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DETERMINANTS OF YOUTH EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT IN MYANMAR

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Determinants of Youth Educational Attainment in Myanmar

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Approved by the Board of Examiners

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ABSTRACT

This study explores the primary factors affecting educational attainment among youth in Myanmar. Data for individuals aged 15-24 were sourced from the 2019 Myanmar Inter-censal Survey. The research utilized descriptive analysis, Chi-square tests, and multinomial logistic regression. The sample comprised 85,851 youths. The results show that 12.5% of the youth have reached higher education or above, 65% have completed secondary education, and 18% have achieved primary education or less. According to the multinomial logistic regression analysis, the key factors influencing the attainment of higher education and above include age, gender, marital status, occupation, place of residence, the states and regions of residence, household size, and type of housing. The study underscores the need for establishment of policies to address the issues, including region-specific education strategies, improvements in rural educational infrastructure, gender equality initiatives, support systems for balancing work and education, financial aid for low-income students, and better housing conditions, so that it is able to create a more inclusive and equitable education system in Myanmar, promoting broader socio-economic development.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

SDGs   - Sustainable Development Goals

SES   - Socioeconomic Status

MSDP   - Myanmar Sustainable Development Plan

OECD   - Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

ICS   - Inter-censal Survey

Coeff   - Coefficient

RRR   - Relative risk ratio

APA   - American Psychological Association

PHE   - Public Health England

UNDESA   - United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Education is undoubtedly vital importance for the youth of every nation contributing to the growth of country and achievement of sustainable development goals. Being the heart of every country, developing prosperous opportunities to enhance their skillsets is vital so that youth will become positive change makers in their communities around the world. To nature youth who are able take an active role in the societies, access to right education matters to receive required knowledge and skills. Factually, youth are identified as the focal power for change, striving for better living standards which are aligned with their dreams and eliminate the norms that are deviated from cultural and religious values. Quality education and good educational system matter for overall development and the success of development projects. Every nation's economic development is led by educated people and it is apparent that all the countries focus on executing good education for young people in the development plans. Thus, educated human resources are key to economic growth. (Braizat, 2016).

1.1   Rationale of the Study

The United Nations categorizes 'youth' as individuals aged between 15 and 24 years for statistical purposes (UNDESA, 2007). Currently, the global population includes 1.2 billion young individuals within this age range, making up 16% of the world's total population. The youth population is expected to grow by 7%, reaching around 1.3 billion by 2030, the deadline for achieving the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Tackling the diverse challenges faced by young people, such as obtaining education, healthcare, employment opportunities, and gender equality, has become increasingly important. This heightened focus is a result of ongoing advocacy by young people for more equitable and progressive opportunities and solutions within their communities. When provided with adequate knowledge and opportunities, young people can emerge as a transformative force for development. It is vital for young people to obtain the education and skills required to contribute effectively to a strong economy and to enter a job market that incorporates them into the workforce. Education is a fundamental right for all young individuals. Sustainable

Development Goal 4 highlights the importance of providing inclusive and equitable quality education and promoting lifelong learning opportunities for everyone. Achieving this goal requires collaborative efforts to ensure that both young men and women have access to free, equitable, and high-quality education, along with targeted training opportunities.

Recent statistics show significant global disparities in education, with universal secondary education still out of reach for many, especially in less affluent countries. Providing access to inclusive and equitable quality education is fundamental for a successful transition into the workforce and for securing meaningful employment. It also significantly contributes to reaching various Sustainable Development Goals. Quality primary and secondary education should be supported by affordable technical, vocational, and higher education to equip young people with the skills required for both employment and entrepreneurship (UN, 2023). Despite substantial progress in reducing these rates over recent decades, adult illiteracy remains a significant global issue, with a notable percentage of the population aged 15 and older unable to read or write (Statista, 2022).

Education is fundamental to socio-economic development and individual empowerment, making it a key focus of research and policy globally. In Myanmar, where youth educational attainment is vital for shaping the nation's future, It is important to grasp the factors that influence this attainment. Socioeconomic status (SES), including factors such as income, educational attainment, financial security, and perceptions of social status, significantly impacts overall human functioning, including physical and mental health. Low SES and its associated factors, such as reduced educational attainment, poverty, and poor health, have negative effects on society. Research shows that children from low-SES families often develop academic skills more slowly compared to their peers from higher SES backgrounds. Schools in low-SES areas frequently face resource shortages, which adversely affect students' academic progress and outcomes. The lack of educational resources and high dropout rates contribute to the continuation of low SES within these communities. Improving educational systems and implementing early intervention programs may help mitigate some of these issues, highlighting the need for further investigation into the relationship between SES and educational outcomes (APA, 2017).

Youth aged 15 to 24 are the critical transition phase from education to the labor market. It is crucial to understand the factors that affect educational attainment

to ensure a smooth transition to productive employment and reducing the risks of youth unemployment and underemployment (ILO, 2020). In Myanmar, identifying the determinants of youth educational attainment is vital for addressing inequalities and promoting inclusive growth. This study aims to explore the demographic and socio-economic factors affecting educational attainment among youth aged 15 to 24 in Myanmar, providing valuable insights for policymakers, educators, and stakeholders.

1.2   Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study include:

1)   To investigate the characteristic of education attainment for youth and their demographic and socio-economic characteristics in Myanmar.
2)   To analyse the association between youth educational attainment and demographic and socio-economic characteristics in Myanmar.
3)   To evaluate the significant factors affecting youth educational attainment in Myanmar.

1.3   Method of Study

The data for this study were collected from 2019 intercensal survey conducted by the Ministry of Population. The survey was carried out in four phases from November 2019 to January 2020. The report provides up-to-date information on the demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of the population and households in Myanmar. The survey offers dependable estimates of key statistics at the national, state, regional, and district levels, as well as distinguishing between urban and rural areas. In this study, nationally representative samples of 85,851 youth were analysed. Descriptive analysis was employed to examine the education attainment of youth and their demographic and socioeconomic characteristics in Myanmar. The Chi-square association test was applied to analyse the correlation between youth educational attainment and demographic as well as socioeconomic characteristics in Myanmar. To analyse the factors affecting youth educational attainment in Myanmar, Multinomial logistic regression model was utilized.

1.4   Scope and Limitation of the Study

The study emphasizes on analyzing the demographic and socio-economic factors that influence academic attainment among youth aged 15 to 24 in Myanmar. The data from the 2019 Intercensal Survey in Myanmar were utilized in this study. The educational attainment of youth aged between 15 and 24 were analysed. The data analysis of the study applied only on 85851 youth aged 15 to 24. Apart from the variables which were analyzed in this study, there were many other relevant variables related to parents such as education, income, occupation, and other variables such as health status and other support for resources. However these variable were not analysed in this study because these variables were not contained in the 2019 Intercensal Survey.

1.5 Organization of the Study

This study consists of five chapters. Chapter 1 outlines the rationale for examining the factors affecting youth educational attainment in Myanmar. It specifies the study's objectives, methodology, scope, and limitations, setting the stage for the following chapters. Chapter 2 presents a comprehensive literature review, integrating existing research on the variables that impact educational outcomes among youth. Chapter 3 details the research methodology, including the selected approach, data collection techniques, and analytical methods used in the study. Chapter 4 provides an analysis of the data, identifying key factors influencing educational attainment among youth in Myanmar. Lastly, Chapter 5 synthesizes the findings, discusses their implications, and offers recommendations for policymakers, educators, and stakeholders to improve educational opportunities for youth in Myanmar.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter describes the comprehensive exploration of the existing literature underpinning the determinants of youth educational attainment in Myanmar. The development of higher education sector in Myanmar, analysis of current reforms and highlights of challenges and opportunities that influence educational access and quality are explored in this chapter. Moreover, the in-depth review of the existing studies on educational attainment is presented, especially on various socio-economic and demographic factors that form academic outcomes of young people. The conceptual framework described in this chapter emphasizes the research and theoretical models to establish rational structure for analyzing the essential factors of academic success within the unique context of Myanmar.

2.1   Higher Education Sector Development in Myanmar

In recent years, Myanmar's higher education sector has undergone significant reforms aimed at improving access, quality, and relevance to the nation's socio-economic needs. These reforms include the revision of university curricula, the establishment of new higher education institutions, and initiatives to enhance research capabilities. According to a report by the British Council (2018), efforts have been made to increase collaboration with international universities and organizations to foster academic exchange and capacity building. Despite these advancements, challenges remain, particularly in terms of infrastructure, academic freedom, and the alignment of higher education outcomes with labor market demands (BritishCouncil, 2018).

As Myanmar embarks on the new decade (2021-2030), the Ministry of Education remains dedicated to building upon the remarkable accomplishments achieved through the execution of the National Education Strategic Plan (NESP) (2016-2021) and furthering investment in the improvement of a top-tier national education system. The Myanmar Sustainable Development Plan (MSDP) (2018-2030) places particular emphasis on "equity and inclusion" as a pervasive theme to be integrated across all levels of plan implementation, with special focus on youth and gender empowerment. The MSDP underscores the dual advantages of demographic and democratic progress resulting from "investing in both women and youth," thereby fostering an environment conducive to greater participation of the population in

national prosperity endeavors. Supporting the agenda for inclusive education, the National Education Law (2014) mandates the creation of special education programs and services to ensure that all school-aged children and youth, including those with disabilities or those who previously had limited access to education, can fully exercise their right to education in accordance with the "Education for All" principles. Sustainable Development Goal 4 (SDG 4) sets forth targets for achieving equitable and inclusive education by 2030, with the intent to ensure that all children receive free, equitable, and high-quality primary and secondary education that results in relevant and effective learning outcomes. In alignment with Myanmar's development plans, policies, and international commitments to the SDGs, the Ministry of Education has implemented an inclusion strategy under the 'Education for All' initiative (MOE, 2021).

According to World Bank Data from 2019, Myanmar's literacy rate was at approximately 96% in 2000. However, a notable decline occurred around 2004, with the rate falling below 86%. From 2004 to 2014, Myanmar's literacy rate experienced considerable fluctuations. Subsequently, there was a marked increase, with the literacy rate approaching nearly 100% by 2018. In contrast, the regional median literacy rate remained relatively stable, fluctuating between 96% and 98% over the same period, without the significant changes observed in Myanmar. Throughout most of this period, Myanmar's literacy rate generally lagged behind the regional median, with the most substantial disparity occurring between 2004 and 2010. By 2018, Myanmar's literacy rate had substantially improved and closely aligned with the regional median, indicating significant progress. This trend illustrates the initial volatility in Myanmar's youth literacy rates in the early 2000s and the substantial strides made in recent years to attain regional standards by 2018 (World Bank, 2019).

Myanmar's population aged five and above, according to the 2019 Inter-censal Survey, reached 46.463 million, with 8.1% having never attended school. Around 18.2 million received primary and middle school education, while only 3 million of over 7 million high school students graduated each year. To address these gaps, the State Administration Council supports education reforms to ensure greater access and equity across all regions, focusing on reducing disparities in education, healthcare, social life, and economics (MOE, 2021).

