



# Uneven Burdens: Women in Myanmar's Crisis Economy

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# EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

**M**yanmar is facing a complex and protracted crisis marked by deepening poverty, rising displacement, and severe strain on essential services. Households and communities are under extraordinary pressure, particularly women and girls. While women's roles in sustaining families and local economies have expanded during the crisis, evidence shows that their access to livelihoods, income, assets and decision-making power has narrowed, constraining women's economic empowerment. This reflects not only persistent gender inequalities, but their intensification in a context of prolonged conflict and systemic disruption, where pressures on households are increasingly absorbed through women's unpaid labour.

This report presents updated evidence on constraints to women's economic empowerment in Myanmar, drawing on the Myanmar Gender Survey, a nationally representative survey of 5,405 individuals conducted jointly by UNDP and UN Women between January and April 2025. Against a backdrop of conflict, economic contraction and disruptions to service delivery and labour market functioning, the analysis traces how prevailing social norms and unequal care responsibilities translate into women's labour market participation, income, access to assets and food security outcomes. At the same time, the report underscores that women's economic empowerment is not only constrained by discriminatory norms but can also help transform them. Expanded access to paid work, income and economic assets can strengthen household resilience and, over time, contribute to shifts in economic roles and decision-making dynamics.

Labour force participation among women remains significantly lower than among men, particularly for youth, older women, and those in conflict-affected areas. Nearly 29 percent of women aged 15 to 64 are not in employment, education, or training (NEET), compared to less than 12 percent of men. Unpaid care responsibilities remain a central constraint, with 78 percent of women outside the labour force citing caregiving as their main activity. Norms that position women as primary caregivers and men as breadwinners continue to limit women's economic empowerment and mobility. Notably, in areas without direct conflict exposure, women's employment rates are comparable to or slightly higher than men's, while in high-conflict areas this pattern reverses sharply, indicating that conflict not only exacerbates inequalities but actively widens gender gaps in economic participation.

Income disparities are significant and persistent. Women earn approximately 21 percent less than men at the median level, and 42 percent of women report having no income at all. Limited savings and widespread informality further reduce economic resilience. Unequal



access to productive assets compounds these constraints. Among agricultural workers, 49 percent of women report owning land compared to 64 percent of men, and business ownership among women is half that of men, which is associated with more limited control over income and economic decision-making.

Food insecurity reflects the cumulative effects of these economic constraints, shaped by declining household incomes, limited purchasing power, and compounded by conflict, market disruptions and displacement. While 49 percent of the population is food secure, 51 percent experience some level of food insecurity, rising to 53 percent among women. Gender gaps are particularly pronounced in urban and conflict-affected areas, where access to livelihoods, markets and services has been most disrupted. In Rakhine, for example, only 19 percent of women are food secure compared to 30 percent of men. Women are also more likely to adopt multiple and severe coping strategies in response to constrained resources; in severely food-insecure households, 11 percent of women report relying on 10–11 coping mechanisms compared to four percent of men. The consequences extend to children: in severely food-insecure households, 32 percent of children engage in work and 24 percent drop out of school.

The findings point to a consistent and persistent pattern linking social norms, unpaid care responsibilities and economic outcomes in Myanmar's crisis-affected economy. While these dynamics are not unique in themselves, their intensity and interaction in a context of prolonged conflict and service disruption create particularly acute constraints for women. Unequal care responsibilities represent a central structural constraint, especially for youth, older women and those in conflict-affected areas. These responsibilities are associated with lower labour force participation, which in turn limits earnings, savings, access to productive assets and food security. At the same time, women's economic roles are expanding without a corresponding increase in access to income, assets or decision-making power, pointing to constrained pathways towards empowerment. Addressing these constraints is challenging in the current context and requires a combination of measures, including strengthening care systems, improving access to decent work, ensuring more equitable land and asset rights, and integrating gender-responsive approaches into food security and social protection programmes. Addressing uneven opportunities remains central to reducing economic disadvantages and strengthening resilience at both household and community levels, particularly in the context of sustained crisis.



# INTRODUCTION

**P**rior to Myanmar's democratic transition in 2011, women faced longstanding constraints in economic participation, education, leadership and decision-making. These constraints reflected a combination of institutional arrangements, legal frameworks and prevailing social expectations regarding gender roles. Social norms in many parts of Myanmar have traditionally associated caregiving and household responsibilities primarily with women and girls, while leadership and certain occupations have been more closely associated with men. Legal provisions, including

*Social norms in many parts of Myanmar have traditionally associated caregiving and household responsibilities primarily with women and girls, while leadership and certain occupations have been more closely associated with men.*

references within the 2008 Constitution to gender-differentiated roles, have reflected and, in some cases, reinforced these expectations.<sup>1</sup> At the same time, Myanmar's social landscape is highly diverse, with more than 100 ethnic groups and considerable variation in gender roles and practices across regions and communities.

Following the political transition in 2011, a range of local and international organizations expanded efforts related to women's rights, political participation and economic inclusion. Women's organizations and networks increased in visibility, and women's participation in public life grew, albeit from a low base.<sup>2</sup> The Ministry of Social Welfare, Relief and Resettlement launched the National Strategic Plan for the Advancement of Women (2013–2022),<sup>3</sup> providing a policy framework for gender equality initiatives. Since the military takeover, however, the operating environment for gender-focused programming and civil society engagement has become more constrained, affecting institutional capacity and civic space.<sup>4</sup>

Women and girls are disproportionately affected by the country's protracted conflict and socioeconomic downturn. Broader evidence from UN and international reporting has also documented conflict-related sexual violence (CRSV), sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV) and gender-based violence (GBV), which intersect with structural factors such as limited participation in decision-making, gaps in legal rights and protection, and constrained access to resources.<sup>5</sup> Women with disabilities, rural women, and woman-headed households often face compounded challenges. These patterns are reflected

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1 UNDP and UN Women (2023). Regressing Gender Equality in Myanmar: Women living under the pandemic and military rule. United Nations Development Programme and United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women.  
2 Hedstorm, J., Olivius, E., and Soe, K. (2023). Women in Myanmar. Myanmar: Politics, Economy and Society. Pp. 220-236.  
3 Jimeno, d. C. A. (2021). The Fight for Women's Rights in Myanmar. The Borgen Project.  
4 United Nations General Assembly (2025). Situation of human rights in Myanmar, Human Rights Council, 59th Session. A/HRC/59/5.  
5 WLB (2025). Seeking justice and accountability for women victims and survivors of conflict-related sexual violence in Burma/Myanmar. Women League of Myanmar; Hedstorm, J., Olivius, E., and Soe, K. (2023). Women in Myanmar; Ebead, N. (2025). Celebrating Myanmar's women's resilience for democracy. International Idea.

in Myanmar's performance on global gender indicators. In 2023, the country ranked 118th out of 172 countries on the Gender Inequality Index (GII), with a value of 0.478, reflecting persistent gaps in employment, income, unpaid care, education and representation.<sup>6</sup>

Since February 2021, labour market conditions have deteriorated significantly. The International Labour Organization (ILO) reports that employment rates and working hours have declined significantly since the pandemic and the military takeover, with a disproportionate impact on women. Casual and subsistence own-account work has increased, often replacing more stable wage employment, reducing household income security. Sectors with a high concentration of women workers, such as garments and tourism, have been particularly affected.<sup>7</sup> Evidence also indicates that women are increasingly unable to participate in formal and informal economic activities, with rising unpaid care responsibilities frequently cited as a contributing factor. A 2021 joint study by UN Women and UNDP found that two in five women reported that increased care burdens affected their ability to earn income.<sup>8</sup> UNDP's 2025 report, "*A Generation on Hold: Youth Employment and Education in Myanmar*,"<sup>9</sup> found that 65.9 percent of women aged 18-35 reported being restricted from pursuing education, training, or employment due to caregiving responsibilities, and half experienced earnings declines of more than 50 percent.

Gendered social expectations continue to shape how households allocate time, resources and responsibilities. In many contexts, women remain primarily responsible for unpaid care and domestic work, while men are more often regarded as principal earners. These patterns do not operate in isolation; they interact with labour market contraction, institutional disruptions and conflict-related constraints. As services weaken and insecurity rises, care demands often increase and mobility may become more restricted, which can influence women's economic participation. At the same time, limited access to productive resources and decision-making structures can shape how households respond to crisis. The effects are not uniform across all women, but vary by location, socio-economic status, disability and household composition.

Against this backdrop, this report adopts an economic lens to examine how social expectations, care responsibilities and labour market conditions interact to shape labour force participation, income, asset ownership and food security outcomes. Rather than assuming a linear causal chain, the analysis explores how these factors reinforce or mitigate one another within Myanmar's evolving crisis context. It first reviews the structural conditions associated with women's economic participation, then examines gender gaps in employment, earnings, savings and access to productive resources. It subsequently assesses how these economic dynamics are associated with household-level outcomes, including food insecurity, coping strategies and intergenerational effects. By tracing these interconnected patterns, the report provides evidence to inform gender-responsive recovery, social protection and resilience-building efforts.

*This report adopts an economic lens to examine how social expectations, care responsibilities and labour market conditions interact to shape labour force participation, income, asset ownership and food security outcomes.*



6 UNDP (2025). Myanmar: Human Development Reports. UNDP: Human Development Reports.

7 ILO (2023). Labour market update 2023. International Labour Organization.

8 UNDP and UN Women (2022). Regressing Gender Equality in Myanmar: Women living under the pandemic and military rule.

9 UNDP (2025). A Generation on Hold: Youth Employment and Education in Myanmar. United Nations Development Programme.

## 1.1 Data and Methodology

This report draws on the Myanmar Gender Survey, a nationally representative survey of 5,405 individuals aged 15 and above from all states and regions in Myanmar, conducted between January and April 2025. It provides one of the most comprehensive recent insights into gendered realities in the country. The survey was jointly conducted by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment (UN Women), using Computer Assisted Telephone Interviewing (CATI).



*This report draws on the Myanmar Gender Survey, a nationally representative survey of 5,405 individuals aged 15 and above from all states and regions in Myanmar.*

Respondents were selected through a probabilistic random sample, designed to ensure representation of the diverse perspectives across states and regions. Survey weights, based on the 2014 census, the most recent nationally available population data, were applied to align the

sample with national population demographics and to adjust for non-responses. Appendix Table 1 summarizes the main characteristics of the 5,405 respondents disaggregated by sex, age and state/region. It also includes the urban/rural distribution, marital status, and education status.

Regarding food security, the analysis draws on both descriptive statistics, presented through graphs and tables, and regression modelling to assess the determinants of food insecurity. A multinomial logistic regression model is used, suitable for dependent variables with more than two categories (e.g. food secure, mildly food insecure, moderately food insecure, and severely food insecure). This approach enables the evaluation of how factors such as sex, age, household composition, and geographic location influence the likelihood of experiencing varying levels of food insecurity. Unlike descriptive analysis, regression techniques allow for multivariable control and provide statistical significance testing for each predictor.

### Limitations and Mitigation

The survey used the CATI method, conducting interviews by phone, which is a necessary approach given the ongoing security and access constraints in Myanmar. However, this method may have excluded individuals without telephone access, potentially underrepresenting some of the most marginalized and vulnerable individuals.


Additionally, security concerns and connectivity restrictions hindered quantitative data collection in certain areas, particularly Kachin and Chin, resulting in lower sample sizes in these areas ("Appendix Table 1: Summary of the Survey Respondents' Information"). While the application of survey weights helps mitigate this limitation by recalibrating results to reflect the demographics of Myanmar, results for these areas should be interpreted with caution and some potential bias may remain.



# Norms, Care and Conflict: Shaping Women's Economic Participation


## Gender Norms & Economic Roles

**35%** of men  
**33%** of women



believe men should be paid more than women for the same job

**46%** of men  
**36%** of women



believe men should make major household decisions.

## Employment Gaps

**64%** Women with children

← 18 percentage-point employment gap →

**82%** Men with children

## Unpaid Care as a Barrier



**78%** of women outside the labour force cite caregiving as their main activity, compared to only 26% of men.

## Unequal Time Burden



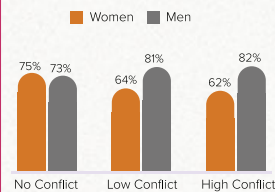
Women spend **4.3** hours/day on unpaid household and care work, compared to **2.4** hours for men.



Women carry nearly double the unpaid workload.

## Conflict & Unemployment

### Unequal Employment Rates



In no-conflict areas, women's employment rate is slightly higher than men's

20-percentage-point gender gap in high-conflict areas.

## Key messages

- **Prevailing gender norms continue to shape perceptions of economic and household roles:** 35% of men and 33% of women believe men should be paid more than women for the same job, while 46% of men believe major household decisions should be made by men.
- **Unpaid care is the primary barrier to women's labour force participation:** 78% of women outside the labour force cite caregiving as their main activity, compared to only 26% of men.
- **Women carry nearly double the unpaid workload:** Women spend 4.3 hours per day on unpaid household and care work, compared to 2.4 hours for men.
- **Employment gaps are wider among households with children:** Employment among women with children is 64%, compared to 82% for fathers, resulting in an 18-percentage-point gender gap in households with children.
- **Conflict amplifies labour market inequality:** In high-conflict areas, women's employment falls to 62% compared to 82% for men, creating a gender gap of nearly 20 percentage points.

## 2.1 The Role of Social Norms

Social norms shape expectations around roles and responsibilities within households and communities. These expectations vary across regions, socioeconomic groups and cultural contexts, but survey data indicate that gendered attitudes remain present in many parts of the country. While there are indications of gradual attitudinal shifts across generations, traditional views regarding economic roles and decision-making continue to influence perceptions of women’s and men’s responsibilities.<sup>10</sup>

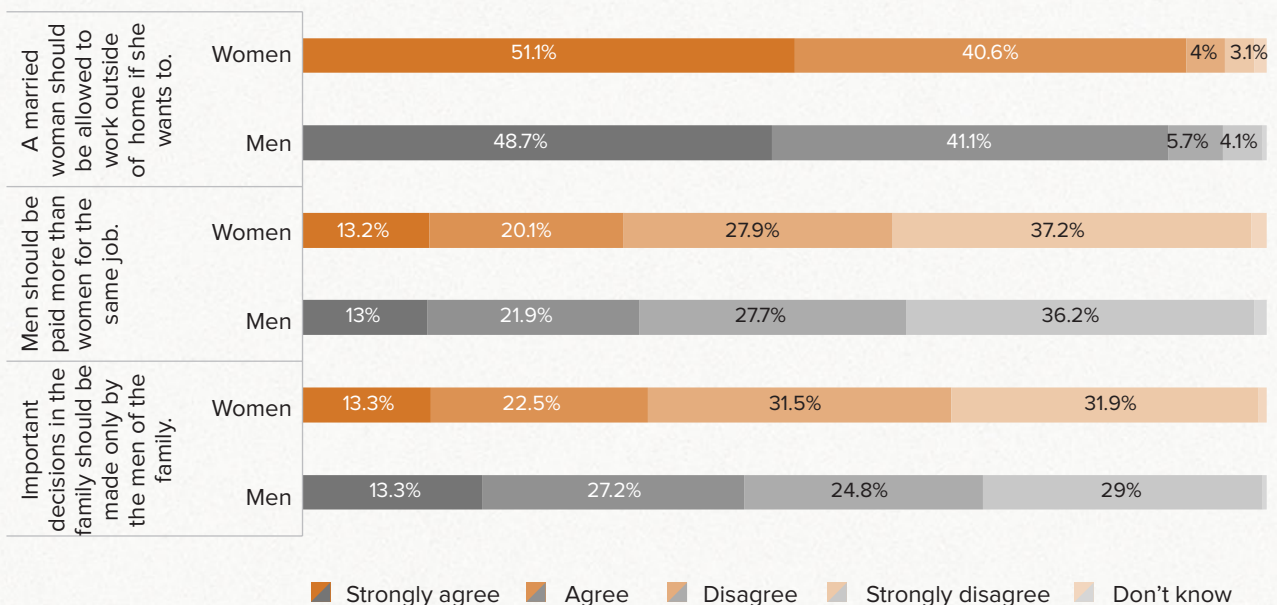


*Nearly half of men (46%) and 36 percent of women believe major household decisions should be made solely by men.*

Survey results illustrate the persistence of certain gender-differentiated views (Figure 1). Nearly 10 percent of men believe that a married woman should not work outside the home, even if she chooses to do so, and seven percent of women share this view. In addition, 35 percent of men and 33 percent of women agree that men should be paid more than women for performing the same job.

Attitudes related to household decision-making also reveal gender differences. Forty-six percent of men and 36 percent of women agree that important family decisions should be made solely by men in the household. These views reflect ongoing perceptions about authority, economic responsibility and gender roles within families.

**Figure 1** Normative statements (by gender)



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

Gendered expectations around caregiving are associated with differences in labour market participation. Women’s engagement in paid work and their disproportionate share of unpaid labour reflect an interaction of factors, including the legal and institutional environment, availability of care

<sup>10</sup> UN Women (2024). The Care Economy in ASEAN: A Data Snapshot. United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women.

services, labour market conditions and prevailing social expectations regarding gender roles. Survey findings suggest that caregiving and domestic responsibilities continue to be widely regarded as primarily women’s responsibilities. These activities include cooking, cleaning, water collection, and care for children, older persons and ill family members, all of which are essential for household functioning.

*Gendered expectations around caregiving are associated with differences in labour market participation.*

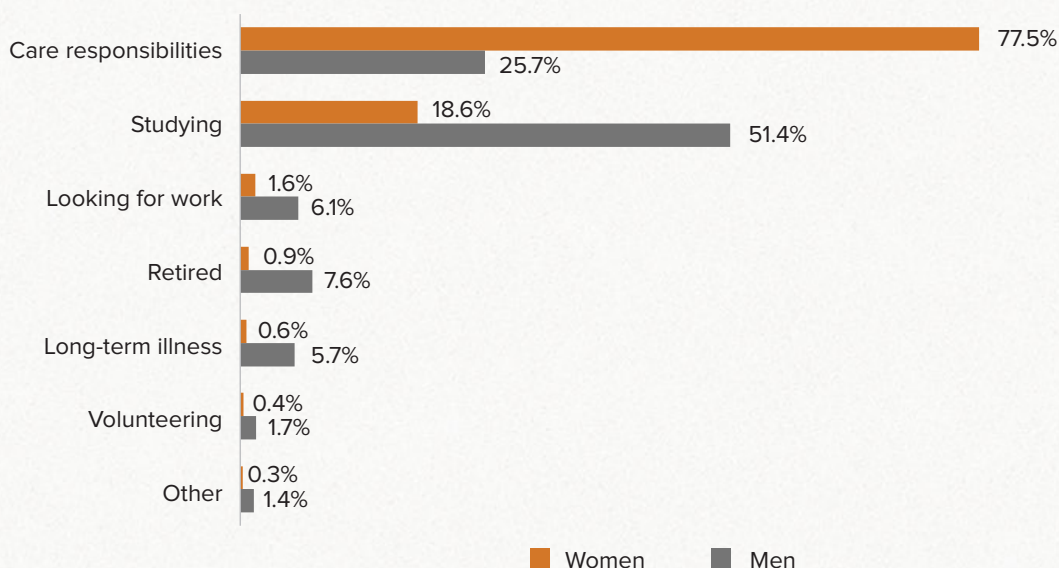


Globally, 42 percent of women outside the labour force cite care responsibilities as the primary reason for not engaging in paid work. In Myanmar, the pattern appears more pronounced. The combined effects of the COVID-19 pandemic, conflict, economic contraction and service disruptions have increased household care demands. A recent report by the Special Rapporteur on the human rights situation in Myanmar notes that conflict and disruptions to formal education have led to increased unpaid care responsibilities within households, with implications for women’s time use and labour market engagement.

