiences they go through; the employment opportunities available at their destination; and (for international migration) the relationships between the countries of origin and destination (International Organization for Migration, 2016).

2.5.1 Internal migration

On aggregate, there are negligible differences between the proportions of males and females reported as migrants in the 2014 Census, whether they were 'lifetime' migrants or 'recent' migrants². Just over half of all migrants were females, comprising 52.7 per cent of lifetime migrants and 52.1 per cent of recent migrants (Department of Population, 2017a). Nor were there any significant differences in the proportions of male and female migrants by the type of move. Table 2.12 shows that: 5.7 per cent of females were local lifetime migrants moving only between Townships within the same Districts (compared with 5.5 per cent of males); a further 4.1 per cent (of both males and females) moved further afield between Districts but still within the same State/Region; and 9.3 per cent of females (and 9.8 per cent of males) moved between States/Regions.

There was even less of a difference in the profile of recent migration moves. (Appendix 1,

²Lifetime migrants are those whose Township of usual residence in the Census was different to their Township of birth. Recent migrants are those who changed their Township of usual residence at any time during the five-year period prior to the Census. Note that all migrations in this section refer only to persons enumerated in conventional households.

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Table A2 presents numbers and percentages of recent migrants by type of move for each State/Region). Nor were there variations in the proportions of males and females moving by type of urban/rural stream (Figure 2.13). However, there were some clear gender differences when it came to the reasons why males and females move.

It is important to investigate whether the migration of women and men is of an economic or social benefit to the individuals moving, especially given that more than half of all recent migrants were females. Table 2.13 shows that while the largest proportion of males moved for employment purposes (almost half of all recent moves) only a quarter or more of recent female migrants did so for this reason (27.6 per cent). Instead, the greater proportion of female migrants moved for family reasons (46.8 per cent) compared with less than a third of male migrants. Of course, many of these females were likely to have been women following their husbands or other family members to pursue new employment opportunities. However, the proportions moving for this reason were smaller for moves that involved a greater distance of travel. More than half (51.2 per cent) of females moves within the same District were for family reasons compared with 44.5 per cent of inter-State/Region moves.

Table 2.12

Number and percentages of lifetime and recent migrants (in conventional households) by type of move by sex, 2014 Census

(a) Lifetime migration

	Type of move				
	Between Township within District % (Number)	Between District within State/Region % (Number)	Between State/Region % (Number)	Non-migrants % (Number)	Total population % (Number)
Both sexes	5.6 (2,687,677)	4.1 (1,982,354)	9.5 (4,561,588)	80.7 (38,686,906)	100 (47,918,525)
Male	5.5 (1,240,811)	4.1 (930,074)	9.8 (2,198,566)	80.6 (18,179,077)	100 (22,548,528)
Female	5.7 (1,446,866)	4.1 (1,052,280)	9.3 (2,363,022)	80.8 (20,507,829)	100 (25,369,997)

(b) Recent migration

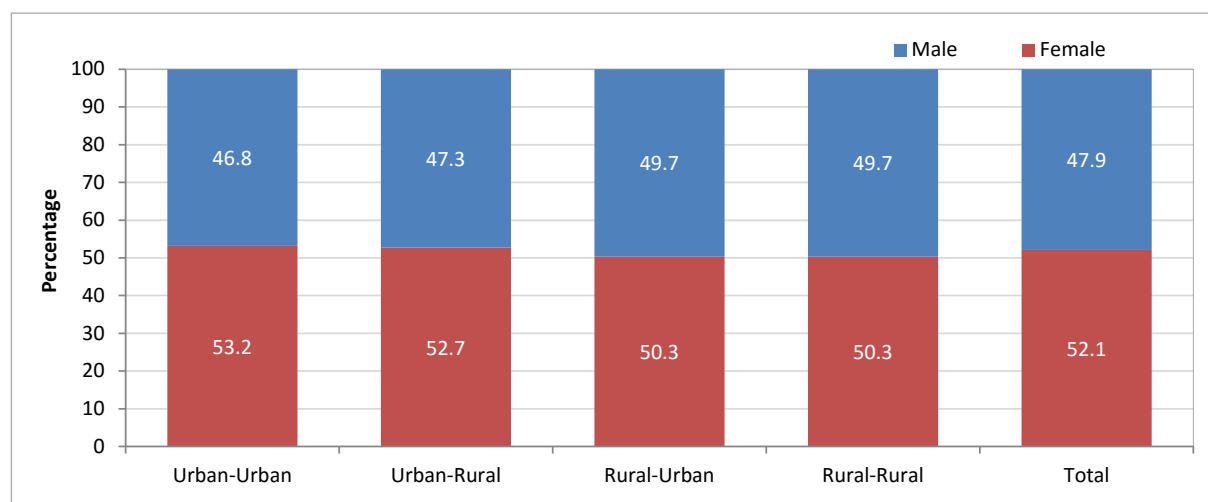
	Type of move				
	Between Township within District % (Number)	Between District within State/Region % (Number)	Between State/Region % (Number)	Non-migrants % (Number)	Total population % (Number)
Both sexes	1.9 (890,808)	1.3 (620,681)	3.9 (1,847,853)	93.0 (44,559,183)	100 (47,918,525)
Male	1.9 (423,155)	1.3 (296,695)	3.9 (889,296)	92.9 (20,939,382)	100 (22,548,528)
Female	1.8 (467,653)	1.3 (323,986)	3.8 (958,557)	93.1 (23,619,801)	100 (25,369,997)

Source: Department of Population, 2016.

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Figure 2.13

Sex composition of recent migrants by migration stream, 2014 Census



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Table 2.13

Percentage of recent migrants in conventional households by main reason for migration by sex by type of move, 2014 Census

Main reason for migration	Type of move			All recent moves % (Number)
	Between Township within District % (Number)	Between District within State/Region % (Number)	Between State/Region % (Number)	
Both sexes				
Employment or in search of employment	28.5 (253,450)	34.7 (215,206)	43.7 (806,886)	38.0 (1,275,542)
Education	2.5 (22,061)	2.8 (17,495)	2.7 (50,551)	2.7 (90,107)
Marriage	12.5 (111,658)	11.6 (72,295)	8.5 (157,156)	10.2 (341,109)
Followed family	44.3 (395,065)	40.2 (249,611)	36.5 (674,618)	39.3 (1,319,294)
Conflict	0.9 (8,125)	0.9 (5,767)	0.4 (6,982)	0.6 (20,874)
Other	8.3 (73,889)	6.9 (42,608)	5.6 (103,980)	6.6 (220,477)
Not stated	3.0 (26,560)	2.8 (17,699)	2.6 (47,680)	2.7 (91,939)
Total	100 (890,808)	100 (620,681)	100 (1,847,853)	100 (3,359,342)
Male				
Employment or in search of employment	38.1 (161,201)	45.5 (134,984)	55.8 (496,473)	49.3 (792,658)
Education	2.4 (10,213)	2.8 (8,162)	2.7 (23,702)	2.6 (42,077)
Marriage	9.9 (42,070)	8.8 (26,115)	5.7 (50,785)	7.4 (118,970)
Followed family	36.8 (155,782)	32.4 (96,165)	27.8 (247,662)	31.0 (499,609)
Conflict	0.9 (3,867)	0.9 (2,704)	0.4 (3,143)	0.6 (9,714)
Other	8.8 (37,411)	6.8 (20,127)	5.0 (44,481)	6.3 (102,019)
Not stated	3.0 (12,611)	2.8 (8,438)	2.6 (23,050)	2.7 (44,099)
Total	100 (423,155)	100 (296,695)	100 (889,296)	100 (1,609,146)
Female				
Employment or in search of employment	19.7 (92,249)	24.8 (80,222)	32.4 (310,413)	27.6 (482,884)
Education	2.5 (11,848)	2.9 (9,333)	2.8 (26,849)	2.7 (48,030)
Marriage	14.9 (69,588)	14.3 (46,180)	11.1 (106,371)	12.7 (222,139)
Followed family	51.2 (239,283)	47.4 (153,446)	44.5 (426,956)	46.8 (819,685)
Conflict	0.9 (4,258)	0.9 (3,063)	0.4 (3,839)	0.6 (11,160)
Other	7.8 (36,478)	6.9 (22,481)	6.2 (59,499)	6.8 (118,458)
Not stated	3.0 (13,949)	2.9 (9,261)	2.6 (24,630)	2.7 (47,840)
Total	100 (467,653)	100 (323,986)	100 (958,557)	100 (1,750,196)

Source: 2014 Census thematic report on Migration and Urbanization, January 2017.

Distance evidently imposes less of a barrier for moves for employment purposes. While more than a third of recent male moves within Districts (38.1 per cent) were for this reason, well over a half (55.8 per cent) of inter-State/Region male migrations were of males motivated to move to take up, or search for, employment. Similar patterns, but involving smaller proportions, were shown among recent female migrants.

Women were also more likely to move for marriage (12.7 per cent of female migrants) compared with 7.4 per cent of male migrants.

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For lifetime internal migration, in-migration was higher for men than for women in all States/Regions except Yangon, where more women appear to have migrated into the city than men (Figure 2.14a). Note that Yangon city is the largest city in Myanmar, and its former capital. Other research findings indicate that Yangon is especially attractive to female migrants from Ayeyawady who, like their male counterparts, seek employment mainly in the manufacturing sector (World Bank, 2016c).

Figure 2.14b shows that in more than half of the States/Regions the outmigration of women was higher than that of men. The resulting pattern of net migration (the difference between in-migration and outmigration rates) is given at Figure 2.14c which shows a slightly greater influx of women into Mandalay and Yangon, while there was a greater loss of females than of males from Chin and Mon.

For recent migration, as with lifetime migration, women moved into Yangon from other States/Regions in slightly greater proportions than men (with in-migrations rates of 119 and 114 respectively). However, for all other States/Regions, in-migration rates were higher for males than for females (Figure 2.15a). The pattern of recent outmigration shown at Figure 2.15b was very similar to the lifetime migration profile. Women's rates were higher in nine States/Regions. Five of these - Kayah, Kayin, Tanintharyi, Mon, and Ayeyawady - either border on, or are relatively close, to Yangon, and it is suggested that many women could be migrating to the city to join family members who may have migrated in search of employment. Recent outmigration rates in neighbouring Ayeyawady were much higher (for both men and women) than from any other State/Region. A deeper analysis of recent in-migration by reason for move would provide a more definitive answer.

The resulting net migration rates for recent moves show, overall, a gain of females over males in Mandalay, Yangon and (only just) Nay Pyi Taw. While there were greater male than female gains in Kachin, Kayah, Kayin, Tanintharyi, and Shan, Figure 2.15c shows that Chin, Rakhine and Ayeyawady all lost slightly greater proportions of females in the five-year period prior to the 2014 Census.

The observation of increased outmigration of women in some States/Regions is not new as far as global trends are concerned. Women are now increasingly observed to migrate on their own, in pursuit of economic opportunities or to pursue education (Anjali, 2016)³. Both lifetime and recent migration rates indicate a high rate of in-migration of women into Yangon, the former capital of Myanmar. Being a large city, with numerous manufacturing industries, Yangon is a favourite destination for migrants in search of employment from surrounding States/Regions. The maps at Figure 2.16a and 2.16b show that the majority of women entering Yangon originate from Ayeyawady (187,759), a number somewhat higher than men (162,704) from the same Region.

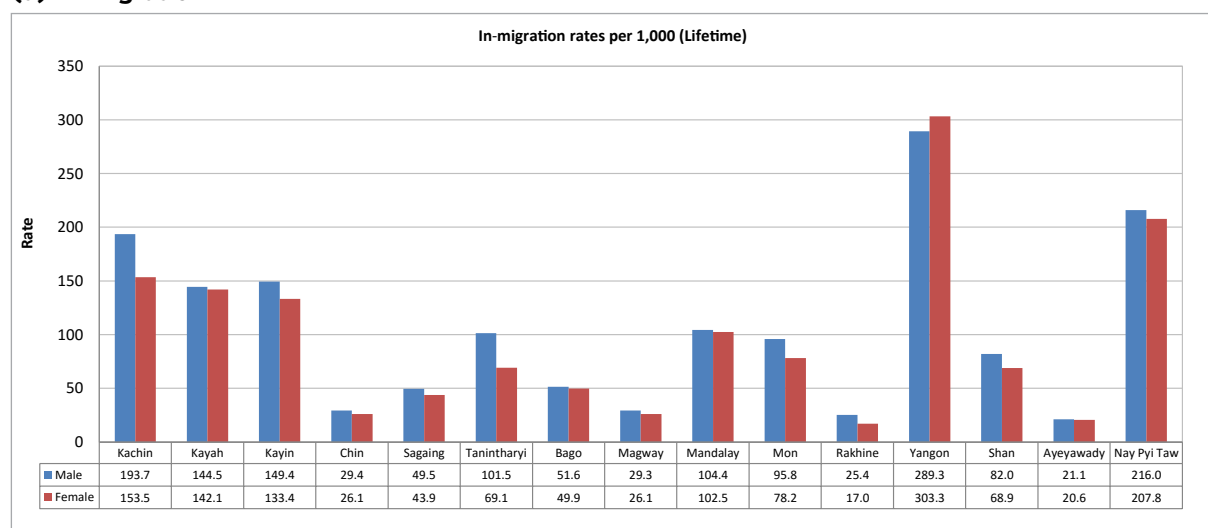
³ Anjali Fleury. (2016). Understanding women and Migration: A literature Review. KNOMAD Working Paper 8 [http://www.knomad.org/docs/gender/KNOMAD Working Paper 8 final Formatted.pdf](http://www.knomad.org/docs/gender/KNOMAD%20Working%20Paper%208%20final%20Formatted.pdf)

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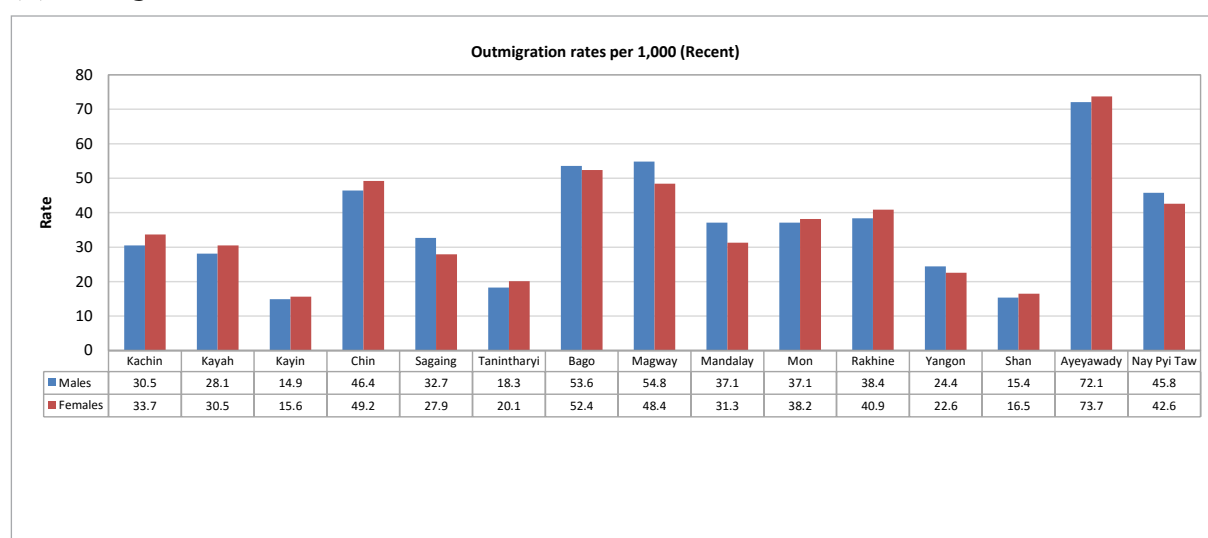
Figure 2.14

Lifetime migration rates by sex, State/Region of residence, 2014 Census

(a) In-migration

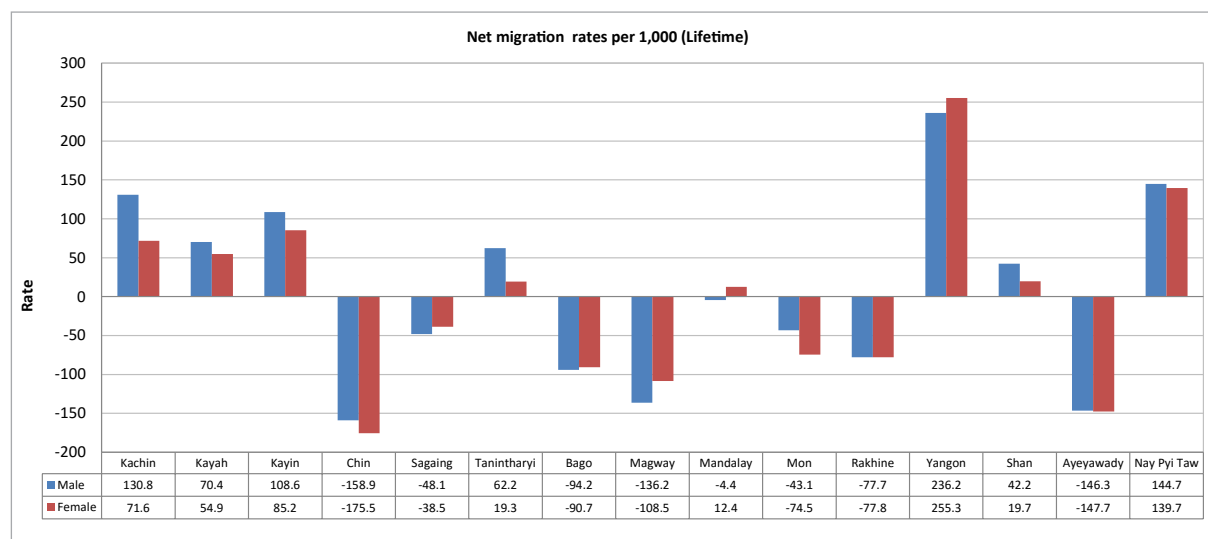


(b) Outmigration



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(c) Net migration



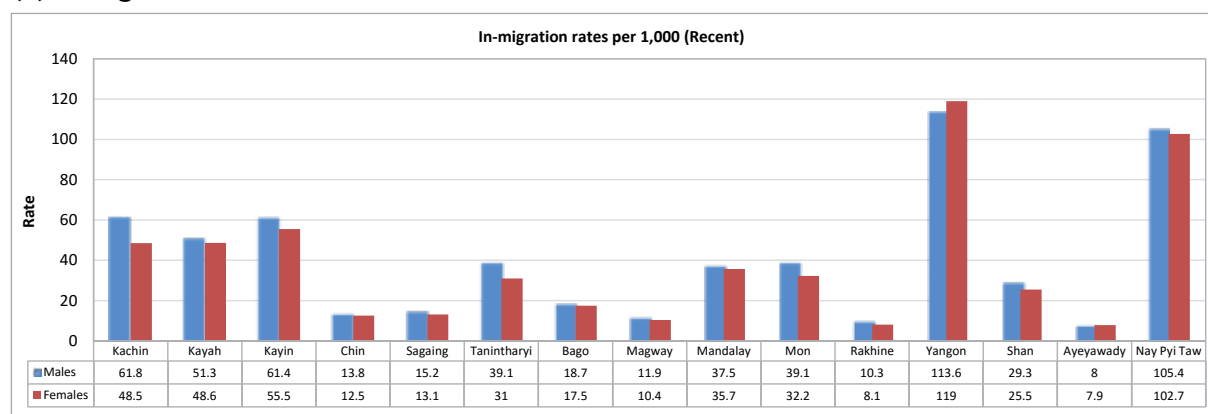
Source: Department of Population (2016b).

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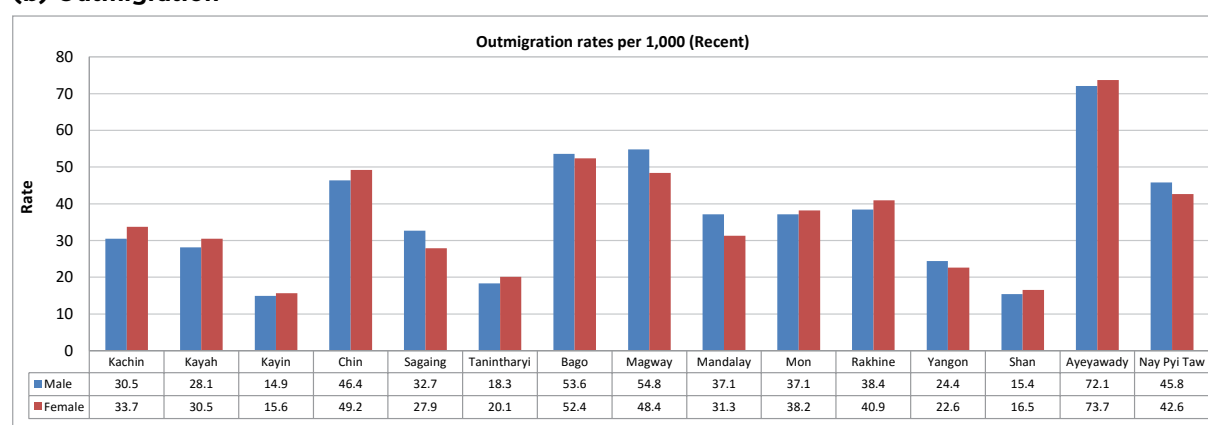
Figure 2.15

Recent migration rates by sex, State/Region of residence, 2014 Census

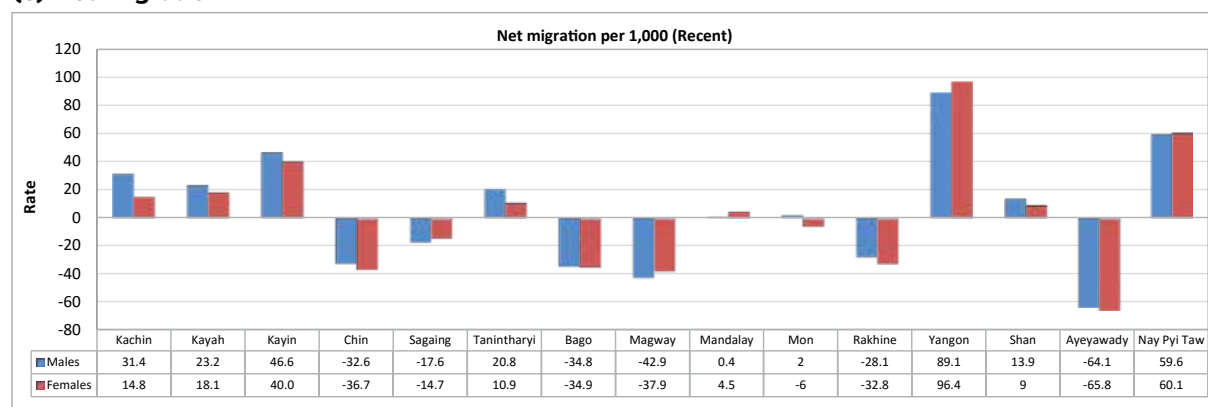
(a) In-migration



(b) Outmigration



(c) Net migration

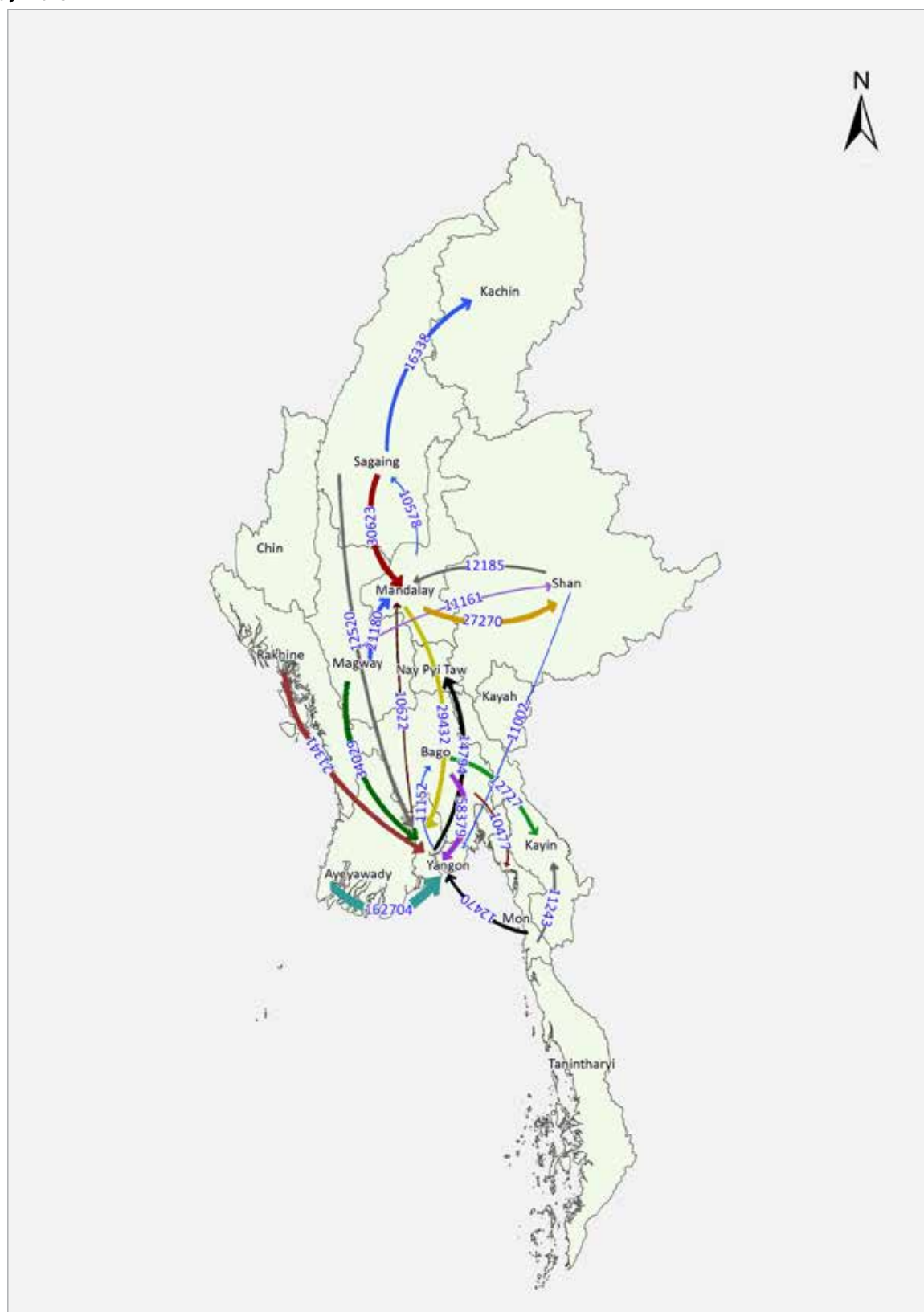


Source: Department of Population (2016b).

Figure 2.16

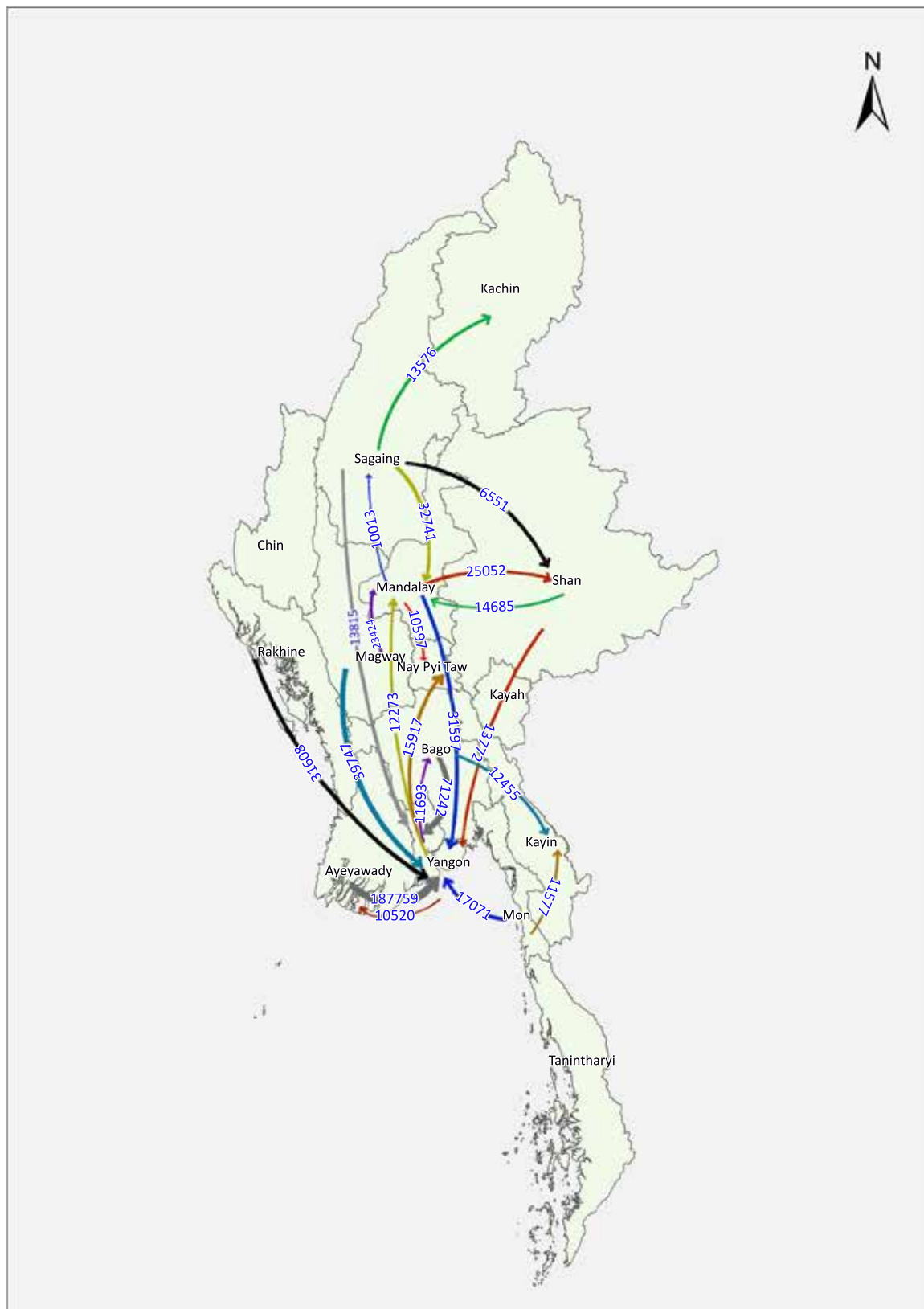
Direction and size of major recent inter-State/Region migration flows, 2014 Census

(a) Male



Chapter 2. Men and women: a demographic overview

(b) Female



Source: Department of Population (2016b).

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The main gender issue to consider in light of these Census results is whether or not women are, in reality, able to equally access employment opportunities in the areas they migrate to, especially in large cities like Yangon, given that women's labour force participation rates are generally lower than those of men. Also, a large proportion of female inter-State/Region recent migrant moves (44.5 per cent) are for family reasons with only a further third (32.4 per cent of females) reporting that migration was for employment purposes (see Table 2.13).

2.5.2 International migration

Data on international migration is necessary for providing information on the existing diversity of a country's population, in addition to identifying subgroups (United Nations Statistics Division, 2015). Migration is considered a contributor to economic growth and poverty reduction in the countries of origin, through remittance flows, as well as in the countries of destination, through the enhancement of private sector economic growth (International Labour Organization, 2015a). This subsection of the report presents the salient features of international migration into and out of Myanmar based on the data collected in the 2014 Census, and analysed from a gender perspective.

Emigration

The Census reported that, within the limitations of the information collected on former household members living abroad, the rate of emigration of men was higher than that of women. A total of around 2 million former household members were reported as living abroad (emigrants) at the time of the Census, comprising a little over 1.2 million males (61 per cent) and less than 800 thousand females (39 per cent). This means that, generally, the ratio of male to female emigrants was about 3:2, but in the case of those reported to be living in Singapore, Figure 2.17 shows that women slightly outnumber men.

It should be noted here, however, that the figure of 2 million is widely accepted as being an under-estimate since the under-reporting of the number of international migrants living abroad is very likely to have occurred for a number of reasons. Firstly, many household respondents may not have reported about former household members living abroad, particularly if those persons had travelled without any documentation. Moreover, some household informants may have been unaware that former household members were living abroad. Secondly, migrants were only listed if they were former members of an enumerated household; they would not have been recorded if they were members of a household that had subsequently either disbanded as a unit or had wholly moved abroad, and where, consequently, no one was available to provide information about them. Finally, no migration information was collected on those persons enumerated in institutions. (See Department of Population 2016b, p 11).

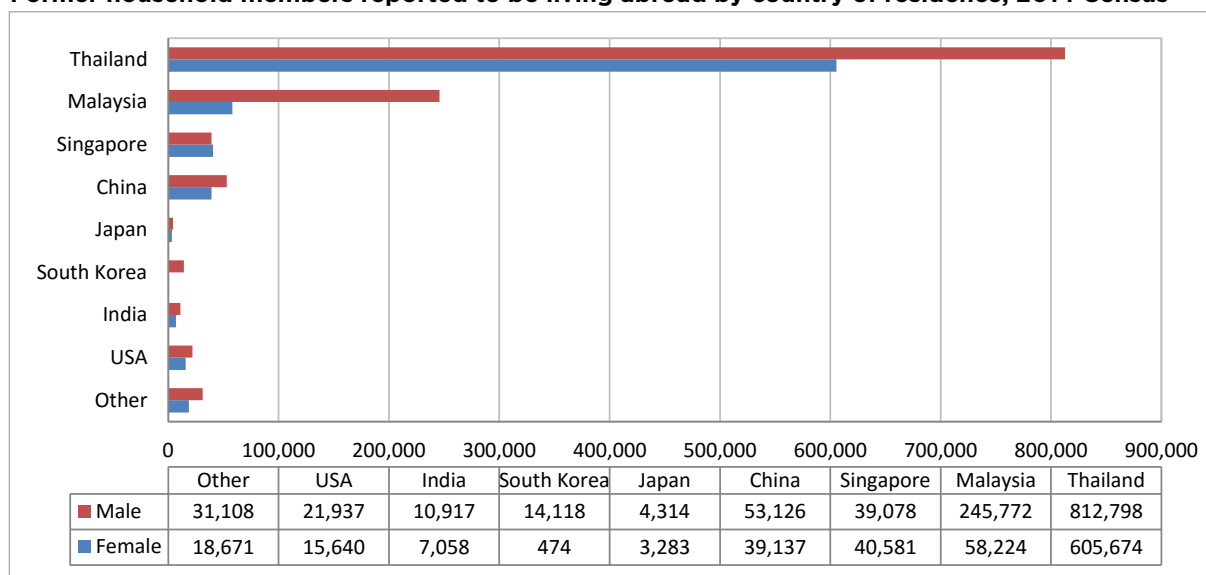
Thailand receives the highest number of emigrants from Myanmar. Responses given by households in the 2014 Census indicated that more men (812,798) than women (605,674) had moved to Thailand. The least popular destination among the top eight countries of destination specifically identified in Figure 2.17 is Japan, which by 2014 had received 4,314

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men and 3,283 women, although it should also be noted that very few women had emigrated to South Korea - less than 500 - compared to the level of male emigration (over 14 thousand). The main 'pull factor' has been cited by scholars as Thailand's economic growth, while political and economic problems at home are considered as the 'push' factors causing the movement of people from Myanmar to Thailand. In Thailand, the highest concentration of emigrant workers from Myanmar is in the construction industry (Chantavanich and Vungsiriphisal, 2013). From a gender division of labour point of view (mainly cultural), the construction sector is considered a profession primarily for men. This partly explains why significantly more males than females migrate from Myanmar to work in Thailand.

Figure 2.17

Former household members reported to be living abroad by country of residence, 2014 Census



Source: Department of Population (2016b).

Table 2.14 shows that the prevalence of male emigrants over female emigrants for all countries, except Singapore, is evident for almost all age groups. Only those living in Singapore exhibit variations in the profile of sex ratios across different age groups, with low sex ratios (more females than males) reported for age groups under 30 (and 65-84), and high ratios (more males than females) in the older working age-groups (30-64). The implication here is that many young women have migrated to Singapore in more recent years in search of better employment opportunities. A research report by the International Labour Organization (ILO) indicates insufficient job opportunities and Myanmar's low wages are the two 'push'

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factors that encourage young people to seek employment abroad in an effort to provide better support for their families (International Labour Organization, 2015b). The extreme dominance of male emigration to South Korea, noted earlier, is clearly highlighted in the sex-ratio of emigrants, particularly among the working-age population (15-64), suggesting that employment and/or marriage opportunities for women are far fewer. Indeed, in Korea, the majority of workers come into the country under the Employment Scheme (Korea Herald, 2015) and the opportunities under this system are predominantly for male employment.

Table 2.14

Sex ratios* of former household members living abroad by country of current residence by age, 2014 Census

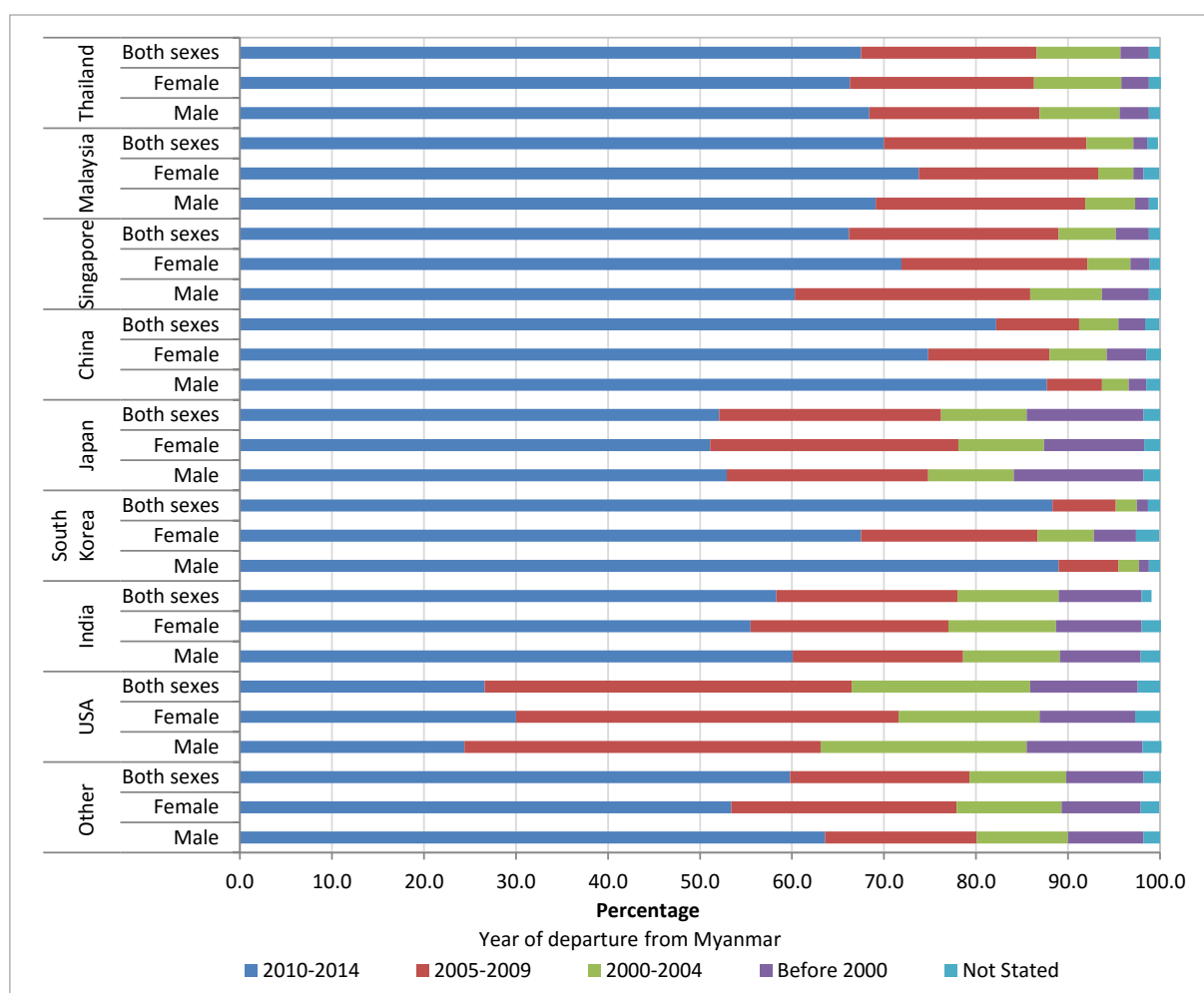
Age Group	Country of current residence								
	Thailand	Malaysia	Singapore	China	Japan	South Korea	India	USA	Other
Total	134.2	422.1	96.3	135.7	131.4	2,978.5	154.7	140.3	166.6
0 - 4	104.6	120.9	108.8	91.4	111.4	366.7	104.5	102.3	95.5
5 - 9	106.8	117.4	86.0	86.6	141.2	350.0	114.5	100.6	104.9
10 - 14	109.1	152.1	87.2	107.9	103.3	175.0	122.1	108.4	107.7
15 - 19	122.3	449.2	24.6	138.8	108.1	520.0	145.2	123.7	133.3
20 - 24	136.4	446.2	55.3	143.8	102.1	2,767.9	170.2	123.0	175.8
25 - 29	137.2	413.3	90.8	134.5	111.1	4,235.6	170.3	136.2	161.3
30 - 34	137.8	412.7	116.2	135.9	117.3	3,562.6	160.3	161.2	157.6
35 - 39	141.1	454.4	147.9	136.3	150.0	3,511.5	167.3	166.6	167.2
40 - 44	142.6	478.5	167.8	144.4	192.2	2,614.7	155.0	156.1	189.7
45 - 49	145.6	508.9	180.2	147.6	187.3	1,518.8	160.3	143.9	218.4
50 - 54	142.6	457.1	199.2	116.6	147.8	1,414.3	152.5	132.3	214.5
55 - 59	136.2	343.2	171.4	119.0	176.7	2,033.3	152.4	105.0	219.9
60 - 64	120.1	217.6	103.3	94.3	130.3	850.0	119.7	103.2	138.0
65 - 69	102.6	182.0	82.4	68.4	200.0	100.0	73.8	71.1	104.5
70 - 74	87.2	121.9	50.8	89.5	20.0	-	144.4	82.4	141.0
75 - 79	90.2	181.8	85.2	75.9	-	-	105.9	101.4	67.5
80 - 84	127.8	353.8	77.4	66.7	100.0	-	225.0	94.4	107.1
85 - 89	130.8	409.1	157.1	115.4	-	-	500.0	81.5	107.7
90+	116.9	223.3	114.3	80.0	-	-	50.0	107.1	116.7

* Number of males per 100 females.