The government seeks to provide quality ethnic and monastic education and has implemented literacy campaigns through alternative education. The Constitution

guarantees compulsory basic education, with the goal that students complete at least KG+Grade 9, providing a foundation for vocational training and higher education. Teachers are encouraged to be subject-matter experts, undergoing periodic retraining to stay updated. The government supports the development of libraries to foster a love of reading among students. Myanmar's education system also aims to instill cultural values, civic duty, and democratic principles in students. To address disparities in school infrastructure, the government will ensure every school has essential resources, such as buildings, playgrounds, transport, clean water, and sustainable energy. Special attention is given to rural areas, where 70% of the population works in agriculture and livestock. Vocational training institutions (TVET) will enhance practical skills to support value-added agricultural and livestock production (MOE, 2021).

The government aims to improve universities by providing advanced infrastructure and fostering environments that promote critical and creative thinking. Plans are underway to establish at least one doctoral degree-granting university in each region and state, ensuring that universities across the country meet international standards. The expansion of Economics and Law programs is emphasized to boost economic growth and legal understanding, alongside the introduction of applied subjects tailored to local needs. Higher education in Myanmar is being reformed to move away from rote learning and focus on developing essential skills such as research, critical thinking, and innovation. Reducing the student-teacher ratio and fostering interactive discussions will enhance learning outcomes. Universities will play a crucial role in nation-building by producing graduates capable of conducting applied research that drives socio-economic development (MOE, 2021).

The government continues to increase support for teachers and administrators, recognizing their dedication and importance in the educational system. Lastly, the National Education Strategic Plan (2021-2030) is being implemented as part of a broader 30-year plan to develop education, with the belief that these efforts will contribute to building a democratic and federal union in Myanmar(MOE, 2021).

2.2   Review on Educational Attainment

Youth education is very important because young people are the future of society. Providing quality education to youth is critical and only then they can handle the challenges of the future. Empowering youth through education create many

benefits. First, skills like critical thinking, problem-solving, and decision-making are improved by education. It helps people analyze multifaceted issues and make the informed decisions constructed through evidence and logic. These skills are key indicators for everyone as the world is changing quickly and people need to make important decisions all the time. Education also helps people move up socially and economically. It can help break the cycle of poverty and allow individuals to reach their full potential. With education, people can get better jobs, earn higher salaries, and have a better standard of living. This not only helps them but also their families and communities. Moreover, education promotes social unity and reduces inequality. It exposes people to different perspectives, cultures, and values, helping them understand and respect others. Education gives people the tools to fight against discrimination and prejudice, leading to a more inclusive society. Furthermore, a well-educated population is better prepared to take part in democratic processes and hold their leaders accountable (Shamim, 2023).

Despite the numerous benefits of education, many young people around the world still lack access to quality education. This is especially prevalent in developing countries where poverty, conflict, and discrimination impede educational access. In these contexts, empowering youth through education is vital for breaking the cycle of poverty and fostering social and economic development. Achieving this requires the interdisciplinary approach where State bodies, Community organizations, and the private sector collaborate for promoting an empowering setting for education. This includes allocating resources to infrastructure developments, providing proper allocation of funds, and developing policies that prioritize education. Additionally, there must be a concerted effort to improve providing education for underrepresented populations, such as girls, children with disabilities, and refugees. Focusing on youth education plays a pivotal role in unleashing personal potential, driving upward mobility, and bridging the gap of inequality (Shamim, 2023).

Education is often used as an indicator of overall development, even more than income levels, because it helps measure how people can move up through generations. Unlike income, which can change with inflation and other factors, education is a more stable measure. Many studies show that higher education is linked to better earnings, better access to health care, and more economic opportunities (Reddy & Singh, 2021).

Todd and Ralph (2000) investigated the correlation between family income levels and educational attainment. This study found that family income and educational attainment are strongly correlated at various educational levels. Moreover, the study also focused on understanding the factors contributing to why students from low-income backgrounds are at a higher risk of not completing their college education, despite the widening wage gap between college graduates and those without a degree. The findings have profound implications for high-cost policy initiatives, such as California's recently approved full tuition subsidy program.

Serf (2002) revealed that economic theories related to educational attainment highlight the impact of social and economic factors within the home and its environment. Gary Becker's household production theory and human capital theory directly connect household resources and investments with children's educational attainment. The resources available to a family, such as computers and books, are influenced by factors like family size and disposable income. By using ordinary least squares models, the findings revealed a significant link between educational achievement and three primary factors: the mother's educational level, household income, and family size.

Ryan, McCarthy, & Newman (2007) showed that there are many variables which effect the educational attainment and some of those factors are discussed in details. Income plays a crucial role in educational achievement throughout a child's educational journey, with long-term factors being more significant than short-term credit constraints. Likelihood ratio tests are conducted and the results in the paper described that the long term factors such as cultural capital and wealth accumulation were important but they also emphasize the critical factors of grant eligibility/financial supports.

Sánchez & Sbrana (2009) explored the factors affecting educational attainment and development goals in Yemen. Logistic Regression Analysis was utilized, and its results demonstrated that education is a crucial investment in human capital, contributing to higher living standards and overall national development. Despite this understanding, many developing countries still face low levels of educational attainment. High rates of child labor are often correlated with these low levels. Families in severe financial hardship with school-aged children may not have the means to forgo the earnings these children could provide through work. As a

result, education, along with leisure, may be viewed as a "luxury" rather than a necessity for such families.

Sánchez & Sbrana (2009) studied the parental education is very important in determining educational outcomes, especially in developing countries. Educated parents are more likely to see the importance of basic education and have a higher likelihood of send their children to school compared to parents with little or no education. These parents understand the value of investing in education, which can improve their children's future job prospects. On the other hand, parents who started working at a young age and did not continue their education may not see schooling as important.

Marteleto (2010) studied how family factors, like parents' education and occupation, affect children's schooling. Multivariate analysis was used and it described that parents with more children spend less time with each child, which can hinder their development and success. This study showed that negative link between family size and educational attainment. Theories like sibling rivalry and resource dilution suggest that children with many siblings are disadvantaged in areas like education and well-being. In developing countries, there is also a negative link between family size and schooling: children from larger families often have educational disadvantages compared to those from smaller families.

Monserud and Elder (2011) studied that families with higher socioeconomic status (SES) possess both income and other resources that help children succeed in school. Logistic Regression analysis was used and it found that SES can directly affect educational outcomes by providing things that improve the quality of the residence of children, curriculums, and extracurricular activities. According to social learning theory, how a household structure affects a child might be different for boys and girls. Youth are more inclined to align with and adopt the attitudes, beliefs, and values of the parent of the same gender. The processes of gender socialization and perceived similarity may contribute to more effective and engaging interactions between children and their same-gender parent. Despite this, there is a paucity of research examining how gender disparity impact the educational success across various household structures.

Pekkarinen (2012) proposed that the growing educational gap between females and males is attributable to the relative effort and costs of education compared to the returns. Using cross-country comparisons, the study revealed that

since the 1980s, females have been experiencing increasing returns on their educational investments as they secure better job opportunities, whereas males have seen diminishing returns relative to females.

Shah and Anwar (2014) demonstrated that parents' economic status impacts children's education. Using the Simple Random Sampling method and a Chi-square test, they investigated how parents' occupations and family income affect children's academic performance. Their findings revealed that affluent parents are able to offer high-quality education and employ tutors, whereas those with lower incomes are unable to do so. Financial pressures frequently compel children from economically disadvantaged households to withdraw from school prematurely to enter job market. Parents' jobs and family income significantly impact children's academic performance. Higher family income is linked to better educational outcomes. Wealthy parents can offer better facilities, leading to improved performance. Low-income parents often work long hours, leaving little time for child development and education. The study also found that parental involvement and appreciation of children positively impact their performance. Overall, parents with better economic status provide better facilities, resulting in superior academic performance for their children.

Zimmerman and Woolf (2014) demonstrated that the connection between years of education and health is not strictly linear. Their regression analysis explored how educational attainment impacts health outcomes. Research has shown an inverse relationship between the number of years of education and the risk of death for individuals with less than a high school diploma. High school graduates experience a substantial reduction in this risk, with the benefit being five times greater compared to those with less education. Furthermore, the negative association between education and mortality risk becomes even more significant with additional years of schooling. The notable decrease in mortality risk at the high school graduation level highlights the significant value of obtaining this credential, beyond the general benefits of educational attainment.

PHE (2014) synthesizes existing research to illustrate the correlation between students' health, well-being, and academic performance. The study emphasizes that academic achievement significantly influences children's subjective life satisfaction and is linked to greater well-being in adulthood. Conversely, the overall well-being of

children affects their behavior, school engagement, and their initial ability to achieve academic competence.

Perna & Ruiz (2017) showed that the place of residence is important for understanding economic mobility and life expectancy, especially in education. This paper leverages spatial analysis to identify differences in college attainment across rural, urban, and suburban regions and it found that rural youth face many challenges in accessing and completing postsecondary education. They often have parents without bachelor's degrees and lower expectations for higher education. Rural students usually have reduced household annual incomes and increased poverty rates, making it harder to afford college. They also live far from four-year institutions, creating "education deserts" with few higher education options nearby. This forces rural students to travel long distances to attend college, adding extra costs and travel time. Rural economies rely more on industries like farming, manufacturing, and mining, but these sectors employ fewer people now and need higher education levels due to technological advancements.

White (2018) studied children's social circumstances and educational outcomes. The results showed that the critical role of parental income in children's education, revealing a strong association between poverty and poorer academic outcomes. Income directly influences education by enabling parents to access resources such as quality housing, childcare, educational toys, and extracurricular activities. This paper summarizes studies that examine the connections between factors such as poverty, parental education, and neighborhood characteristics with educational achievement. It showed that parents with higher incomes can get better education for their children by paying for private schools or buying homes in areas with good schools. They can also afford private tutoring and educational materials like study guides and exam papers. The costs of going to school, like uniforms and equipment for activities, also matter. Beyond these direct impacts, parental income indirectly affects education through its influence on parents' mental health. White (2018) also found that parental education, which is closely related to parental income, significantly affects children's outcomes. The duration and level of parents' education can shape how they interact with their children, the activities they promote, and their attitudes towards learning. As a result, greater parental educational attainment can reduce the effects of residing in a low-income household. Furthermore, educated parents can better access information and use public services. They understand the

education system better and can guide their children through it. Additionally, overcrowding can negatively impact relationships within households, impairing a parent's ability to provide warm and supportive parenting. Overcrowded living conditions have been found to increase Hazard of injury, respiratory ailments, and infection spread among children and young people, which can reduce school attendance.

Walter (2018) studied how parents' jobs affect their children's school performance. The study utilized a descriptive survey research approach and applied quantitative methods. The study found that students from families with lower-paying jobs did not do as well in school. The study also showed that students' school performance is influenced by their parents' income and jobs. Parents' jobs determine their income, and higher-status jobs usually mean higher income. Because of this, it is important to teach parents how to earn more money to pay for school fees, which can help improve students' performance in school. Socioeconomic factors, like family income and parents' education levels, greatly effect access to education. Low parental education can make it harder for parents to value the consequence of education, further limiting the opportunities of children.

