

**YANGON UNIVERSITY OF ECONOMICS
DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMICS
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**ANALYSIS ON SITUATION OF UNPAID CARE WROK IN MYANMAR
(A CASE STUDY OF MYAING TOWNSHIP)**

**PETER PAU ZA DAL
EMDevS - 33 (15th BATCH)**

DECEMBER, 2019

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MYANMAR
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A thesis submitted as a partial fulfillment towards the requirements for the degree of
Master of Development Studies (MDevS)

Supervised by

Dr. Thin Thin Oo
Professor
Department of Economics
Meiktila University of Economics

Submitted by

Peter Pau Za Dal
Roll No.33
EMDevS (15th Batch)
2018-2019

DECEMBER, 2019

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This is to certify that this thesis, entitled “**Analysis on Situation of Unpaid Care Work in Myanmar (A Case Study of Myaing Township)**” submitted as a partial fulfillment towards the requirements for the Master of Development Studies (MDevS) has been accepted by the Board of Examiners.

Board of Examiners

1. Dr. Tin Win
Rector
Yangon University of Economics (Chief Examiner)

2. Dr. Ni Lar Myint Htoo
Pro-Rector
Yangon University of Economics (Examiner)

3. Dr. Kyaw Min Htun
Pro-Rector (Retired)
Yangon University of Economics (Examiner)

4. Dr. Cho Cho Thein
Professor and Head
Department of Economics
Yangon University of Economics (Examiner)

5. Dr. Tha Pye Nyo
Professor
Department of Economics
Yangon University of Economics (Examiner)

DECEMBER, 2019

ABSTRACT

Women in Myanmar have a high burden of work, which includes both productive and reproductive work. This study aims to identify the situation of unpaid care work of men and women in Myaing Township with an assessment of perception on unpaid care work at household level. Descriptive method is used, and the required data are collected by interviewing to 79 respondents (32 male, 48 female). Women spend more time than man do for caring of people and domestic work, however, rural people spend fewer time than urban people do. While most women do all care responsibilities, 85% of men reported helping in communities. Perception towards attitude on caring of people and domestic work shows the same for men and women where they think it is the right thing to do for caring of people and domestic work. Opposed to that, men expressed that women should get help for caring and domestic work from girls and women. Regarding external support from the government, lack of service provision is distinct in rural household of the study area.

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LIST OF ABBREVEATIONS

AIDS	Acquires Immune Deficiency Syndrome
CBC	Community based care
ECLAC	Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean
GAD	Gender and Development
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GSI	Gender Status Index
HBC	Home based care
HIV	Human Immuno Virus
ILO	International Labour Organisation
LFS	Labour Force Survey
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
NGO	Non-governmental Organisation
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PRA	Participatory Rural Appraisal
SNA	System of National Accounts
TUS	Time Use Studies
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UN Women	United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
WHO	World Health Organisation
WID	Women in Development
WPR	Workforce Participation Rates

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Rationale of the Study

People contribute to the economy through their work in many different ways; such as small-scale trading in the local market or as casual labourers in commercial farms. Others are factory workers, miners, teachers, and domestic workers etc. Through their work women and men contribute to the productive economy by producing goods and services that people use every day. This work is counted and measured by governments. The work of social reproduction – which refers to the activities needed to ensure the reproduction of the labour force – is not counted. Social reproduction includes activities such as child bearing, rearing, and caring for household members (such as children, the elderly and workers). These tasks are completed mostly by women and girls and support all the activities in the productive economy.

Unpaid care work is an aspect of social reproduction specifically related to all practices aimed at caring for individuals within a household or group. This work is not paid, requires time and energy, and is done out of social obligation and/or love and affection. This is, yet, an essential element of the society – care work maintains all other human activity. It is notice that care is critical in our lives – it has a widespread, long term, positive impact on well-being and development. However, prevalent gender norms – the ways in which women and men are expected to behave – and class inequalities lead to an imbalance in care work with women and girls living in poverty have a much higher proportion of unpaid and paid care work in stressful working conditions.

There is also other unpaid work done by women, children and men that is in the productive economy. For instance, smallholder farmers harvest crops and tend to the land in order to produce food for themselves and their communities. This work may not be paid but it contributes to the productive economy.

Most governments only measure and monitor paid work, and goods and services sold in markets. Counting paid work in the productive economy does not give us a complete picture, because it ignores all the work done caring for people and the environment. Much of the work that goes into caring for the environment and people is not only not counted, it is not recognised or valued. It is often characterised as ‘women’s work’, making it more invisible and undervalued. Even in the paid labour market paid care work generally earns lower wages than other types of paid work. Women tend to be in the most poorly paid care work as domestic workers and childcare providers. More than half of all employed women worldwide were in informal vulnerable employment and in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia over 80% of all jobs for women are unregulated and precarious work. Gender segregation in the labour market means women often find themselves in employment that is seen as ‘women’s work’ and is therefore low paid.

Wealthier households rely on more marginalised women to do the domestic work that allows middle- and upper-class women and men to engage in paid work. Poorer women are marginalised into low paid care work due to discrimination based on their class, caste, age, ethnicity, and migrant status. The injustice of women’s heavier workloads as they contribute both to the production of goods and services, and social reproduction, leads to chronic poverty and increasing inequality both within and between countries. Migrant domestic workers, nurses and childcare providers, for instance, from low income countries work in high income countries allowing wealthier women and men to work.

Women’s labour – both paid and unpaid – is exploited and undervalued in a global system of production and social reproduction. For instance, governments across the world adopt economic policies that undermine the care for people and the environment in part because these parts of the economy are not counted or valued. Encouraged by big corporations, governments support industries that pollute the environment and destroy rural livelihoods that women and men depend on. Governments have made it easier for companies to hire women and men for low wages, long working hours and under poor working conditions by changing labour regulations. They have also made it more difficult for workers to unionise and collectively demand better working conditions and wages. Across the world, governments have adopted policies cutting back spending on public services that could provide better care for people through quality healthcare, education, childcare

and social protection provisions. These policies are supported and promoted through the current economic system which privileges a free market system.

Though unpaid and paid care work is essential for our well-being, its unequal distribution across genders and classes can make this work exploitative. In situations of poverty, it is more difficult for women to access the resources and services needed to care for their households. It requires more of their time, energy and can be backbreaking work to collect water and firewood, or care for an ill household member. Though men and boys do participate in unpaid and paid care work, much of this work is done by women and girls. Even after a long day's work in agricultural fields or on the factory floor, women continue to care for their households once they return home. Around the world, women work longer hours every day than men, but are paid less for work of equal value and are therefore more likely to live in poverty.

Likewise, women in Myanmar have a high burden of work, which includes both productive and reproductive work. Although there are regional variations, most of the rural population is engaged to some extent in subsistence agriculture, where production for own-consumption goes largely unmeasured. Women who take part in gardening, animal husbandry, cropping, and processing also manage domestic work simultaneously. Men, on the other hand, contribute much fewer hours to reproductive work.

Although no time-use survey has been conducted at the regional or national level in Myanmar, findings from a small sample survey conducted by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in 2012 in villages around Inle Lake clearly demonstrated that women spend much more time than men on reproductive or domestic tasks—generally four or five times more per day. Field research in villages along the Kyaing Tong–Tachilek road in Shan State in 2009 revealed differences in men's and women's time use. Women from border villages spent more time on reproductive (on an average 5.4 hours per day) and productive work (6.8 hours), compared with men (who spent 0.4 and 5.4 hours, respectively, on those activities). As a result, women had much less time for rest (4.3 hours) and sleep (7 hours) than men (8.1 and 7.4 hours, respectively) (ADB, UNDP, UNFPA, & UN Women, 2016). According to some studies, this may be attributed to the heightened sense of insecurity among women in these areas, which compels them to stay within their home and focus on reproductive work, more so than women in other agro-based villages.

However, there is no clear information on how unpaid care work is done by whom at household level though women spent more time on reproductive work than that of men in general. This current study aims to assess how people with different characteristics are spending their time for unpaid care work at their household. Furthermore, this study demonstrates perception towards unpaid care work at their household level. The findings of the study may provide information required for evidence-based policy formulation and programme implementation, as well as stimulate further research into gender issues in Myanmar.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

The objective of the study is to identify the situation of unpaid care work in Myanmar in general and to assess the perception on unpaid care work at household level in a specific manner.

1.3 Method of Study

The research method used in this study is a descriptive method of research employing primary and secondary source of information. As a primary data source, sample survey of households is conducted in selected one ward and one village of Myaing township in Magway Region. 20 households are chosen as a random sample from total of 1044 households of Ward (1) and Wet Kyone village and the respondents are interviewed with structured questionnaire. These facts and findings are synthesised together with information from secondary data sources in order to make inductions and conclusions.

Required information for literature reviews is collected mainly from secondary data sources. Various academic studies, researches, reports and policy brief issued officially by international organizations, the government department concerned, INGOs and the internet websites are widely studied as main sources of information.

1.4 Scope and Limitation of the Study

The study area is mainly focused on selected two communities of Myaing township in Magway Region only. The age of respondents is limited to 15 years or above according to working age population defined by ILO. However, the findings of the study are not represented to the whole population in Myanmar.

1.5 Organization of the Study

This thesis included five chapters in total. Chapter 1 is an introduction and composed of rationale, objective, methods, scope and limitations, and organization of the study. Chapter 2 is literature review about feminist theoretical framework which focused productive and reproductive labour in the capitalist system, the history of gender concerns in development organization, the triple “R” approach for intergrading unpaid work, gender mainstreaming, and review on previous studies. Chapter 3 is illustrated gender dimension in the labour force of Myanmar which includes general characteristics of the labour force in Myanmar, gender differences in economic activity status and labour force participation and gender differences in employment and unemployment. Chapter 4 shows the analysis of data from structured questionnaires of the respondents from the targeted township. Chapter 5 is the conclusion with the findings of this paper and suggestions.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Feminist Theoretical Framework: Marxist Feminism

Classical Marxism argues that people throughout history have sought several different ways to feed, shelter, clothe, and reproduce themselves, that is, to create their material life. People work together in the creation of their material life and enter into social relationships with each other. The means and social relations of production constitute the modes of production. Marxists argue that human nature is the result of specific modes of production. People are shaped by the general form of society (the mode of production) and by each person's specific place or class in that society (the relations of production). People, however, are capable of radically transforming their society and thus ultimately changing their own natures.

The subordination of women came into existence with the mode of production that introduced private property. He claimed in Engels' masterpiece of 1884, *The Origin of the Family: Private Property and the State*, that when hunting-gathering was substituted by farming, a more efficient and effective mode of production, a few men took oversight of the productive resources and turned them into private property. The production social relations were that some men owned property and others did not own property. This was the first class-structured society. Engels then figured out that women would be subordinated in ensuring that men who owned property could pass it on to their own genetic offspring, thereby retaining the class structure (Engels, 1970).

Contemporary Marxist feminists continue this line of argument by asserting that capitalism, the current form of class society, perpetuates the subordination of women by enforcing their economic dependence on men. Critics claim that it is practical in a number of ways to keep women subordinate to the capitalist system. Women give birth to the new labour force and continue to do unpaid domestic labour. Women also form a reserve army of labour, that is, they provide a cheap and available labour force to compete for existing jobs, thereby creating downward pressure on

wages. As homemakers and mothers, women support the process of profit-making, both as consumers of goods and services for the household and as unpaid caregivers who subsidize and disguise the real costs of reproducing and maintaining the work force.

2.2 The History of Gender Concerns in Development Organisations

In development an interest in gender equality is well defined enough to be the focus of historical accounts. These accounts also characterize a transition in development policy and planning from a so-called welfare approach to one that prioritizes equality, then performance, and finally one that supports the empowerment of women as its goal (Moser, 1993). Such approaches are also seen to coexist, either as single policies of a particular government or agency, or mixed-and-matched within one organisation, in the hope that they will form a coherent whole.

Whatever the validity of such statements, the most key distinction they build is that between two policy viewpoints: WID (Women in Development), which aims to make women more effective in development projects, and GAD (Gender and Development), which discusses differences in women's and men's social roles in development. The advantages of the shift which has supposedly taken place from one to the other have been amply discussed elsewhere and need not be further described here. The point is that even within GAD, a variety of perspectives coexist. As a consequence, GAD as a policy and planning approach remains complex, both in terms of language and in terms of the possible practices which it encompasses.

