



THE REPUBLIC OF THE UNION OF MYANMAR
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

Department of Education Research, Planning and Training



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Acronyms & Abbreviations

SDE	The Five Dimensions of Exclusion
ANER	Adjusted Net Enrolment Rate
AE	Alternative Education
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
B.Ed.	Bachelor of Education
BOT	Board of Trustees
CAPS	Continuous Assessment and Progression System
CBO	Community Based Organization
CCA	Child-Centred Approach
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women
CESR	Comprehensive Education Sector Review
CET	Certificate in Education Technology
CFS	Child Friendly Schools
CLC	Community Learning Centre
CRBPs	Children's Rights and Business Principles
CRC	Convention of the Rights of the Child
CRS	Catholic Relief Services
CSO	Central Statistical Organization
CCT	Conditional Cash Transfer
CREATE	Curriculum Reform and Teacher Education
CRPD	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
CT	Cash Transfer
DAE	MOE Department of Alternative Education
DBE	MOE Department of Basic Education
DERPT	MOE Department of Education Research, Planning and Training
DHE	MOE Department of Higher Education
DSW	MSWRR Department of Social Welfare
DOL	MOLES Department of Labour
DTed	Diploma in Teacher Education
DTEC	Diploma in Teacher Education Competency
DTVET	MOE Department of Technical and Vocational Education and Training
EC	Education College
ECCD	Early Childhood Care and Development
ECD	Early Childhood Development
ECE	Early Childhood Education
EfECT	English for Education College Teachers
EFA	Education for All
EFA-NAP	Education for All - National Action Plan
EGMA	Early Grade Mathematics Assessment
EGRA	Early Grade Reading Assessment
EMIS	Education Management and Information System
EOC	Emergency Operation Centre
EPIC	Education Pragmatic Implementation Committee
EXCEL	Extended and Continuous Education and Learning
FBO	Faith-Based Organization
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
FESR	Framework for Economic and Social Reform
FGLLID	MOLIP Factories and General Labour Laws Inspection Department

GAD	General Administration Department
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GO	Government Organization
GPI	Gender Parity Index
IEC	Information, Education and Communication
IHLCAS	Integrated Household Living Condition Assessment Survey
ILO	International Labour Organization
INGO	International Non-Government Organization
IQF	International Qualification Framework
KAP	Knowledge, Attitudes and Practices
KG	Kindergarten
LCA	Learner Centred Approach
LFS	Labour Force Survey
M&E	Monitoring & Evaluation
MAPDRR	Myanmar Action Plan on Disaster Risk Reduction
MCCT	Maternal and Child Cash Transfer
MDEF	Multi-Donor Education Fund
MDF	Metta Development Foundation
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MOALI	Ministry of Agriculture Livestock and Irrigation
MOBA	Ministry of Border Affairs
MOEA	Ministry of Ethnic Affairs
M.Ed.	Master of Education
MESC	Monastic Education Supervisory Committee
MGMA	Myanmar Garment Manufacturing Association
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
MIMU	Myanmar Information Management Unit
MIS	Management Information System
MLA	Monitoring of Learning Achievement
MLRC	Myanmar Literacy Resource Centre
MMCWA	Myanmar Maternal and Child Welfare Association
MMK	Myanmar Kyat
MNPED	Ministry of National Planning and Economic Development
MOBA	Ministry of Border Affairs
MOE	Ministry of Education
MOHA	Ministry of Home Affairs
MOHS	Ministry of Health and Sports
MOLES	Ministry of Labour, Employment and Social Security
MOLIP	Ministry of Labour, Immigration and Population
MORAC	Ministry of Religious Affairs and Culture
MPF	Ministry of Planning and Finance
MSWRR	Ministry of Social Welfare, Relief and Resettlement
M.Phil.	Master of Philosophy
MRCS	Myanmar Red Cross Society
MyEQIP	Myanmar Education Quality Improvement Plan
MyME	Myanmar Mobile Education Project
My-PEC	Myanmar Project on Elimination of Child Labour
NCDP	National Comprehensive Development Plan
NCF	National Curriculum Framework
NDPCC	National Disaster Preparedness Central Committee
NEL	National Education Law

NESP	National Education Strategic Plan
NFMSE	Non-Formal Middle School Education
NFPE	Non-Formal Primary Education
NGO	Non-Government Organization
NLD	National League for Democracy
NMTPF	National Medium-Term Priority Framework
NQF	National Qualification Framework
OOSC	Out-of-School Children
OOSCI	Out-of-School Children Initiative
PARDAP	Poverty Alleviation and Rural Development Action Plan
Ph.D.	Doctor of Philosophy
PTA	Parent Teacher Association
PGDMA	Post-Graduate Diploma in Multimedia Arts
PGDT	Post-Graduate Diploma in Teaching
RQF	Regional Qualification Framework
SITE	School-Based In-Service Teacher Education
SCET	Special Certificate in Education Technology
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SEAPLM	Southeast Asia Primary Learning Metrics
SISF	School Improvement Support Fund
STEM	Strengthening Teacher Education in Myanmar
TEIP	Township Education Improvement Plan
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UCT	Unconditional Cash Transfer
UDNR	University for the Development of National Races
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UOE	University of Education
WHO	World Health Organization

Executive Summary

This summary of the Study on Out-of-School Children (OOSC) in Myanmar is part of the Global Out-of-School Children Initiative (OOSCI), launched by the United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF) and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization’s Institute for Statistics (UNESCO, UIS) in 2010. The overall goals of the OOSCI are to introduce a more systematic approach for assessing the magnitude of the problem of out-of-school children and to guide concrete education sector reforms.

The Myanmar in-country structure for implementing OOSCI includes:

- (i) a steering committee chaired by the Ministry of Education (MOE) Permanent Secretary and comprised of the Directors General of nine other ministries, representatives of UNICEF and representatives of UNESCO;
- (ii) a technical team led by the Deputy Director General of the MOE Department of Education, Research, Planning and Training (DERPT), and comprised of representatives from MOE, and technical members from nine ministries, technical members from UNICEF and technical members from UNESCO; and
- (iii) two technical core teams, including (1) the Profile Core Team, of statistics experts from the Central Statistical Organization (CSO) and the MOE Statistical Unit; and (2) the Barriers Core Team, formed of education policy research experts from the MOE Research Unit.

By engaging OOSC, MOE aims to analyse and quantify the impacts of key determinants affecting them at the pre-primary, primary and lower secondary levels, so developing concrete policy recommendations for targeted interventions. This analysis consists of three main components: developing profiles of OOSC; analysis of barriers, bottlenecks and policies; and providing policy recommendations for addressing issues pertaining to OOSC.

Data sources used in this study

The MOE began research for this study in 2016 in collaboration with UIS and UNICEF. Data used here are from the following sources:

1. The 2015 Myanmar Labour Force Survey (LFS)
2. The Poverty Profile in the Integrated Household Living Condition Assessment Survey 2009-2010 (IHLCAS)
3. Administrative data from MOE, including from the MOE Management Information System (MIS)
4. The 2014 National Population and Housing Census (also referred to as “2014 Myanmar National Census” and “Census 2014”)

Methodology

The study technical committee based their analysis of the problem of out-of-school children on the model developed by the OOSCI, termed the “Five-Dimensions of Exclusion Model (SDE)”.¹ The Five Dimensions of Exclusion are:

- Dimension 1:** Children of pre-primary school age who are not in pre-primary or primary school
- Dimension 2:** Children of primary school age who are not in primary or secondary school
- Dimension 3:** Children of lower secondary school age who are not in primary or secondary school
- Dimension 4:** Children who are in primary school but at risk of dropping out
- Dimension 5:** Children who are in lower secondary school but at risk of dropping out

Dimensions 1, 2 and 3 are out-of-school children and dimensions 4 and 5 are children in school but *at risk* of dropping out.

Profiles of out-of-school children

Who are the out-of-school children in Myanmar?

Analysis of the profiles of out-of-school children in Myanmar reveals that the following children are more likely to be excluded from access to education:

- Children living in rural areas
- Children from poor households
- Children with disabilities
- Child labourers

In addition, male children are at greater risk of exclusion because they take part more often in child labour as they grow. A summary of profiles of out-of-school children in Myanmar as presented according to the Five Dimensions of Exclusion Model further reveals the following:

- Dimension 1:** 76 per cent of pre-primary school age children (age 4 years) are out of school
- Dimension 2:** 12 per cent of primary school age children (ages 5 to 9) are out of school
- Dimension 3:** 11.7 per cent of lower secondary age children (10 to 13) are out of school
- Dimension 4:** 18.1 per cent of children in primary school are at risk of dropping out
- Dimension 5:** 18.1 per cent of children in lower secondary school are at risk of dropping out

Dimension 1: Children of pre-primary school age (4 years old) who are not in pre-primary or primary school

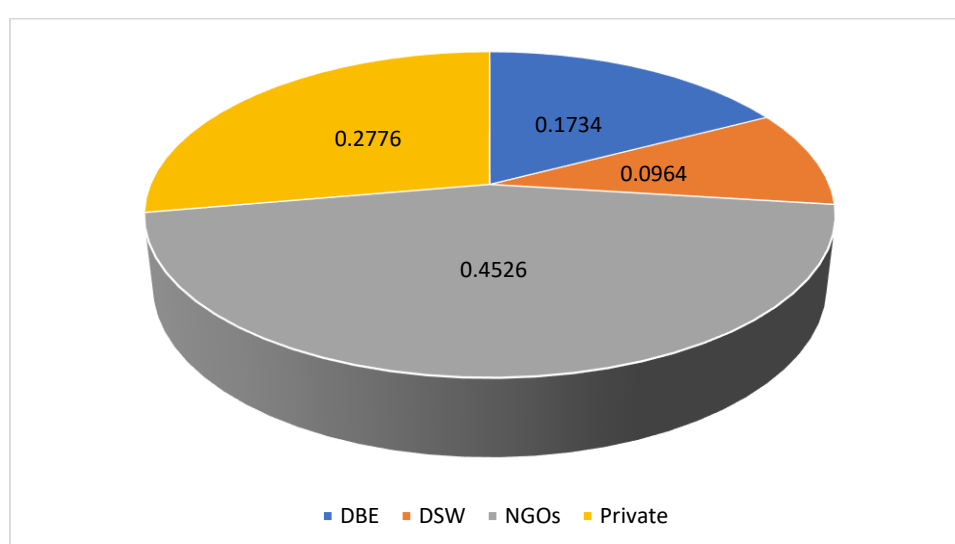
Nationally in Myanmar, 76.6 per cent of pre-primary-school-age children are OOSC, with higher prevalence of this in rural areas. Urban enrolment in preschool has increased rapidly over the years.

¹ UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) and UNICEF Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children: Conceptual and Methodological Framework, (UNICEF and UNESCO Institute for Statistics, March 2011).

OOSCI has defined pre-primary school age as the age *one year before* the age to officially enter basic education primary school. The study technical committee therefore analysed data only on children age 4. According to data from DERPT for 2014 to 2015, the OOSC rate among 4-year-old children was 76.6 per cent between those years. And there was no significant gender difference, as the Gender Parity Index (GPI) for these OOSC was 0.99.

In Myanmar, as in many countries, these pre-primary school services are carried out by government entities such as the MOE Department of Basic Education (DBE) or the Ministry of Social Welfare, Relief and Resettlement's (MSWRR) Department of Social Welfare (DSW), non-government organizations (NGOs) and the private sector. Figure 1 shows the percentage of preschool children enrolled by type of organization providing the service. The figure illustrates that government provision of preschool education is much lower than that by the private sector and NGOs.

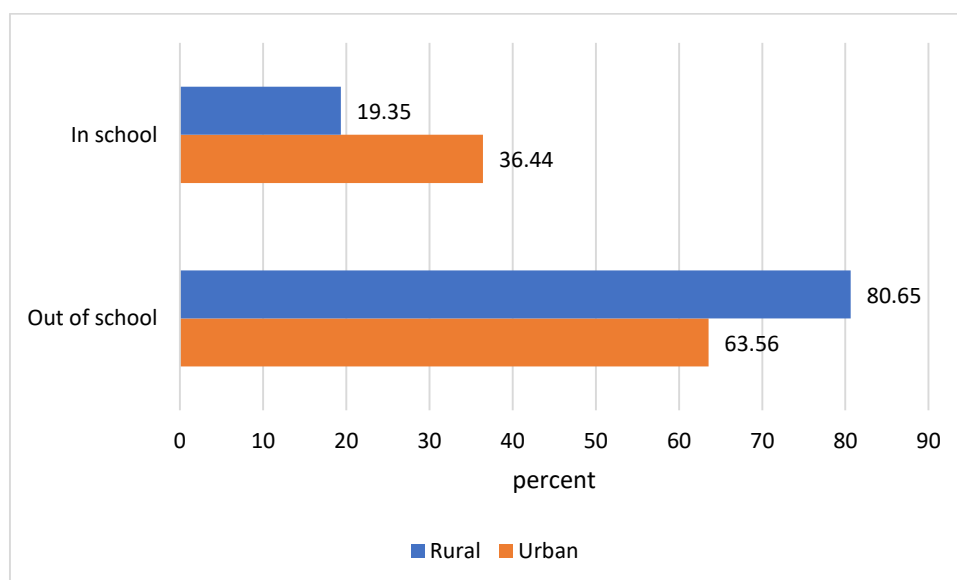
Figure 1. Pre-primary-school enrolment by type of organization providing the serviceⁱ



Source: DERPT (2016)

There are also far more preschool age children out of school in rural areas than in urban areas: 80.6 per cent vs. 63.6 per cent. Moreover, the percentage of pre-primary age children included in the formal education system is still very low not only in rural areas but also in urban areas. Figure 2 shows the percentage of pre-primary age children in school and out of school, by rural vs. urban.

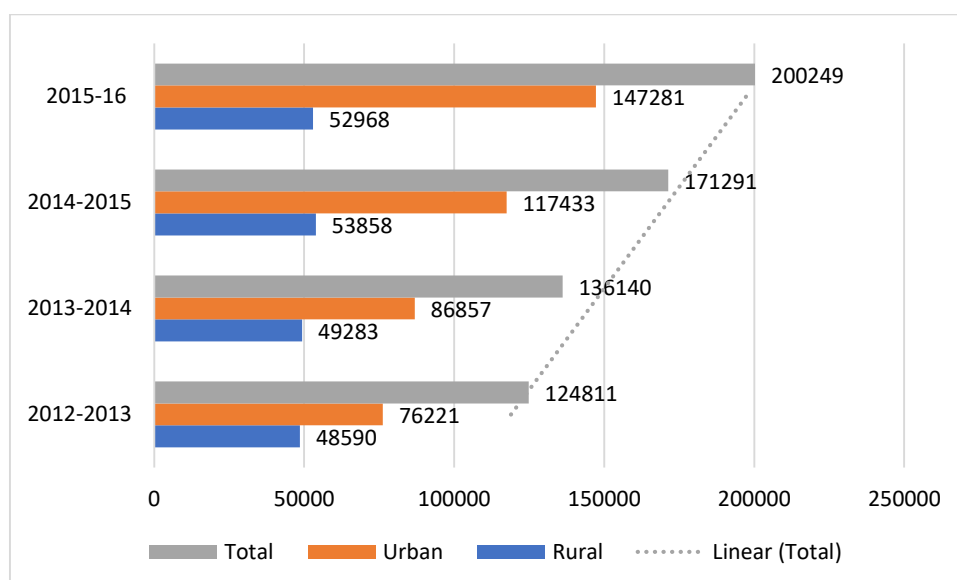
Figure 2. Percentages of pre-primary age children in school vs. out of school, rural vs. urban



Source: DERPT (2014-2015)

To further demonstrate the disparity between rural and urban rates of children in pre-primary education, Figure 3 below offers data for 2012 to 2016 from MSWRR, MOE, the Ministry of Border Affairs (MOBA), Save the Children and the Myanmar Maternal and Child Welfare Association (MMCWA). Urban enrolment nearly doubled while rural enrolment increased less than 10 per cent.

Figure 3. Flow of pre-primary education for 2012 to 2016, rural vs. urban



Source: DERPT

The gap is clear, and if education policy fails to address it, this will become the preeminent issue in the Myanmar preschool education sector.

Dimension 2: Children of primary school age (5-9 years) who are not in primary school or higher

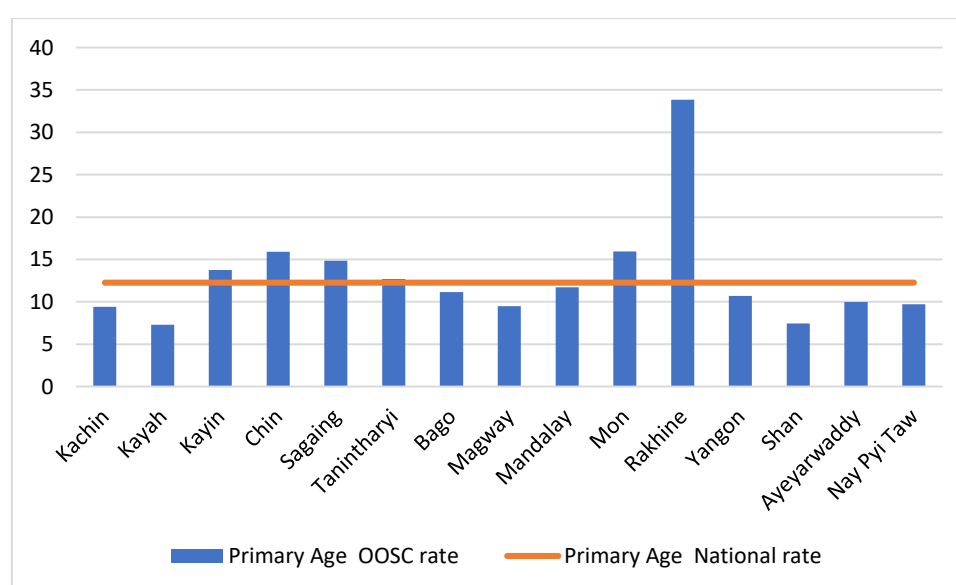
Nationwide in Myanmar, 12.3 per cent of primary school age children are out of school, and in this group there are more boys out of school than girls: GPI is 0.87. There is no significant difference across the states and regions of the country except Rakhine State.