Atolagbe, Umaru, and Oparinde (2019) explored how the occupational background of parents affects the academic progress of public secondary school students in Osogbo, Osun State, Nigeria. They employed a simple random sampling method to select 200 students from 18 high schools in the city. Descriptive statistics were used to summarize the data, while inferential statistics, including Pearson correlation, were employed to examine the relationship between parents' occupational backgrounds and academic performance of students. The findings highlighted a significant relationship between parents' occupations and students' academic outcomes in Osogbo. Students whose parents held regular salaried positions, particularly in office or school environments, demonstrated higher academic achievement compared to those whose parents were unemployed or had irregular incomes. Moreover, students whose parents worked in office or school environments achieved better academic results compared to those whose parents were employed in other settings. Additionally, students with parents who worked late or were frequently away on extended trips generally had lower academic performance than those whose parents were more consistently present at home. The study recommended that government schools make sure timely payment of salaries and benefits to income

earners, enabling parents to better support their children's educational needs, alongside government efforts to address these disparities.

Bertocchi and Bozzano (2019) studied gender gap in education and the authors primarily use a historical and comparative approach to analyze gender gaps in education across different time periods and regions. This study employed descriptive statistics and regression analysis. The results indicated that the enhancement in female educational achievement is linked to rising post-school expectations for women and their greater likelihood of pursuing high-income careers compared to men.

Team (2020) investigated the impact of parents' educational levels on child educational outcomes by employing descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, and comparative tests such as ANOVA and t-tests. The study explored the relationships and differences in educational outcomes across various levels of parental education. The study highlighted that parental investment in young children is a significant predictor of their future success. Overall, parents with advanced educational backgrounds, especially those with over four years of college experience, are more likely to dedicate significant time to their children's development, seeing it as a valuable investment in their children's abilities and potential. In contrast, parents with lower levels of education are less likely to provide such guidance, allowing their children's talents and skills to develop with minimal intervention. Additionally, parents with higher income and education levels are more actively involved in their children's education, which plays a crucial role in the educational success of adolescents.

Shah & Hussain (2021) revealed that occupational prestige, a key part of socioeconomic status, includes income and educational attainment. The study employed a range of statistical methods, including descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, and regression analysis. Findings indicate that occupational status is closely linked to educational achievement because higher education often leads to better job opportunities and better job retention. The level of parental education is a crucial determinant of students' academic performance. Moreover, a parent's career affects the quality of education and support that children receive at home. The parent's job significantly impacts their children's educational experience and academic outcomes. The nature of a parent's occupation determines their income and social status, which in turn affects their parenting styles, disciplinary methods, and reactions to their children. Parents with high-status or prestigious jobs are better able to provide

security for their children, handle emergencies, absorb economic shocks, and ensure a comfortable living standard. Parental occupation is a key determinant of income, significantly influencing various aspects of a child's development, particularly their academic growth and progress. The sample included students from both professional and non-professional courses at the undergraduate, postgraduate, and doctoral levels, ensuring equal gender representation. Data was collected using a structured interview schedule, supplemented by non-participant observation, to obtain accurate, first-hand information. To ensure the effectiveness of the interview schedule, a pilot study was undertaken, which included both close and open-ended questions to ensure clarity and relevance. The study of Shah and Hussain seek to comprehensively investigate and analyzed the impact of parental income on the academic performance of students attending different educational institutions in the Srinagar district of the union territory of Jammu and Kashmir.

Gishiwa & Muktar (2021) described the marital status denotes the condition of being married, encompassing the legal or customary relationship between spouses. The study used descriptive statistics to analyze the demographic data of the respondents, containing sexual characteristics, age, and academic level. In addition, inferential statistics were used to evaluate the hypotheses. Specifically, the study employed t-tests to examine differences in academic performance between married and unmarried students. It reflects an individual's personal status in accordance with the marriage laws or customs of a particular country. Marital status encompasses various classifications such as single, married, widowed, separated, divorced, or divorcee, each indicating a distinct position within the marital framework. It is found that married students tend to achieve higher academic performance compared to their unmarried counterparts. These findings are consistent with Akande's (2007) observations, which proposed that home and family factors play a crucial role in students' academic success. Likewise, Hijaz and Naqvi (2006) emphasized the significant influence of students' marital status on their academic performance.

Matthews (2021) portrayed that the location and condition of a child's home significantly impact their physical, cognitive, and emotional development, affecting their education through better attendance, cognitive health, and academic achievement. The paper primarily discusses the relationship between housing conditions and educational outcomes, drawing on existing research and observational data rather than employing new statistical analyses or methodologies. The focus is on

synthesizing findings from various studies to illustrate how stable and quality housing can positively impact children's education. It showed that while it's challenging to directly connect housing to education, studies show that owning a decent, affordable, and stable home leads to positive educational outcomes. Low-income families often live in substandard conditions with structural issues, water leakage, and pest infestations. Many low-income renters face severe rent burdens or live in inadequate shelters. Children in such homes are more prone to health problems like respiratory issues, lead poisoning, and stress, leading to more school absences and poor academic performance. Thus, low-income households need access to affordable, healthy housing in diverse neighborhoods to improve children's educational outcomes. Low-income families often share housing with other adults to cut costs, leading to income-segregated neighborhoods with schools that have fewer resources compared to wealthier areas..

Thompson (2023) focused on how feminist movements have worked towards achieving gender equality in education, professional settings, and broader societal contexts. The analysis leans on sociological theories and qualitative data to explain the disparities in educational outcomes between genders. It described that feminist sociologists revealed these changes happened because of efforts to highlight gender inequalities and push governments, schools, and teachers to fight patriarchy and provide true equality. These efforts have raised the expectations and self-esteem of girls. The OECD (2015) points to several factors contributing to the gender disparity in education, including students' attitudes towards learning, their school conduct, how they spend their free time, and their self-confidence.

Troost, Ham, and Manley (2023) found that individuals in affluent and highly educated neighborhoods can pass on their social and cultural capital through local social networks. Their study employed longitudinal analysis using register data from the Netherlands, tracking a cohort from birth until age 18 and evaluating educational outcomes at age 23. Regression models were applied to analyze how exposure to neighborhood affluence and poverty at different stages of life affected educational achievements, and how these effects varied with parental education levels. The study highlighted that wealthy neighbors often encourage higher education and successful careers and support community initiatives that benefit their children. Wealthier residents typically uphold higher standards for extracurricular activities, investing in sports and cultural programs. Consequently, children and teenagers gain both practical

skills and the social knowledge needed to thrive in affluent settings. Additionally, the research revealed that high-income neighborhoods with more homogeneous populations show greater local solidarity than poorer or mixed-income neighborhoods.

Klapp and Gustafsson (2024) explored the relationship between students' well-being and their academic performance using data from Swedish compulsory schools. They utilized confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling to analyze how students' well-being impacts their academic success. These methods helped in examining the well-being dimensions and their impact on academic outcomes, as well as investigating differences between cohorts and genders. The researchers also discovered that the well-being of children and young people has become a major issue in many OECD countries, as noted in an OECD report (2019) using data from the 2018 Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). The report highlighted a decrease in students' sense of belonging, which involves feelings of acceptance, liking, and connection within their schools, particularly among those in schools with low socioeconomic status (SES). This decline corresponds with a negative trend observed over the past 15 years. The study defined psychological well-being as encompassing overall emotions and mental health, while school-related psychological well-being specifically includes factors such as anxiety, distress, nervousness, stress, and self-esteem related to the school environment. Cognitive wellbeing relates to perceptions of intellectual capabilities, and social wellbeing pertains to supportive social relationships. Studies have linked students' wellbeing to their academic achievement, with varying results. Some suggest a positive relationship, while others indicate a negative one. The results also found that general wellbeing has positively influence on academic achievement, though this impact decreases with age. Competitive school environments may enhance performance but often fail to foster school-related wellbeing. Some students may rely on their school-related wellbeing to perform well, while others may perform well at the expense of their wellbeing.

2.3   Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this study centers on the factors influencing youth educational attainment in Myanmar, which are outlined through a broad range of sociodemographic and demographic variables. The youth educational attainment is considered as the dependent variable while the youth specific socioeconomic and

demographic factors are considered as independent variables which include age, gender, marital status, occupation, place of residence, states and regions, household size, household annual income and the type of house. This framework is designed to give an in-depth understanding of the factors that impact educational outcomes for youth in Myanmar.

Independent Variables

- Age of Youth
- Gender of Youth
- Marital Status of Youth
- Occupation of Youth
- Place of Residence
- States and Regions
- Household Size
- Household Annual Income
- Type of House

Dependent Variable

Educational
Attainment of Youth
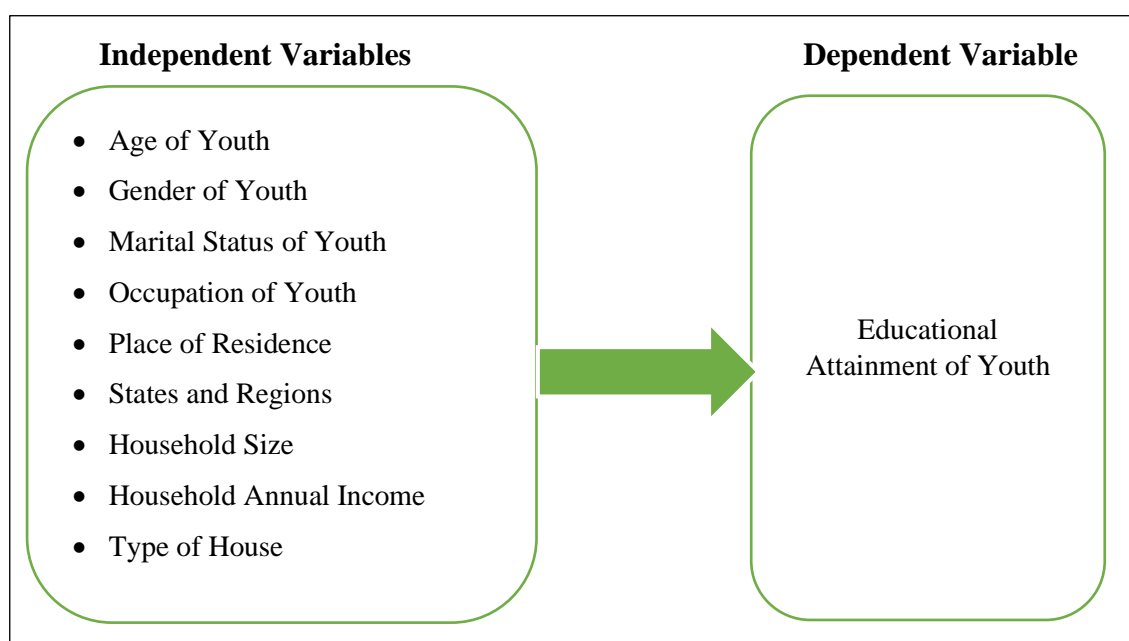
Figure (2.1)   Conceptual Framework
Source: Own Compilation

CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter outlines the methodological framework employed to analyze the association between youth educational attainment and various demographic and socio-economic characteristics in Myanmar. The primary objective is to identify and quantify the factors that influence educational outcomes among the youth population. To accomplish this, two statistical methods were utilized: the Chi-square test and the Multinomial Logistic Regression Model. The chi-square test of association is utilized to examine the association between categorical variables, specifically to determine if significant relationships exist between educational attainment and demographic as well as socio-economic factors. The Multinomial Logistic Regression Model is employed to analyze the factors affecting youth educational attainment, providing insights into the impact of these variables on different levels of educational achievement. The analysis leverages data from reliable 2019 Inter-Censal Survey, ensuring the robustness and validity of the findings.