Most former household members living outside of Myanmar at the time of the Census left the country in the period between 2010 and 2014. Figure 2.18 shows that the proportion of male emigrants that moved during this period was higher than that of females in all but three of the major receiving countries: Singapore, where the proportion of female emigrants was 72 per cent compared to 60 per cent of male emigrants; USA (30 per cent and 24 per cent respectively); and Malaysia (74 per cent and 69 per cent). As illustrated in Figure 2.18, since Singapore and Malaysia are among the more advanced countries of the ASEAN members, it is therefore possible that the larger proportions of women were seeking employment or education opportunities. Those leaving the country for the USA may have done so to pursue education goals.

Figure 2.18

Percentage of emigrants by current country of residence by year of departure by sex, 2014 Census



The relative proportions of males and females who are resident in various foreign countries reflects the labour market's requirements in such countries. Malaysia, being a highly industrialized country, may attract more men than women, while Singapore mainly attracts Myanmar migrants with English speaking skills. The latter are largely absorbed into 'white-collar' office jobs and into the hospitality industry, while others migrate as domestic workers. As a result, the majority of former household members living in Singapore are women (Australian Aid and ILO, 2015), with many working in jobs in the 'accommodation and food services' industry, which (due to bias related to society's ascribed gender roles more than qualifications) attracts more women than men. For much the same reasons (presumably), domestic workers are in most cases women.

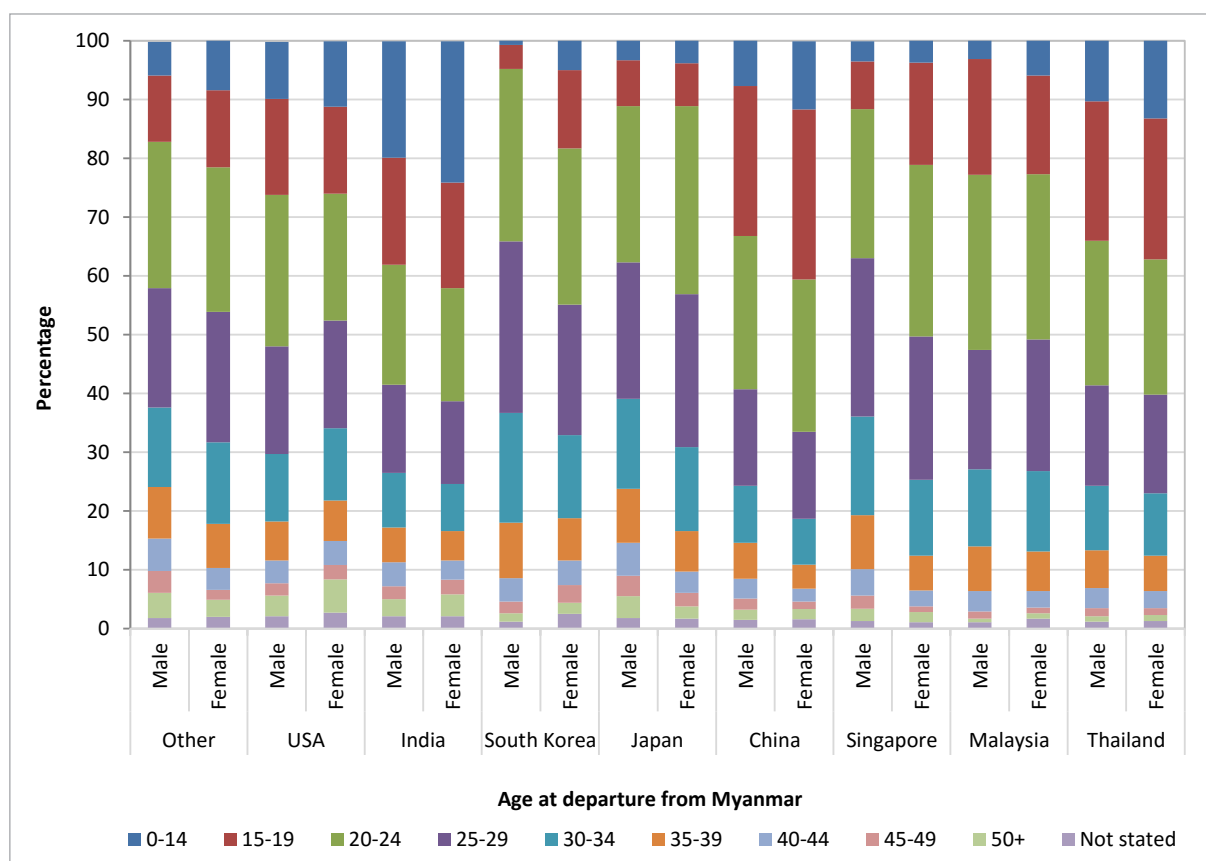
The assumption that a large proportion of former household members living abroad may have left Myanmar in search of education or employment is supported by the age at which they left the country. Figure 2.19 shows that the most common age groups at which the majority of emigrants left Myanmar were 15-34 years, with more emigrants concentrated at the ages of 20-29. Notably, a higher proportion of females than males living in Japan left Myanmar as young adults aged 20-24 and 25-29. Other countries with higher proportions of

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female emigrants that left Myanmar in their 20s include Singapore (29.2 per cent of females and 25.4 per cent of males, for ages 20-24) and Malaysia (22.4 per cent of females and 20.3 per cent of males, for ages 25-29).

Figure 2.19

Percentage of emigrants by country of current residence by age they left Myanmar by sex, 2014 Census



Immigration

It is very clear from the results of the Census that the level of international migration into Myanmar is far lower than the level of emigration. Over half of the 23,577 recent immigrants reported in the Census came from Thailand. Of all female immigrants, 58.4 per cent came from Thailand, compared with 52.7 per cent of all male immigrants (Figure 2.20). It should be noted, however, that 'immigrants' here refer only to those who reported that they were born outside of Myanmar and were resident in Myanmar at the time of the Census. This will include many people whose parents are Myanmar citizens living abroad, particularly those working in border areas in Thailand, who subsequently returned home.

Analysis of the sex ratios in Table 2.15 shows that although overall there were more male than female immigrants (sex ratio 122), the reverse was the case for people moving from Nepal (88), Pakistan (80) and Bangladesh (95), but it should be noted that these ratios were based on very small numbers of immigrants.

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Table 2.16 shows that there were more male than female immigrants at most ages, with the exception of those aged 15-19. Most immigrants were young. Just over half of all immigrants were below the age of 25 (50.8 per cent). But female immigrants were, generally, younger; the proportion under the age of 25 was 55.0 per cent compared with 47.3 per cent for males.

Figure 2.20

Percentage of recent immigrants into Myanmar by country of previous residence by sex, 2014 Census

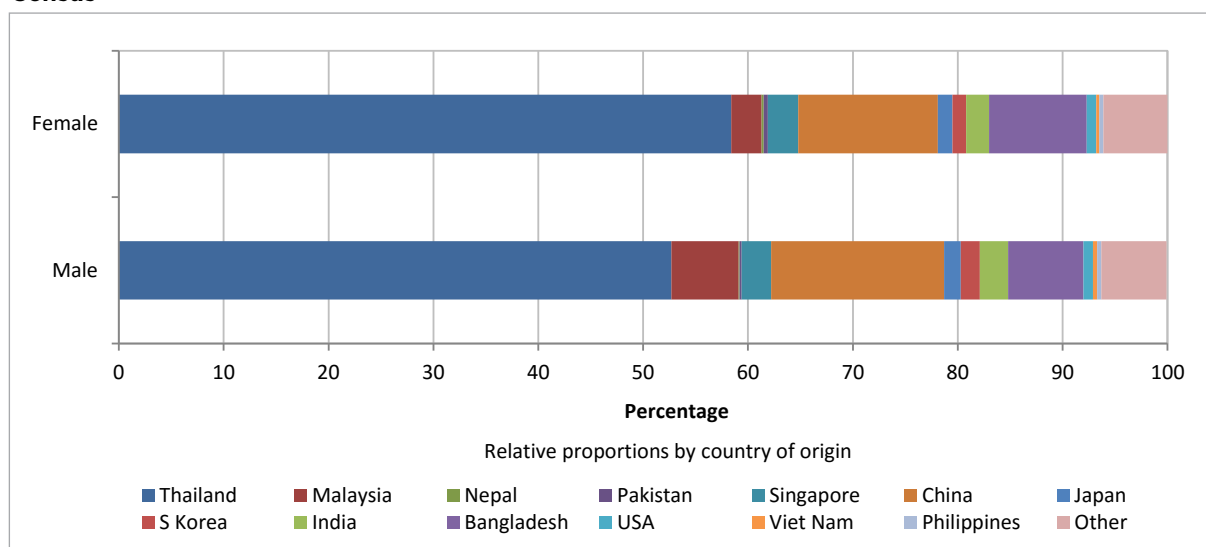


Table 2.15

Number and percentage of recent immigrants by sex, and sex ratios, by country of previous usual residence, 2014 Census

Country of previous residence	International immigrants						Sex ratios*
	Both sexes		Male		Female		
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	
Thailand	13,026	55.2	6,822	52.7	6,204	58.4	110
Malaysia	1,131	4.8	824	6.4	307	2.9	268
Nepal	30	0.1	14	0.1	16	0.2	88
Pakistan	72	0.3	32	0.2	40	0.4	80
Singapore	676	2.9	367	2.8	309	2.9	119
China	3,545	15.0	2,136	16.5	1,409	13.3	152
Japan	354	1.5	203	1.6	151	1.4	134
S. Korea	376	1.6	236	1.8	140	1.3	169
India	590	2.5	351	2.7	239	2.2	147
Bangladesh	1,925	8.2	936	7.2	989	9.3	95
USA	209	0.9	117	0.9	92	0.9	127
Viet Nam	84	0.4	57	0.4	27	0.3	211
Philippines	98	0.4	52	0.4	46	0.4	113
Other	1,452	6.2	799	6.2	653	6.1	122
Not stated	9	0.0	5	0.0	4	0.0	125
Total	23,577	100	12,951	100	10,626	100	122

*Males per 100 females.

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Table 2.16

Number and percentage of recent international immigrants by sex, and sex ratios, by age, 2014

Census

Age Group	Number and percentage of recent immigrants						Sex ratios*
	Both sexes		Male		Female		
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	
0-4	5,098	21.6	2,655	20.5	2,443	23.0	109
5-9	2,707	11.5	1,368	10.6	1,339	12.6	102
10-14	1,202	5.1	625	4.8	577	5.4	108
15-19	1,082	4.6	529	4.1	553	5.2	96
20-24	1,876	8.0	946	7.3	930	8.8	102
25-29	2,536	10.8	1,405	10.8	1,131	10.6	124
30-34	2,669	11.3	1,552	12.0	1,117	10.5	139
35-39	2,007	8.5	1,183	9.1	824	7.8	144
40-44	1,602	6.8	988	7.6	614	5.8	161
45-49	1,076	4.6	640	4.9	436	4.1	147
50-54	698	3.0	462	3.6	236	2.2	196
55-59	424	1.8	268	2.1	156	1.5	172
60-64	274	1.2	162	1.3	112	1.1	145
65+	326	1.4	168	1.3	158	1.5	106
Total	23,577	100	12,951	100	10,626	100	

* Males per 100 females.

It is suggested that many, if not most, of the recent immigrants recorded in the 2014 Census may have been persons from Myanmar returning home in response to recent political and economic changes that have taken place in the last five years or so. To illustrate this postulate, Table 2.17 shows that only 11.5 per cent of these recent immigrants held foreign identity documents (that is, a foreign registration card and/or a foreign passport), compared to 29.2 per cent with citizenship scrutiny cards. A larger proportion of males (30.1 per cent) compared to females (28.2 per cent) reported having citizenship scrutiny cards. Moreover, Table 2.15 shows that the majority of immigrants are males from Thailand - the country with the highest number of former household members living outside of Myanmar - suggesting that many of these males are returning home.

Table 2.17

Number and percentage of recent international immigrants by type of identity card held by sex, 2014 Census

Type of registration card	Both sexes		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Citizenship Scrutiny Card	6,896	29.2	3,895	30.1	3,001	28.2
Associate Scrutiny Card	104	0.4	64	0.5	40	0.4
Naturalized Scrutiny Card	115	0.5	79	0.6	36	0.3
National Registration Card	121	0.5	67	0.5	54	0.5
Religious Card	5	0.0	4	0.0	1	0.0
Temporary Registration Card	615	2.6	308	2.4	307	2.9
Foreign Registration Card	714	3.0	428	3.3	286	2.7
Foreign Passport	2,007	8.5	1,356	10.5	651	6.1
None of the above documents	5,849	24.8	3,068	23.7	2,781	26.2
Child below 10	7,151	30.3	3,682	28.4	3,469	32.6
Total	23,577	100	12,951	100	10,626	100

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In summary, women are increasingly becoming part of the internal migration phenomenon in Myanmar, with high migration streams recorded in large cities such as Yangon. International migration is still dominated by men, which partly explains the low sex ratios observed in Myanmar. It is only countries such as Singapore, USA and Malaysia that appear to have more former household members that are women.

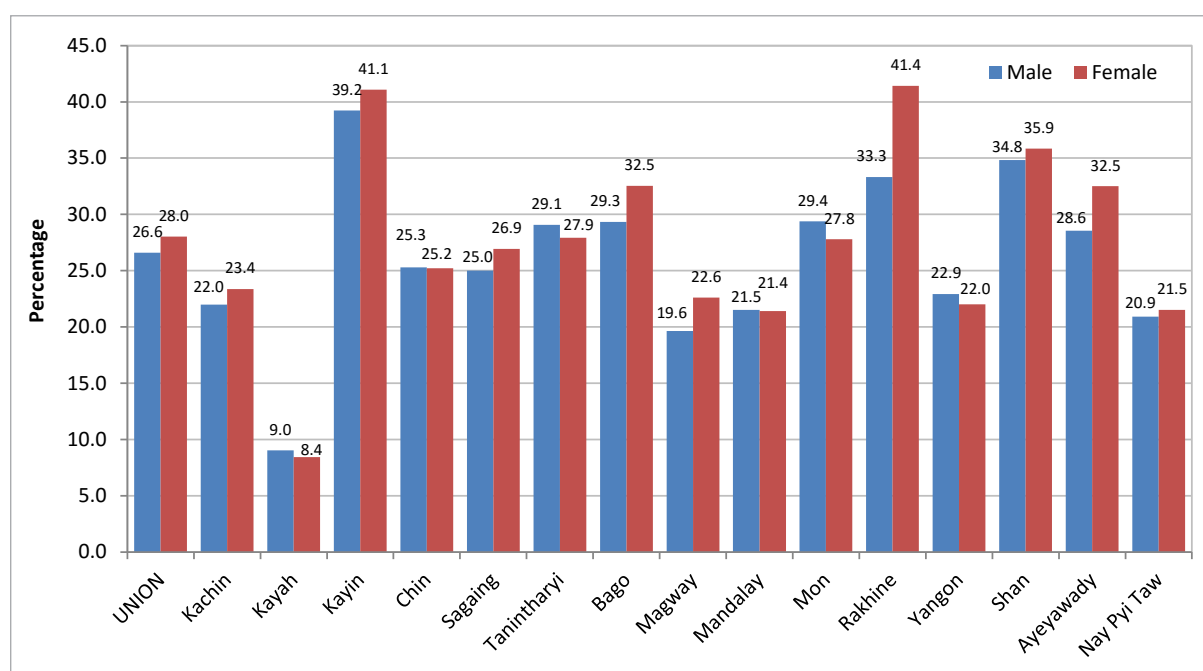
2.6 Identity cards

Table 2.17 above showed that proportionately more female than male immigrants were reported in the 2014 Census as having no form of identity card (26.2 per cent compared with 23.7 per cent). This gender difference is evident in the population generally, where the respective proportions are 26.6 per cent and 28.0 per cent. This female disadvantage is present in nine States/Regions. Figure 2.21 shows that in Rakhine and Kayin, two out of every five females had no identity card (41.4 per cent and 41.1 per cent respectively) with the gender gap in Rakhine (8.1 percentage points higher than males) noticeably larger than in any other State/Region. Indeed, the true proportions of both males and females without identification in Rakhine is likely to be considerably higher than reported in the 2014 Census, since it can be assumed that the majority of the estimated 1.1 million people not enumerated in that State have no form of identity card.

Elsewhere the female disadvantage varied less markedly, from 3.2 percentage points in Bago to just about parity in Chin and Mandalay. Female advantage was reported in six States/Regions but was only significant in Mon where 27.8 per cent of females reported having no identity card compared with 29.4 per cent of males. Only in Kayah were the reported levels of both males and females with no identification less than 10 per cent.

Figure 2.21

Percentage of population with no identity card by sex, State/Region



2.7 Urbanization

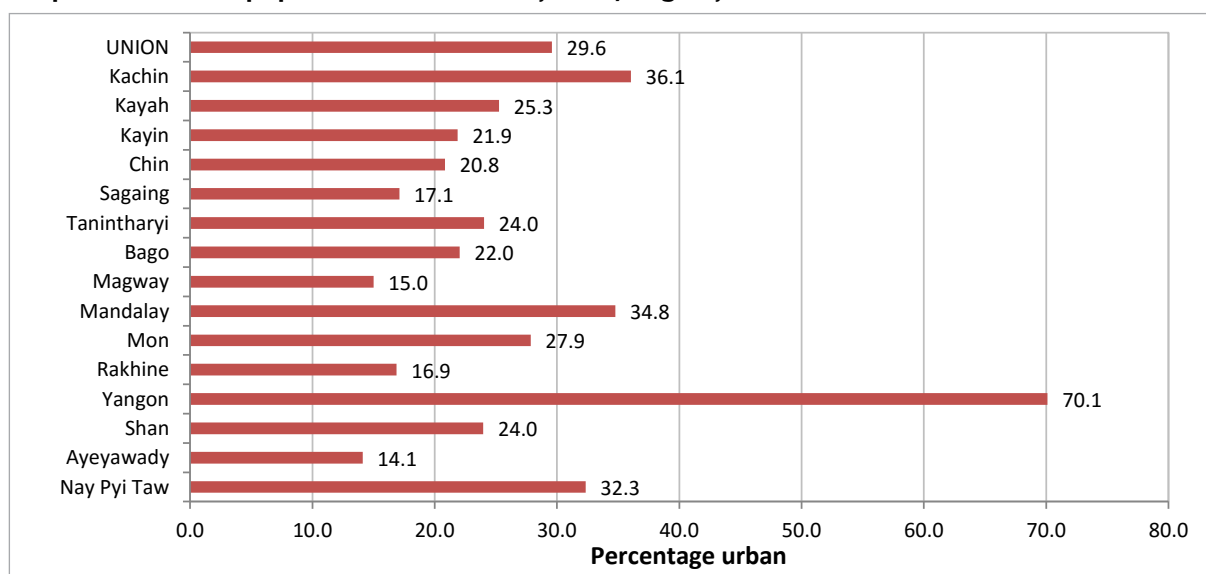
It has been previously estimated that between 2010 and 2050, the global urban population is expected to grow by between 2.5 and 3 billion, and since cities are considered as places where the greatest share of production and consumption takes place, they are the “primary engines of economic growth and development” (Sustainable Development Solutions Network, 2013). In line with such thinking, inclusive urbanization that does not leave out any sectors of the population is necessary to achieve balanced development (McGranaham *et al*, 2016). Balanced development is implied by SDG 11, where countries signed a commitment to “make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable.”

Urban areas are perceived as areas of residence with considerable benefits due to favourable conditions for economic growth; a bigger share of commercial activity; providing inhabitants with better opportunities for work; and better access to key services (Grant, 2010). But urban poverty is slowly becoming a common feature, leading to the mushrooming of urban slums. An increase in the urban poor population and the growth of urban slums poses challenges for women. The latter may suffer adverse maternal outcomes linked to poor access to health care (McGranaham *et al*, 2016) in addition to increased vulnerability to violence and harassment (MDG Monitor (2016)).

Government policies therefore need to take into consideration the unique needs of both men and women in sector plans, as well as in the implementation of inclusive programmes in urban areas. According to the 2014 Myanmar Census, 29.6 per cent of the population live in urban areas. Figure 2.22 shows that the proportion varies across States/Regions, ranging from as low as 14.1 per cent in Ayeyawady to a high of 70.1 per cent in Yangon, the Region in which the former capital and largest city is located.

Figure 2.22

Proportion of total population that is urban, State/Region, 2014 Census



Source: Department of Population (2016b).

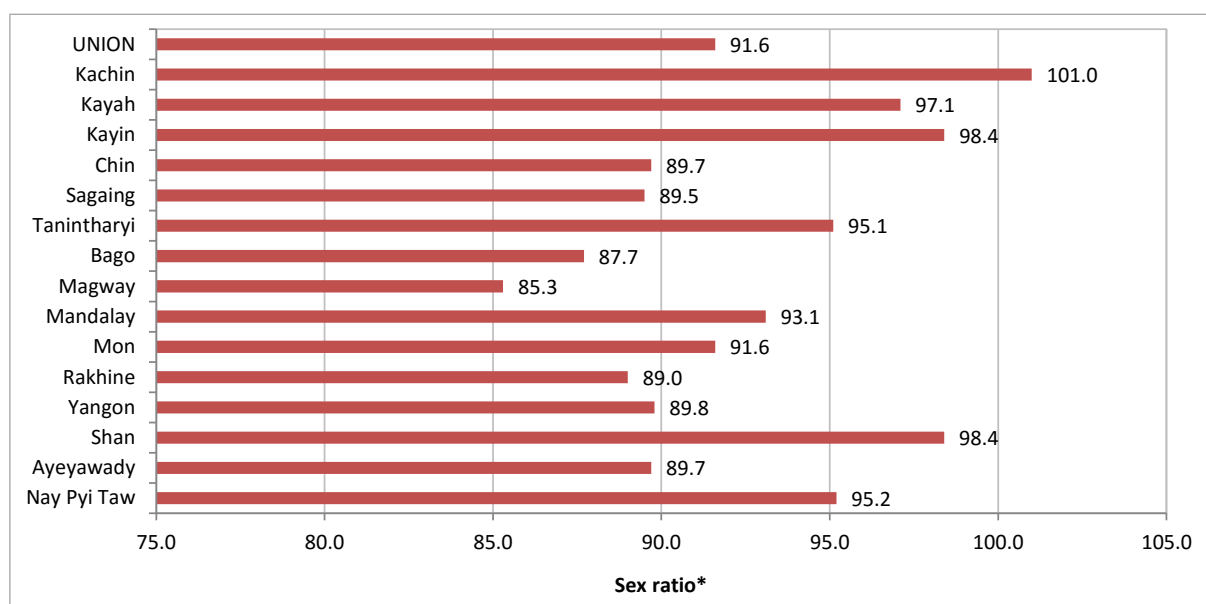
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It should, however, be noted here that any international comparisons of levels of urbanization are hampered by variations in the definitions of urban and rural areas. There is no consensus as to how an administrative area should be classified as either 'urban' or 'rural'. The 2014 Myanmar Census adopted the designations employed by the General Administration Department (GAD) of the Ministry of Home Affairs in designating the two lower levels of administrative areas of wards and village tracts as urban and rural respectively (Department of Population 2016b). Thus, the definition of such areas is not based on the more regular concepts of, for example, the extent of built-up land or population density.

The sex ratios of the urban population in States/Regions, shown in Figure 2.23, largely reflect the profile of the total population: that is, there are more women than men in every State/Region, except Kachin, where there are 101 males for every 100 females. The lowest urban sex ratio was reported in Magway, one of the two States/Regions with the lowest proportion of urban population (15 per cent). (The numbers and percentages from which Figures 2.22 and 2.23 were derived are presented in Appendix 1, Table A3).

Figure 2.23

Sex ratios of the urban population, State/Region, 2014 Census



* Males per 100 females.

Urban areas are expected to be characterized by better access to education opportunities (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2011). Higher levels of literacy and educational attainment by all segments of a population is expected to enhance (equal) participation in the labour market; enhance economic growth; and guarantee more equitable distribution of incomes (Society of International Development and Kenya National Bureau of Statistics, 2013).

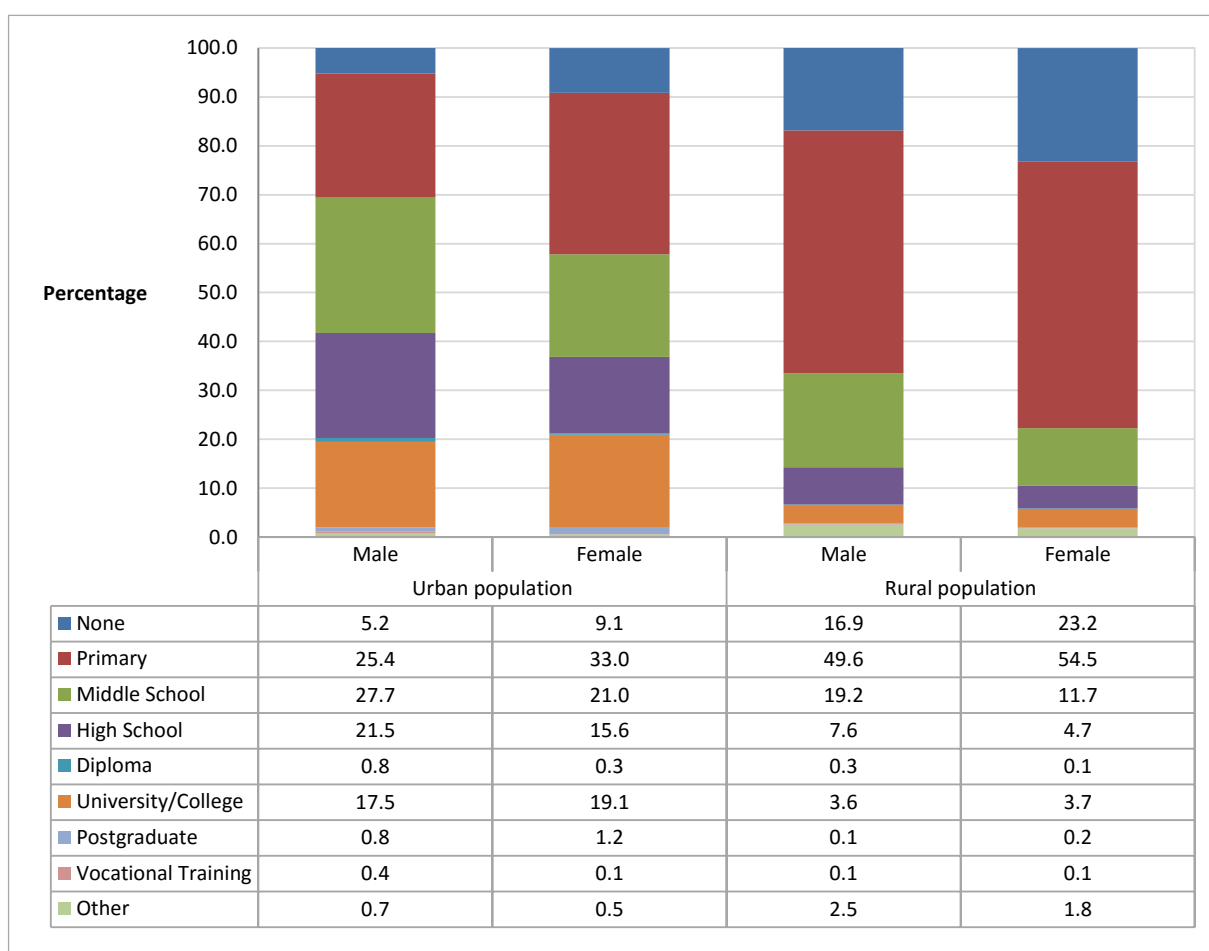
Figure 2.24 shows that a third of urban women had attained only primary level education (33.0 per cent) compared to only a quarter (25.4 per cent) of urban men, but that the

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respective proportions in rural areas were higher, with over half of women (54.5 per cent) compared to slightly less than half of men (49.6 per cent) reporting that they had completed primary level education. Attainment of higher education levels was, however, more clearly associated with urban areas, with a higher proportion of women having attained university and postgraduate education levels (university, 19.1 per cent and postgraduate, 1.2 per cent) compared with men (17.5 per cent and 0.8 per cent respectively). This may well suggest that women in urban areas are keener to improve their levels of education in an effort to increase their chances of access to employment - and they now have better opportunities to do so.

Figure 2.24

Percentage of population aged 25 and over by highest completed level of education by sex, urban and rural areas, 2014 Census



Source: Department of Population (2017a).

However, despite such aspirations, and although larger proportions of women than men have attained university level education, labour force participation rates for women in urban areas remain persistently low. Logically, higher education attainment should translate to better skills to participate in the labour force. Arguably, higher rates of participation in the labour force by women among the urban population would be expected since a higher proportion of them compared to the proportion of men, have attained post-secondary

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education (university and postgraduate). But evidence from the 2014 Census points to the contrary; women's participation in the labour force is considerably lower than that of men at all ages within the working-age population (15-64), despite their predominance at higher education attainment levels. The rates are especially low for women in urban areas and more so at older ages from around the age of 50. This is probably due to the small numbers with qualifications above secondary level; existing gender inequalities in access to the labour force; or the kind of workforce calibre required in urban areas, which may be dominated by the manufacturing sector. Labour force participation rates are generally lower for the urban population in comparison to the rural population (Table 2.18). This is expected, as most of the labour force in rural areas, irrespective of gender, may be absorbed into the agricultural sector.

Table 2.18

Age-specific labour force participation rates by sex, urban and rural areas, 2014 Census

Age Group	Labour force participation rate*			
	Urban		Rural	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
15-19	49.3	34.4	65.1	48.7
20-24	80.6	57.6	89.0	60.7
25-29	90.2	56.9	93.3	58.1
30-34	92.0	52.3	94.1	56.1
35-39	92.0	51.0	94.3	55.0
40-44	91.2	49.4	94.2	53.5
45-49	89.3	47.0	93.5	51.2
50-54	84.5	41.7	91.3	47.0
55-59	76.2	34.9	86.8	41.3
60-64	51.9	20.2	72.7	31.3

* The ratio of the number of people in the labour force (those employed and unemployed) to the overall size of the population in the same age group.

Source: Department of Population (2017c).

In summary, while women dominate the urban population, they occupy a relatively disadvantaged position relative to men in terms of labour force participation rates, despite a relatively higher proportion of them having attained university and postgraduate levels of education compared to the proportions of men. Based on this argument, this scenario paints a picture of unequal access to resources for men and women in urban areas, to the disadvantage of women. It would appear that whether in rural or in urban areas, gender inequality is still a common feature in the country.

Chapter 3. Gender dimensions in education

3.1 Introduction

Education is not only a basic right but is linked to a country's progress in achieving its development goals. The provision of education has also often been associated with increased food security, improved poverty indicators, reduced inequalities in other socioeconomic spheres, and improving health indicators such as mortality and life expectancy and is also the main driving force in the economic development of a country (Burchi, 2006). Increasing access to education for both girls and boys (or women and men) increases their chances of participating and competing in the labour market.

Education is deemed a key tool in closing the gap between men and women in relation to access to socioeconomic opportunities (United Nations Statistics Division, 2015). The provision of education is therefore one of the most important interventions to improve women's empowerment, especially in societies where inequalities to the disadvantage of women are more prevalent. Scholars have argued that in many societies, women occupy an unequal position and status, and empowering them by providing them with equal opportunities is crucial for the all-round development of a country. When individuals are empowered they are able to "gain control over their own lives" (Mandal, 2013). This chapter is an overview of the gender dimensions of education as illustrated by the results of the 2014 Myanmar Census.

3.2 Literacy

An individual is considered literate if they can read and write in any one or more languages. Access to formal education increases the literacy levels of a country's population. Literacy is one of the primary objectives of formal education (UNICEF, 2000), and is, therefore, a key outcome of a good education system. Literacy is beneficial to individuals, families, communities and nations: it improves self-esteem; empowers individuals (especially women) and communities; enhances political participation; expands democratic freedoms; and could enhance cultural change and alter gender relations. Other suggested benefits include improved health, changes in reproductive health behaviour (with concomitant effects on fertility, mortality and child health), enhanced gender equality and boosting economic growth (UNESCO, 2006). SDG 4, Target 4.6 calls for a commitment by governments "to ensure that all youth and a substantial proportion of adults, both men and women, achieve literacy and numeracy" (United Nations, 2015).

Equal access to education for girls and boys would ideally ensure uniform literacy levels in a country. But most countries, more so less developed countries, are characterized by gender inequalities in relation to access to education and, consequently, literacy levels are higher among men compared to women. The literacy rates in Myanmar are no different; the male literacy rate is higher than the female literacy rate, a phenomenon also observed in other ASEAN countries (Table 3.1).

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Table 3.1

Adult literacy rates by sex, selected ASEAN countries

Country	Literacy rate for persons aged 15 and over		
	Both sexes	Male	Female
Myanmar*	89.5	92.6	86.9
Brunei	96.4	97.7	95.1
Cambodia	77.2	84.5	70.5
Indonesia	93.9	96.3	91.5
Lao PDR	79.9	87.1	72.8
Malaysia	94.6	96.2	93.2
Philippines	96.3	95.8	96.8
Singapore	96.8	98.7	95.1
Thailand	96.7	96.6	96.7
Viet Nam	94.5	96.3	92.8
Timor-Leste	67.5	71.5	63.4

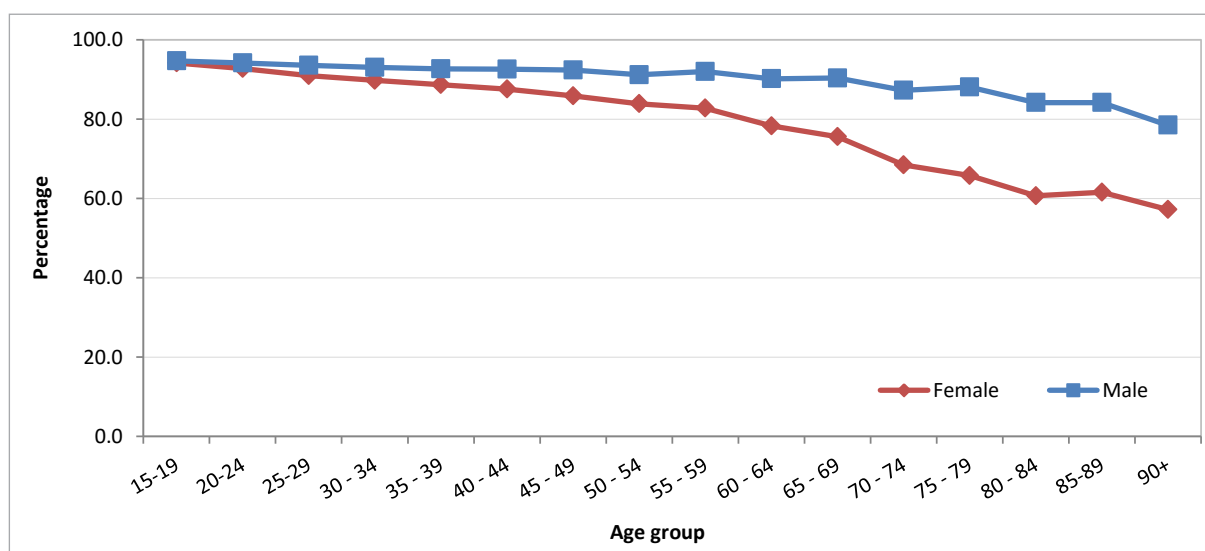
Source of data: *Myanmar: 2014 Census. Other countries: based on 2015 estimates obtained from UNESCAP Online Statistical Database. <http://www.unescap.org/stat/data/statdb/DataExplorer.aspx> (2015).

The literacy rate is the total number of literate persons in a given age group, expressed as a percentage of the total population in that age group. Thus the 'adult literacy rate', referred to in this section for example, measures literacy among persons aged 15 years and over. All rates presented here are given as percentages and are based on the enumerated population living in conventional households only. Information on literacy was not collected in the Census from people enumerated in institutions.

Figure 3.1 shows that between the ages of 15 and 24, differences in literacy rates between men and women were relatively small, but increased with advancing age. This suggests better access to education for young people in the last few decades. Myanmar has experienced an expansion in its number of education institutions, and an increase in the number of students since the late 1980s (Ministry of Education (2013)).

Figure 3.1

Adult literacy rates by sex by age, 2014 Census



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The observed widening of gender gaps with increasing age (quantified in Table 3.2) could be attributed to cultural dynamism over the years, which may have led to a gradual change in gender roles in successive generations, encouraging more equality in access to education for men and women. Also, more recent improvements in access to education for both girls and boys can only have benefitted younger cohorts. Such improvements could include (but are not limited to) increased spending on education; education sector review programmes; and the development of policies and legislation to improve access to education for all children in Myanmar (UNICEF, undated). Also, inter-generational differences in terms of cultural attitudes and government policies may not have been favourable to an emphasis on education for girls in the past.

Table 3.2

Adult literacy rates by sex by age and gender gap, 2014 Census

Age Group	Male	Female	Gender gap*
15 - 19	94.7	94.2	-0.5
20 - 24	94.2	92.8	-1.4
25 - 29	93.6	91.0	-2.6
30 - 34	93.1	89.8	-3.3
35 - 39	92.7	88.7	-4.0
40 - 44	92.6	87.6	-5.0
45 - 49	92.4	85.9	-6.5
50 - 54	91.2	83.9	-7.3
55 - 59	92.0	82.8	-9.2
60 - 64	90.2	78.3	-11.9
65 - 69	90.4	75.6	-14.8
70 - 74	87.3	68.5	-18.8
75 - 79	88.1	65.8	-22.3
80 - 84	84.2	60.7	-23.5
85 - 89	84.2	61.6	-22.6
90+	78.5	57.2	-21.3

* The difference between the female and male literacy rate.

Source: Appendix 1, Table A4.

The Census revealed that literacy levels are generally higher in urban than in rural areas, with wider gender gaps (to the disadvantage of women) more apparent in rural areas. This is shown in Table 3.3, which also shows that literacy rates and gender gaps vary among States/Regions.

Chin State recorded the widest gap in literacy rates (-9.9 and -18.7 percentage points for urban and rural populations respectively), while Yangon exhibited the narrowest gaps (of just -2.3 and -3.3 for urban and rural populations respectively). Such a range of differences might have been expected, bearing in mind that Yangon Region is the largest commercial city in Myanmar while Chin is a predominantly rural State in North-West Myanmar. It should be noted, however, that while the gender gap was widest in Chin, reported levels of literacy, among both females and males, were lowest (by some way) in Shan State, where barely half the female rural population (51.8 per cent) was literate.

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Table 3.3

Adult literacy rates by sex, urban and rural areas, State/Region, 2014 Census

State/Region	Urban				Rural			
	Both sexes	Male	Female	Gender gap*	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Gender gap
UNION	95.2	97.1	93.7	-3.4	87.0	90.7	83.8	-6.9
Kachin	94.2	96.3	92.4	-3.9	90.1	92.8	87.5	-5.3
Kayah	93.1	95.9	90.8	-5.1	78.0	83.9	72.5	-11.4
Kayin	93.2	95.3	91.3	-4.0	68.6	73.2	64.7	-8.5
Chin	89.6	95.1	85.2	-9.9	76.5	86.6	67.9	-18.7
Sagaing	96.2	98.1	94.7	-3.4	93.2	96.3	90.7	-5.6
Tanintharyi	96.6	97.9	95.5	-2.4	91.4	93.3	89.6	-3.7
Bago	95.9	97.9	94.3	-3.6	93.8	96.4	91.5	-4.9
Magway	96.1	98.1	94.6	-3.5	91.6	96.3	87.9	-8.4
Mandalay	96.4	98.3	94.9	-3.4	92.3	96.8	88.8	-8.0
Mon	93.8	95.7	92.2	-3.5	83.6	86.9	80.8	-6.1
Rakhine	90.3	94.3	87.3	-7.0	83.5	91.8	76.9	-14.9
Yangon	97.2	98.5	96.2	-2.3	95.2	96.9	93.6	-3.3
Shan	85.2	89.4	81.6	-7.8	57.9	64.4	51.8	-12.6
Ayeyawady	95.9	97.7	94.4	-3.3	93.5	95.6	91.5	-4.1
Nay Pyi Taw	97.2	98.9	95.9	-3.0	93.2	97.5	89.3	-8.2

*The difference between the female and male literacy rate.

3.3 School attendance

The principal institutional mechanism for developing human skills and knowledge is the formal education system, which includes schools, ranging from those offering basic education to institutions of higher learning. Empirical evidence shows that the status of school attendance in many countries is influenced by a child's background factors such as age, where they live, the level of education of the household head, and the wealth status of their household (Hattori, 2014). The number of years spent in school could determine the level of literacy and mobility in the labour market. Table 3.4 shows the basic structure of Myanmar's education system (up to secondary level) along with the corresponding years children spend at each level.

Table 3.4

Myanmar's education structure up to secondary level

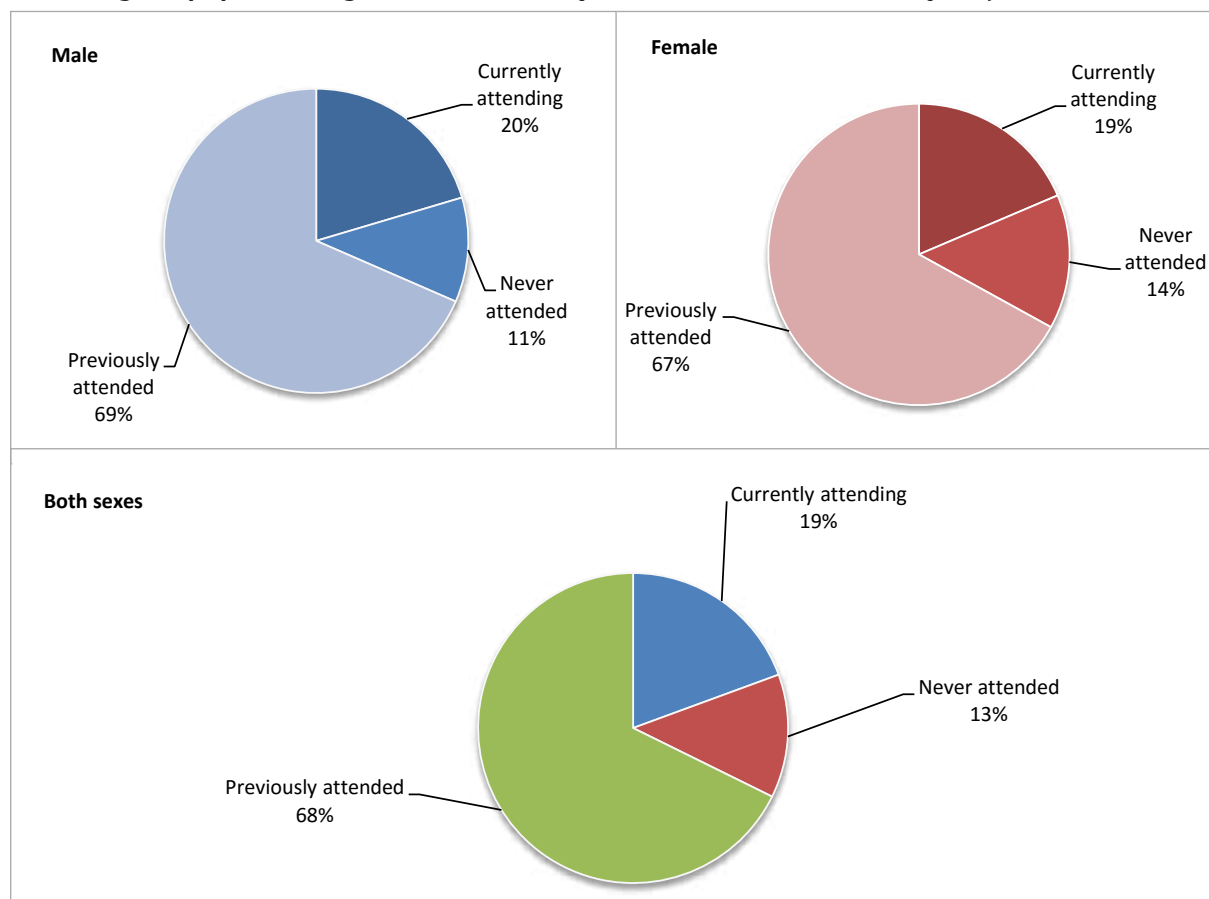
Education level		Number of years	Age	Grade
Primary	Lower	3	5+ to 7+	1 to 3
	Upper	2	8+ to 9+	4 to 5
Secondary	Lower	4	10+ to 13+	6 to 9
	Upper	2	14+ to 15+	10 to 11

Source: Department of Education Planning and Training, MOE, Myanmar.