Based on LFS data, at time of study, 12.3 per cent of primary school age children overall were out of school or had left school by 2015. But according to administrative data from MOE, OOSC rates for this age group decreased from 2012 to 2016. GPI for this group was 0.87, meaning that more male children were out of school than female. Yet the disparity between rural and urban was just 0.5 per cent. However, in both rural and urban areas, more male children than female children were out of school, as GPI for urban areas was 0.75, and for rural areas, 0.90.

By state and region, primary school enrolment did not vary appreciably, except in Rakhine State, where only 65.1 per cent of primary school age children were in school compared to 85 per cent on average and higher across all states and regions.² Four states - Kayah, Chin, Mon and Rakhine - and two regions - Sagaing and Tanintharyi - exceeded the national average for primary school age children out of school.

As demonstrated in Figure 4, Rakhine State had 33.8 per cent primary school age OOSC, followed by Mon State, with 16 per cent, followed by Sagaing Region, with 14.9 per cent. The gap between Rakhine and the next highest, Mon (15.9 per cent OOSC), was 17.9 per cent. Kayah State had 7.3 per cent OOSC, Shan State 7.5 per cent, Kachin State 9.4 per cent and Magwe Region 9.5 per cent.

Figure 4. Primary school age children out of school, by state/region



Source: LFS (2015)

² Myanmar is divided into seven states, seven regions, five self-administered zones and one self-administered region.

Further analysis also indicates wide variation by wealth index quintile, level of education obtained by head of household and whether or not the child has a disability. Whether or not a child is in school is also strongly affected by household economic status. In the lowest quintile of the Household Wealth Index, 17.2 per cent of children were out of school; in the highest quintile, 7.3 per cent of children were out of school. Educational attainment of parents also heavily determines OOSC rate, where children of parents with lower levels of educational attainment were less likely to be in school.

Profile analysis revealed as well that 36.8 per cent of children engaged in labour were out of school at primary school age, that 46.7 per cent of disabled children of primary age were out of school and that among these disabled children out of school the majority were boys.

Dimension 3: Children of lower secondary school age (10-13) not in primary school or higher

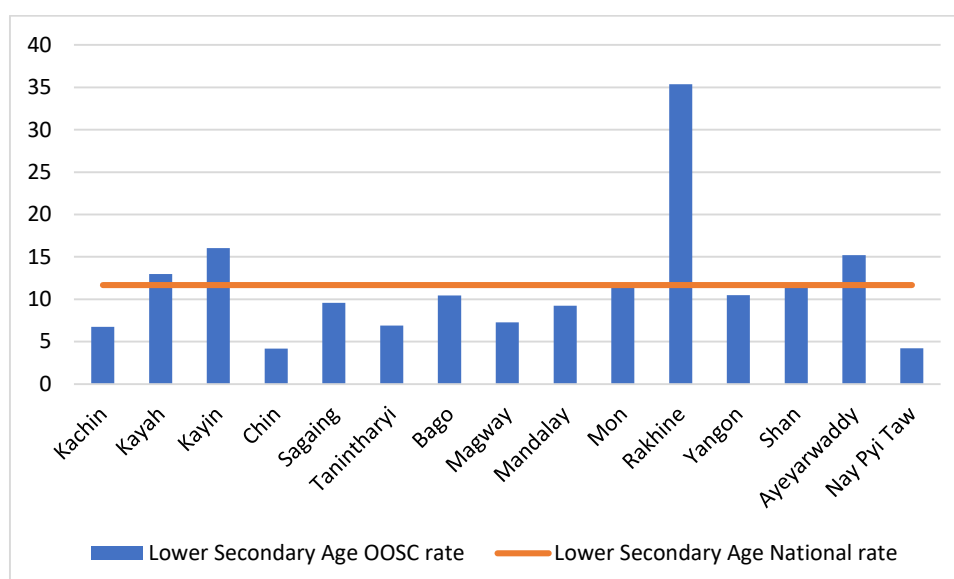
Among lower secondary school age children (10-13 years) nationally, the OOSC rate is 11.7 per cent, with GPI of 0.95, indicating more boys out of school than girls. OOSC in this age group also varies by state and region.

Dimension 3 represents lower secondary age children who have left school early or who have never enrolled in school. The study found this to be 11.7 per cent as of 2015 based on LFS data. These same administrative data from MOE also indicate that OOSC rates decreased from 2012 to 2016 and that percentage of children out of school in the lower secondary age group tended to increase with age of children. The GPI for lower secondary age children was found to be 0.95, meaning there were more male children out of school than female.

In rural areas, the OOSC rate was 13.2 per cent, higher than for urban areas, where it was 8.6 per cent. GPI for rural areas was 0.92 and for urban areas was 1.04. Thus, in rural areas, more boys were out of school than girls, and in urban areas more girls were out of school than boys.

OOSC rates among lower secondary age varied widely across states and regions of the country. The national OOSC rate for lower secondary age children was 11.7 per cent, and three states, Kayah, Kayin and Rakhine - and one region - Ayeyarwaddy - exceeded this. The rate for Mon State was 11.3 per cent and for Shan State 11.5 per cent, or close to the national average. The highest rate was found in Rakhine State, followed by Kayin State and then Ayeyarwaddy Region. Rakhine State had 35.4 per cent OOSC for the lower secondary age group and the lowest rates were 4.2 per cent in Chin and 4.2 per cent in Nay Pyi Taw (see Figure 5).

Figure 5. Lower secondary age children out of school, by state/region



Source: LFS (2015)

OOSC rate by educational attainment of parents, participation in child labour and disability for lower secondary age showed similar trends to the primary school age group. According to profile analysis, 94.5 per cent of children who were engaged in labour were also out of school and 39.2 per cent of disabled children in this age group were out of school. The GPI also revealed more male disabled children out of school than female disabled children.

Dimension 4: Children in primary school but at risk of dropping out

The study found an increasing trend in children at risk of dropping out of primary school before the final grade, jumping from 16.2 per cent of children in 2012 to 18.1 per cent by 2015. Male students are also more likely to drop out than are females (GPI 0.83) and risk of dropout is much higher in rural areas than in urban areas.

This dimension represents all children, of any age, at risk of dropping out of primary school. The indicators that show the risk of dropping out are as follows:

1. Dropout rate by grade and dropout rate before the final grade
2. "Survival" rate to last grade
3. Repetition rate
4. Overage children
5. Rate of those expected to dropout

"Dropout before the final grade" is an indicator used to measure the number of students at risk of dropping out *before completing that level*. In Myanmar, the education system automatically promotes students to the next level, and this indicator is designed to show potential dropout across that continuum. National dropout rates by grade are shown below, in Table1. .

Table1. Primary education dropout rate, by grade

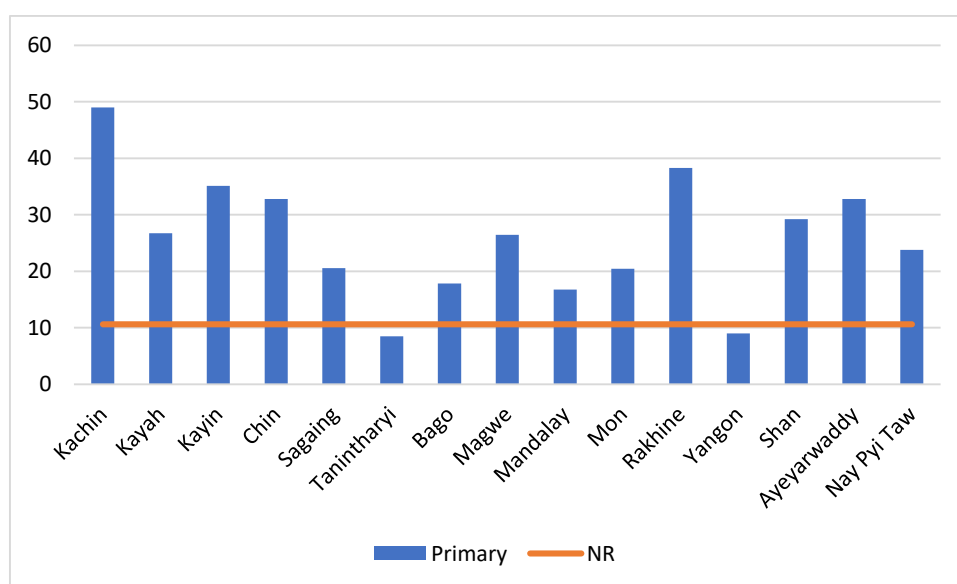
Grade	Dropout rate (%)
Grade 1	15.7
Grade 2	5.6
Grade 3	3.8
Grade 4	8.8
Grade 5	10.5

Source: DERPT (2014-2015)

At the primary school level, in all grades, there was a large gap between male and female children dropping out, with more males dropping out, and analysis of dropout rates based on MOE administrative data shows that rural children are at greater risk. In the 2014-2015 academic year, the total national dropout rate before the final grade for primary school was 10.6 per cent, with more male children dropping out than female. There were also large gaps between urban and rural areas in every state and region, indicating greater dropout for rural children. It is interesting to note here the zero dropout along the transition from Grade 1 up to the final grade of primary school in this group in all urban areas of states and regions except Tanintharyi Region.

Figure 6 shows rates for dropout from primary school before completion, by state and region. All states and regions except Tanintharyi and Yangon exceeded the national dropout rate of 10.6 per cent, and the highest was in Kachin State (49 per cent) followed by Rakhine State (38.3 per cent) and Ayeyarwaddy Region (32.8 per cent). The lowest was 8.5 per cent, in Tanintharyi Region, and Yangon Region had 9 per cent.

Figure 6. Dropout before last grade among primary school age children, by state/region



Source: LFS (2015)

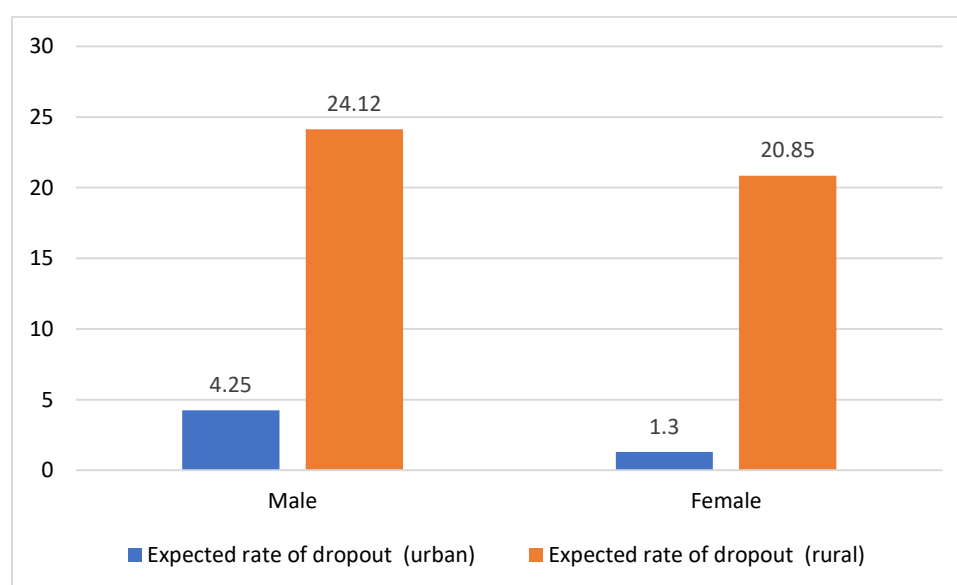
The study found that just over 88 per cent of male primary school age children and 90.3 per cent of female primary school age children had completed the final grade, and GPI for this was 1.02, indicating that there was no gender disparity. However, in rural areas, survival to the final grade of primary education was 68.2 per cent, much lower than for urban areas (95.6 per cent). Survival rate to last

grade of primary school also increased year by year from 2010 to 2014, but then began decreasing again in 2014.

Where dropout rates were high among this group, the study found that this may have been due to overage children attending. Typically in Myanmar, as in other countries, ages of children attending a particular grade are in line with the standard age for that grade. But in some cases, the study found that the higher the grade, the higher the proportion of children who were over age. MOE administrative data revealed that overall 10.4 per cent of children in primary grades were older than the normal age, about 6 per cent of those by at least one year for that level. Many of these overage children in primary school, the study found, were 10 to 13 years old. Although the study also found that repetition rates for grades 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 were relatively low: 1.5 per cent for Grade 1; 1 per cent for Grade 2, 0.9 per cent for Grade 3, 1 per cent for Grade 4, and 1.2 per cent for Grade 5, and male children had consistently higher rates of repetition.

Rates of students at risk of dropout before Grade 5 were found to have increased as well, from 16.2 per cent for 2011-2012 to 18.1 per cent for 2014-2015. “At risk” can mean that students may have to leave school for any of a number of factors, including family emergency, health emergency, migration, labour or natural disasters. For 2014-2015, 19.8 per cent of male students in primary school were at risk of dropping out before the final grade and 16.6 per cent of female students were at risk of dropping out (Figure 7).

Figure 7. Percentage of students at risk of dropout before the final grade of primary education, rural vs. urban, male vs. female



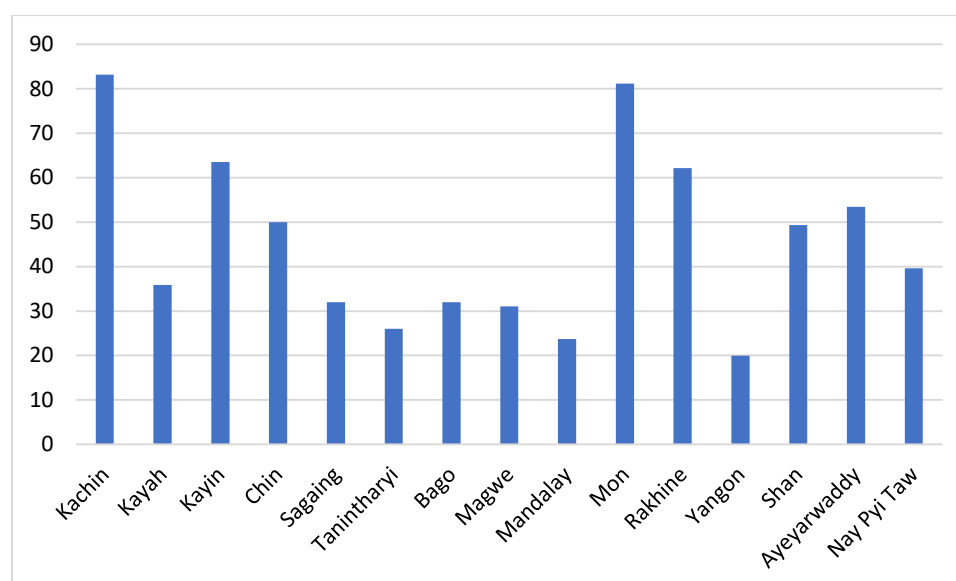
Source: DERPT (2014-2015)

Risk of dropout is clearly much higher in rural areas, in some cases 11 times the rate for urban areas. For rural male children it is 6 times higher than for urban male children, and 20 times higher for female children. By state/region, 83.2 per cent of students in Kachin were at risk, while for Yangon this was 19.9 per cent. For the Mandalay Region, 23.7 per cent of primary school students were at risk of dropping out before completion.

Figure 8 shows risk of dropout for primary school by state or region. In urban areas of Kachin State and Kayin State, risk of dropout was zero and in urban areas of Kayah, Chin, Sagaing, Mandalay, Mon,

Yangon and Nay Pyi Taw it was less than 10 per cent. The lowest expected to dropout rates are found in Bago (21%) and Tanintharyi (25.4%). Yet in Kachin State, risk of dropout was 90 per cent.

Figure 8. Percentage of students at risk of dropout, primary school age, by state/region



Source: DERPT (2014-2015)

Dimension 5: Children in lower secondary school at risk of dropping out

For 2014 to 2015, 18.1 per cent of children in lower secondary school were at risk of dropping out, and male students were more likely to drop out than were their female counterparts (GPI: 0.70). And the overall rate was six times higher for rural areas than for urban areas.

Dimension 5 represents all children, of any age, in lower secondary education and at risk of dropping out. Table 2 shows national-level dropout rates by grade.

Table 2. National-level lower secondary dropout rates, by grade

Grade	Dropout rate %
Grade 6	7.1
Grade 7	7.3
Grade 8	11.3
Grade 9	15.5

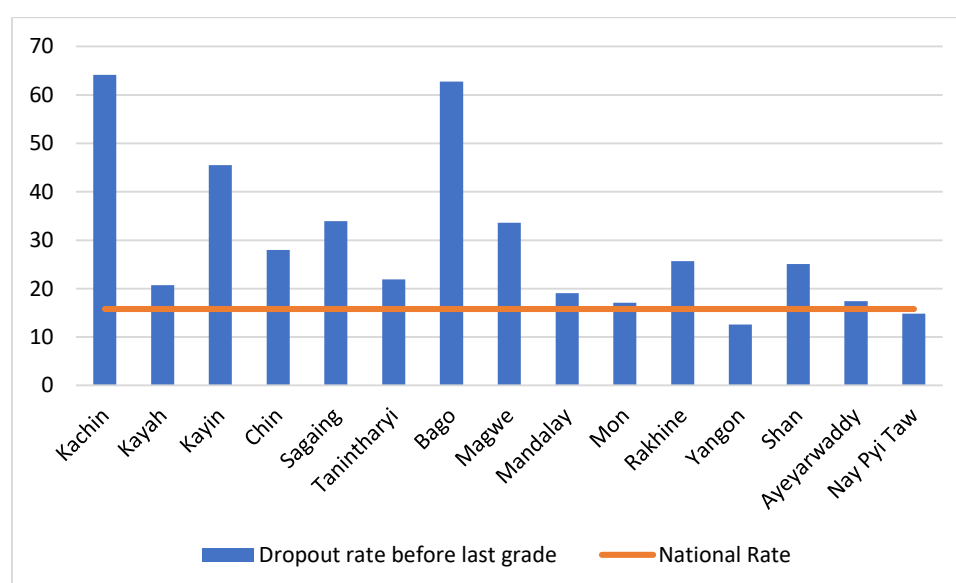
Source: DERPT (2014-2015)

The gender disparity among children dropping out at this level widened with grade, with male students more likely to drop out than female students in all grades, and here the country faces the situation that male children are clearly at higher risk of exclusion from education to take part in child labour as they grow. Dropout rates were also found to be higher in rural areas than in urban areas.