Something else appears from the historical accounts of the different interpretations of women and gender issues in development. It has been clear from previous debates that societal attitudes are omnipresent: thus, they control the nature of women's projects and their ability to achieve their goals (Buvinić, 1986). With the shift from WID to GAD, this realization came into sharper focus: development bureaucracies and other related organisations were seen to be 'gendered', in terms of their culture, rules and outcomes (Goetz, 1995). In patriarchal societies, this means that the organisations' culture, rules, and outcomes are modelled on male values and attitudes. These are thus frequently harmful to women, fail to recognize and acknowledge their contributions to the organisation, and thus perpetuate and replicate the existing gender power structures and inequalities in the wider world.

2.3 The Triple 'R' Approach for Integrating Unpaid Work

Diane Elson (2008) first proposed the triple "R" strategy to combine unpaid work with macroeconomic policies. It's an agreed practice now. By reducing it and reorganizing it between paid and unpaid work, this approach attempts to integrate unpaid work into the mainstream economy. Such integration should, on the one hand, improve the efficiency of the total workforce and, on the other, reap some macroeconomic gains (Elson, 2008).

The first "R" refers to unpaid work being "recognized," i.e. to make the research noticeable in the national statistical process. This is to be done mainly by regular time-use surveys that collect accurate and detailed information about all human activities, including unpaid tasks. Giving exposure indicates: (a) giving information on the participation of women and men, as well as boys and girls in various activities, including unpaid activities, along with the time they spend on those activities; (b) providing information on the technologies used in the various unpaid (and other) activities, including the tedium involved and the worker's time stress; (c) measuring the predictors of the type and scale of unpaid work in terms of household and individual socio-economic characteristics; and (d) showing how the total amount of care is distributed between the state, the sector, civil society organizations and the household. All this information helps in designing interventions to reduce and reorganize this work.

The second "R" refers to reducing unpaid work to reduce the tedium part of the work as well as the unpaid workers' time pressure. This can be done in many ways: (1) by improving the tech of some work to reduce tedium and enhance the productivity of unpaid work (e.g. providing fuel-efficient cooking stoves instead of backward fuelwood stoves), (2) by providing infrastructural assistance to reduce tedium (e.g. providing water supply at the door step), and (3) by making accessible basic services via enhancing mobility (e.g. good roads and transport services) or by developing these services in convenient places. Such measures will relieve women from the pressure of unpaid work and reduce their time stress for leisure or productive work. Those measures will free children in the case of children doing this work so that they can participate fully in education.

The third "R" applies to the household and four institutions (care diamond institutions) allocation of unpaid work. Redistribution within the household of unpaid work requires changes in the patriarchal norms and practices that exist. This kind of

redistribution is crucial solely in order to provide women in the economy with a level playing field and especially in the labor market, in order to achieve an optimally efficient labor force allocation. Even if unpaid work is done by outside institutions, some unpaid work will always reside in the household. Government may consider providing incentives to encourage people to share unpaid work.

The transfer of unpaid care between the other caregivers involves moving some unpaid work to the prevailing economy—to the market, the public sector, or the voluntary (paid / unpaid) system. Unpaid employment that can be moved to the formal economy is often referred to as "hidden vacancies" (Antonopoulos and Fontana, 2006), i.e. vacancies that are meant to be in the mainstream economy but are concealed because they are inadequately filled up by unpaid work. The sort of unpaid work that can be moved to the mainline economy could be: (1) child care — care for children when mothers are working or not working, i.e. care for infants and children, feeding them and taking care of their other needs, and (2) care for the disabled, the chronic sick, other sick, elderly, etc. When provided as unpaid care by families, this treatment is often insufficient, either in terms of time spent on it, or in terms of quality, predictability, and consistency. However, if new people are employed to provide this treatment in the traditional economy, the state will, on the one hand, ensure regular delivery of professional care and, on the other hand, free unemployed employees from the time pressure of this obligation. The women released from this role may also be engaged in productive work in the mainstream economy, leading to optimal employment. It should be stressed that it is not feasible or necessary to move all unpaid care / work to the mainstream economy.

This reallocation of care resulting in the reorganization of the workforce (paying + unpaid) must be part of a national labor policy for multiple reasons: it helps to provide a level playing field for women workers in the labor market — for gender equality, as well as increasing women's participation in the workforce (WPR); it creates new opportunities for paid employment in the traditional economy; it provides professional care (and addresses a major problem of current care deficiency) for those who need it; and helps to maximize the use of labor in the economy.

Such a mean of arriving can significantly increase public spending (when efforts are made to curb it under the neo-liberal policy framework), and can also generate downward pressure in the economy by contributing to the economy's purchasing power. Nonetheless, it can be asserted that: (1) creating mainstream jobs,

as well as ensuring skilled childcare, has important macro-level multiplier impacts (Antonopoulos, Kim, Masterson, & Zacharis, 2014), and (2) the the budget's financial room by adopting the 'full capital' rule (Balakrishnan, Elson, Heintz, & Lusiani, 2011). Of example, the gains from labor reorganization will outweigh the costs.

2.4 What is 'Mainstreaming' Gender?

The precise meaning of 'mainstreaming' as an aim, and the ways in which this can occur, are contested terrain. For many, 'mainstreaming' means making gender matters the duty of everyone within an organisation and realizing that they are incorporated into all processes and function. Critics of this approach have pointed out the disadvantages of trying to achieve the goal of 'mainstreaming' gender by making it everyone's responsibility. It is argued that, as a result of lack of clear attention and resources, sustained engagement on the part of decision-makers, and male opposition, these issues that dilute or distort or cause them to disappear altogether. On the other hand, it is disputed that, although a specialist team may operate in the 'margins,' organisations may be required to develop and sustain a more visible and progressive devotion to gender equality.

Confusingly, others use a different approach in attempting to achieve 'mainstreaming': one that distinguishes the processes and activities needed to address gender issues, by setting up national 'machinery' or specialized teams (such as departments, special units, etc.). This has been a way in which governments and organisations can signal their acknowledgement of the importance of women's issues (Del Rosario, 1995). Yet this approach, too, has been found wanting. National machinery in particular has often been "proven to be frail, under-resourced, vulnerable to changing political circumstances and political party co-optation" (Byrne, Laier, Baden, & Marcus, 1996).

The current thinking seems to be that companies need to use all approaches — integrating gender issues across the enterprise as well as retaining specialist divisions or units — to prevent marginalization and gender co-optation. Mainstreaming gender is both a technological and political complex process changes in institutional cultures and ways of thinking, as well as in international agencies, government and NGOs' priorities, systems and resource allocation (Kardam, 1998).

2.5 Review on Previous Studies

Owing to the increasing nature of mother's participation in the labour force, several studies, especially in America, have been conducted in the area of work and family. Among the issues that have been looked at are; maternal employment and time with children, mothers' work life experiences, work-life integration, experiences of children of working parents and, work and family leisure. Much of work on, work and family issues focus on women, for example research by Hoffman and Youngblade (1999), and Grady and MacCarthy (2008), because women are not only primary caregivers, but they also experience the phenomenon differently from men (Fine-Davis, Fagnani, Giovannini, Hojgaard, & Clarke, 2004). In a study conducted by Grady and McCarthy (2008) on work – life integration and the experiences of professional working mother in Ireland, many themes emerged including self-perception and merging work and family life (Grady & MacCarthy, 2008).

Their findings showed that, working mothers exhibited a deep sense of motherhood in that; the mothers perceived their children as the number one priority. Although they perceived their work and career as highly significant, they also saw their family and children as the first priority. It was also evident in the study of Grady and MacCarthy (2008) that, the mothers place a high importance on their roles as mothers and performed those roles successfully. The mothers' understanding of motherhood enabled them to merge their family and work roles, however, the mothers attested to the fact that it becomes impossible to balance such without a proper organization, coordination and dedication to the various tasks both at home and at work. They also found that, support from the partners/spouses was another component of the mothers' success in combining the work and family sphere. In addition, the findings further showed that, the husbands share some roles with their working wives. For instance, some husbands cook and clean to support their wives. Aside receiving support from the mothers' partner, other working mothers received support from outsiders and the support included domestic duties such as; cleaning, washing and ironing. In sum, the empirical study by Grady and MacCarthy (2008) showed that, success in combining work and family has to do with the use of individualized solutions which permitted working mothers to merge work and family life.

In another study by Peltola and Milkie (1999) in America, they examined the feelings about work and family balance, and they found out that both the husband and the wife play a part in the roles at home although their performances differ in levels.

The results of Peltola and Milkie's study showed that, wives performed from about half to most of the household work whereas husbands do some to about half of the housework. Using a sample of married employed women, they also found that, working women were unable to care for a sick child or relative because of their work responsibilities. From their point of view, the women reported this feeling because they felt it is their responsibility to care for a sick child. Moreover, they explained that sacrifices made in the family affected women in the sense that when women are not able to balance their family demands and work, they have a negative sense of their well-being. They reiterated that employed wives may have more hours of demands and responsibilities and the conflict from work overload reduces their success in balancing the work and family spheres (Peltola & Milkie, 1999).

Finn – Davies et al., (2004) in their study also found that, majority of working parents wanted to spend more time with their families. In a comparative study of four European countries, thus, Finland, Denmark, Italy and France, they found that; wives wanted their partners to spend more time in the family because the wives spent comparatively more time on childcare activities and domestic work. Moreover, it was evident that, some working mothers got help with domestic work while others did not get any help. These roles played by the woman at home falls in line with the gendered perspective where women are homemakers (Eagly, Wood, & Jahannesen-Schmidt, 2004).

Another related study in the area of mothers' employment and children was by Hoffman and Youngblade (1999) who used elementary school children in America. They looked at the daily family lives of African American, Mexican American and Arab Americans children. They found that, some children stayed with their extended kin when they returned from school and the mother was not home. For these families with working mothers who relied on their kin for support with the day-to-day tasks of caring for children, it was advantageous having extended family members nearby. Some of the children reported that, their grandmother lived in the same household and the grandmother cooked the meals for the entire family (Hoffman & Youngblade, 1999).

It was also evident in the study of Hoffman and Youngblade (1999) that, some children had their grandfather driving them to and from school every day. Similarly, Uttal (1999) found that, people preferred kin-based child care support because of their availability. Moreover, Jayakody et al., (1993) argues that, mothers who are satisfied

with their families are less likely to receive help from outsiders in cases of child care support. Due to the proximity in residence of some extended relatives, parents prefer to use them to help run their daily tasks (Jayakody, Chatters, & Taylor, 1993).

Regarding children who went to their grandmother's house to wait for their parents to close from work, Hoffman and Youngblade (1999) found that, the children are even put to bed before the parents/mother come to pick them up. These grandparents spend the after-school-life with the children and provide them with regular care. Considering the roles played by the husband and wife, Hoffman and Youngblade (1999) found that husbands or fathers are moderately more active in traditional female tasks and child care activities when mothers are employed. Adding to their findings, it was also clear that children of employed mothers help more in household tasks than children of fulltime homemakers.

Parent's time with children has also been considered to be very important in the development of the child (Gauthier, Smeeding, & Furstenberg, 2004), hence, a number of researches have been conducted in that regard. In a data collected from New York, Utah, Louisiana and Wisconsin on two parents' families, Bryant and Zick (1996) investigated parent-child time and the mother's employment hours and found many interesting results. It was evident that, mothers spend more time caring for their younger children than fathers. The time mothers spent at home doing house chores and other private work also decreases as more time is used in her paid work. Their analysis showed that, mothers spent more time in food preparation, maintaining and cleaning the home with their female children while fathers spent more time with their male children shopping and taking care of their car. The subject of sex roles appears to be revealed in most of the activities they engaged in at home. Moreover, parental education had an impact in the time parents spent with their children.

The another result suggested that, parents who are highly educated perceived greater benefits in spending time to care for their children than those with lower education (Bryant & Zick, 1996). Children of educated parents are also considered to watch half an hour less television per week than children of less educated parents (Hofferth & Sandberg, 2004). Gauthier et al., (2004) investigated into time parents spend on child care activities in 16 industrialized countries including France, Norway, United States, United Kingdom, Sweden and Italy. They applied time-use data from the 16 countries from the early 1960's to test the assumption that, employed parents today spend less time with child care than parents in the past. Contrary to this

assumption, they saw an increase from 0.4 hours spent per day in the 1960's to 1.4 hours in 2000.