The 2014 Census showed that of all persons aged five and over living in conventional households, 19 per cent were attending school, but the proportion that reported that they had never attended school was slightly higher for females (14 per cent) than for males (11 per cent), as illustrated by Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2

Percentage of population aged five and over by school attendance status by sex, 2014 Census



For the population aged 5-29, gender disparities in attendance status are only visible (albeit minimally) at older ages as illustrated by Figure 3.3. The differences, no matter how small, show that young women above the age of 23 are more likely never to have attended school, suggesting the existence of gender inequalities in the past. Despite the minimal disparities observed at older ages, the proportions of males and females that have never attended school are almost equal. It is therefore safe to conclude that, at the aggregate level, there was no significant gender disparity with reference to non-attendance within this age group.

At the ages of 15 to 20, slightly more girls than boys attend school, an indication that boys start to finish their formal education around this age. According to the Myanmar education system, students complete upper secondary school around the age of 15, and those continuing with their education would most likely be at institutions of higher learning. This finding is consistent with observations elsewhere in this report indicating that more women than men had attained graduate level of education in Myanmar.

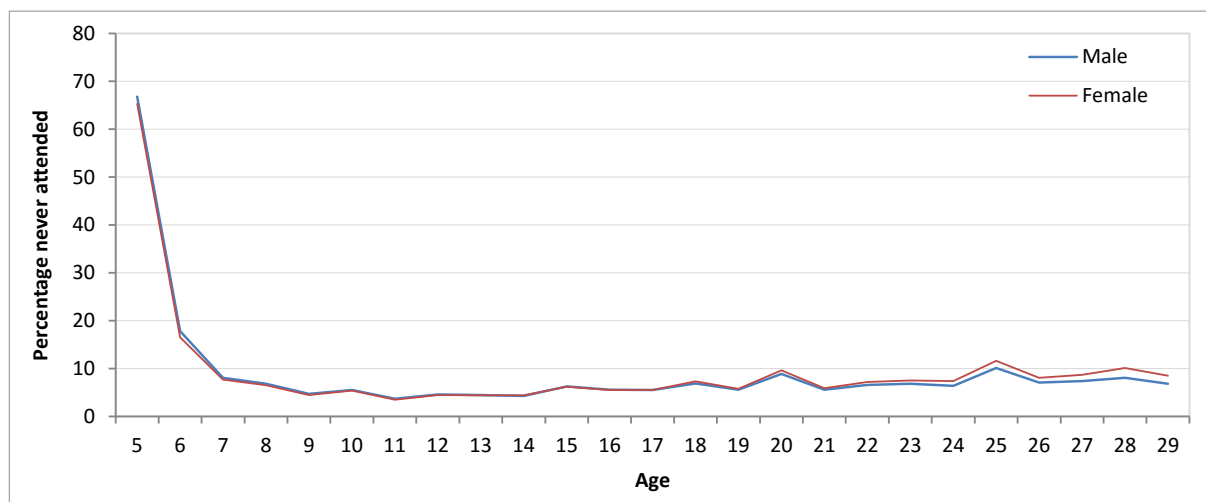
Despite the broad picture of insignificant gender differences in attendance rates for the age group 5-29, the Census reported that attendance status varied slightly among States/Regions. The scale of disparities was nevertheless small in most areas, as illustrated by the gender parity index values in Table 3.5.

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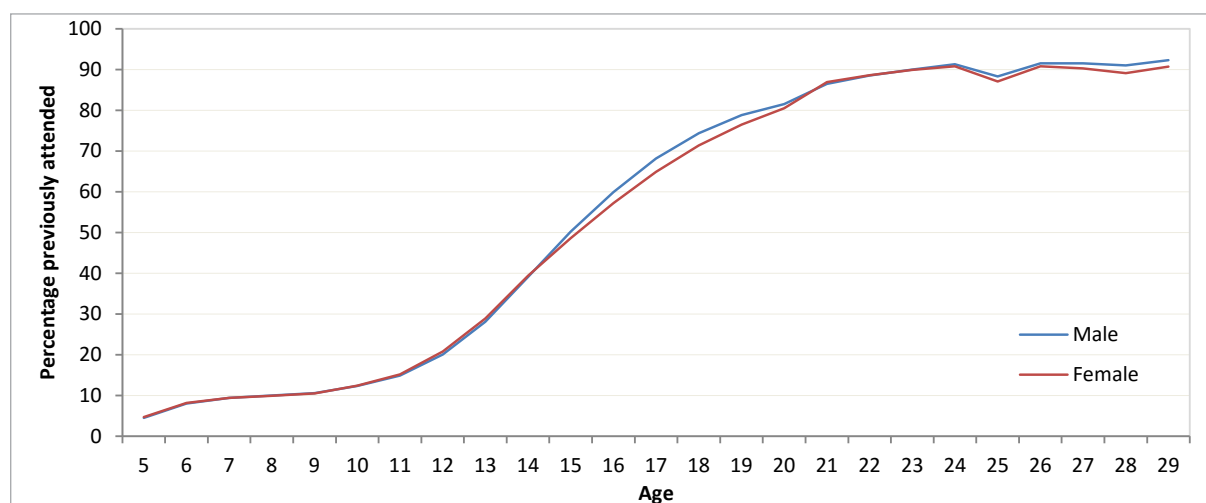
Figure 3.3

School attendance rates for population aged 5-29 by sex by age, 2014 Census

(a) Percentage never attended

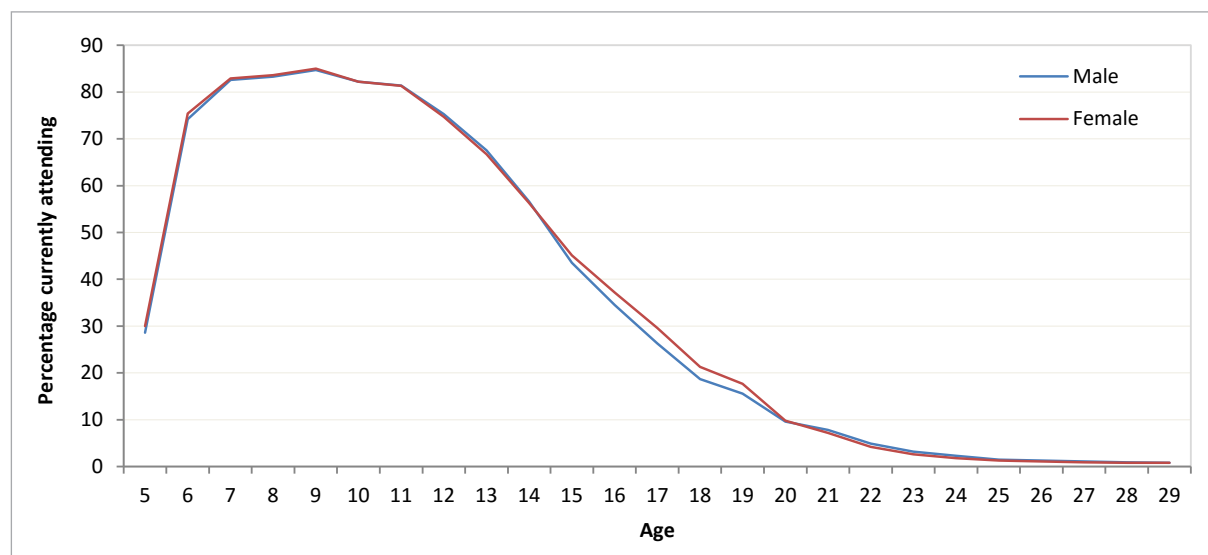


(b) Percentage previously attended



Chapter 3. Gender dimensions in education

(c) Percentage currently attending



Source: Appendix 1, Table A6.

Table 3.5

Attendance rates by sex, gender gap and gender parity index, for population aged 5-29 years, urban and rural areas, State/Region, 2014 Census

State/Region	Attendance rates			Gender gap*	Gender parity index (GPI)**
	Both sexes	Male	Female		
UNION	38.8	39.6	38.1	-1.5	0.96
Urban	38.5	39.4	37.8	-1.6	0.96
Rural	38.9	39.7	38.2	-1.5	0.96
State/Region					
Kachin	49.0	47.8	50.1	2.3	1.05
Kayah	45.7	44.8	46.5	1.7	1.04
Kayin	41.8	40.8	42.8	2.1	1.05
Chin	56.4	59.0	54.0	-5.0	0.91
Sagaing	41.2	42.4	40.0	-2.4	0.94
Tanintharyi	43.6	42.7	44.4	1.7	1.04
Bago	38.6	39.6	37.6	-2.0	0.95
Magway	40.8	42.8	39.1	-3.6	0.91
Mandalay	37.8	38.8	36.9	-2.0	0.95
Mon	41.7	41.8	41.6	-0.2	1.00
Rakhine	42.2	45.8	39.1	-6.6	0.86
Yangon	35.4	36.8	34.1	-2.7	0.93
Shan	32.0	31.5	32.4	0.9	1.03
Ayeyawady	38.7	39.2	38.2	-0.9	0.98
Nay Pyi Taw	41.2	42.3	40.1	-2.2	0.95

*Percentage female - Percentage male.

** Percentage female / Percentage male.

Source: Appendix 1, Table A7.

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Disparities in attendance rates in favour of women are observed in five States (Kachin, Kayah, Kayin, Tanintharyi and Shan) with gender parity index (GPI) values above unity, meaning attendance rates were higher among females than males. In Mon, the GPI value of 1 implies gender parity in attendance. Rakhine State had the widest disparity (with the lowest GPI of 0.86) to the disadvantage of females, who had considerably lower attendance rates than males. There is a possibility that education in this State may have been affected by historical factors. Rakhine has a post-independence history beleaguered by religious and ethnic tensions that have persisted to date (Gupta, 2006). However, it should be remembered (from Chapter 1) that under-enumeration in the Census in Rakhine was extensive, and thus, any extreme values attributed to this State should be treated with some caution.

Gender disparities in attendance within the age group 5-29 also varied slightly between those sub-age groups that coincide with the three levels of education; primary, secondary and tertiary. At the Union level, girls reported slightly higher attendance rates than boys among those aged 5-9, but the GPI was close to parity. Children at these ages are expected to be attending primary school, and it can be assumed here that girls are not in any way disadvantaged at this level. The observation at the Union level is consistent across all States/Regions. This finding is supported by the profile of school enrolment at primary school level in Myanmar, which has been reported as approaching gender parity (Asian Development Bank *et al*, 2016). The GPI falls fractionally above or below 1 for the secondary school-age group among States/Regions, but is above 1 at the post-secondary age at the Union level and for all but a few States/Regions. Chin is the one State where the male attendance rate in post-secondary/tertiary education (25.1 per cent) was significantly higher than for females (20.7 per cent).

Table 3.6

Gender disparities in attendance rates* by school-age groups, State/Region, 2014 Census

State/Region	5-9 (Primary school age)			10-15 (Secondary school age)			16-29 (Post-secondary/Tertiary age)		
	Attendance rates		GPI	Attendance rates		GPI	Attendance rates		GPI
	Male	Female		Male	Female		Male	Female	
UNION	70.7	71.7	1.01	68.2	67.9	1.00	9.8	10.1	1.03
Kachin	77.2	78.1	1.01	80.1	83.8	1.05	15.8	19.2	1.21
Kayah	77.4	78.5	1.01	76.4	79.5	1.04	10.4	13.6	1.31
Kayin	63.8	66.6	1.04	64.0	70.0	1.09	8.7	10.5	1.21
Chin	74.5	74.7	1.00	87.8	86.8	0.99	25.1	20.7	0.82
Sagaing	76.4	77.3	1.01	71.5	70.9	0.99	10.0	10.3	1.03
Tanintharyi	70.8	72.0	1.02	71.5	75.6	1.06	8.6	11.5	1.34
Bago	74.1	75.0	1.01	66.8	65.8	0.99	7.5	8.0	1.07
Magway	74.9	75.8	1.01	72.2	70.5	0.98	10.5	10.0	0.95
Mandalay	74.2	75.2	1.01	68.6	68.1	0.99	10.4	10.3	0.99
Mon	70.5	71.7	1.02	65.4	68.5	1.05	8.7	10.8	1.23
Rakhine	72.8	73.0	1.00	72.3	67.7	0.94	10.7	8.2	0.76
Yangon	70.2	70.7	1.01	68.7	67.3	0.98	12.1	11.3	0.93
Shan	55.2	56.6	1.03	57.0	57.6	1.01	7.1	8.0	1.13
Ayeyawady	72.1	72.8	1.01	66.6	66.0	0.99	7.7	8.5	1.10
Nay Pyi Taw	76.0	76.7	1.01	76.0	75.0	0.99	10.5	10.4	0.99

* Number of children attending school at any level in a given age group / the total number of children in the same age group, and expressed as a percentage.

Source: Appendix 1, Table A7.

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Although gender differences in attendance rates for the age group 5-29 may have been generally small, among older cohorts, whose education, at the time of the Census had been completed, clear differences in levels of never attended school begin to emerge. Table 3.7 shows the percentage of males and females who had never attended school. For the age group 25-29 the gender gap is already 1.5 percentage points, and this widens to 10.1 for those aged 50 and over. Over a quarter (27.3 per cent) of these older women reported having never attended school compared with 17.2 per cent of men. This indicates far fewer educational opportunities for both sexes, but particularly for girls, at a period in time of 45 years or more before the Census.

Table 3.7

Percentage of population never attended school by age by sex, 2014 Census

	5-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50 and over
Both sexes	20.1	4.4	6.0	7.3	8.8	9.9	11.0	12.1	14.1	22.9
Male	20.5	4.4	5.9	6.9	8.0	8.8	9.6	10.2	11.5	17.2
Female	19.6	4.4	6.0	7.6	9.5	10.9	12.2	13.7	16.3	27.3
Gender gap	-0.9	0.0	0.1	0.7	1.5	2.1	2.6	3.5	4.8	10.1
Gender parity index	0.96	1.00	1.02	1.10	1.19	1.24	1.27	1.34	1.42	1.59

3.4 Levels of educational attainment

3.4.1 General overview of educational attainment

Education attainment levels, particularly the completion of primary and secondary school education, are indicators of the general education levels of a population. Target 4.1 under SDG 4 calls on national governments to ensure all girls and boys are able to complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to Goal 4 effective outcomes by the year 2030. The analysis presented in this subsection mainly focuses on the adult population aged 25 years and above, based on the premise that a proportion of those below this age are still attending school or tertiary institutions and are likely to achieve higher levels of education beyond that attained at the time of the 2014 Census. (Note that the information on educational attainment was collected in the 2014 Census from persons enumerated in institutions as well as those in conventional households. Thus, the numbers and rates given in this section refer to the whole population, unlike the data on literacy and school attendance reported in the previous sections).

The 2014 Census reported that the proportions of women aged 25 and above with either no education or incomplete primary education were higher than those of men (Figure 3.4 and Table 3.8). Almost one in five women aged 25 years and over (18.8 per cent) had no education compared to 13.3 per cent of men. Indeed, the Census showed that 62 per cent of people without an education were women. Almost equal proportions had completed primary education - a crucial step towards the Myanmar Government's achievement of globally agreed targets, especially one of the targets of SDG 4 (to ensure all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education). However, the picture is not entirely rosy, as the proportions of women appear to dwindle in comparison to those of their male peers in regard to secondary school level attainment.

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Figure 3.4

Percentage of population aged 25 and above by level of educational attainment, 2014 Census

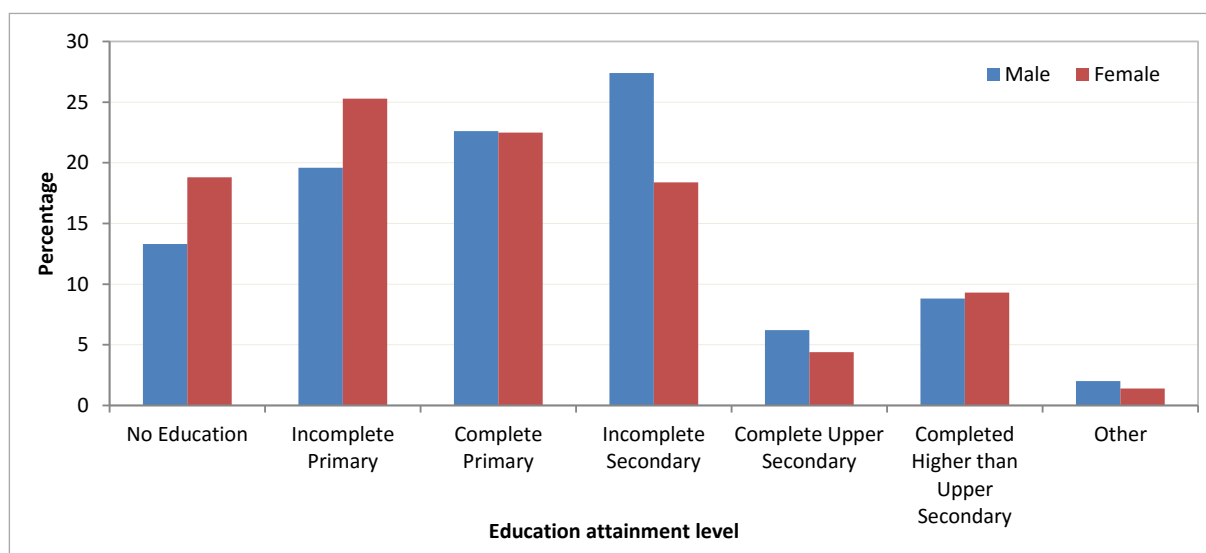


Table 3.8

Population aged 25 and over by level of educational attainment by sex, and gender gap, 2014 Census

Completed level of education	Numbers			Percentages		Gender gap*
	Both sexes	Male	Female	Male	Female	
No education	4,369,423	1,671,231	2,698,192	13.3	18.8	5.5
Incomplete primary	6,093,024	2,459,097	3,633,927	19.6	25.3	5.7
Completed primary	6,067,151	2,839,697	3,227,454	22.6	22.5	-0.1
Incomplete lower secondary	3,577,926	1,991,290	1,586,636	15.9	11.0	-4.9
Completed lower secondary	1,261,514	744,663	516,851	5.9	3.6	-2.3
Incomplete upper secondary	1,245,632	706,013	539,619	5.6	3.8	-1.8
Completed upper secondary	1,412,870	779,912	632,958	6.2	4.4	-1.8
College	360,589	224,515	136,074	1.8	0.9	-0.9
Vocational training	35,721	25,234	10,487	0.2	0.1	-0.1
Undergraduate diploma	72,377	51,356	21,021	0.4	0.1	-0.3
Graduate	1,861,755	763,762	1,097,993	6.1	7.6	1.5
Postgraduate diploma	48,170	18,718	29,452	0.1	0.2	0.1
Master's degree	56,514	20,202	36,312	0.2	0.3	0.1
PhD	11,817	4,576	7,241	0.0	0.1	0.1
Other	448,790	249,021	199,769	2.0	1.4	-0.6
Total	26,923,273	12,549,287	14,373,986	100	100	

* Percentage female - Percentage male.

At attainment levels higher than secondary school, which includes college, vocational training, undergraduate diploma level, graduate, postgraduate, master's and PhD, the proportions of women were higher than those of men (9.3 per cent compared with 8.8 per cent).

A clearer picture of the disparity in education level completion rates is painted using the

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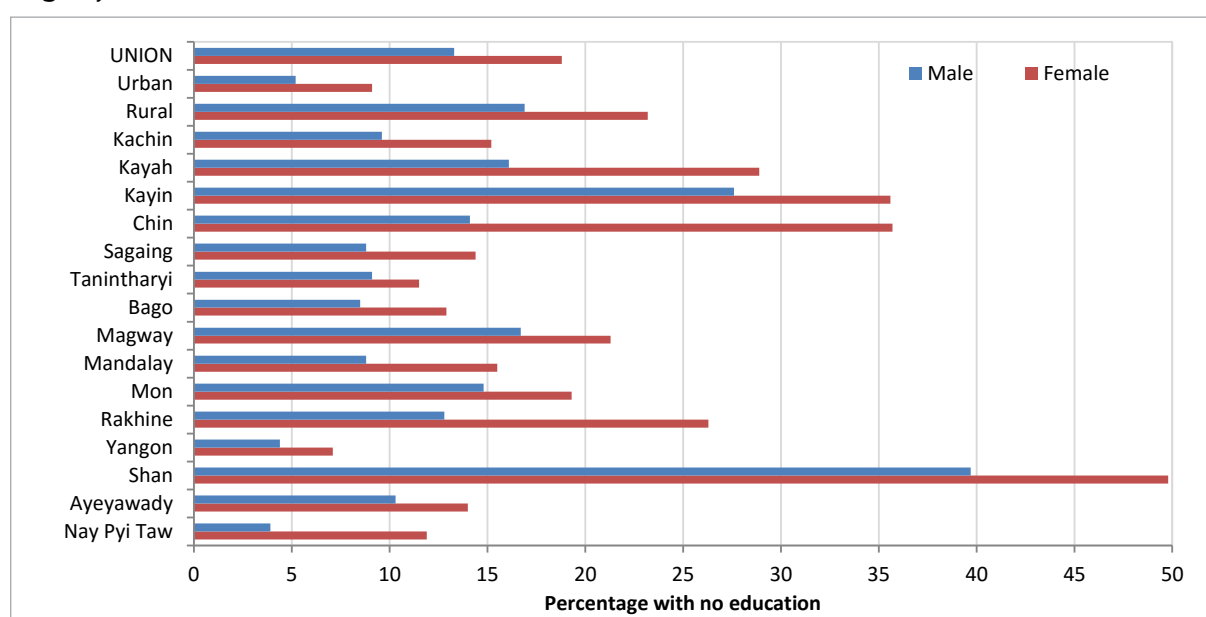
gender gap (the difference between female completion rates and male completion rates). Gender gaps were widest, to the disadvantage of women, among those with no education (5.5 percentage points) and those with incomplete primary education (5.7 percentage points). There was a negligible difference between men and women in terms of completed primary level, but higher proportions of men were reported at the several levels of secondary school education. The widest gap (-4.9 percentage points, indicating a disadvantage to women) was at the incomplete lower secondary school level. The gender differences beyond secondary school were relatively small, but worthy of note is the larger proportion of women that had graduate level qualifications compared to men, shown by a gender gap of +1.5 percentage points.

3.4.2 Adult population with no education

The pattern of a larger proportion, nationally, of women aged 25 and over who had not attained any level of education (18.8 per cent) compared with that of men (13.3 per cent) was repeated in both urban and rural areas and across all States/Regions (Figure 3.5) though the extent of differences, as measured by the size of the gender gap, varied across the country. Table 3.9 shows that the widest gender gap was in Chin (21.6 percentage points), and smallest in Tanintharyi (just 2.4 percentage points), though, once again, Shan reported the highest levels of both men and women with no education. Almost half the women in Shan had no education (49.8 per cent), reflected by the high levels of female illiteracy noted earlier.

Figure 3.5

Percentage of population aged 25 and over with no education by sex, urban and rural areas, State/Region, 2014 Census



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Table 3.9

Percentage of population aged 25 and over with no education by sex, and gender gap, urban and rural areas, State/Region, 2014 Census

	Percentage with no education			Gender gap*
	Both sexes	Male	Female	
UNION	16.2	13.3	18.8	5.5
Urban	7.3	5.2	9.1	3.9
Rural	20.2	16.9	23.2	6.3
Kachin	12.3	9.6	15.2	5.6
Kayah	22.6	16.1	28.9	12.8
Kayin	31.8	27.6	35.6	8.0
Chin	25.8	14.1	35.7	21.6
Sagaing	11.9	8.8	14.4	5.6
Tanintharyi	10.3	9.1	11.5	2.4
Bago	10.9	8.5	12.9	4.4
Magway	19.3	16.7	21.3	4.6
Mandalay	12.5	8.8	15.5	6.7
Mon	17.2	14.8	19.3	4.5
Rakhine	20.2	12.8	26.3	13.5
Yangon	5.9	4.4	7.1	2.7
Shan	44.9	39.7	49.8	10.1
Ayeyawady	12.3	10.3	14.0	3.7
Nay Pyi Taw	8.1	3.9	11.9	8.0

*Percentage female - Percentage male.

A further analysis of the composition of the population aged 25 and over revealed that, as noted earlier, almost 62 per cent of the people without education were women. Table 3.10 shows that this proportion varied by State/Region, from 56.3 per cent in Shan, where the prevalence of no education was high among both sexes, to over 77 per cent in Nay Pyi Taw, where rates of men aged 25 and over with no education were the lowest (3.9 per cent) as noted in Table 3.9.

An estimation of the proportion of uneducated women that (hypothetically) should access education to achieve high enough rates of attainment to achieve parity with men (relative gap) shows that over 70 per cent of women would need to be educated in Nay Pyi Taw to achieve such parity. The equivalent proportion for Shan State, which has the lowest relative gap is 22.2 per cent (Table 3.10), although, of course, the total number of women to be educated to such a level would be much larger than in Nay Pyi Taw.

Figure 3.6 shows that at the younger age groups (below 45 years), disparities between men and women with no education are narrow, but (as with the measures of education discussed earlier) widen with age. At least half of women aged 80 and above reported having no education. Based on findings of qualitative research in Myanmar (Gender Equality Network, 2015) there may have been a cultural shift towards upgrading the value of girls' education over time, and the importance of girls' contribution to the family income is slowly gaining acceptance within the current generation.

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Table 3.10

Numbers and percentage of population aged 25 and over with no education by sex, State/Region, 2014 Census

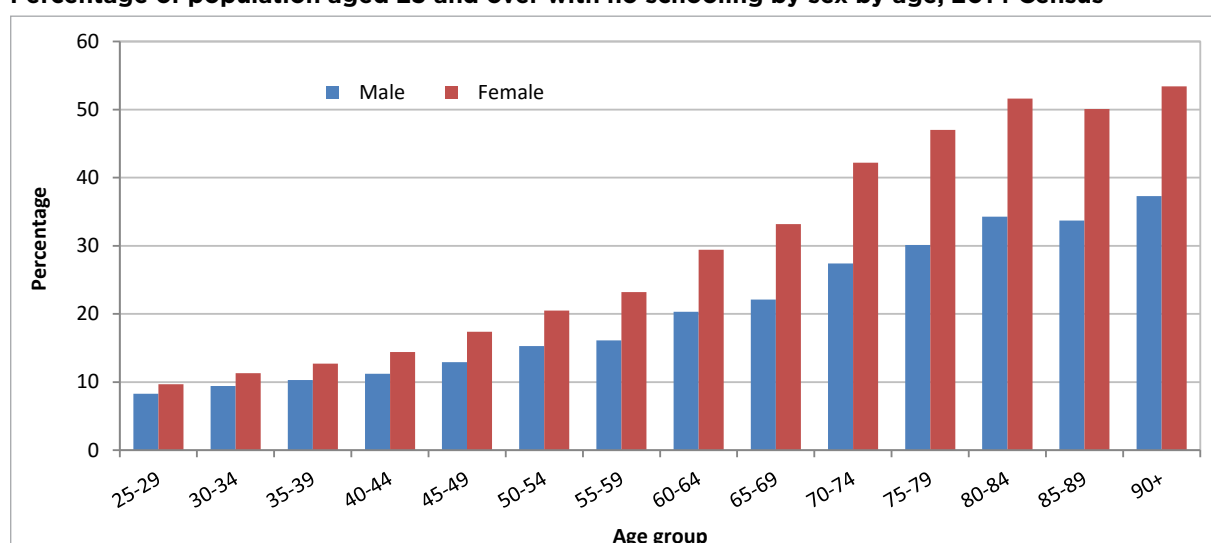
	Population with no education (numbers)				Percentage of population with no education		
	Both sexes	Male	Female	Absolute gap*	Male	Female	Relative gap**
UNION	4,369,423	1,671,231	2,698,192	1,026,961	38.2	61.8	38.1
Kachin	100,203	40,084	60,119	20,035	40.0	60.0	33.3
Kayah	30,094	10,455	19,639	9,184	34.7	65.3	46.8
Kayin	230,779	95,330	135,449	40,119	41.3	58.7	29.6
Chin	52,909	13,306	39,603	26,297	25.1	74.9	66.4
Sagaing	341,476	115,195	226,281	111,086	33.7	66.3	49.1
Tanintharyi	70,645	30,561	40,084	9,523	43.3	56.7	23.8
Bago	290,097	104,227	185,870	81,643	35.9	64.1	43.9
Magway	431,477	166,345	265,132	98,787	38.6	61.4	37.3
Mandalay	427,021	136,428	290,593	154,165	31.9	68.1	53.1
Mon	185,995	73,715	112,280	38,565	39.6	60.4	34.3
Rakhine	219,822	63,395	156,427	93,032	28.8	71.2	59.5
Yangon	243,812	84,477	159,335	74,858	34.6	65.4	47.0
Shan	1,282,796	561,162	721,634	160,472	43.7	56.3	22.2
Ayeyawady	412,131	165,134	246,997	81,863	40.1	59.9	33.1
Nay Pyi Taw	50,166	11,417	38,749	27,332	22.8	77.2	70.5

* Number of females – number of males.

** (Percentage of females – percentage of males) / (Percentage of females) x 100. This is the proportion of uneducated women aged 25 years and above that should (hypothetically) receive education to a level in order to achieve parity with men.

Figure 3.6

Percentage of population aged 25 and over with no schooling by sex by age, 2014 Census



Source: Appendix 1, Table A8.

Chapter 3. Gender dimensions in education

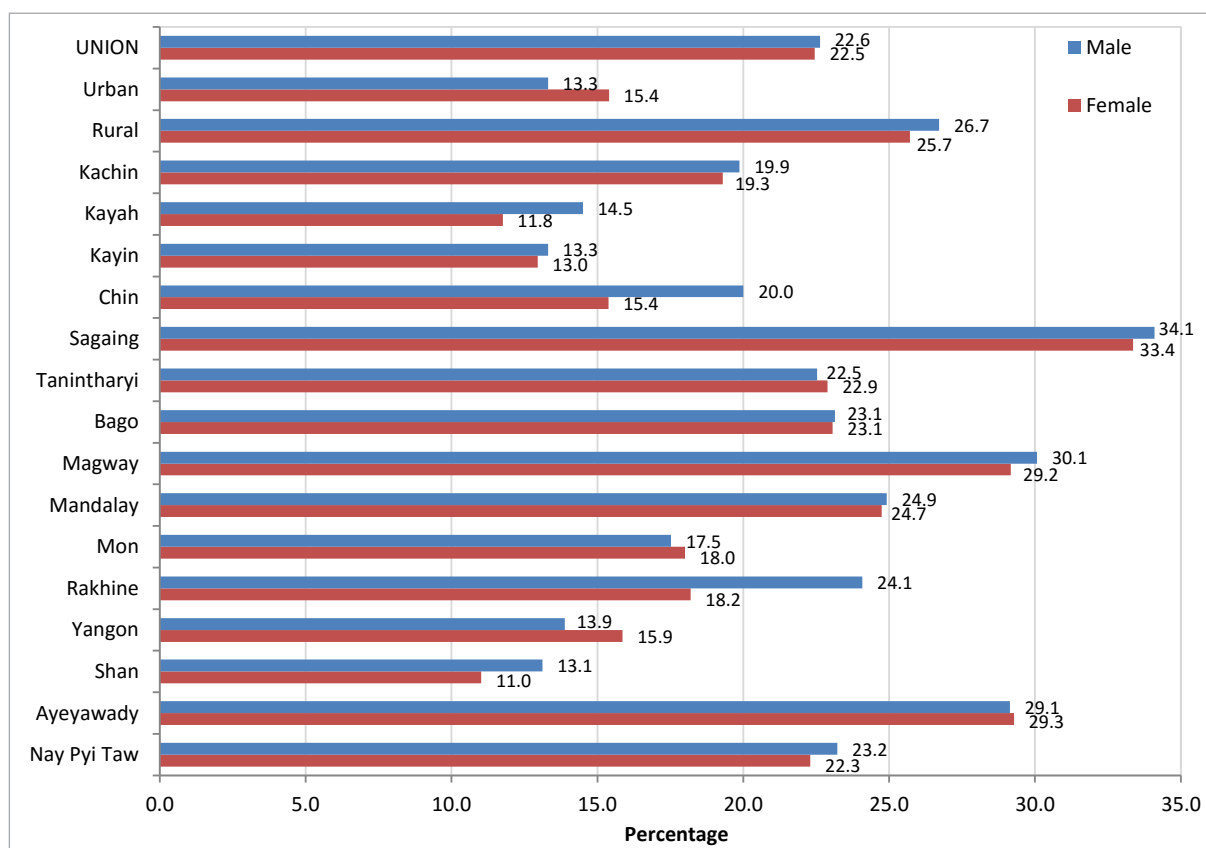
3.4.3 Adult population completing primary education only

Although, at the Union level, there was parity in the proportions of women and men aged 25 and over completing only primary level education (as noted in Figure 3.4 above), Figure 3.7 shows some gender differences at the State/Region level, typified by some negative gender gaps noted at Table 3.11 (where the proportion among men was greater than among females), and by some gaps where the reverse was the case. Chin reported the largest differential in favour of men (a gender gap of -4.6), if the outlying gap of -5.9 for Rakhine is treated with some caution (for the reasons already mentioned). In Bago there was complete parity, but in Yangon, women recorded the highest positive gender gap of 2.0 percentage points. A Region like Yangon has high levels of urbanization, which could, it is suggested, point to a situation of diminished influence of culturally-determined gender norms that could negatively impact on girls' access to education opportunities.

But it should be remembered that the percentages shown in Table 3.11 still only refer to those who had completed primary school as the highest level of education attained. Although it can be concluded that the proportion of women with only primary school education is almost on a par with that of men, the issue of concern here is that primary school level qualification only does not offer a competitive edge for women in terms of accessing paid employment.

Figure 3.7

Percentage of population aged 25 and over completing only primary level education by sex, urban and rural areas, State/Region, 2014 Census



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Table 3.11

Number and percentage of population aged 25 and over with only primary level education completed by sex, and gender gap, State/Region, 2014 Census

State/ Region	Total male population aged 25 and over	Males aged 25 and over with only primary level completed	Total female population aged 25 and over	Females aged 25 and over with only primary level completed	Percentage of males with only primary level completed	Percentage of females with only primary level completed	Gender gap*
UNION	12,549,287	2,839,697	14,373,986	3,227,454	22.6	22.5	-0.1
Kachin	418,227	83,102	394,535	76,139	19.9	19.3	-0.6
Kayah	64,997	9,425	67,982	7,992	14.5	11.8	-2.7
Kayin	345,215	45,953	380,030	49,230	13.3	13.0	-0.3
Chin	94,547	18,915	110,876	17,055	20.0	15.4	-4.6
Sagaing	1,304,766	444,922	1,568,997	523,371	34.1	33.4	-0.7
Tanintharyi	334,643	75,395	349,339	79,963	22.5	22.9	0.4
Bago	1,231,232	284,987	1,442,146	332,637	23.1	23.1	0.0
Magway	995,635	299,404	1,243,166	362,685	30.1	29.2	-0.9
Mandalay	1,556,051	387,742	1,869,259	462,550	24.9	24.7	-0.2
Mon	496,487	87,022	582,319	104,839	17.5	18.0	0.5
Rakhine	494,281	119,030	595,440	108,354	24.1	18.2	-5.9
Yangon	1,910,612	265,133	2,231,981	354,068	13.9	15.9	2.0
Shan	1,411,916	185,229	1,448,089	159,532	13.1	11.0	-2.1
Ayeyawady	1,596,002	465,009	1,763,153	516,194	29.1	29.3	0.2
Nay Pyi Taw	294,676	68,429	326,674	72,845	23.2	22.3	-0.9

* Percentage female - Percentage male.

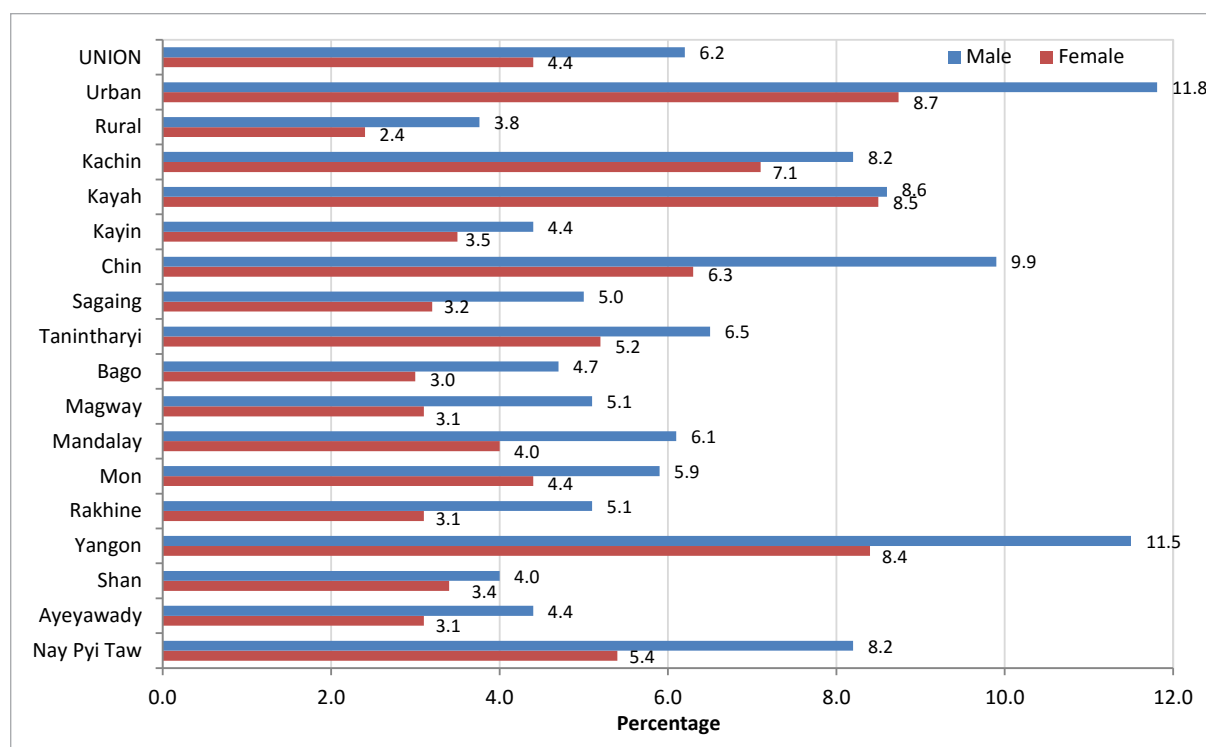
3.4.4 Adult population with upper secondary level completed

The population that has completed upper secondary school level of education represents, in a practical sense, persons with qualifications sufficient to enter the labour market. At the Union level, however, only 5.2 per cent of the population aged 25 and over (6.2 per cent of men and 4.4 per cent of women) reported having completed upper secondary school as the highest level of educational attainment. Despite the equal proportions of men and women reporting, as noted above, the completion of primary school as their highest level of education attainment, significant gender gaps exist between the proportions who go on to the completion of upper secondary school, as illustrated in Figure 3.8. This shows that the proportions of women aged 25 and over completing this level of education is consistently lower than the proportion of men in all States/Regions.

Chapter 3. Gender dimensions in education

Figure 3.8

Percentage of population aged 25 and over completing only upper secondary level education by sex, urban and rural areas, State/Region, 2014 Census



The gender gaps in Table 3.12 indicate the range of the magnitude of the State/Region disparities. All are to the disadvantage of women (values are all negative). The widest gaps were observed in Chin (-3.6) and Yangon (-3.1), while the lowest, and almost insignificant, gaps existed in Kayah (-0.1) and Shan (-0.6). It is again Shan that fares the worst in the percentage of both men and women completing upper secondary school level of attainment. Only 4 per cent of males aged 25 and over and 3.4 per cent of females did so.

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Table 3.12

Number and percentage of population aged 25 and over with only upper secondary level education completed by sex, and gender gap, State/Region, 2014 Census

State/Region	Total male population aged 25 and over	Males aged 25 and over with only upper secondary completed	Total female population aged 25 and over	Females aged 25 and over with only upper secondary completed	Percentage of males with only upper secondary completed	Percentage of females with only upper secondary completed	Gender gap*
UNION	12,549,287	779,912	14,373,986	632,958	6.2	4.4	-1.8
Kachin	418,227	34,246	394,535	27,864	8.2	7.1	-1.1
Kayah	64,997	5,587	67,982	5,780	8.6	8.5	-0.1
Kayin	345,215	15,308	380,030	13,334	4.4	3.5	-0.9
Chin	94,547	9,337	110,876	6,966	9.9	6.3	-3.6
Sagaing	1,304,766	64,964	1,568,997	49,991	5.0	3.2	-1.8
Tanintharyi	336,643	21,744	349,339	18,282	6.5	5.2	-1.3
Bago	1,231,232	57,770	1,442,146	42,873	4.7	3.0	-1.7
Magway	995,635	50,528	1,243,166	39,083	5.1	3.1	-2.0
Mandalay	1,556,051	94,931	1,869,259	73,907	6.1	4.0	-2.1
Mon	496,487	29,147	582,319	25,712	5.9	4.4	-1.5
Rakhine	494,281	25,088	595,440	18,513	5.1	3.1	-2.0
Yangon	1,910,612	219,352	2,231,981	188,557	11.5	8.4	-3.1
Shan	1,411,916	56,806	1,448,089	49,354	4.0	3.4	-0.6
Ayeyawady	1,596,002	70,974	1,763,153	55,125	4.4	3.1	-1.3
Nay Pyi Taw	294,676	24,130	326,674	17,617	8.2	5.4	-2.8

* Percentage female - Percentage male.