According to an earlier survey by the UNDP and UN Women in Myanmar between November and December 2021, 48.3 percent of the 2,200 women interviewed reported an increase in housework since March 2020, and 50.2 percent indicated that the additional burden of household work fell primarily on women. As shown in Figure 2, 78 percent of women report care responsibilities as the main activity outside of the labour force compared to 26 percent of men, whose primary reasons for not participating in the labour force are studying (51%), retirement (8%) and long-term illness (6%).

This stark disparity underscores how deeply embedded gender norms continue to assign unpaid care and domestic work to women, limiting their time, mobility, and access to paid employment. As a result, the persistent gendered division of labour not only reinforces women’s economic insecurity but also systematically constrains their opportunities for labour force participation and long term economic empowerment.

**Figure 2** Main activities outside of the labour force (by gender)



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

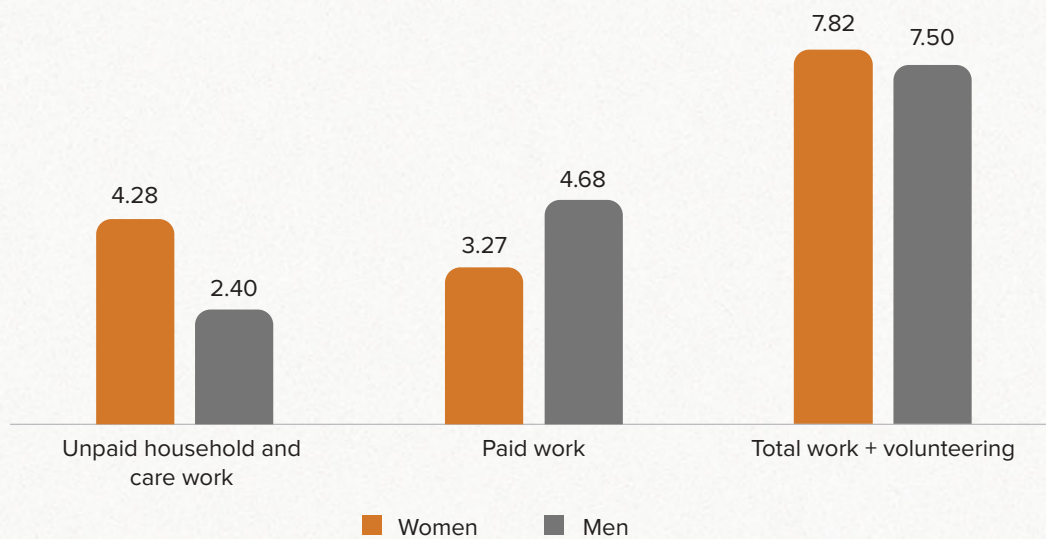
11 ILO (2024). The impact of care responsibilities on women’s labour force participation. International Labour Organization.  
 12 OHCHR (2024). A/HRC/56/CRP.8: Courage amid crisis: gendered impacts of the coup and the pursuit of gender equality in Myanmar. United Nations Human Rights Office of the High Commissioner.  
 13 UNDP and UNWomen (2022). Regressing gender equality in Myanmar: Women living under the pandemic and military rule.

## 2.2 Care and Unpaid Work

Time-use data from the Myanmar Gender Survey indicate that women spend an average of 4.3 hours per day on unpaid household and care work,<sup>14</sup> compared to 2.4 hours for men. The survey also shows that women perform an average of 3.27 hours of paid work per day, while men perform 4.68 hours, including both weekdays and weekends (Figure 3). These patterns suggest that unpaid care responsibilities account for a substantial share of women's total workload and are associated with differences in time available for paid employment.

Figure 3

Average hours spent per day on unpaid and paid work (by gender)



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

### Gender and Parenthood in Labour Market Participation

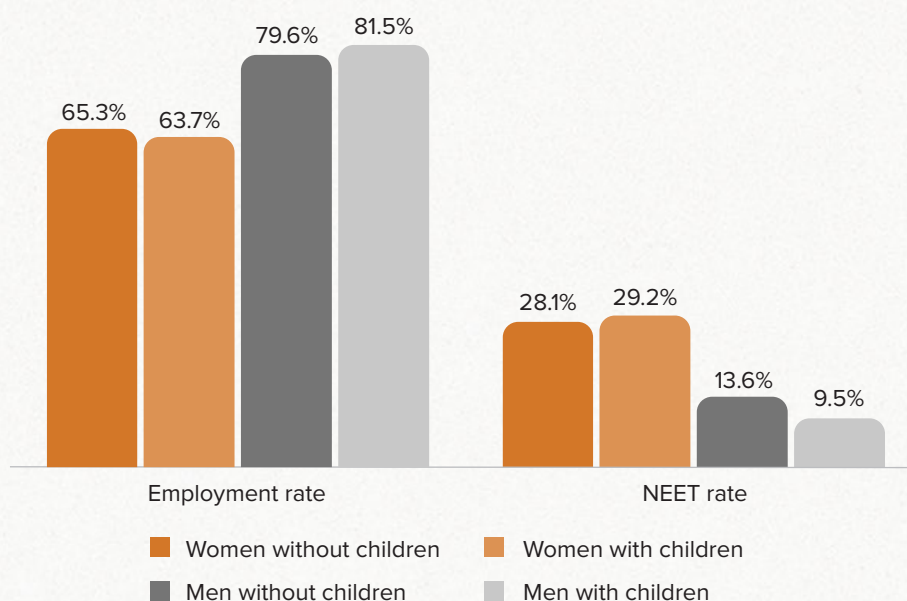
The distribution of unpaid care responsibilities appears more pronounced among women with children. International research has documented that women with children are often less likely to participate in the labour market compared to households without children. In contrast, men with children in some contexts report higher employment rates than non-fathers.

*Women with children have a slightly lower employment rate compared to women without children.*

A similar pattern is observed in Myanmar. Disaggregated labour market indicators based on the presence of children in the household show that women with children have a slightly lower employment rate (63.7%) compared to women without children (65.3%) (Figure 4). For men, employment rates increase from 79.6 percent among those without children to 81.5 percent among fathers.

This corresponds to an employment gap of 18 percentage points between men and women in households with children. The NEET rate also increases slightly for women with children, while it declines for men, indicating that caregiving responsibilities interact differently with labour market engagement for women and men.

<sup>14</sup> This refers to an average day including all days of the week.



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

## Time Use and Total Workload

Engagement in paid employment does not substantially reduce women's unpaid workload. Among employed women, average unpaid care and household work declines only marginally, from 4.37 hours to 4.23 hours per day. At the same time, employed women perform an average of 5.12 hours of paid work per day, resulting in a combined total of 9.61 hours of paid and unpaid work per day, including weekdays and weekends. The comparable figure for employed men is 8.51 hours (Figure 5).

Women with children perform more unpaid work, while their paid work hours are slightly reduced, as illustrated in Figure 6. For men with children, changes in paid and unpaid work hours are less pronounced, with a modest increase in paid work. Although total work hours for women and men with children are relatively similar, the composition differs, with women spending a larger share of time to unpaid care activities.

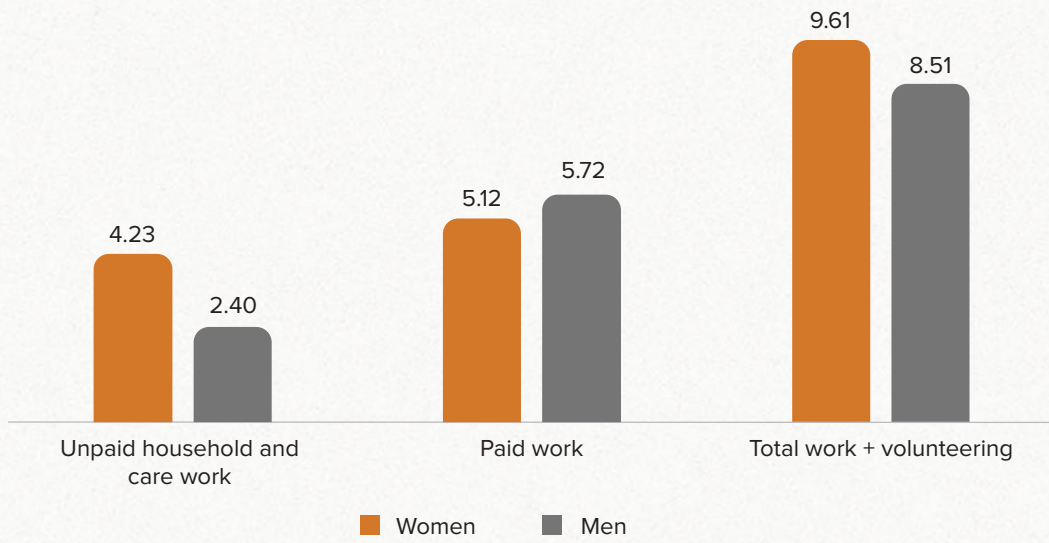
*Women with children perform more unpaid work, while their paid work hours are slightly reduced.*

These findings suggest that women, particularly mothers, combine substantial unpaid responsibilities with paid work. In contexts affected by conflict and service disruptions, where care infrastructure and public services are limited, household care demands may increase, with implications for women's available time for paid work, rest, or civic engagement. This indicates that unpaid care responsibilities are not only persistent, but are intensifying under crisis conditions, amplifying their impact on women's labour market participation.

15 ILO (2018). Care work and care jobs for the future of decent work. International Labour Organization.

Figure 5

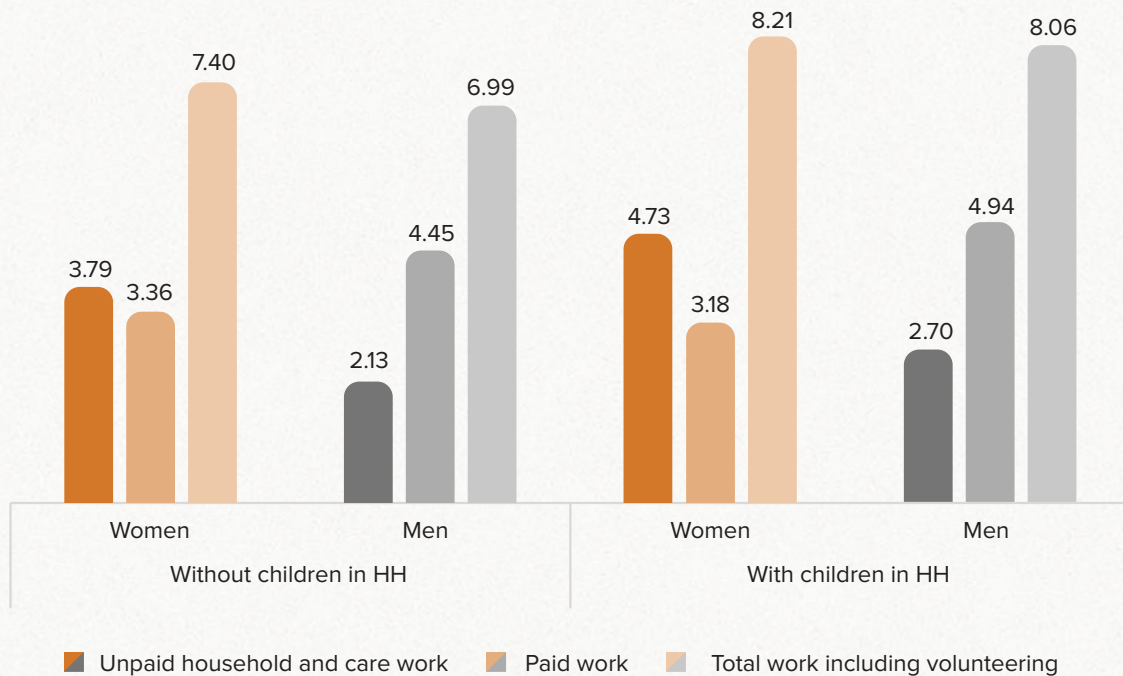
Average hours spent per day on unpaid and paid work (by gender-employed)



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

Figure 6

Average hours spent per day on unpaid and paid work (by gender and children)



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

## The Burden of Unpaid Work

Unpaid care and domestic work have long been recognized in development literature as an important component of household economies. When care responsibilities are unevenly distributed, they are often associated with differences in labour market participation and earnings between women and men. In contexts of declining household income, families may have fewer options to outsource domestic tasks or childcare, which can increase the reliance on unpaid household labour.

Survey findings from Myanmar indicate that rising unpaid care responsibilities are associated with reduced economic engagement for some women. A 2021 joint study by UN Women and UNDP found that two in five women reported that increased care burdens affected their ability to earn income.<sup>16</sup> In the same survey, half of the women interviewed reported a reduction in earnings of more than 50 percent, which they attributed in part to caregiving responsibilities.

As non-market activities, unpaid care and domestic work are not reflected in gross domestic product (GDP) calculations. As a result, their economic contribution is often less visible in macroeconomic assessments and institutional decision-making.<sup>17</sup> Persistent gendered expectations around caregiving and household roles are associated with lower labour force participation among women and may contribute to differences in economic resilience across households, particularly for rural women and woman-headed households.

International experience suggests that shifts in care systems, service provision and household role expectations can influence patterns of economic participation. Programmes that engage both women and men, alongside local institutions, have been associated in some contexts with changes in labour allocation and decision-making dynamics. At the same time, increased participation of women in paid work and income generation has, in various settings, been linked to gradual shifts in household bargaining dynamics and social expectations.

The recognition of unpaid care work is also reflected in Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 5.4, which calls for valuing unpaid care and domestic work through improved public services, infrastructure and social protection systems. Monitoring unpaid care responsibilities provides an important lens for understanding labour market participation and economic resilience within crisis-affected contexts.

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<sup>16</sup> UNDP and UN Women (2022). *Regressing Gender Equality in Myanmar: Women living under the pandemic and military rule*.

<sup>17</sup> UNECE and UN Women (2021). *Empowering women through reducing unpaid work: A regional analysis of Europe and Central Asia*. United Nations Economic Commission for Europe and United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment.

SDG target 5.4 aims 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.” This target is part of Goal 5 on achieving gender equality and empowering all women and girls.

Unpaid care and domestic work, such as childcare, eldercare, cooking and cleaning, are essential for well-being and economic resilience, yet they remain undervalued and disproportionately borne by women and girls. Target 5.4 acknowledges that addressing care inequalities is central to reducing gender gaps in labour force participation, income and leadership.


Measuring progress on this target involves **tracking time-use data**, and shifts in household norms and care infrastructure. It is critical for shaping gender-responsive policies and enabling women’s economic empowerment.

The Myanmar Gender Survey collected time-use data through a stylized questionnaire where respondents were asked to report on how much time they spent on activities related to unpaid household and care work as well as volunteering and paid work.

## 2.3 Amplification by Conflict and Crisis

Analysis using the Vulnerability to Conflict Index (VCI)<sup>19</sup> indicates that women’s employment rates are lower in areas experiencing higher levels of conflict exposure. In these areas, labour market contraction, service disruptions and household insecurity interact with existing gendered divisions of labour. Survey data and broader research suggest that unpaid care responsibilities often increase in conflict-affected settings, particularly where schools, childcare services and public institutions are disrupted.<sup>21</sup>

The combined effects of the COVID-19 pandemic and armed conflict in Myanmar have contributed to prolonged school closures, limited services provision and heightened security concerns. These conditions are associated with increased childcare and household responsibilities, particularly for women. At the same time, deteriorating labour market conditions have reduced formal and informal employment opportunities in several regions.



*In high-conflict areas, the employment rate is 62.4 percent for women, compared to 81.6 percent for men, representing a gender gap of nearly 20 percentage points.*

In high-conflict areas, the employment rate is 62.4 percent for women, compared to 81.6 percent for men, representing a gender gap of nearly 20 percentage points. In comparison, in areas with no reported direct conflict events, though still affected by indirect pressures such as conscription and broader economic disruption, 75.5 percent of

<sup>18</sup> UN. SDG Indicators. United Nations.

<sup>19</sup> UNDP calculates an index called Vulnerability to Conflict Index (VCI) to measure violence against civilians and their vulnerability on the township level “mainly for the internal analytical purpose” by using data from the Armed Location and Event Data Project (ACLED). The index is formed using eight different indicators such as arrest, air strike, shelling, civilian fatalities, displacement, property destruction, and others (which includes up to eight different event types which individually contain too little data but are collectively significant to form a combined indicator).

<sup>20</sup> Ibnouf, F. O. (2019). Women and Unpaid Care Work: A Review. War-Time Care Work and Peacebuilding in Africa

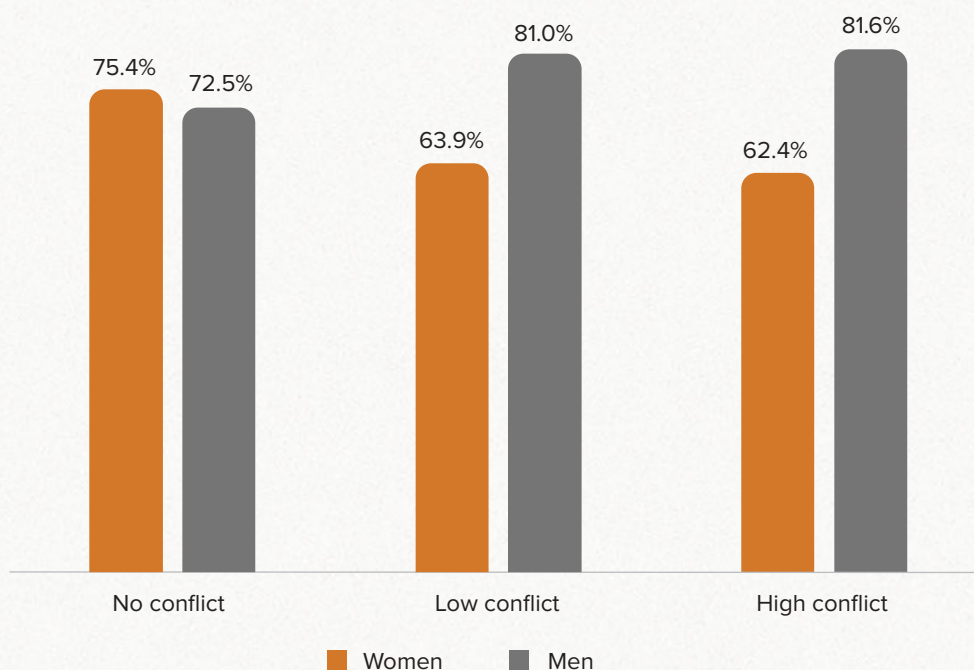
<sup>21</sup> UNDP and UNWomen (2022). Regressing gender equality in Myanmar: Women living under the pandemic and military rule. United Nations Development Programme and United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women.

women employed compared to 72.5 percent of men, representing a 3-percentage-point advantage for women. While multiple factors contribute to these outcomes, the data indicates that conflict intensity is associated with wider gender disparities in employment. This pattern suggests that conflict not only deepens existing inequalities, but can also reverse relative gains in women’s employment observed in more stable areas. Mobility restrictions, safety concerns and the withdrawal of services may further influence women’s ability to engage in paid work.