3.1   Source of Data

According to UNFPA, the study primarily utilizes data from the 2019 Inter-censal Survey (ICS), which the Ministry of Population launched in November 2019. This survey marked the government's first major effort to obtain up-to-date data on demographic changes in Myanmar. The 2019 ICS aimed to document the various transformations occurring in the country and to inform national socio-demographic and economic planning. Additionally, it was created to supply baseline data for the National Indicator Framework (NIF) of the Myanmar Sustainable Development Plan (MSDP) and to assess the development of the country towards achieving the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Data collection for the 2019 ICS was conducted by operating the Computer-Assisted Personal Interviewing (CAPI) system, which ensured a high degree of integration and accuracy through stringent controls. Comprehensive data editing and validation processes were implemented to maintain internal consistency and minimize errors, resulting in a refined dataset. However, minor discrepancies may exist when compared to the initially published results.

The survey collected comprehensive individual-level data covering various aspects such as demographics, migration, education, labor force participation, fertility, mortality, disability, the elderly population, community activities, well-being, and household characteristics, including equipment, drinking water sources, sanitation, and hygiene. The questionnaire contained 110 questions.

Field operations were carried out in four distinct phases: The first phase involved enumeration in Kachin State, Chin State (hard-to-reach areas), and Nay Pyi Taw from November 18 to December 1, 2019. The second phase covered Kayah State, Kayin State, Mon State, Tanintharyi Region, and Ayeyawady Region from December 11 to 24, 2019. The third phase included Bago Region, Sagaing Region, and Magway Region from January 2 to 15, 2020. The final phase took place in Yangon Region, Mandalay Region, Rakhine State, and Shan State from January 16 to 29, 2020.

3.2 Pearson's Chi-Square Test of Association

Statistical tests are fundamental in scientific research and significantly influence the interpretation of research results. The choice of statistical tests can greatly impact how data are analyzed and the conclusions drawn from a study. While the theoretical framework is important, the application of statistical tests can alter data analysis, presenting a challenge in maintaining accurate interpretations. The effectiveness of these tests in uncovering truths depends on their appropriate use and purpose, affecting the study's power, reliability, quality, and significance. Data analysis, along with statistical tests and hypotheses, is a crucial part of the research process.

Studies commonly involve both parametric and non-parametric tests. Non-parametric tests, including the Chi-square test, are employed for analyzing categorical data. The Chi-square test is commonly used because it assesses relationships between non-numeric variables. To apply the test accurately, certain criteria must be met, including random sampling of observed and expected frequencies, sample independence, and an adequate sample size. Developed by Karl Pearson, Chi-square tests, including goodness of fit tests, independence tests, and homogeneity tests, are significant contributions to statistical theory. The Chi-square distribution enables the interpretation of results without assuming a normal distribution. The significance of Chi-square values is assessed using Chi-square tables, which are based on degrees of

freedom and significance levels. The primary purpose of the Chi-square test is to evaluate hypotheses about associations between groups and to determine how well observed data match expected distributions (Turhan, 2020;Rana & Singhal, 2015).

The Chi-square test of independence evaluates whether categorical variables are correlated within specific populations. Given that sample variables often differ from their population counterparts, a strong correlation between variables is unlikely if they are independent in the entire population. Consequently, if variables are found to be independent in the population, they are likely to exhibit similar independence in the sample (Turhan, 2020;Rana & Singhal, 2015).

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{(O - E)^2}{E}$$

In the Chi-square test, O represents the observed frequency, while E denotes the expected frequency. The value of P represents the probability of obtaining a sample statistic that is as extreme as the observed test statistic. Since the test statistic used is chi-square, it is utilized to determine the probability associated with these statistics. The previously calculated degrees of freedom are applied to this context (Turhan, 2020; Rana & Singhal, 2015).

The assumptions of the Chi-square test include the following:

- ☐ The data must be randomly drawn from the population.
- ☐ Each cell should have an expected count of at least five, and no cells should have a zero count.
- ☐ The sample size must be sufficiently large, as applying the Chi-square test to a small sample could result in Type II errors.
- ☐ The variables analyzed need to be mutually exclusive, meaning each variable should only be assigned to one category and should not overlap with others, ensuring that no item is counted more than once (Turhan, 2020;Rana & Singhal, 2015).

3.3   Multinomial Logistic Regression Model

The use of specialized statistical methods for analyzing categorical data has seen significant growth, particularly within the biomedical and social sciences. Regression analysis serves as a fundamental technique for exploring the relationships between multiple variables. The selection of a regression method is contingent upon

the nature of the data. Logistic regression, or the logit model, primarily comprises two types: binary logistic regression and multinomial logistic regression. Binary logistic regression is employed when the dependent variable is dichotomous, meaning it has two possible outcomes, with independent variables that can be either continuous or categorical. Conversely, multinomial logistic regression is utilized when the dependent variable consists of more than two categories, allowing for the analysis of outcomes with multiple possible values. (Elhabil, 2012).

The multinomial logistic regression model is often preferred because of not the unnecessary assumptions of normality, linearity, or homoscedasticity. Although discriminant function analysis is a more robust alternative, it requires these assumptions to be satisfied. Consequently, the multinomial logistic regression model is more commonly used due to its less restrictive requirements. The primary assumption of multinomial logistic regression is that the choice or membership in one category is independent of the choice or membership in another category. This model generalizes binary logistic regression to accommodate outcomes with more than two categories. Similar to binary logistic regression, multinomial logistic regression uses maximum likelihood estimation to evaluate the probability of being in various categories. However, unlike binary logistic regression, which can incorporate continuous variables, multinomial logistic regression does not support continuous variables as response variables and is restricted to a single response variable.(Elhabil, 2012).

The model assumes the presence of "n" independent observations, each with "p" explanatory variables, and a qualitative response variable with "k" categories. P_j represents the probability of an observation falling into the jth category. The relationship between this probability and the p explanatory variables $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_p$, is analyzed with respect to the reference category and the kth category (Hosmer and Lemeshow,2000). The model of multinomial logistic regression is described as;

$$\log\left[\frac{p_j}{p_k}\right] = \beta_0 + \beta_{1j}X_{1i} + \beta_{2j}X_{2i} + \cdots + \beta_{pj}X_{pi}$$

Where j=1,2,…,(k-1), i=1,2,…,n

$P_j = P(Y=j^{th}$ interested outcome $|X_i=x)$

$\log(p_j) = \dfrac{e^{(\beta_0 + \beta_{1j}X_{1i} + \cdots + \beta_{pj}X_{pi})}}{1 + e^{(\beta_0 + \beta_{1j}X_{1i} + \cdots + \beta_{pj}X_{pi})}}$

3.3.1 Parameter Estimating in the Logistic Regression Model

The maximum likelihood method is used to estimate the parameters in logistic regression analysis. This technique involves determining the parameter values that maximize the likelihood of observing the given data under the specified model. By optimizing these estimates, the maximum likelihood method ensures that the model best fits the data under the specified assumptions. Maximizing the probability of obtaining the data set, β_0 and β_1 values will be provided by maximum likelihood. Given the unknown parameters (β_0 and β_1), the likelihood function is applied to estimate the probability of observing the data. The "likelihood" refers to the probability of obtaining the observed values of the dependent variable based on the observed values of the independent variables. This likelihood ranges from 0 to 1, similar to other probabilities, and represents the probability of observing the given data under the specified model (Hosmer and Lemeshow, 2000). The joint probability of the data which is the likelihood is given by;

$$L = \prod_{i=1}^{n} p^{y_i} (1-p)^{1-y_i}$$

$$= (p)^{\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i} (1-p)^{n-\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i}$$

Natural logarithm of the likelihood is

L=Log(L)= $\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \, logp + (n - \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i)\log(1-p)$

β_0 and β_1 iare estimated by using the first derivatives of the log-likelihood function and solving the resulting equations. Initially, arbitrary values for the coefficients are chosen (typically 0), after which the log-likelihood is computed and the coefficient variations are examined. This process is repeated iteratively until the log-likelihood is maximized to l (equivalent to maximizing L) and the obtained results is the maximum likelihood estimates of β_0 and β_1 (Hosmer and Lemeshow, 2000).

3.3.2 Goodness of Fit Test and Selecting Predictor Variables for Logistic Regression

When estimating the parameters of a logistic regression model using the maximum likelihood estimator, it is necessary to assess the significance of the variables to predict the response variable effectively. This assessment can be

performed using various statistical methods, including the likelihood ratio test, Wald test, and pseudo R-squared measures. These test statistics follow a chi-square distribution, with degrees of freedom equal to the number of predictors (Hosmer and Lemeshow, 2000).

Likelihood Ratio Test

The overall fit of a model indicates how well the combined independent variables collectively explain the variation in the dependent variable. To assess this, one compares model adequacy: one that includes the independent variables and another that excludes them. A logistic regression model with k independent variables is considered to provide a better fit to the data if it shows an improvement over the null model, which has no independent variables (Gujarati, 2012). The overall fit of the model, characterized by k coefficients, can be evaluated through a likelihood ratio test, which tests hypotheses in the following manner:

$H_0 = \beta_0 = \beta_2 = \cdots = \beta_k = 0$

H_1: At least one of the independent variables has a value other than zero (Gujarati, 2012).

To evaluate the fit of the models, the deviance of two models is compared: one that includes only the intercept (the null model) and another that incorporates the independent variables (the model under consideration). Deviance measures the discrepancy between observed and predicted outcomes. The likelihood of the null model represents the probability of observing the data when the independent variables have no effect on the outcome. In contrast, the likelihood of the model with independent variables reflects the probability of obtaining the data when these variables are included. The difference between the deviances of these two models yields a goodness-of-fit statistic known as the G statistic, which follows a chi-square distribution with k degrees of freedom. This statistic measures how much the inclusion of independent variables improves the prediction of the outcome or dependent variable (Gujarati, 2012).

The statistics is described as

$$-2\log\left(\frac{L_0}{L_1}\right) = -2[\log(L_0) - \log(L_1)] = -2(l_0 - l_1)$$

l_0 = the maximum value for the likelihood function of a simple model

l_1 = the maximum value for the likelihood function of a full model.