3.4.5 Tertiary education

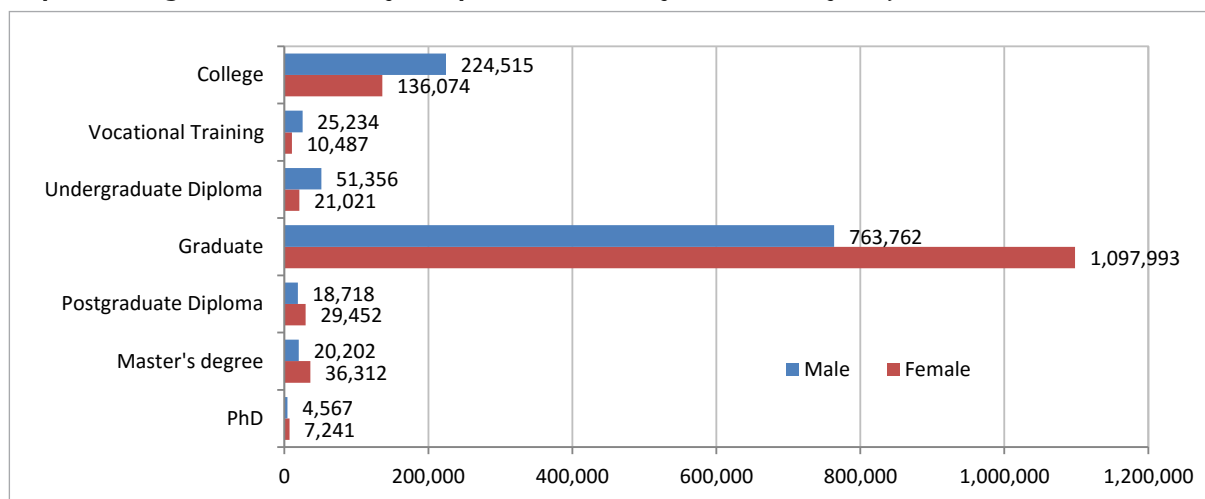
It has been argued that not only should girls and boys be enrolled in school equitably at various levels, but that the level of attainment achieved should enable both sexes to realize their full potential, at a personal level as well as in the labour market. Also, limiting achievement for women and men in terms of education attainment diminishes efforts to realize inclusive growth in a country (Asian Development Bank *et al*, 2016).

A total of 2,446,934 persons aged 25 years and over reported that, at the time of the 2014 Census, they had completed tertiary education (that is levels higher than completed upper secondary). They constituted 9.1 per cent of the population aged 25 and over. One of the more remarkable findings from the Census was that women's share of this more highly educated population was more than half (54.7 per cent). Within this tertiary educated population, Figure 3.9 shows that women predominated among those that had completed a graduate degree (by a ratio of about 1.4:1), those that had obtained a postgraduate diploma (by a ratio of 1.6:1) and those with a master's degree or PhD (by a ratio of 1.8:1).

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Figure 3.9

Population aged 25 and over by completion of tertiary education by sex, 2014 Census



Source: Department of Population (2017a).

This dominance does not result from merely better performances by women, but reflects the higher levels of their enrolment in higher education establishments. Ministry of Education administrative records indicated that in 2012 (two years prior to the 2014 Census) 60 per cent of students who enrolled in institutions of higher education were women (Table 3.13).

Table 3.13

Number of students enrolled in higher education institutions by sex by level of education, 2012

Course Name	Number of students			Percentage of females (out of total student population)
	Male	Female	Total	
Undergraduate	201,762	296,725	498,487	59.5
MA/MSC Qualifying	156	915	1,041	87.9
Postgraduate Diploma	473	1,309	1,782	73.5
Master's Degree	1,315	5,473	6,788	80.6
Master of Research	69	407	476	85.5
PhD	429	1,858	2,287	81.2
Total	204,204	306,687	510,891	60.0

Source: Gender Equality Network. (2015). Gender Equality and Women's Rights in Myanmar.

From statistics alone, it is hard to discern factors specifically responsible for women's predominance at higher levels of education attainment. Nevertheless, in some of the literature, it has been postulated that lesser educated men in Myanmar have access to more opportunities for career development than similarly educated women, the latter possibly only mainly obtaining low-paying jobs. Furthermore, evidence from a study in Myanmar employing a focus group discussion approach indicates that men are able to find work where they can use their physical strength, and that higher levels of education are not imperative for them to gain employment (Gender Equality Network, 2015). It is therefore possible that on completion of secondary level of education, men can more easily access employment,

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while women pursue higher education in an attempt to increase their competitiveness in the labour market.

In summary, the findings point to a near-parity situation in attainment of primary level education. At secondary level, women are clearly disadvantaged, but attainment beyond secondary school tilts in favour of women as more of them tend to further their education compared to men.

Chapter 4. Gender dimensions in the labour force

This chapter presents an analysis of the gender differences within the labour force in Myanmar, and highlights existing gender disparities in access to employment opportunities. It should be noted at the outset, however, that while information on economic activity status was collected from all persons aged 10 and over (in both conventional and institutional households) in the 2014 Census, questions on occupation and industry were only asked of persons in conventional households. Readers should be aware, therefore that the base populations for the analyses on these topics are different.

4.1 Gender differences in economic activity status and labour force participation

4.1.1 Economic activity status

Table 4.1 summarizes some key indicators of the labour force population from the 2014 Census. Nationally, two thirds (67 per cent) of the working-age population (those aged 15-64) were economically active: 64 per cent were employed and 3 per cent were unemployed. (Note that the 3 per cent unemployed refers to the proportion of the total population aged 15-64 that is unemployed, not the unemployment rate, which is defined as the proportion of the labour force (the employed + unemployed) that is unemployed (see Glossary of terms and definitions)). The economically active population includes all persons in employment (employees in government, employees in private sector/organizations, own account workers, contributing family workers etc.) and those who were unemployed and looking for work at the time of the 2014 Census. The economically inactive population (which accounted for 33 per cent of the working-age population) covers those neither working nor seeking work, and includes full-time students, those involved in household work, those not looking for work, the ill and disabled, pensioners, retired and older persons, or any other unspecified category.

There are more women than men in the country's working-age population: 52 per cent females and 48 per cent males. These proportions were more or less the same in both urban and rural areas. Over 80 per cent of the male population aged 15-64 are employed, compared to less than half of females (48.4 per cent). This underpins the issue of inequality in access to employment for men and women in Myanmar. Only 15 per cent of men aged 15-64 are economically inactive, compared to half of women. It should be clarified here that the 'economic activity' status adopted in the 2014 Census was the 'usual' activity concept (measured by collecting information in respect to a reference period of one year prior to the Census) rather than the 'current' activity status (which uses a much shorter reference period, usually set as the week immediately preceding the Census). The advantage of using the 'usual' concept is that it is able to capture information on employment relating to seasonal work, which, in Myanmar, is extensive.

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Table 4.1

Summary indicators of economic activity of persons aged 15-64, by sex, 2014 Census

	Male (%)	Female (%)	Both sexes
Composition of the working-age population			
Union	47.7	52.3	100
Urban areas	47.3	52.7	100
Rural areas	47.8	52.2	100
Composition of the economically inactive population	21.0	79.0	100
	Male (%)	Female (%)	Gender gap*
Activity status			
Union			
Economically active	85.2	50.5	-34.7
Employed	81.9	48.4	-33.5
Unemployed (seeking work)	3.3	2.1	-1.2
Economically inactive	14.8	49.5	34.7
Urban areas			
Economically active	80.3	46.8	-33.5
Employed	76.4	44.6	-31.8
Unemployed (seeking work)	3.9	2.2	-1.7
Economically inactive	19.7	53.2	33.5
Rural areas			
Economically active	87.5	52.2	-35.3
Employed	84.5	50.2	-34.3
Unemployed (seeking work)	3.0	2.0	-1.0
Economically inactive	12.5	47.8	35.3
Literacy rate			
Union	93.0	88.7	-4.3
Urban areas	97.3	94.9	-2.4
Rural areas	91.1	85.9	-5.2

*Percentage female - percentage male.

One question that might be pertinent to ask at this juncture is whether the low proportions of women aged 15-64 in employment compared with those of men is related to their levels of literacy and educational attainment. Table 4.1 shows that 89 per cent of women aged 15-64 reported that they were literate compared with 93 per cent of men. This means that close to 12 per cent of women in the working-age population are illiterate, compared to only about 7 per cent of men. This could disadvantage an appreciable proportion of women in terms of accessing information related to employment opportunities. Consequently, despite women making up more than half of the working-age population, more women than men were reported to be economically inactive: 79 per cent compared with 21 per cent of men.

With a far bigger proportion of the inactive population made up of women, it might be presumed that their low level of participation in the labour force is due to unequal access to employment opportunities rather than a lack of opportunities. Figure 4.1 shows that a similar pattern persists in both urban and rural areas. One fifth (19.7 per cent) of men in urban areas were economically inactive compared to 53.2 per cent of women. However, in rural areas the respective proportions were smaller (12.5 per cent and 47.8 per cent) due to an increase in

Chapter 4. Gender dimensions in the labour force

the proportions who were employed among both sexes, and despite lower levels of literacy, particularly among women.

Figure 4.1

Percentage of the population aged 15-64 by economic activity by sex, urban and rural areas, 2014 Census



The size of the disparity is further illustrated by the gender gaps in economic activity status shown in Table 4.1. In both urban and rural areas, large gender disparities exist in the proportions of employed and those economically inactive. The proportion employed among women is low (44.6 per cent in urban areas and 50.2 per cent in rural areas) compared to that of men (76.4 per cent and 84.5 per cent respectively); the resulting gender gaps in percentage points are -31.8 in urban areas and -34.3 in rural areas, to the disadvantage of women. Conversely, the proportions of economically inactive are reversed with gender gaps becoming even wider.

It is possible that the influence of cultural and religious norms that entrench traditional gender roles (of women's work being limited to the home) may be quite influential in determining the levels of labour force participation of women in Myanmar, more so in rural areas, thus increasing inequalities to the disadvantage of women.

Gender disparities in economic activity status persist across all States/Regions as shown in Table 4.2, with the proportions of men who are employed remaining relatively higher than those of women, and the proportions of men economically inactive very much lower.

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Table 4.2

Percentage of the population aged 15-64 by economic activity status by sex, and gender gap, State/Region, 2014 Census

State/Region	Percentage employed			Percentage unemployed			Percentage economically inactive		
	Male	Female	Gender gap	Male	Female	Gender gap	Male	Female	Gender gap*
UNION	81.9	48.4	-33.5	3.3	2.1	-1.2	14.8	49.5	34.7
Kachin	82.6	44.0	-38.6	3.0	2.0	-1.0	14.3	54.1	39.8
Kayah	85.7	58.9	-26.8	2.4	1.6	-0.8	11.9	39.6	27.7
Kayin	75.1	38.3	-36.8	6.3	2.9	-3.4	18.6	58.8	40.2
Chin	73.0	51.3	-21.7	4.6	2.5	-2.1	22.4	46.2	23.8
Sagaing	84.5	56.8	-27.7	3.0	2.3	-0.7	12.5	40.9	28.4
Tanintharyi	82.7	40.1	-42.6	3.7	2.2	-1.5	13.7	57.7	44.0
Bago	81.4	39.5	-41.9	4.0	2.4	-1.6	14.6	58.0	43.4
Magway	84.1	56.4	-27.7	2.6	2.1	-0.5	13.2	41.5	28.3
Mandalay	82.8	50.7	-32.1	2.6	1.7	-0.9	14.6	47.6	33.0
Mon	76.2	40.3	-35.9	5.0	2.7	-2.3	18.8	57.0	38.2
Rakhine	75.6	33.2	-42.4	7.6	4.9	-2.7	16.8	61.9	45.1
Yangon	78.3	44.6	-33.7	3.5	1.8	-1.7	18.2	53.6	35.4
Shan	86.8	65.1	-21.7	1.9	1.3	-0.6	11.4	33.6	22.2
Ayeyawady	82.9	41.8	-41.1	2.8	1.7	-1.1	14.4	56.5	42.1
Nay Pyi Taw	84.5	52.1	-32.4	2.5	1.6	-0.9	12.9	46.3	33.4

* Percentage female - Percentage male.

In terms of employment, the widest gaps (over 40 percentage points to the disadvantage of women) were reported in Tanintharyi, Bago, Rakhine and Ayeyawady. The same States/Regions have the highest gender gaps in terms of the proportions inactive, and constitute four of the five States/Regions with the highest proportions of females that are economically inactive.

4.1.2 Labour force participation

Employed and unemployed persons constitute the economically active population, otherwise referred to as the 'labour force'. The total labour force includes (by definition) all persons that are economically active, regardless of age, since many people choose, or are required, to work after the normal retirement age. The percentage of the population that is economically active in the total population shows the labour force participation rate. In this report, however, the gender dimensions of the labour force will be restricted to the population aged 15-64 (the working-age population).

Proportions of men who are economically active (labour force participation rates) were higher than among women (Figure 4.2). The rates were, generally, low among youth aged 15-19, particularly among females. This is to be expected, as many girls and boys would still be continuing their education. In Myanmar's education system, children are expected to complete upper secondary school at age 15, after which many proceed to higher levels. While higher school attendance rates for girls could partly explain their lower rates of labour force participation in this age group, these low rates persist at all other ages, suggesting that they could be related to Myanmar's socio-cultural context of unequal opportunities for women to participate in the labour force.

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Figure 4.2

Age-specific labour force participation rates by sex, 2014 Census

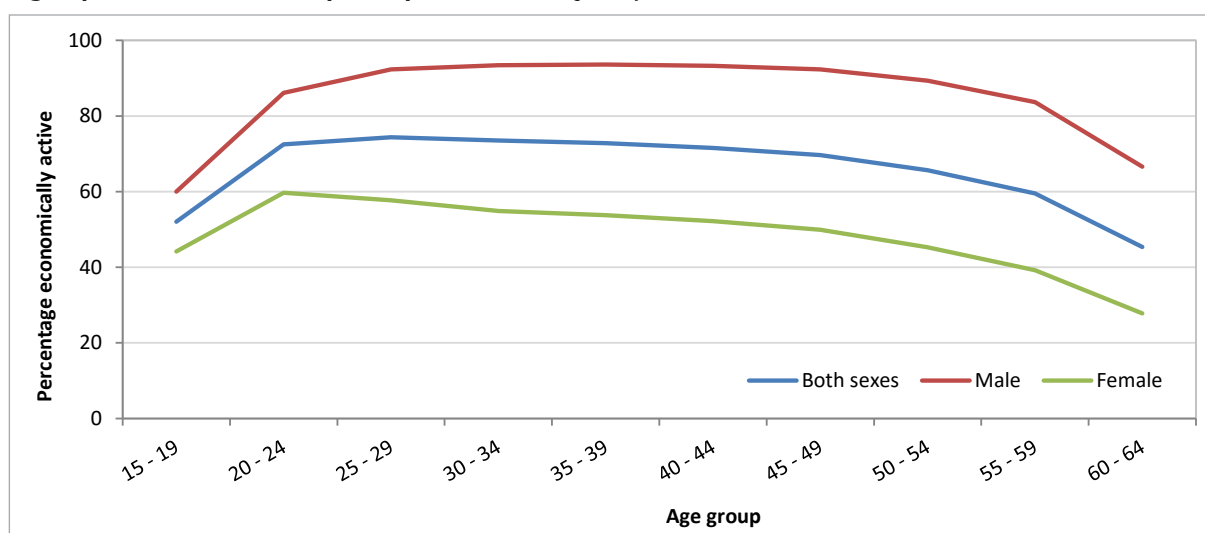


Table 4.3 shows that, at younger ages, the disparities are relatively small but increasingly widen with age; after 25 years and up to 59 years. One possible reason for the observed disparities in labour force participation among these middle age groups is that women may be entering motherhood in their twenties; the average age at marriage is around 23 years. Levels of participation in the labour force drop, not surprisingly, for women with four or more children in their early twenties, and remain consistently lower than for those with one to three children or no children at all up to around the age of 55. The highest participation rates (albeit still generally lower than those of men) are among the ever-married with no children, but the rates drop more sharply than for those with children at around the age of 50 (Figure 4.3).

Table 4.3

Percentage of economically active population by sex by age, and gender gap, 2014 Census

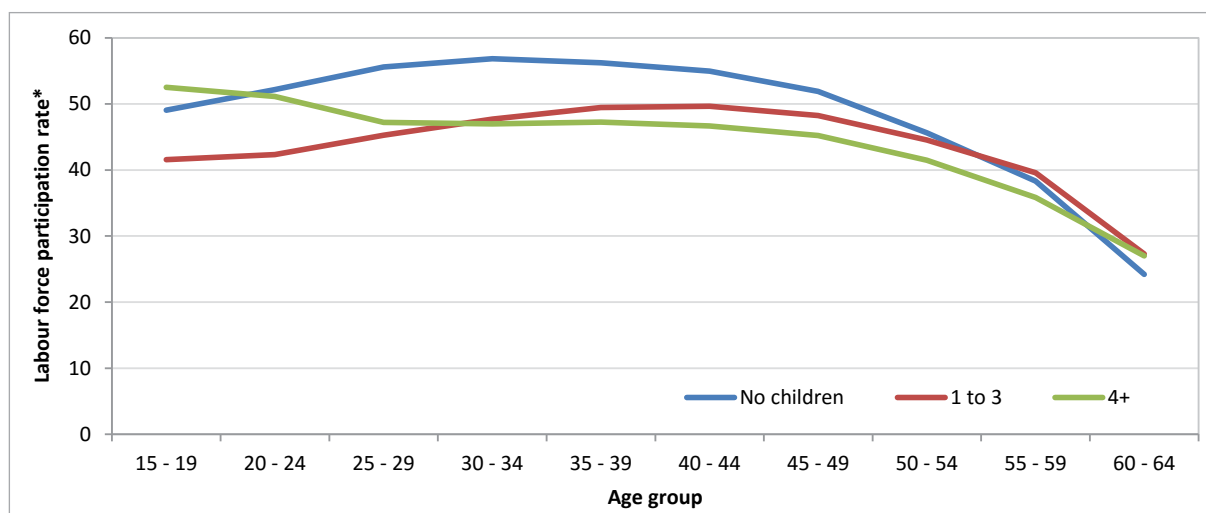
Age Group	Percentage economically active		Gender gap*
	Male	Female	
15 - 19	60.0	44.2	-15.8
20 - 24	86.1	59.7	-26.4
25 - 29	92.3	57.7	-34.6
30 - 34	93.4	54.9	-38.5
35 - 39	93.6	53.8	-39.8
40 - 44	93.3	52.2	-41.0
45 - 49	92.3	49.9	-42.4
50 - 54	89.3	45.3	-44.0
55 - 59	83.7	39.2	-44.5
60 - 64	66.6	27.8	-38.8

* Percentage female - Percentage male.

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Figure 4.3

Labour force participation rates of ever-married women by age and number of children ever born, 2014 Census

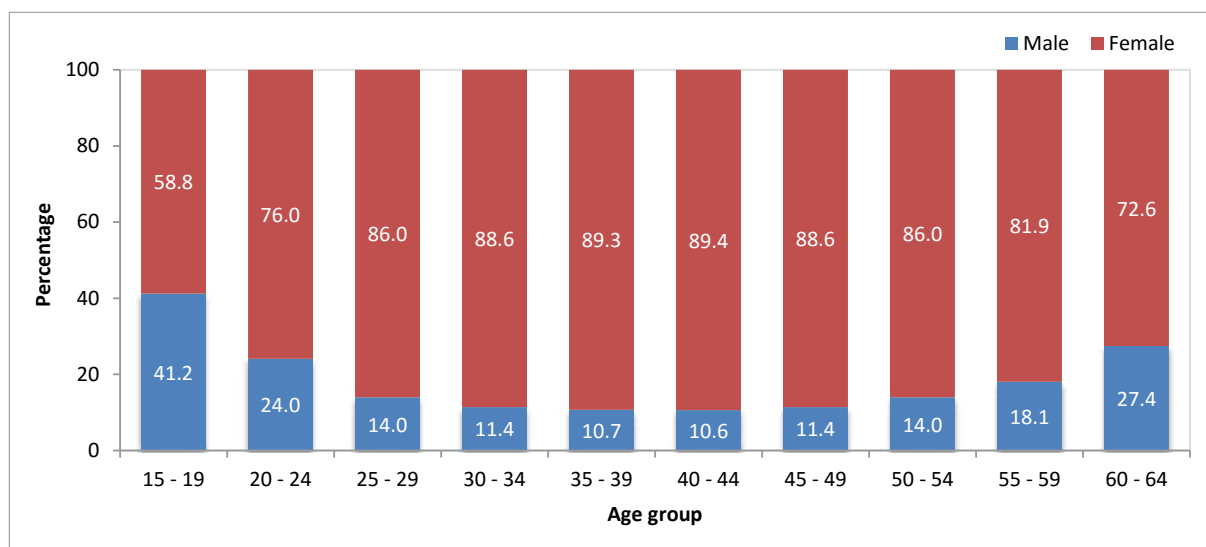


*The labour force participation rate here is calculated as the percentage of economically active women of the total population of women in each age group in each of the parity categories (no children, 1-3 children, 4+).

Due to the responsibilities of childrearing, many women are likely to be economically inactive from their mid-20s to mid-40s, while fewer men of the same ages are inactive. Women constitute the majority of those who are economically inactive, more so among those in the most active age groups who would be expected to contribute heavily to the country's labour force (Figure 4.4).

Figure 4.4

Percentage of economically inactive population by age by sex, 2014 Census



Chapter 4. Gender dimensions in the labour force

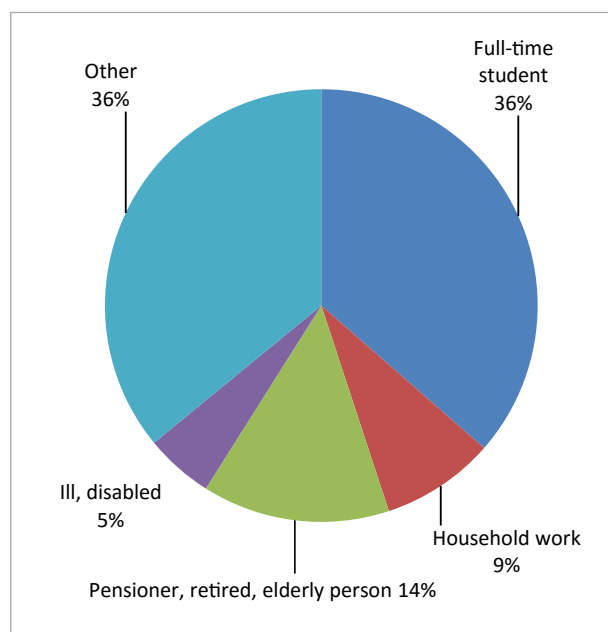
Many of the activities that economically inactive persons may be involved in, including childcare, take place within the household, and hence it is no surprise that Figure 4.5 shows that over three quarters of economically inactive women (79 per cent) are engaged in household work. Less than 10 per cent of inactive men were similarly reported as engaged in household work in the Census, the majority of whom were either full-time students (36 per cent) or engaged in other unspecified activities (a further 36 per cent).

With these findings in mind, it is important to emphasize that under MDG 5 (to achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls), Target 5.4 calls on national governments to: “Recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies, and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate” (United Nations, 2015). An assessment of the efforts being undertaken in Myanmar towards achieving this target is beyond the scope of this report, but highlighting the large proportion of economically inactive women currently engaged in unpaid work is necessary to emphasize the need for programme interventions by government ministries and other relevant organizations.

Figure 4.5

Percentage of the economically inactive population aged 15-64 by reason for inactivity by sex, 2014 Census

(a) Inactive males



(b) Inactive females

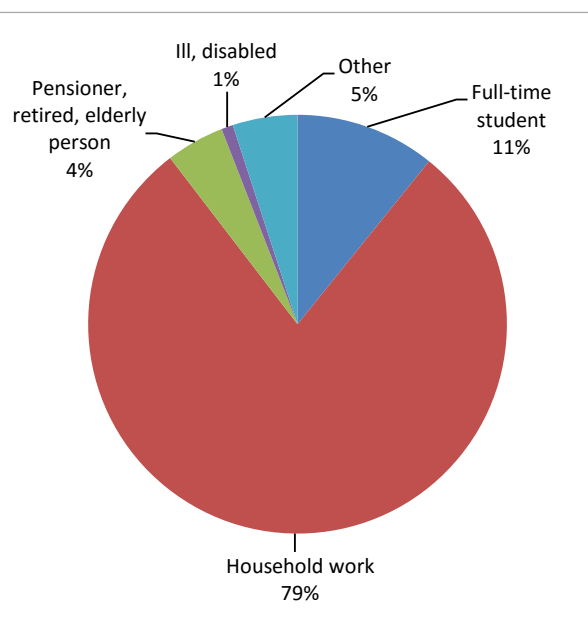
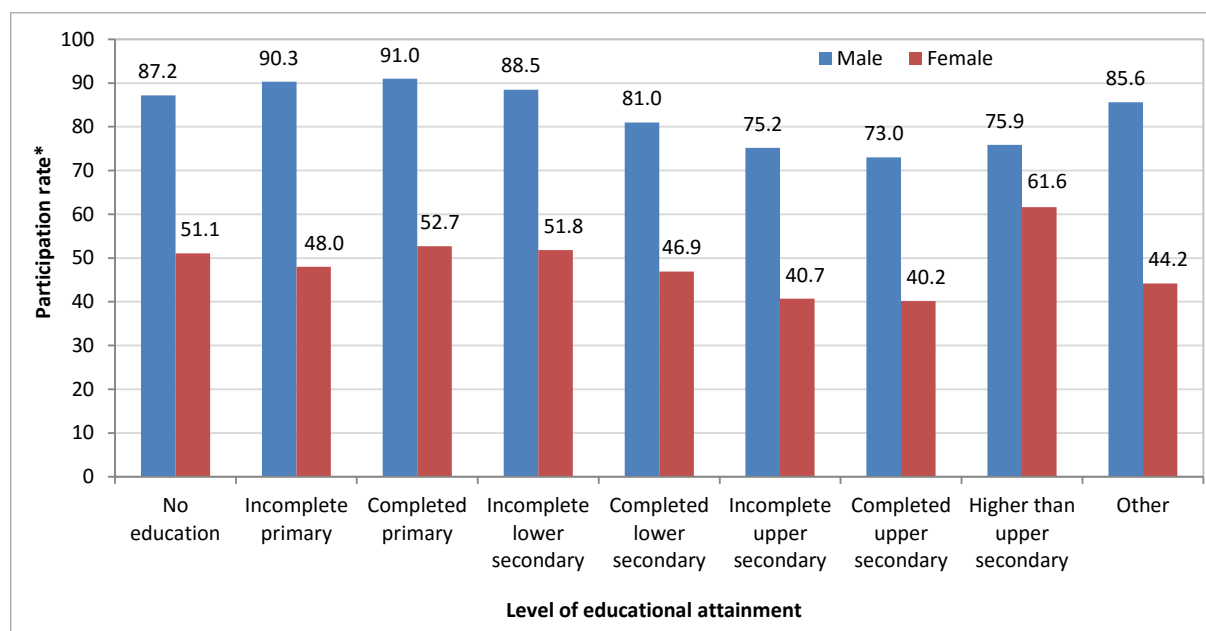


Figure 4.6

Labour force participation rates for persons aged 15-64 by sex by level of educational attainment, 2014 Census



*The labour force participation rate here is calculated as the percentage of economically active men and women out of the total population in each educational attainment group.

Women's low labour force participation rates may not be related to their education attainment levels. Evidence from a qualitative study in Myanmar suggests that on completion of their education, women find it more difficult to gain employment compared to their male counterparts (Gender Equality Network 2015). And, indeed, the 2014 Census showed that labour force participation rates were higher for men than women with the same education attainment levels (Figure 4.6).

Interestingly, even for persons with higher than secondary school level attainment where women dominate (see Chapter 3, Figure 3.9), labour force participation rates of women still remain low. This further confirms the gender inequality in obtaining employment, to the disadvantage of women.

4.2 Gender differences in employment and unemployment

4.2.1 Type of employment

The largest proportions of employed people aged 10 and over were reported in the Census as own account workers (39 per cent) or employees working in private sector/organizations (33 per cent). Table 4.4 shows that women only dominated in the category of 'contributing family workers' (a job that is essentially unquantifiable in monetary terms); there were proportionately more men in all other categories. Of particular note is the fact that women made up only a quarter of the total number of 'employers', showing that relatively few women

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manage enterprises or organizations that create employment for others. It is, consequently, in this type of employment where there was the greatest level of inequality with a gender status index (GSI) score of just 0.3. (As noted in Chapter 1 the GSI is calculated by dividing the female percentage by the male percentage. The closer the value is to zero (0) the greater the gender disparity to the disadvantage of women, while values closer to unity denote lower gender disparity (almost equal representation of men and women in an occupation category). A value above 1 means that there are proportionately more women than men in a particular occupation). The lowest level of inequality was in the category of employees in government (where the GSI was 0.7), the closest that women came to parity with men.

Table 4.4 Percentage of employed population aged 15-64 by sex by type of employment, and gender status indices, 2014 Census

Type of employment	Male	Female	Gender status index (GSI)*
Employee (government)	57.2	42.8	0.7
Employee (private org.)	65.5	34.5	0.5
Employer	74.6	25.4	0.3
Own account worker	64.8	35.2	0.5
Contributing family workers	39.5	60.5	1.5

* Percentage female / Percentage male.

As noted above, women dominated, and constituted slightly over 60 per cent of the category of contributing family workers, with a concomitant GSI value greater than 1. However, this can be seen as a disadvantage to women in terms of their participation in the labour force since contributing family workers do not work for pay, despite their economic contribution in terms of labour input. Internationally, there are larger proportions of women than men reported as contributing family workers, the highest proportions being in Africa and Asia (United Nations, 2000), and statistics still show that despite progress to close the gender gap in the last two decades, women remain over-represented in this category of workers (International Labour Organization, 2016). This illustrates the existence of gender inequalities in access to paid work, not just in Myanmar but in other parts of the less developed world.

The Census reported that the national pattern of male dominance in all but one category of employment status persisted across all age groups. And even among contributing family workers there were proportionately more males in the youngest age group 15-19, where the percentage of females was lower, while there was gender parity in the age group 20-24 (Table 4.5).

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Table 4.5

Percentage of employed population aged 15-64 by sex by type of employment by age, 2014

Census

Age Group	Employee (government)		Employee (private org.)		Employer		Own account worker		Contributing family worker		Other active	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
15 - 19	74.8	25.2	58.1	41.9	61.5	38.5	57.1	42.9	53.5	46.5	57.8	42.2
20 - 24	61.4	38.6	59.9	40.1	66.8	33.2	60.3	39.7	50.0	50.0	61.7	38.3
25 - 29	55.9	44.1	64.3	35.7	72.0	28.0	64.3	35.7	42.7	57.3	65.7	34.3
30 - 34	52.7	47.3	68.3	31.7	75.2	24.8	65.3	34.7	37.1	62.9	68.3	31.7
35 - 39	51.9	48.1	69.6	30.4	76.0	24.0	65.0	35.0	30.8	69.2	68.8	31.2
40 - 44	54.9	45.1	70.1	29.9	75.5	24.5	64.8	35.2	26.2	73.8	66.4	33.6
45 - 49	56.7	43.3	70.7	29.3	75.7	24.3	65.1	34.9	24.0	76.0	66.5	33.5
50 - 54	60.1	39.9	71.7	28.3	75.6	24.4	66.4	33.6	22.9	77.1	66.8	33.2
55 - 59	63.0	37.0	72.2	27.8	75.2	24.8	67.8	32.2	23.1	76.9	67.5	32.5
60 - 64	82.5	17.5	73.4	26.6	75.0	25.0	69.7	30.3	25.9	74.1	66.1	33.9

4.2.2 Occupation and industry

Women's share of the population aged 15-64 employed in any one occupation category was greatest in the group of professionals, of whom close to three quarters (72.9 per cent) were women (Figure 4.7). In contrast, over 90 per cent of plant and machine operators were men, thus reinforcing the observation by researchers that men in Myanmar can far more easily access jobs that require some physical strength, and where there is a gendered division of labour in which men are considered more suitable for hard work, while women take on lighter jobs (Gender Equality Network, 2015).

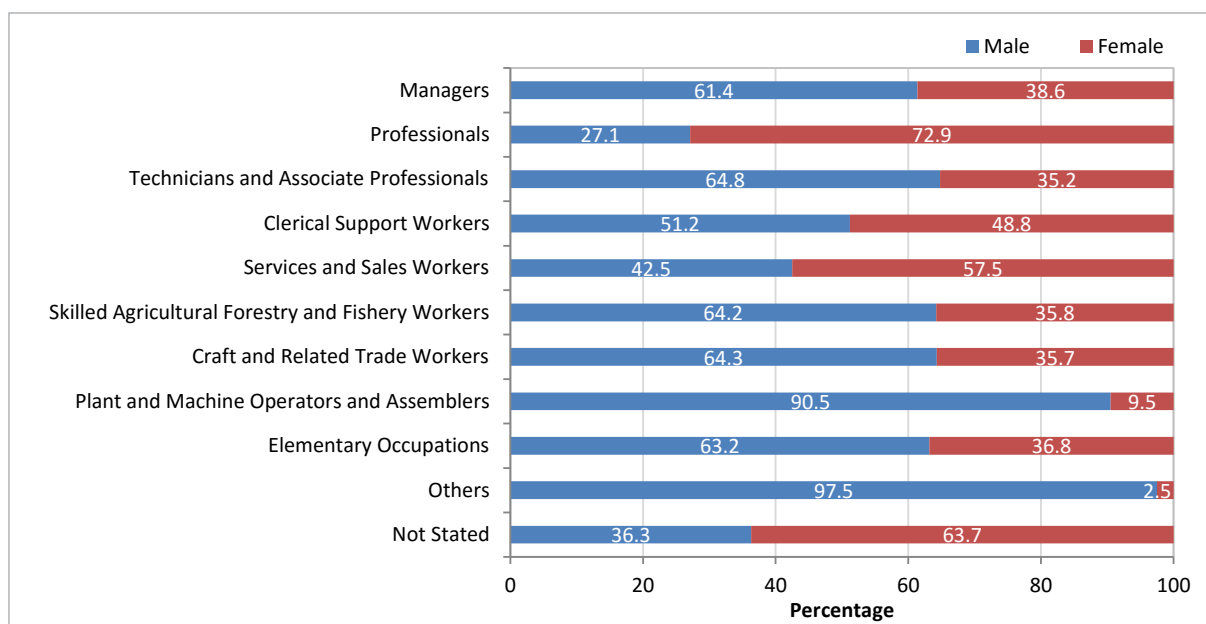
The computed GSIs in Table 4.6 further illustrate the extent of the disparities for the various occupation groups. The dominance of women in the professional group is confirmed with a GSI of 2.7; women also scored highly in services and sales occupations (with a GSI of 1.4). These profiles may also re-affirm the societal and culturally-determined gender role characteristics of most patriarchal societies which continue to assign males to more 'masculine' occupations.

Based on the findings, it is fair to conclude that women in employment tend to target professional occupations, which require, generally, higher levels of education than more manual work. It may also partly explain why a larger proportion of women than men have completed education levels higher than upper secondary school.

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Figure 4.7

Percentage of employed population aged 15-64 by sex by occupation group, 2014 Census



Source: Department of Population (2016c).

Table 4.6

Percentage of employed population aged 15-64 by sex by occupation group, and gender status index, 2014 Census

	Percentage		Gender status index*
	Male	Female	
Total in Employment	59.9	40.1	0.67
Occupation Skill Levels			
Managers	61.4	38.6	0.63
Professionals	27.1	72.9	2.69
Technicians and Associate Professionals	64.8	35.2	0.54
Clerical Support Workers	51.2	48.8	0.95
Services and Sales Workers	42.5	57.5	1.35
Skilled Agricultural Forestry and Fishery Workers	64.2	35.8	0.56
Craft and Related Trade Workers	64.3	35.7	0.56
Plant and Machine Operators and Assemblers	90.5	9.5	0.10
Elementary Occupations	63.2	36.8	0.58
Others	97.5	2.5	0.03
Not Stated	36.3	63.7	1.75

Source: Department of Population (2016c).

* Percentage female / Percentage male.

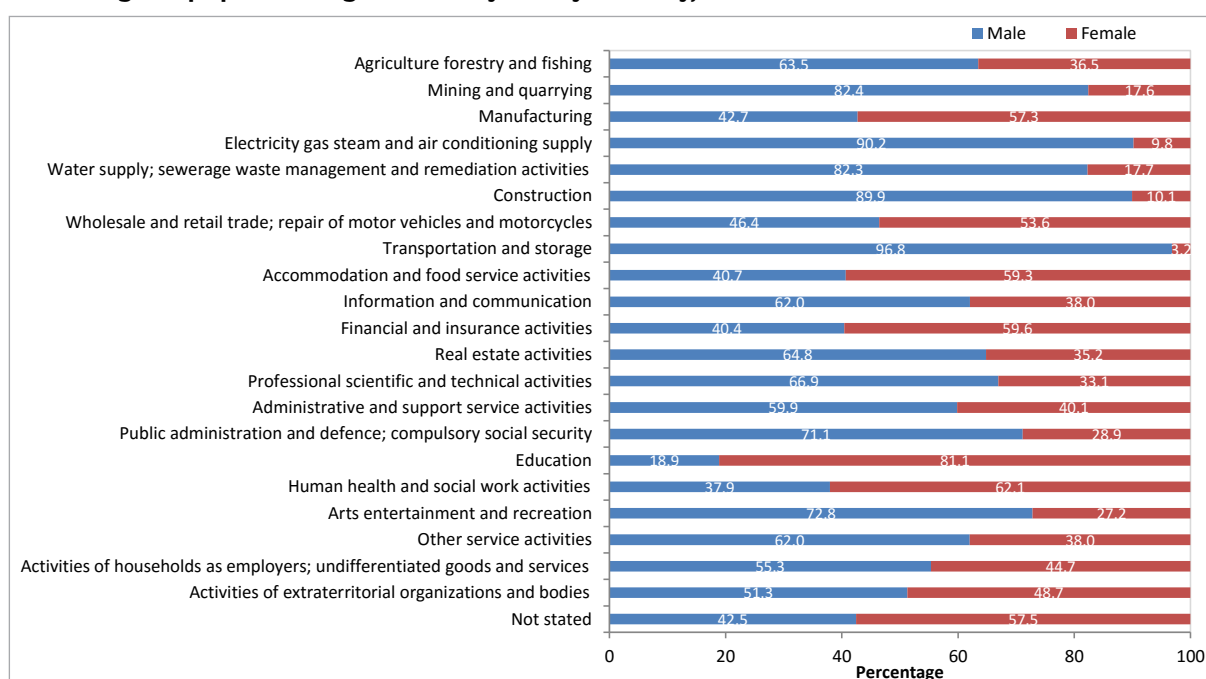
An analysis of the population aged 15-64 by industry categories shows that women comprised 81.1 per cent of those employed in education (Figure 4.8); the majority of teachers in Myanmar are women (Ma Khin Mar Mar Kyi (2014)). This finding also explains the predominance of women in the professional occupation category shown at Figure 4.7 above.

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Other industries in which the majority of persons employed were women were human health and social work activities (62.1 per cent), financial and insurance activities (59.6 per cent), and accommodation and food services (59.3 per cent). These industries employ many of the women working in services and sales-related occupations reported at Table 4.6. The choice of occupations by women, especially in the human health and social work industry (just to cite one example) is therefore not unexpected. A gender assessment report in Myanmar has indicated that in training “women are more clustered in service-oriented rather than growth-oriented areas...” (Urbano and Dickson, 2016). The same report points to a scenario where there appears to be pressure on women from society to prioritize care for their parents and family, rather than focusing on their own career, a situation that probably influences career choices for those with an opportunity to work; they may most likely choose service-oriented careers in line with societies-ascribed gender roles, further reinforcing gender inequalities.

Figure 4.8

Percentage of population aged 15-64 by sex by industry, 2014 Census



Source: Department of Population (2016c).

4.2.3 Unemployment

The unemployment rate is widely defined (particularly by economists) as the proportion of people in the labour force who are not employed and who are currently searching for work (Card, 2011). In the 2014 Census questionnaire, the unemployed were categorized as persons who reported their economic activity as ‘sought work’. This approach is consistent with the United Nations recommendations for population and housing censuses current at the time, where unemployed persons refers to “all those [above the specified age] who: (a) were not in employment; b) carried out activities to seek employment during the specified recent period, and; (c) were currently available to take up employment given a job opportunity” (United Nations Statistics Division, 2008).

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As reported in the Census, the unemployment rate among persons aged 15-64 in Myanmar stood at 4.0 per cent (Department of Population, 2016c). Table 4.7 and Figure 4.9 show that the rate for men was slightly lower than for women, but that in urban areas it was slightly higher, though the differences were small. Gender disparities do, however, emerge at the State/Region level.