International experience in fragile and conflict-affected contexts highlights the importance of economic inclusion in recovery processes. The Women, Peace and Security – Humanitarian Action Compact emphasizes the link between women’s economic security, resilience and peacebuilding.<sup>22</sup> In various settings, women’s access to income-generating activities and productive assets has been associated with strengthened household resilience and local recovery dynamics.

In Myanmar, the interaction between conflict intensity, service disruption and pre-existing gender gaps illustrates how crisis settings can widen economic disparities. Strengthening care systems, restoring service delivery and supporting inclusive economic participation are among the structural factors associated with more resilient recovery trajectories. The analysis suggests that women’s economic participation is closely linked to broader patterns of household resilience and local stability in conflict-affected areas.

**Figure 7** Employment-to-population rates (by gender and conflict intensity)



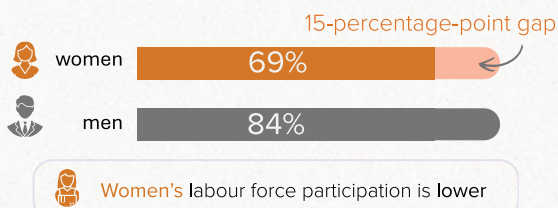
Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

22 UNDP (2025). Women’s economic empowerment as a cornerstone of peace and humanitarian response. United Nations Development Programme.

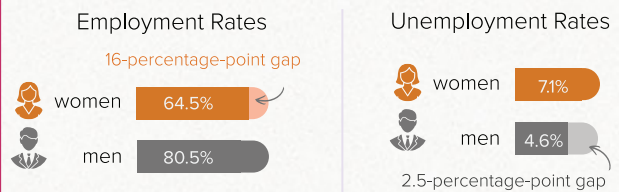


# Labour Market: Persistent Gender Gaps

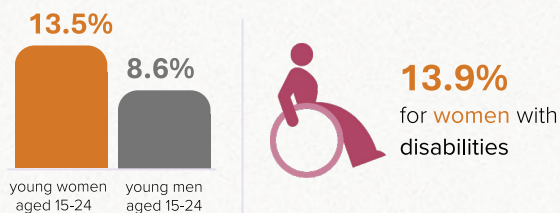
## Labour Force Participation Rates (aged 15-64)



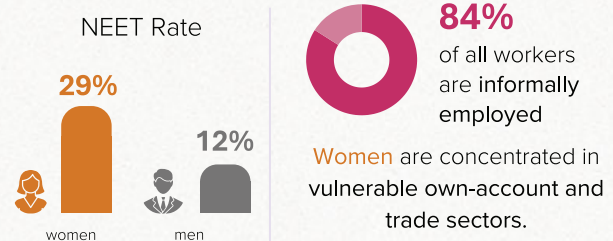
## Employment and Unemployment Rates (aged 15-64)



## Unemployment Rates among Younger Cohort and Women with Disabilities



## Labour Market Exclusion and Informality



## Key messages

- **Women's labour force participation is lower:** 69% of women aged 15–64 participate in the labour force compared to 84% of men, a 15-percentage-point gap.
- **Employment gaps persist across all groups:** 64.5% of women are employed compared to 80.5% of men, a 16-percentage-point gap that holds across age and education levels.
- **Geography and conflict deepen inequality:** In Kayah, one of the most conflict-affected states, only 38.3% of women are employed compared to 67.3% of men, a 29-percentage-point gap.
- **Young women and women with disabilities face the highest unemployment:** Unemployment among young women aged 15–24 reaches 13.5% compared to 8.6% for young men; among women with disabilities, it rises to 13.9%.
- **Labour market exclusion extends beyond unemployment:** 29% of women are not in employment, education or training compared to less than 12% of men; informality affects 84% of all workers, with women concentrated in vulnerable own-account and trade sectors.

### 3.1 Labour Force Participation

Labour force participation, defined as the share of the population that is either employed or actively seeking work, provides an important measure of engagement in the formal and informal economy. Differences in participation rates between women and men reflect broader patterns in access to economic opportunities, income generation and labour market integration.

According to the survey data, the labour force participation rate (LFPR)<sup>23</sup> for women aged 15–64 is 69 percent, compared to 84 percent for men, representing a gender gap of 15 percentage points (Figure 8). The size of this gap varies across states and regions.

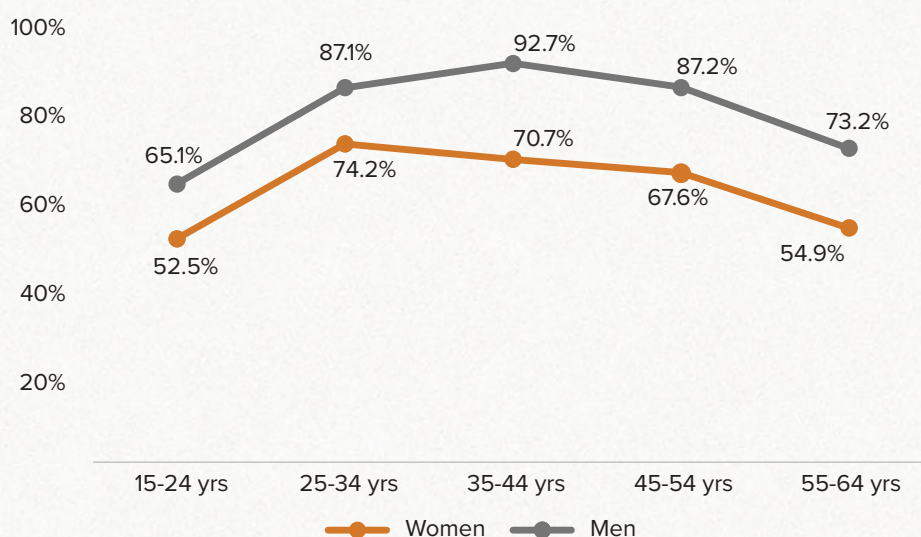
*Labour force participation rate for women aged 15–64 is 69 percent, compared to 84 percent for men, representing a gender gap of 15 percentage points.*

The largest LFPR gaps are observed in Kayin (26.3 percentage points), Shan (23.5 points) and Mon (21.9 points), while Ayeyarwady (6.8 points) and Yangon (8.7 points) record narrower gaps.

Patterns identified in the previous chapter suggest that unequal care responsibilities and gendered role expectations are associated with differences in labour force participation. At the same time, labour market restructuring following the military takeover has affected sectors differently. Industries with high concentrations of women workers, such as garments, tourism and hospitality, have faced significant disruption due to firm closures, power shortages, transport constraints, input shortages and security-related challenges. These shifts have coincided with employment contractions in parts of the public sector.

In contrast, some male-dominated sectors, including mining and construction, have shown relative stability or localized expansion in certain areas. Together, these sectoral patterns are associated with widening gender differences in labour force participation in several regions.<sup>24</sup>

**Figure 8** Labour force participation rate (by gender and age)<sup>25</sup>



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

Note: Based on the population aged 15-64. Individuals classified as economically inactive are those not participating in the labour force, meaning they are not employed and not actively seeking work.

23 The labor force participation rate reflects the proportion of people who are engaged in the labor market, either employed or unemployed but actively seeking work.

24 ILO (2023). ILO Brief: Myanmar labour market update 2023. International Labour Organization.

25 The labour force participation is calculated based on 65% employed and 5% unemployed for women and 81% employed and 4% for men.

## 3.2 Employment and Unemployment

An individual is considered employed if they performed any work for pay, profit or family gain during a specified reference period,<sup>26</sup> or were temporarily absent from such work. This includes wage employment, self-employment, own-account work and unpaid contributing family work, in line with international labour statistics standards.

To be classified as unemployed, individuals must be without work, available for work and actively seeking employment. The unemployment rate therefore excludes those who have stopped looking for work or who are outside the labour force altogether. This distinction is particularly relevant when interpreting youth and gender differences in labour market engagement, as some individuals may transition into inactivity rather than remain classified as unemployed, and is explored further in Section 3.3.

### Employment

The national employment-to-population rate for individuals aged 15 to 64 is 72 percent. The rate for women is 64.5 percent, compared to 80.5 percent for men, representing a gender gap of 16 percentage points.

Employment levels tend to be higher among individuals with either high or low levels of education, compared to those with mid-level educational attainment, as shown in Figure 9. In terms of age, employment increases during the school-to-work transition period (15–24 years) and declines among older cohorts (55–64 years).

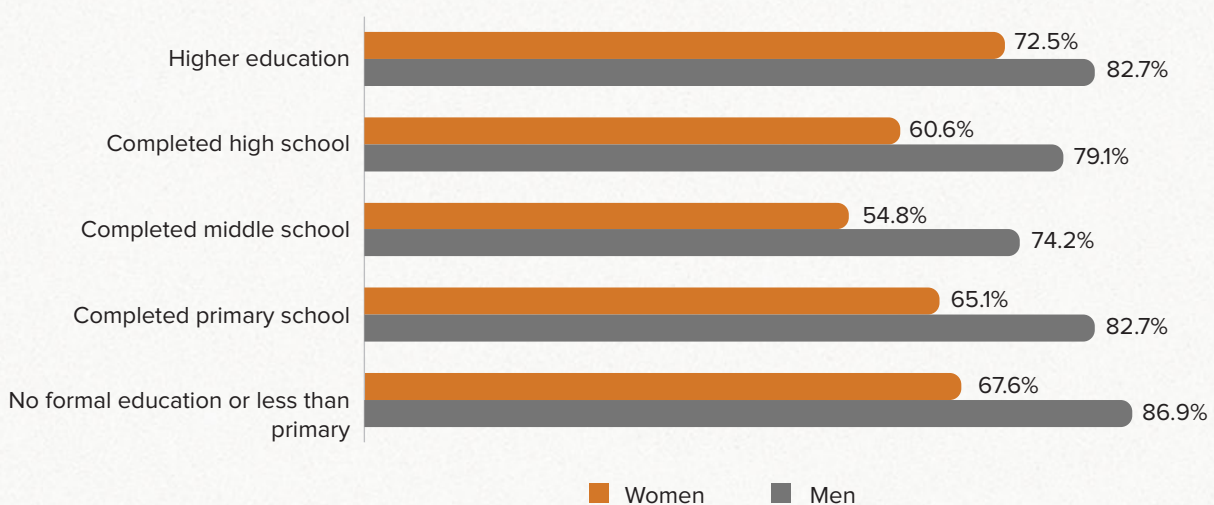


*Across education and age groups, women's employment rates remain consistently lower than those of men.*

Across education and age groups, women's employment rates remain consistently lower than those of men. These patterns suggest that women's employment outcomes are not explained only by age or education alone and also by structural

barriers, such as social norms and values, greater unpaid care responsibilities, and limited access to decent work, that constrain their ability to participate equally.

**Figure 9** Employment-to-population rates (by gender and education status)

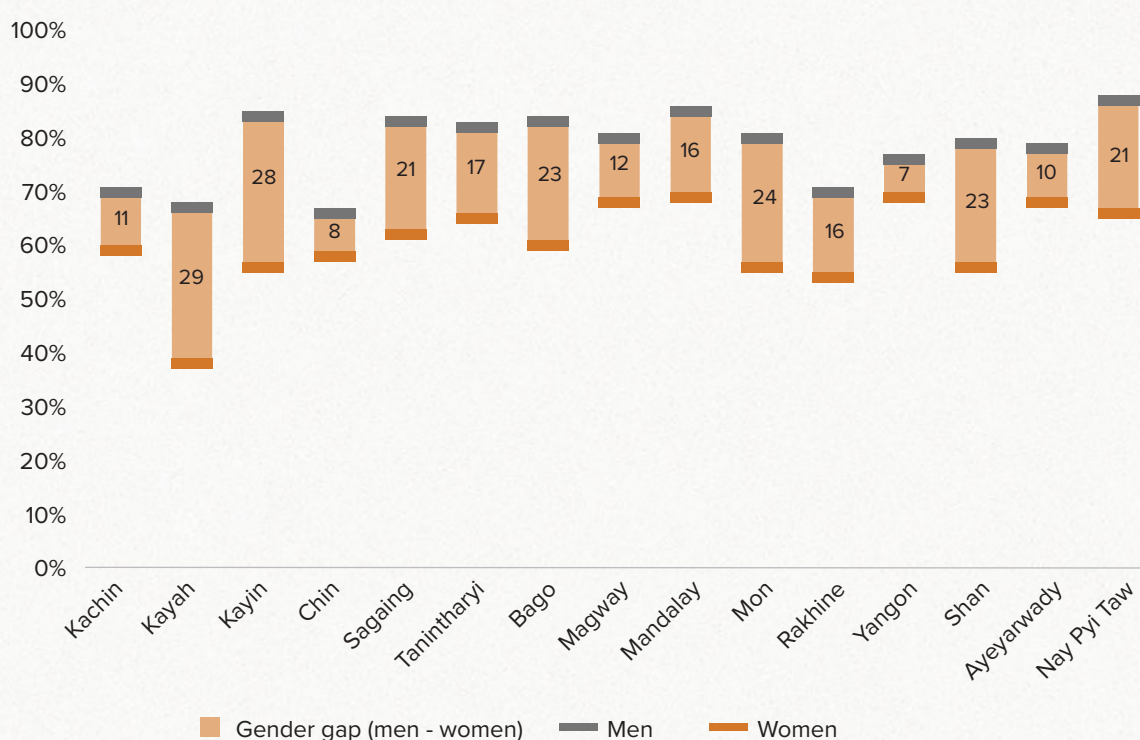


Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

<sup>26</sup> For the gender survey a reference period of one week was applied.

Employment rates vary across states and regions. Kayah records the lowest employment rate at 52.3 percent, followed by Rakhine (62%) and Chin (62.2%). Kayah also shows the largest gender employment gap, with 38.3 percent of women employed compared to 67.3 percent of men, representing a difference of 29 percentage points. Kayah, Chin and Rakhine are historically among Myanmar’s poorest states and have experienced high levels of conflict and service disruption in recent years.<sup>27</sup> As discussed in Section 2.3, conflict intensity and service disruptions are associated with changes in labour market participation patterns. In these states, both overall employment rates and gender differences in employment are wider than the national average. These geographic disparities highlight how labour market outcomes vary significantly across contexts, marked by how gendered constraints intersect with geography, local economic structures, conflict exposure, and access to services.

**Figure 10** Employment-to-population rates with gender gap in percentage points (by state/region)



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

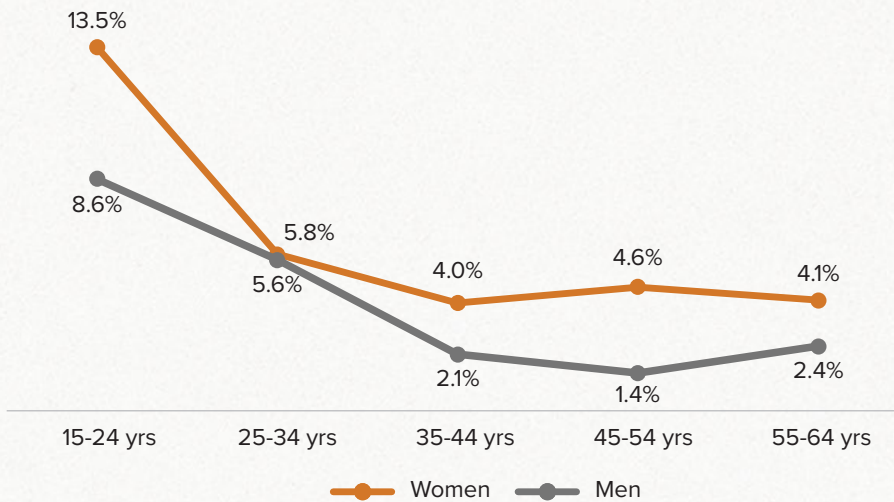
## Unemployment

Survey data indicate that the overall unemployment rate is 5.8 percent, with a higher rate for women (7.1%) than for men (4.6%). Among youth aged 15–24, unemployment reaches 10.9 percent. The rate is higher for young women (13.5%), compared to young men (8.6%).

<sup>27</sup> UNDP (2024). Poverty and the Household Economy of Myanmar: a Disappearing Middle Class. United Nations Development Programme.

Figure 11

Unemployment rates (by gender and age)



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

Unemployment rates also vary by educational attainment. Individuals with no education or less than primary education report the lowest unemployment rates (1.7% for men and 4.4% for women), while those with mid- and higher-level education experience higher rates. Women with mid-level education record the highest unemployment rate at 9.7 percent (Figure 12).



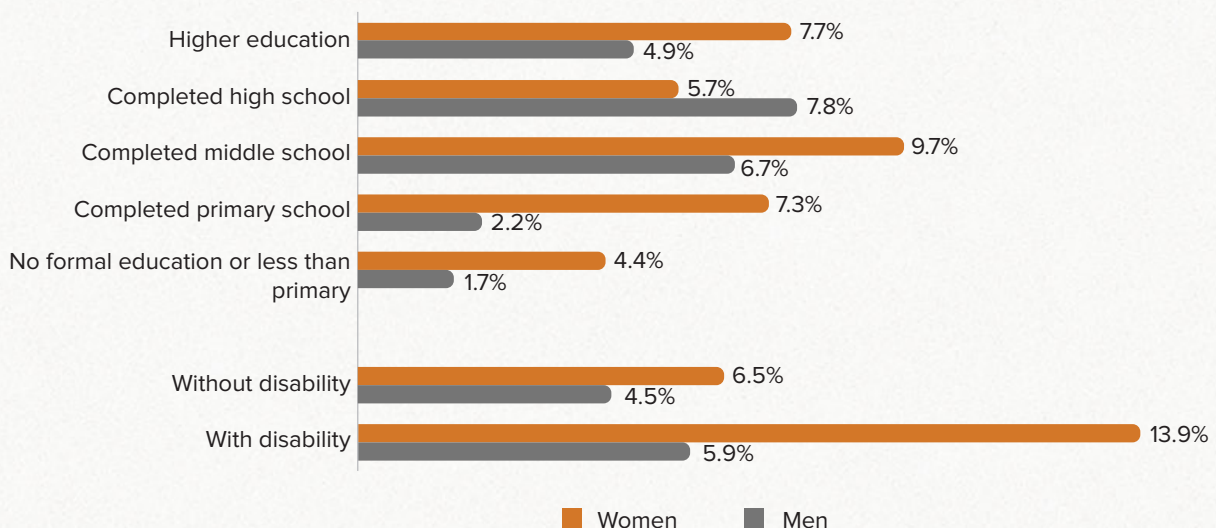
*In Myanmar's context, unemployment rates among educated groups have increased relative to those engaged in subsistence or informal activities.*

These patterns suggest a changing relationship between education and labour market absorption in a contracting economy. During the period of economic opening, higher education was often associated with expanding formal employment opportunities.