The study found that just under 16 per cent of students in lower secondary school had dropped out before the final grade, higher than that for primary school, and male students were more likely to drop out than were female students. Rural dropout rates were also higher than urban. Shan State had 13.5 per cent dropout, Yangon Region 3 per cent, Mandalay Region 3.6 per cent and Bago Region 42.8 per cent. All other states had zero dropout for this dimension, again because students enrolled in that level are automatically moved to the next grade unless they are dropping out due to adverse circumstances.

Figure 9 shows dropout rates for lower secondary school by state/region. Where Yangon Region and Nay Pyi Taw had dropout rates of 12.6 per cent and 14.8 per cent respectively, both lower than the national average of 15.8 per cent, other states/regions were higher, the highest in Kachin State (64.2 per cent), followed by Bago Region (62.8 per cent), and Kayin State (45.5 per cent). The lowest rate was found in Yangon Region (12.6 per cent) followed by Nay Pyi Taw (14.8 per cent).

Figure 9. Lower secondary dropout, by state/region



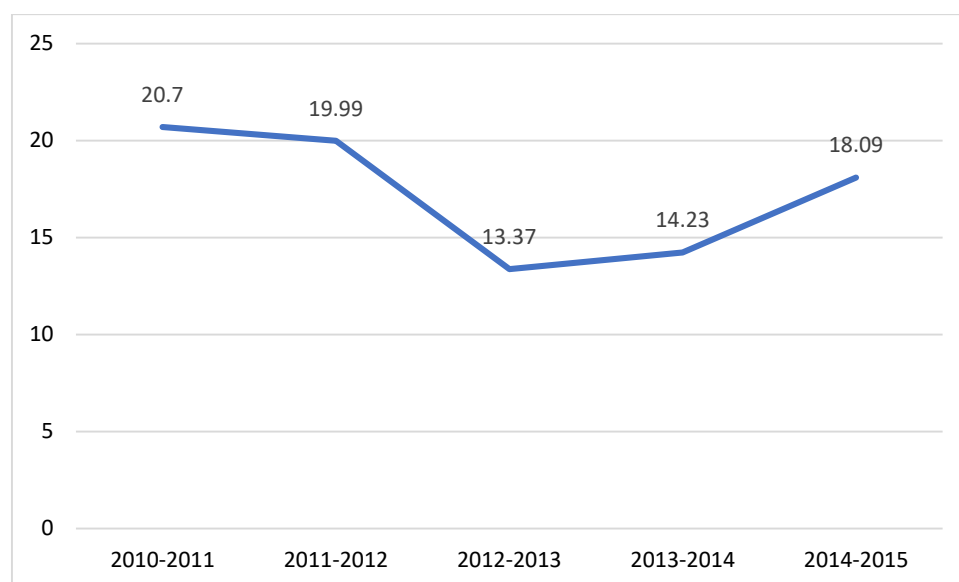
Source: DERPT (2014-2015)

The study found that among male students in lower secondary education, 79.8 per cent had completed the final grade, while among female students 88.3 per cent had completed the final grade, making the national average 84.2 per cent. Completion also rose from 2010 to 2013, but then started decreasing gradually again. And GPI was 1.11, confirming that more female students than male students complete lower secondary education. Survival rate for rural students was also much lower than that for urban students. Repetition rates were low however, at 0.5 per cent for Grade 6, 0.4 per cent for Grade 7, 0.5 per cent for Grade 8 and 2 per cent for Grade 9, with male students generally more likely to repeat than female students.

And as with primary school education, proportion of overage students increased with grade. At the national level, 13.8 per cent of children were over age, 10 per cent of whom were one year over age for their grade, and a majority of overage children from lower secondary school were within the 14-to-16 age group. This is typically due to late enrolment.

Students in lower secondary school at risk of dropout decreased from 20.7 per cent in the 2010-2011 school year to 13.3 per cent for 2012-2013. Yet beginning in 2013, the rate began increasing again, reaching 18.1 per cent by 2015 (see Figure 10). Data from 2014-2015 reveal that risk of dropout among male students was 21 per cent and the rate for female students was 14.7 per cent, while 5.5 per cent of urban students were at risk of dropping out vs. 24.4 per cent for rural, or six times higher.

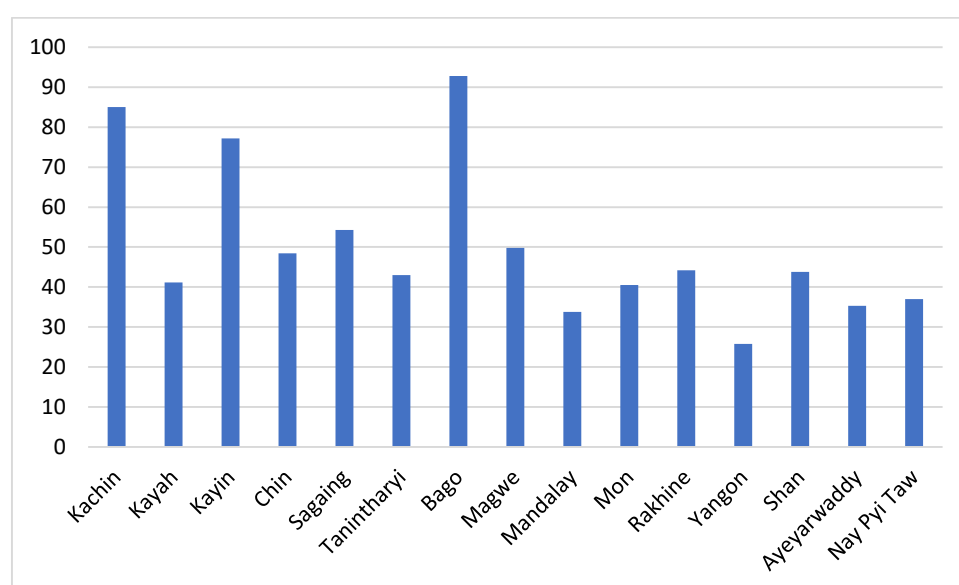
Figure 10. Risk of dropout, in per cent, lower-secondary-age children, 2010-2015



Source: DERPT

Figure 11 shows risk of lower secondary dropout by state/region, the highest in Bago Region (92.8 per cent), followed by Kachin State (84.9 per cent). The lowest rates were found in Nay Pyi Taw (37 per cent), Mandalay Region (33.8 per cent) and Yangon Region (25.8 per cent).

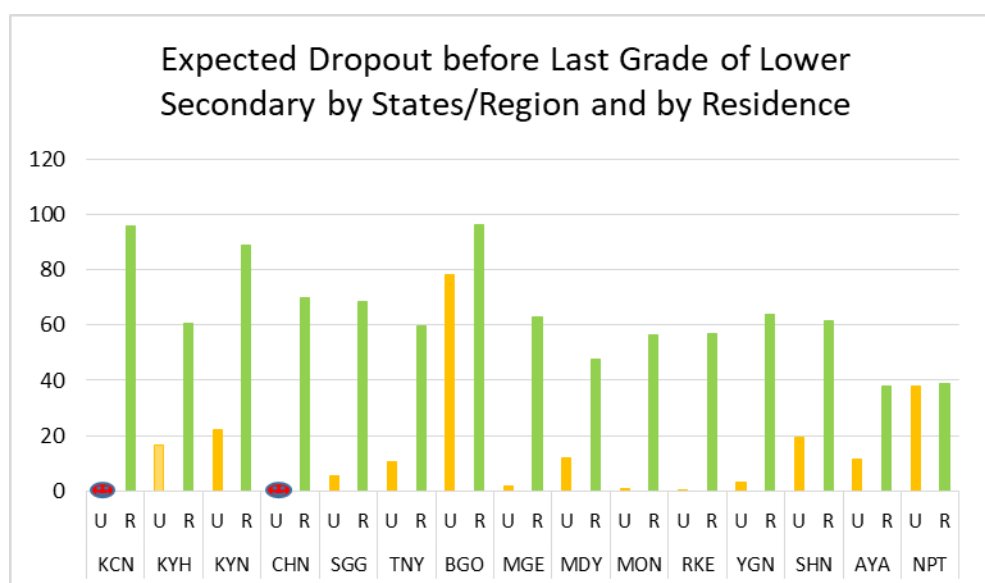
Figure 11. Risk of dropout, in per cent, lower secondary school, by state/region



Source: DERPT

In the urban areas of Kachin State and Chin State there was zero risk of dropout before the last grade of lower secondary education, and in the urban areas of Sagaing Region, Magwe Region, Mon State, Rakhine State and Yangon Region, rates were under 10 per cent. There was no rural area with a risk of dropout rate of zero. In fact, in the rural areas of Kachin State and Bago Region, risk of dropout exceeded 90 per cent. These can be clearly seen in Figure 12.

Figure 12. Risk of dropout before final grade of lower secondary education, in per cent, by state/region, rural vs. urban



Source: DERPT (2014-2015)

Barriers in access to education

The study technical committee performed a literature review on Myanmar, identifying a longer list of barriers for which there was some published evidence. Based on this review, and on the results of discussions with stakeholders in a “Barrier Analysis Workshop” held in Nay Pyi Taw, the team identified six types of barriers as most critical for out-of-school children.

Barrier 1. Poverty

According to profile analysis of out-of-school children, the OOSC rate for the lowest wealth quintile was 17.2 per cent for primary school age children and 17.7 per cent for lower secondary age children, both much higher than the 9.5 per cent and 6 per cent respectively in the highest quintile. Therefore, the high costs of education and the associated poverty of households are significant barriers to attaining education.

Moreover, data from the 2015 LFS indicate that the main reason why children left school was “costs not affordable”: 27.6 per cent of respondents said this. Data from the 2010 IHLCAS further indicated that 31 per cent of children were leaving school because of their families’ economic conditions and were working to support them.

Barrier 2. Child labour

Based on the 2015 LFS and 2010 IHLCAS, the following table shows a summary of the reasons for children not attending school.

Table 3. Leading reasons for children not attending school

Reason	LFS 2015 (%)	IHLCAS 2010 (%)
To care for family	2.3	13.1
Agricultural work	17.4	12.2
Other (non-agricultural) work	13.6	1.8
	Total: 33.3	Total: 27.1

In the 2015 LFS, 33.3 per cent of respondents mentioned the reason for not attending school as “participating in the workforce”; in the 2010 IHLCHAS, this had been 27.1 per cent. Interestingly, respondents mentioned this more often than they mentioned poverty. However, *poverty is the main driver of child labour*. According to the 2014 National Population and Housing Census, nearly one-quarter of children aged 10 to 17 in Myanmar participate in the workforce, and in a 2014 child labour index that evaluated child labour risk, Myanmar fell in the top 10 of 197 countries. This normalization of child labour continues to damage Myanmar’s reputation and competitiveness.

Barrier 3. Inadequate supply of early childhood development services and basic education schools

(a) Inadequate supply of early childhood development services:

As mentioned earlier, the OOSC rate for preschool children in Myanmar (Dimension 1) hovers around 76.6 per cent and the percentage of preschool children who access pre-primary education or early childhood care and development services (ECCD) is commensurately low. In rural areas, pre-primary age children access ECCD largely through faith-based organizations, NGOs and school-based preschool classes. But these services have limited reach, thus only a limited number of rural children can access them. In 2012, MOE did begin opening pre-primary classes attached to basic education primary schools, but the number of these preschools is still very low compared to demand and there is still a large gap between rural and urban ECCD. According to data from the former MOE Department of Education, Planning and Training (DEPT), by the 2016-2017 academic year, 4,290 preschool classes had been opened at basic education schools under MOE and 103,393 children aged 3 to 5 were enrolled. Yet this number still represents only 9.6 per cent of basic education schools for the 2016-2017 academic year.

(b) Inadequate supply of basic education schools:

Many respondents cited distance to school as another barrier to accessing education, and in the 2010 IHLCA, just 67.7 per cent of children attended schools situated in their same ward/village, leaving 32.2 per cent to travel to schools located outside their home area. And according to school catchment data for the entire country, there is one school per two square miles in hill regions and one school per three square three miles in lowland regions. Yet for children in rural and mountainous areas, even though law mandates more schools in areas of hill terrain, distance to school, or difficulty travelling to school, can still be a deterrent. In some remote, mountainous areas, some children will walk over two hours each way to school. Seasonal rains and floods also often lead to road and track

blockages, and in some delta regions children will walk through creeks or will have to use boats to reach school, which increases the risk for them.

(c) Inadequate supply of technical and vocational schools, special schools and mobile schools:

For students who have dropped out of primary or lower secondary school early there are limited vocational and technical schools, and limited programme for disabled children or mobile schools for migrants.

Barrier 4. Poor access to education for children with disabilities

Disabled children are often excluded from school because of factors such as:

- negative attitudes toward disabilities by parents, teachers, peers and the community;
- weak implementation of existing laws designed to support disabled students;
- inaccessible environment and lack of support services for children with disabilities;
- inadequate assistance to children with disabilities;
- inadequate teaching/learning materials for children with disabilities;
- low capacity among teachers to address children with disabilities;
- lack of training for teachers on disabled children; and
- weak coordination among ministries, NGOs and other organizations on students with disabilities.

As a result, disabled children are typically enrolled in school late, have low enrolment rates, have a high dropout rate, are expected to dropout at higher rates and have poor overall attendance.

Barrier 5. Geographical differences

OOSC profile analysis also points out that there is a large gap between urban and rural areas, between rich and poor households and among states and regions. These may stem from a single, deeper reason: geographical differences. Some of the most vulnerable children in Myanmar are those living in hard-to-reach border areas traditionally home to ethnic minority groups, who are often affected by protracted conflict and have poor coverage of basic social services, including education and health. Humanitarian crises in these areas are common.

Standards for social service delivery here are low and this is a result of both access and quality issues. Access is made difficult due to geographic remoteness and the mountainous nature of the border areas, combined with security and infrastructure challenges caused by conflict. Resources both human and financial are limited, it is difficult to attract and maintain quality service providers and social services are routinely interrupted. Children in displaced communities are particularly vulnerable, then, having few or no means to sustain their livelihoods over time. They are particularly vulnerable to illness and disease common to temporary and substandard living conditions and also due to their lack of access to basic social services. These children naturally miss out on educational opportunities.

Barrier 6. Relevance of education and engagement of parents

These barriers above can lead to another type of barrier: parents cease to perceive education as useful for their children and the demand for it drops. Children who are not meaningfully engaged

in school also lose interest, and in some areas opportunities for parents for migrant labour in cities or other countries then act as a pull factor, further reducing parents' interest in education.

This is particularly prevalent among children from poor families, children who live in rural/remote areas and border areas, children with disabilities, children with parents of lower educational attainment, children who are already engaged in labour and girls from some religious groups.

All of these factors are also linked to the quality of education available, which is compromised by insufficient education infrastructure, outdated curricula and teaching methodologies, lack of well-qualified teachers and poor/weak examination systems.

Recommendations from the study

Recommendation 1: Address poverty

Poverty is a key barrier for parents in paying education costs.

- Expand the Rural Areas Development and Poverty Alleviation Programme under implementation since 2011.
- Expand the School Improvement Support Fund (SISF) and the student stipend programme, and consider monastic schools and community-based schools.
- Implement school meals programmes, including in monastic schools and community-based schools in targeted communities where food access is poor.
- Expand the coverage of social protection programmes, such as cash transfers to poor and vulnerable households.
- Strengthen and expand high-quality monastic education in areas where formal schooling does not exist.

Recommendation 2: Address child labour

- Encourage back-to-school programmes for working children and/or vocational training assistance until they reach the legal age for work.
- Integrate child labour elimination and prevention strategies into national education policy.
- Eliminate the worst forms of child labour, including hazardous work and work that involves very young children.
- Set out actions to be taken by government, including:
 - formulating policy for children working in the formal sector;
 - coordinating government and other stakeholders for effective rehabilitation of child labour;
 - increasing working children's access to formal and non-formal learning; and
 - providing livelihood support to poor households with children.
- Create income generation and employment opportunities for adults, to reduce overall poverty.

Recommendation 3: Increase ECCD services and number of schools

- Encourage expansion of school-based preschools in basic education primary schools for preschool age children to access ECCD services.
- Consider a dedicated budget for ECCD.
- Implement and expand high quality, culturally and linguistically appropriate inclusive preschool education.
- Develop a strong transition programme for children 4 to 5 years of age from home and preschool to inclusive kindergarten.
- Develop and enact compulsory primary education law.
- Establish special education programmes and services.
- Amend the 2011 Private School Registration Law to be relevant to current needs.
- Provide technical support and funding to monastic education to establish minimum standards in these schools.
- Implement basic and mid-level technical and vocational education for children who have completed lower secondary education and have entered the labour force.
- Initiate informal programmes in technical and vocational education and training (TVET) for early school leavers.
- Encourage non-formal equivalency programmes for primary and lower secondary levels, for those who cannot attend formal schools.