The likelihood ratio test calculates the ratio of maximum likelihoods before applying the natural logarithm and multiplying by -2. This test evaluates the overall fit of the model. If the p-value associated with the overall model fit statistic is below the standard threshold of 0.05, we reject the null hypothesis (H_0). This indicates that there is evidence suggesting that at least one of the independent variables contributes to predicting the outcome (Gujarati, 2012).

Wald Test

The Wald test is used to assess the significance of individual explanatory variables within a statistical model. In logistic regression, where the outcome variable is binary and multiple explanatory variables are included, each variable has an associated parameter. The Wald test, as outlined by Polit (1996) and Agresti (1990), is one of several methods employed to determine whether the parameters for a set of explanatory variables are significantly different from zero. If the Wald test indicates that a particular variable or group of variables is significant, it suggests that their associated parameters are not zero, thereby supporting the inclusion of these variables in the model. Conversely, a lack of significance in the Wald test implies that the associated explanatory variables may be candidates for exclusion from the model (Elhabil, 2012). The Wald test is computed using a vector-matrix approach that involves the parameter vector, its transpose, and the inverse of the variance-covariance matrix of the parameter estimates (Hosmer and Lemeshow, 2000). The formula is as follows;

$$W = \frac{\widehat{\beta_i}}{SE(\widehat{\beta_i})}$$

$\widehat{\beta_i}$ = the estimate of the coefficient of the independent variable x_i

SE $(\widehat{\beta_i})$ = the standard error of $\widehat{\beta_i}$

The squared value of the Wald statistics shown below is chi-square distributed with one degree of freedom.

$$W^2 = \left(\frac{\widehat{\beta_i}}{SE(\widehat{\beta_i})}\right)^2$$

The Wald statistic follows a chi-square distribution with 1 degree of freedom. The null hypothesis is rejected if the p-value corresponding to the Wald statistic is below the selected significance level (α). A coefficient is deemed significant in the model if

its p-value is less than the significance level α, suggesting that the variable plays an important role in the model (Hosmer and Lemeshow, 2000).

R-square for Logistic Regression

Cox and Snell's R^2 is derived from comparing the log-likelihood of the model to that of a baseline model. However, in the context of categorical outcomes, its maximum value is inherently less than 1, even for a model that fits the data perfectly. Nagelkerke's R^2 modifies Cox and Snell's measure to adjust for this limitation, allowing the statistic to span the entire range from 0 to 1. McFadden's **R^2** offers an alternative measure of model fit by utilizing the log-likelihood values of both the intercept-only model and the fully specified model (Gujarati, 2012).

The R^2 for logistic regression is estimated by Cox and Snell R^2 calculated as

$$Cox\&Snell\ R^2 = \left[\frac{-LL_0 - LL_k}{-LL_0}\right]^{n/2}$$

3.4 Definition of Variables used in Analysis

The Table (3.1) presents the variables utilized in examining the determinants of educational attainment among youth aged 15-24 in Myanmar. These variables include both the dependent variable, educational attainment, and various independent variables such as age, gender, marital status, occupation, place of residence, states and regions, household size, household annual income, and type of house. Each variable is categorized and coded to facilitate statistical analysis and interpretation.

Table (3.1)   Definition of Variables used in Analysis

Variable Type	Definition	Variable Code
Dependent Variable		
Educational Attainment of youth (aged 15-24) in Myanmar	The level of education attained by youth aged 15-24 in Myanmar, categorized into four levels: no education, primary and below, secondary education, and higher education and above.	1 = No Education 2 = Primary and Below 3 = Secondary Education 4 = Higher Education and Above
Age of Youth	The age group of individuals, divided into two categories: 15-20 years and 21-24 years.	1 = 15-20 years 2 = 21-24 years
Gender of Youth	The gender of individuals, categorized as male or female.	1 = Male 2 = Female
Marital Status of Youth	It indicates whether individuals are never married or ever married	1 = Never Married 2 = Ever Married
Occupation of Youth	The employment status of individuals, categorized as employed or unemployed.	1 = Employed 2 = Unemployed
Place of Residence	Classification of individuals based on their residential area as urban or rural.	1 = Urban 2 = Rural
State and Region	The region or state within Myanmar where individuals reside	1 = Kachin 2 = Kayah 3 = Kayin 4 = Chin 5 = Sagaing 6 = Tanintharyi 7 = Bago 8 = Magway 9 = Mandalay 10 = Mon 11 = Naypyitaw 12 = Yangon 13 = Shan 14 = Ayeyawady 15 = Rakhine

Table (3.1) Definition of Variables used in Analysis (Continued)

Variable Type	Definition	Variable Code
Household size	The number of members in a household, categorized into three groups: 1-3, 4-6 and 7 and above	1 = 1-3 2 = 4-6 3 = 7 and above
Household annual income	The income level of households, divided into three categories: Below 10 Lakhs, 10-50 Lakhs, and Above 50 Lakhs.	1 = Below 10 Lakhs 2 = 10-50 Lakhs 3 = Above 50 Lakhs
Type of Housing Unit	The type of housing units individuals reside in as Permanent Structures or Temporary Structures.	1 = Permanent Structures (Condominium / Apartment / Flat/ Bungalow / Brick House/ Semi-pacca House) 2 = Temporary Structures (Wooden House, Bamboo House, Hut (2-3 years), Hut (1 year), Other)

Source: The 2019 Myanmar Inter-censal Survey

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND FINDINGS OF YOUTH EDUCATIONAL

ATTAINMENT

This chapter presents the results of descriptive analysis, Chi-square tests and multinomial logistic regression model analysis on educational attainment and demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of youth in Myanmar.

4.1   Demographic and Socioeconomic Characteristics of Youth in Myanmar

The demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of youth in Myanmar are shown in Table 4.1. Out of 85851 youth included in this study, 65% have achieved secondary education, followed by 18% which have achieved primary education and below, 12.5% which have achieved higher education and above and 4.5% which have not achieved any education, respectively.

The most of sampled youth (63.4%) are at age group 15-20 years, followed by 36.6% at age group 21-24. The gender distribution among Myanmar's youth is quite balanced. Among total youth included in this study, there are 51% females and 49% males. Most of youth in Myanmar, 78.5% have never been married whereas only 21.5% have been married at least once. Moreover, 72.5% of youth are unemployed and 27.5% are employed. The percentage of youth living in rural areas is 70.5 whereas only 29.5% of youth live in urban areas.

Youth are not evenly distributed across states and regions of Myanmar. Most of youth 13.4% live in Sagain Region, followed by 11.9% who live in Shan State, 11.6% who live in Mandalay, 11% who live in Yangon, 10.6% who live in Ayeyawady, 7.5% who live in Bago, 6.7% who live in Magway, 5.5% who live in Kachin, 4.8% who live in Kayin, 4.5% who live in Tanintharyi, 3.7% who live in Mon, 2.8% who live in Naypyitaw, 2.4% who live in Chin, 1.8% who live in Kayah and 1.7% live in Rakhine. It is appeared that the least percentage of youth live in the undeveloped states and regions such as Chin, Kayah and Rakhine. Naypyitaw is exceptional for this result. Despite having a relatively low percentage of youth, it is not an underdeveloped region. As the capital city, it is primarily home to families of office employees, which contributes to its unique demographic profile.

The household size distribution among youth in Myanmar indicates that the majority of youth (57.4%) live in the household with 4-6 members, followed by

26.3% of youth who live in the households with 7 and above member and 16.3% who live in the households with 1-3 members. Income distribution of households shows that there are 78.7 % of youth whose household earn less than 10 lakh, followed by 21.2% whose household earn 10 to 15 lakh and 0.1% of youth whose household earn over 50 lakh. According to the type of house, 70.4% of youth live in temporary structures, while 29.6% of youth live in permanent structures.

Table (4.1)   Demographic and Socioeconomic Characteristics of Youth in Myanmar

Demographic and Socioeconomic Characteristics	Classification	Total	
		Number	Percent
Educational Attainment of Youth	No Education	3855	4.5
	Primary Education and Below	15437	18.0
	Secondary Education	55818	65.0
	Higher Education and Above	10741	12.5
Age of Youth	15-20	54445	63.4
	21-24	31406	36.6
Gender of Youth	Male	42105	49.0
	Female	43746	51.0
Marital Status of Youth	Never Married	67362	78.5
	Ever Married	18489	21.5
Occupation of Youth	Employed	23616	27.5
	Unemployed	62235	72.5
Place of Residence	Urban	25323	29.5
	Rural	60528	70.5
State and Region	Kachin	4722	5.5
	Kayah	1554	1.8
	Kayin	4095	4.8
	Chin	2083	2.4
	Sagaing	11479	13.4
	Tanintharyi	3857	4.5
	Bago	6445	7.5
	Magway	5777	6.7
	Mandalay	9999	11.6
	Mon	3211	3.7
	Naypyitaw	2428	2.8
	Yangon	9417	11.0
	Shan	10225	11.9
	Ayeyawady	9085	10.6
	Rakhine	1474	1.7

Table (4.1)   Demographic and Socioeconomic Characteristics of Youth in Myanmar (Continued)

Demographic and Socioeconomic Characteristics	Classification	Total	
		Number	Percent
Household Size	1-3	13993	16.3
	4-6	49307	57.4
	7 and above	22551	26.3
Household Annual Income	Below 10 Lakhs	67552	78.7
	10-50 Lakhs	18241	21.2
	Above 50 lakhs	58	0.1
Type of House	Permanent Structures	25437	29.6
	Temporary Structures	60414	70.4

Source: The 2019 Myanmar Inter-censal Survey

4.2   The Relationship between Youth Educational Attainment and Demographic and Socioeconomic Characteristics in Myanmar

The Pearson Chi-square association test is employed to examine the relationship between educational attainment and various demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of youth in Myanmar. Table 4.2 presents the results of the chi-square test, indicating that age, gender, marital status, occupation, place of residence, states and regions, household size, household annual income, and type of house are significantly associated with educational attainment among youth at a 1% significance level.