Since 2021, however, company closures, sanctions and public sector contractions have reduced formal employment opportunities, particularly in sectors employing mid- to highly educated workers. In this context, unemployment rates among educated groups have increased relative to those engaged in subsistence or informal activities.

Figure 12

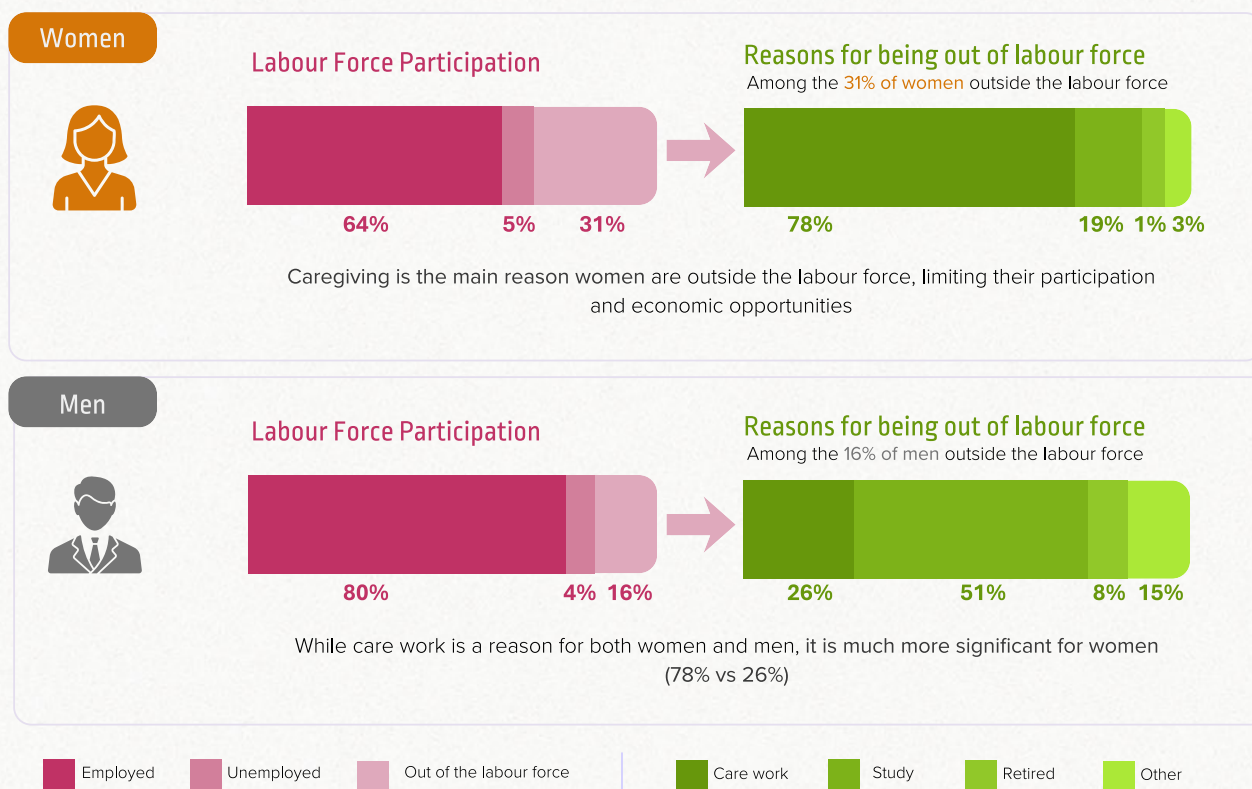
Unemployment rates (by gender, education and disability status)



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

Among persons with disabilities, the unemployment rate is 10.4 percent, rising to 13.9 percent among women with disabilities. These differences indicate that unemployment risks vary across gender, age, education and disability status, reflecting differentiated labour market integration across population groups.

**Figure 13** Labour market overview (by gender)



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

### 3.3 Not in Employment, Education or Training

In addition to the unemployment rate, the NEET rate provides a broader measure of labour market disengagement. It captures the share of individuals who are not in employment, education or training. This indicator is particularly relevant for young people (aged 15-24), as it includes those who are unemployed, have left school, or are not participating in formal or non-formal learning pathways such as vocational training or work-based learning. Among youth aged 15–24, on average 20 percent are NEET. Gender differences are pronounced. Over 26 percent of women aged 15–24 are NEET, compared to 12 percent of men, a 14-percentage-point difference.

These gender differences are associated with several overlapping factors. Young women are more likely to take on unpaid care responsibilities, which can limit participation in education and work. Disruptions to education and training systems, particularly in conflict-affected areas, have reduced access to learning opportunities. Labour market constraints, including limited availability of stable employment and mobility restrictions, may also affect young women and men differently. Together, these factors suggest that NEET outcomes reflect differences in access to education, household roles and local conditions that shape transitions from school to work.

Figure 14

Not in Employment, Education or Training rates (by gender, aged 15-24)



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

Box 2

SDG 8.6 – Reducing NEET Among Youth<sup>28</sup>

SDG target 8.6 aims to “substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training (NEET).” This target forms part of Goal 8, which focuses on promoting inclusive and sustainable economic growth, employment and decent work for all.

The NEET indicator reflects the share of young people aged 15 to 24 who are disengaged from both the labour market and formal learning systems. High NEET rates are often linked to long-term scarring effects, including reduced lifetime earnings, higher vulnerability to exploitation and heightened risk of social exclusion.

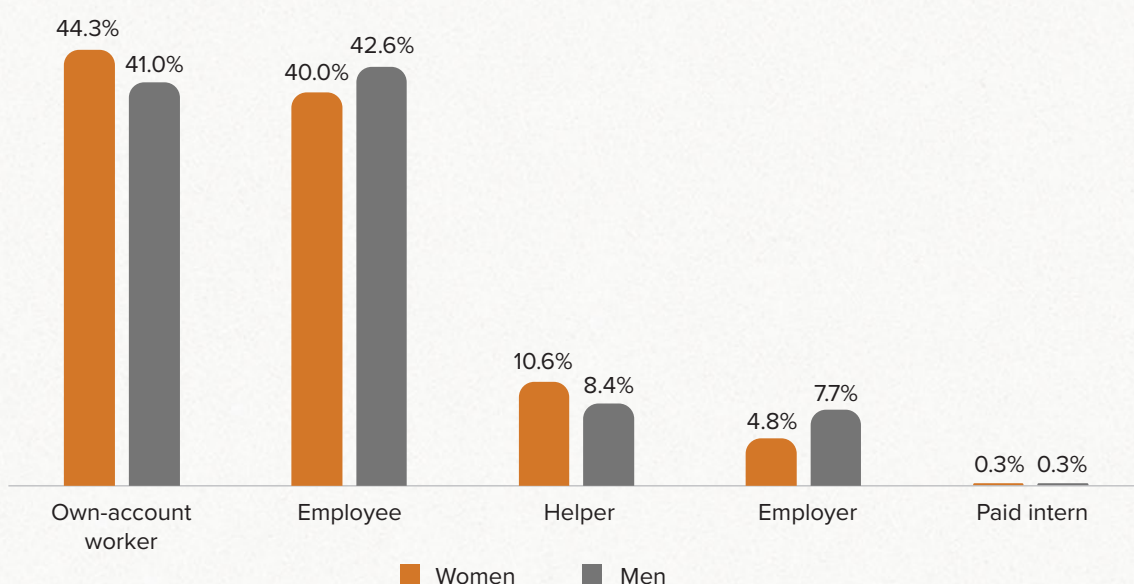
Monitoring NEET is critical for tracking progress on youth inclusion, identifying gender disparities, and informing targeted interventions to support pathways from education to employment.

### 3.4 Employment Type and Sectors

In addition to employment status, the type of employment provides insight into labour market structure and segmentation. Survey data indicate that 41 percent of employed individuals in Myanmar are paid employees. This share is slightly higher among men (42.6%) than women (40.0%). Men are also more likely to report being employers with hired staff (7.7% of employed men compared to 4.8% of employed women) (Figure 15).

<sup>28</sup> UN, SDG Indicators.

Figure 15 Type of employment (by gender)



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

The most common type of employment for both women and men is own-account work without hired employees, representing 42.5 percent of the employed population. This form of employment is slightly more common among women (3.3 percentage points). Own-account work is often associated with lower and more variable earnings compared to formal wage employment.

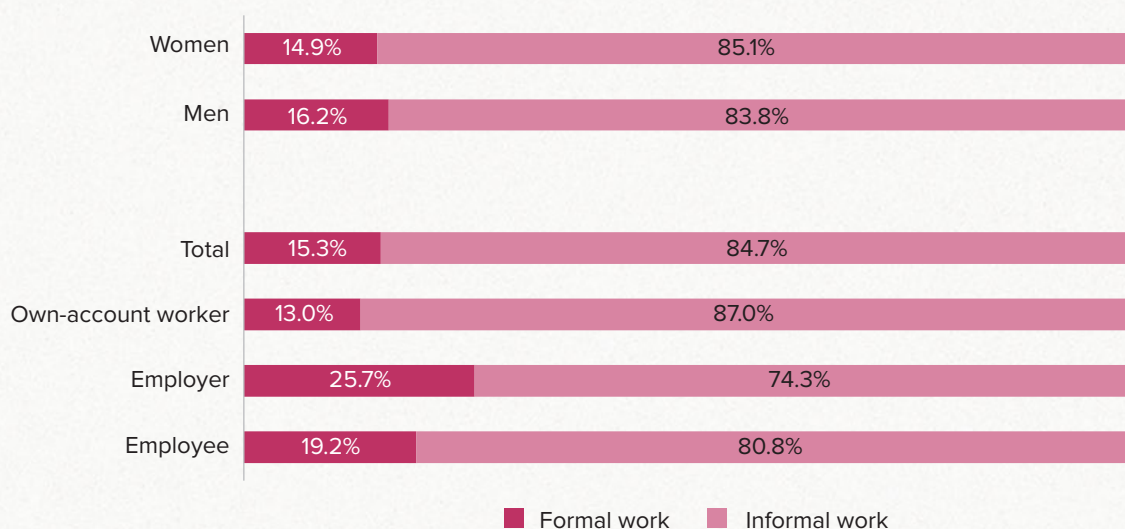
Informal employment remains widespread, with approximately 84 percent of employed individuals working in informal arrangements. Informal employment refers to work that is not covered by social protection mechanisms such as pensions or health insurance, or where enterprises are not formally registered.<sup>29</sup> Informality is particularly prevalent among own-account workers and is high across employment types for both women and men. Although informality rates are similar across genders, differences in earnings levels, time use and asset access may shape economic outcomes within informal employment.

*Informal employment remains widespread, with approximately 84 percent of employed individuals working in informal arrangements.*

The two largest employment sectors are trade and services, and agriculture, together accounting for 71 percent of the workforce. In agriculture, nearly half (49%) of workers are own-account operators without hired employees. An additional 11 percent work as contributing family workers, while approximately 30 percent are paid employees. Around 16 percent of agricultural workers report producing primarily for household consumption.

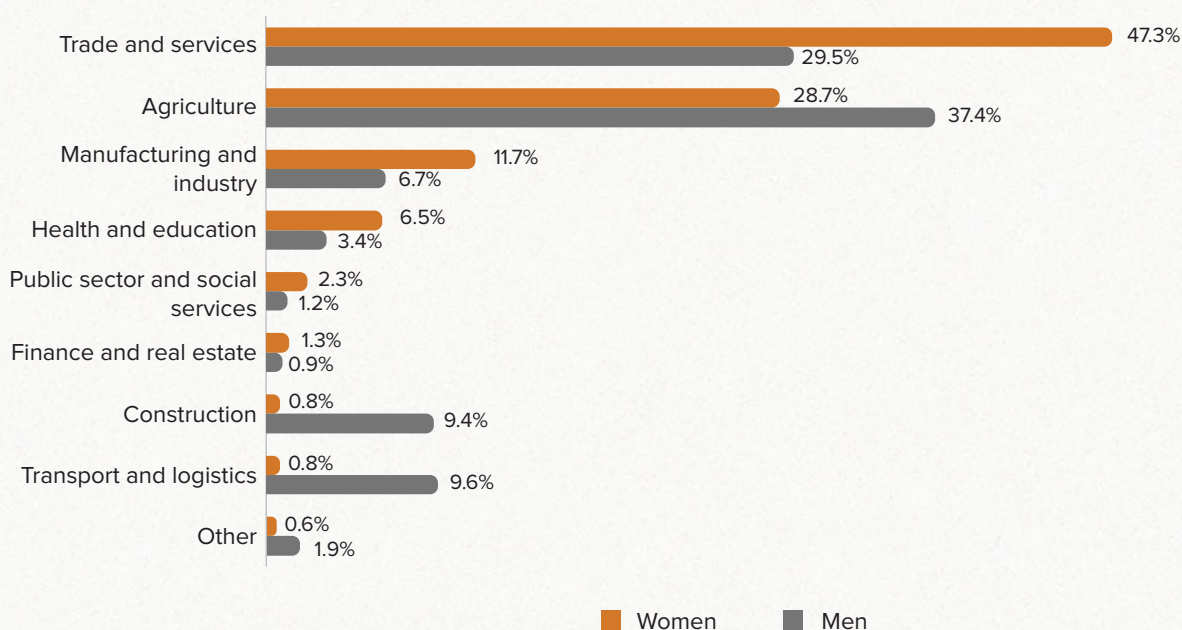
29 ILO (2023). Brief: What is informal employment? International Labour Organization.

**Figure 16** Informality of employment (by gender and employment status)



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

**Figure 17** Sectors of work (by gender)



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

Women are more concentrated in the trade and services sector, which accounts for 47 percent of working women. Sectoral concentration reflects both labour market demand and occupational sorting. In recent years, sectors with high concentration of women workers, including garments, tourism and hospitality, have experienced significant contraction due to firm closures, input shortages, electricity disruptions, security concerns and regulatory constraints. Public sector employment has also declined following the Civil Disobedience Movement (CDM).<sup>30</sup>

<sup>30</sup> Tsuruga, I. and Quarina, Q (2023). Who pays the price of unemployment? Employment termination and income security in Myanmar. International Labour Office.

The garment sector, in which women comprise approximately 80 percent of the workforce, illustrates these dynamics.<sup>31</sup> Since 2021, employment levels have declined, wages have stagnated in real terms and working conditions have become more uncertain. Contributing factors include the withdrawal of international apparel brands, inflationary pressures, supply chain disruptions and regulatory constraints. According to UNDP's 2024 survey of garment and apparel workers, monthly income from garment work constitutes more than 75 percent of total household income for the majority of workers surveyed.<sup>32</sup>

### Box 3

### Gender Dimensions of Myanmar's Garment Sector<sup>33</sup>

#### **Women at the core**

Prior to 2021, women represented approximately 85 percent of the garment workforce. Many workers are rural-to-urban migrants employed in industrial zones. The sector has played a significant role in women's wage employment over the past decade.

#### **Working conditions and earnings**

Survey findings indicate long working hours (often between 12 and 21 hours per day during peak periods), low daily wages (69 percent earn less than 5,000 MMK per day, ~USD 1.1), and reported occupational risks including physical strain and mental stress.

#### **Disempowerment in crisis**

Following the military takeover, employment in the sector dropped by 50 percent. With limited alternative livelihoods, women faced job insecurity, diminished rights, and no effective grievance mechanisms.

#### **Migration intentions**

Approximately 21 percent of surveyed workers reported intentions to migrate abroad for employment. At the same time, 70 percent indicated a preference to remain in Myanmar if wages and working conditions improved.

31 UNDP (2025). Stitches of Struggle and Hope: The Realities of Garment and Apparel Workers in Myanmar. United Nations Development Programme.

32 Ibid.

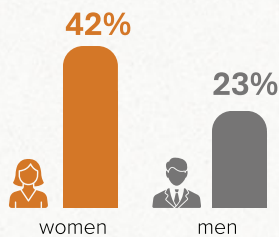
33 Ibid.

34 Based on an exchange rate of 4,400 MMK/USD.



# Income and Assets: Unequal Access and Control

## Without an Income



## Income & Expenditure Snapshot

Minimum Expenditure Basket



**665,534 MMK**  
(~USD 151)

while median monthly income is only 275,000 MMK.

Persistent Gender Pay Gap



**275,000 MMK**  
(~USD 63)

median monthly income



**350,000 MMK**  
(~USD 80)

median monthly income

Women earn only 79% of men's income

## Financial Resilience



**83%**

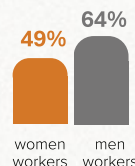
of people do not save any income monthly

**75%** of employed men do not save income monthly.

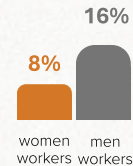
**79%** of employed women do not save income monthly.

## Access to Productive Assets

Agricultural Land Ownership  
(Individually or Jointly)



Business Ownership  
(Individually or Jointly)



## Key messages

- **Income disparities are stark:** 42% of women report having no income compared to 23% of men; in Rakhine, 57% of women report no income.
- **A persistent gender pay gap associated with lower women's earnings:** Employed women earn a median of 275,000 MMK (~USD 63) per month compared to 350,000 MMK (~USD 80) for men, meaning women earn 79% of men's income.
- **Most households fall below minimum expenditure levels:** The median monthly income of 275,000 MMK (~USD 63) is far below the 665,534 MMK (~USD 151) Minimum Expenditure Basket, requiring an average of 2.4 income earners to meet basic needs.
- **Financial resilience is extremely limited:** 83% of people do not save any income monthly; 79% of employed women report not saving compared to 75% of men.
- **Women face unequal access to productive assets:** Among agricultural workers, 49% of women report owning land compared to 64% of men; business ownership stands at 8% for women versus 16% for men.