Recommendation 4: Strengthen education for children with disabilities

- Invest in capacity development for teachers and education professionals to help foster an inclusive education system.
- Recruit experienced teachers into inclusive schools, as well as into special schools, to give more attention to disabled children.
- Develop a strategy to improve the achievement and well-being of students with disabilities to support more consistent and effective practices.
- Support special stipends for children with disabilities.
- Provide special funding or additional funding to district/township-level education offices to encourage their participation in the implementation of inclusive education programmes and professional training activities.
- Develop teaching/learning materials for children with disabilities.

Recommendation 5: Close the gaps in enrolment caused by geographical differences

- Make education a greater priority in disaster response for areas prone to natural disasters and protracted conflict; reconstruction and rehabilitation of damaged schools should be carried out as early as possible.
- Increase/raise funds to:
 - ensure that schools are built to be safe;
 - build capacity of teachers, local government staff and community members in disaster risk reduction (DRR); and
 - offer resilience education for students.
- Invest in understanding risks, disaster risk reduction and response preparedness in the education sector, especially at the community level.

Recommendation 6: Increase relevance of education and engagement for parents

- Increase funding for quality basic education.
- Consider more consistent provision of the necessary requirements for a quality learning environment, including teaching materials, desks, safe drinking water, safe latrines and safety supplies, to create a child-friendly environment.
- Standardize exams for primary and lower secondary education, for greater quality control of education nationwide.
- Enhance the Monitoring & Evaluation system (M&E).
- Develop/strengthen policy on teacher training and on recruitment of qualified teachers, including provisions for the welfare of teachers.
- Develop teacher competency frameworks for different school levels.
- Improve the quality of in-service and pre-service teacher training to focus on child-centred pedagogy and learning outcomes.
- Build capacity for township education officers in decentralized planning, management and monitoring of education activities, to ensure accountability and transparency.
- Improve training for non-teaching staff and administrative personnel.
- Establish a quality assurance/quality control (QA/QC) system for education in general.
- Establish a national qualification framework (NQF) for basic education in line with the Regional Qualification Framework (RQF) and International Qualification Framework (IQF).
- Strengthen the quality of teaching by addressing weaknesses in:
 - teacher recruitment;
 - teacher employment;
 - teacher performance evaluations;
 - teacher promotion based on performance and career experience, and developing a career path system; and
 - incentives for retention.
- Improve implementation of alternative education (AE), including:
 - develop common curriculum standards;
 - initiate systematic M&E for AE programmes;
 - establish an AE quality assurance (QA) system; and
 - strengthen AE MIS to document and analyse data on AE providers, age-specific out-of-school youth, demand for skills and local resources.
- Improve technical and vocational education and training (TVET), including:
 - design a TVET qualification framework in line with a national qualification framework and the regional qualification framework;
 - expand cooperation between government and the private sector;
 - establish legislative and policy frameworks for public-private partnerships; and
 - extend coordination on TVET among ministries.

Conclusion

This study contains many arresting findings on OOSC in Myanmar, that 18.1 per cent of children in primary school are at risk of dropping out, for example, or that in rural areas 80.6 per cent of preschool age children are not in any kind of preschool. Or that 12.2 per cent of primary school age children overall are out of school, while in the 2014-2015 academic year, the total national dropout rate before the final grade for primary school was 10.6 per cent.

Many school children in Myanmar clearly face barriers then, in access to education and in strategies to keep them in school. Family responsibilities, economic hardship, migration, natural disaster and conflict can all pull children out of school and inexorably toward situations of child labour, particularly in rural areas. For primary school, risk of dropout for girls in rural areas is 20 times higher than for girls in urban areas, and in Kachin State 83.2 per cent of all students in primary school are at risk of dropout.

There is an urgent need for data, and for vigorous analysis of that data, to inform strategies in the National Education Sector Plan 2016-2021 (NESP), to understand what is needed to bridge the gap between rural and urban, and prevent children from dropping out.

This study begins that process.

CHAPTER 1. Introduction

1.1. Objectives of the study

The Myanmar Report on OOSC is part of the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children, launched by United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) in 2010. The overall goals of the Out-of-School Children Initiative (OOSCI) are to introduce a more systematic approach for assessing the magnitude of the problem of out-of-school children and to guide concrete education sector reforms.

The objectives of OOSCI are to:

- determine the status of out-of-school children in Myanmar including reviewing existing monitoring mechanisms on pre-primary, primary and lower secondary (middle school) education;
- identify and quantify impacts of key determinants affecting out-of-school children in pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education;
- provide policy recommendations to reduce rates of children out of school at pre-primary, primary and lower secondary levels to meet MDG/SDG and Education for All (EFA) targets; and
- develop strategies and apply targeted interventions to ensure that policy recommendations are implemented.

These objectives fall within the context of UNICEF's focus on achieving Sustainable Development Goal #4, of providing quality education for all, as well as supporting the right to education as put forth in the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC). This report presents the analyses and key findings on profiles of out-of-school children in Myanmar, as well as barriers to education and policy responses.

This report is structured as follows:

- Chapter 1: A brief country context, an overview of the education system and the rationale for preparing this report
- Chapter 2: Analysis on the profiles of out-of-school children in Myanmar, within the framework of the Five Dimensions of Exclusion (5DE)
- Chapter 3: Links these profiles with the corresponding barriers that lead to exclusion and analyses the extent to which current policies address these barriers
- Chapter 4 discusses a broad range of recommendations addressing the identified barriers of exclusion

1.2. The development context in Myanmar

Children's exclusion from schooling is anchored in, and influenced by, a wide range of interrelated development factors. The demographic profiles, socio-economic and cultural features, and degree of political stability are all among the factors that shape the development opportunities for children in Myanmar.

Myanmar, officially the Republic of the Union of Myanmar, is a sovereign state in Southeast Asia bordered by Bangladesh, India, China, Laos and Thailand. Land area is 676,578 square kilometres (261,227 sq. mi.) and the population is diverse, with 135 distinct ethnic groups. Some defining features of the development context in Myanmar are summarized below.

Table 1. 1. Demographic, health and economic conditions in Myanmar

Annual population growth rate (%) ³	2014		0.85%
	2015		0.86%
	2016		0.82%
	2017		0.82%
Total fertility rate (births per woman)	2017		2.2
Under-5 mortality rate (per thousand)	2009-2010 (MICS)		46.1
Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	2017		40
Literacy rate (2015) ⁴	15-24	Total	96.33
		Male	96.34
		Female	96.32
	15 years and older	Total	93.02
		Male	95.17
		Female	91.15
	65 years and older	Total	82.54
		Male	90.97
		Female	76.14
GDP (MMK in billions) ⁵	2016-2017		84.128
Per capita GDP (MMK) ⁶	2016-2017		1 584. 961 MMK

Demography

In February 2017, Myanmar's population stood at 54,612,011 and population density was 80.6 people per square kilometre. And that was projected to increase by 446,763 people, reaching 54,996,588 by 2018. Just over 49 per cent of the population are male (49.3) and 50.7 per cent are female. Thus, the sex ratio of the total population is 0.972, or 972 males per 1,000 females, which is lower than the global sex ratio of approximately 1,016 males to 1,000 females as of 2016.⁷

³ Country Meters, "Quick Facts about the Population of Myanmar, 2017" retrieved 21 February 2017 from <http://countrymeters.info/en/Myanmar>

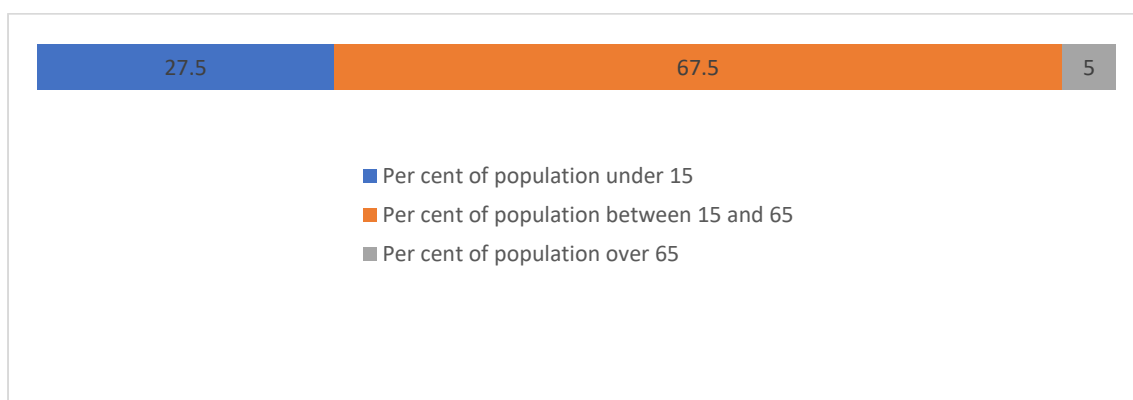
⁴ UNESCO UIS, retrieved 13 March 2016.

⁵ Ministry of Planning and Finance, Republic of the Union of Myanmar, "2016-2017 Citizen's Budget". www.mof.gov.mm

⁶ Ibid.

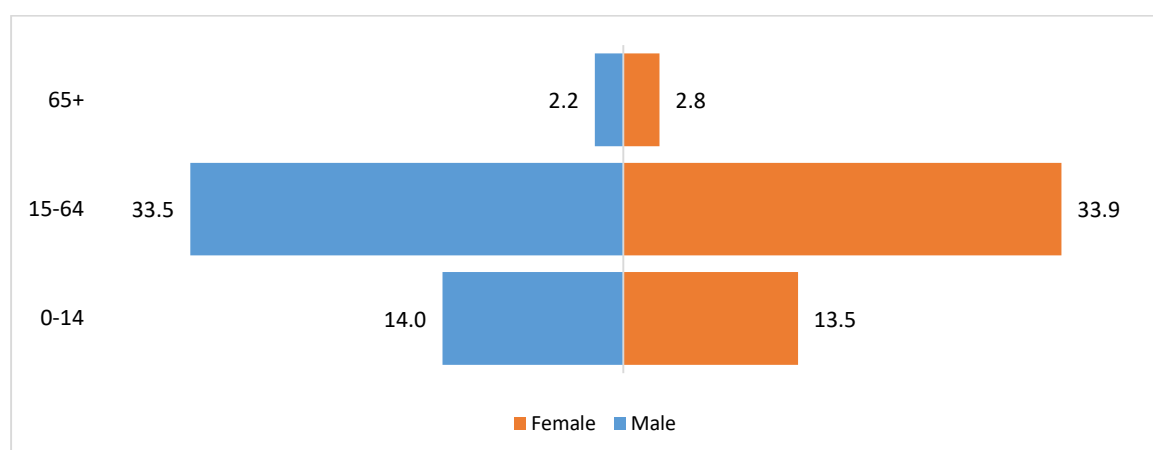
⁷ "Map of the world by sex ratio of total population", retrieved 21 February 2017 from https://en.worldstat.info/World/List_of_countries_by_Sex_ratio_of_total_population

Figure 1. 1. Age distribution⁸



Figures 1.1 and 1.2 show the age distribution of Myanmar's population, where a majority of the population is between the ages of 15 and 65.

Figure 1. 2. Gender distribution⁹



The “dependency ratio” of a population is a ratio of people who are generally not in the labour force (the dependents) to those who *are* in the workforce, or the productive part of the population. Dependents tend to include the population under 15 and people aged 65 and over. The productive part of a population accordingly consists of those between 15 and 64.

This ratio shows the pressure of dependents on the productive population. **The total dependency ratio** of the population in Myanmar is 48.2 per cent, which is relatively low, at less than a half of the working population. The “child dependency ratio” is the ratio of people below working age (under 15) to the workforce. **In Myanmar this is 40.7 per cent.** The “aged dependency ratio” is the ratio of people above working age (65-plus) to the workforce of a country. **In Myanmar this is 7.5 per cent.**¹⁰

⁸ Country Meters, “Quick Facts about the Population of Myanmar, 2017”.

⁹ Ibid

¹⁰ The estimation data for section “Myanmar age dependency ratio” is based on the latest demographic and social statistics by United Nations Statistics Division (United Nations Statistics Division, Demographic and Social Statistics <https://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic/products/indwm/default.htm>)

Another measure, life expectancy at birth, shows the number of years that a new-born infant would live assuming that birth and death rates remain at the same level during the whole lifetime. Average **life expectancy at birth** for both sexes in Myanmar is 64.9 years while male life expectancy at birth is 62.6 years and female life expectancy 67.3 years. This is below the global average, which is about 71 according to the Population section of the United Nations Secretariat's Division of Economic and Social Affairs.¹¹

The socio-economic context

As the largest (in land area) country in mainland Southeast Asia, Myanmar has one of the lowest population densities in the region, with fertile land and significant potential to increase production, yields and profits in agriculture. The country is also rich in natural resources and its geographic location between China and India makes it well positioned as a regional trading hub and a key supplier of minerals, natural gas and agricultural produce.

Myanmar is also one of the fastest growing economies in East Asia. From in 2014 to 2015 its economy grew at 8.5 per cent in real terms, but growth is projected to moderate to 6.5 per cent from 2015 to 2016 due to severe floods and slowing investment. Medium-term growth is currently projected to average 8.2 per cent per year. And Myanmar is still one of the poorest nations in Asia; the 2016 Human Development Report ranks it 145th among 186 nations rated, with a Human Development Index of 0.556.¹² According to the Myanmar Poverty Assessment Report, from 2004 to 2010, poverty declined from 32.1 per cent to 25.6 per cent, and then to 19.4 per cent in 2015. Using the World Bank's revised estimate, poverty in Myanmar dropped from 44.5 per cent in 2004 to 37.5 per cent by 2010, and then dropped to 26.1 per cent in 2015.¹³

This poverty is concentrated in rural areas, where poor people rely on agricultural and casual employment for their livelihoods. Many people are near the poverty line and are thus sensitive to economy-wide shocks. The majority of these people are engaged in small-scale agriculture and thus may be shielded from recent inflationary pressures, but the urban poor are likely to be highly affected by recent inflation in food prices.

Among ASEAN countries, Myanmar has the lowest life expectancy and the second highest rate of infant and child mortality. Just one-third of the population has access to the electricity grid and road density remains low, at 219.8 kilometres per 1,000 square kilometres of land area. With the liberalization of the telecommunications sector in 2013, mobile and Internet penetration has increased significantly, from less than 20 per cent and 10 per cent respectively in 2014, to 60 per cent and 25 per cent respectively.¹⁴

From 2010 to 2013, net inflow of foreign direct investment (FDI) to Myanmar increased from \$900 million to \$2.3 billion according to the World Bank¹⁵, and in mid-2012, the Government announced a second wave of economic reforms, vowing to reduce its role in the energy sector, forestry, health

¹¹ United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. "World Mortality Report 2013".

¹² Human Development Report 2016 Human Development for Everyone UNDP retrieved 26 February 2018 from <http://hdr.undp.org/en/data>

¹³ "Myanmar Poverty Assessment 2017: Part One: Examination of Trends between 2004/05 and 2015". Retrieved November 24, 2017 from <http://www.worldbank.org/en/country/myanmar/overview>

¹⁴ The World Bank Myanmar Overview, 21 February 2017, from <http://www.worldbank.org/en/country/myanmar/overview>

¹⁵ World Bank's Foreign Direct Investment, 21 February 2017 from <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/bx.kit.dinv.cd.wd>

care, finance and telecommunications. By March 2015, FDI had surpassed \$8 billion,¹⁶ twenty-five times the amount received the year before the military ceded power in 2010.

As a result of these reforms, global powers began re-establishing ties with Myanmar and foreign direct investment increased further. The World Bank subsequently earmarked US\$245 million in credit and grant funding for the country, marking the first international lending to Myanmar in 25 years. That put the economy on track to potentially grow from US\$45 billion in 2010 to US\$200 billion by 2030, according to the 2013 McKinsey report.¹⁷

The Myanmar political context

Under Myanmar's 2008 Constitution, **legislative power** is shared among the *Pyidaungsu Hluttaw* (legislature), state *hluttaws* and regional *hluttaws*. The *Pyidaungsu Hluttaw* consists of (1) the People's Assembly (*Pyithu Hluttaw*), with members elected on the basis of township as well as population, and (2) the House of Nationalities (*Amyotha Hluttaw*), with an equal number of representatives elected from regions and states. The People's Assembly consists of 440 representatives, with 110 being military personnel nominated by the Commander-in-Chief of the Defence Services. The House of Nationalities consists of 224 representatives with 56 being military personnel nominated by the Commander-in-Chief of the Defence Services.

The **Supreme Court** is the highest court of the Republic, with the power to issue writs. Regions and states also have their own high courts.

For **administrative divisions**, executive power in Myanmar is shared among the *Pyidaungsu*, or regions and states; as well as among self-administered areas as prescribed by the Constitution. Myanmar has seven regions and seven states, each classified by ethnic composition. The seven regions are Ayeyarwady, Bago, Magway, Mandalay, Sagaing, Tanintharyi, Yangon. The seven states are Chin, Kachin, Kayah, Mon, Rakhine and Shan.

Conflict

Conflict affects several states in Myanmar, including Kachin, Northern Shan and Rakhine, and the new government has accelerated efforts in the peace process under the leadership of State Counsellor, Daw Aung San Suu Kyi. On August 31, 2016, government representatives, military officials, representatives of armed ethnic groups and other stakeholders gathered in Nay Pyi Taw for the Panglong 21st Century Peace Conference, yet as of early 2018, Nay Pyi Taw peace efforts have stalled to a degree.¹⁸

The education context

Education system

Schooling is compulsory in Myanmar until the end of the elementary (primary) level, or approximately to age 9, while at the international level it is compulsory up to age 16. There are 3,830 high schools,

¹⁶ Reuters "Myanmar Investment", 21 February 2017, <http://www.reuters.com/article/2015/03/25/myanmar-investment-indus13n0wr25q20150325>

¹⁷ 2013 McKinsey Report, 21 February 2017, http://www.mckinsey.com/insights/asia-pacific/myanmars_moment

¹⁸ <http://www.mmpeacemonitor.org/research/monitoring-archive>

14,280 middle schools and 27,871 primary schools, or a total of 45,981 basic education schools. Just over 41,000 of these are in rural areas.¹⁹ Nearly all are government operated, although there has been a recent increase in private schools. Monastic schools operate under the supervision of the Ministry of Religious Affairs and some ethnic schools run by ethnic communities also provide the national basic education curriculum.