Table 4.7

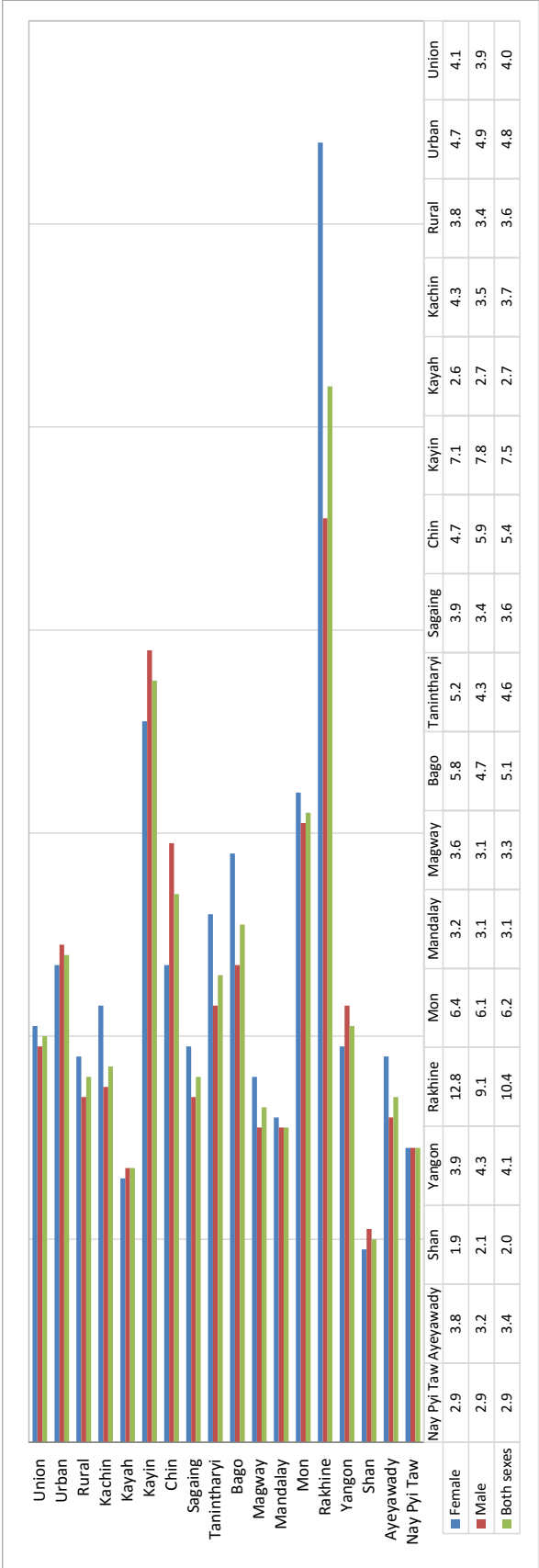
Numbers of unemployed, percentage of unemployed and unemployment rates by sex, and gender gap, State/Region, 2014 Census

State/ Region	Number of unemployed			Percentage unemployed (out of population aged 15-64)			Unemployment rate			
	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Gender gap*
UNION	873,428	517,617	355,811	2.6	3.3	2.1	4.0	3.9	4.1	0.2
Urban	313,860	193,000	120,860	3.0	3.9	2.2	4.8	4.9	4.7	-0.2
Rural	559,568	324,617	234,951	2.5	3.0	2.0	3.6	3.4	3.8	0.4
States/Regions										
Kachin	27,286	17,426	9,860	2.5	3.0	2.0	3.7	3.5	4.3	0.8
Kayah	3,520	2,113	1,407	2.0	2.4	1.6	2.7	2.7	2.6	-0.1
Kayin	40,642	27,302	13,340	4.6	6.3	2.9	7.5	7.8	7.1	-0.7
Chin	9,198	5,619	3,579	3.5	4.6	2.5	5.4	5.9	4.7	-1.2
Sagaing	91,148	48,230	42,918	2.6	3.0	2.3	3.6	3.4	3.9	0.5
Tanintharyi	25,126	15,711	9,415	2.9	3.7	2.2	4.6	4.3	5.2	0.9
Bago	100,727	59,546	41,181	3.2	4.0	2.4	5.1	4.7	5.8	1.1
Magway	60,318	31,002	29,316	2.3	2.6	2.1	3.3	3.1	3.6	0.5
Mandalay	89,463	51,821	37,642	2.1	2.6	1.7	3.1	3.1	3.2	0.1
Mon	48,572	30,030	18,542	3.8	5.0	2.7	6.2	6.1	6.4	0.3
Rakhine	80,024	45,509	34,515	6.1	7.6	4.9	10.4	9.1	12.8	3.7
Yangon	135,206	85,729	49,477	2.6	3.5	1.8	4.1	4.3	3.9	-0.4
Shan	58,451	34,760	23,691	1.6	1.9	1.3	2.0	2.1	1.9	-0.2
Ayeyawady	87,858	53,235	34,623	2.2	2.8	1.7	3.4	3.2	3.8	0.6
Nay Pyi Taw	15,889	9,584	6,305	2.0	2.5	1.6	2.9	2.9	2.9	0.0

* Percentage female - Percentage male.

Rakhine recorded the highest unemployment rates for both sexes (9.1 per cent for males and 12.8 per cent for females), and exhibited the widest gender gap in percentage points (3.7), while Shan recorded the lowest rate for both sexes with a very small gender gap of -0.2 percentage point. In this State, the main industrial activities are agriculture, mining and forestry; the sector that absorbs most of Myanmar's employed population. As such, both men and women may have better access to employment than most other States/Regions. Situated on the western coast, Rakhine has been characterized by tension between government and local inhabitants for a period of time to the extent that the situation affects the population's access to health services, education and employment (although, for the reasons previously explained, the extreme rates should be treated with some caution).

Figure 4.9
Unemployment rates by sex, urban and rural areas, State/Region, 2014 Census



Source: Department of Population (2016c).

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In Nay Pyi Taw, where the (relatively new) capital city is located, male and female unemployment rates were both low. Indeed one characteristic of Nay Pyi Taw is that the city is largely occupied by government ministries, therefore inhabitants that have settled in the city are mainly employees in government or other organizations. It is likely that many women have moved to the city specifically to take up employment, hence the parity between male and female rates.

4.3 Employed children

According to the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, a child is defined as someone under the age of 18 years unless under a particular law applicable to the child, the age of majority is attained earlier (UNICEF, 2010). The International Labour Organization (ILO) defines child labour as “work that deprives children of their childhood, their potential and their dignity, and that is harmful to their physical and mental development”. The social and economic cost of child labour to individuals, and to a country as a whole cannot be under-estimated. Child labour is also considered “a significant violation of children’s rights” and a barrier to national development (ILO, 2015c).

Many countries have adopted legislation that prohibits the employment of children as guided by ILO standards, but despite this, child labour continues on a large scale, especially in less developed countries. Due to its linkage to poverty, it has become difficult to completely eliminate child labour. Children’s work often supports not only their own survival but that of their families, but in many cases they are exploited by unscrupulous adults, and the inadequacy of education systems only exacerbates the situation (ILO, 2002).

The findings contained in this report should be interpreted with caution as limited information was collected in the 2014 Census concerning children’s work; as such there is insufficient information to classify their work as ‘child labour’. Reference and analysis in this report is therefore limited to ‘employed’ or ‘working’ children as opposed to using the concept of child labour with its more elaborate connotations. (See Glossary of terms and definitions).

The Census enumerated 7,862,576 children aged 10-17 of whom 1,654,414 (21.0 per cent) were reported as ‘employed’ (Table 4.8). The proportion was higher in rural areas (23.2 per cent) than in urban areas (15.4 per cent). Proportionately, there were more boys working (55.2 per cent) than girls (44.8 per cent), and this was the case in all States/Regions.

Table 4.8

Numbers and percentages of children aged 10-17 who were employed, urban and rural areas, 2014 Census

	All children aged 10-17			Employed children aged 10-17					
	Total	Male	Female	Total	% of all children employed	Number of males	Number of females	% males	% females
UNION	7,862,576	3,970,272	3,892,304	1,654,414	21.0	914,057	740,357	55.2	44.8
Urban	2,196,138	1,131,972	1,064,166	338,731	15.4	197,934	140,797	58.4	41.6
Rural	5,666,438	2,838,300	2,828,138	1,315,683	23.2	716,123	599,560	54.4	45.6

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Shan had the highest proportion of children working (31.6 per cent), but with virtually no gender differences (-0.7 percentage point). Table 4.9 shows that the proportion of boys working was also not significantly higher than that of girls in Chin (-0.6 percentage point) and Magway (-0.8). For all other States/Regions the gender gap was comparatively high, and even exceeded 10 percentage points in Tanintharyi. This reflects the status of working children globally, where more boys than girls are involved in child labour. It is estimated that worldwide there are 168 million child workers, (68 million girls and 100 million boys) constituting close to 11 per cent of the estimated world's child population (UNDP, 2015a).

In all States/Regions, more than half of working children are boys (Figure 4.10). In four of the States – Tanintharyi, Kachin, Mon and Kayin - boys constitute over 60 per cent of all working children.

Table 4.9

Number and percentage of children aged 10-17 who were employed, State/Region, 2014 Census

State/Region	Working children (both sexes)	Percentage working children out of total aged 10-17	Working males	Working females	% males working	% females working	Gender gap*
UNION	1,654,414	21.0	914,057	740,357	23.0	19.0	- 4.0
Kachin	42,934	15.8	28,475	14,459	20.4	10.9	- 9.5
Kayah	10,344	20.8	6,051	4,293	24.0	17.6	- 6.4
Kayin	44,347	16.9	27,141	17,206	20.3	13.3	- 7.0
Chin	9,178	10.2	4,704	4,474	10.5	9.9	- 0.6
Sagaing	193,980	23.3	101,542	92,438	24.5	22.0	- 2.5
Tanintharyi	39,877	16.3	26,873	13,004	21.8	10.8	- 11.0
Bago	155,303	20.7	88,155	67,148	23.3	18.0	- 5.3
Magway	121,513	21.6	61,081	60,432	22.0	21.2	- 0.8
Mandalay	205,304	22.5	110,802	94,502	23.8	21.0	- 2.8
Mon	56,940	16.6	35,250	21,690	20.2	12.8	- 7.4
Rakhine	40,268	11.2	23,478	16,790	13.1	9.3	- 3.8
Yangon	193,479	18.5	105,366	88,113	19.8	17.2	- 2.6
Shan	311,877	31.6	159,763	152,114	32.0	31.3	- 0.7
Ayeyawady	197,943	20.9	118,270	79,673	24.7	17.1	- 7.6
Nay Pyi Taw	31,127	18.4	17,106	14,021	19.9	16.9	- 3.0

* Percentage female - Percentage male.

The proportions of children who were employed increased with age (Table 4.10). While 21.0 per cent of children in the age group 10-17 in total were reported to be employed, the proportions ranged from 3.6 per cent of those aged 10 to almost half (48.1 per cent) by age 17 with, again, the proportion of boys higher than that of girls at all ages, though the differences are not really significant at the youngest ages (10-12). By 17 years of age, over half of all boys (55.1 per cent) were reported as working at the time of the Census, compared to 41.1 per cent of girls. Elsewhere in this report, it has been noted that between the ages of 15 and around 20, school attendance rates are slightly higher for girls than for boys. It is therefore reasonable to conclude that many, if not most, of the boys at these ages were not attending school for the reason that they were, by then, participating in the labour force.

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Figure 4.10

Percentage of employed children aged 10-17 by sex, urban and rural areas, State/Region, 2014 Census

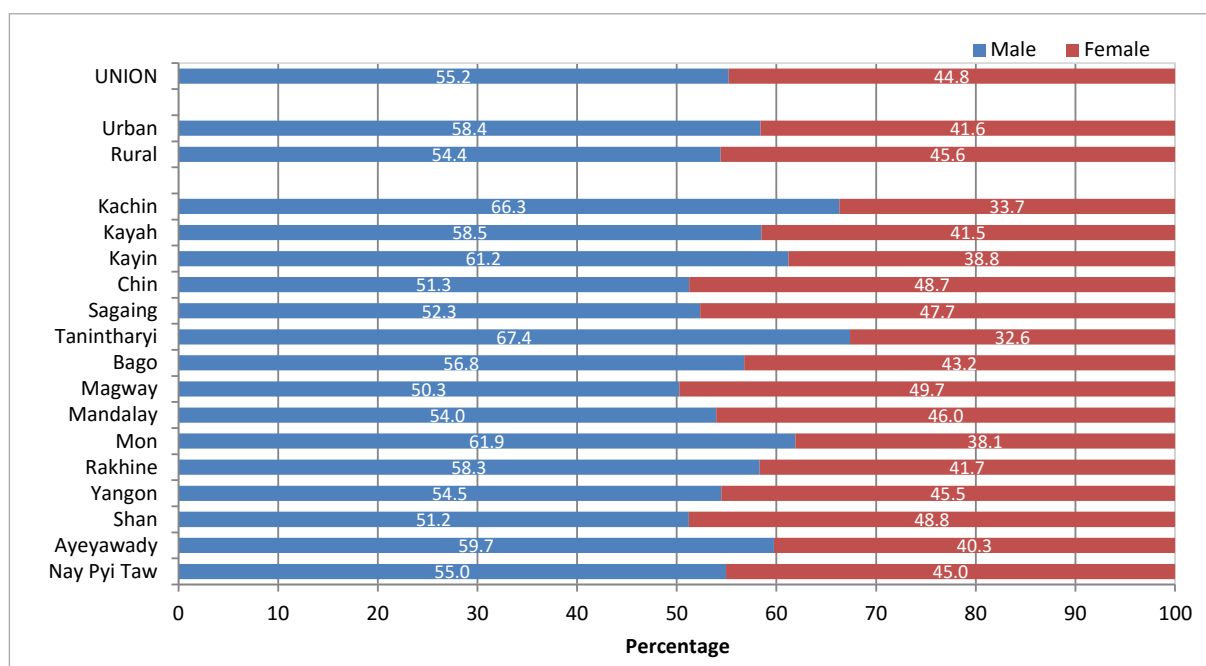


Table 4.10

Number and percentage of children employed by age, 2014 Census

Age	Both sexes			Male			Female		
	Total	Employed	Percentage employed	Total	Employed	Percentage employed	Total	Employed	Percentage employed
10	1,022,356	37,235	3.6	521,961	19,560	3.7	500,395	17,675	3.5
11	943,856	2,489	4.5	478,436	22,242	4.6	465,420	20,247	4.4
12	1,048,282	87,513	8.3	535,067	45,716	8.5	513,215	41,797	8.1
13	1,083,694	150,496	13.9	553,531	80,272	14.5	530,163	70,224	13.2
14	1,010,174	225,307	22.3	506,754	120,453	23.8	503,420	104,854	20.8
15	961,689	313,334	32.6	484,239	173,173	35.8	477,450	140,161	29.4
16	885,313	362,124	40.9	439,132	204,008	46.5	446,181	158,116	35.4
17	907,212	435,916	48.1	451,152	248,633	55.1	456,060	187,283	41.1
Total	7,862,576	1,654,414	21.0	3,970,272	914,057	23.0	3,892,304	740,357	19.0

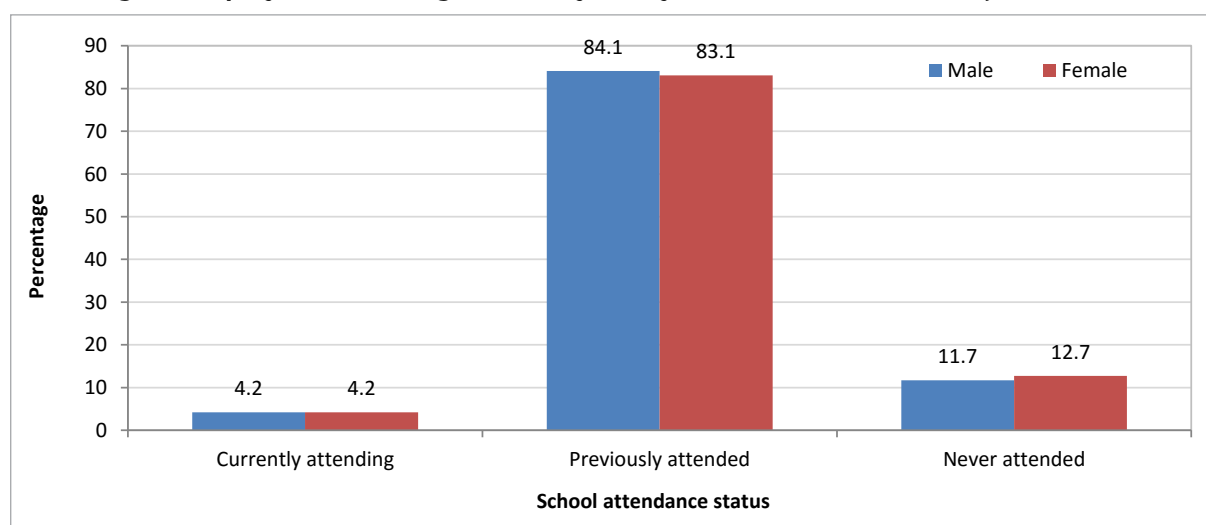
At the time of the compilation of this report, there were no specific child labour laws in force in Myanmar, but other related laws were under review to ensure that Myanmar conforms to international labour standards (ILO, 20125d). Indeed, recently, the Government has strengthened its commitment to reduce child labour. The 2014 amendments to the 1993 Child Law stipulates that children under the age of 12 should not work, and those between the ages of 12 and 14 should only take on light work which will not interfere with their education, health or development (Department of Population, 2017d). Employment in Government and some private industry is not permitted before the age of 18. It will, however, take time to fully implement the child employment laws across the country. Findings of research into child

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labour in Myanmar have revealed that although children are often forced to work due to poverty, child labour in Myanmar is further fuelled by the high costs associated with secondary education and difficulty in accessing secondary education. After completing compulsory primary level education, children may drop out of school and enter the labour force as child workers, some as early as 11 or 12 years of age (Business for Social Responsibility, 2016).

Figure 4.11

Percentage of employed children aged 10-17 by sex by school attendance status, 2014 Census



Only a small proportion of employed children aged 10-17 (4.2 per cent of both boys and girls) were reported to be still attending school, with the large majority having left school to take up work (Figure 4.11). Although there were no gender differences within the three attendance statuses at the Union level, Table 4.11 shows that this was not the case among States/Regions.

Chin, for example, stands out in having a relatively high proportion of employed boys (15.5 per cent) and girls (13.9 per cent) who were still attending school. The same State, Chin, is also one of the States/Regions with the highest gender gap (1.6 percentage points) of employed children who were still attending school. Tanintharyi also has a high gender gap of 1.7 percentage points but when the proportions are compared to Chin, Tanintharyi recorded less than four times the proportion of employed boys (3.5 per cent) and less than three times the proportion of employed girls (5.2 per cent) who were currently attending school.

Other States/Regions with at least 1.2 percentage point gender gaps were Kayin (+1.2), Kachin (+1.5) and Mandalay (-1.4). While Chin recorded the highest gender differences in the proportion of employed boys and girls who previously attended school (-8.8 percentage points: the proportion of boys higher than that of girls) and those who had never attended school (+10.4: the proportion of girls higher than that of boys), Chin's proportions of employed boys and girls who previously attended school are among the lowest of all States/Regions, and Chin's proportions of employed boys and girls who had never attended school are among the highest.

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Table 4.11

Percentage of employed children aged 10-17 by sex by school attendance status, State/Region, 2014 Census

State/ Region	Percentage of employed children aged 10-17								
	Both sexes			Male			Female		
	Currently attending	Previously attended	Never attended	Currently attending	Previously attended	Never attended	Currently attending	Previously attended	Never attended
UNION	4.2	83.6	12.1	4.2	84.1	11.7	4.2	83.1	12.7
Kachin	5.6	90.4	4.0	5.1	91.4	3.5	6.6	88.4	5.0
Kayah	5.4	87.1	7.4	5.3	88.0	6.7	5.7	86.0	8.3
Kayin	4.4	70.4	25.2	3.9	69.8	26.3	5.1	71.3	23.6
Chin	14.7	71.4	13.9	15.5	75.8	8.7	13.9	67.0	19.1
Sagaing	4.2	91.3	4.6	4.2	91.4	4.3	4.1	91.1	4.8
Tanintharyi	4.0	89.8	6.2	3.5	90.2	6.3	5.2	88.8	6.1
Bago	2.6	92.6	4.8	2.6	92.5	4.9	2.6	92.6	4.8
Magway	5.4	90.0	4.6	5.4	89.5	5.0	5.3	90.5	4.2
Mandalay	4.4	91.9	3.7	5.1	91.2	3.8	3.7	92.7	3.6
Mon	3.6	88.6	7.8	3.2	88.4	8.4	4.2	88.9	6.9
Rakhine	7.6	79.1	13.3	7.6	80.7	11.6	7.5	76.9	15.6
Yangon	4.2	92.2	3.6	4.3	92.0	3.8	4.1	92.5	3.4
Shan	4.0	56.3	39.7	3.9	56.9	39.2	4.1	55.7	40.1
Ayeyawady	3.5	91.1	5.3	3.5	91.0	5.5	3.6	91.4	5.0
Nay Pyi Taw	6.0	90.4	3.6	6.1	90.9	3.0	6.0	89.8	4.2

It has already been noted in this report that the Census recorded, generally, low levels of literacy, school attendance and educational attainment among both males and females in Shan, so this result should come as no surprise. Additionally, poverty levels in Shan have, in the recent past, been ranked above average (United Nations Development Programme, 2015b). The implication is that children may be compelled by circumstances to work for pay in order to support themselves or their families. Evidence from a study on working children in Myanmar indicates, however, that working children's families do not perceive the issue as a loss of childhood opportunities, but more as a means of character-building as well as the fulfilment of familial expectations (Su-Ann Oh, 2016).

Employed children aged 10-17 were concentrated in just a few occupational categories, namely: skilled agricultural forestry and fishery workers; elementary occupations; craft and related trade workers; and services and sales workers (Table 4.12). Close to half of working children, both boys and girls, were employed as agricultural, forestry and fishery workers. This is not surprising as agriculture is the principal sector where child labour is prevalent (ILO, 2013). Their absence in the categories of management, and limited participation in the professional, technical and clerical support categories, clearly results from the requirement of more highly skilled expertise and adequate education for such occupations that children do not possess at such a young age.

The proportions of working girls were higher than those of boys in occupations such as services and sales, whereas in agriculture, forestry and fisheries, the reverse was the case. This again is a reflection of cultural beliefs about gender roles which assign even children

Chapter 4. Gender dimensions in the labour force

from young ages certain roles based on an arbitrary categorization of work, by society, that is regarded as being of either a masculine or feminine nature, an example of gendered division of labour. Evidence, again from the qualitative study in Myanmar referred to earlier, indicates that work opportunities for women and men are strongly linked to gender norms, with men's work described as 'hard', 'outside' (the home) and 'productive', while women's work is 'light', 'inside' and 'reproductive-related' (Gender Equality Network, 2015).

Table 4.12

Percentage of employed children aged 10-17 in conventional households by occupation group by sex, 2014 Census

Occupation Category	Percentage of boys	Percentage of girls
Managers	-	-
Professionals	0.1	0.2
Technicians and Associate Professionals	0.3	0.2
Clerical Support Workers	0.4	0.4
Services and Sales Workers	7.3	10.5
Skilled Agricultural, Forestry and Fishery Workers	47.2	44.9
Craft and Related Trade Workers	15.8	15.5
Plant and Machine Operators and Assemblers	2.2	1.2
Elementary Occupations	26.7	27.2
Others	-	-
Total	100	100

Source: Department of Population (2017c).

Although the phenomenon of gender-based division of labour is a feature of all societies, literature shows no evidence of consensus regarding the source or origin of such divisions (Alahira, 2014).

In summary, the phenomenon of working children is apparent in Myanmar, indicating that part of the country's economy inputs come from children's work. While evidence from the Census data is limited, there is a need for concerted efforts from all stakeholders, both within and beyond the Government, to address the issue using sector-wide approaches, especially in relation to keeping more children in school.

Chapter 5. Gender dimensions of disability

5.1 Introduction

It has been estimated that in 2011 over one billion people globally had some form of disability, and that roughly 200 million (up to 3.8 per cent of the world's population) had significant disabilities. Most persons with disabilities live in less developed countries (WHO and The World Bank, 2011). To ensure the protection of persons with a disability, three of the principles included in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities are: full and effective participation and inclusion in society; equality of opportunity; and equality between men and women (United Nations, 2006). Additionally, SDG 8, Target 8.5, calls on national governments to commit to achieving full and productive employment and decent work for all men and women, including young people and persons with disabilities, and equal pay for work of equal value by the year 2030 (United Nations, 2015). This underscores the importance of accurate and reliable information for persons with disabilities for the purposes of policy and programme planning.

A lot of work has been undertaken globally in regard to the clarification of concepts, categorizations and the improvement of statistics on disability, and a growing number of countries are now collecting information on persons with disabilities in censuses (United Nations Statistics Division, 2015). The 2014 Myanmar Census question on disability covered four domains of functioning: seeing, hearing, walking, and remembering or concentrating. As noted in Figure 5.1, responses were coded to one of four categories of difficulty: 1) No difficulty; 2) Some difficulty; 3) A lot of difficulty; and 4) Cannot do at all.

This chapter of the report covers some of the findings on disability from the responses to this question giving particular regard to the gender perspective.

Figure 5.1

The 2014 Myanmar Census question on disability

DISABILITY			
9. Does (Name) have any difficulty...?			
i. Seeing, even if wearing glasses			
ii. Hearing, even if using hearing aid			
iii. Walking, climbing steps, carrying items			
iv. Remembering or concentrating			
Codes No - no difficulty = 1 Yes - some difficulty = 2 Yes a lot of difficulty = 3 Cannot do at all = 4			
Seeing	Hearing	Walking	Remembering
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Chapter 5. Gender dimensions of disability

5.2 Prevalence

Out of the 50,279,900 people enumerated in the 2014 Census (both in conventional households and in institutions), some 2,311,250 persons, or 4.6 per cent, reported having some form of disability (mild, moderate, or severe). Results reveal that 216,062 people (0.4 per cent) were classified as having a severe disability (those that responded 'cannot do at all' in respect of at least one functional domain); 559,880 (1.1 per cent) reported having a moderate or severe (cannot do at all) disability (those that had 'a lot of difficulty' in at least one domain); and 841,612 (1.7 per cent) had multiple disabilities (this includes mild, moderate, and severe disabilities) (Department of Population, 2017e).

Table 5.1

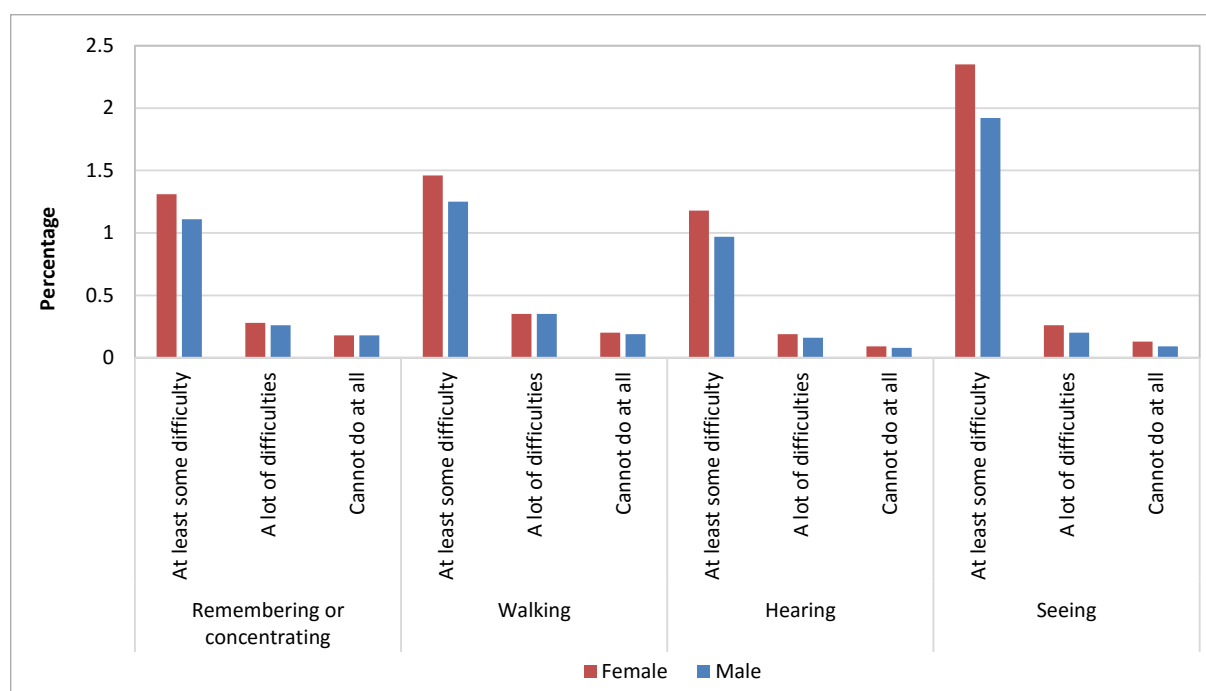
Prevalence of disability by level of disability and sex, 2014 Census

Level of disability	Total Population		
	Male	Female	Both sexes
Mild disability or higher	4.4	4.8	4.6
Moderate or severe disability	1.1	1.1	1.1
Severe disability	0.4	0.4	0.4
No disability	95.6	95.2	95.4

The proportion of females with a disability was higher than that of males for all three degrees (or levels) of difficulty and for all four domains, although the differences were, in most cases, very small (Figure 5.2).

Figure 5.2

Percentages of persons with a disability by domain by degree by sex, 2014 Census

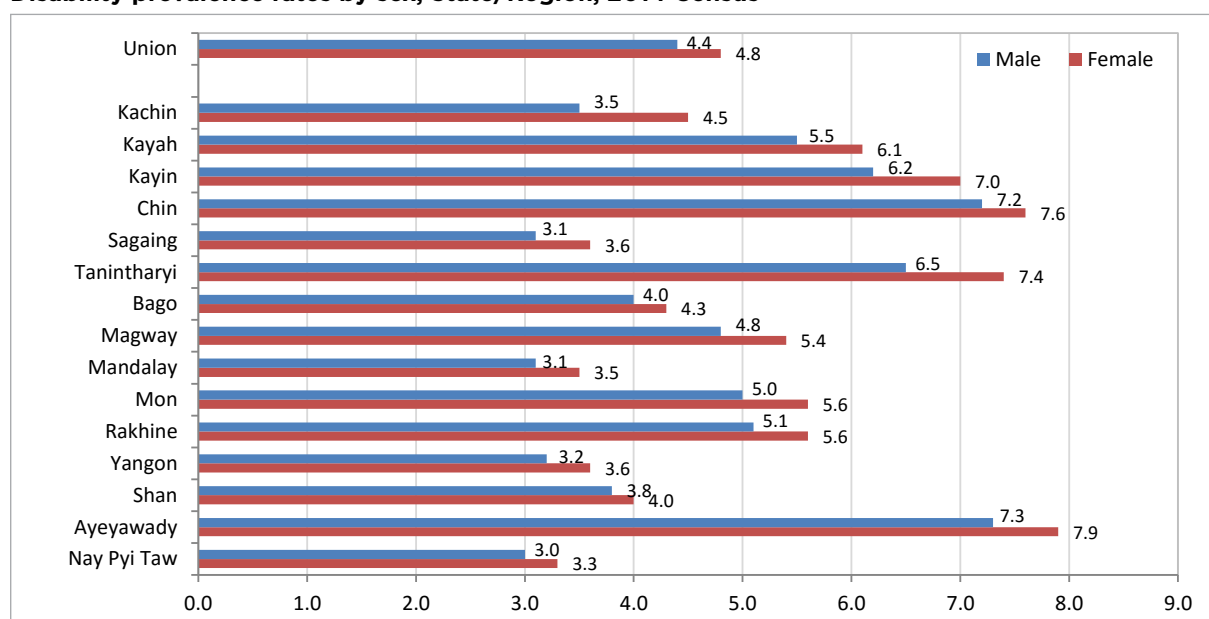


Chapter 5. Gender dimensions of disability

The profile of greater prevalence of disability, generally, among women was persistent in all States/Regions (Figure 5.3). The highest incidence of female disability (above 7 per cent) was reported in Ayeyawady, Tanintharyi and Chin, with correspondingly high male prevalence, but at lower levels than for females. In particular, the prevalence rates for females and males in Ayeyawady were exceptionally high at 7.9 per cent and 7.3 per cent respectively.

Figure 5.3

Disability prevalence rates by sex, State/Region, 2014 Census



However, this apparent higher prevalence of disability among females is misleading. The likelihood of disability increases with age, since many activity functions deteriorate with age (Chappell and Cooke, 2010), and as women live longer than men, on average, they become proportionately more prone to disability. Indeed, Table 5.2 shows that up to the age of 65, prevalence rates among men were generally higher than for women for each degree of disability. For the age group 65-69 the rates were just about on a par, but, thereafter, levels of disability increased more rapidly for women than men. However, in general, the gender differences in prevalence rates at any age were quite small. Even at ages 80 and over, for example, males experienced a disability prevalence rate of 41.9 per cent while for women the rate was 44.0 per cent.

Chapter 5. Gender dimensions of disability

Table 5.2

Disability prevalence rates by degree of disability by sex by age, 2014 Census

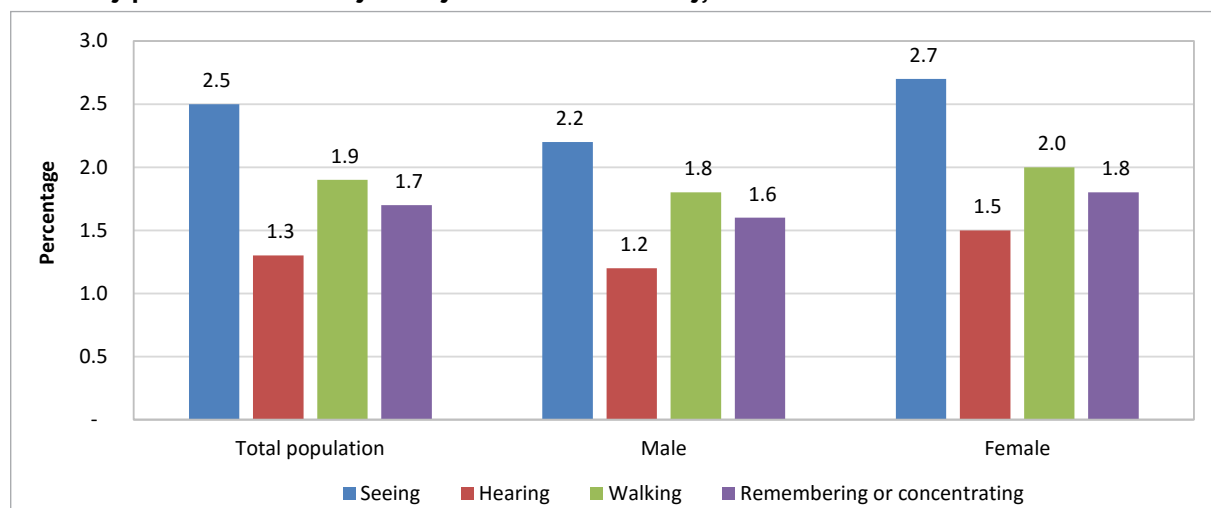
Age Group	Both sexes			Male			Female		
	Mild disability or higher	Moderate or severe disability	Severe disability	Mild disability or higher	Moderate or severe disability	Severe disability	Mild disability or higher	Moderate or severe disability	Severe disability
Total	4.60	1.11	0.43	4.36	1.09	0.42	4.82	1.13	0.44
0 - 4	1.69	0.70	0.29	1.71	0.71	0.29	1.66	0.68	0.28
5 - 9	1.17	0.47	0.23	1.27	0.50	0.24	1.07	0.43	0.22
10 - 14	1.28	0.49	0.23	1.38	0.54	0.25	1.18	0.45	0.21
15 - 19	1.22	0.45	0.21	1.29	0.49	0.23	1.16	0.40	0.19
20 - 24	1.24	0.45	0.21	1.33	0.51	0.24	1.15	0.39	0.19
25 - 29	1.50	0.47	0.22	1.60	0.54	0.25	1.40	0.41	0.19
30 - 34	1.88	0.54	0.24	2.02	0.63	0.28	1.76	0.46	0.21
35 - 39	2.39	0.57	0.23	2.54	0.68	0.28	2.25	0.47	0.19
40 - 44	3.89	0.71	0.27	3.95	0.84	0.33	3.85	0.59	0.22
45 - 49	6.00	0.91	0.33	6.17	1.05	0.38	5.85	0.79	0.28
50 - 54	8.39	1.28	0.43	8.63	1.44	0.49	8.18	1.15	0.37
55 - 59	10.78	1.72	0.54	10.97	1.87	0.60	10.62	1.59	0.50
60 - 64	14.58	2.60	0.84	14.61	2.74	0.90	14.55	2.49	0.79
65 - 69	18.97	3.81	1.25	18.61	3.86	1.27	19.25	3.78	1.25
70 - 74	26.27	6.16	2.08	25.74	5.95	1.96	26.66	6.31	2.17
75 - 79	32.37	8.60	3.01	31.72	8.20	2.73	32.82	8.88	3.21
80+	43.22	15.61	6.31	41.90	14.03	5.24	44.01	16.56	6.95

Source: Department of Population (2017e).

Disability related to sight was most commonly reported by 2.7 per cent of women and 2.2 per cent of men. Figure 5.4 shows that gender differences in prevalence rates were small for all other types of disability.

Figure 5.4

Disability prevalence rates by sex by domain of disability, 2014 Census



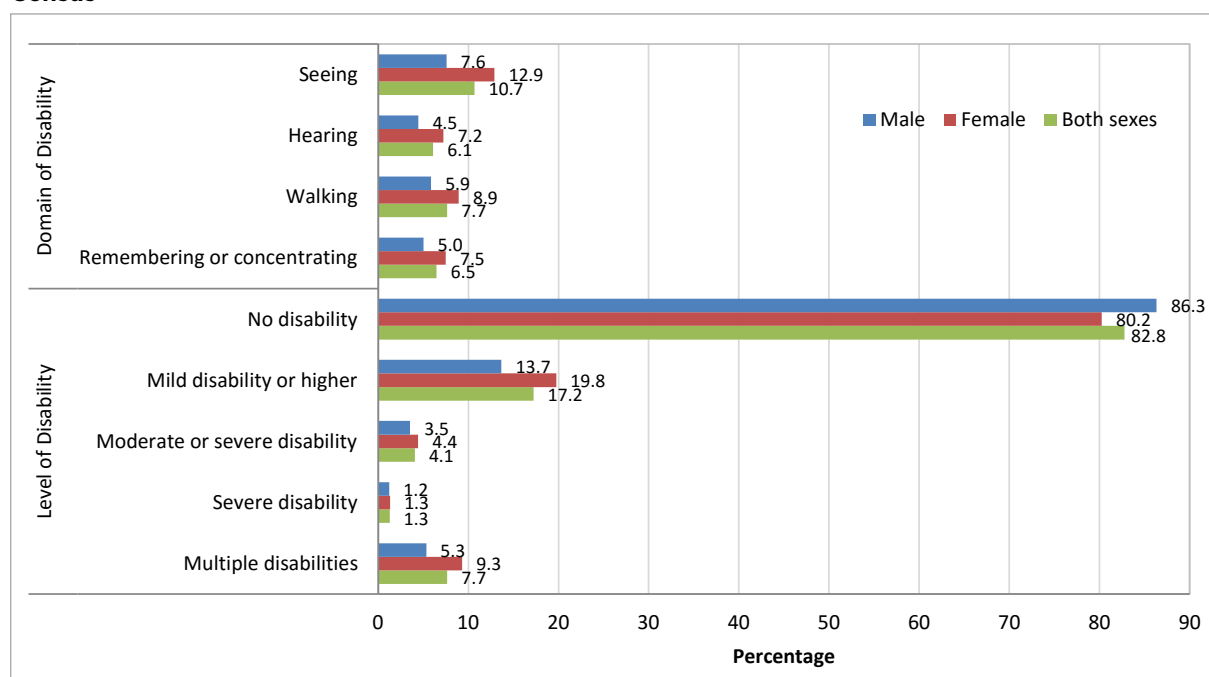
Chapter 5. Gender dimensions of disability

Larger proportions of women living with disabilities compared to men are likely to be living alone (Figure 5.5).

Irrespective of the degree or domain of disability, the Census showed that the proportions of women with a disability that are living alone were higher than those of men. This finding is supported by other studies that indicate that women with a disability are more likely to live alone than men (Watson and Nolan, 2011), again reflecting the fact that they tend to live longer than their husbands. The Census has shown that women in Myanmar outlive men, on average, by over nine years.

Figure 5.5

Percentage of persons with a disability living alone by domain and degree of disability, 2014 Census



5.3 Education and disability

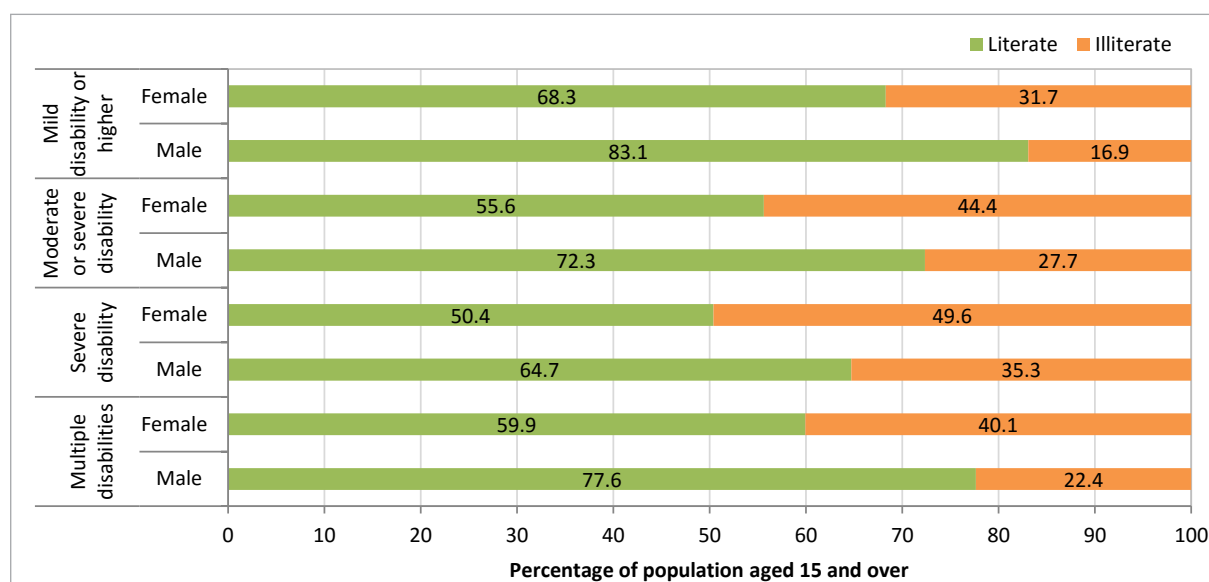
5.3.1 Literacy and disability

The level of literacy is generally considered as a reflection of the overall level of education of the population, although some empirical evidence from Sub-Saharan Africa suggests that educational attainment is generally a poor proxy for literacy (Smith-Greenaway, 2015). It is estimated that almost 17 per cent of the adult population worldwide is still not literate, up to two thirds of whom are women (UNESCO, 2016). Literacy is particularly important for persons with a disability due to its impact on communications, health and employment (Erickson, 2005). The 2014 Census showed that the proportions of women aged 15 and over with a disability who are illiterate are much higher than the proportions of men for all degrees of disability (Figure 5.6).

Chapter 5. Gender dimensions of disability

Figure 5.6

Literacy rates of persons aged 15 and over by degree of disability by sex, 2014 Census



More specifically, the Figure shows that only 16.9 per cent of males with a mild disability or higher (that is those who reported in the Census that they had ‘some’, ‘moderate’, or ‘a lot of’ difficulty in any one of the four activity domains) were illiterate compared to almost double the proportion (31.7 per cent) of females. However, for those who reported a severe disability (cannot do at all), the proportions illiterate and literate among women were almost equal compared with a ratio of around 1/3 - 2/3 for men.