However, this result came from parents with children under the age of 5 years. The results of Gauthier et al., (2004) also suggests that; fathers' increased participation in housework and child care comes as a result of the decrease in the time spent on paid work and the time spend on their personal activities like sleep. Moreover, the mothers' increase in time devoted to child care and house work is a result of the reduction of time used in paid work and for their personal activities. An activity like playing together with children was perceived to bring about an increase in time parents spent with their children.

Although these studies have provided rich data regarding parent-child interaction and parent- child time use, it cannot be generalized especially to the African context because industrialized countries have different structures in place with regards to work and family issues. Also, the industrialized setting is different compared to the African setting. Moreover, Engle (1983) emphasises that, maternal time for children is reduced because of their participation in paid work. According to Engle (1983), this reduction of time may limit child care, food preparation, breastfeeding and other roles of a mother. Working becomes easier for mothers when there is an availability of an alternative care giver or there is an older sibling in the family to assume the responsibility of care giving (Engle, 1983). This study by Engle was conducted in Guatemala which is not an industrialized setting.

Regarding how working mothers play their roles as wives, the authors express that, lower socioeconomic status white mothers who have more traditional attitude concerning sex roles have higher work stress (Marcus-Newhall, Casad, Peraza, & Silverman, 2008). These mothers saw their traditional roles as very important to them despite their status and it was also necessary, they perform them and that resulted in their high stress level. However, those with higher socioeconomic status coupled with their traditional sex role beliefs had a less stress level partly because they have less financial needs. More so, some Latina mothers did not necessarily yield to the pressures of their traditionally expected sex roles.

In one of the studies conducted by Herrera and Del Campo (1995), some Latina working mothers did not accept that they have to take sole responsibility for the maintenance of the household whiles working outside the home. They felt their

husbands must help with the household tasks and also with childcare responsibilities since they were both working outside the home (Herrera & Del Campo, 1995).

Although these studies were not from any African country, the findings are significant to know since it is related to my study. With the exception of Hoffman and Youngblade (1999) who used elementary school children, the other studies used children below the elementary school going age. That notwithstanding, their findings were important to know since their focus was on maternal employment and children.

There have been few studies done in the area of work and family in Ghana. I found no studies on the experience of everyday life of families with an employed mother. With regards to some of the literatures in the area of work and family; more was on the maternal employment and breastfeeding of children. Other studies have to do with mothers' employment with the informal sectors specifically trading and farming. In a study by Clark (1999) on Asante women in Ghana, she found that a good mother does not stay at home with children but goes out and work hard for the children (Clark, 1999). Such women although they were traders, explained their financial responsibility to feed their children as a bond of motherhood in everyday life. This finding confirms the definition of mothering by Arendell (2000); "a social practice of nurturing and caring for a child" (p.1193).

This finding also explicates the matrilineal system in Ghana where children inherit right and property through the mother's line (Takyi & Gyimah, 2007). The children are assumed as the mother's wealth and so they are cared for well. The Asante in Ghana are part of the matrilineal organization and it is assumed that the mothers work hard having in mind the future of their children (Clark, 1999). She explains further that some children go to live with relatives basically to receive or provide child care, cook, run errands for the elderly, and also receive education from their relatives. From Clark's point of view, the maternal bond is achieved by a continual interaction with the child and that is what most Asante women try to exhibit. The results of this study are also relevant, but the only problem has to do with the sample.

Using time use data, OECD issues the paper on "Unpaid Care Work: The missing link in the analysis of gender gaps in labour outcomes" in 2014. This policy brief analyses the impact of gender gaps in time devoted to unpaid care activities on gender gaps in labour outcomes. The first section provides an overview of gender inequalities in caring responsibilities. The second section shows that gender

inequalities in unpaid care work are related to gender gaps in labour outcomes, such as labour participation, wages and job quality. The third sections assess the key role of discriminatory social institutions for understanding gender inequalities in unpaid care work. Finally, the fourth section proposes policy recommendations to lift the constraints on women's time by both reducing the burden of unpaid care work borne by women as well as redistributing the caring responsibilities between women and men, and between the family and the State.

(i) Gender Inequality in Unpaid Care Work

Time-devoted gender disparities to unpaid care work came across geographic regions, societies and household levels. Time use data provides an important highlight of how gender roles shape the division of labour within a household and also put the flashlight on differences between both sexes. The routine lives of women around the world share one important characteristic: unpaid care work is seen as a female responsibility. Across all regions over world, women spend on average between three and six hours on unpaid care activities, while men spend between half an hour and two hours. Hence gender inequalities in unpaid care work are observed all around the world, even if there are regional differences. Overall, women spend more time on unpaid care activities than men representing on average two to ten times that of men's. The average time of these activities is higher for women (more than seven hours for both) than for men (less than six hours and six and an half hours, respectively) (Suárez Robles, 2010).

Moreover, the time spending to different unpaid care activities varies across gender. In India, for instant, men give 36 minutes to unpaid care responsibilities, out of which 36% goes into housework, with the rest of the time spent on going to shopping, care for family members, and travel related to household activities. Out of the six hours women give to unpaid care activities, the allocation of time specifically spent on housework reaches 85%.

Gender inequality in unpaid care work is also connected to the richness of a country. The data on time use affirms a negative interaction between earnings and levels of gender inequalities in unpaid care work: the distribution of responsibilities is that the most equal in worthy countries. This is deeply because of the fact that men in higher income countries are more committed in care activities.

(ii) Unequal caring responsibilities explain gender gaps in labour outcomes

Over the past few decades, the continued gender gaps in labour force participation reflect the shortcomings of conventional labour supply disagreements, which ignore the role of social measure on women's capability to invade and remain in the labour market. A standard implication is that higher levels of female education and employability and lower fertility rates would automatically lead to higher levels of female labour force participation. The spending time on unpaid care activities is also constituted in the labour supply.

It is not an acceptable or practical choice for most women to outsource unpaid care tasks such as baking, cleaning or fetching water: the everyday well-being of their household relies on them to carry out these activities. Therefore, the unequal distribution of care duties within the household between men and women often translates into unequal opportunities to engage equally in paying activities in terms of time.

In the study of gender gaps in labor outcomes, gender inequality in unpaid care work is the missing link in three areas: gender differences in labor participation rates, quality of employment and wages.

(iii) Unpaid care work and female labour force participation

First, the amount of time spent on unpaid care work is inversely correlated with the participation of women in the labor force. In countries where women spend an average of five hours on unpaid care tasks, 50% of women are involved, i.e. employed or looking for a job in the working age population. Nevertheless, 60 percent of women are involved in the labor force in countries where women spend three hours on unpaid care work. A reduction in the unpaid care work of women is associated with an increase of ten percentage points in the participation rate of women in the labor force (for a given level of GDP per capita, fertility rate, female unemployment rate, female education, urbanization rate and maternity leave).

Second, sex differences in unpaid care work are also correlated with gender gaps in the participation of the labor force. The higher the inequality between women and men in the distribution of care responsibilities, the higher the gender gaps in labor force participation. In countries where women spend nearly eight times as much time on unpaid care as men, they constitute just 35% of the working population. Nonetheless, when the gap falls to less than twice the number, the participation of

women in the labor force rises to 50% of the active population (for a given per capita GDP level, fertility rate, urbanization rate, maternity leave and gender inequality in unemployment and education). Therefore, as gender inequality rises in the amount of time spent on unpaid care work, the female employment situation is worse compared to the male one.

The unequal distribution of care roles also provides an important explanation of why decreased gender gaps in education in some countries have not resulted in a reduction in gender gaps in jobs. Women are more likely to have lower levels of economic activity in countries with high responsibility for unpaid care work. Although the gender gap in education has decreased, these countries have not been able to maximize the returns from this investment and have significant gender gaps in employment outcomes. Nonetheless, there is a higher rate of female economic activity in countries with family-friendly policies that promote a better work-family balance for both parents.

(iv) Unpaid care work and quality of employment

Caring roles are also related to the value of women's employment, with the disproportionate amount of time women spend on unpaid care work increasing the probability of participating in part-time or precarious occupations. Countries with a high proportion of women's unpaid care work than men have a higher proportion of women in part-time and insecure positions. Unpaid care practices are a time-consuming and aggressive profession that limits women's access to the labor market, relegating them to low-income and insecure jobs.

Women's reluctance to balance care obligations with paid employment can lead to "occupational downgrading," where women choose work below their skill level and obtain weaker conditions (Hegewisch & Gornick, 2011). Additionally, part-time employment and the informal sector are another option for women, although this has unfavorable long-term consequences in terms of decreased pension contributions and (when available) retirement income.

(v) Unpaid care work and gender wage gaps

Gender inequalities are also associated with gender wage discrepancies in unpaid care work. A cross-country analysis shows that the gender gap in hourly pay is also higher in countries where women spend a large amount of time on unpaid care

and a significant gender gap in time spent (for a given per capita GDP level, birth rate, female rate of unemployment, education for women, urbanization rate, and maternity leave). Women earn just 65 percent of what their male counterpart receives for the same job in countries where women spend twice as much time as men in caring activities. This falls to 40% as women spend five times as much time (for full-time employees) on unpaid care work.

CHAPTER III

GENDER DIMENSIONS IN THE LABOUR FORCE OF MYANMAR

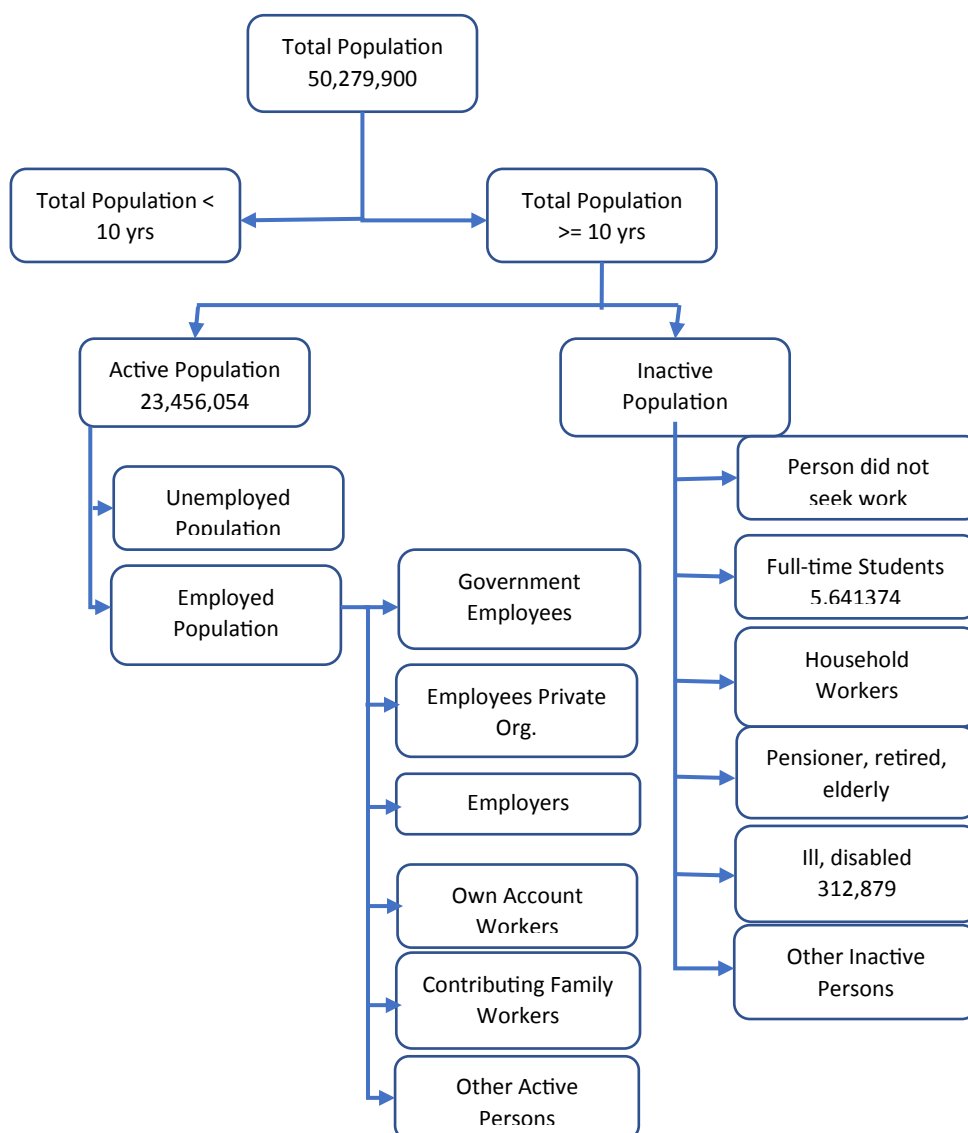
3.1 General Characteristics of the Labour Force in Myanmar

A schematic overview of the structure of the labour force in Myanmar is presented in Figure (3.1). The report on Annual Labour Force Survey of Myanmar estimated a population of 51,486,253 persons. However, because three areas in the country were not fully enumerated, a total of 50,279,900 persons were actually reported. The Census collected information on the activity status for all persons aged 10 and over, who were subdivided into the active and inactive population. The inactive population was then further subdivided into groups based on the reason for their inactivity. The active population was classified as either employed or unemployed. The status of employment for the employed is shown in Figure 3.1.