## 4.1 Income

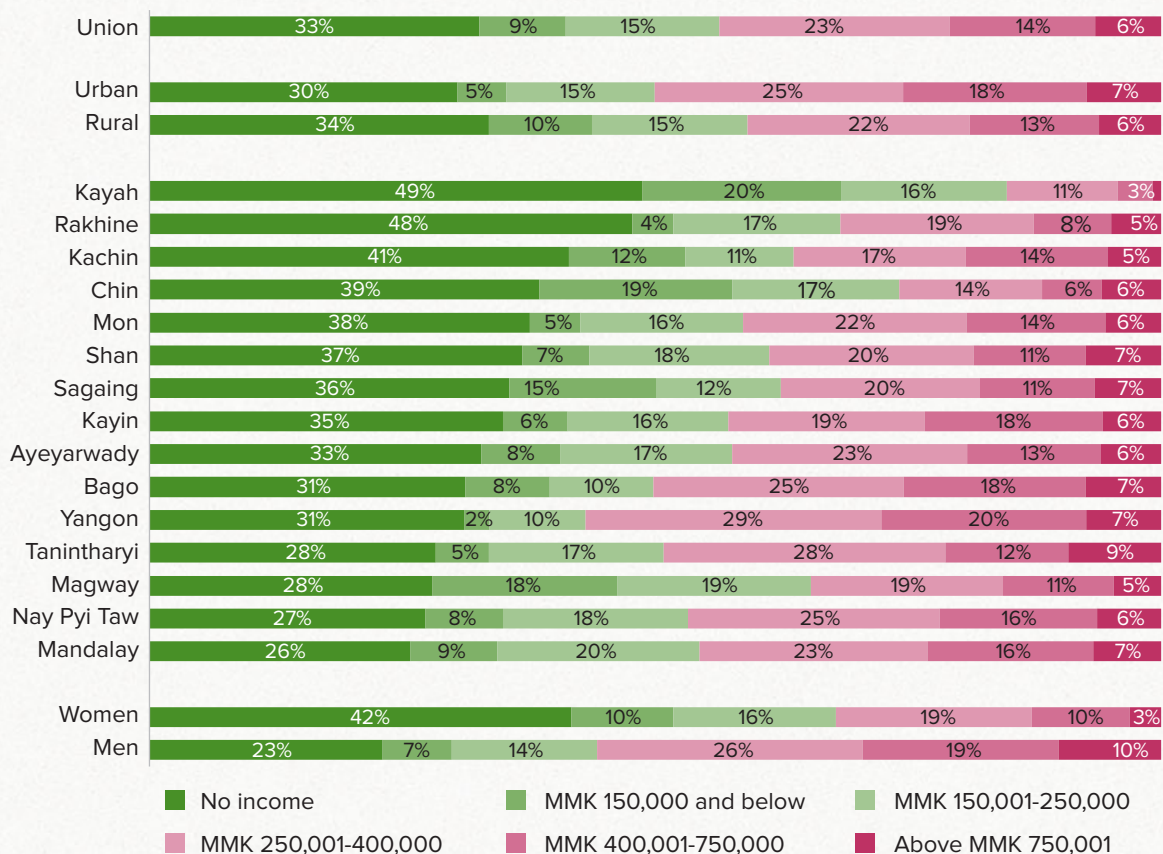
Differences in labour force participation, employment status and sectoral concentration are reflected in income patterns and levels of financial resilience. Globally, women earn on average around 20 percent less than men.<sup>35</sup> Part of this gap is associated with differences in working hours, sectoral distribution, occupational segregation and informality, although international research also points to structural labour market segmentation as a contributing factor.<sup>36</sup>

In Myanmar, nearly 33 percent of the surveyed population report having no income at all (Figure 18). A modest urban–rural difference is observed, with 34 percent in rural areas reporting no income compared to 30 percent in urban areas. Regional variation is substantial. Kayah (49%), Rakhine (48%) and Kachin (41%) report the highest shares of people without income. In contrast, relatively lower shares are observed in Mandalay (26%), Nay Pyi Taw (27%), and Magway (28%), though even in these areas, over one-quarter of the population remains without income.

*In Myanmar, nearly 33 percent of the surveyed population report having no income at all.*



**Figure 18** Income levels (by geographical location and gender)



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

<sup>35</sup> ILO (2025). Women in business and management: building on the legacy of the Beijing Declaration. International Labour Organization.

<sup>36</sup> Ibid.



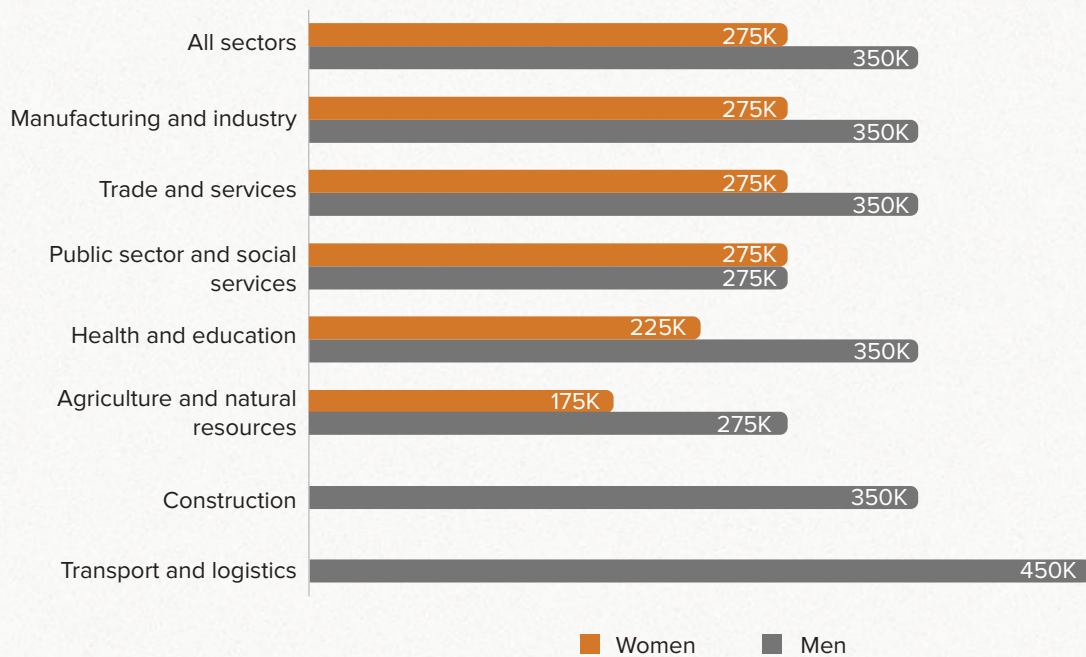
*Gender differences are pronounced. 42 percent of women report having no income compared to 23 percent of men.*

Gender differences are pronounced. Forty-two percent of women report having no income compared to 23 percent of men. Rural women report the highest levels, with 43 percent indicating no income, compared to 24 percent of rural men

(Appendix Table 2). In Rakhine, 57 percent of women report having no income compared to 36 percent of men. These findings are consistent with broader economic assessments of Rakhine, which highlight high levels of poverty risk linked to production disruptions, price increases, unemployment and insecurity.<sup>37</sup>

**Figure 19**

Median income, MMK (by gender and sector of work)



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

Among employed persons, the median income is 275,000 MMK (~USD 63) per month, well below the Minimum Expenditure Basket (MEB) of 665,534 MMK (~USD 151) established by the Inter-Agency Cash and Market Working Group.<sup>38</sup> To meet this minimum living standard, an average household would need at least 2.4 income earners, increasing the risk of child labour and school dropouts. Men

earn a median income of 350,000 MMK (~USD 80), compared to 275,000 MMK (~USD 63) for women, meaning women earn only 79 percent of what men earn. This pattern is consistent with both the observed gender pay gap and women's more limited access to full-time and better-paid work.



*To meet the minimum living standard, an average household would need at least 2.4 income earners, increasing the risk of child labour and school dropouts.*

Income disparities also vary across sectors, reflecting differences in productivity, formality and employment type. The transport and logistics sector, which predominantly employs men, has the

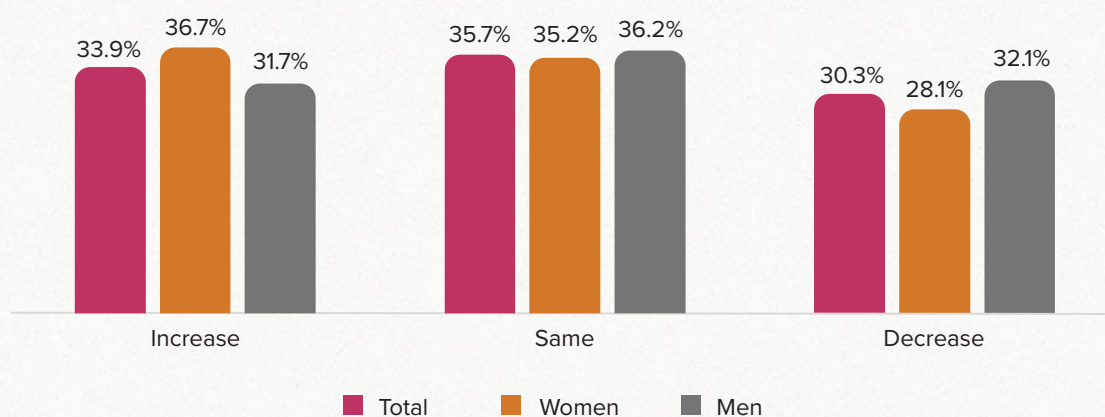
<sup>37</sup> UNDP (2024). Rakhine: A Famine in the Making.

<sup>38</sup> CMWG (2024). Myanmar Minimum Expenditure Basket November 2024 Update. Inter-Agency Cash and Markets Working Group. At the time of the survey, the MEB was set at 665,534 MMK (~USD 151) per household. It was updated to 741,967 MMK (~USD 186) in January 2026, reflecting inflation and changes in the cost of living. USD equivalents are approximate and depend on the exchange rate at the time.

highest median income at 450,000 MMK (~USD 102). In contrast, the agricultural sector, which employs both men and women, has the lowest median incomes, particularly among women, whose median income is 175,000 MMK (~USD 40). The high prevalence of own-account workers in this sector (nearly 50%) contributes to lower and more variable income levels.

Regarding income trends, 34 percent of respondents report an increase in income over the past year (37% women; 32% men), while 30 percent report a decrease and 36 percent report no change (Figure 20). Given estimated annual inflation of 34 percent as of April 2025,<sup>39</sup> unchanged nominal incomes imply a decline in real purchasing power.

**Figure 20** Income changes (by gender)



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

Research on Myanmar’s urban labour markets indicates that observed wage gaps are not fully explained by education or experience, suggesting the role of labour market segmentation and structural constraints.<sup>40</sup> Legal and institutional frameworks related to wage-setting and workplace protections also shape income outcomes,<sup>41</sup> particularly in a context where labour market institutions have undergone significant disruption since 2021.

## 4.2 Financial Resilience

Savings patterns provide an indication of households’ capacity to absorb economic shocks. Survey results show that 83 percent of respondents report not saving any income on a monthly basis. Among employed individuals, 77 percent report no savings, eight percent save less than 50,000 MMK (~USD 11), and seven percent save between 50,000 and 125,000 MMK (~USD 28). Only eight percent report saving more than 125,000 MMK per month.

Gender differences are present but relatively modest. Among employed women, 79 percent report not saving compared to 75 percent of employed men. Differences in savings capacity are associated with disparities in earnings levels, employment type and income stability, as well as time constraints linked to unpaid care responsibilities.

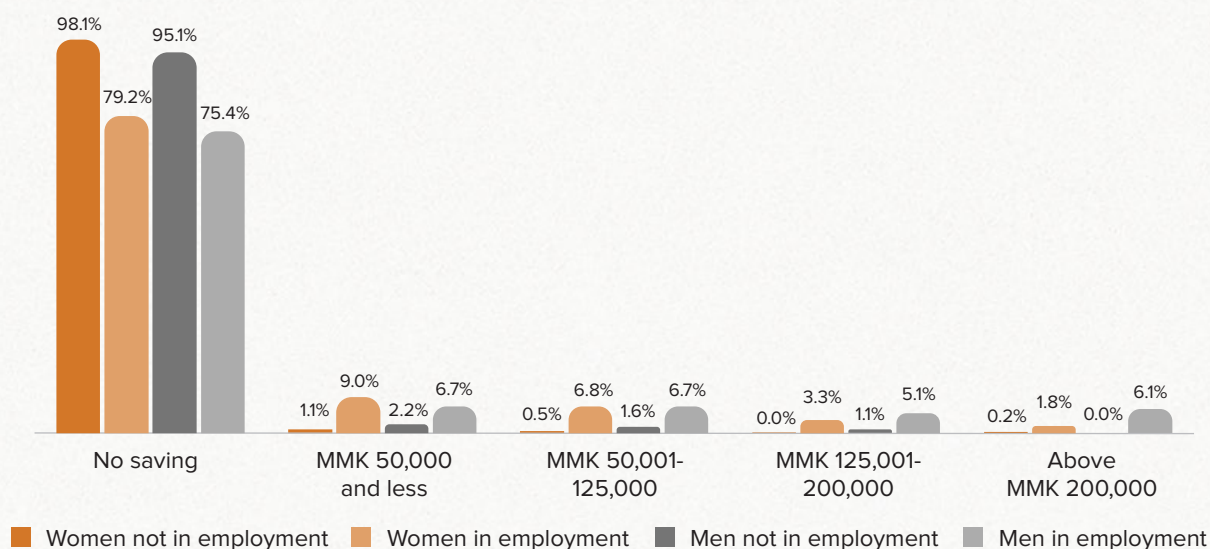
Limited savings reduce households’ ability to smooth consumption in the event of income shocks such as illness, job loss or displacement. In such situations, households may draw on borrowing, asset sales or other coping strategies, as discussed in section 5.2.

<sup>39</sup> World Bank (2025). Myanmar Economic Monitor, June 2025. World Bank.

<sup>40</sup> Hansen, H., Rand, J., and Win, N. W. (2020). The Gender Wage Gap in Myanmar: Adding Insult to Injury? *Journal of Asian Economics* 81: 101511

<sup>41</sup> ILO (2017). ILO Guide to Myanmar Labour Law. International Labour Organization.

**Figure 21** Monthly savings (by gender and employment status)



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

As a measure of financial inclusion, SDG target 8.10 tracks access to financial services, including ownership of bank accounts. According to the gender survey data, only 20 percent of respondents report owning a traditional bank account, either individually or jointly. The rate is slightly lower among women (18%) than men (23%) (Appendix Table 3).

*Only 20 percent of respondents report owning a traditional bank account, either individually or jointly. The rate is lower among women (18%) than men (23%).*

Digital financial services, including mobile money platforms such as KBZ Pay and Wave Money, are more widely used than traditional banking services in Myanmar. The increase in account ownership from 26 percent in 2017 to 48 percent in 2021 was largely driven by

this expansion. Gender differences remain modest: 46.2 percent of women and 49.5 percent of men have access to a financial institution or mobile money account, while 27.5 percent of women and 30.7 percent of men rely solely on mobile money. This gap may be linked to differences in access to mobile devices, digital literacy, and broader participation in digital spaces.<sup>42</sup>

Mobile money use has likely increased further since 2021, with approximately 19 million KBZ Pay users and 11.4 million Wave Money users today, although there is some overlap between platforms. This growth reflects both convenience and accessibility, particularly in areas where formal banking infrastructure is limited. However, while digital financial services have expanded overall access, they do not necessarily provide access to formal savings, credit, insurance, or consumer protection mechanisms.<sup>43</sup>

42 World Bank (2021). The Global Findex Database 2021: Financial Inclusion, Digital Payments, and Resilience in the Age of COVID-19. Page 17. And World Bank Gender Data Portal.

43 WBO (2025). KBZ Bank named best bank in Myanmar for fifth consecutive year. World Business Outlook. and YOMA (2026). Yoma Strategic Holdings: Wave Money. Yoma Strategic Holdings Ltd.

## 4.3 Access to Economic Assets

Access to land, housing and business ownership constitutes an important dimension of economic participation and long-term financial security. SDG Indicator 5.a.1 tracks both the legal recognition of women’s rights to land and the extent of ownership or secure rights over agricultural land, disaggregated by sex. In contexts where agriculture remains central to livelihoods, patterns of land ownership shape access to productive resources, income generation and decision-making.<sup>44</sup>

Women’s access to economic assets in Myanmar is influenced by legal frameworks, administrative practices and customary arrangements, as well as by factors such as ethnicity, displacement and marital status.

### Box 4

#### SDG 5.a.1 – Women’s Rights to Land and Productive Resources<sup>45</sup>

SDG target 5.a.1 monitors the “percentage of people with ownership or secure rights over agricultural land (out of total agricultural population), by sex; and share of women among owners or rights-bearers of agricultural land, by type of tenure.”

It is part of Goal 5, and target 5.A which calls for reforms to ensure equal rights to economic resources, including land, property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources. It recognizes that long-lasting inequalities in the distribution of economic and financial resources disadvantage women relative to men in their ability to participate in, contribute to and benefit from broader processes of development.

Access to land is essential for improving livelihoods, securing food, and enabling women’s full participation in the economy. Monitoring this indicator is crucial to identifying social norms that restrict women’s land rights. It also informs efforts to strengthen gender-equitable land tenure systems.

## Land Ownership

Survey data indicate gender differences in agricultural land ownership. Among individuals who reported working on their own farm as their main economic activity, 49 percent of women report owning agricultural land, either individually or jointly, compared to 64 percent of men.

Joint ownership may provide formal recognition of women’s claims to land; however, survey responses and qualitative findings suggest that decision-making authority over land use within households may not always correspond to documented ownership. In many cases, decision-making remains concentrated among male household members, reflecting prevailing household governance patterns. Among landowners, 39 percent of the agricultural population report male sole ownership, compared to 26 percent reporting joint ownership. Women report similar shares of sole (25%) and joint (24%) ownership.

*While the legislation allows for joint registration, administrative practice and household-level registration patterns often result in land being registered under a single household member’s name, frequently the male head of household.*

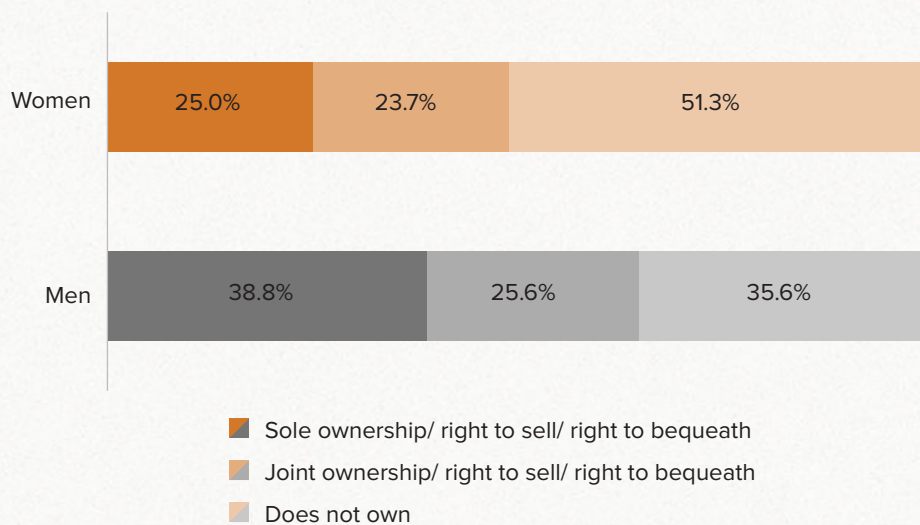
44 Lambrecht, I. B., Mahrt, K., Synt, N. L. K., Win, H. E., & Win, K. Z. (2023). Gender gaps in land rights: Explaining different measures and why households differ in Myanmar. *Agricultural Economics*, 54, 728–741.