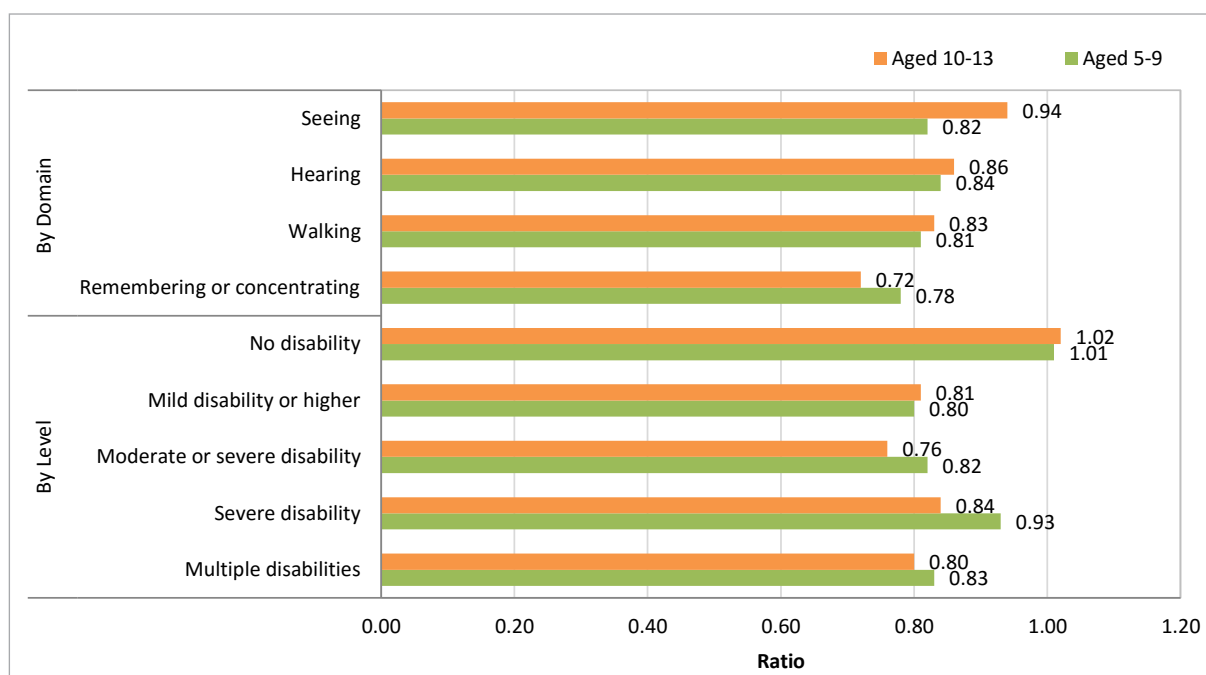
The issue of illiteracy clearly has particular implications on the provision of social services for women with disabilities.

5.3.2 School attendance of children with disabilities

Persons living with a disability are expected to enjoy equal opportunities in all socioeconomic spheres of life, including equal access to education opportunities without any discrimination on the basis of sex or gender. An analysis of the school attendance of children by school age living with a disability shows that the ratios of girls to boys attending school are below 1 for all types and degrees of disability compared with children of both primary and secondary school age with no disability for whom the ratio is fractionally greater than unity (Figure 5.7). In other words there were, in all cases, fewer girls with a disability in school compared with boys.

Figure 5.7

Ratio of girls to boys with a disability attending primary and secondary education by domain by degree of disability, 2014 Census



Source: Department of Population (2017e).

For all activity domains and degrees of disability the differences in the ratios at primary school (age 5-9) and secondary school (age 10-13) are generally minimal other than for those with seeing difficulties - for whom there were proportionately far fewer girls attending primary school (0.82) compared with the ratio at secondary school (0.94) - and among those with the severest degree of difficulty, where the ratios were 0.93 at primary school and 0.84 at secondary school.

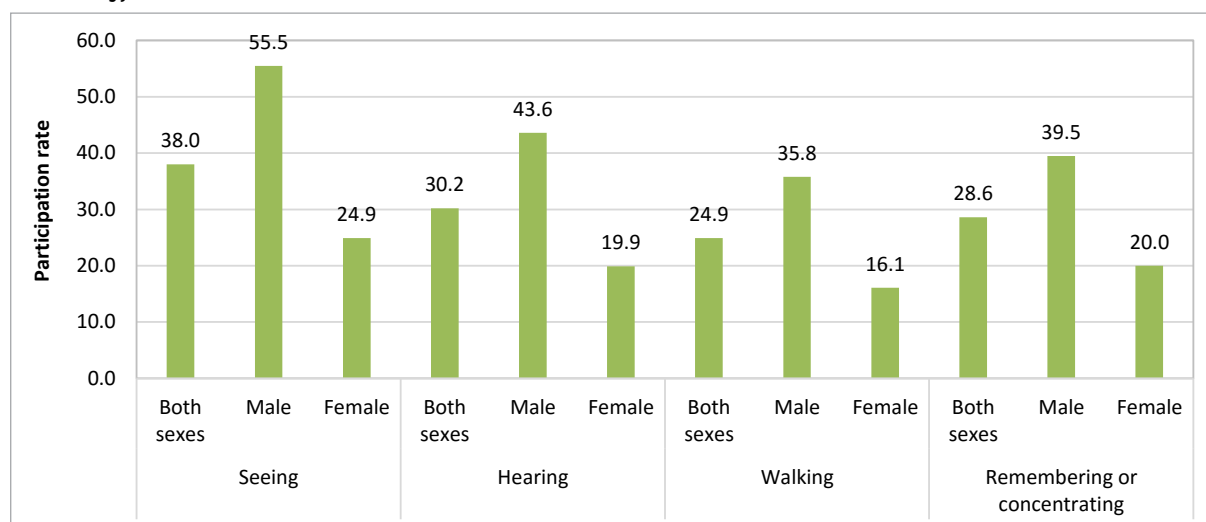
5.4 Economic activity and disability

Participation in the labour force by persons with a disability enables them to meet their basic needs and promotes full participation and inclusion in society more generally. However, the extent of their participation is dependent on the nature and severity of their disability. The 2014 Census labour force participation rates were highest overall among those with a seeing disability (38.0 per cent), being more than twice as high for males (55.5 per cent) than for females (24.9 per cent), as shown at Figure 5.8.

Across all domains of disability, male participation was significantly higher than female participation, largely reflecting levels of labour force participation in the population as a whole (82.0 per cent for males aged 15 and over compared with just 47.2 per cent of females (Department of Population, 2017c)), but nevertheless indicating the possibility that women with disabilities face more economic hardships than men.

Figure 5.8

Labour force participation rate for persons with a disability aged 10 and over by sex by domain of disability, 2014 Census



Following the profile of age-specific labour force participation rates for the population generally, Figure 5.9 shows that participation rates among persons with a reported disability were highest between the ages of 25 and 54, after which they decline sharply with advancing age for all four domains of disability. Male rates are appreciably higher than female rates at all ages. (The numbers of employed and unemployed males and females by age for each domain of disability are presented in Appendix 1, Table A9).

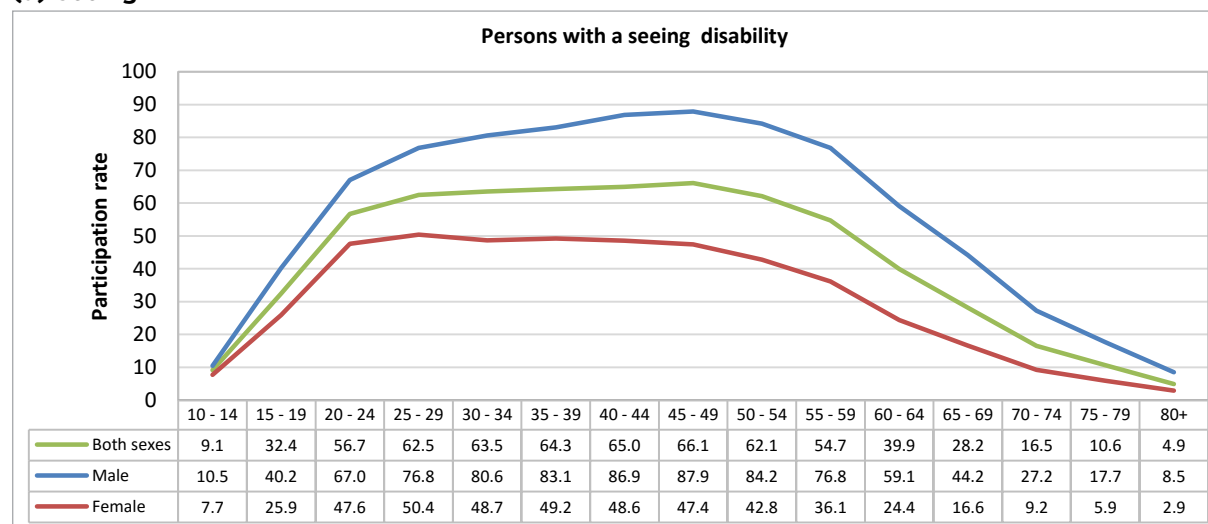
In conclusion, the prevalence of disability is not only higher among women in Myanmar but gender inequalities also exist affecting access to education and employment opportunities. Although the responsibility for the welfare of persons with disabilities falls under the Department of Social Welfare under the Ministry of Social Welfare, Relief and Resettlement, other organizations in and outside government are also playing an important role in rehabilitation, training and integration programmes for persons with a disability in Myanmar.

Chapter 5. Gender dimensions of disability

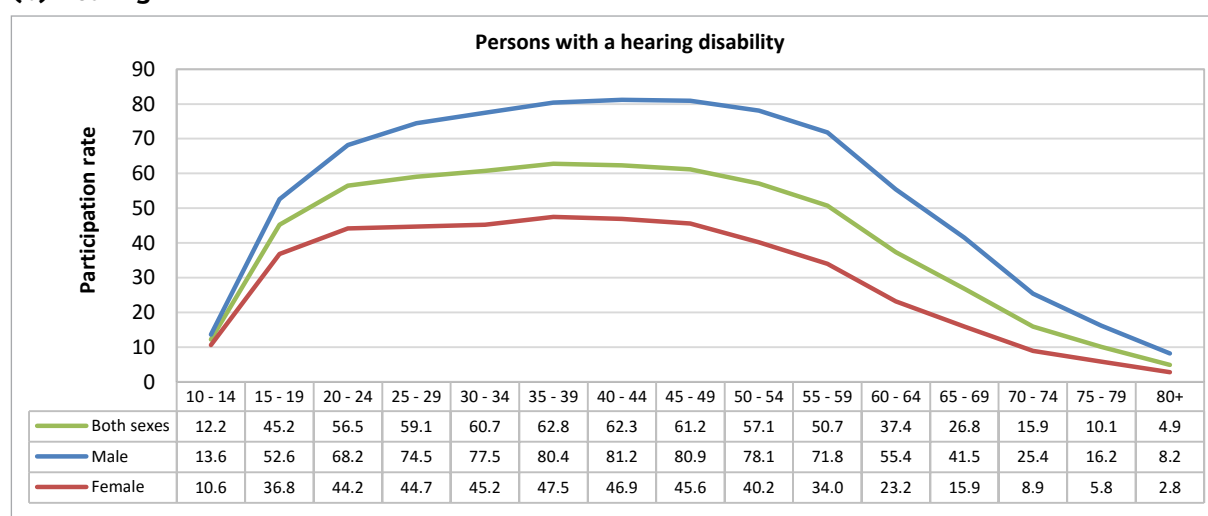
Figure 5.9

Age-specific labour force participation rates for persons with disabilities by sex by domain, 2014 Census

(a) Seeing

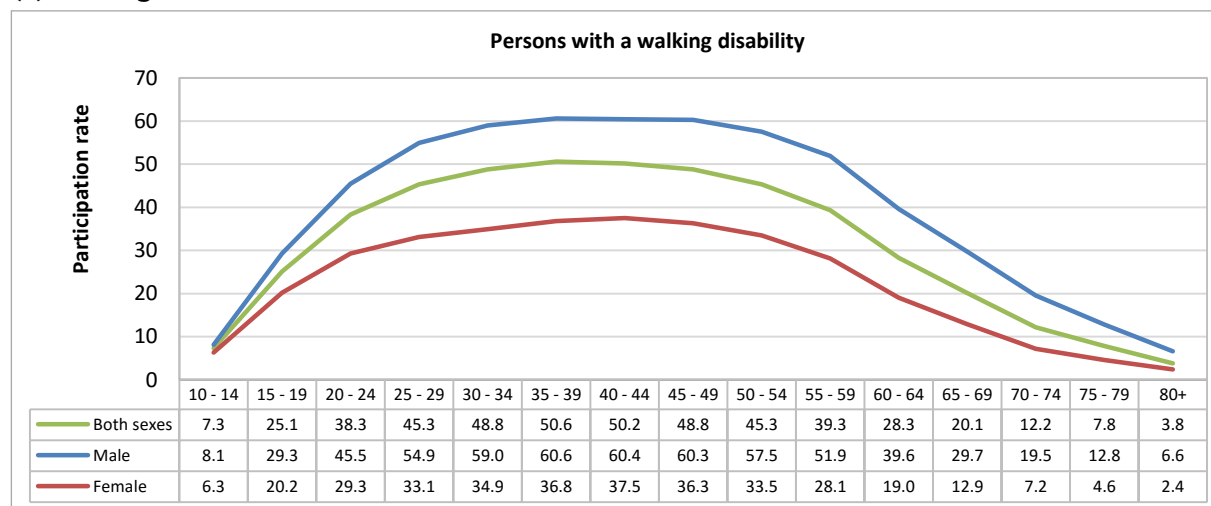


(b) Hearing

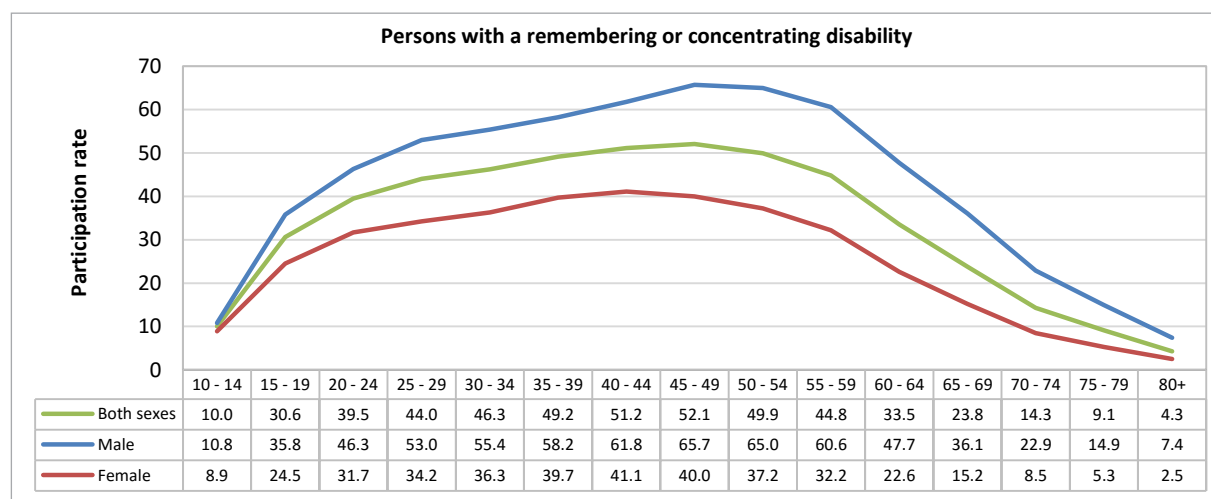


Chapter 5. Gender dimensions of disability

(c) Walking



(d) Remembering or concentrating



Chapter 6. Gender dimensions of households and housing

6.1 Introduction

Households have increasingly become a focus for research in gender studies because gender relations, gender roles and gender identities are usually defined and realized within the household context (Sweetman, 2000). Gender issues relating to households and housing are underpinned by the existing disadvantaged position of most women in less developed countries in terms of access to assets and unequal access to resources; a situation caused by the socio-cultural norms governing the gender roles in many patriarchal societies. Although evidence from some studies has indicated that female-headed households in Myanmar are more likely to be poor in comparison to male-headed ones (Kyaw and Routray, 2006), the relationship between household headship and poverty is complex (Asian Development Bank *et al*, 2016).

A number of studies focusing on poverty at the household level have, therefore, often included the socioeconomic differences between female- and male-headed households in areas such as economic status; the education level of the household head; the quality of housing materials; the ownership of/access to assets; and the nature/quality of household amenities, among others. However, these indicators are only proxies for the economic status of households, and may not portray the whole picture. A more detailed analysis would need to include information on income levels of households cross tabulated by the sex of the household head to ascertain absolute poverty levels.

The limitation of the information collected in the 2014 Census prevents such a detailed analysis, and hence the findings from the analysis of gender dimensions of households and housing presented in this report only provides basic information on the characteristics of households to investigate whether or not female- and male-headed households differ significantly in terms of their socioeconomic status. It should be kept in mind, however, that a comparison of the average female-headed and male-headed household may not necessarily help draw definitive conclusions, since each such household may itself differ in structure and characteristics. Some of the female heads, for example, are single (never married) by choice and are employed, with few or no dependents to take care of. Others are female heads as a result of divorce, separation or desertion, although even within this category some households have high economic status, while other female heads have little or no education and insecure livelihoods, in addition to children/dependents to take care of (Asian Development Bank *et al*, 2016).

6.2 Gender dimensions of household headship

6.2.1 Proportions of female- and male-headed households

The household headship phenomenon has changed over time and an increasing number of households worldwide are now headed by women. In the 2014 Myanmar Census, identification of the household head was done at the initial stage of the listing of household members during enumeration. This information was utilized at the data processing stage to determine female- and male-headed households. While researchers identify different types of female-headed households (such as female-maintained, female-led, *de jure* and *de facto*, among

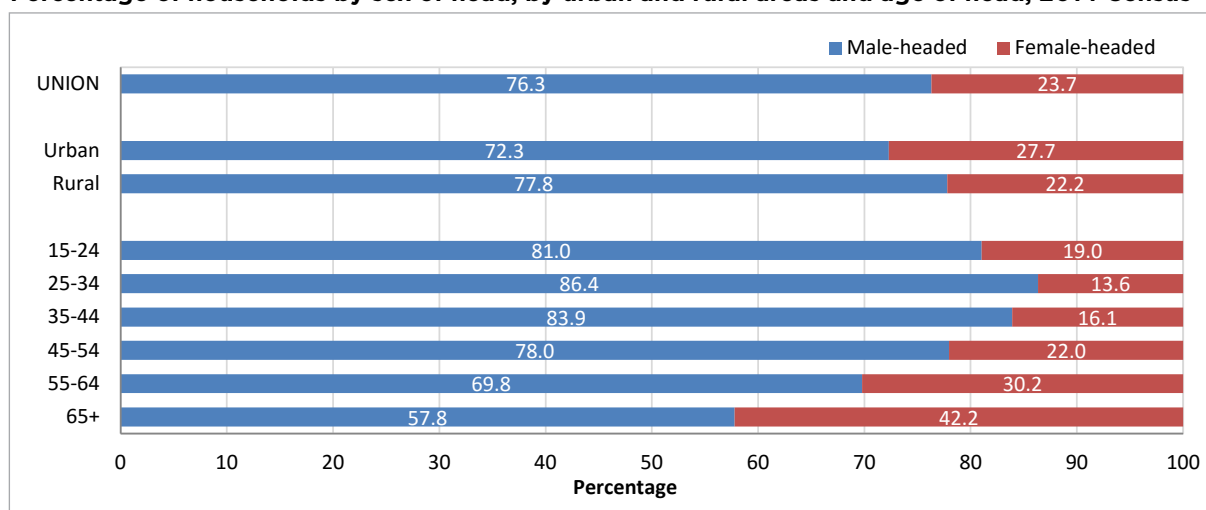
Chapter 6. Gender dimensions of households and housing

others) (Sweetman, 2000), the scope of this report does not cover this heterogeneity. Instead it provides some useful insights into the characteristics of both female- and male-headed households enumerated during the Census.

The Census results reveal that slightly less than one quarter of households in Myanmar were headed by women. Out of a total of 10,877,832 households enumerated in the 2014 Census, 8,296,535 (76.3 per cent) were male-headed and 2,581,297 (23.7 per cent) were female-headed (Figure 6.1). The proportion of households that are headed by women was a little higher in urban areas (27.7 per cent) than in rural areas (22.2 per cent). It should be noted here that the head of a conventional household was identified in the Census as the household member (of either sex) who makes key decisions and is generally recognized as the head by the other members of the household. That person is not necessarily mainly responsible for the livelihood of the household. Moreover, enumerators were instructed that if the head of the household was not present in the household on Census Night (and thus would not have been enumerated in the household) the next most responsible member should be reported as the *de facto* head (Department of Population, 2014), though there was some evidence that this *de facto* approach was not always followed (Republic of the Union of Myanmar, 2014).

Figure 6.1

Percentage of households by sex of head, by urban and rural areas and age of head, 2014 Census



Source: Department of Population (2017f).

Figure 6.1 also shows that the proportion of female-headed households tends to increase with the age of the head. The highest proportion of households that were headed by women (42.2 per cent) was reported among those with heads in the older age group 65 and over. Conversely, female-headed households constitute only 13.6 per cent of households headed by persons aged 25-34. This profile reflects the increased rates of male mortality at older ages. With life expectancy being higher for women than men (a phenomenon not unique to Myanmar) the outcome is that with advancing age, a larger proportion of women become heads of their own households through widowhood, as illustrated by Figure 6.2 and at Table 6.1. While almost all male heads were reported to be married, the equivalent proportion was quite low among female household heads, half of whom were widows.

Chapter 6. Gender dimensions of households and housing

Figure 6.2

Percentage of household heads by sex by marital status, 2014 Census

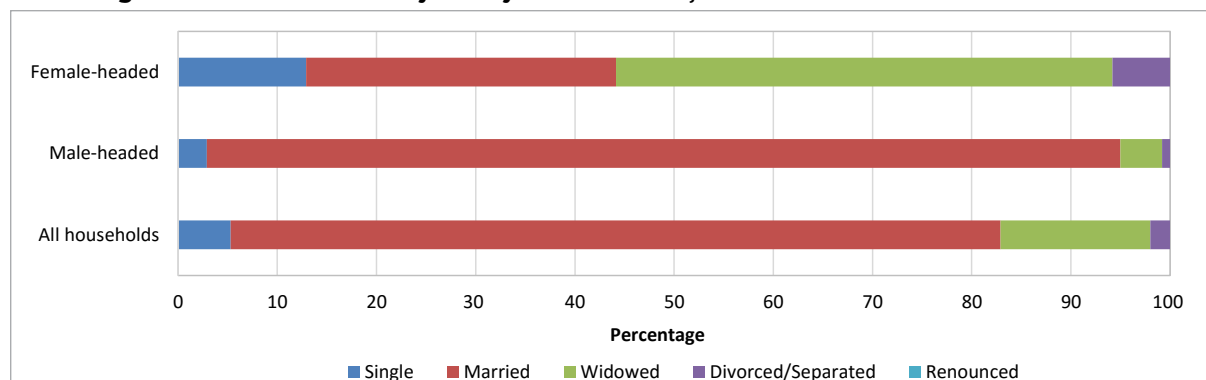


Table 6.1

Percentage of household heads by sex by marital status, and gender gap, 2014 Census

	All households	Male-headed households	Female-headed households	Gender gap*
Single	5.3	2.9	12.9	10.0
Married	77.6	92.0	31.2	-60.8
Widowed	15.1	4.2	50.0	45.8
Divorced/Separated	2.0	0.8	5.8	5.0
Renounced	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total	100	100	100	

* Percentage female - Percentage male.

Table 6.1 reveals that half of female heads are widowed compared to just 4.2 per cent of male heads, giving a gender gap of 45.8 percentage points, compared to the much larger negative gap of 60.8 points (more men than women) among married heads.

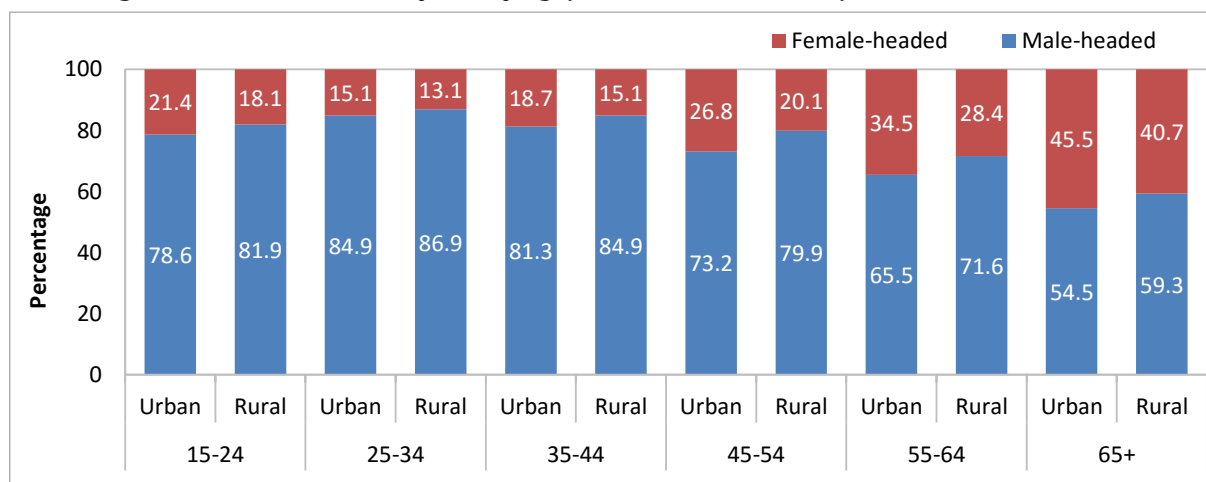
Figure 6.3 shows that the increase in the proportion of female heads with age is more apparent in urban than rural areas, reflecting the greater levels of widowhood in urban areas.

The pattern of considerably fewer female-headed than male-headed households persists in all States/Regions, although Table 6.2 shows that the gender ratio varies across the country. Tanintharyi and Mon recorded the highest proportions of households headed by women, 28.9 per cent and 28.5 per cent respectively, with the highest concomitant gender ratios of over 0.4. The lowest proportions of households that were female-headed were recorded in Ayeyawady (19.3 per cent), Shan (21.4 per cent) and Nay Pyi Taw (21.8 per cent).

Chapter 6. Gender dimensions of households and housing

Figure 6.3

Percentage of household heads by sex by age, urban and rural areas, 2014 Census



Source: Department of Population (2017f).

Table 6.2

Number and percentage of households by sex of head and gender ratio, State/Region, 2014

Census

State/ Region	All households	Male-headed households	Female-headed households	Percentage male-headed	Percentage female-headed	Gender ratio* (F/M)
UNION	10,877,832	8,296,535	2,581,297	76.3	23.7	0.31
Kachin	269,365	195,808	73,557	72.7	27.3	0.38
Kayah	57,274	44,294	12,980	77.3	22.7	0.29
Kayin	308,041	228,868	79,173	74.3	25.7	0.34
Chin	91,121	70,291	20,830	77.1	22.9	0.30
Sagaing	1,096,857	824,766	272,091	75.2	24.8	0.33
Tanintharyi	283,099	201,259	81,840	71.1	28.9	0.41
Bago	1,142,974	877,377	265,597	76.8	23.2	0.30
Magway	919,777	692,168	227,609	75.3	24.7	0.33
Mandalay	1,323,191	981,281	341,910	74.2	25.8	0.35
Mon	422,612	302,302	120,310	71.5	28.5	0.40
Rakhine	459,772	352,953	106,819	76.8	23.2	0.30
Yangon	1,582,944	1,199,003	383,941	75.7	24.3	0.32
Shan	1,169,569	919,047	250,522	78.6	21.4	0.27
Ayeyawady	1,488,983	1,201,958	287,025	80.7	19.3	0.24
Nay Pyi Taw	262,253	205,160	57,093	78.2	21.8	0.28

* Percentage female / Percentage male.

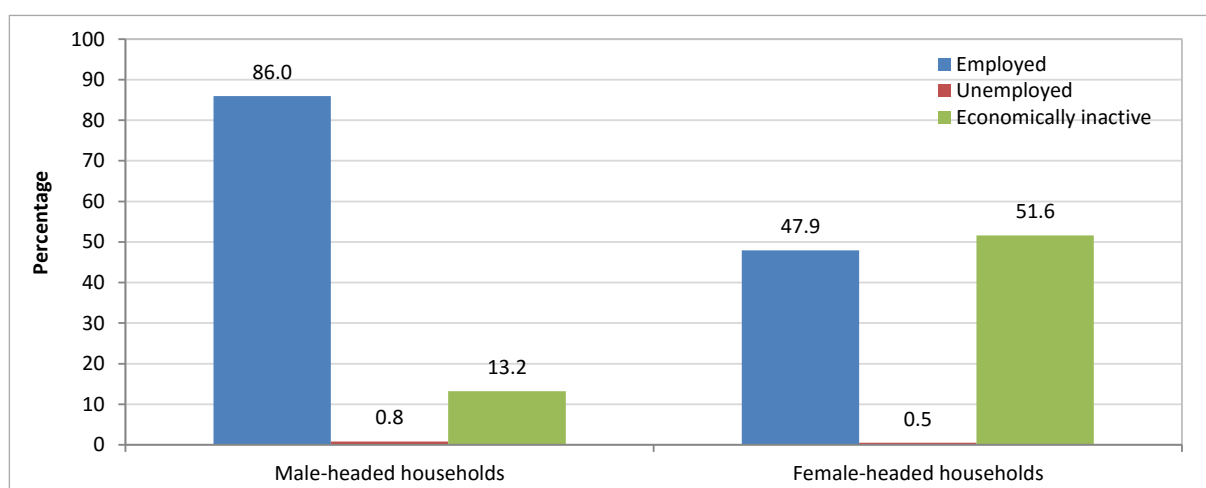
Chapter 6. Gender dimensions of households and housing

6.2.2 Economic activity status of household heads

The economic activity status of household heads is a determinant of access to resources as well as active participation in the labour force. The Census revealed that a considerable proportion of female heads were economically inactive. Figure 6.4 shows that 86.0 per cent of male household heads were employed, in comparison to only 47.9 per cent of female heads. More than half of female heads were inactive. This supports the findings on employment, that unemployment rates are consistently higher for women than men, emphasizing the gender inequality in access to economic resources.

Figure 6.4

Percentage of household heads by economic activity status, 2014 Census



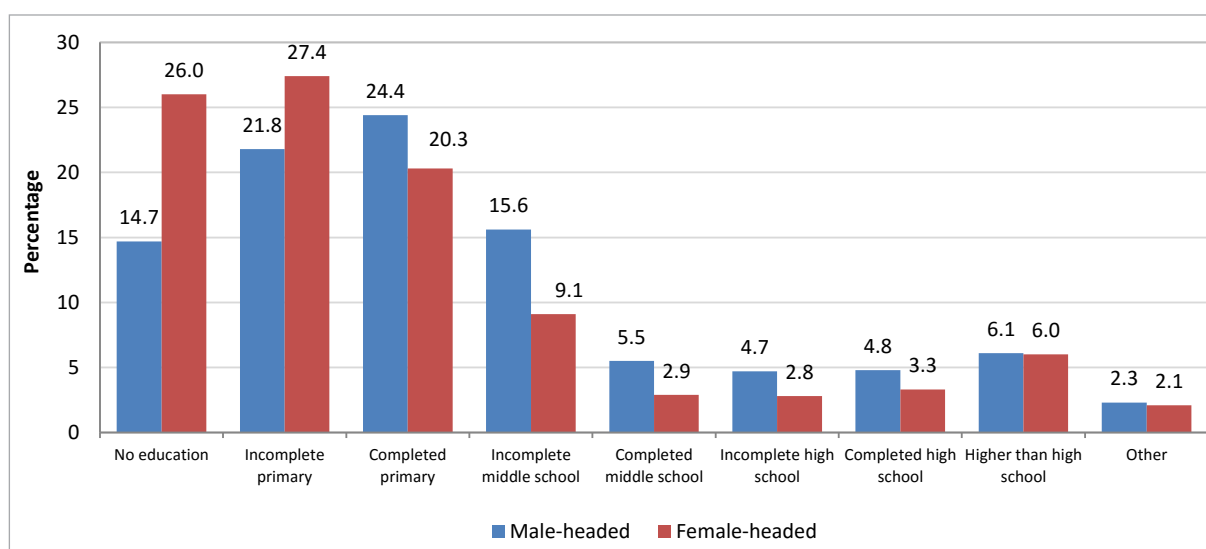
6.2.3 Education attainment of household heads

A key finding from the Census results is that more female heads than male heads of households had not completed any level of education. Education attainment is important in a population as it helps people to acquire the ability to participate in the country's economy as well as in society (Bilenski *et al*, 2013). Figure 6.5 shows that larger proportions of female heads than male heads reported that they had either not completed any level of education (26.0 per cent of females, 14.7 per cent of males) or had not completed primary school (27.4 per cent of females, 21.8 per cent of males). This situation is comparable to findings from recent censuses in some other less developed countries, for example, the proportion of household heads with no education was found to be two times higher among females than males in Rwanda (National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda, 2014), while in Cambodia, the results of the 2008 Census indicated that 43.4 per cent of female heads compared to 19.5 per cent of male heads had either no education or did not state their educational attainment level⁴.

⁴ According to a report on Socioeconomic Characteristics of Normal Household Heads. <http://www.stat.go.jp/info/meetings/cambodia/pdf/rp11ch32.pdf>

Figure 6.5

Percentage of household heads by highest level of educational attainment by sex, 2014 Census

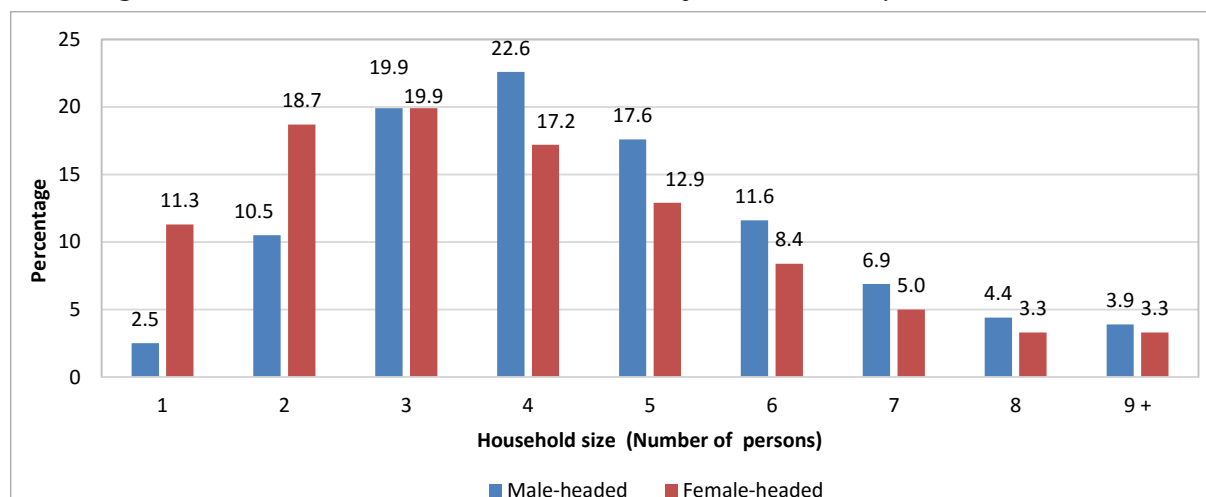


6.3 Household size

Female-headed households are likely to be smaller on average than male-headed households. Figure 6.6 shows that 11.3 per cent of female-headed households comprise only the female head compared to just 2.5 per cent of lone male-headed households. The respective proportions were 18.7 per cent and 10.5 per cent for two-person households. But the proportions of female-headed households with more than three persons were smaller than those of male-headed households, for all larger household sizes. This reflects the fact that at older ages, among the age groups at which the proportion of female heads increase, households are likely to be smaller as family members, particularly males, start to move into their own households.

Figure 6.6

Percentages of male- and female-headed households by household size, 2014 Census



6.4 Tenure and access to household assets

6.4.1 Tenure and headship

Households occupy the dwelling units in which they live under various arrangements. While some households occupy units owned by the household head or other members of the household, others are rented under different arrangements. Tenure refers to “the arrangements under which the household occupies all or part of a housing unit” (United Nations Statistics Division, 2015).

Home ownership is believed to be a measure of a person’s economic status, but in Myanmar home ownership is not such a discriminating variable as most households in Myanmar own the housing units they occupy. Table 6.3 shows that 85.5 per cent of all households do so, compared to the 7.4 per cent that rent.

Table 6.3

Number and percentage of male- and female-headed households by tenure status of housing units, 2014 Census

Tenure status	All households		Male-headed households		Female-headed households	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Owner	9,302,840	85.5	7,048,724	85.0	2,254,116	87.3
Renter	805,491	7.4	627,074	7.6	17,8417	6.9
Provided free (individually)	272,557	2.5	210,888	2.5	61,669	2.4
Government quarters	354,155	3.3	289,641	3.5	64,514	2.5
Private company quarters	77,234	0.7	66,843	0.8	10,391	0.4
Other	65,555	0.6	53,365	0.6	12,190	0.5
Total	10,877,832	100	8,296,535	100	2,581,297	100

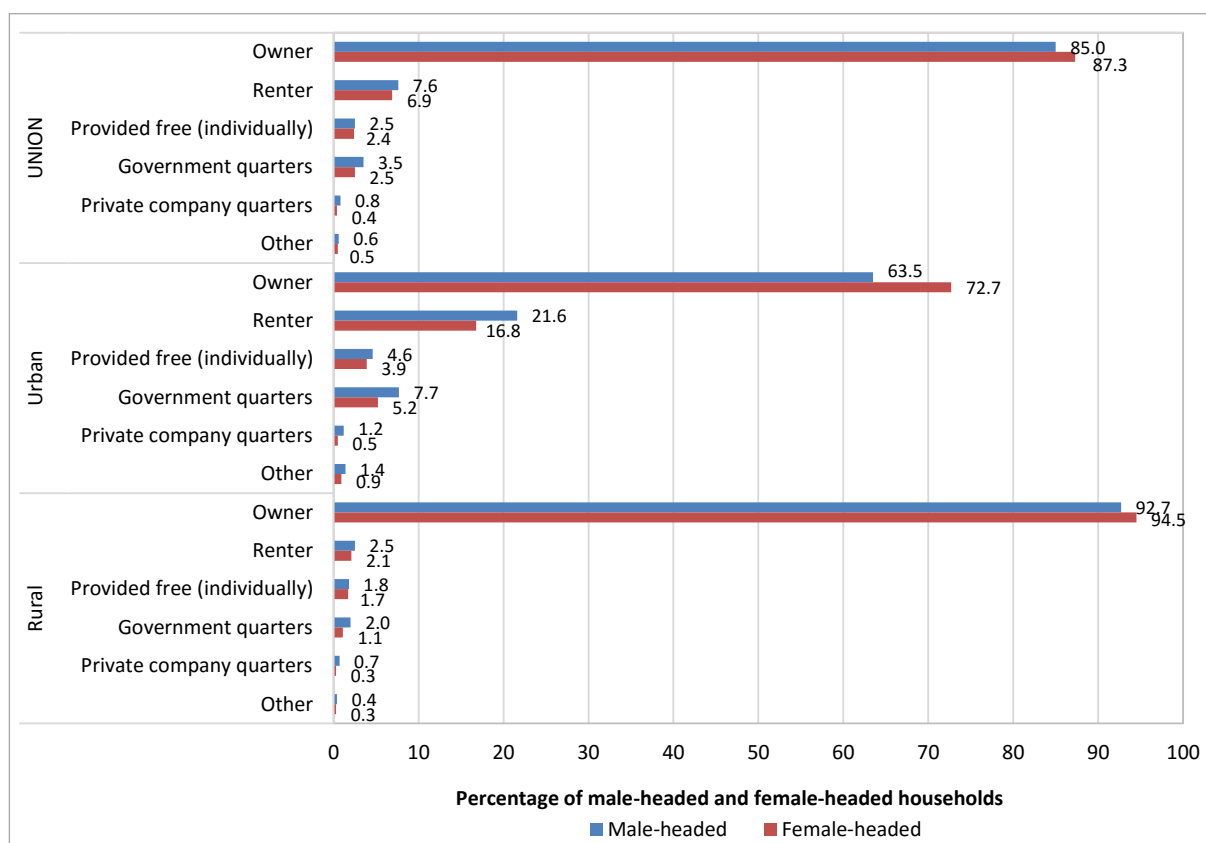
The proportion of female-headed households that occupy owned housing units (87.3 per cent) was slightly higher than that of male-headed households (85.0 per cent). Each of the other categories of tenure status constituted less than 10 per cent of households, whether male- or female-headed.

The pattern of high levels of home ownership persists in rural as well as urban areas, with a higher proportion of female-headed than male-headed households occupying owned units (Figure 6.7). The somewhat greater prevalence of home ownership in rural areas is to be expected since, worldwide, much of the rural population in developing countries live in dwellings they have constructed themselves. Interestingly, though, out of the total of rural female-headed households, the proportion who reported that they owned their housing units was still slightly higher (94.5 per cent) than the proportion of male-headed households (92.7 per cent) (Table 6.4). This can be explained again by the higher numbers of women relative to men in Myanmar, resulting from the higher life expectancy of women compared to men, and by the outmigration of men in search of employment opportunities.

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Figure 6.7

Percentage of male- and female-headed households by tenure status of housing units, urban and rural areas, 2014 Census



Source: Department of Population (2017f).

Table 6.4

Percentage of male- and female-headed households, and gender gap, by tenure, 2014 Census

Tenure status	UNION			Urban			Rural		
	Male-headed	Female-headed	Gender gap*	Male-headed	Female-headed	Gender gap*	Male-headed	Female-headed	Gender gap*
Owner	85.0	87.3	2.3	63.5	72.7	9.2	92.7	94.5	1.7
Renter	7.6	6.9	-0.7	21.6	16.8	-4.8	2.5	2.1	-0.4
Provided free (individually)	2.5	2.4	-0.1	4.6	3.9	-0.7	1.8	1.7	-1.2
Government quarters	3.5	2.5	-1.0	7.7	5.2	-2.5	2.0	1.1	-0.8
Private company quarters	0.8	0.4	-0.4	1.2	0.5	-0.7	0.7	0.3	-0.3
Other	0.6	0.5	-0.1	1.4	0.9	-0.5	0.4	0.3	-0.1
Total	100	100		100	100		100	100	

* Percentage female - Percentage male.