The 2014 Census found that 23,456,054 persons aged 10 and over were in the labour force and 17,532,639 were outside the labour force. Internationally, statistics on the labour force are normally restricted to age 15 years and above: therefore, for the sake of comparability, this report notes that at the time of the Census 22,832,653 persons aged 15 years and over were in the labour force compared to 13,047,677 that were outside the labour force. Almost one million people reported that they had been looking for work during the 12 months prior to the Census, while 22,501,548 were employed.

‘Own account workers’ was the largest group among all those employed (8,718,292) followed by employees working in a private organization (7,384,592). Almost 4 million persons were contributing family workers. The Government employs a considerable proportion of the labour force (1,347,086). In the Census a total of 1,042,235 employers were enumerated.

Figure 3.1 Schematic Overview of the Labour Force in Myanmar



Source: Myanmar Annual Labour Force Survey, 2017

The largest groups of inactive persons reported in the Census were household workers (7,501,642) and students (5,641,374). Household workers are persons of either sex involved in household chores in their own home. This category does not include those who are otherwise employed. Together, household workers and students constituted three quarters of all inactive persons in Myanmar. In addition, 2,334,398 persons were pensioned and 312,879 were reported as unable to work due to illness or disability. ‘Did not seek work’ and ‘other inactive’ are two less obvious categories. The group of persons who did not seek work were persons who were not working nor looking for work because they were discouraged, but would have taken up a job if

offered one. In total, there were 172,514 persons in this position. The ‘other inactive’ was a large category (1,569,832), but it is unclear what type of people are included in this group. It is possible that many of them could be reclassified in other categories if more information was available.

The male and female population aged 10 years and over by activity status (employed, unemployed and inactive) by five-year age categories. This more clearly shows that the labour force in Myanmar has a young age structure, with a broad base and a narrow top. This means that a large inflow of new workers into the labour force will take place in the coming years, and that a large number of new jobs will have to be created to keep unemployment under control.

A number of older people reported that they were unemployed implying that they were looking for work. It is very unlikely, however, that these people were indeed actively looking for work, and were therefore more probably, economically inactive.

Figure (3.2) Population Pyramid by Activity Status



Source: 2014 Census Report, Myanmar

The pyramid also shows the much higher number of employed males than females in the workforce: 13.7 million males aged 10 and over reported that they were employed, compared with 8.9 million females. It is disturbing that more than half a million children in the 10-14 age group were already working. In addition, more than 77 thousand children were recorded as unemployed. The 2014 Myanmar Census only collected information on ‘usual’ activity status; this means that for children who

indicated that they were working, they were employed for more time than in any other activity during the 12 months prior to the Census, including being at school. It also means that many others may have worked, but that it was not their most significant activity. Also, many people aged 60 and over continue to work: some 898 thousand older men and 454 thousand older women were still working at the time of the Census.

More than two times as many women than men were reported in the inactive category: 12.2 million women as opposed to 5.3 million men. The pyramid also clearly shows that the largest group of unemployed people can be found among young males and females.

3.2 Gender Differences in Economic Activity Status and Labour Force Participation

3.2.1 Economic Activity Status

Table 3.1 summarizes some key indicators of the labour force population from the 2014 Census. Nationally, two thirds (67 per cent) of the working-age population (those aged 15- 64) were economically active: 64 per cent were employed and 3 per cent were unemployed. (Note that the 3 per cent unemployed refers to the proportion of the total population aged 15-64 that is unemployed, not the unemployment rate, which is defined as the proportion of the labour force (the employed + unemployed) that is unemployed (see Glossary of terms and definitions)). The economically active population includes all persons in employment (employees in government, employees in private sector/organizations, own account workers, contributing family workers etc.) and those who were unemployed and looking for work at the time of the 2014 Census. The economically inactive population (which accounted for 33 per cent of the working-age population) covers those neither working nor seeking work, and includes full-time students, those involved in household work, those not looking for work, the ill and disabled, pensioners, retired and older persons, or any other unspecified category.

Table 3.1 Summary indicators of economic activity of persons aged 15-64, by sex

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

*Percentage female - percentage male.

Source: 2014 Census Report, Myanmar

There are more women than men in the country's working-age population: 52 per cent females and 48 per cent males. These proportions were more or less the same

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

One question that might be pertinent to ask at this juncture is whether the low proportions of women aged 15-64 in employment compared with those of men is related to their levels of literacy and educational attainment. Table 3.1 shows that 89 per cent of women aged 15-64 reported that they were literate compared with 93 per cent of men. This means that close to 12 per cent of women in the working-age population are illiterate, compared to only about 7 per cent of men. This could disadvantage an appreciable proportion of women in terms of accessing information related to employment opportunities.

Consequently, despite women making up more than half of the working-age population, more women than men were reported to be economically inactive: 79 per cent compared with 21 per cent of men. With a far bigger proportion of the inactive population made up of women, it might be presumed that their low level of participation in the labour force is due to unequal access to employment opportunities rather than a lack of opportunities. One fifth (19.7 per cent) of men in urban areas were economically inactive compared to 53.2 per cent of women. However, in rural areas the respective proportions were smaller (12.5 per cent and 47.8 per cent) due to an increase in the proportions who were employed among both sexes, and despite lower levels of literacy, particularly among women.

The size of the disparity is further illustrated by the gender gaps in economic activity status shown in Table 3.1. In both urban and rural areas, large gender disparities exist in the proportions of employed and those economically inactive. The proportion employed among women is low (44.6 per cent in urban areas and 50.2 per cent in rural areas) compared to that of men (76.4 per cent and 84.5 per cent

respectively); the resulting gender gaps in percentage points are -31.8 in urban areas and -34.3 in rural areas, to the disadvantage of women. Conversely, the proportions of economically inactive are reversed with gender gaps becoming even wider.

Table 3.2 Percentage of the population aged 15-64 by economic activity status by sex, and gender gap, State/Region in Myanmar

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

* Percentage female - Percentage male.

Source: 2014 Census Report, Myanmar

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

Gender disparities in economic activity status persist across all States/Regions as shown in Table 3.2, with the proportions of men who are employed remaining relatively higher than those of women, and the proportions of men economically inactive very much lower. In terms of employment, the widest gaps (over 40 percentage points to the disadvantage of women) were reported in Tanintharyi, Bago, Rakhine and Ayeyawady. The same States/ Regions have the highest gender gaps in terms of the proportions inactive and constitute four of the five States/Regions with the highest proportions of females that are economically inactive.

3.2.2 Labour Force Participation

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

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

Table (3.3) shows that, at younger ages, the disparities are relatively small but increasingly widen with age; after 25 years and up to 59 years. One possible reason for the observed disparities in labour force participation among these middle age groups is that women may be entering motherhood in their twenties; the average age at marriage is around 23 years. Levels of participation in the labour force drop, not surprisingly, for women with four or more children in their early twenties, and remain consistently lower than for those with one to three children or no children at all up to

around the age of 55. The highest participation rates (albeit still generally lower than those of men) are among the ever-married with no children, but the rates drop more sharply than for those with children at around the age of 50.

Table 3.3 Percentage of economically active population by sex by age, and gender gap in Myanmar

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

* Percentage female - Percentage male.

Source: 2014 Census Report, Myanmar

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

Many of the activities that economically inactive persons may be involved in, including childcare, take place within the household, and hence it is no surprise that Figure 3.2 shows that over three quarters of economically inactive women (79 per cent) are engaged in household work. Less than 10 per cent of inactive men were similarly reported as engaged in household work in the Census, the majority of whom were either full-time students (36 per cent) or engaged in other unspecified activities (a further 36 per cent).

Table 3.4 Percentage of the economically inactive population aged 15-64 by reason for inactivity by sex in Myanmar

Reasons for inactivity	Male	Female
Household work	9%	79%
Full-time student	36%	11%
Pensioner, retired, elderly person	14%	4%
Ill, disabled	5%	1%
Other	36%	5%

Source: 2014 Census Report, Myanmar

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

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

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

3.3 Gender Differences in Employment and Unemployment

3.3.1 Type of Employment

The largest proportions of employed people aged 10 and over were reported in the Census as own account workers (39 per cent) or employees working in private sector/organizations (33 per cent). Table 3.5 shows that women only dominated in the category of ‘contributing family workers’ (a job that is essentially unquantifiable in monetary terms); there were proportionately more men in all other categories. Of particular note is the fact that women made up only a quarter of the total number of ‘employers’, showing that relatively few women manage enterprises or organizations that create employment for others. It is, consequently, in this type of employment where there was the greatest level of inequality with a gender status index (GSI) score of just 0.3. A value above 1 means that there are proportionately more women than men in a particular occupation). The lowest level of inequality was in the category of employees in government (where the GSI was 0.7), the closest that women came to parity with men.

Table 3.5 Percentage of employed population aged 15-64 by sex by type of employment, and gender status indices in Myanmar

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

* Percentage female / Percentage male.

Source: 2014 Census Report, Myanmar

As noted above, women dominated, and constituted slightly over 60 per cent of the category of contributing family workers, with a concomitant GSI value greater than 1. However, this can be seen as a disadvantage to women in terms of their participation in the labour force since contributing family workers do not work for pay, despite their economic contribution in terms of labour input. Internationally, there are larger proportions of women than men reported as contributing family workers, the highest proportions being in Africa and Asia, and statistics still show that

despite progress to close the gender gap in the last two decades, women remain over-represented in this category of worker (International Labour Office, 2016). This illustrates the existence of gender inequalities in access to paid work, not just in Myanmar but in other parts of the less developed world.

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

3.3.2 Occupation and Industry

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

The computed GSIs in table (3.6) further illustrate the extent of the disparities for the various occupation groups. The dominance of women in the professional group is confirmed with a GSI of 2.7; women also scored highly in services and sales occupations (with a GSI of 1.4). These profiles may also re-affirm the societal and culturally-determined gender role characteristics of most patriarchal societies which continue to assign males to more 'masculine' occupations.

Table 3.6 Percentage of employed population aged 15-64 by sex by occupation group, and gender status index in Myanmar

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

Source: Department of Population (2016c)

* Percentage female / Percentage male.

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

3.3.3 Unemployment

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

Table 3.7 Numbers of unemployed, percentage of unemployed and unemployment rates by sex, and gender gap, State/Region in Myanmar

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

* Percentage female - Percentage male.

Source: 2014 Census Report, Myanmar

As reported in the Census, the unemployment rate among persons aged 15-64 in Myanmar stood at 4.0 per cent (Department of Population, The 2014 Myanmar Population and Housing Census: The Union Report: Thematic Report on Gender

Dimension. Census Report Volume 4-J., 2016). Table 3.7 shows that the rate for men was slightly lower than for women, but that in urban areas it was slightly higher, though the differences were small. Gender disparities do, however, emerge at the State/Region level.