Table (4.2)   The Relationship between Youth Educational Attainment and Demographic and Socioeconomic Characteristics in Myanmar

Independent Variables		No Education	Primary Education and Below	Secondary Education	Higher Education and Above	Chi-square	p-value
		%	%	%	%		
Age of Youth	15-20	4.00	15.12	72.17	8.71	3646.790***	0.000
	21-24	5.34	22.94	52.62	19.10		
Gender of Youth	Male	5.01	18.56	66.69	9.75	109.928***	0.000
	Female	3.99	17.43	63.41	15.17		
Marital Status of Youth	Never Married	3.72	14.34	67.41	14.53	4015.514***	0.000
	Ever Married	7.30	31.26	56.28	5.17		
Occupation of Youth	Employed	4.11	25.18	58.56	12.14	1162.162 ***	0.000
	Unemployed	4.63	15.25	67.47	12.65		
Place of Residence	Urban	2.40	10.31	66.84	20.44	3349.250 ***	0.000
	Rual	5.36	21.19	64.25	9.19		
State and Region	Kachin	1.65	9.91	74.54	13.89	6722.224 ***	0.000
	Kayah	2.38	18.21	68.60	10.81		
	Kayin	7.16	21.39	62.10	9.35		
	Chin	2.59	9.99	78.49	8.93		
	Sagaing	2.87	15.61	68.81	12.71		
	Tanintharyi	2.54	21.99	65.44	10.03		
	Bago	2.75	22.79	64.78	9.68		
	Magway	2.11	16.53	67.23	14.12		
	Mandalay	2.15	16.74	67.00	14.11		
	Mon	3.92	19.99	61.85	14.23		
	Naypyitaw	2.76	16.72	68.45	12.07		
	Yangon	1.76	11.66	66.46	20.11		
	Shan	17.34	21.98	51.19	9.50		
	Ayeyawady	2.91	24.67	63.05	9.38		
	Rakhine	3.80	15.60	68.11	12.48		
Household Size	1-3	4.60	20.99	61.47	12.94	109.928 ***	0.000
	4-6	3.99	16.06	66.37	13.59		
	7 and above	5.52	20.32	64.27	9.89		
Household Annual Income	Below 10 Lakhs	4.17	17.27	65.39	13.18	286.482 ***	0.000
	10-50 Lakhs	5.69	20.61	63.67	10.03		
	Above 50 Lakhs	1.72	20.69	58.62	18.97		
Type of House	Permanent Structures	3.15	10.74	64.78	21.34	3449.826***	0.000
	Temporary Structures	5.06	21.03	65.12	8.80		

Source: The 2019 Myanmar Inter-censal Survey

As described in Table 4.2, the results showed that among youth aged 15-20, 72.17% have achieved secondary education, followed by 15.12% which have achieved primary education and below, 8.71% which have achieved higher education and above and 4% which have achieved no education. Among youth aged 21-24, 52.62% have attained secondary education, followed by 22.94% which have attained primary education and below, 19.1% which have attained higher education and above and 5.34% which have attained no education. Most of youth in both age groups have achieved secondary education while more youth in 21-24 age group have achieved higher education and above.

Among males, 66.69% of male youth have achieved secondary education, followed by 18.56% which have achieved primary education and above, 9.75% which have achieved higher education and above and 5.01% which have achieved no education. Similarly, 63.41% of female youth have attained secondary education, 17.43% of female youth have achieved primary and below education, 15.17% of female youth have achieved higher education and above and 3.99% of female youth have no education. Therefore, percentage of female youth who achieve higher education and above are more than that of male youth. Furthermore, the percentage of no education is higher in male youth than that in female youth.

Among never married youth, 67.41% have achieved secondary education, followed by 14.53% which have achieved higher education and above, 14.34% which have achieved primary education and below and 3.72% which have achieved no education. Among ever married youth, 56.28% have attained secondary education, followed by 31.26% which have attained primary education and below, 7.3% which have no education and 5.17% which have attained higher education and above. Therefore ever married youth have lower rates of higher education and above and higher rates of no education compared to its counterparts.

Among employed youth, 58.56% have achieved secondary education, followed by 25.18% which have achieved primary and below education, 12.14% which have achieved higher education and above and 4.11% have no education. In contrast 67.47% of unemployed youth have attained secondary education, followed by 15.25% which have attained primary education and below, 12.65% which have attained higher education and above and 4.63% which have no education. Unemployed youth have achieved higher rates of higher education and above.

According to place of residence, 66.84% of urban residents have achieved secondary education, followed by 20.44% which have achieved higher education, 10.31% which have achieved primary and below education and 2.4% which have no education. On the other hand, 64.25% of rural residents have achieved secondary education, followed by 21.19% which have achieved primary and below education, 9.19% which have achieved higher education and above and 5.36% which have no education. Higher rates of urban residents have achieved higher education and above compared to rural residents.

It is observed that educational attainment differs across various states and regions. For higher education and above, youth in Yangon, Sagaing and Mandalay Regions have the largest percentage while youth in Rakhine and Kayah States have the lowest percentage. Youth in Sagaing, Mandalay and Yangon have the largest percentage of achieving secondary education while youth in Kayah and Rakhine have the lowest percentage of achieving secondary education. Moreover, youth in Shan, Ayeyawady and Sagaing have achieved higher percentage of primary education and below while youth in Rakhine and Chin have achieved smallest percentage of primary education and below. Youth in Shan, Sagain and Kyain have higher percentage of no education while youth in Chin and Kayah has lowest percentage of no education. Concerning the percentage of the youth for each regional and state at the higher education and above level, the largest amount can be seen in Yangon Region. In Kachin State, 74.54% of the youth attain secondary education level which is the second largest amount among states and regions. Youth in Ayeyawady region have the largest percentage of 24.67% at primary education and below level.

Among youth in households with 1-3 members, 61.47% have attained secondary education, followed by 20.99% which have attained primary and below education,12.94% which have achieved higher education and 4.6% which have achieved no education. 66.37% of youth in households with 4-6 member have achieved secondary education, followed by 16.06% which have achieved primary and below education, 13.59% have achieved higher education and above and 3.99% which have achieved no education. Among youth in households with 7 and above members, 64.27% have achieved secondary education, 20.32% achieved primary and below education, 9.98% have achieved higher education and above and 5.52% have achieved no education respectively. Youth in household with 1-3 and 4-6 members

have higher rates of higher education and above compared to youth in households with 7 and above.

Among youth living in the household with below 10 lakh household annual income, 65.39% have attained secondary education, followed by 17.27% which have attained primary and below education, 13.18% which have achieved higher education and above and 4.17% which have achieved no education. In contrast, 63.67% of youth living in the household with 10 to 50 lakhs household annual income have achieved secondary education, followed by 20.61% which have achieved primary education and below, 10.03% which have achieved higher education and above and 5.69% which have achieved no education. Among youth living in highest household annual income (above 50 lakhs), 58.62% have achieved secondary education, followed by 20.69% which have achieved primary and below education, 18.97% which have achieved higher education and above and 1.72% which have achieved no education. Youth from highest income group have achieved higher rates of higher education and above.

According to the results, 64.78% of youth living in permanent structure have attained secondary education, followed by 21.34% which have attained higher education and above, 10.74% which have attained primary education and above and 3.13% which have attained no education. On the other hand, 65.12% of youth living in temporary structures have attained secondary education, followed by 21.03% which have attained primary and below education, 8.8% which have attained higher education and above and 5.06% which have attained no education. Youth living in permanent structures have attained higher rates of higher education and above.

4.3 Multinomial Logistic Regression Analysis for Educational Attainment of Youth in Myanmar

The multinomial logistic regression model is used with youth educational attainment in Myanmar as the dependent variable. It is coded as 1 if the youth does not attain any education, 2 if the youth attain primary and below, 3 if the youth attain secondary education and 4 if the youth attain higher education and above. In this study, the reference category for the multinomial logistic regression model is no education. The independent variables include place of residence, gender of youth, occupation of youth, age of youth, marital status of youth, household annual income,

type of house, household size and states and regions of youth. Table (4.3) revealed the overall fitting for multinomial logistic regression model analysis.

Table (4.3)   Model Fitting Information for Educational Attainment of Youth

Model Fitting Criteria	Chi-Square Value	df	P value
-2 Log Likelihood	20501.674	72	0.000
Cox and Snell	0.212		
Nagelkerke	0.247		
McFadden	0.121		
Overall correct percentage	65.6%		

Source: The 2019 Myanmar Inter-censal Survey

The model fit information for the multinomial logistic regression predicting youth educational attainment in Myanmar is shown in Table (4.3). The results reveal that the Cox and Snell R square accounts for 21.2% of the variation in educational attainment, the Nagelkerke R square accounts for 24.7%, and the McFadden R square accounts for 12.1%, all reflecting the impact of the independent variables. The model's overall classification accuracy indicates that 65.6% of educational attainment outcomes are correctly predicted. The Chi-square test result of 20,501.674 (p-value 0.000) demonstrates that the model is statistically significant at the 5% level. Additionally, the -2 log likelihood statistic of 30,297.222 supports the presence of a relationship between the dependent and independent variables in the multinomial logistic regression model.

Table (4.4) provides the parameter estimates for the demographic and socio-economic factors in the multinomial logistic regression model analyzing youth educational attainment. The reference category is no education in this study. For independent variable, 21-24 years of age group, female, ever married, rural, Rakhine State, household size with 7 and above, household annual income with above 50 lakhs, unemployed youth, temporary structures of house are classified as reference categories for this analysis.

Table (4.4)   Estimated Results of the Multinomial Logistic Regression Model

Independent Variables		B	Std. Error	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B)	
							Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Primary and Below Education	Constant	2.193	1.074	4.171	0.041			
	Age of Youth							
	15-20	0.040	0.042	0.911	0.340	1.040	0.959	1.129
	21-24(ref)							
	Gender of Youth							
	Male	-0.245***	0.038	41.344	0.000	0.783	0.726	0.843
	Female(ref)							
	Marital Status of Youth							
	Never Married	-0.097**	0.044	4.908	0.027	0.908	0.833	0.989
	Ever Married (ref)							
	Occupation of Youth							
	Employed	0.586***	0.043	187.264	0.000	1.796	1.652	1.953
	Unemployed(ref)							
	Place of Residence							
	Urban	0.079	0.052	2.295	0.130	1.082	0.977	1.198
	Rual (ref)							
	State and Region							
	Kachin	0.410**	0.193	4.495	0.034	1.507	1.031	2.200
	Kayah	0.563**	0.230	5.969	0.015	1.755	1.118	2.757
	Kayin	-0.307	0.164	3.494	0.062	0.736	0.533	1.015
	Chin	0.038	0.214	0.032	0.859	1.039	0.683	1.580
	Sagaing	0.295	0.161	3.348	0.067	1.343	0.979	1.841
	Tanintharyi	0.741***	0.184	16.241	0.000	2.099	1.463	3.010
	Bago	0.636***	0.169	14.107	0.000	1.889	1.356	2.633
	Magway	0.604**	0.178	11.539	0.001	1.830	1.291	2.593
	Mandalay	0.483**	0.166	8.448	0.004	1.622	1.171	2.247
	Mon	0.131	0.179	0.537	0.464	1.140	0.803	1.618
	Naypyitaw	0.279	0.200	1.948	0.163	1.321	0.893	1.954
	Yangon	0.241	0.172	1.957	0.162	1.272	0.908	1.783
	Shan	-1.310***	0.154	72.803	0.000	0.270	0.200	0.365
	Ayeyawady	0.704***	0.163	18.626	0.000	2.022	1.469	2.783
	Rakhine (ref)							
	Household Size							
	1-3	0.180**	0.056	10.177	0.001	1.197	1.072	1.338
	4-6	0.127**	0.042	9.039	0.003	1.136	1.045	1.234
	7 and above (ref)							

Table (4.4)   Estimated Results of the Multinomial Logistic Regression Model (Continued)