However, the gender gap in ownership (difference in percentage points between the proportion of female-headed households and male-headed households owning their dwellings) shown in Table 6.4 is higher in urban areas (9.2), suggesting an even higher proportion of female-

Chapter 6. Gender dimensions of households and housing

headed households occupying dwellings they own. While reasons behind this phenomenon are not entirely clear, it can be partially accounted for by the higher proportion of male-headed households that are renters of dwellings in urban areas (21.6 per cent) compared to female-headed households (16.8 per cent). Since women tend to have lower access to labour markets than men (Klassen *et al*, 2011), it is postulated here that with differential access, for instance to waged employment, for women, men may be better positioned than women to pay rent for dwellings in urban areas. Although similarly higher, the proportions and gender gaps for rural renters are insignificantly small.

6.4.2 Access to household assets

A comparison of female-headed households and male-headed households in terms of access to assets may point to differences in their general wealth status. Although research over the years has indicated that female-headed households tend to be poorer than male-headed households, findings from some studies in ASEAN countries have led to an opposite conclusion (Klassen *et al*, 2011). In this report, household assets, for which information was collected in the 2014 Census, are classified by their function, and hence their potential value to household members. Two broad categories are considered:

- (1) Electronic communication/ICT assets: these are essential assets as they allow members of the household not only to keep abreast of current affairs and to communicate easily but also to access information regarding new emerging technologies, economic opportunities, health care and education opportunities. ICT has been cited as a “powerful tool in the fight against world poverty, providing developing countries with an unprecedented opportunity to meet vital development goals, such as poverty reduction, basic health, and education” (Ekaputri, 2011). Growth of ICT is now considered as a key enabler in achieving the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (The Earth Institute, 2015).
- (2) Mobility/transport and commercial assets: these are essential to enable members of the household to access markets, education institutions, and health care facilities and to enhance the economic activities of both men and women.

Responses from the 2014 Census indicated that the most prevalent electronic communication/ICT assets which households have access to are televisions, radios and mobile phones. As shown at Table 6.5, slightly over half of male-headed households (50.1 per cent) have access to a television but less than half of female-headed households (47.4 per cent) have such access. More male-headed households (37.1 per cent) compared with female-headed households (30.6 per cent) also have access to radios.

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Table 6.5

Percentage of male- and female-headed households by accessibility to household assets, 2014 Census

Household assets	Percentage of households that have access to named assets		Percentage of households that do not have access to named assets	
	Male-headed	Female-headed	Male-headed	Female-headed
Electronic Communication/ICT				
Radio	37.1	30.6	62.9	69.4
Television	50.1	47.4	49.9	52.6
Landline	4.8	5.0	95.2	95.0
Mobile phone	33.1	32.4	66.9	67.6
Computer	3.4	3.6	96.6	96.4
Internet	6.1	6.6	93.9	93.4
Mobility/transport and commercial assets				
Car/truck/van	3.3	2.6	96.7	97.4
Motorcycle/moped	40.8	31.8	59.2	68.2
Bicycle	37.1	32.1	62.9	67.9
Wheel/tractor	2.7	1.6	97.3	98.4
Canoe/boat	4.3	2.4	95.7	97.6
Cart/bullock	23.5	15.8	76.5	84.2

Mobile phones, as communication tools, are now becoming affordable to sectors of the population considered to be at the bottom of the development pyramid in less developed countries. Efforts towards near universal acquisition of mobile phones has been suggested as one way that developing countries could achieve financial inclusion, especially for large numbers of women that, due to historically defined socio-cultural factors, are unable to access financial services. The 2014 Census has shown that in Myanmar the difference in the proportions of male- and female-headed households with access to a mobile phone is not that significant.

Landline phones, computers and the internet are the least accessed assets, probably because they are associated with professional businesses, employment use or the higher wealth status of households. Surprisingly, despite the generally low accessibility levels among households, slightly higher proportions of female-headed households than male-headed households reported having access to these three assets. This again could imply that contrary to common belief, female-headed households in Myanmar may not be so poor compared to male-headed households, as is also evidenced from some of the available literature (Asian Development Bank *et al*, 2016).

However, larger proportions of male- than female-headed households reported having access to each of the six categories of mobility/transport and commercial assets. The three most prevalent mobility/transport and commercial assets were ranked as follows: motorcycle/moped, bicycle and cart/bullock. More than two-fifths of male-headed households (40.8 per cent) had access to a motorcycle/moped compared to less than a third (31.8 per cent) of female-headed households. This pattern is similar for other transport assets, although the gender differences between proportions vary according to the type of transport asset. The finding underscores the existence of a gendered division of labour and cultural biases against accessibility of assets that have, for a long time, been considered the preserve of men.

6.5 Quality of housing and access to housing amenities

6.5.1 Introduction

The quality and condition of housing, and the nature of household amenities, are, in addition to home ownership and access to household assets, all important indicators of the socioeconomic status of a household, and, by extension, the social and economic development of the population as a whole. Characteristics of households and housing in terms of facilities and amenities such as sources of drinking water and type of sanitation also have a bearing on health indicators such as infant and child mortality, and, consequently, life expectancy.

Households are sometimes described as ‘poor’ due to the quality of housing construction materials as well as the lack, or poor quality of basic amenities such as water and toilet facilities. Available empirical evidence is mixed as to whether or not female-headed households are poorer and/or less endowed in terms of amenities than male-headed households. This subsection is a presentation of findings from the 2014 Myanmar Census on the differences in the quality of housing and access to amenities between households headed by men and women.

6.5.2 Type of housing materials

In analyzing the differences between male- and female-headed households in regard to assessing the quality of housing, this report adopts a classification of durability of roofing and wall materials employed in the 2014 Census thematic report on Housing Conditions and Household Amenities (Department of Population, 2017f) as shown in Table 6.6.

Table 6.6

Classification of durability of roof and wall materials used in the 2014 Census

	Permanent housing material	Semi-permanent housing material	Temporary housing material
Roof	Tile/Concrete/Brick/Corrugated iron sheet	Wood/Bamboo	Dhani/Theke/In Leaf
Wall	Tile/Concrete/Brick/Wood	Bamboo/Corrugated iron sheet/Earth	Dhani/Theke/In Leaf

Type of roofing

At the Union level, almost 64 per cent of households lived in houses with roofing built from permanent materials. The remaining households resided in houses where roofing materials were either semi-permanent materials (2.4 per cent); temporary materials (32.9 per cent); or other (non-classified) materials (1.1 per cent). A slightly higher proportion of female-headed households (66.5 per cent) compared to male-headed households (62.7 per cent) had roofs constructed from permanent materials, while, conversely, a slightly higher proportion of male-headed households (33.8 per cent) compared to female-headed households (29.9 per cent) lived in houses built from temporary materials (Figure 6.8a).

Type of wall

Over half of Myanmar’s households (51.9 per cent) lived in housing units where the walls were semi-permanent, with virtually no variation between the proportions of male- and female-headed households. Indeed, as with roofing construction materials, Figure 6.8b shows that

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the proportions of households with different wall durability vary very little by gender of headship. However, the proportion of female-headed households living in houses whose walls were constructed using temporary materials was a little lower (7.3 per cent), than the corresponding proportion among male-headed households (10.1 per cent).

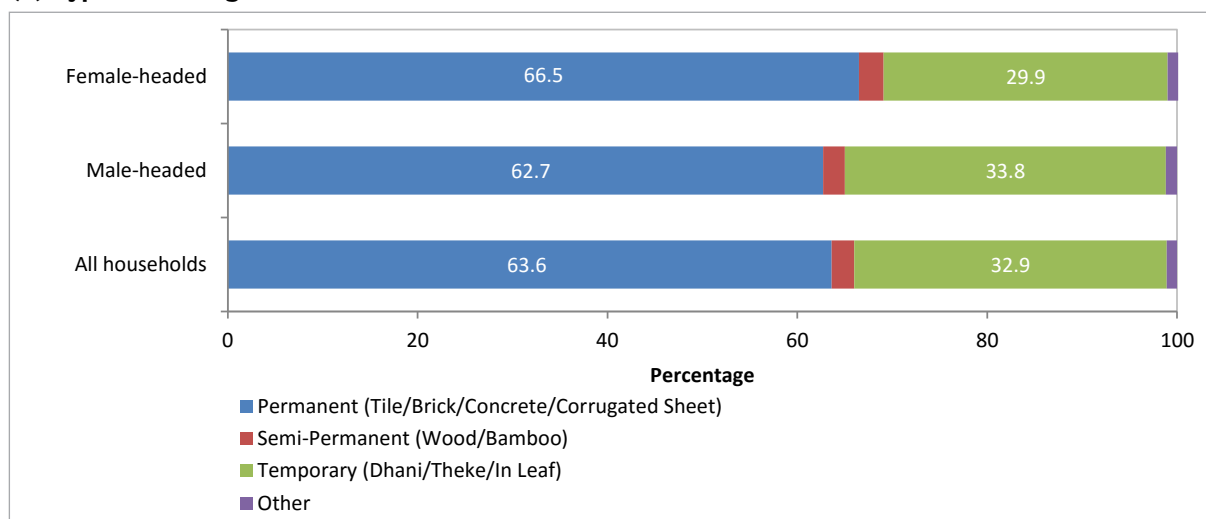
Type of floor

Just about half of Myanmar's households lived in housing units with wooden floors, with a slight difference between male- and female-headed households (Figure 6.8c). More female-headed households occupied houses with floors made from more permanent materials (wood/tile/brick/concrete) (68.2 per cent) compared to male-headed households (65.4 per cent), and fewer lived in houses with floors made from bamboo (22.5 per cent compared with 25.9 per cent).

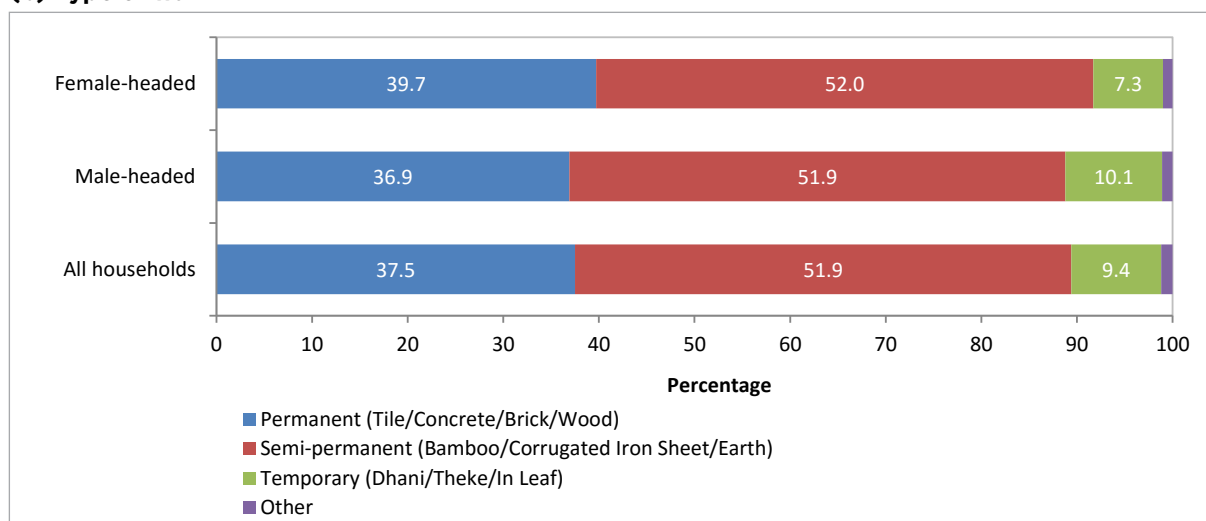
Figure 6.8

Percentage of households by durability of building materials of housing units by sex of head of household, 2014 Census

(a) Type of roofing

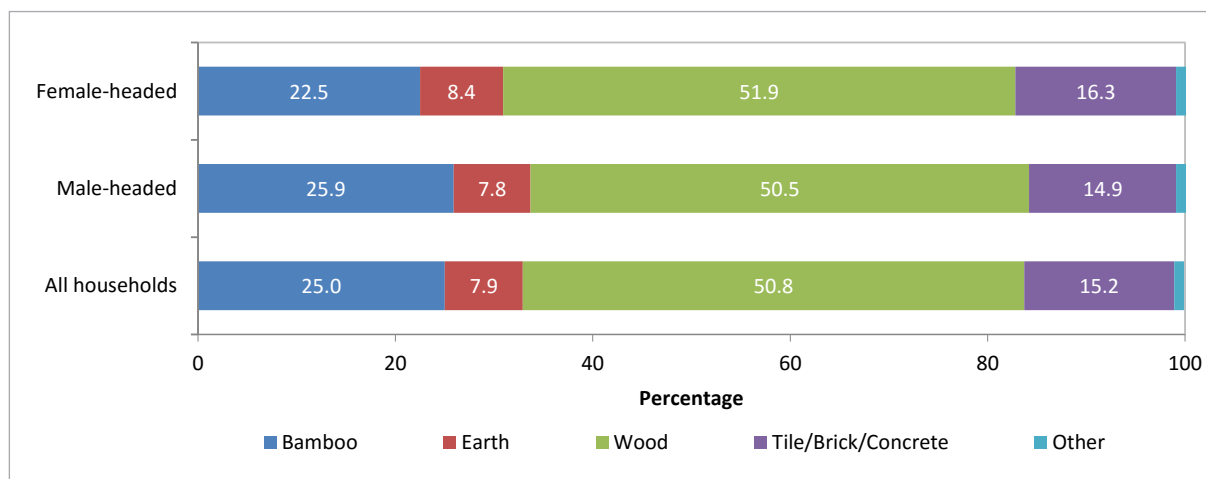


(b) Type of wall



Chapter 6. Gender dimensions of households and housing

(c) Type of floor



The apparent gender differences in headship using these measures of housing quality may, however, merely reflect differences in the type of construction materials used more generally for houses in urban and rural areas.

6.5.3 Access to housing amenities

Major energy sources for households

A population's access to sustainable energy is fundamental in ensuring a balance between economic development and tackling the impact of climate change. SDG 7 seeks to: "Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all" (United Nations, 2015). Some of the energy sources used in households may be harmful to health, for example fossil fuels (such as kerosene and coal), as well as some of the biomass fuels (charcoal and fuel wood), hence any country's priority should include promoting the use of clean sustainable energy sources. Most of the energy sources considered to be sustainable are renewable with proper management of the environment and include hydro-electric, wind, solar, wave and biomass gas. The 2014 Myanmar Census questionnaire included two questions on the main source of energy/fuel used by households for the purposes of lighting and cooking.

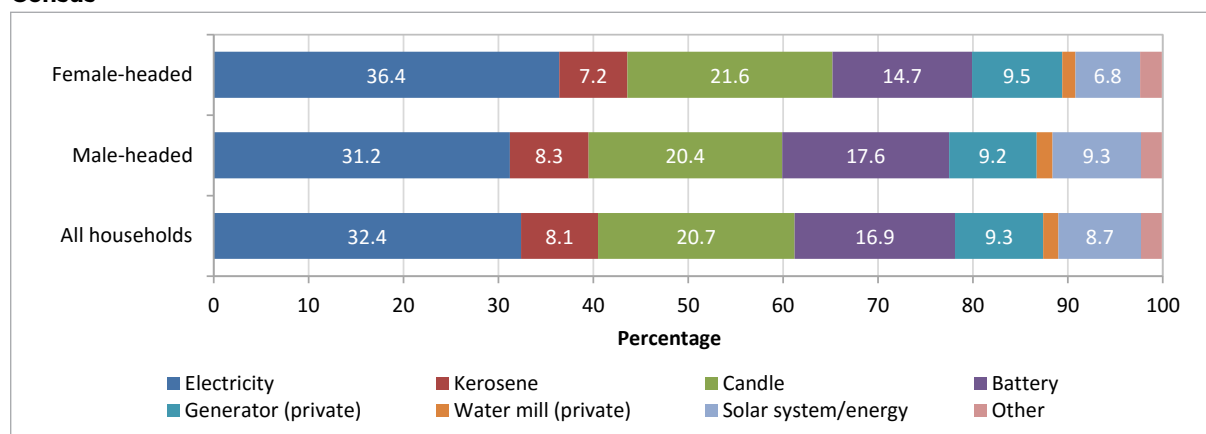
Lighting

The global trend is to encourage the use of renewable sources of energy to prevent global warming and reverse the effects of climate change; Myanmar has made some progress in this direction. Though the Census reported that the proportion of households that use electricity (which is mainly from hydro power and renewable) was less than a third (32.4 per cent), it was the most singular common source of lighting for households in Myanmar (Figure 6.9).

Figure 6.9

Percentage of households by source of energy for lighting by sex of head of household, 2014

Census



This reflects the efforts in the development of the energy sector, where the focus has largely been on hydro-electric power investments (Asian Development Bank, 2015). A slightly higher proportion of female-headed households (36.4 per cent) than male-headed households (31.2 per cent) reported using electricity for lighting. Solar energy, another form of renewable energy, is not yet used by many households because the country's potential remains untapped; a status attributable to high costs and mountainous terrain (Asian Development Bank, 2015). Consequently, less than 10 per cent of households reported using this as a source of lighting, with no significant difference in proportions between male- and female-headed households.

Cooking fuel

Despite the relatively popular use of electricity for lighting, most households (69.2 per cent) reported using firewood for cooking - a situation that, if continued, is likely to adversely affect forest cover in Myanmar. Table 6.7 shows slightly higher proportions of male-headed households (70.3 per cent) using firewood compared to female-headed households (65.8 per cent), but, again, this apparent gender difference may reflect the far greater proportion of rural households that use traditional unsustainable fuels for cooking (92.3 per cent) compared to urban households (52.2 per cent) (Department of Population, 2017f).

A slightly higher proportion of female-headed households (18.4 per cent) reported using electricity for cooking compared to male-headed households (15.7 per cent). This might at first suggest that households headed by women are more inclined to use cleaner sources of cooking fuel than male-headed households. But again, this result reflects more the greater prevalence of the use of modern sustainable energy sources for cooking in urban areas (46.1 per cent) than in rural areas (just 5.8 per cent) (Department of Population, 2017f). However, whatever the reason for this apparent 'gender' difference, the large proportion of both male- and female-headed households using firewood as a source of cooking fuel is a matter of concern from both a health and environmental point of view.

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Table 6.7

Percentage of households by type of fuel used for cooking by sex of head of household, 2014

Census

	All households	Male-headed households	Female-headed households
Electricity	16.4	15.7	18.4
LPG	0.4	0.4	0.5
Kerosene	0.2	0.2	0.2
Biogas	0.4	0.4	0.3
Firewood	69.2	70.3	65.8
Charcoal	11.8	11.3	13.4
Coal	0.3	0.3	0.3
Straw/Grass	0.0	0.0	0.0
Other	1.3	1.4	1.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Sources of drinking water and sanitation facilities

Under the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, SDG 6 seeks to: “Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all” (United Nations, 2015). Table 6.8 shows the sources of water on which information was collected in the 2014 Census, classified into improved and unimproved sources, based closely – but not exactly – on internationally agreed guidelines (WHO/UNICEF, 2016). The table also similarly classifies the type of toilet used.

Table 6.8

Classification of sources of drinking water and sanitation used in the 2014 Census

Improved sources of drinking water	Unimproved sources
Tap water/Piped	Unprotected Well/Spring
Tube well/Borehole	Pool/Pond/Lake
Protected Well/Spring	River/Stream/Canal
Bottled Water/Purified (referred to as water from vending machine)	Waterfall/Rainwater
	Tanker/Truck
Improved sanitation	Unimproved sanitation
Flush toilet	Traditional pit latrine
Water seal (improved latrine)	Bucket (surface latrine)
	Other
	No toilet

Figure 6.10 shows that 69.5 per cent of all households reported having access to improved sources of drinking water, and that 74.3 per cent had access to improved sanitation. Though the difference in proportions is small, female-headed households were more likely to have access to improved water sources (72.8 per cent) than male-headed households (68.4 per cent).

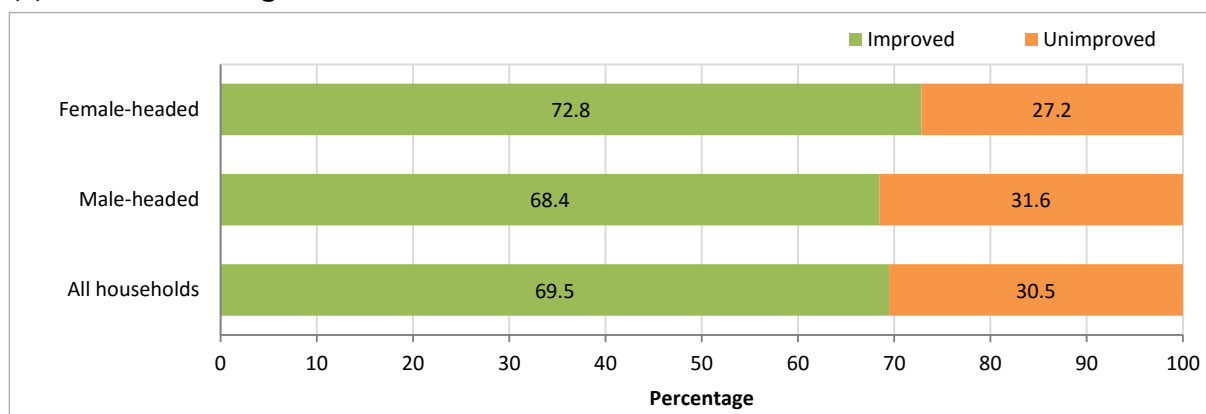
Access to improved sanitation was also higher among female-headed households (76.5 per cent) than male-headed households (73.6 per cent).

Figure 6.10

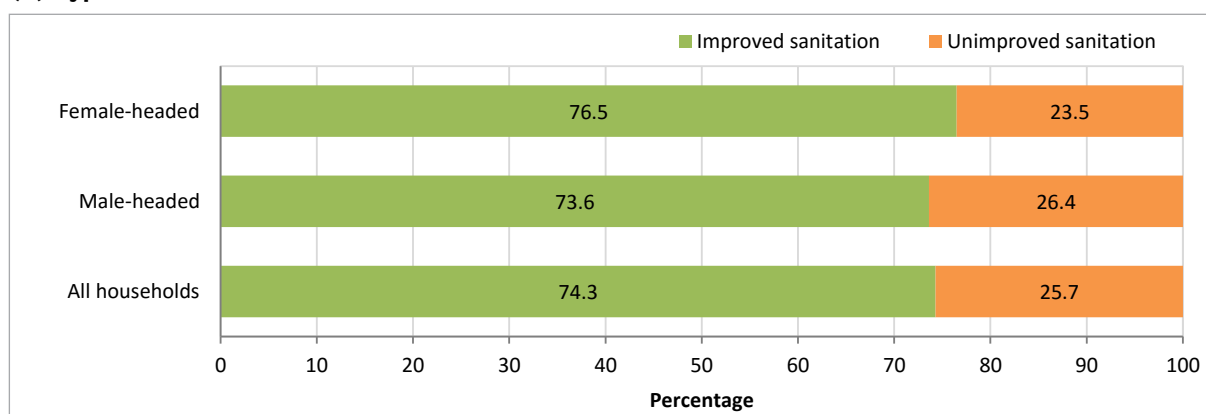
Percentage of households by access to housing amenities by sex of head of household, 2014

Census

(a) Source of drinking water



(b) Type of toilet facilities



As a general conclusion, findings from the 2014 Census show no evidence of households headed by women being relatively poorer in terms of lower economic status as determined here by their access to household assets and access to housing amenities compared to households headed by men. It is likely that the apparent, though slight, gender differences observed based on the household characteristics analysed in this section result more from the diverse characteristics of the living conditions of urban and rural households rather than from the sex of the household head. More detailed analyses would need to be undertaken to determine if there are any underlying gender differences.

Chapter 7. Summary and recommendations

Based on the 2014 Myanmar Population and Housing Census, the findings contained in this report confirm the presence of gender inequality and the disadvantages that women face in Myanmar in regard to many of the socioeconomic topics analysed. Against this backdrop, this section provides a summary, including some suggested recommendations, based on each of the thematic areas covered in this report.

7.1 Demographic overview

Myanmar's demographic overview from a gender viewpoint may appear typical of many developing countries, but a few features stand out.

The sex ratios indicate that Myanmar's population has more females than males, with some States/Regions (such as Magway) recording significantly fewer men than other parts of the country. There are more males than females below the age of 15 years (103 males for every 100 females). However, there are more females than males aged 15 years and over. The sex ratios are significantly low (more females than males) among the population aged 60 years and over.

Even in the most economically productive ages (15-64 years), females outnumber males. Despite this, the labour force participation of women is considerably lower than that of men. Given the higher proportion of women relative to men, their economic empowerment and the enhancement of their status (in terms of expansion of education and economic opportunities) is paramount in improving the living standards of the female population of Myanmar. There is a need to ensure that policies and programmes reflect their needs as well as those of their male counterparts in equal measure, thus making gender equality an integral part of such policies and programmes.

The relatively higher life expectancy of women appears to have a ripple effect on other demographics, for example, the increase in the proportions of widowed women at older ages. Conversely, the proportions of married women also decline appreciably with age. Although globally, women live longer than men, there is a particular need to carry out further research on the underlying factors associated with the lower life expectancy of males in Myanmar.

Early marriage in adolescence and adolescent fertility, despite the health implications (particularly for women) is a reality in Myanmar. This should be of concern to the country in terms of reproductive health policy interventions. The provision of gender and sex education in schools and community programmes could change societal attitudes towards the education of girls and the need to encourage them to pursue their career aspirations.

Though in most cases internal migration is dominated by men, net migration rates of women are higher in some states (Chin, Mandalay, Mon, Rakhine, Yangon and Ayeyawady) signalling that women are increasingly becoming mobile across the country. International migration, especially outmigration is mainly (but not always) dominated by men, which further accentuates the low sex ratios observed in some parts of the country.

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7.2 Gender dimensions in education

Despite women's dominance in Myanmar's population, as in many developing countries, they are no better off than men socio-economically. They are more likely to be illiterate than their male counterparts, with differences in adult literacy rates (for those aged 15 and above) more pronounced in rural areas. Some States/Regions have particularly wide gender gaps in literacy (Chin has the widest), while in others (such as Yangon) the gaps are much narrower. Alternative literacy programmes (outside the formal education system) would greatly benefit adults, who may have had limited access to schooling, and consequently contribute to an increase in literacy levels across the country. There is also a need to formulate particular policies and strategies or to scale-up existing ones that promote alternative, flexible and affordable education programmes to reduce illiteracy levels among women.

Gender parity in school attendance rates has yet to be achieved in Myanmar, though attendance rates at the aggregate level are promising. Some States/Regions have already achieved parity or, at least, higher attendance for girls/women among the population aged 5-29, but other States/Regions recorded a low gender parity index (GPI).

Gender inequality is apparent in terms of education attainment in Myanmar. Women are more likely than men not to have attained any level of education, placing them in a disadvantaged position in terms of access to social and economic resources that would enable them to advance themselves. In the attainment of a basic level of education (completed primary school), females seem to be on a par with males, a crucial step towards the Myanmar Government's achievement of globally agreed targets. However, at secondary level education, the proportions of males are higher than those of females, with gender gaps varying by State/Region. Women nevertheless dominate in attainment at the graduate and postgraduate levels, and this necessitates further research into the factors leading to such a phenomenon.

Based on the observations above, there is need for a sector-wide approach to develop policies and programmes that address gender inequalities related to education. More importantly, civic education programmes could help communities challenge gender norms and values that discourage girls from pursuing their educational aspirations; discourage gender stereotyping; encourage equal opportunities of access to education for girls and boys; and encourage more males to pursue higher levels of education above secondary school.

7.3 Gender dimensions in the labour force

The composition of the part of the country's population that is most active in the labour force (those aged 15-64) is tilted towards women (they comprise over half of this group). However, more men are likely to be employed than women. Hence, the segment of the female population that forms the bulk of the available labour force is under-utilized productively. A larger proportion of women compared to men in the 15-64 age group are, however, illiterate, and make up 79 per cent of the economically inactive in this age group. Unsurprisingly, the main reason for women's inactivity is that the majority are engaged in housework, in contrast

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to men where the majority who are inactive are full-time students. This is a reflection of the cultural influences of gender roles and women's life aspirations.

Labour force participation rates are also lower for women compared to men in Myanmar, with gender disparities varying at the State/Region level across the country. Unemployment rates are higher for women than men in most States/Regions, and where they are employed, women are working as professionals and in services and sales jobs.

A large proportion of both boys and girls aged 10-17 are working rather than pursuing their education, though some are still attending school as they work, implying that their working status is necessitated by poverty. Most of the working children are absorbed by the agriculture, forestry and fisheries sector. Intervention programmes that promote the retention of girls in school are necessary to discourage early child marriage as well as reducing the extent of child labour.

Based on the findings above, there is a need to scale-up strategies and programmes related to the advancement of women in Myanmar, in addition to those being implemented under the National Strategic Plan for the Advancement of Women 2013-2022; increase efforts to achieve gender equity in access to employment opportunities; and to introduce programmes at workplaces to ensure that childrearing does not adversely affect women's access to waged employment.

Through collaborative efforts between development partners, government and the business community, programmes promoting entrepreneurship and the provision of microcredit to women could create employment and improve the participation of women in economic development.

7.4 Gender dimensions of disability

It is evident from the 2014 Census that women are more likely to be living with a disability than men. In addition women live longer than men, and increasing age is closely associated with the increased likelihood of disability. Though gender differences in the prevalence of disabilities by age are small under the age of 60, incidence varies at the State/Region level across the country, with the highest female disability incidence reported in Ayeyawady, Tanintharyi and Chin.

Women living with a disability are more likely to be illiterate than men living with a disability. For young children living with various forms of disability, the ratios of girls to boys attending school are below 1, implying inequality to the disadvantage of girls. Labour force participation rates for those living with various forms of disability are also higher for men than for women.

More research is necessary to document the challenges faced by persons with disabilities in regard to access to services and resources, especially in access to education and employment opportunities. While programmes at the government level exist in relation to the welfare of persons with disabilities, collaborative efforts could be scaled-up to ensure their full integration and inclusion in society. Of particular importance is the need for female-specific programmes for the older age group given the longer life expectancy of women in Myanmar.

7.5 Gender dimensions of households and housing amenities

Slightly less than one quarter (24 per cent) of households in Myanmar are headed by women. This proportion is higher in urban areas (28 per cent of households) than in rural areas (22 per cent of households).

The proportion of female household heads increases with advancing age, an inevitable result of the longer life expectancy of women. Consequently, while most male household heads are married, half of female heads are widowed.

A higher proportion of female heads of household compared to male heads have not attained any level of education or not completed primary school. While over half of female heads are economically inactive, only 13 per cent of male heads are, yet a higher proportion of female-headed households than male-headed households live in owner-occupied premises as opposed to rented premises.

Higher proportions of female-headed households than male-headed households live in dwelling units/houses constructed using permanent materials; have access to improved sources of water and improved sanitation; and are likely to use safer renewable sources of energy (such as electricity) for cooking and lighting. It is tempting to conclude from this that female-headed households in Myanmar are not necessarily economically worse off than male-headed households contrary to the common notion in literature. But the report notes that these differentials may result more from the differences in the characteristics of urban and rural dwellings.

It is recommended that further research is conducted to analyse household dynamics in Myanmar, to uncover the underlying factors behind the socioeconomic status of female-headed households vis-à-vis that of male-headed households. Also, further sector-specific research is necessary to provide more information on areas requiring immediate and long-term policy and programmatic interventions. A number of existing programmes and strategies by government and other organizations could be scaled-up in an effort to promote greater contribution and participation by women in the current social, political and economic development changes taking place in Myanmar. Gender mainstreaming in various government sectors may also reinforce efforts already in place to elevate the status of women.

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Age-specific fertility rate (ASFR): the number of births to women in a specific age group during a specified time period divided by the number of women in the same age group during that period.

Average household size: the average number of persons enumerated per conventional household in any geographical area.

Child labour: the ILO in its Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labour (SIMPOC) proposes the following criteria linked to age, duration of work and labour conditions:

- A child under 12 who is economically active for one or more hours per week.
- A child 14 and under who is economically active for at least 14 hours per week.
- A child 17 and under who is economically active for at least 43 hours per week.
- A child 17 and under who participates in activities that are “hazardous by nature or circumstance” for one or more hours per week.
- A child 17 and under who participates in an “unconditional worst form of child labour” such as trafficked children, children in bondage or forced labour, armed conflict, prostitution, pornography, and illicit activities.

Child mortality rate: the probability of a child born in a specific year or period dying between the age of 1 year and before reaching the age of 5 years, if subject to age-specific mortality rates of that period. It is expressed as the number of children that die between age 1 and 4 divided by the number of children alive at age 1 multiplied by 1,000.

Conventional household: one or more persons who are either related or unrelated and share living quarters (single quarter or compound) and meals. The household members would usually eat food prepared from the same cooking pot. In most cases, there would be one person acknowledged by the household members as the head of the household.

De facto census: enumerates persons at the place where they spend the Census Night. The census enumeration could, alternatively, be carried out using a *de jure* approach where people are enumerated at their usual or legal place of residence. The 2014 Census in Myanmar was conducted based on the *de facto* approach.

Degree (or level) of disability: see Disability.

Disability: a condition where a person is at a greater risk than the general population of experiencing restrictions in performing routine activities (including activities of daily living) or participating in roles (such as work) if no supportive measures are offered. The types of difficulty (referred to in this report as ‘domains’) identified in the 2014 Census included:

- (a) Seeing difficulties
- (b) Hearing difficulties
- (c) Walking difficulties
- (d) Remembering/concentrating difficulties.

The degree (or level) of disability was determined by one of the four responses given in the

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Census in respect of each domain. The responses were:

- (a) No difficulty
- (b) Some difficulty (classified as a mild disability)
- (c) A lot of difficulty (classified as a moderate disability)
- (d) Cannot do at all (classified as a severe disability).

Domain: see Disability.

Economically active: refers to the status of those persons who are employed or unemployed at the Census date. The report sometimes refers to these persons simply as 'active', but they are also commonly referred to as the 'labour force'. See Labour Force.

Economic activity status: the relationship of a person to economic activity, based on a specified reference period. In the 2014 Census, the concept used is the 'usual' activity status based on the 12-month period prior to the Census. The status recorded referred to the activity carried out for the greater part (six months or more) of the 12-month period prior to the Census. Persons classified as economically active included those whose activity was recorded in the Census as:

- Employee (Government or private organization)
- Employer
- Own account worker
- Contributing family worker
- Sought work.

Persons classified as economically inactive included those whose activity was recorded in the Census as:

- Did not seek work
- Full-time student
- Household work
- Pensioner, retired, elderly person
- Ill, disabled
- Other.

Educational attainment: the highest grade/standard/diploma/degree completed at the most advanced level attended in the education system of the country where the education was received. It covered both public and private institutions accredited by government.

Elementary occupations: those occupations consisting of simple and routine tasks which mainly require the use of hand-held tools and often require some physical effort.

Emigrant (or outmigrant): a migrant who has moved out of an area.

Fertility: a measure of the average number of live births per woman, according to their age and marital status. In the 2014 Census all ever-married women aged 15 years and over were asked for information relating to all their live births.

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Gender: the social construct that refers to the roles and responsibilities of men and women within a given society or location.

Gender equality: the status by which males and females, regardless of age, enjoy the same rights, resources, opportunities and protections.

Gender equity: a measure of the degree to which men and women enjoy equal rights, opportunities and entitlements.

Gender gap: the size of disparity between males and females computed from actual population figures (absolute gap) or from percentages. The latter approach is more commonly employed than the former, whereby the male percentage is subtracted from the female percentage (F-M) and expressed in terms of percentage points. A negative value indicates inequality in favour of males, a positive value indicates inequality in favour of females for any particular indicator.

Gender Inequality Index (GII): a measure of gender-based inequality based on three dimensions: reproductive health, empowerment and economic activity. GII values range from 0 to 1, whereby a value closer to 0 implies high equality, and a value of 1 signifies extreme inequality. Myanmar's value was 0.413 in 2014.

Gender Parity Index (GPI): a measure used to calculate gender disparity particularly in relation to access to resources. It is calculated by dividing the percentage of females by any particular characteristic by the percentage of males. The closer the value to unity, the lower the magnitude of disparity and vice versa, with values greater than 1 implying disparity in favour of females.

Head of (conventional) household: is the household member who makes key decisions and is recognized as the head of household by others. The head of household may be male or female. The person is not necessarily mainly responsible for earning the livelihood for the household. In the 2014 Census, if the head of household was not present on Census Night, the next most responsible member was reported as the de facto head.

Household size: the number of people enumerated in a conventional household, present on Census Night. This is not necessarily the number of household members usually resident in the household.

Improved drinking water: is drinking water from a source that is defined as one that, by nature of its construction or through active intervention, is likely to be protected from outside contamination, in particular from contamination with faecal matter. The Census identified the following sources as 'Improved': Tap/Piped water; Tube well/Borehole; Protected Well/Spring; and Bottled/Purified water. All other sources of drinking water identified in the Census were classified as 'Unimproved'.

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Improved sanitation: is a toilet facility that hygienically separates human excreta from human contact. The Census identified the following toilet facilities as 'Improved': Flush; Water seal (improved latrine); and Pit latrine. All other types of toilet identified in the Census were classified as 'Unimproved'.

Infant mortality rate: the ratio of deaths of children under one year of age to the number of live births of the same year. This rate is generally expressed per thousand live births.

In-migrant (or immigrant): a migrant who has moved into an area.

Institutional population: is a unit where a group of people are living together other than in a conventional household. Examples include: old-people's homes; orphanages; hospitals; boarding schools; hotels; hostels and guest houses; institutions for persons with disabilities; prisons; monasteries; convents; military and police barracks; and camps for workers.

Internal migration: a move involving a change of usual residence between Townships.

International migration: a move involving a change of country of usual residence.

Labour force: a general term to mean those persons who were, collectively, 'Employed' or 'Unemployed' at the time of the 2014 Census. The report sometimes refers to such persons as 'Economically active'.

Labour force participation rate: is the ratio between the number of people in the labour force in a particular age group and the overall size of the total population in the same age group. This is an important indicator as it represents the proportion of the population that is economically active.

Life expectancy at birth: the average number of years that a newborn baby is expected to live if the mortality conditions of the year corresponding to the life table remain constant.

Lifetime migration: a migration that took place at any time since birth and prior to the Census. 'Lifetime migrants' are sometimes referred to as 'ever-migrants'.

Literacy: the ability to both read and write in any one language with reasonable understanding. A literate person is one who can read and write a short simple statement on everyday life in any one language. An illiterate person is one who cannot.

Literacy rate: the total number of literate persons in a given age group, expressed as a percentage of the total population in that age group.

Marital age-specific fertility rate: the number of births to women in a specific age group during a specified time period divided by the number of married women in the same age group during that period.

Glossary of terms and definitions

Marital status: is the status of the enumerated person in relation to the institution of marriage. The marital status in the 2014 Census was classified by: single/never married, married, widowed, divorced/separated and renounced.

Migration: defined, generally, as a move from one 'migration-defining area' to another (or a move of some specified minimum distance) that was made during a given migration interval and that involved a change of residence. A migrant is a person who has changed his/her usual place of residence from one migration-defining area to another (or who moved some specified minimum distance) at least once during the migration interval. In the context of the Myanmar Census the 'migration-defining area' was the Township.

Mild disability: see Disability.

Moderate disability: see Disability.

Outmigrant (or emigrant): is a migrant who has moved out of an area.

Rural area: an area classified by the Department of General Administration (GAD) as a village tract. Generally, such areas have a low population density and a land use which is predominantly agricultural.

Primary school age: children aged 5-9 years.

Recent migration: a migration at any time in the five-year period prior to the 2014 Census.

School attendance: attendance at any regular educational institution or systematic instruction at any level of education during the 12 months prior to the Census. This included schooling at pre-primary, primary, lower secondary/middle, upper secondary/high school, and tertiary institutions of higher learning. The options were: (a) Currently attending; (b) Attended previously; and (c) Never attended.

Secondary school age: children aged 10-15 years. Those aged 10-13 years are referred to as lower secondary; those aged 14-15 years as upper secondary. Lower secondary is sometimes referred to as Middle school. Upper secondary is sometimes referred to as High school.

Severe disability: see Disability.

Sex: the biological and physiological difference between men and women, and a natural distinction that is pre-determined at birth.

Sex ratio: the number of males for every 100 females in a population.

Singulate mean age at marriage (SMAM): the average length of never married life for those who subsequently marry before the age of 50. It is calculated from the proportions never married in five-year age groups.

Glossary of terms and definitions

Skilled agricultural work: skilled agricultural and fishery workers grow and harvest field or tree and shrub crops; gather wild fruits and plants; breed, tend or hunt animals; produce a variety of animal husbandry products; cultivate, conserve and exploit forests; breed or catch fish; and cultivate or gather other forms of aquatic life in order to provide food, shelter and income for themselves and their households.

Type of disability: see Disability.

Unemployed: those persons who had no work but were able to work and were actually seeking a job during the reference period, or at the time of the 2014 Census enumeration.

Unemployment rate: the percentage of the total labour force that was unemployed but actively seeking employment and willing to work. These are people who were without work, looking for jobs and available for work.

Urban area: an area classified by the General Administration Department (GAD) as a ward. Generally, such areas have an increased density of building structures, population and better infrastructural development.

Working-age population: persons aged 15-64 years.