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

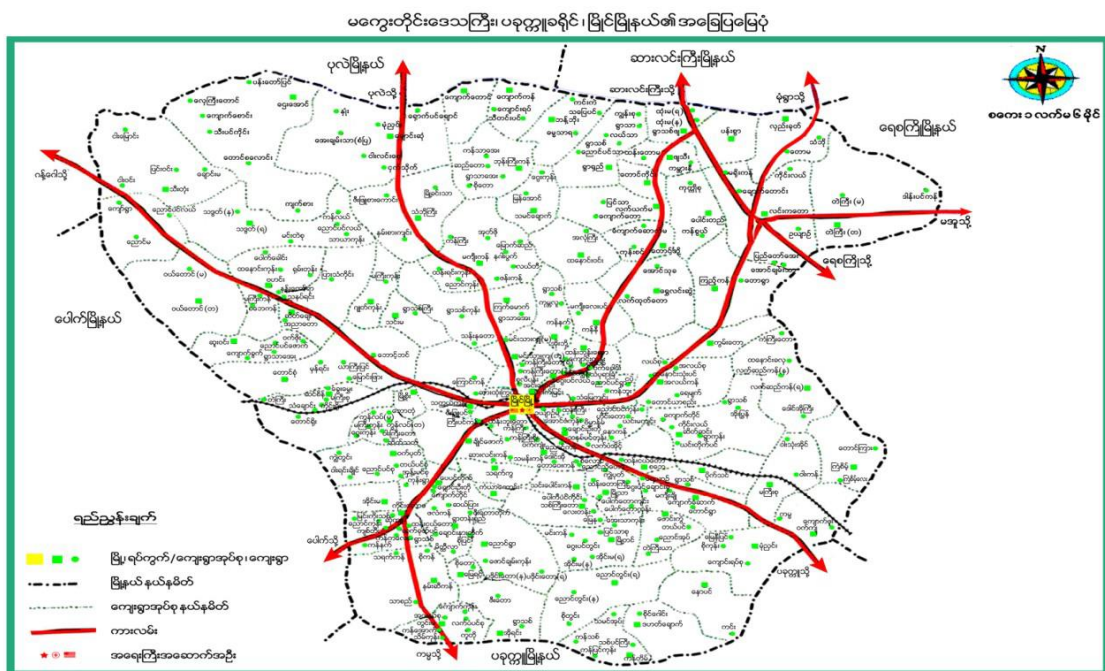
In Nay Pyi Taw, where the (relatively new) capital city is located, male and female unemployment rates were both low. Indeed one characteristic of Nay Pyi Taw is that the city is largely occupied by government ministries, therefore inhabitants that have settled in the city are mainly employees in government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

CHAPETER IV SURVEY ANALYSIS

4.1 Survey Profile

Myiang Township is located in Pakokku District, Magway Region. There are 3 Wards and 81 Village Tracts in Myaing Township. The total population of Myaing Township was 225,771 persons (including population in institutions) according to 2014 Population Census of Myanmar. This study is to identify situation of unpaid care work in Myanmar and to assess the perception on unpaid care work at household level. The survey was carried out from 20 households of Wet Kyone Village and Ward (1) of Myaing Township in Magway Region.

Figure (4.1) Profile of Myanmar Township, Pakokku District, Magway Region



Source: Myaing Township Profile produced by GAD, 2017

The study employed both quantitative and qualitative methods to gain in-depth understanding of the situation and perception of unpaid care work among rural and urban population. It also increases the validity of the findings by examining the same phenomenon in different ways. Mixed method is also to expand and strengthen a study's conclusions and, therefore, contribute to the published literature (Schoonenboom & Johnson, 2017). Table (4.1) shows the coverage of respondent sample size of the study.

Table (4.1) Coverage of Household Sample Size of Wet Kyone Village and Ward (1), Myaing Township

Village/ Ward Name	Total Households	Total Population	Sample Households	Sample Household Population	Household Coverage Percentage
Wet Kyone Village	334	1398	10	57	4.07%
Ward (1)	687	2846	10	62	2.17%
Total	1021	4244	20	119	6.24%

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Questionnaires were prepared to achieve the purpose of the study. The population size of the study area is 4,244 and the total households is 1,021. In the study, 10 households each from Wet Kyone Village and Ward (1) were selected as sample households, and the sample household population were 57 persons and 62 persons respectively. However, the respondents who are between 15 and 64 years were interviewed as a working age group (International Labour Organisation, 2016).

4.2 Survey Design

Individual respondent in the working age group 15-64 years of each household was interviewed to understand the situation of unpaid care work, who are economically active or not.

4.2.1 Operational Definition

Unpaid care work in this study was defined as direct care of persons and domestic work for family members and other households (Budlender, 2007). It includes activities such as caring for children and the elderly, as well as cooking, cleaning, washing and fetching water or firewood. Domestic work is included in the definition because it serves the well-being of people; indeed, it is often argued that the distinction between direct and ‘indirect’ care work is problematic, both because direct care requires the ‘indirect’ care activities needed to run a household, and because direct care is often a secondary activity – e.g. when women watch their children while working in fields or selling in a market (Samman, et al., 2016). In contrast to ‘housework’ or ‘domestic labour’, the term ‘unpaid care work’ emphasizes that the work is unpaid and does not take place exclusively within households (Esquivel, 2013), i.e. it may also take place within the wider community.

4.2.2 Questionnaire Design

Structured questionnaire (Appendix) was adopted and used to study the socio-demographic condition, time spent on daily activities, behavior and division of tasks among husband and wife, perception on caring and domestic work, personal views on caring and domestic work, and external supports for caring and domestic work which the respondents have received (Rost, Bates, & Dellepiane, 2015).

4.3 Survey Results

4.3.1 Socio-demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Regarding socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents; age, gender, marital status, education level, occupation, and size of family are presented in this part. Table (4.2) shows the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents in Myaing Township.

Table (4.2) Socio-demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Sr.No.	Characteristics	Total	
		Frequency	Percentage
1	Geographic Location		
	Urban (Ward 1)	40	(50.6)
	Rural (Wet Kyone Village)	39	(49.4)
2	Age Group (Years)		
	15 – 24	17	(21.5)
	25 – 34	19	(24.1)
	35 – 44	13	(16.5)
	45 – 54	12	(15.2)
	55 - 64	18	(22.8)
3	Gender		
	Male	31	(39.2)
	Female	48	(60.8)
4	Marital Status		
	Single	22	(27.8)
	Married	52	(65.8)
	Widow/ Widower	3	(3.8)
	Divorce	2	(2.5)
5	Education		
	No Education	4	(5.1)
	Completed Primary	20	(25.3)
	Incomplete Primary	18	(22.8)
	Completed Lower Secondary	4	(5.1)
	Incomplete Lower Secondary	4	(5.1)
	Completed Upper Secondary	14	(17.7)
	Incomplete Upper Secondary	4	(5.1)
Graduate	11	(13.9)	
6	Occupation		
	Employee (Government)	6	(7.6)
	Employee (Private)	5	(6.3)
	Own Account Worker	37	(46.8)
	Unpaid Family Worker	4	(5.1)
	Sought Work	1	(1.3)
	Household Worker	18	(22.8)
	Elderly/ Pensioner	6	(7.6)
Full Time Student	2	(2.5)	
7	Total	79	(100)

Source: Survey Data, 2019

According to Table (4.2), the respondents were interviewed 40 persons (50.6%) from Urban area and 39 persons (49.4%) from Rural area of Myaing

Township. Regarding to the age group, there were five categories under the working age group definition according to Department of Labour in Myanmar. Regarding with gender, majority of the respondents are female, and it was 60.8% of the respondents. In marital status, the greater part of the respondents was married (65.8%), and followed by single, widow/ widower and divorce (27.8%, 3.8% and 2.5% respectively). In educational status of Myaing Township, the most respondents were 25.3% who completed the primary education and the second largest respondent was 22.8% who did not finish the primary education. On the other hand, 17.7% of the respondents were completed the upper secondary education while 13.9% of the respondents were graduated from the University. Almost half of the respondents are working as an own account worker and 22.8% of the respondents are household worker.

4.3.2 Time Use of Daily Activities

In this section, the respondents were interviewed to measure their time use of daily activities as primary activity in which predefined activities are presented. The respondents were asked to recall how they spent how they spent the day prior to survey, specifying what activity or activities they had carried out in each hour of the day. Time use surveys are one way to measure unpaid care work. These surveys record how people allocate their time throughout the day allowing researchers and policy-makers to see activities that are usually invisible, such as unpaid care work, and how the distribution of this work differs based on geographical locations, gender, marital status, age-group, and education level.

(i) Primary Daily Activities of the Respondents

Table (4.3) shows the average hours spent for daily activities of the respondents as a primary daily activity by showing geographical location which is urban and rural. The daily activities were categorized as leisure and resting, paid work, caring for people and domestic work, education, community activities, and other activities.

Table (4.3) Average Hours Spent for Primary Daily Activities by Geographical Location

Daily Activities	Urban (n = 40)	Rural (n =39)
	Average hours per day	
Leisure and resting	13.70	11.74
Paid work	4.40	7.87
Caring for people and domestic work	5.40	3.85
Education	0.00	0.10
Community activities	0.10	0.13
Other activities	0.40	0.31

Source: Survey Data, 2019

The respondents from urban area spent 13.70 hours per day for leisure and resting which include sleeping, napping, personal care and eating, and leisure time, where the respondents from rural area used 11.74 hours for a day. For paid work activity, the respondents from urban area spent 4.40 hours per day and the respondents from rural area spent 7.87 hours per day. In regarding to caring for people and domestic work, the respondents from urban area spent 5.40 hours per day, however the respondents from rural spent time less than the urban respondents which is 3.85 hours per day. Spending time for education, community activities and other activities were very low which is less than 1 hour per day for both urban and rural areas.

Table (4.4) presents the average time spent for daily activities of male and female respondents. For leisure and resting activity, female respondents answered they spent time more than male respondents which is 13.06 hours and 12.23 hours respectively. There is no doubt that male respondents spent time for paid work activity more than female respondents. On the other hand, female respondents (5.5 hours per day) spent much time in caring for people and domestic work than male respondents (3.29 hours per day). Both male and female respondents reported they spent time less than one hour per day for education, community and other activities.

Table (4.4) Average Hours Spent for Primary Daily Activities by Gender

Daily Activities	Male (n = 38)	Female (n =41)
	Average hours per day	
Leisure and resting	12.23	13.06
Paid work	7.84	5.00
Caring for people and domestic work	3.29	5.50
Education	0.00	0.08
Community activities	0.19	0.13
Other activities	0.45	0.23

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Table (4.5) indicates the average time spent for daily activities between different marital status of the respondents. For leisure and resting activities, the respondents who are widow/ widower spent 16 hours per day which is more than the other marital status, in which the respondents who are single, married and divorce spent 12.36 hours, 12.71 hours and 12.50 hours respectively. For paid work activity, single, married and divorced respondents spent time more than 5 hours per day where widow/ widower used less than 3 hours for a day. However, only the respondents under single category spent less than 15 minutes per day where there is no response on spending education activity by other categories although education included attending school, training or studying and attending school related events. Moreover, the respondents under married category only reported they spend less than 15 minutes per day for community activities including attending meetings, community works and other community functions (e.g., weddings and funerals), and widow/ widower spent time more than other categories in other activities including religious activity and activities related to health care. There is no reported time for education, community activities and other activities by divorced respondents.

Table (4.5) Average Hours Spent for Primary Daily Activities by Marital Status

Daily Activities	Single (n = 22)	Married (n = 52)	Widow/ Widower (n = 3)	Divorce (n = 2)
	Average hours per day			
Leisure and resting	12.36	12.71	16.00	12.50
Paid work	6.82	5.98	2.67	7.00
Caring for people and domestic work	4.09	4.96	3.00	4.50
Education	0.18	0.00	0.00	0.00
Community activities	0.00	0.17	0.00	0.00
Other activities	0.55	0.17	2.33	0.00

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Table (4.6) describes the daily average time spent of the respondents by different age groups. The respondents over 30 years of age used more time for spending leisure and resting than the respondents under 30 years of age. For paid work activity, the respondents under 30 years of age spent 6.33 hours per day in which the other spent 5.98 hours per day. The respondents under 30 years of age spent 5.83 hours for a day for caring for people and domestic work and the other age group spent 3.90 hour per day.

Table (4.6) Average Hours Spent for Primary Daily Activities by Age Group

Daily Activities	≤ 30 years (n = 30)	>30 years (n = 49)
	Average hours per day	
Leisure and resting	11.43	13.53
Paid work	6.33	5.98
Caring for people and domestic work	5.83	3.90
Education	0.13	0.00
Community activities	0.13	0.10
Other activities	0.13	0.49

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Regarding to education, community activities and other activities, less than 10 min per day were spent by the under 30 years-aged respondents and almost 30 min per day were spent by the over 30 years-aged group in other activities only. This table clearly shows that the respondents who are at younger age (≤ 30 years) spent much time on paid work, caring for people and domestic work, education, and community

work, where the other age group spent much time on leisure and resting and other activities.