In principle, primary school is free and lasts five years, from age 5 to 9. The school year is broken down into two semesters and lasts roughly 36 weeks. For basic education from primary to upper secondary, the academic year begins in June and ends in March. Until 2015, Myanmar had a “5:4:2” formal education structure, where primary school lasted for five grades. This broke down into lower primary (grades 1 to 3) and upper primary (grades 4 to 5). The first grade was also referred to as “reception year” or “kindergarten” (KG). Secondary school was divided into two “cycles”: lower secondary consisted of grades 6 through 9 and upper secondary consisted of grades 10 through 11. Lower secondary was also referred to as “middle school” and upper secondary as “high school.” Students sat for an exam at the end of Grade 5 and at the end of Grade 9, as well as the Basic Education High School Exam at the end of upper secondary.

Table 1. 2. Population by specific age range and school level

Age	School Level	Population
3 to 4	Pre-primary	2,438,575
5 to 9	Primary	4,724,561
10 to 13	Lower Secondary	3,907,608
14 to 15	Upper Secondary	1, 850,492
16 to 20	Tertiary	4, 313,615

Source: Census data, May 2015

For the 2016-2017 academic year, MOE introduced a new education system that changed the structure from 5:4:2 to K-12, which is effectively K:5:4:3. The following figure shows how the K-12 structure will be introduced for all grades.

Figure 1. 3. Plan for new basic education structure

Academic Year	KG	G-1	G-2	G-3	G-4	G-5	G-6	G-7	G-8	G-9	G-10	G-11	G-12
		A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	A8	A9	A10	A11	
2016-2017	B1		A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	A8	A9	A10	
2017-2018		B1		A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	A8	A9	
2018-2019			B1		A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	A8	
2019-2020				B1		A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	
2020-2021					B1		A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	
2021-2022						B1		A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6
2022-2023							B1		A1	A2	A3	A4	A5
2023-2024								B1		A1	A2	A3	A4
2024-2025									B1		A1	A2	A3
2025-2026										B1		A1	A2
2026-2027											B1		A1
2027-2028												B1	
2028-2029													B1

Note: A1, A2, etc. and B1 represent the groups of students

Source: DERPT, MOE

¹⁹ Source: DBE data (20 March 2017).

The new kindergarten curriculum was introduced in the 2016-2017 academic year and a new curriculum for Grade 1 will be introduced in 2017-2018 with the B1 group. B1 will then finish primary education with a new curriculum in 2021-2022. The new lower secondary (Grade 6) curriculum will be introduced in 2019-2020 with the A2 group and the new upper secondary curriculum (Grade 10) will be introduced in 2020-2021, for the A5 group. The first cohort of students to have completed the new basic education will then have done so in 2029.

For those continuing on to higher education, there are 48 universities and degree colleges under MOE, 24 teaching colleges and 60 technology and computer universities; there are 26 universities under other ministries. There are also 33 technical schools (DTVET, March 2017), 25 nursing schools, 22 midwifery schools and 4 sports academies (Ministry of Health and Sports [MOHS] 2017).

Education expenditures

The education budget for 2016-2017 was MMK 1,631 billion, including MMK 68.3 billion for free primary, lower secondary and upper secondary education. The following table shows some of the distribution in the 2016-2017 budget.

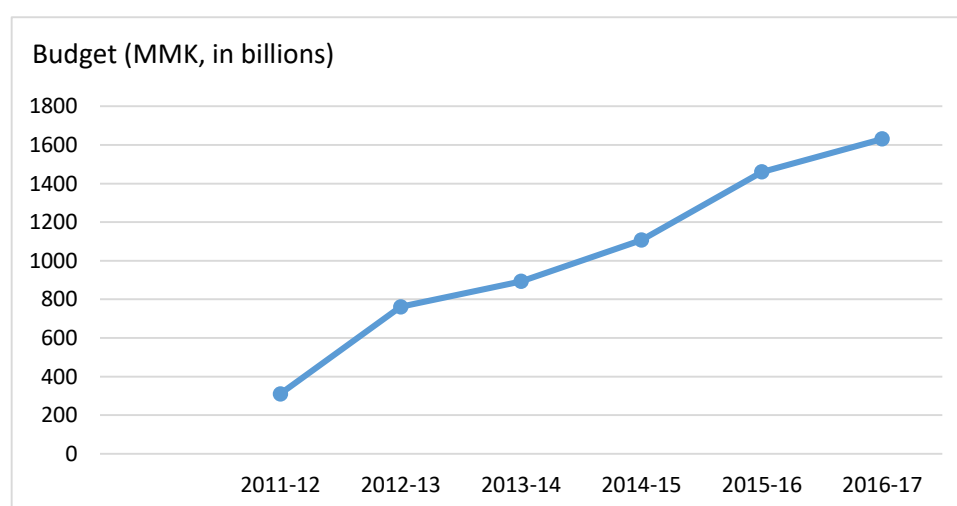
Table 1. 3. Selected distributions, 2016-2017 education budget²⁰

Sr.	Categories	MMK (Million)
1	President's Scholarship Programme	149,67.680
2	Free primary, Lower Secondary and Upper Secondary Education	68,220.775
3	Scholarships and stipends (basic education & higher education)	24,432 .221
4	School grants	63,000.000
5	School buildings (expansion for 3,175 schools)	141,023.354
6	Salary for 18305 teachers who teach ethnic languages	5,491.500
7	5% (MMK 7,500.000) of phone call tax from Interior Revenue Department spend for education	7,500.000

Source: 2016-2017 Citizen's Budget, Ministry of Planning and Finance; p. 21, 35pp

The following figure shows increases in the education budget from 2011 to 2017.

Figure 1. 4. Education Budget from 2011-2012 to 2016-2017



Source: Ministry of Planning and Finance (MPF)

²⁰ 2016-2017 Citizen's Budget, Ministry of Planning and Finance; p. 21, 35pp

Free and compulsory education

Net enrolment and transition rates increased year by year largely due to a programme of free and compulsory education introduced successively by the Government starting with primary education in 2011, middle school in 2012 and high school in 2015. This programme provides free textbooks and uniforms to all students, and waives registration fees, stationery fees and Parent Teacher Association (PTA) fees for all government schools. In addition, MOE has been providing school grants to all basic education schools in order to reduce the operating costs traditionally borne by communities.

Literacy rates

In Myanmar, literacy rates are relatively high, as shown in the table below.

Table 1.4. Literacy rates by age and sex, 2014-2015

Age	Total	Female	Male	Literacy Rate (%)
15 to 24	7,688,530	4,052,045	3,636,485	94.0
15 and older	28,227,192	14,825,572	13,401,620	89.9
65 and older	2,151,627	1,144,335	1,007,292	72.7

Source: DAE 2014-2015, MOE

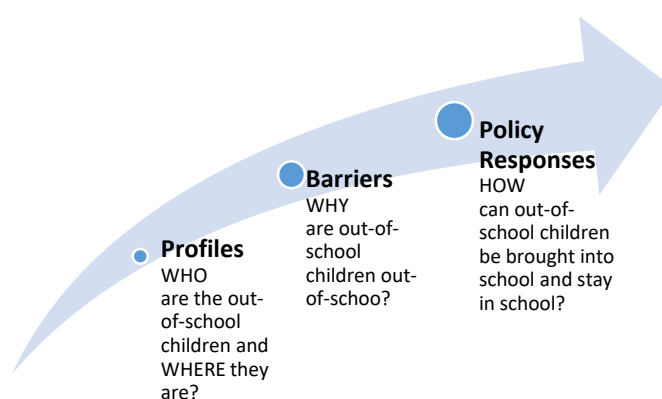
1.3. Methodology

This section provides the conceptual model that guides global analysis of OOSC followed by an explanation of the critical methodological issues for analyzing why some children are excluded from education. To achieve a breakthrough in understanding the situation of out-of-school children, OOSCI focuses on three major gaps that need to be addressed through a more systematic approach:

- the gap in data on out-of-school children and on children at risk of dropping out;
- the gap in analysis of the major barriers for school participation; and
- the gap in identifying effective policies and strategies to overcome existing barriers.

These three gaps are intrinsically linked to each other (see Figure 1.5.). OOSCI aims to link research, policy and action, and to engage key stakeholders in issues of equity and education rights.

Figure 1. 5. Links between profiles, barriers and policy responses to education exclusion (UNICEF – UNESCO UIS)



The Five Dimensions of Exclusion Model

The study bases its analysis of the problem of out-of-school children on the model developed by an initiative, termed the Five Dimensions of Exclusion Model.²¹

This model presents five target groups of children that span:

- **three age groups:** children of pre-primary, primary and lower secondary school age; and
- **two groups by school participation status:** children who are out of school and children who are in school but at risk of dropping out.

The term “exclusion” changes slightly in sense for each population concerned: children who are out of school are excluded from education, while children who are at risk of dropping out may be excluded *within* education.

The Five Dimensions of Exclusion are:

Dimension 1: Children of pre-primary school age who are not in pre-primary or primary school

Dimension 2: Children of primary school age who are not in primary or secondary school

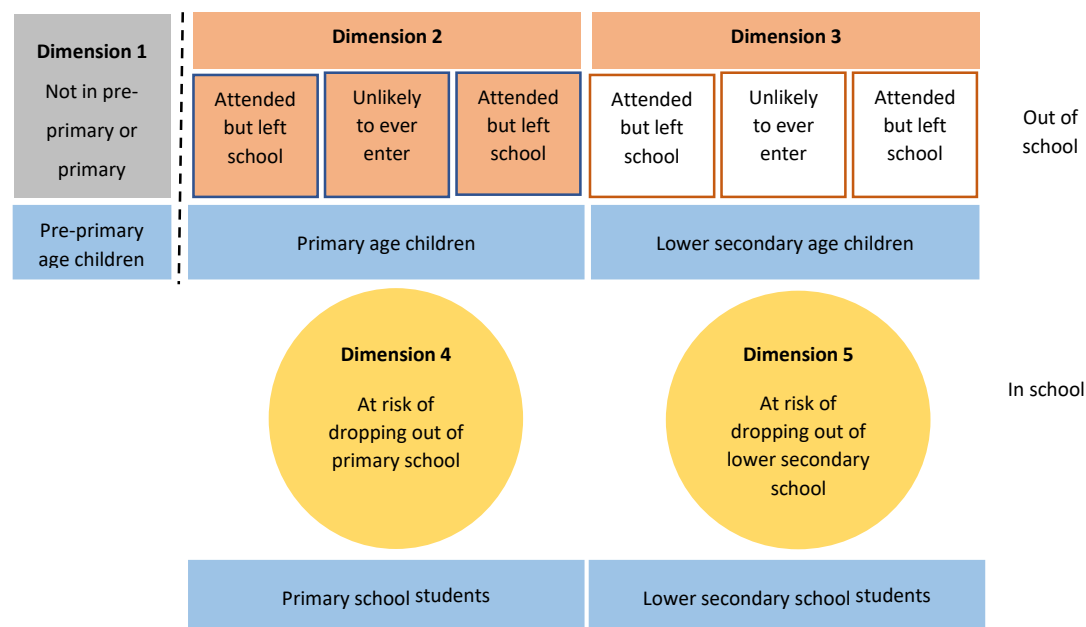
Dimension 3: Children of lower secondary school age who are not in primary or secondary school

Dimension 4: Children who are in primary school but at risk of dropping out

Dimension 5: Children who are in lower secondary school but at risk of dropping out

The figure below illustrates the Five Dimensions of Exclusion, showing for each group of children the targeted age, if they are out of school or in school and if they are at risk of dropping out.

Figure 1. 6. The Five Dimensions of Exclusion



²¹ UNICEF and UNESCO-UIS, 2011

Dimensions 2 and 3 are split into three distinct groups²²:

- children who attended school in the past and but left;
- children who are unlikely to ever enter school; and
- children who are likely to enter school in the future.

In general, all children of primary or lower secondary school age are considered to be in school if they participate in primary or secondary education. However, two groups of school age children are considered to be out of school even though they may be participating in learning-related activities:

- Children of primary school age or older who are in pre-primary education are considered out of school because the educational properties of pre-primary education and the qualifications of teaching staff in such programmes do not meet the criteria applied to primary education.
- Children of primary school age or older who attend a non-formal education programme may be considered out of school unless the programme has a clear path into the formal education system.

In relation to each dimension, an important goal of OOSCI is to conduct a disparity analysis to identify the most disadvantaged children. As OOSCI is a tool of action at the national level, it focuses the disparity analysis on the most critical and relevant issues for national policy making.

1.4. Reference period

The new education system in Myanmar was instituted in the 2016-2017 academic year and therefore was not implemented completely at the time of writing. This report covers academic years 2011-2012 to 2014-2015.

1.5. Key partners

The structure for implementing OOSCI in Myanmar includes:

1. a steering committee chaired by the MOE Permanent Secretary and Directors General from nine ministries, UNICEF and UNESCO;
2. a technical team led by the DERPT Deputy Director General and technical members from nine ministries, UNICEF and UNESCO; and
3. technical core teams, including the Profile Core Team of statistical experts from CSO and MOE the Statistical Unit, and the Barriers Core Team of education policy research experts from the MOE Research Unit.

Strong commitment and collaboration are essential across sectors for successful implementation of OOSCI in Myanmar, and the main purposes of cross-sectoral collaboration are (i) to engage participating departments to share and analyse the data; (ii) to establish a network that can support analysis and move it forward; and (iii) to develop cross-sectoral, long-term strategies to apply targeted interventions to lower the current number of OOSC.

The key stakeholders involved in OOSCI Myanmar are:

- The MOE Department of Basic Education (DBE)
- The MOE Department of Education Research, Planning and Training (DERPT)
- The MOE Department of Alternative Education (DAE)

²² UNICEF and UNESCO-UIS, 2011

- The MOE Department of Technical and Vocational Education and Training (DTVET)
- The MPF Central Statistical Organization (CSO)
- The MPF Planning Department
- The MOHS Department of Public Health
- The MSWRR Department of Social Welfare
- The MBA Education and Training Department
- The Ministry of Labour, Immigration and Population (MOLIP) Department of Population
- The MOLIP Department of Labour
- Ministry of Home Affairs (MOHA) General Administration Department (GAD)
- The Ministry of Ethnic Affairs (MOEA)
- The Ministry of Religious Affairs and Culture (MORAC) Department of Promotion and Propagation of Sasana
- The Myanmar Literacy Resource Centre (MLRC)
- The UNICEF Myanmar Country Office
- UNESCO Myanmar

1.6. Data Sources used in this study and their limitations

1.6.1. Data sources used in this study

This study used administrative data and household survey data, such as from the LFS and IHLCA. It also used data and analyses from the 2014 Myanmar National Census (also called the 2014 Population and Housing Census).

1. *Labour Force Survey (LFS) 2015*

The LFS is a nationwide survey carried out most recently by the Ministry of Labour, Employment and Social Security's (MOLES) Department of Labour (DOL), MOLIP and the International Labour Organization (ILO) from January to March, 2015 with a sample of 24,000 households. It covers age, gender, residence, wealth quintile, child labour, children with disabilities and parents' education. The Myanmar Report on Child Labour was published in December 2016.

Advantages of the LFS:

- frequent training for supervisors, monitors, observers and interviewers;
- materials and other necessary support are fully provided by ministries and ILO;
- data collection on school attendance covers primary to upper secondary ages, hence primary to upper secondary levels;
- most of the definitions used in this survey are consistent with standard definitions as well as comparable with other national data sources;
- sample design considers coverage of many disadvantaged groups;
- there is information on children both in and out of school in same data sources;
- allows disaggregation by sex, location, wealth and family characteristics, and on individual and household characteristics;
- more frequent, less costly than censuses; and
- may include more education data than census data, such as reasons for dropout, distance to school and household expenditure on schooling.

Limitations:

- the data are from a one-off round;
- age data for children are collected from survey records, e.g., answers given by respondents;
- there are possible issues with data quality, since this survey was the first of its kind for many interviewers;
- age data were recorded more than six months after the starting month of school;
- the data on education were only collected for one academic year; and
- sampling design was not intended for data on OOSC but for more of a labour force working age group.

2. Integrated Household Living Conditions Assessment in Myanmar (2009-2010) Poverty Profile (IHLCAS)

IHLCAS is a nationally representative, 50-per-cent panel survey with sample size of 18,660 households. It provides the Government, United Nations agencies and other stakeholders with data for determining living conditions in the country. The survey is undertaken in cooperation with the Ministry of National Planning and Economic Development (MNPED) Planning Department, UNICEF and the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (SIDA). The survey methodology and process followed international control standards and the project team received extensive technical oversight and support from organizations such as the World Bank and Statistics Sweden, as well as from UNICEF and UNDP technical staff. These partners also monitored the survey process from design and methodology to data analysis.

Advantages:

- provides information about children both in and out of school in the same data source;
- allows disaggregation by sex, location, wealth and family characteristics, as well as by individual and household characteristics;
- more frequent, less costly than a census; and
- may include more education data than a census, such as reasons for dropout, distance to school and household expenditure.