Independent Variables		B	Std. Error	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B)	
							Lower Bound	Upper Bound
	Household Annual Income							
	Below 10 Lakhs	-0.838	1.063	0.621	0.431	0.433	0.054	3.473
	10-50 Lakhs	-1.037	1.063	0.952	0.329	0.354	0.044	2.847
	Above 50 Lakhs (ref)							
	Type of House							
	Permanent Structures	0.306***	0.049	39.441	0.000	1.359	1.235	1.495
	Temporary Structures (ref)							
Secondary Education	Constant	2.33	1.055	4.884	0.27			
	Age of Youth							
	15-20	0.485***	0.039	151.218	0.000	1.624	1.503	1.754
	21-24(ref)							
	Gender of Youth							
	Male	-0.298***	0.036	68.609	0.000	0.742	0.692	0.796
	Female(ref)							
	Marital Status of Youth							
	Never Married	0.607***	0.042	209.235	0.000	1.834	1.689	1.991
	Ever Married (ref)							
	Occupation of Youth							
	Employed	0.004	0.041	0.011	0.915	1.004	0.926	1.089
	Unemployed(ref)							
	Place of Residence							
	Urban	0.748***	0.048	238.388	0.000	2.113	1.921	2.323
	Rural (ref)							
	State and Region							
	Kachin	0.941***	0.180	27.241	0.000	2.562	1.799	3.647
	Kayah	0.454**	0.218	4.327	0.038	1.574	1.027	2.415
	Kayin	-0.874***	0.152	32.923	0.000	0.417	0.310	0.563
	Chin	0.698***	0.196	12.641	0.000	2.011	1.368	2.955
	Sagaing	0.351**	0.150	5.486	0.019	1.420	1.059	1.905
	Tanintharyi	0.263	0.173	2.307	0.129	1.301	0.926	1.827
	Bago	0.217	0.159	1.869	0.172	1.242	0.910	1.696
	Magway	0.572**	0.167	11.770	0.001	1.771	1.278	2.456
	Mandalay	0.390**	0.155	6.312	0.012	1.477	1.090	2.003

Table (4.4)   Estimated Results of the Multinomial Logistic Regression Model (Continued)

Independent Variables		B	Std. Error	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B)	
Parameter Estimates								
							Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Secondary Education	Mon	-0.333**	0.167	3.966	0.046	0.717	0.517	0.995
	Naypyitaw	0.360	0.187	3.702	0.054	1.433	0.993	2.068
	Yangon	0.212	0.161	1.739	0.187	1.236	0.902	1.693
	Shan	-2.195***	0.142	237.902	0.000	0.111	0.084	0.147
	Ayeyawady	0.283	0.152	3.448	0.063	1.327	0.984	1.790
	Rakhine (ref)							
	Household Size							
	1-3	0.376***	0.054	48.869	0.000	1.456	1.311	1.618
	4-6	0.457***	0.040	130.816	0.000	1.579	1.460	1.708
	7 and above (ref)							
	Household Annual Income							
	Below 10 Lakhs	-0.528	1.046	0.255	0.613	0.590	0.076	4.580
	10-50 Lakhs	-0.867	1.046	0.687	0.407	0.420	0.054	3.265
	Above 50 Lakhs (ref)							

Table (4.4)   Estimated Results of the Multinomial Logistic Regression Model

Independent Variables		B	Std. Error	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B)	
Parameter Estimates								
							Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Higher Education and Above	**Type of House**							
	Permanent Structures	0.981***	0.046	462.304	0.000	2.666	2.438	2.915
	Temporary Structures (ref)							
	Constant	0.494	1.099	0.202	0.653			
	Age of Youth							
	15-20	-0.943***	0.044	453.390	0.000	0.389	0.357	0.425
	21-24(ref)							
	Gender of Youth							
	Male	-0.916***	0.041	493.614	0.000	0.400	0.369	0.434
	Female(ref)							
	Marital Status of Youth							
	Never Married	2.095***	0.054	1477.864	0.000	8.124	7.301	9.040
	Ever Married (ref)							
	Occupation of Youth							
	Employed	-0.157**	0.047	11.087	0.001	0.854	0.779	0.937
	Unemployed(ref)							
	Place of Residence							
	Urban	1.314***	0.053	619.338	0.000	3.721	3.355	4.127
	Rual (ref)							
	State and Region							
	Kachin	0.843***	0.199	17.956	0.000	2.323	1.573	3.431
	Kayah	0.167	0.243	0.469	0.493	1.181	0.733	1.903
	Kayin	-1.148***	0.177	42.053	0.000	0.317	0.224	0.449
	Chin	0.269	0.223	1.457	0.227	1.308	0.846	2.023
	Sagaing	0.368**	0.169	4.727	0.030	1.445	1.037	2.013
	Tanintharyi	-0.088	0.195	0.204	0.652	0.916	0.624	1.343
	Bago	-0.037	0.180	0.043	0.837	0.964	0.677	1.371
	Magway	0.745***	0.186	16.071	0.000	2.105	1.463	3.030
	Mandalay	0.338	0.174	3.765	0.052	1.402	0.997	1.974
	Mon	-0.219	0.189	1.350	0.245	0.803	0.555	1.163
	Naypyitaw	0.342	0.210	2.655	0.103	1.407	0.933	2.123
	Yangon	0.178	0.179	0.997	0.318	1.195	0.842	1.697
	Shan	-2.540***	0.164	239.575	0.000	0.079	0.057	0.109
	Ayeyawady	0.247	0.173	2.042	0.153	1.280	0.912	1.797
	Rakhine (ref)							

Table (4.4)   Estimated Results of the Multinomial Logistic Regression Model (Continued)

Independent Variables		B	Std. Error	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B)	
							Lower Bound	Upper Bound
	Household Size							
	1-3	0.724***	0.063	132.903	0.000	2.062	1.823	2.332
	4-6	0.776 ***	0.047	271.643	0.000	2.172	1.980	2.382
	7 and above (ref)							
	Below 10 Lakhs							
	10-50 Lakhs	-1.129	1.087	1.078	0.299	0.323	0.038	2.725
	Above 50 Lakhs (ref)	-1.581	1.088	2.112	0.146	0.206	0.024	1.736
	Type of House							
	Permanent Structures	1.711***	0.050	1165.884	0.000	5.532	5.014	6.102
	Temporary Structures (ref)							

Source: The 2019 Myanmar Inter-censal Survey

Primary and Below Education VS No Education

According to the results presented in Table (4.5), significant predictors of primary and below education include gender, marital status, occupation, certain states and regions, household size, and type of house. Comparing primary education to no education, it is observed that gender is statistically significant at the 5% level. The coefficient for males is -0.245, and the adjusted odds ratio is 0.783. This indicates that, holding all other variables constant, males are approximately 0.217 times less likely than females to attain primary and below education.

The analysis reveals several statistically significant predictors of primary and below education. Marital status is significant at the 1% level, with a coefficient of -0.097 and an adjusted odds ratio of 0.908. This indicates that never-married youth are 0.092 times less likely to achieve primary and below education compared to ever-married youth, holding other variables constant.

Employment status also shows significance at the 5% level. Employed youth have a coefficient of 0.586 and an adjusted odds ratio of 1.796, suggesting they are 1.796 times more likely to attain primary and below education compared to unemployed youth, with other factors held constant.

Geographical differences are notable, with certain states and regions being significant. Youth in Kachin, Kayah, Magway, and Mandalay are significant at the 1% level, while Tanintharyi, Bago, Shan, and Ayeyawady are significant at the 5% level. Specifically, the coefficient for Kachin is 0.941, and the adjusted odds ratio is 2.562, indicating that youth in Kachin are 2.562 times more likely to achieve primary and below education compared to those in Rakhine. Similarly, Kayah has a coefficient of 0.454 and an odds ratio of 1.574, showing that youth in Kayah are 1.574 times more likely to reach this level of education compared to those in Rakhine. In contrast, Kayin has a coefficient of -0.874 and an odds ratio of 0.417, meaning youth in Kayin are 0.583 times less likely to achieve primary and below education compared to those in Rakhine. Chin, with a coefficient of 0.698 and an odds ratio of 2.011, and Sagaing, with a coefficient of 0.351 and an odds ratio of 1.420, are similarly more likely to achieve primary education compared to Rakhine. Youth in Magway and Mandalay, with coefficients of 0.572 and 0.390 respectively, have odds ratios of 1.771 and 1.477, indicating higher likelihoods of reaching primary education compared to those in Rakhine. Conversely, Mon, with a coefficient of -0.333 and an odds ratio of 0.717, and Shan, with a coefficient of -2.195 and an odds ratio of 0.270, are less likely to achieve primary education compared to Rakhine.

Household size also shows significance at the 1% level. Youth from households with 1-3 members have a coefficient of 0.180 and an adjusted odds ratio of 1.197, indicating they are 1.197 times more likely to achieve primary and below education compared to youth from households with 7 or more members. Youth from households with 4-6 members have a coefficient of 0.127 and an odds ratio of 1.136, suggesting they are 1.136 times more likely to achieve primary education compared to those from larger households.

Finally, the type of housing structure is significant at the 5% level. Youth living in permanent structures have a coefficient of 0.306 and an adjusted odds ratio of 1.359, indicating they are 1.359 times more likely to achieve primary and below education compared to those living in temporary structures, holding other variables constant.

Secondary Education VS No Education

According to the results from Table (4.5), the significant predictors of secondary education are age, gender, marital status, place of residence, some states and regions, household size, and type of house. Comparing secondary education to no education, the age group 15-20 is statistically significant at the 5% level. The coefficient for the 15-20 age group is 0.485, and the adjusted odds ratio is 1.624. This indicates that youth aged 15 to 20 are 1.624 times more likely to have secondary education compared to the 21-24 age group, holding all other variables constant.

Additionally, males are significant at the 5% level. The coefficient for males is -0.298, and the adjusted odds ratio is 0.742. This suggests that males are 0.258 times less likely to have secondary education compared to females, with other variables held constant.

Never-married youth are also significant at the 5% level. The coefficient for never-married youth is 0.607, and the adjusted odds ratio is 1.834. This shows that never-married youth are 1.834 times more likely to achieve secondary education compared to ever-married youth, holding other variables constant.

Urban residence is significant at the 5% level. The coefficient for urban residences is 0.748, and the adjusted odds ratio is 2.113. This indicates that youth in urban areas are 2.113 times more likely to achieve secondary education compared to those in rural areas, holding all other variables constant.

The results also show that several states and regions are significant. Kachin, Shan, Magway, Kayin, and Chin are significant at the 5% level, while Kayah, Sagaing, Mandalay, and Mon are significant at the 1% level. The coefficient for Kachin is 0.941, and the adjusted odds ratio is 2.562, indicating that youth in Kachin are 2.562 times more likely to achieve secondary education compared to those in Rakhine, holding all other variables constant. The coefficient for Kayah is 0.454, and the adjusted odds ratio is 1.574, showing that youth in Kayah are 1.574 times more likely to achieve secondary education compared to those in Rakhine, holding all other variables constant. The coefficient for Kayin is -0.874, and the adjusted odds ratio is 0.417, which means that youth in Kayin are 0.583 times less likely to achieve

secondary education compared to those in Rakhine, holding all other variables constant. The coefficient for Chin is 0.698, and the adjusted odds ratio is 2.011, indicating that youth in Chin are 2.011 times more likely to achieve secondary education compared to those in Rakhine, holding all other variables constant. The coefficient for Sagaing is 0.351, and the adjusted odds ratio is 1.420, suggesting that youth in Sagaing are 1.420 times more likely to achieve secondary education compared to those in Rakhine, holding all other variables constant. The coefficient for Magway is 0.572, and the adjusted odds ratio is 1.771, showing that youth in Magway are 1.771 times more likely to achieve secondary education compared to those in Rakhine, holding all other variables constant. The coefficient for Mandalay is 0.390, and the adjusted odds ratio is 1.477, indicating that youth in Mandalay are 1.477 times more likely to achieve secondary education compared to those in Rakhine, holding all other variables constant.