Table (4.7) represents the average time spent for daily activities of the respondents by education status. All respondents with different education status spent 10 hours or/and more for leisure and resting. This means people in Myaing Township have enough time for leisure and resting which include sleeping, napping, time for personal care, eating and leisure time. The respondents who did not attain education and who did not incomplete upper secondary education spent 8 hours and 12 hours respectively for a day for paid work activity, and the rest spent less than those respondents. There was no reported time spent for education activity except the respondents who completed upper secondary education, which is less than 20 minutes (0.3 hours) per day. Likewise, the respondents who did not complete primary education and who were graduate spent less than 25 minutes per day for community activities and the rest did not report on this activity.

Table (4.7) Average Hours Spent for Primary Daily Activities by Education Status

Daily Activities	No Education (n = 4)	Completed Primary (n = 20)	Incomplete Primary (n = 18)	Completed Lower Secondary (n = 4)	In-complete Lower Secondary (n = 4)	Completed Upper Secondary (n = 14)	Incomplete Upper Secondary (n = 4)	Graduate (n = 11)
	Average hours per day							
Leisure and resting	10	13	14	14	13	13	10	12
Paid work	8	6	6.3	4.5	6.8	4.9	12	5.2
Caring for people and domestic work	5.3	5	3.3	6	4.8	4.4	2	6.5
Education	0	0	0	0	0	0.3	0	0
Community activities	0	0	0.3	0	0	0	0	0.4
Other activities	0.8	0.3	0.1	0	0	1.1	0	0.1

Source: Survey Data, 2019

4.3.3 Behaviour and Division of Tasks

In this section, unpaid care work which includes direct care of persons and domestic work among women and men (excluding the respondents who are single) at household level is presented to understand the behavior and division of tasks on unpaid care work. The questions under this section were answered by 57 out of 79 respondents who are married, widow/ widower or divorce to analyse the distribution of work among couples. In the study, there are eight activities identified as unpaid care works such as (i) water collection, (ii) fuel collection, (iii) meal preparation, (iv) washing, ironing, mending clothes, (v) cleaning the house or compound, and (vi) caring for children, (vii) caring for elderly, ill and disabled, and (viii) caring for community members.

(i) Water Collection

Table (4.8) Frequency and Percentage of Distribution of Water Collection

Water collection	Male		Female	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
I do always	1	20%	8	67%
Shared equally or done together	3	60%	4	33%
My partner does always	1	20%	0	0%
Total	5	100%	12	100%

Source: Survey Data, 2019

12 female respondents and 5 male respondents among the total 57 respondents reported that they collected water for household consumption according to table (4.8). Only 20% of male respondents said, “I do always” and “my partner does always” for water collection in which 60% of male respondents said water collection was shared equally and done together. On the other hand, 67% of female respondents answered “I do always” for water collection and 33% of female respondents said it was shared equally or done together with their partners. It is cleared that most female do water collection for their household consumption in Myaing Township.

(ii) Fuel Collection

Table (4.9) Frequency and Percentage of Distribution of Fuel Collection

Fuel collection	Male		Female	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Shared equally or done together	0	0%	4	100%
Total	0	0%	4	100%

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Regarding to fuel collection, only 4 female respondents reported they shared equally or done together with their partners according to the table (4.9). It can be assumed that most households in Myaing township do not spend time for fuel collection which means they might get access to electricity from government public services or afford to reach private services (i.e., buying fire wood or charcoal). Though they have to collect for fuel, it can be done together with their partners.

(iii) Meal Preparation

Table (4.10) Frequency and Percentage of Distribution of Meal Preparation

Meal preparation	Male		Female	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
I do always	2	22%	2	20%
Shared equally or done together	7	78%	8	80%
Total	9	100%	10	100%

Source: Survey Data, 2019

For meal preparation task at household level, both respondents answered almost the same. 22% of male and 20% of female respondents said they do always for meal preparation and 78% of male respondents and 80% of respondents said they shared equally or did together for meal preparation. Table (4.10) indicates that there are no gender role differences for meal preparation at household level.

(iv) Washing, Ironing and Mending Clothes

From the data obtained from table (4.11), 55% of female (6 out of 11 respondents) said they did always for washing, ironing and mending clothes at household where there is no response from male respondents for this activity, and 45% of female (5 out of 11 respondents) said they shared equally or did together. However, 60% of male (3 out of 5 respondents) said they shared equally or did together for washing, ironing and mending clothes, in which 40% of male (2 out of 5 respondents) said, “My partner does always”. It is clearly noticed that washing, ironing and mending clothes activity tend to be wife’s responsibilities according to the data presented in table (4.11).

Table (4.11) Frequency and Percentage of Distribution of Washing, Ironing, Mending Clothes

Washing, ironing, mending clothes	Male		Female	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
I do always	0	0%	6	55%
Shared equally or done together	3	60%	5	45%
My partner does always	2	40%	0	0%
Total	5	100%	11	100%

Source: Survey Data, 2019

(v) Cleaning the House or Compound

Cleaning the house or compound activity was reported that it was done by most female which is 67% of female of the total respondents according to table (4.12). It was also answered that 11% of male respondents do cleaning the house or compound by themselves and 22% of male respondents said they share equally with their partners, and the rest answered their partner do always cleaning the house or compound which is 67% of male respondents. On the other hand, two third of female respondents said they do always, and they usually do cleaning the house or compound in which one third of the respondents said it is shared with their partner. It is clearly said that all house or compound cleaning is done by majority of female at household level.

Table (4.12) Frequency and Percentage of Distribution of Cleaning the House or Compound

Cleaning the house or compound	Male		Female	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
I do always	1	11%	14	67%
Usually me	0	0%	1	4%
Shared equally or done together	2	22%	6	29%
My partner does always	6	67%	0	0%
Total	9	100%	21	100%

Source: Survey Data, 2019

(vi) Caring for Children

Table (4.13) Frequency and Percentage of Distribution of Caring for Children

Caring for children	Male		Female	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
I do always	0	0%	1	33%
Shared equally or done together	0	0%	2	67%
Total	3	100%	3	60%

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Table (4.13) clearly shows that caring for children is responsible for females as a mother. Although female respondents said they share equally or do together for child care, any male respondents did not report for this work. It can be observed that this care work is naturally set for women only.

(vii) Caring for Elderly, Ill and Disabled

Caring for elderly, ill or disabled refers to direct care of persons at household level was usually done by over 85% of female of the total respondents as shown in table (4.14) which includes the responses of female such as “I do always”, “Usually me” and “Shared equally or done together”, and the responses of male as “My partner does always”. Only 11% of male respondents reported they do always caring for elderly, ill or disabled while 44% of male respondents said they share equally or do together with their partner.

Table (4.14) Frequency and Percentage of Distribution of Caring for Elderly, Ill or Disabled

Caring for elderly, ill or disabled	Male		Female	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
I do always	1	11%	17	61%
Usually me	0	0%	1	4%
Shared equally or done together	4	44%	10	36%
My partner does always	4	44%	0	0%
Total	9	100%	28	100%

Source: Survey Data, 2019

(vii) Caring for community members

Table (4.15) Frequency and Percentage of Distribution of Caring for Community Members

Caring for community members	Male		Female	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
I do always	2	15%	3	13%
Shared equally or done together	11	85%	21	88%
Total	13	100%	24	100%

Source: Survey Data, 2019

There is similarity of ratio between male and female who do caring for community members according to table (4.15). Both respondents reported they do this activity by self (15% male and 13% female respectively). 85% of male respondents and 88% of female respondents reported they share equally or do together this activity.

To conclude that, most females take more responsibility of unpaid care work at household level than males do. It is noticed that division of tasks among couples is not equal and redistribution of unpaid care work is deemed due to prevailing patriarchal norms and customs.

4.3.4 Perception on Unpaid Care Work

The survey was conducted to measure the strength of existing norms via: (1) attitudes – what women and men believe they should do; (2) empirical expectations – what women and men believe others do; and (3) normative expectations – what

women and men believe others think they should do. In the subsequent analysis, the questions sought to probe the extent to which attitudes, empirical and normative expectations were aligned.

24 males and 33 females who have partners/ spouses or had been experienced a marriage were interviewed to understand the perception of unpaid care work at household level. The questions were designed in responding with five points Likert scale.

Table (4.16) Perception on Caring for People and Domestic Work

Statements	Frequency (%)					Mean	Std. Deviation
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree		
I do this amount of caring for people because I personally think it is the right thing to do.	3 (5.3)	3 (5.3)	9 (15.8)	36 (63.2)	6 (10.5)	3.68	0.929
I do this amount of domestic work because I personally think it is the right thing to do.	4 (7)	7 (12.3)	5 (8.8)	32 (56.1)	9 (15.8)	3.61	1.114
I do this amount of caring for people because I think this is what others do.	9 (15.8)	30 (52.6)	4 (7)	11 (19.3)	3 (5.3)	2.46	1.135
I do this amount of domestic work because I think this is what others do.	9 (15.8)	31 (54.4)	4 (7)	9 (15.8)	4 (7)	2.44	1.15
I do this amount of caring for people because I think this is what others expect me to do.	13 (22.8)	28 (49.1)	6 (10.5)	9 (15.8)	1 (1.8)	2.25	1.04
I do this amount of domestic work because I think this is what others expect me to do.	15 (26.3)	30 (52.6)	2 (3.5)	10 (17.5)	0 (0)	2.12	1.001

Source: Survey Data, 2019

The questions specific to perception on caring for people and domestic work were shown in table (4.16). The majority of the respondents revealed that caring for people and domestic work are the right things to do in terms of agree (56.1% and 63.2%) and strongly agree (10.5% and 15.8%). The neutralization was found at 15.8% and 8.8% respectively. The responses on disagree and strongly disagree were found at 5.3% and 12.3%, and 5.3% and 7% respectively. The mean values were 3.68 and 3.61 respectively.

The respondents revealed that they do caring for people and domestic work because this is what others do in terms of agree (15.8% and 19.3%) and strongly agree (5.3% and 7%). The neutralization was found at 7% both for caring for people and domestic work. The responses on disagree and strongly disagree were found at 52.6% and 54.4%, and 5.8% respectively. The mean values were 2.46 and 2.44 respectively.

Likewise, the respondents affirmed that they do caring for people and domestic work because this is what other people expect them to do with regards to agree (15.8% and 17.5%) and strongly agree (1.8% and 0%) respectively. The neutralization was found at 10.5% and 3.5% respectively. The responses on disagree and strongly disagree were found at 49.1% and 52.6%, and 22.8% and 26.3% respectively. The mean values were 2.25 and 2.12 respectively.

Table (4.17) Attitude towards Caring for people by Gender

	Male		Female	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly Disagree	3	12.50%	0	0.00%
Disagree	2	8.33%	1	3.03%
Neutral	2	8.33%	7	21.21%
Agree	13	54.17%	23	69.70%
Strongly Agree	4	16.67%	2	6.06%
Total	24	100.00%	33	100.00%

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Table (4.17) presents to the response to the perception of caring for people as a moral obligation. 12.50% of males said they do not strongly agree with this statement because this is responsible for house wife, where there is no response from female respondents. 8.33% of males also did not agree with this statement because

they said they are busy with other businesses to earn income, and 3.03% of females said she is not asked to do because she is an old person which mean this statement might be true in her younger age. 8.33% of males and 21.21% of females neither agreed nor disagreed with this statement. Both respondents said this is just a household work. 54.17% of male respondents and 69.70% of female respondents said they agree with this statement, and most of the males said caring for children is their responsibilities since they are being father, however, most of the female respondents said they have an interest in caring for people.