Limitations

- coverage issues;
 - some groups are omitted: those not in households such as homeless population, people in institutions and hospitals, and mobile populations;
 - education levels: private, NGO-run, non-formal and religious schools not always listed or clear;
- non-sampling errors, such as interviewer error;
- sampling errors: groups underrepresented, such as households in remote areas, slums;
- sampling design not intended to collect data on OOSC;
- data not collected on a yearly basis; and
- errors in age reporting.

3. Administrative data from MOE

The characteristics of a good administrative data system are (i) by-products of an institutionalized and well-established mechanism used to manage the system; (ii) data collected annually, and time-series data are available; and (iii) data aggregated from individual schools to a national system, and can be disaggregated.

Advantages:

- provides performance indicators relevant to policy;
- links to:
 - development plans and annual plans for targeting and monitoring
 - systematically linked - students, teachers, financial resources - essential for indicators; and
- data can be disaggregated by administrative division, gender, rural vs. urban; data can also be linked to that from other sectors including health, water and sanitation.

Limitations:

- no data on the socio-economic characteristics of OOSCI; and
- no data on children not enrolled in school

4. Population and Housing Census (Myanmar 2014 National Census)

MOLIP carried out the 2014 Population and Housing Census from March to April, 2014, with technical support from the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA). This came after a 30-year gap since the previous one.

Advantages:

- data are nationally representative;
- data on children both in and out of school in the same source; and
- allows disaggregation by sex, location, wealth and family characteristics, as well as by individual and household characteristics.

Disadvantages:

- occurs only infrequently, usually every 10 years; and
- collects only limited data on education.

There is no perfect data source for calculating indicators on out-of-school children. Rather, data sources are complementary and suited to different purposes. For the purposes of this report, administrative preschool data from MSWRR and MOE are used for Dimension 1. Household surveys, the LFS, IHLCAS data, and census data are rich sources of information on dimensions 2 and 3, whereas administrative data from MOE are a rich source of information on dimensions 4 and 5.

Given the different data sources, there are likely to be discrepancies between the same indicators, and these can be understood and minimized but cannot be eliminated. Discrepancies arise, for example, when comparing participation rates in education and the number of OOSC generated from administrative and household data. This is often due to methodological and other issues. Collection of enrolment data from schools and collection of data for household surveys that include school attendance do not always occur at the same time. Household surveys are often not coordinated with the academic calendar and the timing of a survey can affect estimates of participation rates and age reporting.

One point of caution is that household survey data consider a child “in school” irrespective of the grade that he or she is enrolled in. Hence, the numbers of children in school are reflected by age range and not by grade. Therefore, a child of 12 would be considered “in school” even if he or she is attending Grade 1. Secondly, because household survey data record age accurately, they can show much higher numbers for “in school” because they include those children who have had a late start.

Nor is there one correct figure on out-of-school children. The numbers of OOSC coming out of the household survey and the administrative data are not directly comparable, but they can help to indicate the range of OOSC in a country. Having estimates from both administrative data and household surveys gives an indication of the numbers of out-of-school children, which is very important for policymaking. Nevertheless, if significant discrepancies arise, then the underlying reasons should be investigated.

1.6.2. Data issues in this OOSCI study

There are clearly data challenges involved in the measurement of out-of-school children, and one fundamental challenge with OOSCI’s Five Dimensions of Exclusion Model is that the measurement of dimensions 1, 2 and 3 are based on age-specific data while the measurement of dimensions 4 and 5 are based on data by grade.

In this report, the LFS has been used as the main data source, and one key limitation has been permission to receive the raw dataset. Also, age data are only recorded more than six months *after* the start month of the school in Myanmar, so age discrepancy is another data issue when analysing the rates of variables.

There are also limitations in the Education Management and Information System (EMIS), since MOE indicators differ from the indicators used in this study. Furthermore, in the education sector, EMIS is still not fully developed and there are still changes underway. Another limitation of EMIS is that it cannot normally be used for analysis of disaggregated data by socio-economic characteristics, such as population groups and household wealth. There is also a discrepancy in overall population: before the 2014 Census, the population in Myanmar was estimated to be 60 million, yet the Census found 51,486,253. So, as this report is based on the academic year 2014-2015, and as it also uses data from academic years 2011 to 2015 (four consecutive years) showing the flow of specific categories, this population data issue affects this report.

CHAPTER 2. Profiles of OOSC in Myanmar

2.1. Introduction

This chapter aims to provide a comprehensive analysis of the scale of the problem of exclusion in education in Myanmar. It also highlights some of the individual and household characteristics by creating statistical profiles of out-of-school children and some main features of those who are in school but at risk of dropping out. To better target policy responses to reduce exclusion from education in Myanmar, more detailed information is needed about who the excluded children are. If policy responses can target at-risk children, and prevent them from dropping out, the scale of exclusion will diminish over time. Hence, this chapter focuses on profiling children of pre-primary, primary and lower secondary school age by addressing the following three questions:

- How many children are out of school in Myanmar?
- What are the profiles of the children who are out of school? (dimensions 1, 2 and 3.)
- What are the profiles of children at greatest risk of dropping out? (dimensions 4 and 5.)

The structure of Myanmar basic education is 5:4:2²³, which means there are five total primary school years, four years in secondary and two years in higher secondary. Official entry age for primary school is 5, and in the table below official age group for respective grades is highlighted in blue.

Table 2. 1. Enrolment rates by level of education and sex, 2014-2015 academic year (%)

Sex	Age	Pre-primary	Primary	Lower Secondary	Upper Secondary
Male	4	23.2			
	5		97.4		
	6		98.2		
	7		98.2		
	8		96.1		
	9		96.0		
	10		33.3	41.1	
	11		13.2	64.2	
	12		3.6	70.7	
	13		1.2	58.7	
	14		0.3	26.5	23.5
	15		0.1	7.6	30.9
	16		0.01	1.9	15.0
Female	17		0.00	0.6	4.1
	4	23.62			
	5		88.5		
	6		98.3		
	7		97.1		
	8		93.1		
	9		96.68		
	10		33.10	41.8	

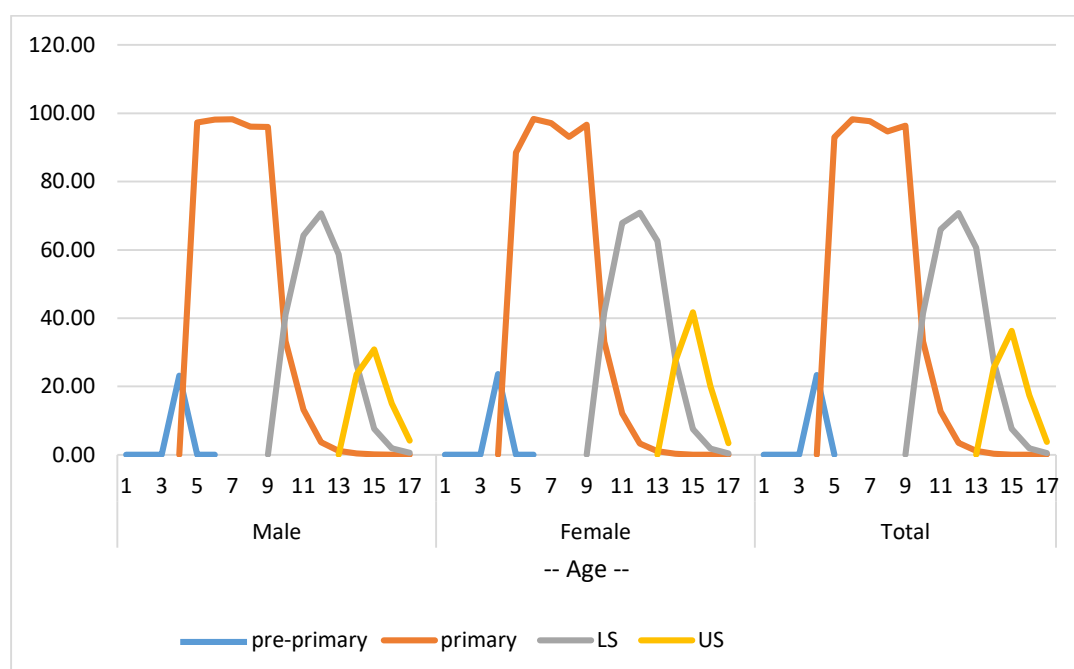
²³ For the purposes of this report, the K-12 system was implemented from 2016 onward.

Sex	Age	Pre-primary	Primary	Lower Secondary	Upper Secondary
	11		12.08	67.9	
	12		3.32	70.9	
	13		1.09	62.7	
	14		0.29	28.0	27.4
	15		0.04	7.5	41.8
	16		0.01	1.8	20.0
	17		0.05	0.4	3.4
Total	4	23.40			
	5		93.0		
	6		98.2		
	7		97.7		
	8		94.7		
	9		96.3		
	10		33.2	41.4	
	11		12.7	66.0	
	12		3.5	70.8	
	13		1.1	60.6	
	14		0.3	27.3	25.5
	15		0.1	7.6	36.3
	16		0.01	1.9	17.5
	17		0.1	0.5	3.8

Source: Administrative Data (2014-2015), DERPT, MOE

These data make it clear that there are overage students at all levels except for pre-primary. This is because, in Myanmar, official entry age for primary education is 5, thus all children aged 5 years who can access education enter formal school.

Figure 2. 1. Enrolment rates by level of education and sex



Source: Administrative Data (2014-2015), DERPT, MOE

2.2. Dimension 1: Pre-primary age children not in school

Just over 76 per cent of pre-primary age children are out of school in Myanmar and the percentage of pre-primary age children enrolled in early childhood education (ECE) is still very low even though the Government has passed its Policy for Early Childhood Care and Development. And while there is no gender disparity among pre-primary age children, there is a large gap between urban and rural, which points out that rural pre-primary age children are more disadvantaged than urban.

NGOs play a major role in preschool education in Myanmar, and because Early Childhood Development (ECD) programmes help children develop essential cognitive, behavioural and social skills, which in turn have positive effects on primary school participation and learning achievements, further analysis on the characteristics of the children *not* in ECD is needed to establish effective policy.

Quality ECD can improve education outcomes in a number of ways: they help children develop essential cognitive, behavioural and social skills, which in turn have positive effects on primary school participation and learning achievement. Evidence from a large and steadily growing number of countries also shows that the benefits are particularly vital for children from poor families. Yet, while children from poor families have the most to gain from participating in ECD programmes, their participation is consistently lower than that of children from richer families.²⁴

This section focuses on children of pre-primary age who are out of school, disaggregated by age, sex and the other characteristics. As noted earlier, in Myanmar the official entrance age into primary

²⁴ UNESCO. (2010) EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010: Reaching the marginalized. Paris: UNESCO.

school is 5, and according to national ECCD policy, pre-primary age is defined as the age between 3 and 5. But according to OOSC methodology, this study assesses only pre-primary out-of-school children age 4.

2.2.1. Percentage of pre-primary age children out of school, by gender and residence

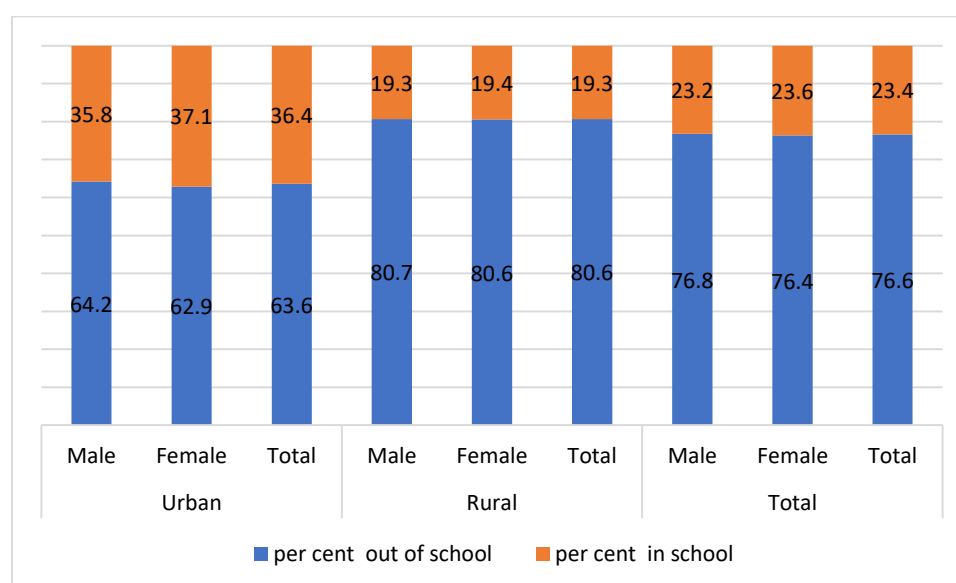
Table 2. 2. Number and percentage of pre-primary age children who are not in pre-primary or primary education, by sex and residence (Dimension 1) (2014-2015 AY)

Residence	Sex	Number			Per cent	
		Out of school	In school	Total	Out of school	In school
Urban	Male	148,041	82,441	230,482	64.2	35.8
	Female	140,566	83,039	223,605	62.9	37.1
	Total	288,607	165,480	454,087	63.6	36.4
Rural	Male	597,303	143,137	740,440	80.7	19.3
	Female	584,467	140,433	724,900	80.6	19.4
	Total	1,181,770	283,570	1,465,340	80.6	19.3
Total	Male	745,907	225,015	970,922	76.8	23.2
	Female	724,471	224,035	948,505	76.4	23.6
	Total	1,470,378	449,050	1,919,427	76.6	23.4

Source: DERPT (2014-2015), MOE

The table above shows that 23.4 per cent of pre-primary age children access pre-primary education and 76.6 per cent are out of school. The Myanmar Policy for Early Childhood Care and Development states that only 22.9 per cent of preschool age children are able to access preschool services, and most of them come from middle to higher income families.²⁵ The same source notes, “In contrast to the low rates of preschool enrolment in Myanmar, the average preschool attendance in the ASEAN region was 57 per cent in 2010”.²⁶

Figure 2. 2. Percentage of pre-primary-age children in and out of school, by sex and by residence



Source: DERPT (2014-2015), MOE

²⁵ The Republic of the Union of Myanmar, “Myanmar Policy for Early Childhood Care and Development”, 2014, p. 4

²⁶ Ibid p. 29.

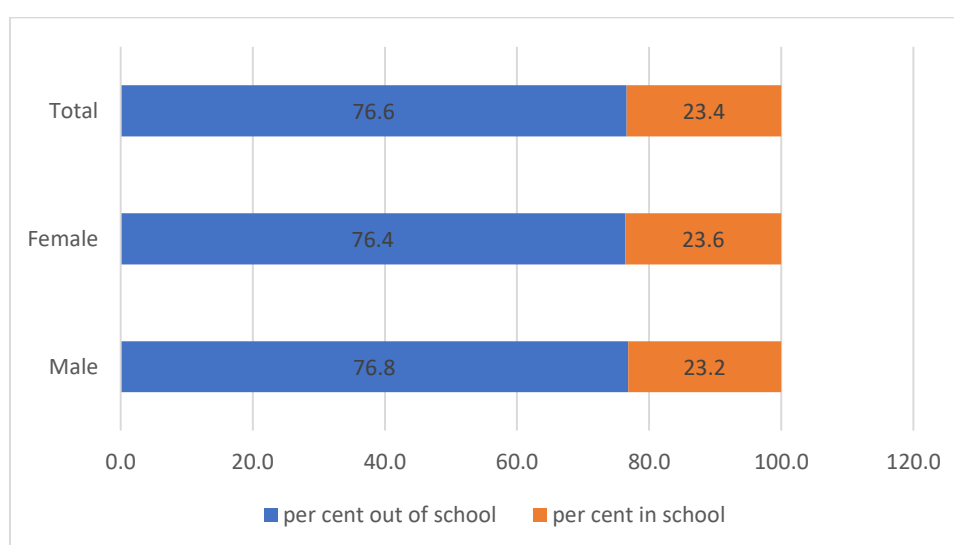
Table 2. 3. Number and percentage of pre-primary age children out of school, by sex (2014-2015)

Dimension 1 Per cent and number of pre-primary (age 4) children out of school, by gender							
	Number			Percentage			
Sex	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	GPI
Age 4	745,907	724,471	1,470,378	76.8	76.3	76.6	.994

Source: DERPT (2014-2015), MOE

Where global GPI for out-of-school children is 0.992, GPI for out-of-school children in Myanmar is 0.994 according to UIS 2014 data.²⁷ The Situation Analysis for ECCD in Myanmar also states that 258,235 children were enrolled in ECCD/preschool services in 2011.²⁸

Figure 2. 3. Percentage of pre-primary age children out-of-school (4 years old)



Source: DERPT (2014-2015), MOE

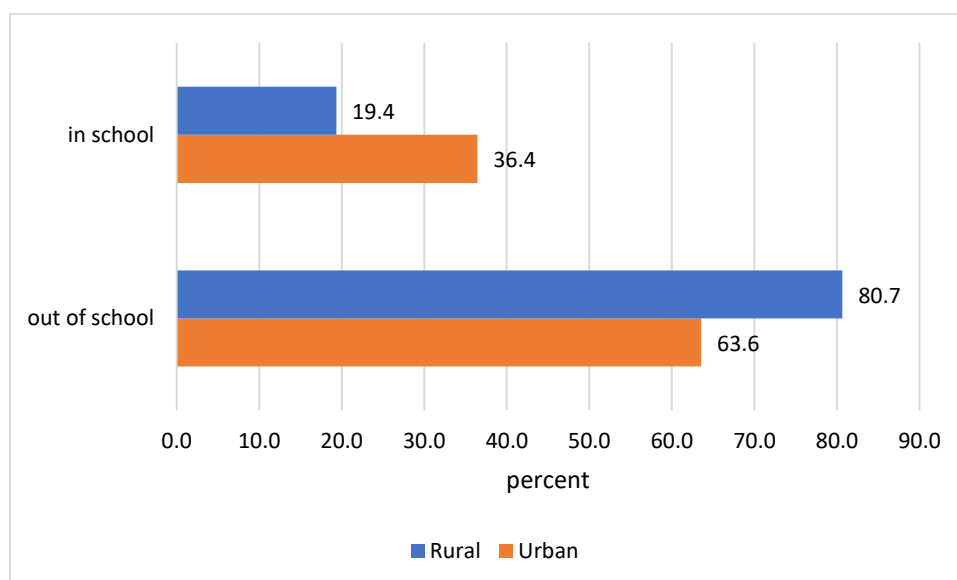
However, major differences are found between urban preschool enrolments vs. rural preschool enrolments. This is clearly seen in the figure below.