45 UN. SDG Indicators.

The 2012 Farmland Law introduced Land Use Certificates (LUCs) to formalize land tenure and permit sale, inheritance, mortgage and lease arrangements. While the legislation allows for joint registration, administrative practice and household-level registration patterns often result in land being registered under a single household member's name, frequently the male head of household. This may reflect customary practice, awareness levels, documentation processes and local administrative dynamics.<sup>46</sup>

Differences between documented ownership and effective control can have implications for access to collateral, participation in land-use decisions and economic bargaining power within households. Variations in legal literacy, documentation, displacement status and administrative capacity further shape patterns of land registration and tenure security across regions.<sup>47</sup>

**Figure 22** Land ownership status in agricultural households (by gender)



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

Note: This figure presents the share of women and men in agricultural households who report owning land alone or jointly. Agricultural households are here classified as those reported working on own farm as their main economic activity.

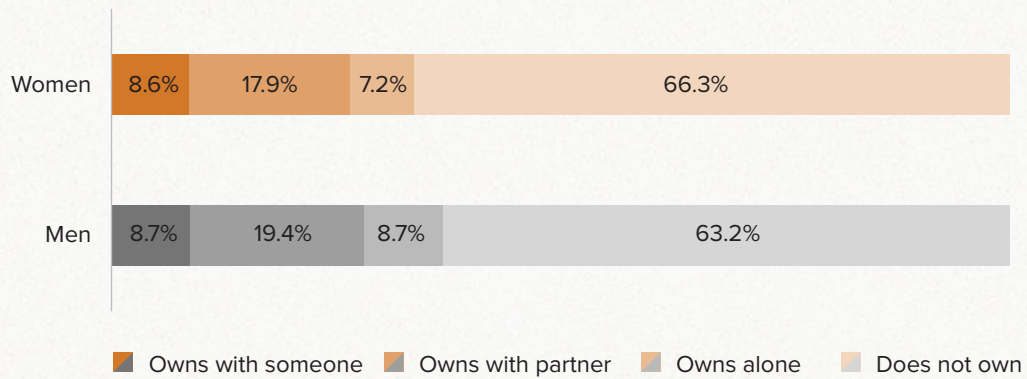
## Home and Business Ownership

The Myanmar Gender Survey asked respondents if they own their house or apartment where they currently live. Overall, 65 percent reported not owning, while eight percent own alone; 19 percent own with their spouse, and nine percent own with someone else. The gender gap in ownership is relatively small with 66 percent of women not owning compared to 63 percent of men (Figure 23).

<sup>46</sup> Allaverdian, C. (2016). Formalisation of land rights in Myanmar. GRET Professionals for Fair Development and LIFT-Fund.

<sup>47</sup> Lambrecht, I. B., Mahrt, K., Synt, N. L. K., Win, H. E., & Win, K. Z. (2023). Gender gaps in land rights: Explaining different measures and why households differ in Myanmar. *Agricultural Economics*, 54, 728–741.

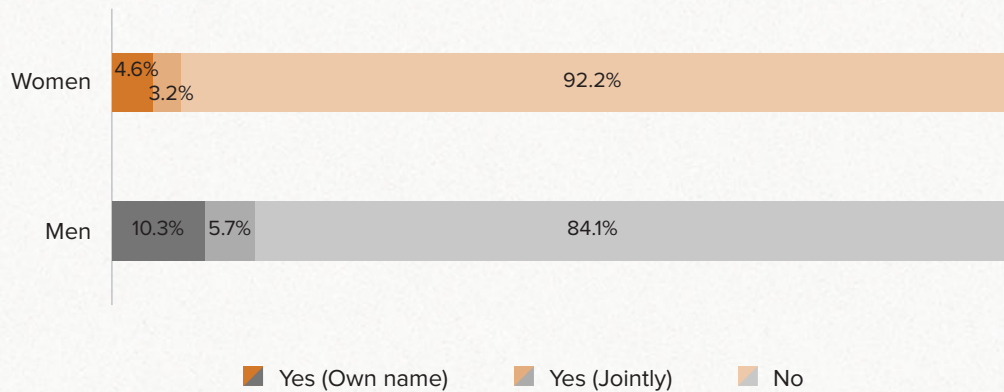
**Figure 23** Home ownership status (by gender)



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

Furthermore, 12 percent reported owning a business either alone or jointly with someone else. The share of business ownership is greater for men (16%) compared to women (8%). Among those that own a business, men have a higher rate of sole ownership, at 65 percent compared to 59 percent for women. This scenario of women having lower business ownership is consistent with constrained access to capital, land, and collateral identified above.

**Figure 24** Business ownership status (by gender)



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)



# Food Security: Gendered Economic Constraints and Vulnerabilities

## Widespread Food Insecurity



Food insecurity affects more than half of the population.



50% of men

53% of women

Larger gaps in Urban Areas

43% of men

50% of women

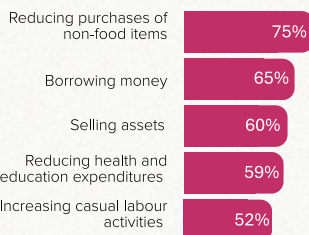
## Food Insecurity & Disability



only **1 in 5** people with disabilities are food secure



## Common Coping Strategies



Men are more likely to report increasing participation in casual labour.



Women are more likely to report reducing health and education expenditures.

## Risks for Children

In severely food-insecure households

32%

of children are pushed into work

24%

drop out of school

## Education as Protective Factor

Completing high school increases the probability of being food secure by

+17.4 percentage points

for women



## Key messages

- **Food insecurity affects half of the population:** 49% of the population is food secure; nationally 50% of men are food secure compared to 47% of women, with larger gaps in urban areas (57% men vs 50% women).
- **Conflict-affected regions face higher food insecurity, with a pronounced gender dimension:** In Rakhine, only 24 percent of the population is food secure (19% of women, compared to 30% of men), while in Kayah the figure is just 15 percent (12% of women, compared to 18% of men).
- **Disability increases food insecurity:** Only 1 in 5 people with disabilities are food secure, and their likelihood of severe food insecurity is considerably higher.
- **Education is a protective factor:** Among people with higher education reduces, severe food insecurity nearly does not exist; completing high school increases the probability of being food secure by +17.4 percentage points for women.
- **Women adopt more extreme coping strategies:** In severe food insecurity, 11% of women use 10–11 coping strategies compared to 4% of men; 57% of severely food-insecure women reported a household member migrated as a coping response, compared to 43% of men.
- **Food insecurity is associated with increased risks for children:** In severely food-insecure households, 32% of children are pushed into work and 24% drop out of school.

## 5.1 Overall Patterns and Geographic Variation in Food Insecurity

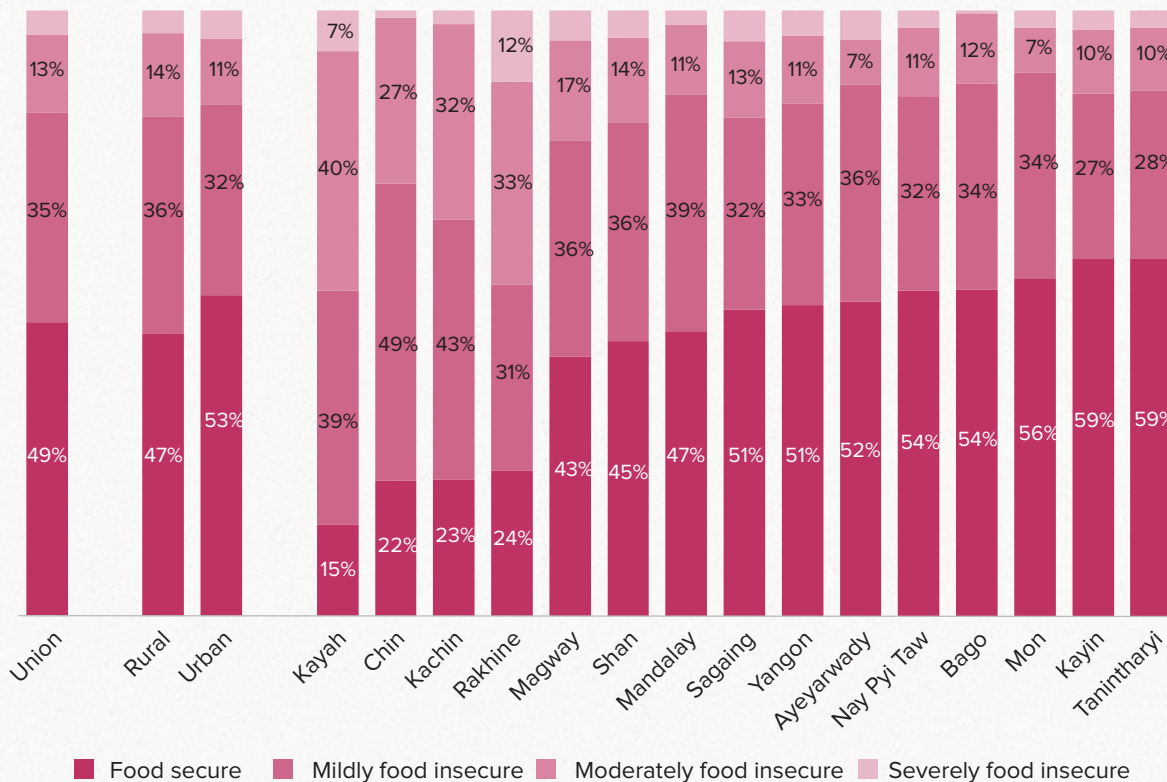
Food security outcomes in Myanmar are closely shaped by the income constraints, limited savings capacity, and unequal access to assets outlined in the previous chapter. In a context where household incomes frequently fall below minimum expenditure requirements and financial buffers are minimal, purchasing power remains constrained for a large share of the population. As a result, access to adequate and stable food consumption is directly affected, with food insecurity emerging as a key channel through which economic pressures are experienced at the household level. Against a broader humanitarian outlook, according to Myanmar’s Humanitarian Needs and Response Plan, 8.5 million people in 227 townships are projected to face acute food insecurity in 2026.<sup>48</sup>

*Food insecurity emerges as a key channel through which economic pressures are experienced at the household level.*



The gender survey findings indicate that 49 percent of the population is food secure, while 51 percent experience some level of food insecurity. Four percent experience severe food insecurity, 13 percent moderate food insecurity, and 35 percent mild food insecurity (Figure 25). Food security levels are slightly lower in rural areas, where 46 percent of the population is food secure compared to 50 percent in urban areas, reflecting differences in income opportunities, market access and livelihood structures.

Figure 25 Food security status (by geographical location)



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

48 OCHA (2026). Myanmar humanitarian needs and response plan 2026. UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs.

Gender differences at the national level are moderate: 50 percent of men are food secure compared to 47 percent of women. In urban areas, the gap is wider, with 57 percent of men food secure compared to 50 percent of women. Mild food insecurity affects 34 percent of urban women compared to 29 percent of urban men, while severe food insecurity is reported by five percent of urban women and four percent of urban men. These patterns are consistent with gender differences in income access, earnings levels and control over resources, as discussed in Section 5.



*In Rakhine, only 19 percent of women are food secure, compared to 30 percent of men; in Kayah, the figures are 12 percent and 18 percent, respectively.*

Severe food insecurity affects a comparable share of urban and rural households, highlighting the exposure of urban populations to sharp food access shocks when incomes or markets are disrupted. Given the high reliance on cash-based food consumption in urban areas, even short-term income shocks can translate rapidly into reduced

food access. In rural areas, food security levels for women and men are more similar, though overall levels are lower. Rural households often rely partly on own production and home gardening, which may contribute to relatively stable consumption patterns despite broader market volatility.

Food security differs considerably across regions and population groups. Rakhine and Kayah stand out as the states with the highest levels of food insecurity, reflecting the intensity of conflict, prolonged market disruption, and displacement, which constrain both income opportunities and access to food. In Rakhine, only 23 percent of the population is food secure, while 12 percent experience severe food insecurity. In Kayah, just 15 percent of the population is food secure, while 8 percent experience severe food insecurity. In both states, food insecurity also has a pronounced gender dimension. In Rakhine, only 19 percent of women are food secure, compared to 30 percent of men; in Kayah, the figures are 12 percent and 18 percent, respectively.

Other regions also show variation by gender and context. In Kachin and Ayeyarwady, gender differences are present across different levels of food insecurity, although their magnitude varies. In contrast, Tanintharyi records comparatively higher levels of food security for both women and men, reflecting relatively more stable livelihood and market conditions (for detailed figures, see Appendix Table 4).

## 5.2 Vulnerable Groups and Socio-Economic Drivers of Food Insecurity

Food security outcomes vary across population groups, reflecting differences in demographic characteristics, household structures and broader socio-economic conditions. These disparities are closely linked to underlying variations in income generation, stability and access to economic resources.

Food security outcomes are particularly adverse among persons with disabilities. Only around one-fifth report being food secure, compared to about half of those without disabilities. Severe food insecurity affects 13 percent of persons with disabilities, with similar levels reported among women

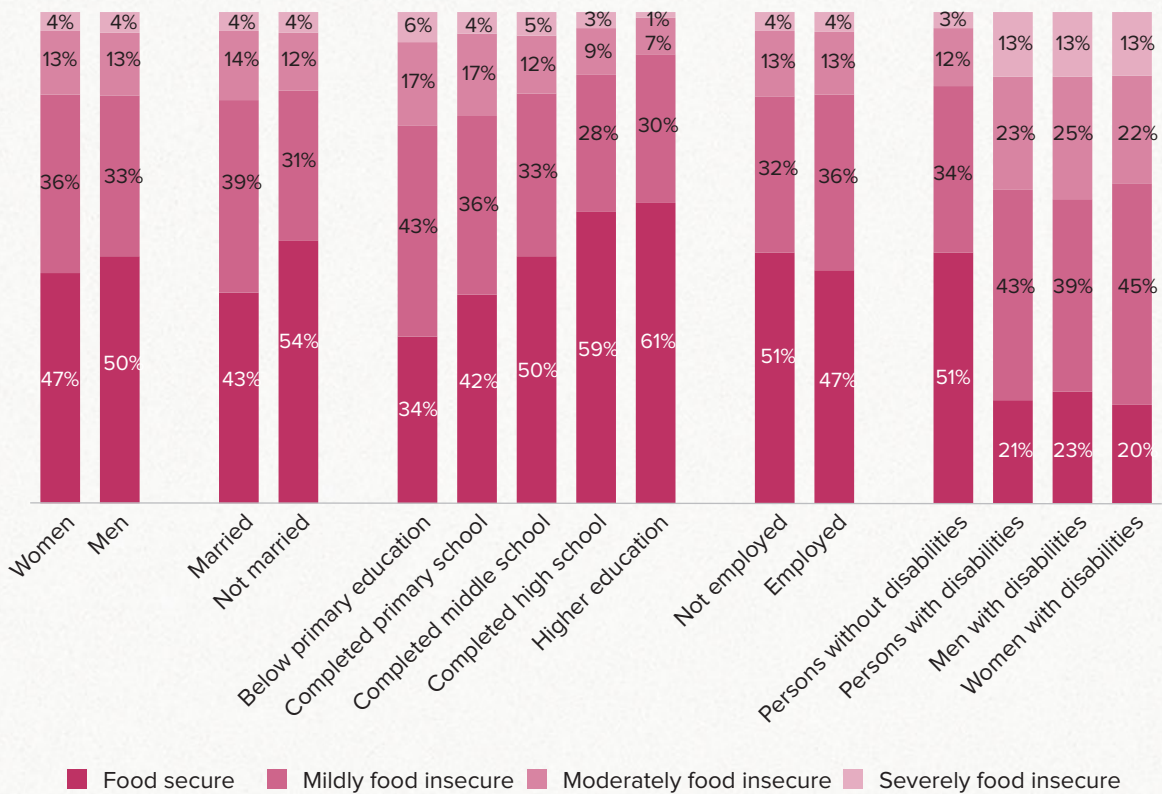


*Disability status constrains access to income-generating opportunities and stable livelihoods, thereby increasing exposure to food insecurity, while gender differences interact with this vulnerability.*

and men. Gender differences are more visible at milder levels, where women with disabilities are more likely than men to experience food insecurity. These patterns suggest that disability status constrains access to income-generating opportunities and stable livelihoods, thereby increasing exposure to food insecurity, while gender differences interact with this vulnerability.

Figure 26

Food security status (by gender and demographic groups)



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

Food security outcomes among older populations also show gender variation. Among women aged 65 and older, 33 percent are food secure compared to 51 percent of men in the same age group. Mild food insecurity is also more prevalent among older women. These differences likely reflect variations in access to income sources, asset ownership and financial independence, particularly in contexts where older women may have more limited lifetime access to formal employment and savings.

Marital status and household composition are also associated with food security outcomes. Married women are less likely to be food secure than unmarried women, while severe food insecurity is slightly higher among married women. Among men, differences by marital status are less pronounced. These patterns suggest that intra-household economic arrangements, including income pooling, dependency ratios and caregiving responsibilities, shape access to resources and food consumption in gender-differentiated ways.

Education is consistently associated with improved food security outcomes. Individuals with higher levels of education report higher rates of food security and substantially lower levels of severe food insecurity. Among women with higher education, severe food insecurity is rare, while it remains more prevalent among those with low levels of education. These findings indicate the role of education in improving access to higher-paying and more stable employment opportunities, thereby strengthening income security and purchasing power.

*Among women with higher education, severe food insecurity is rare, while it remains more prevalent among those with low levels of education.*



Employment status shows a more complex association with food security. Among women, food security levels are lower among those who are employed compared to those not employed. This



*In a context of widespread informal and low-paid work, employment alone is often insufficient to ensure adequate food access, as earnings frequently remain below the level required to meet basic consumption needs.*

pattern likely reflects differences in employment quality, earnings levels and household income sources, rather than a direct relationship between employment and food security. In a context of widespread informal and low-paid work, employment alone is often insufficient to ensure adequate food access, as earnings frequently remain below the level required to meet basic consumption needs.