Table (4.18) Attitude towards Domestic Work by Gender

	Male		Female	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly Disagree	2	8.33%	2	6.06%
Disagree	3	12.50%	4	12.12%
Neutral	2	8.33%	3	9.09%
Agree	13	54.17%	19	57.58%
Strongly Agree	4	16.67%	5	15.15%
Total	24	100.00%	33	100.00%

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Table (4.18) shows the response of to the perception of domestic work form the ethnical point of view. The majority of the respondents agreed with this statement which is 54.17% of males and 57.58% of females respectively, because this is their responsibility of domestic work. Likewise, 16.67% of male respondents and 15.15% of female respondents strongly agreed with this statement and one of the respondents cited that domestic work like cooking is a daily routine work for her life. On the other hand, 12.50% of male and 12.12% of female said they do not agree with this statement and 8.33% of male and 6.06% of female said they do not strongly agree with this. For this strongly agree response, a man said it is not my responsibility and the other man said husband have to do paid work only.

Table (4.19) Empirical Expectation on Caring for People by Gender

	Male		Female	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly Disagree	7	29.17%	2	6.06%
Disagree	11	45.83%	19	57.58%
Neutral	1	4.17%	3	9.09%
Agree	4	16.67%	7	21.21%
Strongly Agree	1	4.17%	2	6.06%
Total	24	100.00%	33	100.00%

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Table (4.19) indicates the responses to caring for people which the respondents follow what other people do. However, 45.83% of male respondents and 57.58% of female respondents said they do not agree with this statement, and 29.17% of male and 6.06% of female strongly did not agree with this. Most respondents clearly said that this type of work is their own interest and their responsibilities. One of the female respondents said she will do even though other people do not. Conversely, 16.67% of male and 21.21% female said they agree with this statement, and 4.17% of male and 6.06% of female strongly agree with this. However, most of the respondents said this is a good deed to do caring for people who are elderly, ill and disabled which means helping others influenced by religious and custom norms.

Table (4.20) Empirical Expectation on Domestic Work by Gender

	Male		Female	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly Disagree	8	33.33%	1	3.03%
Disagree	11	45.83%	20	60.61%
Neutral	1	4.17%	3	9.09%
Agree	2	8.33%	7	21.21%
Strongly Agree	2	8.33%	2	6.06%
Total	24	100.00%	33	100.00%

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Table (4.20) refers to the responses to domestic work including cooking, cleaning, washing clothes, and water and fuel collection. Likewise from table (4.17), most respondents did not agree with this statement because they believe the domestic work in household need to be done by household member whether other people do the same thing or not. However, one of the female respondents said this is the

responsibility of women. In turn, 8.33% of male and 21.21% of female agreed with this statement, and 8.33% of male and 6.06% of female said they strongly agree with this statement.

Table (4.21) Normative Expectation on Caring for People by Gender

	Male		Female	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly Disagree	9	37.50%	4	12.12%
Disagree	11	45.83%	17	51.52%
Neutral	1	4.17%	5	15.15%
Agree	2	8.33%	7	21.21%
Strongly Agree	1	4.17%	0	0.00%
Total	24	100.00%	33	100.00%

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Table (4.21) presents the responses to caring of people which the respondents do this care work because of people's expectation. 45.83% of male and 51.52% of female said they do not agree, and 37.50% of male and 12.12% of female said they strongly do not agree with this statement. Most respondents said there is no relation with other's expectation on caring for people because this motivation comes intrinsically, and caring people at household is their responsibilities. On the other hand, 8.33 of male and 21.21% of female agreed, and 4.17% of male strongly agreed with this statement.

Table (4.22) Normative Expectation on Caring for People by Gender

	Male		Female	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly Disagree	10	41.67%	5	15.15%
Disagree	10	41.67%	20	60.61%
Neutral	0	0.00%	2	6.06%
Agree	4	16.67%	6	18.18%
Strongly Agree	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
Total	24	100.00%	33	100.00%

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Table (4.22) shows the responses to the perception of doing domestic work at household level. Majority of the respondents which is 41.67% of male and 15.15% of female strongly did not agree, and 41.67% of male and 60.61% of female did not agree with this statement. Combination of these two responses goes up over 80% for male's responses and 75% for female's responses. 16.67% of male respondents and

18.18% of female respondents said they do these domestic works at home due to other's expectation.

Table (4.23) Level of Self-Satisfaction on Doing Division of Tasks

	Male		Female	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly Disagree	1	4.17%	0	0.00%
Disagree	1	4.17%	2	6.06%
Neutral	1	4.17%	1	3.03%
Agree	13	54.17%	18	54.55%
Strongly Agree	8	33.33%	12	36.36%
Total	24	100.00%	33	100.00%

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Table (4.23) indicates the response to the satisfaction of doing division of tasks at household level. In this regard, almost 90% of the respondents expressed the positive satisfaction on division of tasks. By doing so, it makes them happy and pleased in mind, they believe they get merits, and some said this is family work. Only a few percentages of the respondents expressed the negative satisfaction.

Table (4.24) Level of Partner's Satisfaction in Doing Division of Tasks

	Male		Female	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly Disagree	1	4.17%	0	0.00%
Disagree	0	0.00%	1	3.03%
Neutral	2	8.33%	8	24.24%
Agree	18	75.00%	18	54.55%
Strongly Agree	3	12.50%	6	18.18%
Total	24	100.00%	33	100.00%

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Table (4.24) presents the response to the level of partner's satisfaction on doing division of tasks at household level. Most respondents said their partner satisfy with this division of tasks which includes 75% of male and 54.55% of female agreed and 12.50% of male and 18.18% of female strongly agreed with this statement, because there are shared responsibilities between husband and wife. One of the male respondents said his wife feel relaxed because of his help.

4.3.5 Personal Views on Unpaid Care Work

This section includes 24 males and 33 females who have partners/ spouses or had been experienced a marriage to understand the personal view on unpaid care work at household level.

Table (4.25) Percentage of Receiving Help form Others

	Frequency	Percent
No one	1	1.00%
Husband	18	17.60%
Girls	42	41.20%
Boys	4	3.90%
Other women	32	31.40%
Other men	1	1.00%
Other	4	3.90%
	102	100.00%

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Table (4.25) indicates the percentage of receiving help from other household members for women. The respondents were asked from whom women should receive help with caring for people and domestic work. Most of the respondents said women should receive help from girls which is 41.20%, followed by from other women at 31.40%. It is noticed that caring for people and domestic work belong to the role of women which is reverse relationship with their perception. 17.60% of the respondents said women should receive help from their husband.

Table (4.26) Different Types of Unpaid Care Works which Sons, Boys and Young Men Should Do or Know How to Do

	Male	Female
None	4%	18%
Water Collection	38%	39%
Fuel collection	54%	45%
Meal preparation	29%	39%
Washing, ironing, mending clothes	29%	21%
Cleaning the house or compound	79%	58%
Caring for children	25%	27%
Caring for elderly, ill, disabled	50%	42%
Caring for community members	17%	27%
Other	8%	0%

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Table (4.26) shows the different types of unpaid care work which sons, boys and young men in household should do or know how to do. Among different types of unpaid care work, cleaning the house or compound stood at top priority selected by man and women (79% and 58% respectively). Fuel collection was chosen at second place (54% male, 45% female), followed by caring for elderly, ill and disabled persons (50% male, 42% female). It is noticed that those top three tasks need strength to be accomplished. In other words, man should do tasks which need more strength which comes from gender stereotype concept.

Table (4.27) Types of Activity that Men Would Like to Do with Extra Time

	Frequency	Percentage
More leisure time/sleep/personal care	12	44.44%
More income-generating work	7	25.93%
Engage in community activities or social life	3	11.11%
More education/training	5	18.52%

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Although men previously showed their willingness to help with caring for people and domestic work in this study, they would like to take more leisure time, sleeping or personal care according to their personal view. 44.44% of the respondents answered they want more leisure time, 25.93% of the respondent said they want to engage in more income-generating work, and 18.52% said they use extra time for education and training.

Table (4.28) Types of Activity that Men Would Like their Spouse to Do with Extra Time

Types of Activities	Frequency	Percentage
More leisure time/sleep/personal care	12	50.00%
More income-generating work	4	16.67%
Provide better direct person care (e.g. children)	3	12.50%
Engage in community activities or social life	1	4.17%
Help neighbours/friends	2	8.33%
More education/training	1	4.17%
More religious activities	1	4.17%

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Table (4.28) shows the activities that men would like their spouse to do with extra time. Likewise from table (4.25), Half of the respondents wanted their spouse to

take more leisure time with extra time. Second, more income-generating work was followed at (16.67%) and followed by direct person care at (12.50%).

4.3.6 Access to Public Services

The study inquired about access to distinct types of public infrastructure and services, namely water, electricity, health facilities and childcare as shown in table (4.29). The logic was that provision of these services could reduce care demands at the household level – e.g. where electricity is provided, households may rely less on the collection of fuel – and/or provoke a redistribution of household labour.

Table (4.29) Public Services Available to Households by Geographical Locations

Public Services		Urban		Rural	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Do you use an improved water source (not a natural source like a river, spring)?	No	0	0%	3	30%
	Yes	10	100%	7	70%
If 'yes': Is it usually government provided?	No	0	0%	7	70%
	Yes	10	100%	0	0%
Does your family usually use health facilities when household members are ill?	No	1	10%	0	0%
	Yes	9	90%	10	100%
If 'yes': Is it usually government provided?	No	6	67%	10	100%
	Yes	3	33%	0	0%
Do you use electricity in your house?	No	0	0%	10	100%
	Yes	10	100%	0	0%
If 'yes': Is it usually government provided?	No	0	0%	0	0%
	Yes	10	100%	0	0%
Does your family usually use childcare facilities?	No	9	90%	9	90%
	Yes	1	10%	1	10%
If 'yes': Is it usually government provided?	No	-	-	1	100%
	Yes	1	100%	-	-

Source: Survey Data, 2019

According to the table (4.29), it was clearly shown that households in rural areas were required much service provisions from the government.

(i) Water

All households in urban area had access to improved water source where 70% of households in rural area did the same and 30% of rural households did not access to improved water source. Although those household who accessed to improved water source with the government provision, no household in rural area did not receive any government provision of water source.

(ii) Healthcare

9 out of 10 urban households (90%) used healthcare facilities when family members were ill while 10% of rural household was able to use healthcare services. For those 9 households in urban area, only 33% of them used the government provision healthcare services. In rural areas, all households did not access to the government services.

(iii) Electricity

All households in urban area used electricity, however no single household used the electricity. The government service provision reached to households in urban area.

(iv) Childcare

Only one household from urban area used the childcare facilities which is provided by the government and the rest household did not have any child, and only one household from rural area used childcare center which is not provided by the government.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

5.1 Findings

In this study, sampling survey for situation of unpaid care work and perception towards caring of people and domestic work was conducted in one village and one ward of Myaing Township in Magway Region with total of 20 households. Findings from the study may not completely represent the whole situation of unpaid care work of the township due to small sample size.

As finding of the study, the household population is 79 in total (40 from Ward (1) and 39 from Wet Kyone Village) in which 39.2% is male respondents and 60.8% is female respondents. One third of the respondents completed upper secondary education and above.

A key finding for caring for people and domestic work is that women spend more time than men did (5.50 hours and 3.29 hours in average respectively). Urban people also spend more time for caring for people and domestic work than rural people. On an average, people who are married spend 4.96 hours, people who are separated spend 4.5 hours, people who are single spend 4.09 hours, and people who are widow/ widower spend 3 hours for caring for people and domestic work. People who are at young aged population (under 30 years) spend more than the people who are older than 30 years of age. Interestingly, people who are graduated and do paid work spend more time than other people, which is 6.5 hours on an average.

A second finding from behaviour/ distribution of unpaid care work among the study population is that 67% of women do water collection for household consumption while 20% of men do the same thing. For fuel collection for meal preparation, women only reported at 25%. For meal preparation, both men and women shared together at 78% and 80% respectively. For cleaning the house and compound, 67% of women said they do it alone while 11% of men do as well. For caring for children, and elderly, ill or disable, most women do all these care

responsibilities where 85% of men said they do community care. It is noticed that division of tasks among couples is not equal and redistribution of unpaid care work is still deemed due to prevailing patriarchal norms and customs.

Regarding to the perception of unpaid care work, three aspects of perception towards attitudes, empirical expectation and normative expectation were assessed as a third finding. Most of men and women reported they are doing the right thing which means caring for people and domestic work is intrinsically come out due to inner motivation. Only 20% (5 out of 24) of men did not accept it. Moreover, the majority said they do caring for people and domestic work regardless of what other people do also. Likewise, the majority answered they do caring for people and domestic work independently without interferer for other's expectation.