Appendices

Appendix 1. List of Tables

Table A1

Population by sex by age, urban and rural areas, 2014 Census

Age/Area	Total population				
	Both sexes	Male (number)	Male (percentage)	Female (number)	Female (percentage)
UNION					
Total	50,279,900	24,228,714	48	26,051,186	52
0 - 4	4,472,130	2,262,783	51	2,209,347	49
5 - 9	4,819,077	2,438,372	51	2,380,705	49
10 - 14	5,108,362	2,595,749	51	2,512,613	49
15 - 19	4,625,989	2,290,998	50	2,334,991	50
20 - 24	4,331,069	2,091,525	48	2,239,544	52
25 - 29	4,146,134	1,995,465	48	2,150,669	52
30 - 34	3,898,861	1,884,549	48	2,014,312	52
35 - 39	3,563,480	1,705,630	48	1,857,850	52
40 - 44	3,283,073	1,548,942	47	1,734,131	53
45 - 49	2,946,148	1,375,041	47	1,571,107	53
50 - 54	2,559,232	1,182,341	46	1,376,891	54
55 - 59	2,051,937	935,979	46	1,115,958	54
60 - 64	1,576,845	712,040	45	864,805	55
65 - 69	1,064,493	466,618	44	597,875	56
70 - 74	713,170	301,679	42	411,491	58
75 - 79	553,298	228,315	41	324,983	59
80 - 84	335,576	130,875	39	204,701	61
85 - 89	158,069	56,979	36	101,090	64
90 +	72,957	24,834	34	48,123	66
Urban areas					
Total	14,877,943	7,114,224	48	7,763,719	52
0 - 4	1,081,128	549,584	51	531,544	49
5 - 9	1,146,876	583,310	51	563,566	49
10 - 14	1,355,792	703,305	52	652,487	48
15 - 19	1,467,120	740,956	51	726,164	49
20 - 24	1,460,572	711,405	49	749,167	51
25 - 29	1,320,591	638,841	48	681,750	52
30 - 34	1,229,010	595,549	48	633,461	52
35 - 39	1,092,916	518,880	47	574,036	53
40 - 44	1,025,669	474,286	46	551,383	54
45 - 49	918,610	414,377	45	504,233	55
50 - 54	783,327	346,474	44	436,853	56
55 - 59	631,743	275,176	44	356,567	56
60 - 64	477,041	206,172	43	270,869	57
65 - 69	333,747	140,316	42	193,431	58
70 - 74	212,747	87,697	41	125,050	59
75 - 79	165,732	65,960	40	99,772	60
80 - 84	99,573	36,945	37	62,628	63
85 - 89	51,127	17,118	33	34,009	67
90 +	24,622	7,873	32	16,749	68

Appendix 1. List of Tables

Table A1 (continued) Population by sex by age, urban and rural areas, 2014 Census

Age/Area	Total population				
	Both sexes	Male (number)	Male (percentage)	Female (number)	Female (percentage)
Rural areas					
Total	35,401,957	17,114,490	48	18,287,467	52
0 - 4	3,391,002	1,713,199	51	1,677,803	49
5 - 9	3,672,201	1,855,062	51	1,817,139	49
10 - 14	3,752,570	1,892,444	50	1,860,126	50
15 - 19	3,158,869	1,550,042	49	1,608,827	51
20 - 24	2,870,497	1,380,120	48	1,490,377	52
25 - 29	2,825,543	1,356,624	48	1,468,919	52
30 - 34	2,669,851	1,289,000	48	1,380,851	52
35 - 39	2,470,564	1,186,750	48	1,283,814	52
40 - 44	2,257,404	1,074,656	48	1,182,748	52
45 - 49	2,027,538	960,664	47	1,066,874	53
50 - 54	1,775,905	835,867	47	940,038	53
55 - 59	1,420,194	660,803	47	759,391	53
60 - 64	1,099,804	505,868	46	593,936	54
65 - 69	730,746	326,302	45	404,444	55
70 - 74	500,423	213,982	43	286,441	57
75 - 79	387,566	162,355	42	225,211	58
80 - 84	236,003	93,930	40	142,073	60
85 - 89	106,942	39,861	37	67,081	63
90 +	48,335	16,961	35	31,374	65

Appendix 1. List of Tables

Table A2

Number and percentage of recent migrants by type of move by sex, State/Region, 2014 Census

State/Region			Type of move			Non-migrants	Total
			Between Townships within Districts	Between District within State/Region	Between State/Region		
Both sexes	Kachin	Number	31,593	23,200	75,775	1,248,476	1,379,044
		Percentage	2.3	1.7	5.5	90.5	100
	Kayah	Number	2,865	1,925	13,530	252,616	270,936
		Percentage	1.1	0.7	5.0	93.2	100
	Kayin	Number	10,142	13,159	84,266	1,336,582	1,444,149
		Percentage	0.7	0.9	5.8	92.6	100
	Chin	Number	4,342	1,292	6,169	457,987	469,790
		Percentage	0.9	0.3	1.3	97.5	100
	Sagaing	Number	39,750	49,212	71,479	4,924,061	5,084,502
		Percentage	0.8	1.0	1.4	96.8	100
	Tanintharyi	Number	30,599	14,387	47,006	1,254,400	1,346,392
		Percentage	2.3	1.1	3.5	93.2	100
	Bago	Number	56,615	14,594	85,884	4,598,560	4,755,653
		Percentage	1.2	0.3	1.8	96.7	100
	Magway	Number	21,826	18,323	42,117	3,712,364	3,794,630
		Percentage	0.6	0.5	1.1	97.8	100
	Mandalay	Number	114,317	91,813	213,891	5,434,388	5,854,409
		Percentage	2.0	1.6	3.7	92.8	100
	Mon	Number	19,439	4,362	68,932	1,853,646	1,946,379
		Percentage	1.0	0.2	3.5	95.2	100
	Rakhine	Number	19,913	24,173	18,516	1,973,519	2,036,121
		Percentage	1.0	1.2	0.9	96.9	100
	Yangon	Number	388,437	249,622	806,169	5,479,149	6,923,377
		Percentage	5.6	3.6	11.6	79.1	100
	Shan	Number	58,267	60,558	154,952	5,205,349	5,479,126
		Percentage	1.1	1.1	2.8	95.0	100
	Ayeyawady	Number	72,131	50,525	48,159	5,895,520	6,066,335
		Percentage	1.2	0.8	0.8	97.2	100
	Nay Pyi Taw	Number	20,572	3,536	111,008	932,566	1,067,682
		Percentage	1.9	0.3	10.4	87.3	100
	UNION	Number	890,808	620,681	1,847,853	44,559,183	47,918,525
		Percentage	1.9	1.3	3.9	93.0	100
Male	Kachin	Number	14,896	10,989	41,228	599,592	666,705
		Percentage	2.2	1.6	6.2	89.9	100
	Kayah	Number	1,291	937	6,745	122,381	131,354
		Percentage	1.0	0.7	5.1	93.2	100
	Kayin	Number	5,128	6,545	42,608	639,473	693,754
		Percentage	0.7	0.9	6.1	92.2	100
	Chin	Number	2,028	615	3,080	216,967	222,690
		Percentage	0.9	0.3	1.4	97.4	100
	Sagaing	Number	18,729	24,507	35,562	2,266,268	2,345,066
		Percentage	0.8	1.0	1.5	96.6	100
	Tanintharyi	Number	15,186	7,147	25,495	604,647	652,475
		Percentage	2.3	1.1	3.9	92.7	100
	Bago	Number	25,966	6,923	41,805	2,159,374	2,234,068
		Percentage	1.2	0.3	1.9	96.7	100
	Magway	Number	10,118	8,539	20,532	1,686,483	1,725,672
		Percentage	0.6	0.5	1.2	97.7	100

Appendix 1. List of Tables

Table A2 (continued) Number and percentage of recent migrants by type of move by sex, State/Region, 2014 Census

State/Region of current residence			Recent migrants			Total recent migrants	Non-migrant population
			Between Townships within Districts	Between District within State/Region	Between State/Region		
Male	Mandalay	Number	55,188	44,873	101,278	2,500,968	2,702,307
		Percentage	2.0	1.7	3.7	92.5	100
	Mon	Number	9,493	2,059	35,521	862,342	909,415
		Percentage	1.0	0.2	3.9	94.8	100
	Rakhine	Number	9,292	11,677	9,647	907,605	938,221
		Percentage	1.0	1.2	1.0	96.7	100
	Yangon	Number	182,979	116,304	368,806	2,579,879	3,247,968
		Percentage	5.6	3.6	11.4	79.4	100
	Shan	Number	28,166	29,117	80,122	2,514,013	2,651,418
		Percentage	1.1	1.1	3.0	94.8	100
	Ayeyawady	Number	34,888	24,790	23,336	2,836,465	2,919,479
		Percentage	1.2	0.8	0.8	97.2	100
	Nay Pyi Taw	Number	9,807	1,673	53,531	442,925	507,936
		Percentage	1.9	0.3	10.5	87.2	100
	UNION	Number	423,155	296,695	889,296	20,939,382	22,548,528
		Percentage	1.9	1.3	3.9	92.9	100
Female	Kachin	Number	16,697	12,211	34,547	648,884	712,339
		Percentage	2.3	1.7	4.8	91.1	100
	Kayah	Number	1,574	988	6,785	130,235	139,582
		Percentage	1.1	0.7	4.9	93.3	100
	Kayin	Number	5,014	6,614	41,658	697,109	750,395
		Percentage	0.7	0.9	5.6	92.9	100
	Chin	Number	2,314	677	3,089	241,020	247,100
		Percentage	0.9	0.3	1.3	97.5	100
	Sagaing	Number	21,021	24,705	35,917	2,657,793	2,739,436
		Percentage	0.8	0.9	1.3	97.0	100
	Tanintharyi	Number	15,413	7,240	21,511	649,753	693,917
		Percentage	2.2	1.0	3.1	93.6	100
	Bago	Number	30,649	7,671	44,079	2,439,186	2,521,585
		Percentage	1.2	0.3	1.7	96.7	100
	Magway	Number	11,708	9,784	21,585	2,025,881	2,068,958
		Percentage	0.6	0.5	1.0	97.9	100
	Mandalay	Number	59,129	46,940	112,613	2,933,420	3,152,102
		Percentage	1.9	1.5	3.6	93.1	100
	Mon	Number	9,946	2,303	33,411	991,304	1,036,964
		Percentage	1.0	0.2	3.2	95.6	100
	Rakhine	Number	10,621	12,496	8,869	1,065,914	1,097,900
		Percentage	1.0	1.1	0.8	97.1	100
	Yangon	Number	205,458	133,318	437,363	2,899,270	3,675,409
		Percentage	5.6	3.6	11.9	78.9	100
	Shan	Number	30,101	31,441	74,830	2,691,336	2,827,708
		Percentage	1.1	1.1	2.6	95.2	100
	Ayeyawady	Number	37,243	25,735	24,823	3,059,055	3,146,856
		Percentage	1.2	0.8	0.8	97.2	100
	Nay Pyi Taw	Number	10,765	1,863	57,477	489,641	559,746
		Percentage	1.9	0.3	10.3	87.5	100
	UNION	Number	467,653	323,986	958,557	23,619,801	25,369,997
		Percentage	1.8	1.3	3.8	93.1	100

Appendix 1. List of Tables

Table A3

Total and urban populations by sex, and sex ratio, State/Region, 2014 Census

State/ Region	Total population				Urban population				
	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Sex ratio	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Sex ratio	% Urban
UNION	50,279,900	24,228,714	26,051,186	93.0	14,877,943	7,114,224	7,763,719	91.6	29.6
Kachin	1,642,841	855,353	787,488	108.6	592,368	297,643	294,725	101.0	36.1
Kayah	286,627	143,213	143,414	99.9	72,418	35,679	36,739	97.1	25.3
Kayin	1,504,326	739,127	765,199	96.6	329,166	163,280	165,886	98.4	21.9
Chin	478,801	229,604	249,197	92.1	99,809	47,198	52,611	89.7	20.8
Sagaing	5,325,347	2,516,949	2,808,398	89.6	911,335	430,408	480,927	89.5	17.1
Tanintharyi	1,408,401	700,619	707,782	99.0	338,419	164,982	173,437	95.1	24.0
Bago	4,867,373	2,322,338	2,545,035	91.2	1,072,336	501,157	571,179	87.7	22.0
Magway	3,917,055	1,813,974	2,103,081	86.3	588,031	270,624	317,407	85.3	15.0
Mandalay	6,165,723	2,928,367	3,237,356	90.5	2,143,436	1,033,433	1,110,003	93.1	34.8
Mon	2,054,393	987,392	1,067,001	92.5	572,189	273,561	298,628	91.6	27.9
Rakhine	2,098,807	989,702	1,109,105	89.2	354,288	166,857	187,431	89.0	16.9
Yangon	7,360,703	3,516,403	3,844,300	91.5	5,160,512	2,441,229	2,719,283	89.8	70.1
Shan	5,824,432	2,910,710	2,913,722	99.9	1,395,847	692,453	703,394	98.4	24.0
Ayeyawady	6,184,829	3,009,808	3,175,021	94.8	872,600	412,693	459,907	89.7	14.1
Nay Pyi Taw	1,160,242	565,155	595,087	95.0	375,189	183,027	192,162	95.2	32.3

Table A4

Numbers of literate and illiterate persons, and literacy rate, by age by sex, urban and rural areas, 2014 Census

Age Area	Both sexes			Male			Female					
	Total	Literate	Illiterate	Literacy rate	Total	Literate	Illiterate	Literacy rate	Total	Literate	Illiterate	Literacy rate
Union												
Total	43,517,147	38,656,770	4,860,377	88.8	20,322,407	18,509,858	1,812,549	91.1	23,194,740	20,146,912	3,047,828	86.9
5 - 9	4,724,561	3,646,786	1,077,775	77.2	2,373,338	1,818,484	554,854	76.6	2,351,223	1,828,302	522,921	77.8
10 - 14	4,857,955	4,631,165	226,790	95.3	2,395,227	2,282,462	112,765	95.3	2,462,728	2,348,703	114,025	95.4
15 - 19	4,260,063	4,021,878	238,185	94.4	2,040,884	1,931,889	108,995	94.7	2,219,179	2,089,989	129,190	94.2
20 - 24	3,922,795	3,666,652	256,143	93.5	1,809,125	1,704,596	104,529	94.2	2,113,670	1,962,056	151,614	92.8
25 - 29	3,835,001	3,537,048	297,953	92.2	1,774,288	1,660,782	113,506	93.6	2,060,713	1,876,266	184,447	91.1
30 - 34	3,688,862	3,368,511	320,351	91.3	1,732,410	1,612,298	120,112	93.1	1,956,452	1,756,213	200,239	89.8
35 - 39	3,408,280	3,086,310	321,970	90.6	1,592,151	1,476,024	116,127	92.7	1,816,129	1,610,286	205,843	88.7
40 - 44	3,158,439	2,840,156	318,283	89.9	1,457,800	1,349,719	108,081	92.6	1,700,639	1,490,437	210,202	87.6
45 - 49	2,846,351	2,529,747	316,604	88.9	1,302,390	1,203,599	98,791	92.4	1,543,961	1,326,148	217,813	85.9
50 - 54	2,480,704	2,163,484	317,220	87.2	1,125,573	1,026,989	98,584	91.2	1,355,131	1,136,495	218,636	83.9
55 - 59	1,992,677	1,731,380	261,297	86.9	893,314	821,482	71,832	92.0	1,099,363	909,898	189,465	82.8
60 - 64	1,533,332	1,282,026	251,306	83.6	680,750	614,242	66,508	90.2	852,582	667,784	184,798	78.3
65 +	2,808,127	2,151,627	656,500	76.6	1,145,157	1,007,292	137,865	88.0	1,662,970	1,144,335	518,635	68.8
Urban												
Total	12,778,581	12,050,775	727,806	94.3	5,883,192	5,629,625	253,567	95.7	6,895,389	6,421,150	474,239	93.1
5 - 9	1,119,116	915,885	203,231	81.8	566,038	460,933	105,105	81.4	553,078	454,952	98,126	82.3
10 - 14	1,260,131	1,232,789	27,342	97.8	630,707	617,070	13,637	97.8	629,424	615,719	13,705	97.8
15 - 19	1,276,590	1,245,838	30,752	97.6	616,134	602,372	13,762	97.8	660,456	643,466	16,990	97.4
20 - 24	1,255,130	1,222,650	32,480	97.4	580,261	567,638	12,623	97.8	674,869	655,012	19,857	97.1
25 - 29	1,175,672	1,139,667	36,005	96.9	542,734	529,717	13,017	97.6	632,938	609,950	22,988	96.4
30 - 34	1,138,097	1,098,046	40,051	96.5	533,631	519,978	13,653	97.4	604,466	578,068	26,398	95.6
35 - 39	1,029,021	988,065	40,956	96.0	474,829	461,563	13,266	97.2	554,192	526,502	27,690	95.0
40 - 44	974,966	934,192	40,774	95.8	439,313	427,116	12,197	97.2	535,653	507,076	28,577	94.7
45 - 49	878,458	836,074	42,384	95.2	386,723	375,500	11,223	97.1	491,735	460,574	31,161	93.7
50 - 54	751,482	709,595	41,887	94.4	324,881	314,329	10,552	96.8	426,601	395,266	31,335	92.7
55 - 59	607,563	570,019	37,544	93.8	258,929	250,572	8,357	96.8	348,634	319,447	29,187	91.6
60 - 64	459,837	422,910	36,927	92.0	194,855	187,544	7,311	96.2	264,982	235,366	29,616	88.8
65 +	852,518	735,045	117,473	86.2	334,157	315,293	18,864	94.4	518,361	419,752	98,609	81.0

Appendix 1. List of Tables

Table A4 (continued) Numbers of literate and illiterate persons, by age by sex, urban and rural areas, 2014 Census

Age Area	Both sexes				Male				Female			
	Total	Literate	Illiterate	Literacy rate	Total	Literate	Illiterate	Literacy rate	Total	Literate	Illiterate	Literacy rate
Rural												
Total	30,738,566	26,605,995	4,132,571	86.6	14,439,215	12,880,233	1,558,982	89.2	16,299,351	13,725,762	2,573,589	84.2
5 - 9	3,605,445	2,730,901	874,544	75.7	1,807,300	1,357,551	449,749	75.1	1,798,145	1,373,350	424,795	76.4
10 - 14	3,597,824	3,398,376	199,448	94.5	1,764,520	1,665,392	99,128	94.4	1,833,304	1,732,984	100,320	94.5
15 - 19	2,983,473	2,776,040	207,433	93.0	1,424,750	1,329,517	95,233	93.3	1,558,723	1,446,523	112,200	92.8
20 - 24	2,667,665	2,444,002	223,663	91.6	1,228,864	1,136,958	91,906	92.5	1,438,801	1,307,044	131,757	90.8
25 - 29	2,659,329	2,397,381	261,948	90.1	1,231,554	1,131,065	100,489	91.8	1,427,775	1,266,316	161,459	88.7
30 - 34	2,550,765	2,270,465	280,300	89.0	1,198,779	1,092,320	106,459	91.1	1,351,986	1,178,145	173,841	87.1
35 - 39	2,379,259	2,098,245	281,014	88.2	1,117,322	1,014,461	102,861	90.8	1,261,937	1,083,784	178,153	85.9
40 - 44	2,183,473	1,905,964	277,509	87.3	1,018,487	922,603	95,884	90.6	1,164,986	983,361	181,625	84.4
45 - 49	1,967,893	1,693,673	274,220	86.1	915,667	828,099	87,568	90.4	1,052,226	865,574	186,652	82.3
50 - 54	1,729,222	1,453,889	275,333	84.1	800,692	712,660	88,032	89.0	928,530	741,229	187,301	79.8
55 - 59	1,385,114	1,161,361	223,753	83.8	634,385	570,910	63,475	90.0	750,729	590,451	160,278	78.7
60 - 64	1,073,495	859,116	214,379	80.0	485,895	426,698	59,197	87.8	587,600	432,418	155,182	73.6
65 +	1,955,609	1,416,582	539,027	72.4	811,000	691,999	119,001	85.3	1,144,609	724,583	420,026	63.3

Appendix 1. List of Tables

Table A5

Numbers of literate and illiterate persons aged 15-64, and literacy rate, by sex, urban and rural areas, State/Region, 2014 Census

		Population aged 15 and over			
		Total	Literate	Illiterate	Literacy rate
Both sexes	UNION	31,126,504	28227192	2,899,312	90.7
	Urban	9,546,816	9167056	379760	96.0
	Rural	21,579,688	19,060,136	2,519,552	88.3
	State/Region				
	Kachin	857,153	801,006	56,147	93.4
	Kayah	165,163	138,679	26,484	84.0
	Kayin	849,967	650,586	199,381	76.5
	Chin	256,567	211,114	45,453	82.3
	Sagaing	3,277,775	3,116,651	161,124	95.1
	Tanintharyi	812,013	760,013	52,000	93.6
	Bago	3,081,484	2,928,997	152,487	95.1
	Magway	2,478,792	2,331,346	147,446	94.1
	Mandalay	3,931,576	3,737,946	193,630	95.1
	Mon	1,200,736	1,061,368	139,368	88.4
	Rakhine	1,254,526	1,082,996	171,530	86.3
	Yangon	4,871,843	4,730,506	141,337	97.1
	Shan	3,473,945	2,307,588	1,166,357	66.4
	Ayeyawady	3,908,128	3,694,346	213,782	94.5
	Nay Pyi Taw	706,836	674,050	32,786	95.4
Male	UNION	14,408,685	13,401,620	1,007,065	93.0
	Urban	4,352,290	4,236,329	115,961	97.3
	Rural	10,056,395	9,165,291	891,104	91.1
	State/Region				
	Kachin	412,563	391,604	20,959	94.9
	Kayah	78,896	69,615	9,281	88.2
	Kayin	400,490	319,196	81,294	79.7
	Chin	116,674	105,180	11,494	90.1
	Sagaing	1,480,341	1,434,550	45,791	96.9
	Tanintharyi	389,412	368,999	20,413	94.8
	Bago	1,421,538	1,377,225	44,313	96.9
	Magway	1,100,858	1,067,162	33,696	96.9
	Mandalay	1,784,383	1,740,927	43,456	97.6
	Mon	544,831	492,128	52,703	90.3
	Rakhine	556,967	516,893	40,074	92.8
	Yangon	2,247,690	2,204,422	43,268	98.1
	Shan	1,680,640	1,200,618	480,022	71.4
	Ayeyawady	1,861,506	1,787,661	73,845	96.0
	Nay Pyi Taw	331,896	325,440	6,456	98.1

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Table A5 (continued) Numbers of literate and illiterate persons aged 15 and over, and literacy rate, by sex, urban and rural areas, State/Region, 2014 Census

		Population aged 15 and over			
		Total	Literate	Illiterate	Literacy rate
Female	UNION	16,717,819	14,825,572	1,892,247	88.7
	Urban	5,194,526	4,930,727	263,799	94.9
	Rural	11,523,293	9,894,845	1,628,448	85.9
	State/Region				
	Kachin	444,590	409,402	35,188	92.1
	Kayah	86,267	69,064	17,203	80.1
	Kayin	449,477	331,390	118,087	73.7
	Chin	139,893	105,934	33,959	75.7
	Sagaing	1,797,434	1,682,101	115,333	93.6
	Tanintharyi	422,601	391,014	31,587	92.5
	Bago	1,659,946	1,551,772	108,174	93.5
	Magway	1,377,934	1,264,184	113,750	91.7
	Mandalay	2,147,193	1,997,019	150,174	93.0
	Mon	655,905	569,240	86,665	86.8
	Rakhine	697,559	566,103	131,456	81.2
	Yangon	2,624,153	2,526,084	98,069	96.3
	Shan	1,793,305	1,106,970	686,335	61.7
	Ayeyawady	2,046,622	1,906,685	139,937	93.2
	Nay Pyi Taw	374,940	348,610	26,330	93.0

Table A6
Persons aged 5-29 by school attendance by age by sex, 2014 Census

Age	Total			Currently attending			Previously attended			Never attended		
	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female
Total (5 - 29)	21,600,375	10,392,862	11,207,513	8,386,961	4,118,816	4,268,145	11,173,917	5,292,701	5,881,216	2,039,497	981,345	1,058,152
5	926,582	469,718	456,864	271,429	134,442	136,987	46,992	23,477	23,515	608,161	311,799	296,362
6	958,030	483,336	474,694	716,318	358,513	357,805	80,079	40,073	40,006	161,633	84,750	76,883
7	978,284	493,327	484,957	809,508	407,260	402,248	93,741	47,315	46,426	75,035	38,752	36,283
8	936,114	464,369	471,745	780,904	386,659	394,245	94,226	46,970	47,256	60,984	30,740	30,244
9	925,551	462,588	462,963	785,143	391,740	393,403	98,869	49,776	49,093	41,539	21,072	20,467
5 - 9	4,724,561	2,373,338	2,351,223	3,363,302	1,678,614	1,684,688	413,907	207,611	206,296	947,352	487,113	460,239
10	984,763	491,667	493,096	810,351	404,491	405,860	121,326	60,369	60,957	53,086	26,807	26,279
11	904,364	446,398	457,966	736,801	363,901	372,900	136,118	66,462	69,656	31,445	16,035	15,410
12	995,369	491,527	503,842	747,358	370,669	376,689	203,709	98,871	104,838	44,302	21,987	22,315
13	1,023,112	504,220	518,892	686,833	340,524	346,309	291,694	141,636	150,058	44,585	22,060	22,525
14	950,347	461,415	488,932	537,037	261,557	275,480	372,879	180,338	192,541	40,431	19,520	20,911
15	900,145	439,863	460,282	399,650	191,523	208,127	444,811	220,940	223,871	55,684	27,400	28,284
10 - 15	5,758,100	2,835,090	2,923,010	3,918,030	1,932,665	1,985,365	1,570,537	768,616	801,921	269,533	133,809	135,724
16	825,526	397,263	428,263	296,478	137,013	159,465	483,795	238,350	245,445	45,253	21,900	23,353
17	838,258	404,761	433,497	234,633	106,433	128,200	558,031	276,350	281,681	45,594	21,978	23,616
18	928,867	438,562	490,305	186,537	82,160	104,377	676,926	326,562	350,364	65,404	29,840	35,564
19	767,267	360,435	406,832	128,200	56,121	72,079	595,883	284,369	311,514	43,184	19,945	23,239
20	953,697	442,835	510,862	92,683	42,450	50,233	773,000	361,274	411,726	88,014	39,111	48,903
21	733,967	338,696	395,271	55,066	26,548	28,518	636,841	293,274	343,567	42,060	18,874	23,186
22	767,539	352,584	414,955	34,894	17,334	17,560	680,119	312,229	367,890	52,526	23,021	29,505
23	763,063	352,835	410,228	22,161	11,436	10,725	686,740	317,756	368,984	54,162	23,643	30,519
24	704,529	322,175	382,354	14,169	7,329	6,840	641,557	294,303	347,254	48,803	20,543	28,260
25	883,804	411,269	472,535	12,261	6,313	5,948	775,267	363,476	411,791	96,276	41,480	54,796
26	697,294	322,962	374,332	8,422	4,352	4,070	635,598	295,701	339,897	53,274	22,909	30,365
27	740,106	344,076	396,030	7,573	3,905	3,668	672,674	314,829	357,845	59,859	25,342	34,517
28	810,142	371,556	438,586	7,000	3,471	3,529	729,162	338,290	390,872	73,980	29,795	44,185
29	703,655	324,425	379,230	5,552	2,672	2,880	643,880	299,711	344,169	54,223	22,042	32,181
16 - 29	11,117,714	5,184,434	5,933,280	1,105,629	507,537	598,092	9,189,473	4,316,474	4,872,999	822,612	360,423	462,189

Table A7
Persons currently attending school by age by sex, State/Region, 2014 Census

State/Region	Total			Age 5-9 (Primary school age)			Age 10-15 (Secondary school age)			Age 16-29 (Post-secondary school age)		
	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female
Total	8,386,961	4,118,816	4,268,145	3,363,302	1,678,614	1,684,688	3,918,030	1,932,665	1,985,365	1,105,629	507,537	598,092
Kachin	328,001	159,182	168,819	118,195	59,554	58,641	151,495	73,757	77,738	58,311	25,871	32,440
Kayah	61,946	29,927	32,019	25,333	12,628	12,705	28,580	13,943	14,637	8,033	3,356	4,677
Kayin	281,994	134,981	147,013	115,878	57,417	58,461	138,014	65,453	72,561	28,102	12,111	15,991
Chin	131,173	65,829	65,344	48,509	24,570	23,939	60,290	30,126	30,164	22,374	11,133	11,241
Sagaing	930,109	453,298	476,811	380,621	189,544	191,077	432,320	211,500	220,820	117,168	52,254	64,914
Tanintharyi	285,635	137,936	147,699	116,275	58,262	58,013	138,582	67,049	71,533	30,778	12,625	18,153
Bago	802,615	397,417	405,198	343,609	172,141	171,468	377,444	188,836	188,608	81,562	36,440	45,122
Magway	650,700	318,137	332,563	265,643	131,536	134,107	301,149	148,362	152,787	83,908	38,239	45,669
Mandalay	972,323	475,835	496,488	383,659	190,222	193,437	442,127	217,524	224,603	146,537	68,089	78,448
Mon	361,886	175,029	186,857	149,835	75,360	74,475	172,996	83,669	89,327	39,055	16,000	23,055
Rakhine	403,204	204,430	198,774	165,220	83,551	81,669	196,387	100,109	96,278	41,597	20,770	20,827
Yangon	1,098,410	551,076	547,334	385,552	194,735	190,817	500,589	253,502	247,087	212,269	102,839	109,430
Shan	842,923	402,377	440,546	340,283	166,600	173,683	402,126	190,208	211,918	100,514	45,569	54,945
Ayeyawady	1,032,944	512,530	520,414	441,923	221,147	220,776	482,956	242,033	240,923	108,065	49,350	58,715
Nay Pyi Taw	203,098	100,832	102,266	82,767	41,347	41,420	92,975	46,594	46,381	27,356	12,891	14,465

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Table A8

Percentage of population by age by sex by highest completed level of education, 2014 Census

Age/Sex	No education	Incomplete primary	Completed primary	Incomplete secondary	Completed upper secondary	Higher than upper secondary	Other
Both sexes							
25 - 29	9.0	18.8	20.4	27.7	8.1	15.5	0.5
30 - 34	10.4	22.0	21.5	25.6	6.5	13.3	0.6
35 - 39	11.6	24.8	23.3	23.9	5.3	10.3	0.8
40 - 44	12.9	22.9	23.9	26.3	4.7	8.3	1.0
45 - 49	15.3	23.7	24.8	22.8	4.6	7.2	1.5
50 - 54	18.1	24.3	25.1	20.6	3.9	6.0	2.0
55 - 59	19.9	23.5	23.9	20.1	4.5	5.5	2.6
60 - 64	25.3	23.4	22.7	16.0	4.5	4.8	3.3
65 - 69	28.3	23.2	21.9	15.0	3.5	4.3	3.9
70 - 74	36.0	21.5	17.7	13.8	3.2	3.2	4.7
75 - 79	40.0	22.3	17.0	10.1	2.4	2.3	5.8
80 - 84	44.9	22.1	16.2	7.6	1.5	1.9	5.8
85 - 89	44.2	22.3	17.0	8.2	1.2	1.6	5.5
90 +	47.9	20.4	15.3	8.2	1.5	1.8	4.8
Male							
25 - 29	8.3	17.2	19.5	31.1	9.3	13.9	0.7
30 - 34	9.4	19.9	21.3	29.4	7.2	12.0	0.9
35 - 39	10.3	22.2	23.2	28.1	5.9	9.1	1.1
40 - 44	11.2	19.8	23.5	31.4	5.4	7.4	1.4
45 - 49	12.9	19.8	24.7	28.1	5.4	7.3	1.9
50 - 54	15.3	20.0	25.4	25.8	4.7	6.4	2.4
55 - 59	16.1	18.8	24.3	26.3	5.5	6.1	2.9
60 - 64	20.3	18.9	23.6	21.5	5.9	6.0	3.8
65 - 69	22.1	19.3	23.3	20.0	4.9	6.0	4.5
70 - 74	27.4	18.7	19.7	19.2	4.7	4.9	5.4
75 - 79	30.1	20.1	19.7	15.2	4.1	4.0	6.9
80 - 84	34.3	21.0	19.3	11.8	2.7	3.5	7.3
85 - 89	33.7	21.4	20.3	12.4	2.2	2.8	7.1
90 +	37.3	20.0	18.0	12.4	2.7	3.1	6.4
Female							
25 - 29	9.7	20.3	21.3	24.5	7.0	16.9	0.3
30 - 34	11.3	24.1	21.7	22.2	5.8	14.6	0.4
35 - 39	12.7	27.3	23.3	20.0	4.8	11.3	0.5
40 - 44	14.4	25.7	24.2	21.7	4.0	9.2	0.8
45 - 49	17.4	27.1	24.9	18.2	3.9	7.2	1.2
50 - 54	20.5	27.9	24.9	16.2	3.3	5.6	1.6
55 - 59	23.2	27.4	23.6	14.9	3.7	5.0	2.3
60 - 64	29.4	27.1	21.9	11.5	3.3	3.9	3.0
65 - 69	33.2	26.2	20.8	11.1	2.5	2.9	3.4
70 - 74	42.2	23.7	16.3	9.8	2.1	1.9	4.1
75 - 79	47.0	23.8	15.1	6.6	1.3	1.2	5.0
80 - 84	51.6	22.8	14.2	5.0	0.7	0.9	4.8
85 - 89	50.1	22.8	15.2	5.9	0.6	0.9	4.6
90 +	53.4	20.6	13.9	6.0	0.9	1.1	4.1

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Table A9

Economically active population with a disability by sex by age by domain of disability, 2014 Census

a) Seeing

	Economically active population	Employed	Unemployed
Both sexes			
Total	1,231,157	460,856	6,816
10 - 14	12,879	997	180
15 - 19	14,889	4,210	616
20 - 24	13,437	6,822	792
25 - 29	16,286	9,667	517
30 - 34	21,566	13,291	406
35 - 39	30,330	19,148	360
40 - 44	67,293	43,108	626
45 - 49	108,847	71,043	860
50 - 54	135,190	83,100	823
55 - 59	139,388	75,542	698
60 - 64	145,878	57,725	464
65 - 69	129,590	36,300	241
70 - 74	122,584	20,127	102
75 - 79	115,783	12,156	70
80+	157,217	76,20	61
Male			
Total	527,608	288,232	4,353
10 - 14	6,617	585	111
15 - 19	6,768	2,386	333
20 - 24	6,267	3,808	393
25 - 29	7,489	5,480	270
30 - 34	10,001	7,807	253
35 - 39	13,515	11,006	231
40 - 44	28,831	24,633	416
45 - 49	50,128	43,457	604
50 - 54	63,015	52,427	615
55 - 59	63,559	48,337	506
60 - 64	65,015	38,125	328
65 - 69	54,544	23,920	168
70 - 74	49,651	13,424	64
75 - 79	45,943	8,090	36
80+	56,265	4,747	25
Female			
Total	703,549	172,624	2,463
10 - 14	6,262	412	69
15 - 19	8,121	1,824	283
20 - 24	7,170	3,014	399
25 - 29	8,797	4,187	247
30 - 34	11,565	5,484	153
35 - 39	16,815	8,142	129
40 - 44	38,462	18,475	210
45 - 49	58,719	27,586	256
50 - 54	72,175	30,673	208
55 - 59	75,829	27,205	192
60 - 64	80,863	19,600	136
65 - 69	75,046	12,380	73
70 - 74	72,933	6,703	38
75 - 79	69,840	4,066	34
80+	100,952	2,873	36

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Table A9 (continued) Economically active population with a disability by sex by age by domain of disability, 2014 Census

b) Hearing

	Economically active population	Employed	Unemployed
Both sexes			
Total	650,323	192,572	3,537
10 - 14	15,018	1,603	233
15 - 19	12,567	5,185	491
20 - 24	12,731	6,759	429
25 - 29	14,957	8,503	342
30 - 34	17,922	10,602	279
35 - 39	18,713	11,526	233
40 - 44	23,572	14,471	222
45 - 49	31,203	18,837	249
50 - 54	43,053	24,311	279
55 - 59	49,781	24,952	278
60 - 64	62,693	23,249	207
65 - 69	62,922	16,743	111
70 - 74	72,630	11,442	70
75 - 79	78,935	7,938	51
80+	133,626	6,451	63
Male			
Total	280,420	120,037	2,328
10 - 14	8,091	944	156
15 - 19	6,676	3,188	323
20 - 24	6,506	4,186	248
25 - 29	7,228	5,180	208
30 - 34	8,616	6,477	199
35 - 39	8,727	6,853	163
40 - 44	10,575	8,449	143
45 - 49	13,787	10,976	172
50 - 54	19,225	14,814	196
55 - 59	21,942	15,564	197
60 - 64	27,637	15,166	146
65 - 69	26,786	11,037	78
70 - 74	30,656	7,752	45
75 - 79	33,006	5,316	30
80+	50,962	4,135	24
Female			
Total	369,903	72,535	1,209
10 - 14	6,927	659	77
15 - 19	5,891	1,997	168
20 - 24	6,225	2,573	181
25 - 29	7,729	3,323	134
30 - 34	9,306	4,125	80
35 - 39	9,986	4,673	70
40 - 44	12,997	6,022	79
45 - 49	17,416	7,861	77
50 - 54	23,828	9,497	83
55 - 59	27,839	9,388	81
60 - 64	35,056	8,083	61
65 - 69	36,136	5,706	33
70 - 74	41,974	3,690	25
75 - 79	45,929	2,622	21
80+	82,664	2,316	39

Appendix 1. List of Tables

Table A9 (continued) Economically active population with a disability by sex by age by domain of disability, 2014 Census

c) Walking

	Economically active population	Employed	Unemployed
Both sexes			
Total	878,317	213,746	4,611
10 - 14	20,754	1,300	209
15 - 19	17,840	3,950	530
20 - 24	17,917	6,221	639
25 - 29	21,267	9,067	564
30 - 34	24,247	11,376	452
35 - 39	27,763	13,660	381
40 - 44	37,036	18,239	339
45 - 49	48,919	23,505	346
50 - 54	66,446	29,693	375
55 - 59	76,731	29,893	276
60 - 64	90,289	25,374	199
65 - 69	86,112	17,159	123
70 - 74	90,738	10,985	62
75 - 79	95,458	7,356	61
80+	156,800	5,968	55
Male			
Total	392,386	137,049	3,305
10 - 14	11,240	778	130
15 - 19	9,637	2,453	366
20 - 24	9,912	4,075	438
25 - 29	11,858	6,108	404
30 - 34	13,948	7,889	344
35 - 39	16,044	9,409	315
40 - 44	20,470	12,092	267
45 - 49	25,394	15,068	255
50 - 54	32,555	18,445	283
55 - 59	36,046	18,529	189
60 - 64	40,752	16,004	137
65 - 69	36,679	10,826	84
70 - 74	36,587	7,086	41
75 - 79	37,138	4,706	35
80+	54,126	3,581	17
Female			
Total	485,931	76,697	1,306
10 - 14	9,514	522	79
15 - 19	8,203	1,497	164
20 - 24	8,005	2,146	201
25 - 29	9,409	2,959	160
30 - 34	10,299	3,487	108
35 - 39	11,719	4,251	66
40 - 44	16,566	6,147	72
45 - 49	23,525	8,437	91
50 - 54	33,891	11,248	92
55 - 59	40,685	11,364	87
60 - 64	49,537	9,370	62
65 - 69	49,433	6,333	39
70 - 74	54,151	3,899	21
75 - 79	58,320	2,650	26
80+	102,674	2,387	38

Appendix 1. List of Tables

Table A9 (continued) Economically active population with a disability by sex by age by domain of disability, 2014 Census

d) Remembering or concentrating

	Economically active population	Employed	Unemployed
Both sexes			
Total	748,585	208,932	4,995
10 - 14	36,978	3,224	458
15 - 19	27,287	7,587	775
20 - 24	23,846	8,781	626
25 - 29	24,651	10,355	491
30 - 34	27,896	12,462	440
35 - 39	29,132	13,941	377
40 - 44	36,505	18,330	346
45 - 49	44,479	22,788	366
50 - 54	55,853	27,524	349
55 - 59	58,533	25,939	299
60 - 64	67,698	22,474	199
65 - 69	62,225	14,719	109
70 - 74	67,867	9,651	58
75 - 79	69,252	6,240	54
80+	116,383	4,917	48
Male			
Total	330,903	127,103	3,458
10 - 14	20,722	1,921	314
15 - 19	14,845	4,785	532
20 - 24	12,599	5,425	414
25 - 29	12,890	6,480	348
30 - 34	14,510	7,721	320
35 - 39	14,909	8,390	285
40 - 44	17,737	10,737	228
45 - 49	20,859	13,448	258
50 - 54	25,523	16,355	246
55 - 59	26,012	15,555	214
60 - 64	29,324	13,859	141
65 - 69	25,658	9,182	75
70 - 74	27,234	6,203	37
75 - 79	27,165	4,016	30
80+	40,916	3,026	16
Female			
Total	417,682	81,829	1,537
10 - 14	16,256	1,303	144
15 - 19	12,442	2,802	243
20 - 24	11,247	3,356	212
25 - 29	11,761	3,875	143
30 - 34	13,386	4,741	120
35 - 39	14,223	5,551	92
40 - 44	18,768	7,593	118
45 - 49	23,620	9,340	108
50 - 54	30,330	11,169	103
55 - 59	32,521	10,384	85
60 - 64	38,374	8,615	58
65 - 69	36,567	5,537	34
70 - 74	40,633	3,448	21
75 - 79	42,087	2,224	24
80+	75,467	1,891	32

List of Contributors

Contributors to the Gender Dimensions thematic report

Name	Institution	Role
Government Coordination		
U Myint Kyaing	Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Labour, Immigration and Population	Overall administration and coordination
U Nyi Nyi	Deputy Director General, Department of Population (DoP)	Administration, coordination and quality control
Daw Khaing Khaing Soe	Director, DoP	Administration, coordination and quality control
UNFPA Coordination		
Janet E. Jackson	Country Representative	Overall administration and coordination
Mercedita Tia	Chief Technical Advisor	Overall design, administration, coordination and quality assurance
Daniel Msonda	Programme Specialist, Census	Administration and coordination
Thet Thet U	Programme Assistant	Administration and logistics
Thida Aye Maung	Programme Assistant	Administration and logistics
Tun Tun Win	Project Assistant	Administration and logistics
Authors		
Margaret Wawira Ndwiga	UNFPA Consultant	Lead author
Daw Khaing Khaing Soe	Director, DoP	Assisting Author
Daw Thi Thi Nwe	Assistant Director, DoP	Trainee and Assisting Author
Daw Zin Zin Thaw	Staff Officer, DoP	Trainee and Assisting Author
Daw Hlaing Phwe Thu	Staff Officer, DoP	Trainee and Assisting Author
Daw Wint No No Htun	Junior Clerk, DoP	Trainee and Assisting Author
Reviewers and Editors		
Ms. Padma Karunaratne	UNFPA Consultant	Peer Review
Ms. Khin Khin Mra	UNFPA Consultant	Peer Review
Ms. Ma Khin Mar Mar Kyi	UNFPA Consultant	Peer Review
Esther Bayliss	UNFPA Consultant	Editing, review and proofreading
Ian Stuart White	UNFPA Consultant	Editing and review
Daniel Msonda	Programme Specialist, Census	Proof reading, editing and review
Kyung Ae Park	UNFPA Census Consultant	Review and quality assurance
U Nyi Nyi	Deputy Director General, DoP	Proof reading, editing and review
Daw Khaing Khaing Soe	Director, DoP	Proof reading, editing and review
Data Processing and IT Team		
Arij Dekker	UNFPA Data Processing Consultant	Data editing and programming
Daw Khaing Khaing Soe	Director, DoP	Programming and generation of tables
Daw Sandar Myint	Deputy Director, DoP	Programming and generation of tables
Daw May Myint Bo	Staff Officer, DoP	Generation of tables
Daw Lin Lin Mar	Staff Officer, DoP	Generation of maps
Daw Su Myat Oo	Immigration Assistant, DoP	Generation of tables
U Thant Zin Oo	Assistant Computer Operator, DoP	Generation of maps
U Wai Phyo Win	UNFPA Census IT Manager	Information technology services
Designer		
Karlien Truyens	UNFPA Consultant	Graphic designer

**Thematic Report on Gender Dimensions
can be downloaded at:**

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or

<http://myanmar.unfpa.org/census>