Taken together, the evidence highlights that food insecurity in Myanmar reflects both constrained economic capacity at the household level and persistent geographic disparities in access to livelihoods, markets and services. Differences across population groups are shaped by variations in income stability, asset ownership and demographic characteristics, while regional patterns point to the influence of conflict, market disruption and spatial inequality. In this context, food insecurity emerges not only as an outcome of limited purchasing power, but also as a manifestation of uneven economic opportunities across locations and population groups. While some households are able to maintain relatively stable consumption through diversified income sources or local production, others face persistent gaps between available resources and basic needs. Understanding how households navigate these constraints is therefore critical. The following section examines the coping mechanisms adopted by households, providing insight into how economic pressures are translated into adjustments in consumption, labour and resource use.

### 5.3 Coping Mechanisms

Building on the geographic disparities and socio-economic patterns outlined above, this section examines how households respond to food insecurity in practice. In the context of constrained incomes and limited financial buffers, coping strategies reflect how households manage gaps between available resources and minimum consumption needs. These responses provide insight into how income constraints and reduced purchasing power translate into adjustments in consumption, labour and resource use.

Households report using a range of strategies to manage food consumption shortfalls and broader economic stress. The survey specified 11 coping mechanisms, including reducing non-food expenditures, borrowing money, selling assets, increasing casual labour, migration, and other adjustments such as sending household members to eat elsewhere. These strategies are typically employed when household income is insufficient to meet basic needs, particularly in a context where food consumption is largely cash-based.

The most reported coping strategies reflect short-term consumption and liquidity constraints. These include reducing purchases of non-food items (75%), borrowing money (65%), selling assets (60%), reducing health and education expenditures (59%), and increasing casual labour activities (52%). These responses indicate that households adjust both expenditure patterns and income-generating activities to maintain minimum levels of food consumption. The use of multiple strategies simultaneously suggests that households face persistent and overlapping financial pressures rather than isolated shocks.

Differences are observed between women and men in the types of coping strategies reported, likely reflecting their roles, responsibilities and access to options within households. Across all levels of food insecurity, men are more likely to report increasing participation in casual labour, consistent with their relatively greater access to labour market opportunities. Women are more likely to report reducing health and education expenditures, reflecting their central role in managing household consumption

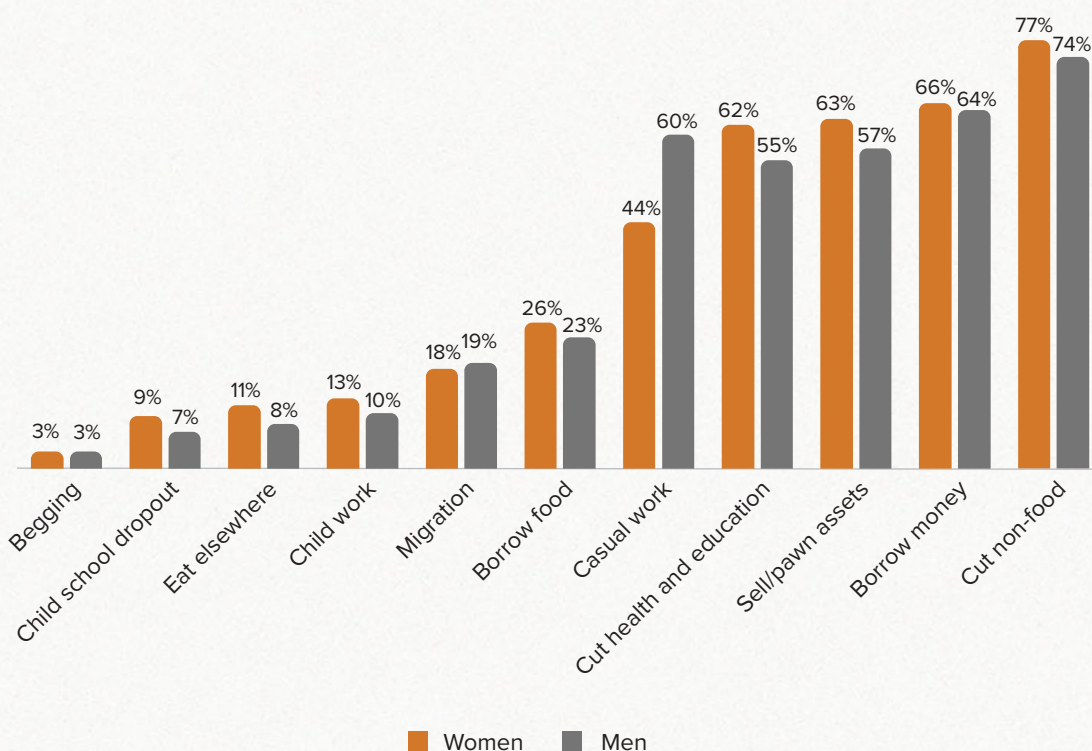
and care-related decisions. In cases of mild and moderate food insecurity, men are more likely than women to report that their household engaged in migration as a coping strategy. However, among those experiencing severe food insecurity, this pattern reverses, with 57 percent of women reporting that a household member migrated compared to 43 percent of men, indicating a greater reliance on migration as a distress-driven response at higher levels of deprivation.

At higher levels of food insecurity, gender differences become more pronounced across several coping strategies, including borrowing money, withdrawing children from school, engaging children in work, sending family members to eat elsewhere, and migration. In these categories, reported rates are generally higher among women than men, suggesting that women bear a disproportionate burden in managing intensified resource constraints. It should be noted that the survey does not distinguish between temporary, seasonal, or longer-term migration, and the findings should therefore be interpreted with caution in terms of the duration and nature of mobility.

*At higher levels of food insecurity, gender differences become more pronounced across several coping strategies, including borrowing money, withdrawing children from school, engaging children in work, sending family members to eat elsewhere, and migration.*



**Figure 27** Adoption of coping mechanisms (by gender)



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

Coping strategies are not mutually exclusive, and households typically report using multiple strategies simultaneously. The number and intensity of coping mechanisms increases with the severity of food insecurity. Among those experiencing mild food insecurity, individuals most commonly report using between one and six strategies. A similar pattern is observed for moderate food insecurity, where

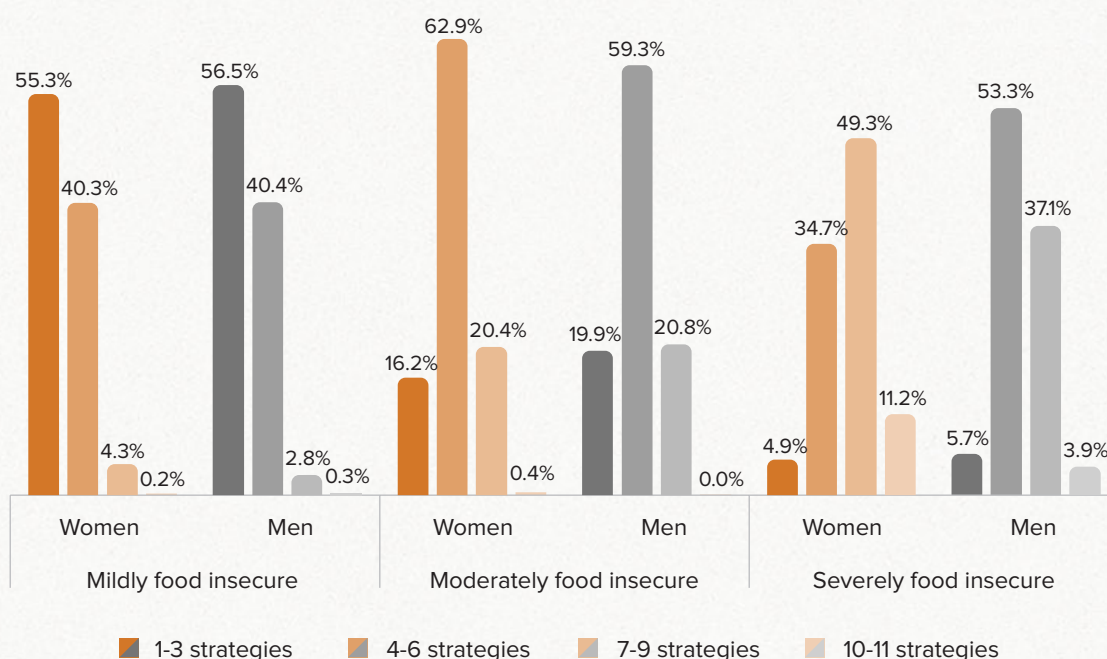
the majority report the use of four to six coping strategies, indicating the growing pressure on household resources. Among those experiencing severe food insecurity, households report using up to 10 or 11 strategies. This accumulation of coping strategies reflects increasing difficulty in maintaining adequate consumption as income constraints deepen.



*Gender differences are evident in the intensity of coping. In the severe food insecurity category, 11 percent of women report using 10-11 coping strategies compared to 4 percent of men.*

Gender differences are evident in the intensity of coping. In the severe food insecurity category, 11 percent of women report using 10-11 coping strategies compared to four percent of men. Similarly, 49 percent of women report using seven to nine strategies compared to 37 percent of men. Men are more likely to report using fewer strategies within the severe category. Women’s higher reported use of multiple coping strategies at severe levels of food insecurity likely reflects their central role in managing household consumption, care responsibilities, and crisis response under conditions of constrained resources.

**Figure 28** Adoption of coping mechanisms (by gender and food insecurity levels)



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

Although overall food security levels differ only modestly between women and men, differences emerge in the type and number of coping strategies adopted. These patterns suggest that food insecurity may be experienced and managed differently within households, with implications for intra-household resource allocation and individual well-being, particularly in contexts where financial constraints require trade-offs across essential needs.

## 5.4 Intergenerational and Health Implications for Household Resilience

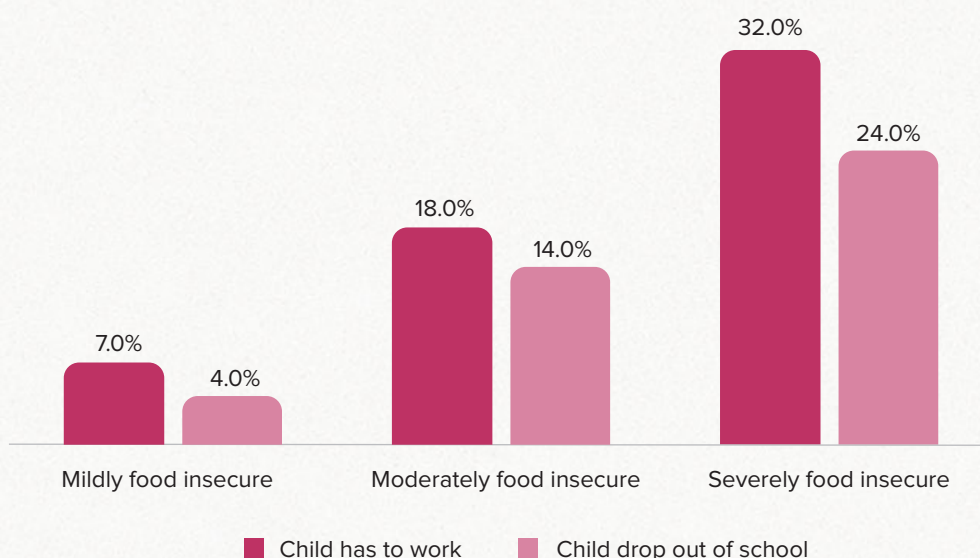
Food insecurity extends beyond immediate consumption constraints, with visible implications for both household resilience and well-being. In the context of sustained income pressure and limited purchasing power, adjustments in food consumption are closely linked to broader changes in health status, financial stress and household decision-making.

One important dimension is the impact on children’s education and work participation. As households face persistent gaps between income and consumption needs, decisions around schooling and child labour become increasingly affected. Survey data show a clear relationship between the severity of food insecurity and these outcomes. In households experiencing mild food insecurity, seven percent of children engage in work and four percent leave school. These shares increase to 18 percent and 14 percent, respectively, among households facing moderate food insecurity. In households experiencing severe food insecurity, nearly one-third of children (32%) engage in work, while almost one-quarter (24%) leave school. These patterns suggest that as food insecurity intensifies, households increasingly rely on strategies that involve reallocating labour within the household, often at the expense of children’s education. Such adjustments reflect short-term responses to economic constraint, as households seek to stabilize consumption under conditions of insufficient income.

*In households experiencing severe food insecurity, nearly one-third of children (32%) engage in work, while almost one-quarter (24%) leave school.*



**Figure 29** Food insecurity levels and child work/school drop-out

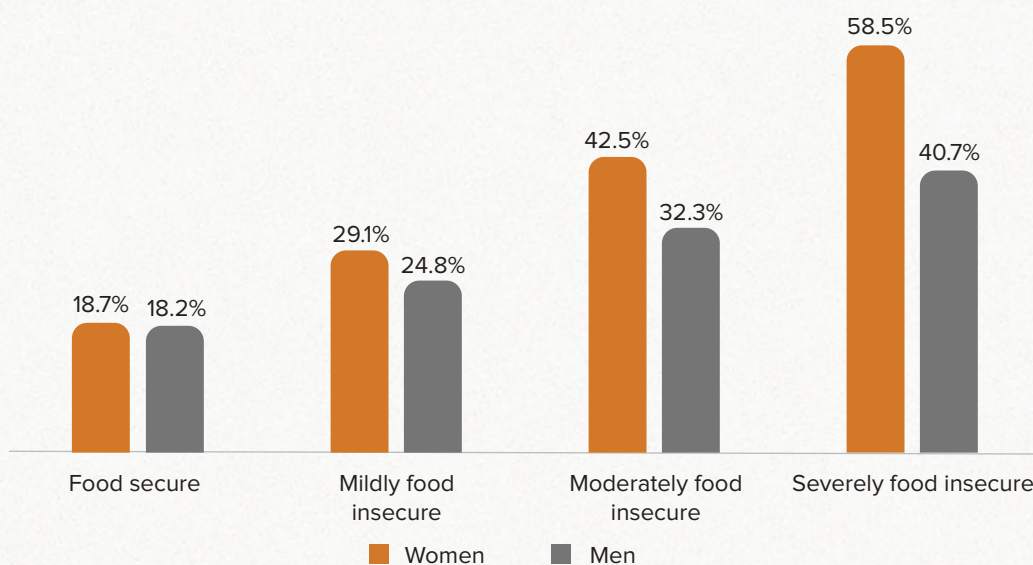


Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

The survey does not provide gender-disaggregated data for children in this indicator. However, differences in household roles and expectations may influence how schooling and work decisions are allocated within families. Earlier findings on gendered care responsibilities suggest that these intergenerational effects may be shaped by women’s central role in managing household coping under constrained resources.

Beyond impacts on children, food insecurity is also associated with deteriorating self-reported health outcomes among adults, particularly as severity increases. While health outcomes are broadly similar among food secure respondents, gender differences widen as food insecurity deepens, with women consistently reporting poorer health at moderate and severe levels.

**Figure 30** Health issues (by gender and food insecurity levels)



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)

The widening gender gap in reported health issues at higher levels of food insecurity may reflect differences in nutritional intake, income stability, health-seeking behaviour and caregiving roles, although the survey does not allow for causal attribution. These patterns are consistent with the cumulative effects of constrained purchasing power, where reduced food consumption and limited access to healthcare interact to shape health outcomes.

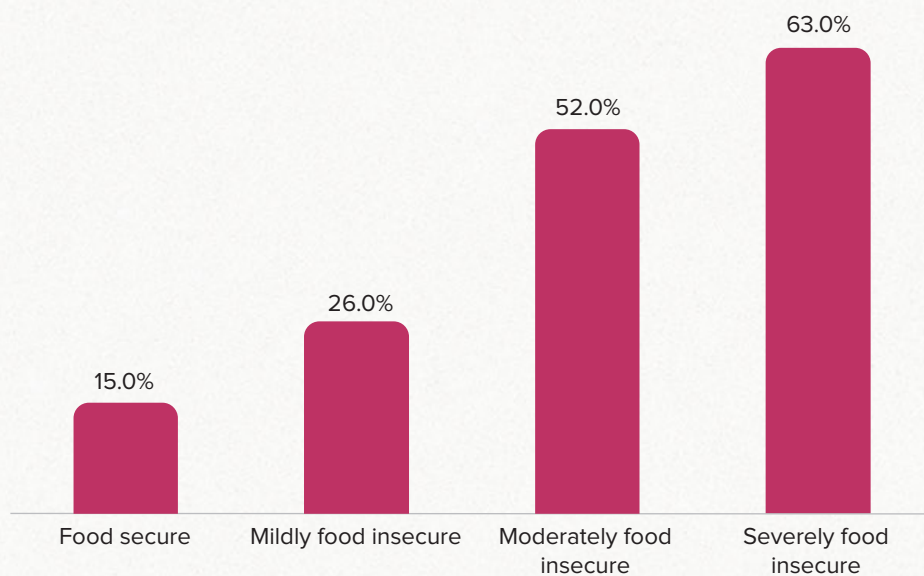
Food insecurity is also associated with increased borrowing for health-related expenses. Among food-secure respondents, 15 percent report borrowing to cover health needs. This rises to 26 percent among those experiencing mild food insecurity, and 52 percent among the moderately food insecure. Among those facing severe food insecurity, 63 percent report borrowing to cover health needs, underscoring how food insecurity is associated with cumulative financial strain.

*Among those facing severe food insecurity, 63 percent report borrowing to cover health needs, underscoring how food insecurity is associated with cumulative financial strain.*

The survey does not provide gender-disaggregated estimates for borrowing due to small sample sizes. However, given the higher reported health issues among women in moderate and severe food insecurity categories, differences in financial coping may also vary by gender.

Overall, these findings highlight how food insecurity operates as a key channel through which income constraints translate into broader pressures on household resilience. The combined effects of reduced consumption, increased reliance on coping strategies and rising financial stress contribute to a gradual weakening of households' ability to sustain well-being under prolonged economic strain.

**Figure 31** Borrowing for health needs (by food insecurity levels)



Source: Myanmar Gender Survey (UNDP and UN Women, 2025)



# Conclusion and Recommendations

This report provides an evidence-based assessment of gender differences in labour market participation, income, asset ownership and food security. The findings indicate that gender inequality in Myanmar's economy is not only persistent, but structurally embedded and reinforced by crisis conditions. While these inequalities are not unique in themselves, their intensity and interaction in a context of prolonged crisis create particularly acute constraints on

*The findings indicate that gender inequality in Myanmar's economy is not only persistent, but structurally embedded and reinforced by crisis conditions.*

women's economic empowerment. These conditions interact with pre-existing structural features of Myanmar's economy and social organization, including unequal care responsibilities and segmented labour markets, reinforcing gender gaps across multiple dimensions of economic life.

Across most key economic indicators examined, women face measurable disadvantages. Labour force participation among women remains significantly lower than among men, particularly in rural and conflict-affected regions where insecurity, restrictions on women's movement and unpaid care responsibilities constrain mobility and economic engagement. Nearly 29 percent of women aged 15 to 64 are not in employment, education or training, more than double the rate for men. Women continue to shoulder the majority of unpaid care work, which constrains their time, mobility and access to paid opportunities. Even when employed, women earn less and have lower savings capacity, and a substantial share report having no income at all. Together, these disadvantages reduce economic resilience and heighten household vulnerability to income and food security shocks.