In contrast, most respondents (72.60%) mentioned women should receive help from girls and women with caring for people and domestic work. Moreover, the respondents reported men in general (sons, boys, young men) are to be able to do or know how to do for cleaning the house or compound, fuel collection, caring for elderly, ill or disabled, and water collection. Furthermore, men reported men should take more time for leisure, income-generating work and training and education with their extra time, and women should take more time for leisure, income-generating work and better direct care work with their extra time.

Finally, in Myaing Township, the government service provision is very limited to rural area. In urban area, the government services related to hardware provision (i.e., water and electricity) are more reachable than software provision (i.e., healthcare and child care services). Potentially, where water is provided, households opt to collect more water, and water collection is safer for girls and women to do.

5.2 Suggestions

In order to visible unpaid burden to women, more in-depth continuous researches led by the government should be carried out for recognition of unpaid care work which can also contribute to SDG implementation of Myanmar. As a result of continuous evidence-based researches, policy makers can raise the visibility of unpaid care work in policy spaces in national advocacy agenda. Moreover, most national

labour surveys do not measure women's unpaid care work. Collecting data on all women's work, both paid and unpaid, is critical to improving the design for social policies and allocation of resources to address poverty and inequality.

Reducing unpaid care work should involve reducing the burden for the individual (usually a woman) at household level and society as a whole. This frees time for women and girls to pursue other activities such as formal jobs or political participation. Unpaid care work can be reduced through the introduction of infrastructure and technology such as wells that provide easier access to clean drinking water reducing the amount of time spent collecting water. The burden of unpaid care work can also be reduced through increased public services like child care with sufficient allocation of government budget.

Redistribution of unpaid care work to more fairly distribute the amount of work done by individuals includes redistribution among men, women, households, markets, the state and civil society organizations. While the overall amount of care work remains the same, the share of responsibilities, time and resources is more equitably distributed.

The current study focused on general understanding on unpaid care work ranging in working age from 15 to 64. Some findings indicate the weak in time use analysis to draw the complete picture of unpaid care work situation in Myanmar with limited time, skill and technology. Research should continue to investigate and compare the experience of people from 5 to 64 with different socioeconomic aspects.

Another future direction of research could be the exploration of valuation and qualities of unpaid care work in other women's lives. For example, the women examined in this study were least percentage of outside of labour force appeared to be one ethnicity in Myaing township, Magway Region. It is crucial to examine the household work perceptions of women from all social, economic classes and ethnicities.

Another important population to examine would be the lives of single mothers. The current study focused on men and women who are single, partnered, employed, and who have a child, but it would also be interesting to investigate single women who are employed and have a child. An interesting future direction may also be to explore men's opinions in household work. It would be very fascinating to understand

what men have to say about household work, do they feel the division of household work is fair, what types of activities do they perform around the house, and what would make them perform more household work.

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APPENDIX

Survey Questionnaire for

“A study on Situation of Unpaid Care Work in Myanmar”

(A case study of Myaing Township, Magway Region)

Part (1) General Questions for Household Members

1.1	Village Name (or) Ward Name			
1.2	House Number (or) Household Headed Name			
1.3	Number of direct family member			
1.4	Number of extended family members (if any)			
1.5	Respondent Name			
1.6	Gender	Male	1	
		Female	2	
1.7	Marital status	Single	1	
		Married	2	
		Widow/Widower	3	
		Divorce/Separated	4	
1.7	Age Group	15 – 19	1	
		20 – 24	2	
		25 – 29	3	
		30 – 34	4	
		35 – 39	5	
		40 – 44	6	
		45 – 49	7	
		50 – 54	8	
		55 – 59	9	
		60 – 64	10	
1.8	Educational Status	No Education	1	
		Incomplete Primary	2	
		Completed Primary	3	
		Incomplete Lower Secondary	4	
		Completed Lower Secondary	5	
		Incomplete Upper Secondary	6	
		Higher than Upper Secondary	7	
		Other	8	
1.9	Occupation			

Part (2) Time Allocation of Daily Activities

Please think about what you were doing in the last 24 hours (yesterday morning at 4am, finishing 3am of the current day). I will ask you for the main activity and one simultaneous activity you were doing at a certain time during the day.

No	Activity	2.1
		What are you doing yesterday from [Time]?
		See codes below
A	04am – 05am	
B	05am – 06am	
C	06am – 07am	
D	07am – 08am	
E	08am – 09am	
F	09am – 10am	
G	10am – 11am	
H	11am – 12am	
I	12am – 01pm	
J	01pm – 02pm	
K	02pm – 03pm	
L	03pm – 04pm	
M	04pm – 05pm	
N	05pm – 06pm	
O	06pm – 07pm	
P	07pm – 08pm	
Q	08pm – 09pm	
R	09pm – 10pm	
S	10pm – 11pm	
T	11pm – 12am	
U	12am – 01am	
V	01am – 02am	
W	02am – 03am	
X	03am – 04am	

<i>Leisure and resting</i> 00 = Doing nothing 01 = Sleeping, napping 02 = Personal care and eating 03 = Leisure time	17 = Food and drink preparation, doing the dishes 18 = Grinding, pounding 19 = Cleaning the house or compound, preparing the beds 20 = Fuel collection (e.g. firewood, charcoal)
<i>Paid work</i>	

<p>04 = Selling products at the market/work in own business</p> <p>05 = Construction, making furniture, repairing</p> <p>06 = Fishing</p> <p>07 = Tending livestock, caring for animals</p> <p>08 = Opening the ground for farming</p> <p>09 = Weeding</p> <p>10 = Harvesting</p> <p>11 = Drying, processing an agricultural product</p> <p>12 = Other farming activities</p> <p>13 = Other non-farming income generating activities</p> <p><i>Caring for people and domestic work</i></p> <p>14 = Shopping household supplies (incl. food)</p> <p>15 = Washing drying, clothes ironing, mending clothes (for myself)</p> <p>16 = Washing drying, clothes ironing, mending clothes (for others)</p>	<p>21 = Water collection</p> <p>22 = Caring for children</p> <p>23 = Teaching/tutoring/training children</p> <p>24 = Caring for disabled, ill, elderly</p> <p>25 = Caring for community members</p> <p><i>Education</i></p> <p>26 = Attending school, training or studying</p> <p>27 = Attending school related events</p> <p><i>Community activities</i></p> <p>28 = Attending group/committee meetings</p> <p>29 = Community work (e.g. infrastructure projects or community events)</p> <p>30 = Attending community functions (e.g. weddings, funerals)</p> <p><i>Other activities</i></p> <p>31 = Religious activity</p> <p>32 = Activities related to health care</p> <p>33 = Other</p>
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Part (3) Behaviour and Division of Tasks

		<p>3.1 Who usually does this [TASK]?</p> <p>0 = I do always</p> <p>1 = Usually me</p> <p>2 = Shared equally or done together</p> <p>3 = Usually my partner</p> <p>4 = My partner does always</p> <p>5 = others in household do this task</p> <p>98 = I don't know</p> <p>99 = no one/ not applicable</p>
A	Water Collection	
B	Fuel Collection	
C	Meal Preparation	
D	Washing, ironing, mending clothes	
E	Cleaning the house or compound	
F	Caring for children	
G	Caring for elderly, ill or disabled	
H	Caring for community members	

3.2	Do you agree with the following statements?
A	<p>I do this amount of caring for people because I personally think it is the right thing to do.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">1 2 3 4 5</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree</p> <p>Why do you feel/think like that?</p> <p>_____</p>
B	<p>I do this amount of domestic work because I personally think it is the right thing to do</p> <p style="text-align: center;">1 2 3 4 5</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree</p> <p>Why do you feel/think like that?</p> <p>_____</p>
C	<p>I do this amount of caring for people because I think this is what other women do</p> <p style="text-align: center;">1 2 3 4 5</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree</p> <p>Why do you feel/think like that?</p> <p>_____</p>
D	<p>I do this amount of domestic work because I think this is what other women do</p> <p style="text-align: center;">1 2 3 4 5</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree</p> <p>Why do you feel/think like that?</p> <p>_____</p>
E	<p>I do this amount of caring for people because I think this is what others expect me to do</p> <p style="text-align: center;">1 2 3 4 5</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree</p> <p>Why do you feel/think like that?</p> <p>_____</p>
F	<p>I do this amount of domestic work because I think this is what others expect me to do</p> <p style="text-align: center;">1 2 3 4 5</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree</p> <p>Why do you feel/think like that?</p> <p>_____</p>

G	<p>How satisfied are you with this division of tasks?</p> <p style="text-align: center;">1 2 3 4 5</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree</p> <p>Why do you feel/think like that?</p> <p>_____</p>
H	<p>How satisfied do you think your partner is with this division of tasks?</p> <p style="text-align: center;">1 2 3 4 5</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree</p> <p>Why do you feel/think like that?</p> <p>_____</p>

Part (4) Personal Views

WOMEN AND MEN

Now, I will ask you about your personal views. Please feel free to answer any way you like -- there are no right or wrong answers.

4.1	<p>From whom should women mainly receive help with caring for people and domestic work? (You can select up to two options)</p>	<p>0 = No one 1 = Husband 2 = Girls 3 = Boys 4 = Other women 5 = Other men 6 = Other: _____</p>	<p><input type="checkbox"/></p> <p><input type="checkbox"/></p>
4.2	<p>What domestic/care work, if any, would you like your sons/boys/young men in your family to be able to do or know how to do well? Please select all that apply.</p>	<p>0 = None 1 = Water collection 2 = Fuel collection 3 = Meal preparation 4 = Washing, ironing, mending clothes 5 = Cleaning the house or compound 6 = Caring for children 7 = Caring for elderly, ill, disabled 8 = Caring for community members 9 = Other: _____</p>	<p><input type="checkbox"/></p> <p><input type="checkbox"/></p> <p><input type="checkbox"/></p> <p><input type="checkbox"/></p> <p><input type="checkbox"/></p> <p><input type="checkbox"/></p> <p><input type="checkbox"/></p> <p><input type="checkbox"/></p>
4.3	<p>FOR MEN: If you had to spend less time on caring for people and domestic work what would you do with your extra time?</p>	<p>1 = More leisure time/sleep/personal care 2 = More income-generating work 3 = More agriculture 4 = Provide better direct person care (e.g. children) 5 = Engage in community activities or social life 6 = Help neighbours/friends 7 = More education/training 8 = More religious activities 9 = Other: _____ _____</p> <p>98 = I don't know</p>	<p><input type="checkbox"/></p>

4.4	FOR MEN: If your wife had to spend less time on caring for people and domestic work what would she do with her extra time?	1 = More leisure time/sleep/personal care 2 = More income-generating work 3 = More agriculture 4 = Provide better direct person care (e.g. children) 5 = Engage in community activities or social life 6 = Help neighbours/friends 7 = More education/training 8 = More religious activities 9 = Other: <hr/> 98 = I don't know	<input type="text"/>
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Part (5) External support (Government Services)

5.1	Do you use an improved water source (not a natural source like a river, spring)?	0 = Yes 1 = No	<input type="text"/>
5.2	<i>If 'yes' :</i> Is it usually government provided?	0 = No 1 = Yes 98 = I don't know	<input type="text"/>
5.3	<i>If 'yes' :</i> How long does it take to walk from your house to the improved water source that you use? <i>If you have a tap on the compound, please enter 0</i>	Time in minutes	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
5.4	Does your family usually use health facilities when household members are ill?	0 = No <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 1 = Yes	<input type="text"/>
5.5	<i>If 'yes' :</i> Is it usually government provided?	0 = No 1 = Yes 98 = I don't know	<input type="text"/>
5.6	<i>If 'yes' :</i> How long does it take to walk from your house to the health facility that you usually use?	Time in minutes	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
5.7	How long does it take to walk from your house to the nearest all season road? (e.g. tarmacked)	Time in minutes	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
5.8	How long does it take to walk from your house to the nearest market place?	Time in minutes	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>

5.9	Do you use electricity in your house?	0 = No <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 1 = Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.10	<i>If 'yes':</i> Is it usually government provided?	0 = No 1 = Yes 98 = I don't know	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.11	Does your family usually use childcare facilities?	0 = No <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 1 = Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.12	<i>If 'yes':</i> Is it usually government provided?	0 = No <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 1 = Yes 98 = I don't know	<input type="checkbox"/>

-----End of the Survey-----