²⁷ Source: UNESCO, UIS. Retrieved June 24, 2017 from

<http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SE.ENR.PRIM.FM.ZS?end=2015&start=1970&view=chart>

²⁸ UNICEF. (2012b). "Situation Analysis of Early Childhood Care and Development in Myanmar". Yangon, Myanmar: UNICEF/Myanmar.

Figure 2. 4. Percentage of preschool children in and out of school, by residence

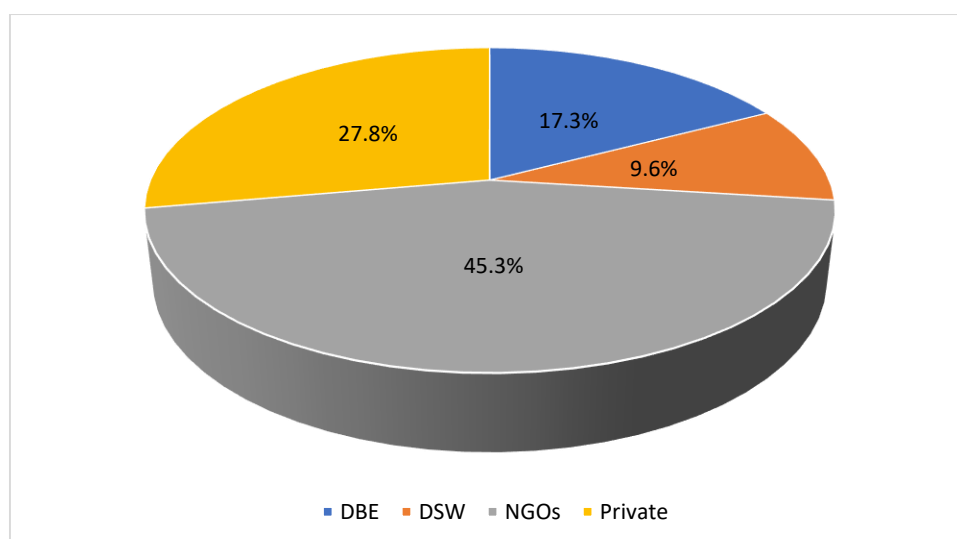


Source: DERPT (2014-2015), MOE

The percentage of out-of-school children in rural areas is much higher than that for urban areas, and if national policy continues to neglect this discrepancy, it will come to dominate the preschool sector.

Preschools in Myanmar are operated by both government and non-government entities, and although there are many private preschools in urban areas of the country, it is still difficult to access data on them. It is also difficult to get data on schools run by non-government organizations. The figure below shows percentages of children in preschool, by type of entity or organization, and some of the NGO and private sector data are missing. The figure also illustrates how public preschools are far less common than private sector and NGO preschools. NGOs such as Myitta Foundation, Kayuna Foundation, Yinthwe Foundation, the Karen Convention, the Kachin Convention, the Myanmar Convention, Pyinnyar Tazaung, Myanmar Maternal and Child Welfare Association (MMCWA), World Vision and Save the Children play the major role in preschool education.

Figure 2. 5. Preschool enrolment by type of organization



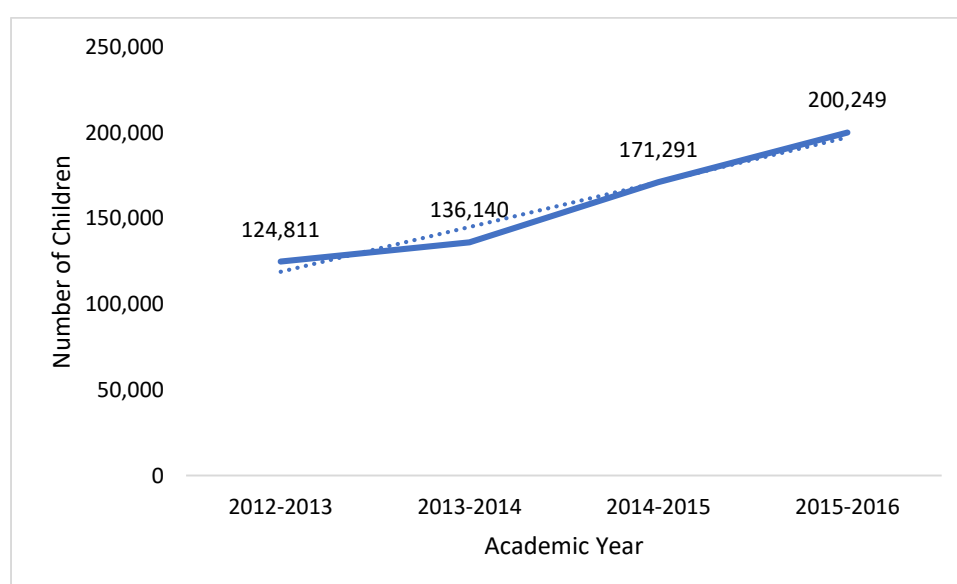
Source: DERPT (2016)

According to the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) 2009-2010 carried out by the MNPED in collaboration with MOH and UNICEF, 22.9 per cent of children had the opportunity to benefit from ECCD and just over 217,000 children age 0-5 are in ECCD offered in village-based day-care centres operated by international and national NGOs, religious groups and foundations.²⁹ These included 39.1 per cent of urban children, but only 15.9 per cent of rural children.

The gap between children from the wealthiest quintile and the poorest quintile was significant, at 46 per cent vs. 7.6 per cent, while among states and regions Kayah State recorded the highest rate of ECCD enrolment (60.7 per cent) and Rakhine the lowest, at 5.4 per cent.³⁰

Data from MSWRR, MOE, the MOBA, Save the children and MMCWA on pre-primary education are used to comprehend the flow of preschool education over four consecutive years.

Figure 2. 6. Numbers of children in pre-primary education over four consecutive years



Source: DERPT (2016)

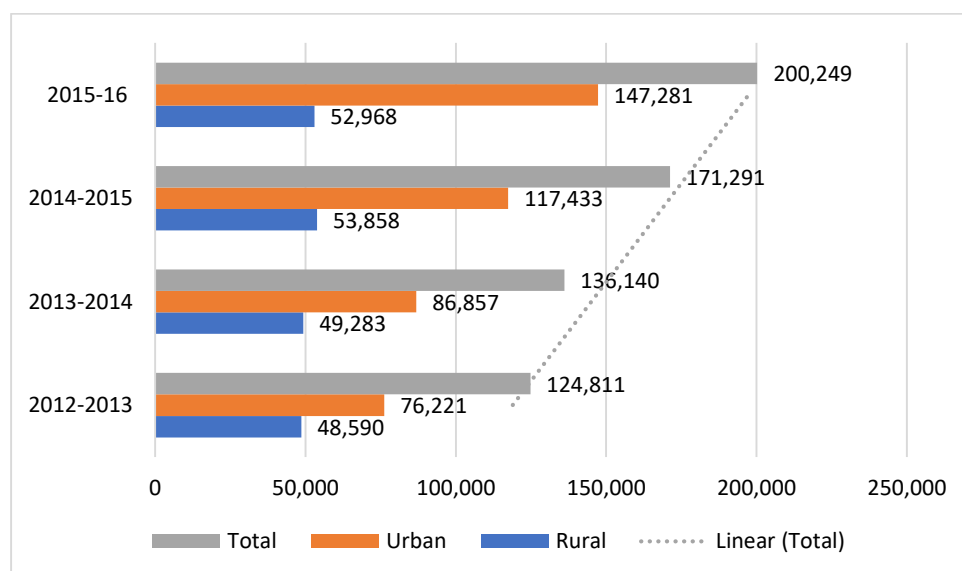
In Figure 2. 6.6, the increasing flow between the 2012-2013 academic year and the 2015-2016 academic year can be seen. Figure 2. 7.2.7 then shows the disparity between urban and rural areas in pre-primary education.

²⁹ Source: Department of Education Planning and Training and UNICEF.

³⁰ "Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) 2009-2010". Ministry of National Planning and Economic Development, Ministry of Health and UNICEF. p. 42.

<http://mics.unicef.org/files?job=W1siZiIsIjIwMTUvMDEvMjIvMzAvMDEvOTgzL015YW5tYXJfRmluYWxfbWluaV9ib29rbGV0LnBkZiJdXQ&sha=42b9a892dde6b320>

Figure 2. 7. Urban-rural disparity in pre-primary education



Note: These data in the figure do not represent the national level. They are from MSWRR, MOE, MOBA Save the children and MMCWA.

Table 2. 4. Number of pre-primary age children by sex*

Academic Year	Male	Female	Male and Female	GPI
2012-2013	62,532	62,279	124,811	1.00
2013-2014	67,598	68,542	136,140	1.01
2014-2015	85,172	86,119	171,291	1.01
2015-2016	101,435	98,814	200,249	0.97

*The data do not represent the national level.
They are only from MSWRR, MOE, MOBA, SAVE, MMCWA.
Source: DERPT

The GPI for preschool education shows that there is no significant difference between genders in enrolment.

2.3. Dimensions 2 and 3: Out-of-school children in primary and lower secondary school

Dimension 2: The OOSC rate for primary school age children (5-9 years) in Myanmar is 12 per cent and there are disparities among regions, between urban and rural (enrolment is slightly higher in urban areas) and by wealth, where enrolment is highest for wealthier households. Enrolment is particularly low for disabled children as well.

Children are expected to be enrolled in primary school at the age of 5, but late enrolment is common in rural areas, leading to many overage children in primary education. Again there are regional, urban-rural and income-related disparities in both enrolment and completion rates, and in both urban and rural areas more male children than female children are out of school.

Attendance rates do not differ appreciably among states and regions, except for Rakhine State. But the OOSC rates for primary school age vary widely across states and regions. The rate also reduces as parents' education level gets higher.

Dimension 3: In 2015, the OOSC rate for lower secondary school age children (age 10-13) was 11.6 per cent based on LFS data, and more male children than female children were out of school. The rural-urban difference in attendance was also far more pronounced for lower secondary than for primary school. So too were the disparities based on socio-economic status and region. OOSC rate also varied widely across states and regions, and education level of head of household was again a significant factor.

This section focuses on children of primary and lower secondary age who are out of school, by age and gender, by residence (urban vs. rural), by region, by wealth, by disability status and by child labour.

2.3.1. Percentage and number of children out of school, by age and sex

This section is based on data from the LFS module on education, such as the number and age of school-age family members, current school attendance and grade attended. Percentage of out-of-school children is calculated with the following equations:

Out-of-school rate for children of primary school age = 100% - Primary Adjusted Net Enrolment Rate (ANER)
Out-of-school rate for children of lower secondary school age = 100% - Lower secondary ANER - Percentage of children of lower secondary school age enrolled in primary education

Table 2.5 shows rate and numbers by age and age group (total) in 2015. As seen in the table, it is estimated that 12 per cent of primary school age children (577,672) are out of school in Myanmar, while 11.7 per cent of lower secondary school age children are out of school.

Table 2. 5. Number and percentage of primary and lower secondary age children out of school, by age and sex (dimensions 2 and 3) (2015)

Dimension 2							
Number and percentage of primary age (5-9) children out of school, by age and sex							
	Number			Percentage			
Sex	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	GPI
Age							
5	189,750	153,354	343,104	54.5	43.6	49.0	.80
6	54,862	46,537	101,399	11.0	8.9	10.0	.81
7	19,091	26,654	45,745	3.9	5.5	4.7	1.41
8	24,881	17,570	42,451	4.4	3.3	3.9	0.75
9	22,303	22,671	44,974	4.9	4.9	4.9	1.00
Total	310,886	266,786	577,672	13.0	11.0	12	.87
Dimension 3							
Number and percentage of lower secondary age (10-13) children out of school, by age and sex							
	Number			Percentage			
Sex	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	GPI
Age							
10	40,856	46,218	87,074	7.7	8.7	8.2	1.13
11	26,380	30,090	56,469	6.5	7.3	6.9	1.12
12	74,475	69,000	143,475	13.8	12.1	12.9	0.88
13	90,177	79,752	169,929	19.7	17.3	18.5	0.88
Total	231,888	225,060	456,947	12.0	11.3	11.6	0.95

Source: LFS, 2015

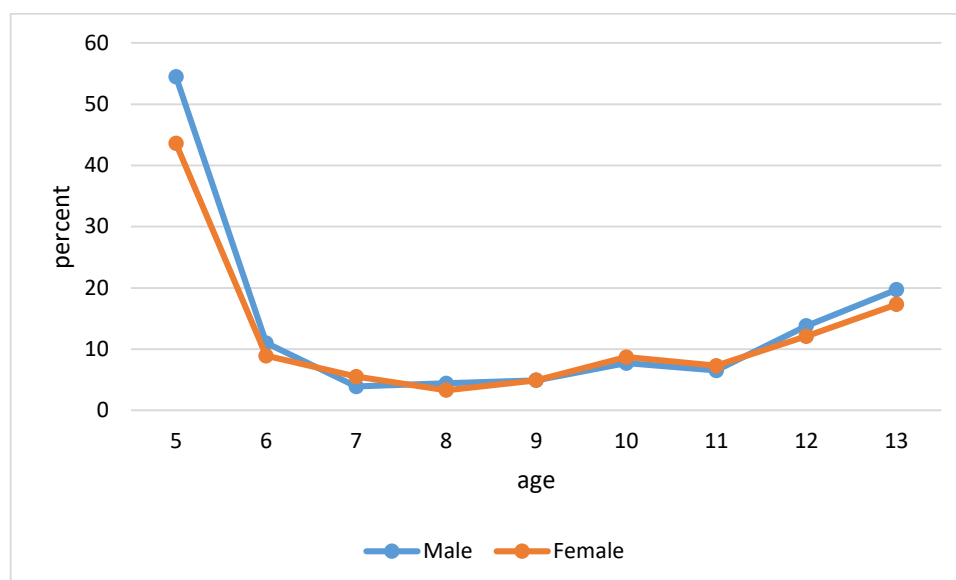
Note: The pink shaded area is greater than 1.03 and the blue, less than 0.97. If GPI of out-of-school children is more than 1.03, this means there are more girls out of school than boys and girls are at a greater disadvantage. If this is less than 0.97, it means that boys are at a greater disadvantage.

Detailed analysis shows that OOSC is highest at age 5 and that males make up 54.5 per cent of the total and females 43.6 per cent. The proportion drastically drops at 6 years and then becomes stable at around 4 per cent between the ages of 7 and 9. However, it again increases at age 10, the first year of lower secondary school, and then eventually increases to 18.5 per cent at age 13.

In Myanmar, students have to sit for three government exams, township, state/region and national level. The township level exam, mainly for primary school, is administered at the end of Grade 5, the state/region exam, for level lower-secondary, is at the end of Grade 9, and the national-level exam, for upper secondary matriculation, is at the end of Grade 11. One of the reasons that the OOSC rates increase at the age of 10 may thus be due to township level primary completion examinations. Another reason may be school location. Despite a school catchment policy, it is hard for some children to attend school because of difficulties in transportation. Lack of interest in learning may be another reason. The Comprehensive Education Sector Review (CESR) Phase 1 rapid assessment did in fact find that “lack of interest is the lead reason for dropout”.³¹

³¹ Myanmar Comprehensive Education Sector Review (CESR) Phase 1: Rapid Assessment. “Technical Assistance Consultant’s Report”. Prepared by Chris Spohr, Senior Education Economist, ADB Southeast Asia Social and Human Development Division (SEHS), in collaboration with the Comprehensive Education Sector Review (CESR) Team, and in dialogue with TA-financed consultants. Asian Development Bank. p. 66.

Figure 2. 8. Out-of-school rate by age and sex (2015)



Source: LFS, 2015

Difference in gender of out-of-school children shows the same patterns from primary to lower-secondary-school-age children. As shown in Table 2.5, the GPI among OOSC at primary-school age is 0.87 and that of lower-secondary, 0.95, which means there are more male children out of school and thus at a greater disadvantage than female children in both primary and lower-secondary levels. According to the LFS, more male children than female children take part in child labour as well.

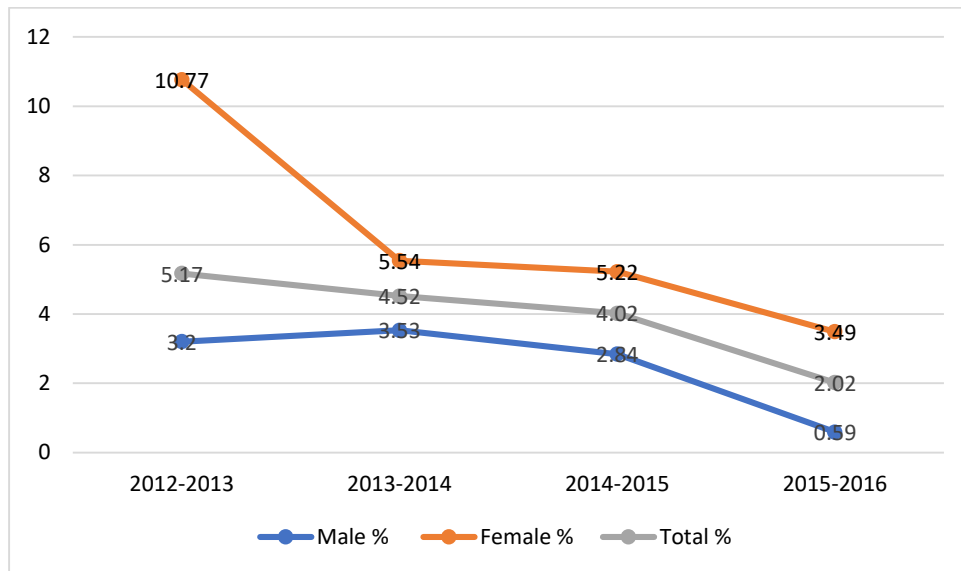
This difference between male and female students is large among primary school age children, at 13 per cent for males and 11 per cent for females, probably because of the large difference of OOSC among 5-year-olds: a 10.9-percentage-point difference. This appears to affect the overall OOSC rates for the primary school age group in later grades, then. And even though the GPI is 0.95 for lower secondary (10-13), a large difference is found for ages 12 to 13, where GPI is 0.88.