The coefficient for Mon is -0.333, and the adjusted odds ratio is 0.717. This suggests that youth in Mon are 0.283 times less likely to attain secondary education compared to those in Rakhine, with all other variables held constant. The coefficient for Shan is -2.195, and the adjusted odds ratio is 0.111, indicating that youth in Shan are 0.889 times less likely to achieve secondary education compared to those in Rakhine, holding all other factors constant.

Household size is also significant at the 5% level. For households with 1-3 members, the coefficient is 0.724 and the adjusted odds ratio is 2.062. This means that youth from households with 1-3 members are 2.062 times more likely to attain secondary education compared to those from households with 7 or more members, holding other variables constant. For households with 4-6 members, the coefficient is 0.776 and the adjusted odds ratio is 2.172. This indicates that youth from households with 4-6 members are 2.172 times more likely to achieve secondary education compared to those from households with 7 or more members, with other factors held constant.

Additionally, living in permanent housing structures is significant at the 5% level. The coefficient for permanent structures is 1.711 and the adjusted odds ratio is 5.532. This shows that youth living in permanent housing are 5.532 times more likely to achieve secondary education compared to those in temporary structures, holding all other variables constant.

Higher Education and Above VS No Education

According to the results from Table (4.5), the significant predictors of higher education and above include age, gender, marital status, occupation, place of residence, certain states and regions, household size, and type of house. When comparing higher education and above to no education, the age group 15-20 is statistically significant at the 5% level. The coefficient for this age group is -0.943, and the adjusted odds ratio is 0.389. This indicates that youth aged 15 to 20 are 0.611 times less likely to attain higher education compared to the 21-24 age group, with all other variables held constant.

Male youth are significant at the 5% level. The coefficient for males is -0.916, and the adjusted odds ratio is 0.4, meaning that male youth are 0.6 times less likely to achieve higher education compared to females.

Never-married youth are also significant at the 5% level. The coefficient for never-married youth is 2.095, and the adjusted odds ratio is 8.124. This shows that never-married youth are 8.124 times more likely to attain higher education compared to ever-married youth, holding all other variables constant.

Employed youth are significant at the 1% level. The coefficient for employed youth is -0.157, and the adjusted odds ratio is 0.854. This indicates that employed youth are 0.416 times less likely to achieve higher education compared to unemployed youth, with other factors held constant.

Urban residence is significant at the 5% level. The coefficient for urban areas is 1.314, and the adjusted odds ratio is 3.721. This means that youth in urban areas are 3.721 times more likely to achieve higher education compared to those in rural areas, holding all other variables constant.

Several states and regions are also significant. For instance, the coefficient for Kachin is 0.843, and the adjusted odds ratio is 2.323, indicating that youth in Kachin are 2.323 times more likely to attain higher education compared to those in Rakhine. Conversely, the coefficient for Kayin is -1.148, and the adjusted odds ratio is 0.317, showing that youth in Kayin are 0.683 times less likely to achieve higher education compared to those in Rakhine. The coefficient for Sagaing is 0.368, and the adjusted odds ratio is 1.445, suggesting that youth in Sagaing are 1.445 times more likely to achieve higher education compared to those in Rakhine. Similarly, the coefficient for Magway is 0.745, and the adjusted odds ratio is 2.105, indicating that youth in Magway are 2.105 times more likely to attain higher education compared to those in

Rakhine. The coefficient for Shan is -2.540, and the adjusted odds ratio is 0.079, meaning that youth in Shan are 0.921 times less likely to achieve higher education compared to those in Rakhine, with other variables held constant.

Household size is significant at the 5% level for both 1-3 members and 4-6 members. For households with 1-3 members, the coefficient is 0.724, and the adjusted odds ratio is 2.062, indicating that youth with 1-3 household members are 2.062 times more likely to attain higher education compared to those with 7 or more members. For households with 4-6 members, the coefficient is 0.776, and the adjusted odds ratio is 2.172, showing that youth with 4-6 members are 2.172 times more likely to achieve higher education compared to those with 7 or more members.

Permanent structures are also statistically significant at the 5% level. The coefficient for permanent structures is 1.711, and the adjusted odds ratio is 5.532. This indicates that youth living in permanent housing are 5.532 times more likely to achieve higher education compared to those living in temporary structures, holding all other variables constant.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

The socio-economic and demographic factors influencing youth educational attainment in Myanmar are mainly focused in this study. The main measure for educational attainment was the highest level of education accomplished by the youth. The main insights developed from the analysis are presented in this chapter along with suggestions and recommendations based on these findings.

5.1   Key Findings

This study explores factors influencing youth educational attainment in Myanmar, utilizing a combination of descriptive statistics, chi-square association tests, and multinomial logistic regression analysis. Several significant insights into how various demographic, socio-economic, and regional factors affect the educational levels achieved by youth are revealed in the findings.

As stated by the results of descriptive analysis, 65% of youth in Myanmar achieved secondary education whereas 4.5% of youth have no education attainment. On the other hand, 12.5% of youth have achieved higher education. It is observed that 63.4% of youth in Myanmar are at the age group of 15-20. Gender distribution is also quite balanced (male 49% and female 51%). Most of youth (13.4%) live in Sagaing Region and Rakhine State has the least percentage of youth (1.7%). Most of youth live in the households with 4-6 members and 78.7% of youth have below 10 lakhs household annual income.

Moreover, chi-square test reveals that 65.6% of education attainment are predicted correctly and it proves that there is a relationship between the dependent variable and independent variables. The analysis also reveals the significant trends in educational attainment among youth in various demographic categories. Among the youth aged 15-20 years and 21-24 years, secondary education is the most prominent level of attainment while higher proportion of older youth (21-24 years) have attained higher education and above compared to its younger counterparts.

Female youth evidently have achieved higher rates of higher education and lower rates of no education compared to male youth and therefore, there is no gender disparity in Myanmar as females influence the larger percentage of educational attainment. Marital status can be seen as the critical role in educational attainment

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according to the result that never-married youth appeared to get higher rates of higher education and lower rates of no education compared to ever-married youth. Moreover unemployed youth attained higher levels of higher education than employed youth and therefore, employment status similarly affects educational outcomes. Urban-rural disparities are also prominent showing urban youth achieves greater rates of higher education compared to rural youth. Regional variations seem prominent as the youth in Yangon, Mandalay, and Sagaing regions exhibits the highest rates of higher education, while states like Rakhine and Kayah lag behind. The lowest levels of primary education and no education are observed in regions like Chin and Kayah.

Household characteristics, such as household size and income, also influence educational outcomes. Youth living in smaller households and higher income groups attain higher education at greater rates. Moreover, youth living in permanent structures present higher levels of educational achievement compared to those in temporary housing though this is not very prominent.

Age was a substantial factor in accordance with the multinomial logistic analysis showing youth with older age are more likely to achieve higher education than youth with younger age. Aggregate nature of educational attainment over time is also reflected. The results also demonstrates the gender as prominent factor due to the fact that males appear to achieve less percentage of higher education than females. So gender disparities is not evident in Myanmar and the support systems, societal expectations and other underlying gender dynamics worth studying further.

It is apparent that youth engaging in some kind of paid work are less likely to conduct higher education compared to unemployed youth. Therefore, it can be conclude that financial burdens make the youth to enter the job market in premature age and it impedes their academic development. Educational attainment is further affected by place of residence whether it is urban or rural. Compared to rural youth, youth in urban are more likely to have higher level of education showing the need for improvement of educational infrastructure and proper access in affected rural areas.

Educational attainment varies across the different states and regions and it is clear that the state or region where the youth reside impacts their educational outcomes. It suggests that regional frameworks and assets are critical factors of shaping educational attainment. Resource allocation and attention in each household can have a notable effect on educational attainment showing youth living in smaller household size are more likely to achieve higher education.

The result was not significant for household annual income and educational attainment was not significantly affected by household income. Despite of this, there is insignificant yet notable result that household with higher annual income might be associated with lower odds of attaining only primary education and below. Although this factor alone is hard to consider, housing unit type which defines stability and quality of living standards stood out as an important element. Educational success is somewhat related to the importance of better living environments. The results typically represent that youth live in permanent housing types are more likely to attain higher education.

5.2   Suggestions and Recommendations

Based on the key findings, several recommendations can be advised for enhancing youth educational attainment in Myanmar. It is such a surprised finding that male youth are less likely to achieve higher education than female youth and it is interesting to find the ground factors of it as well as to promote the particular programs such as mentorship, scholarships and relevant awareness initiatives in order to support the educational progress of male youth. Prohibiting child labour is also critical and the respective laws, policy frameworks should also be enforced so that the youth have the appropriate access to education and are defended from workforce exploitation. To ensure all the youth have right access to quality education and better educational outcomes, the initiatives for the improvement of living conditions through many projects including but not limited to housing subsidies, low cost housing projects, and the development of temporary housing units are vital. The regional disparities are required to be managed properly for equal access of education and better educational attainment throughout the whole country. Additional resources and relevant support should be prioritized for the regions with lower educational outcomes to enhance the education system. It will be beneficial to promote initiatives addressing household size and dynamics. Family planning education is utmost essential to support for smaller households in which all the resources are equitably shared within family members. Arrangements intended for growing household annual income including vocational training, employment opportunities, financial literacy can be beneficial for educational attainment by offering families with the earnings to support youth education.

Several critical factors affecting youth educational attainment in Myanmar identified in this study involving regional location, urban or rural residence, gender, occupation, age, marital status, household size, household annual income, and type of house. It was evident that youth from urban areas, females, never married individuals, and youth from smaller, stable, and higher-income households are more likely to attain higher education. The need for the designed, region-specific intermediations are indicted by the significant regional disparities.

For the sake of better educational outcomes for youth in Myanmar, improving rural education access, supporting male students, reducing economic barriers to education, promoting stable housing, addressing regional disparities, and considering household dynamics should be focused. More youth from Myanmar will be advantageous by implementing these recommendations and achieving higher education will lead to better individual and collective outcomes. Through accomplishing these key factors, Myanmar youth can possess a more equitable and prosperous future.

5.3 Limitations and Further Research

There are some limitations in this study as it remains to analyse parent's education, parent's income, parent's occupation, health status and other support for resources and these variables are not included in the data from the 2019 Intercensal Survey in Myanmar. Further studies should be conducted to address these variables so that more comprehensive findings can be developed to support the better educational attainment of youth in Myanmar.

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