Beyond these immediate impacts, these outcomes reflect a broader loss of women's potential contributions to society and the economy. Structural gender inequalities, including discriminatory norms, unequal access to resources, limited decision-making power and heightened exposure to violence, constrain women's ability to exercise their capabilities, pursue their aspirations and realize their agency. As a result, Myanmar's labour market is not only unequal, but also underutilizes the skills, talents and leadership of a large share of its population.

Conflict and economic disruption appear to systematically widen gender disparities in employment, income stability and food security by deepening existing structural inequalities. In high-conflict areas, women's employment rates have declined further, widening gender gaps and limiting access to stable sources of income, reinforcing economic dependence and reducing their bargaining power within households. The withdrawal of essential services, disruption of education systems and increased household insecurity are associated with increased unpaid care responsibilities and reduced access to stable employment for women. Under these conditions, crisis conditions interact with prevailing norms, reinforcing patterns of labour market exclusion and unequal economic roles within households and communities.

Food insecurity illustrates the downstream effects of these economic inequalities. More than half of the population experiences some level of food insecurity, rising to 53 percent among women. Women are more likely to rely on a greater number of coping strategies as food insecurity deepens, reflecting constrained economic options and limited buffers at the household level. These include cutting health and education expenditures, borrowing food or money, and withdrawing children from school.

Attitudinal data suggest that perceptions regarding household decision-making and economic roles continue to differ by gender, influencing how resources and responsibilities are allocated. These norms interact with labour market structure, service provision and asset ownership patterns to shape women's access to income, assets and food security.

Overall, the findings demonstrate that women's economic empowerment in Myanmar is shaped not only by labour market conditions, care systems, access to assets, education, and conflict dynamics, but also by broader power relations that restrict their capabilities, personal aspirations, and agency. Strengthening women's access to paid work, income stability, and productive assets is therefore not only essential for bolstering household resilience and improving food security outcomes, but also for enabling women to realize their full economic potential and participate more equally in shaping household and community decisions.

## Recommendations

The following recommendations are offered for consideration by humanitarian and development partners, drawing on the report's findings on gendered economic constraints and resilience in crisis-affected Myanmar.

### Invest in women's economic empowerment

*Expanding women's access to decent, stable and adequately paid work is essential for improving household income, reducing vulnerability and supporting inclusive economic recovery.*

- Expand access to decent work for women through targeted skills development, job placement programmes and support for women-owned enterprises, particularly in rural and conflict-affected areas. (Short-term)
- Support women's entrepreneurship initiatives through business incubator models, mentorship, small-scale grants, business start-up and development support, and access to finance mechanisms. (Short-term)
- Provide entrepreneurship and business development training through digital e-learning platforms offering self-paced and instructor-led courses, tailored to the needs and literacy levels of women entrepreneurs, to strengthen women's and women-led MSMEs' access to financial services, savings schemes and markets. (Medium-term)
- Where feasible, support analysis and dialogue on legal and regulatory frameworks affecting women's participation in the labour market, with a view to improving equitable access to employment rights and protections. (Longer-term)
- Promote wage equity through support to gender-sensitive employment practices, pay transparency mechanisms and dialogue on closing gender wage differentials. (Longer-term)
- Support women's collective economic platforms, such as self-help groups, women-led organizations and informal women's networks, as mechanisms for income generation, savings, access to services and peer support, particularly in rural and conflict-affected areas. (Longer-term)

## Expand access to education and lifelong learning

*Strengthening access to education and skills development is critical for improving economic opportunities and reducing vulnerability to poverty and food insecurity.*

- Promote second-chance education and adult learning programmes to enable women and girls who missed formal schooling or training opportunities to acquire foundational literacy, numeracy and vocational skills in crisis contexts. (Short-term)
- Support gender-responsive skills development, including digital literacy and technical training, to improve employability and economic resilience. (Short-term)
- Integrate education programmes with community-based interventions and social protection schemes to reduce structural barriers affecting women and girls, particularly in rural and conflict-affected areas. (Longer-term)

## Recognize and address unpaid care constraints

*Addressing unpaid care constraints is important for enabling women's participation in the labour market and improving overall economic productivity and well-being.*

- Support community dialogues and awareness initiatives that encourage more balanced sharing of unpaid care responsibilities. (Medium-term)
- Integrate care-sensitive design into social protection and cash assistance programmes, recognizing women's disproportionate responsibility for household coping in crisis contexts, including flexible delivery mechanisms, childcare linkages and eligibility criteria that account for unpaid care responsibilities. (Longer-term)
- Increase investment in care-related infrastructure such as childcare centres, eldercare services and community-based care initiatives where feasible. (Longer-term)

## Strengthen women's land ownership and access to productive resources

*Improving women's access to land and productive resources is important for enhancing income generation, strengthening resilience and supporting more balanced economic decision-making within households.*

- Support efforts to increase awareness of joint land ownership provisions. (Short-term)
- Work with local communities and civil society to strengthen inclusive land governance practices, including training for land committees and dispute resolution bodies. (Longer-term)
- Integrate gender considerations into agricultural programming, including support to women farmers and improved access to inputs and markets. (Longer-term)

## Address food insecurity and household resilience

*Reducing food insecurity and strengthening household resilience is essential for protecting well-being, limiting negative coping strategies and supporting long-term human development outcomes.*

- Integrate gender analysis into food security assessments and programmes, with attention to household composition and intra-household resource allocation. (Short-term)
- Target support to women-headed households, women with disabilities and rural women with limited income or assets where data indicate heightened risk. (Short-term)
- Expand community-based nutrition, cash assistance and school feeding initiatives with attention to gender-disaggregated outcomes, ensuring that interventions reflect women's central role in managing household food consumption and coping strategies. (Short-term)

## **Strengthen participation, voice and inclusive norms**

*Promoting more inclusive participation and balanced decision-making is important for improving access to opportunities, resources and outcomes for both women and men.*

- Support initiatives that promote gender-equitable attitudes and engage men and boys alongside women in dialogue on shared economic and household roles. (Short-term)
- Support women's participation and leadership in community organizations, peacebuilding efforts and local governance structures. (Medium-term)
- Mainstream gender analysis across humanitarian, development and peace interventions, supported by dedicated resources and accountability mechanisms. (Medium-term)

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# Appendix Tables



Appendix Table 1

Summary of the Survey Respondents' Information

|  | Sample | %       |
|--|--------|---------|
| <b>Total Respondents</b>                 | 5405   | 100.00% |
| <b>Urban/Rural</b>                       |        |         |
| Urban                                    | 1544   | 28.57%  |
| Rural                                    | 3861   | 71.43%  |
| <b>State/Region</b>                      |        |         |
| Kachin                                   | 128    | 2.37%   |
| Kayah                                    | 400    | 7.40%   |
| Kayin                                    | 400    | 7.40%   |
| Chin                                     | 224    | 4.14%   |
| Sagaing                                  | 400    | 7.40%   |
| Tanintharyi                              | 352    | 6.51%   |
| Bago                                     | 400    | 7.40%   |
| Magway                                   | 400    | 7.40%   |
| Mandalay                                 | 400    | 7.40%   |
| Mon                                      | 400    | 7.40%   |
| Rakhine                                  | 365    | 6.75%   |
| Yangon                                   | 400    | 7.40%   |
| Shan                                     | 336    | 6.22%   |
| Ayeyarwady                               | 400    | 7.40%   |
| Naypyitaw                                | 400    | 7.40%   |
| <b>Sex</b>                               |        |         |
| Men                                      | 2695   | 49.86%  |
| Women                                    | 2710   | 50.14%  |
| <b>Age</b>                               |        |         |
| 15-24 yrs                                | 1380   | 25.53%  |
| 25-34 yrs                                | 1194   | 22.09%  |
| 35-44 yrs                                | 1101   | 20.37%  |
| 45-54 yrs                                | 976    | 18.06%  |
| 55-64 yrs                                | 343    | 6.35%   |
| 65 and above                             | 411    | 7.60%   |
| <b>Marital status</b>                    |        |         |
| Single                                   | 2289   | 42.35%  |
| Married                                  | 2750   | 50.88%  |
| Widow                                    | 260    | 4.81%   |
| Divorced                                 | 53     | 0.98%   |
| Separated                                | 53     | 0.98%   |
| <b>Education</b>                         |        |         |
| No formal education or less than primary | 963    | 17.82%  |
| Completed primary school                 | 1470   | 27.20%  |
| Completed middle school                  | 1309   | 24.22%  |
| Completed high school                    | 653    | 12.08%  |
| Higher education                         | 1009   | 18.67%  |
| <b>Head of household</b>                 |        |         |
| Women                                    | 1084   | 20.06%  |
| Men                                      | 4321   | 79.94%  |

|                     | No income | 150000 and below | 150001-250000 | 250001-400000 | 400001-750000 | Above 750001 |
|---------------------|-----------|------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|--------------|
| <b>Union</b>        | 32.6%     | 8.5%             | 15.2%         | 22.8%         | 14.4%         | 6.5%         |
| <b>Urban/Rural</b>  |           |                  |               |               |               |              |
| Urban               | 30.5%     | 4.8%             | 14.6%         | 24.6%         | 18.1%         | 7.3%         |
| Rural               | 33.6%     | 10.1%            | 15.4%         | 22.0%         | 12.8%         | 6.1%         |
| <b>State/Region</b> |           |                  |               |               |               |              |
| Kachin              | 41.5%     | 11.5%            | 10.7%         | 17.0%         | 14.0%         | 5.2%         |
| Kayah               | 48.8%     | 9.6%             | 16.4%         | 10.9%         | 3.5%          | 0.8%         |
| Kayin               | 35.0%     | 6.4%             | 15.9%         | 19.4%         | 17.6%         | 5.7%         |
| Chin                | 38.5%     | 19.0%            | 16.6%         | 14.1%         | 5.8%          | 5.9%         |
| Sagaing             | 35.6%     | 14.5%            | 12.3%         | 19.7%         | 11.3%         | 6.6%         |
| Tanintharyi         | 28.3%     | 5.3%             | 17.2%         | 27.9%         | 12.1%         | 9.2%         |
| Bago                | 31.2%     | 8.4%             | 10.3%         | 24.8%         | 18.0%         | 7.4%         |
| Magway              | 28.0%     | 18.3%            | 19.1%         | 19.0%         | 11.0%         | 4.7%         |
| Mandalay            | 25.8%     | 8.6%             | 20.0%         | 22.5%         | 16.4%         | 6.7%         |
| Mon                 | 37.6%     | 5.0%             | 16.1%         | 22.1%         | 13.7%         | 5.5%         |
| Rakhine             | 47.7%     | 4.1%             | 16.5%         | 19.14%        | 7.7%          | 4.9%         |
| Yangon              | 31.1%     | 2.5%             | 9.5%          | 29.2%         | 20.3%         | 7.4%         |
| Shan                | 36.9%     | 6.7%             | 17.8%         | 20.2%         | 11.1%         | 7.4%         |
| Ayeyarwady          | 32.8%     | 7.9%             | 16.9%         | 23.3%         | 3.2%          | 5.9%         |
| Naypyitaw           | 27.3%     | 7.7%             | 18.3%         | 24.8%         | 15.6%         | 6.3%         |
| <b>Sex</b>          |           |                  |               |               |               |              |
| Men                 | 23.0%     | 6.9%             | 14.3%         | 26.3%         | 19.4%         | 10.1%        |
| Women               | 41.7%     | 10.1%            | 16.0%         | 19.4%         | 9.7%          | 3.0%         |

|                     | Yes, in own name | Yes, jointly | No    |
|---------------------|------------------|--------------|-------|
| <b>Union</b>        | 18.8%            | 1.4%         | 79.8% |
| <b>Urban/Rural</b>  |                  |              |       |
| Urban               | 25.8%            | 1.6%         | 72.6% |
| Rural               | 15.7%            | 1.3%         | 83.0% |
| <b>State/Region</b> |                  |              |       |
| Kachin              | 23.7%            | 2.8%         | 73.5% |
| Kayah               | 9.2%             | 2.7%         | 88.1% |
| Kayin               | 12.4%            | 1.0%         | 86.6% |
| Chin                | 15.4%            | 4.4%         | 80.1% |
| Sagaing             | 14.5%            | 0.9%         | 84.6% |
| Tanintharyi         | 17.2%            | 0.7%         | 82.2% |
| Bago                | 15.9%            | 1.6%         | 82.5% |
| Magway              | 12.5%            | 1.2%         | 86.3% |
| Mandalay            | 15.6%            | 0.7%         | 83.7% |
| Mon                 | 20.0%            | 0.6%         | 79.4% |
| Rakhine             | 20.7%            | 0.6%         | 78.7% |
| Yangon              | 33.0%            | 2.0%         | 64.9% |
| Shan                | 19.5%            | 3.2%         | 77.3% |
| Ayeyarwady          | 17.1%            | 0.6%         | 82.3% |
| Naypyitaw           | 17.3%            | 2.3%         | 80.4% |
| <b>Sex</b>          |                  |              |       |
| Men                 | 21.5%            | 1.3%         | 77.2% |
| Women               | 16.2%            | 1.5%         | 82.3% |

|                          | Men         |                    |                        |                      | Women       |                    |                        |                      |
|--------------------------|-------------|--------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------|--------------------|------------------------|----------------------|
|                          | Food secure | Mild food insecure | Moderate food insecure | Severe food insecure | Food secure | Mild food insecure | Moderate food insecure | Severe food insecure |
| <b>Union</b>             | 50%         | 33%                | 13%                    | 4%                   | 47%         | 36%                | 13%                    | 4%                   |
| <b>Urban/Rural</b>       |             |                    |                        |                      |             |                    |                        |                      |
| Urban                    | 48%         | 34%                | 14%                    | 4%                   | 46%         | 37%                | 14%                    | 3%                   |
| Rural                    | 57%         | 29%                | 11%                    | 4%                   | 50%         | 34%                | 11%                    | 5%                   |
| <b>State/Region</b>      |             |                    |                        |                      |             |                    |                        |                      |
| Kachin                   | 28%         | 44%                | 24%                    | 4%                   | 17%         | 42%                | 41%                    | 0%                   |
| Kayah                    | 18%         | 35%                | 39%                    | 8%                   | 12%         | 42%                | 41%                    | 5%                   |
| Kayin                    | 56%         | 31%                | 11%                    | 3%                   | 62%         | 24%                | 10%                    | 3%                   |
| Chin                     | 19%         | 49%                | 31%                    | 1%                   | 26%         | 49%                | 24%                    | 1%                   |
| Sagaing                  | 52%         | 30%                | 11%                    | 8%                   | 50%         | 33%                | 15%                    | 3%                   |
| Tanintharyi              | 54%         | 36%                | 9%                     | 1%                   | 64%         | 20%                | 12%                    | 4%                   |
| Bago                     | 56%         | 31%                | 12%                    | 1%                   | 52%         | 37%                | 11%                    | 0%                   |
| Magway                   | 45%         | 33%                | 18%                    | 4%                   | 40%         | 39%                | 16%                    | 5%                   |
| Mandalay                 | 50%         | 31%                | 15%                    | 3%                   | 44%         | 46%                | 8%                     | 2%                   |
| Mon                      | 57%         | 33%                | 7%                     | 3%                   | 54%         | 36%                | 8%                     | 2%                   |
| Rakhine                  | 30%         | 26%                | 32%                    | 12%                  | 19%         | 35%                | 35%                    | 12%                  |
| Yangon                   | 55%         | 29%                | 10%                    | 5%                   | 48%         | 37%                | 12%                    | 3%                   |
| Shan                     | 46%         | 34%                | 15%                    | 5%                   | 45%         | 38%                | 13%                    | 4%                   |
| Ayeyarwady               | 51%         | 41%                | 6%                     | 2%                   | 53%         | 30%                | 9%                     | 8%                   |
| Nay Pyi Taw              | 57%         | 29%                | 12%                    | 2%                   | 51%         | 35%                | 10%                    | 3%                   |
| <b>Marital Status</b>    |             |                    |                        |                      |             |                    |                        |                      |
| Men                      | 23.0        | 6.9                | 14.3                   | 26.3                 | 19.4        | 10.1               | 19.4                   | 10.1                 |
| Women                    | 41.7        | 10.1               | 16.0                   | 19.4                 | 9.7         | 3.0                | 9.7                    | 3.0                  |
| <b>Employment Status</b> |             |                    |                        |                      |             |                    |                        |                      |
| Not employed             | 51%         | 34%                | 11%                    | 4%                   | 51%         | 30%                | 15%                    | 4%                   |
| Employed                 | 50%         | 32%                | 13%                    | 4%                   | 44%         | 40%                | 12%                    | 4%                   |
| <b>Disability</b>        |             |                    |                        |                      |             |                    |                        |                      |
| Without disabilities     | 52%         | 32%                | 12%                    | 4%                   | 50%         | 35%                | 12%                    | 3%                   |
| With disabilities        | 23%         | 39%                | 25%                    | 13%                  | 20%         | 45%                | 22%                    | 13%                  |
| <b>Age</b>               |             |                    |                        |                      |             |                    |                        |                      |
| 15-17 years              | 59%         | 25%                | 11%                    | 6%                   | 57%         | 31%                | 11%                    | 1%                   |
| 18-19 years              | 50%         | 29%                | 13%                    | 7%                   | 68%         | 18%                | 9%                     | 5%                   |
| 20-24 years              | 54%         | 29%                | 13%                    | 5%                   | 54%         | 32%                | 12%                    | 3%                   |
| 25-34 years              | 50%         | 33%                | 12%                    | 4%                   | 45%         | 35%                | 14%                    | 5%                   |
| 35-49 years              | 47%         | 37%                | 12%                    | 4%                   | 44%         | 38%                | 15%                    | 4%                   |
| 50-64 years              | 49%         | 33%                | 17%                    | 2%                   | 42%         | 41%                | 12%                    | 5%                   |
| 65+ years                | 51%         | 33%                | 11%                    | 5%                   | 33%         | 51%                | 12%                    | 4%                   |
| <b>Education</b>         |             |                    |                        |                      |             |                    |                        |                      |
| Below primary            | 40%         | 39%                | 17%                    | 5%                   | 30%         | 46%                | 17%                    | 7%                   |
| Completed primary        | 40%         | 37%                | 18%                    | 5%                   | 45%         | 36%                | 15%                    | 4%                   |
| Completed middle         | 52%         | 33%                | 11%                    | 5%                   | 49%         | 34%                | 13%                    | 4%                   |
| Completed high           | 60%         | 25%                | 10%                    | 4%                   | 58%         | 31%                | 9%                     | 2%                   |
| Higher education         | 65%         | 27%                | 7%                     | 1%                   | 58%         | 33%                | 8%                     | 1%                   |