2.3.2. Percentage of children out of school, by years

Since LFS data were collected just once, in 2015, this section uses administrative data as well. Figure 2.9 below shows the percentage of primary school age OOSC over four consecutive academic years. In 2015 LFS data, boys are more likely to be OOSC than are girls, both for primary and lower secondary education: GPI is 0.87 and 0.95 respectively. However, according to the administrative data, girls are more likely than boys to be OOSC in primary education, whereas boys are more likely than girls to be out of school in lower secondary education.

As mentioned in Section 1.7., discrepancies are likely to occur between the same indicators when calculated by different sources. They may also be due to the data gap in population before and after the Census. Another possible reason is timing of the LFS with respect to start of school year, which probably inflates the number of out-of-school 5-year-olds.

Figure 2. 9. OOSC rate for primary-school-age children, by year (Dimension 2)

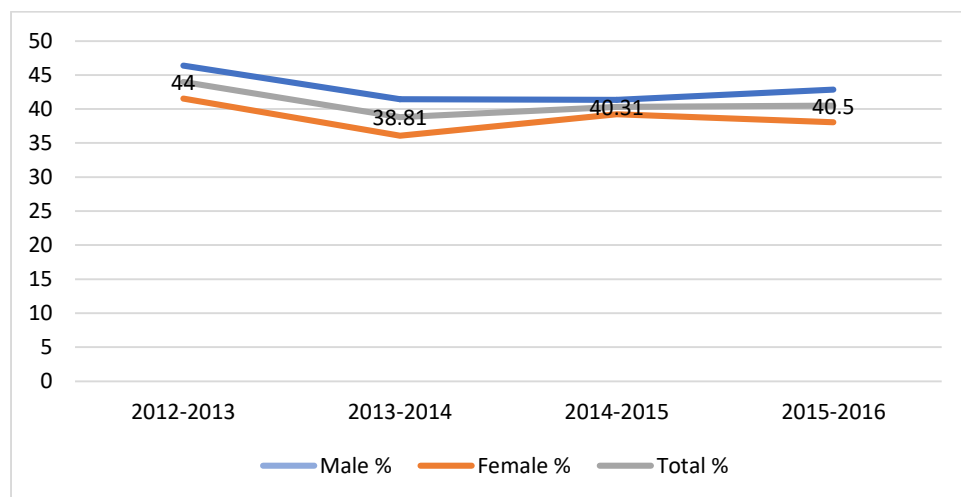


Source: Administrative Data (2013-2016), DERPT, MOE

The rates clearly decrease year by year, and where the rate in the 2012-2013 academic year is 5.17 per cent, it decreases to 2.0 percent by the 2015-2016 academic year.

Figure 2.10 shows the percentage of lower secondary school age children out of school over four consecutive academic years.

Figure 2. 10. OOSC rate for lower-secondary-age children, by year (Dimension 3)



Source: Administrative data (2013-2016), DERPT, MOE

Looking at the difference between male and female OOSC rates for each year, the disadvantage for female children continues until age 9, which is the turning point in GPI, where male children then have the disadvantage until age 13 in lower-secondary school. This is because male children are more involved in the labour force at those ages.

2.3.3. Percentage of children out of school, by other characteristics

This subsection presents a detailed breakdown of OOSC rates by other characteristics, using LFS survey data, which reveal large variation in the percentage of out-of-school children according to the characteristics. Table 2. 6.6 shows OOSC rates by location, wealth quintile index and disabilities.

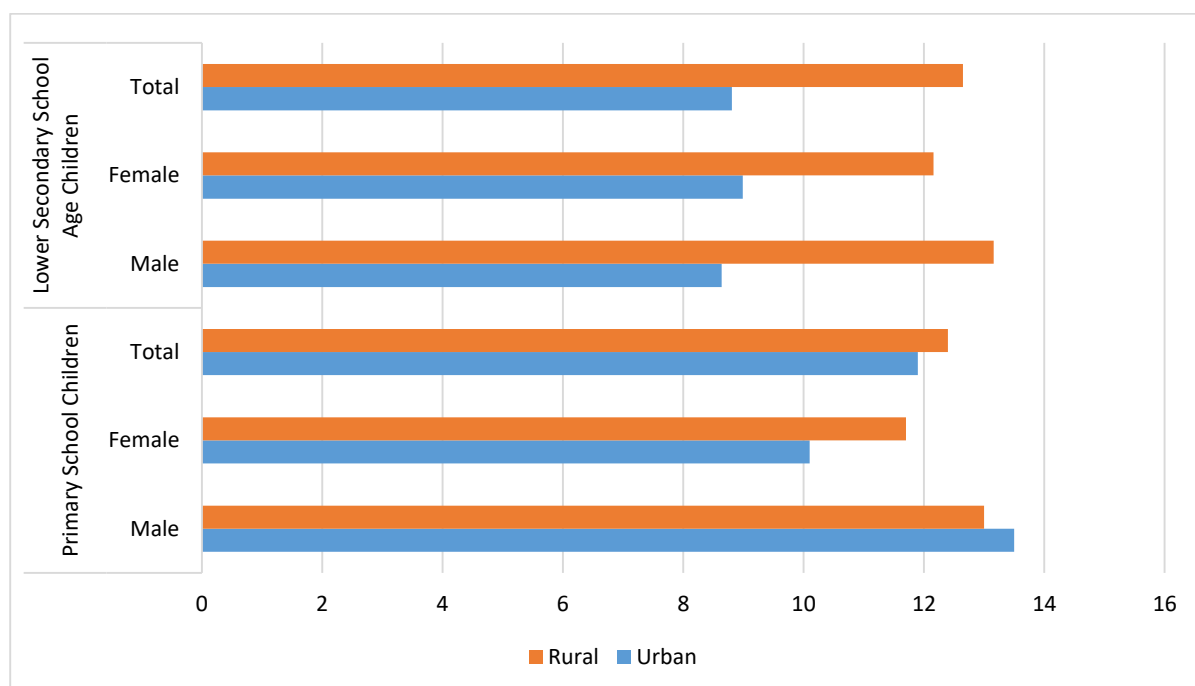
Table 2. 6. Percentage of primary and lower secondary age children out-of-school, by sex and other characteristics (2015)

Sex	Dimension 2 Primary School Age Children (Ages 5-9)				Dimension 3 Lower Secondary School Age Children (Ages 10-13)			
	Male	Female	Total	GPI	Male	Female	Total	GPI
Residence								
Urban	13.5	10.1	11.9	0.75	8.6	9.0	8.8	1.04
Rural	13.0	11.7	12.4	0.90	13.1	12.2	12.6	0.92
Wealth Quintile Index								
Lowest	18.1	16.2	17.2	0.90	19.3	16.3	17.7	0.84
Second	12.9	10.2	11.6	0.79	14.0	12.8	13.4	0.91
Middle	9.7	11.3	10.5	1.17	8.7	12.0	10.4	1.38
Fourth	10.7	8.4	9.5	0.79	7.3	7.2	7.3	0.99
Highest	11.7	7.3	9.5	0.62	7.8	4.2	6.0	0.54
Disabilities								
No Disability	12.9	11.0	11.9	0.86	12.3	11.1	11.7	0.90
Disability	58.1	40.6	46.7	0.70	46.0	34.2	39.2	0.74
Total	13.1	11.4	12.3	0.87	12.6	11.4	12.0	0.90
Note: The pink shaded area is greater than 1.03 and the blue, less than 0.97. If GPI of out-of-school children is more than 1.03, this means there are more girls out of school than boys and they are at a greater disadvantage. If this is less than 0.97, it means that boys are at a greater disadvantage.								

Source: LFS, 2015

According to Table 2. 6.6 male children are at a greater disadvantage than are female children in most of the characteristics. However, the OOSC rate of urban female children, for lower secondary, and OOSC rates for the mid-level wealth quintile index for females in primary and in lower secondary, are higher than that for male children.

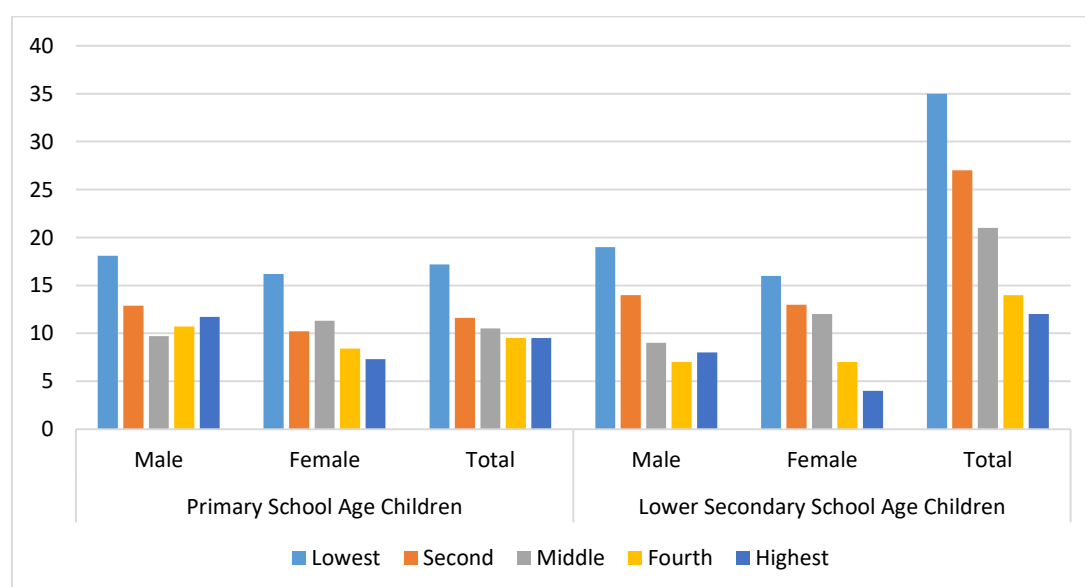
Figure 2. 11. Percentage of primary and lower secondary age children out of school, by sex and location (2015)



Source: LFS (2015)

Figure 2.11 shows how at the primary level, OOSC rate for urban male children is higher than the rate for rural males, where OOSC rate for *rural* female children is higher than for *urban* females. Yet at lower secondary levels, the OOSC rates for both male and female children in rural areas are both higher than that for urban areas. Where urban male OOSC rates surpass 0.5 per cent for the primary level, the rate for rural females exceeds 1.6 per cent at the primary level; the rate for rural males at the lower secondary level is 4.5 per cent and for rural females, 3.2 per cent. Thus, the point differences are high between urban and rural, which means that rural children are at a greater disadvantage than are urban children.

Figure 2. 12. Out-of-school children by wealth quintile index



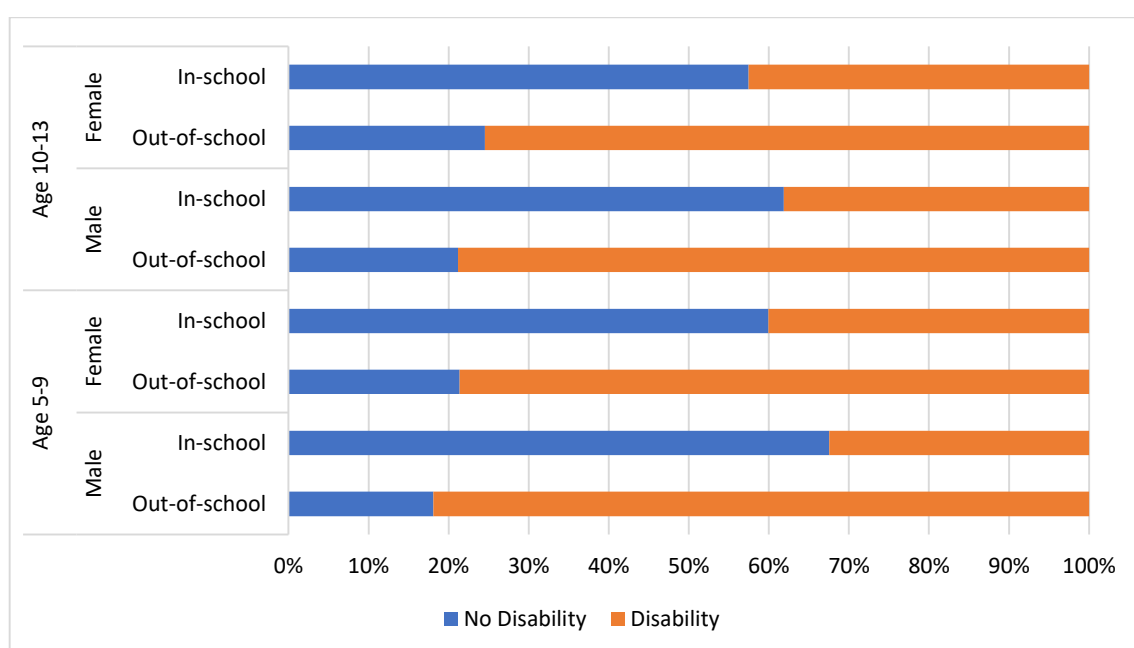
Source: LFS, 2015

As shown in Table 2.6 and Figure 2.12, the OOSC rate for both primary and lower secondary school age children declines clearly with level of household wealth. For both sexes (total), OOSC rate for lowest quintile was 17.2 per cent in primary school age children and 17.7 per cent in lower secondary age children, while both continue to drop, to 9.5 per cent and 6 per cent respectively in the highest quintile. The same trend is found in lower secondary out-of-school female children. In both primary and lower secondary age children, GPI of most quintiles is less than 0.97, which means higher OOSC rates for males than for females.

The opposite is found in the middle income group, for both primary and lower secondary age children, where more female children are out of school than are male children. And there is no gender disparity for lower secondary children in the top economic quintile.

Regarding children with disabilities, Figure 2.13 shows the rate of out-of-school children with disability, by age group and by sex.

Figure 2. 13. OOSC rate for children with disabilities, by age group and by sex



Source: LFS (2015)

According to LFS data, 46.6 per cent of primary age disabled children and 39.2 per cent of lower secondary age disabled children are out of school and gender differences are found in both primary and lower secondary, which indicates that more male disabled children are out of school than female disabled children.

2.3.4. Percentage of children out of school, by state and region

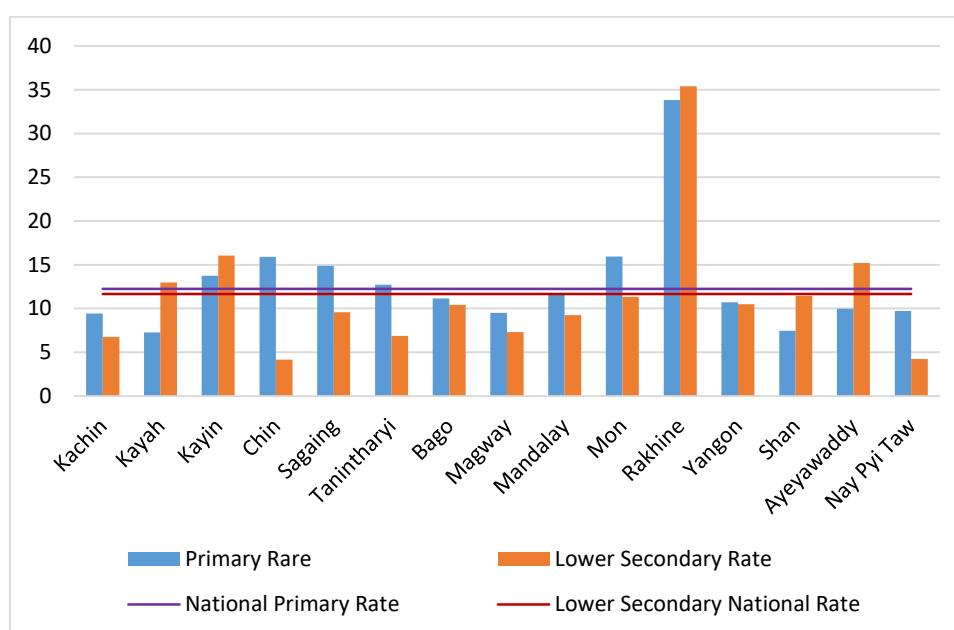
In Myanmar there are seven states and seven regions plus the capitol district, Nay Pyi Taw, and as shown in Table 2.7 and Figure 2.14 below, the OOSC rates for both primary and lower secondary age vary widely.

Table 2. 7. Primary and lower secondary OOSC, by sex and by state/region (2015)

State/Region	Dimension 2 Primary Age Children (Age 5-9)				Dimension 3 Lower Secondary Age Children (10-13)			
	Male	Female	Total	GPI	Male	Female	Total	GPI
Kachin	9.5	9.3	9.4	0.98	8.9	4.7	6.8	0.53
Kayah	11.6	3.0	7.3	0.26	11.8	14.2	13.0	1.21
Kayin	12.5	14.9	13.7	1.19	19.3	13.0	16.0	0.67
Chin	15.9	15.9	15.9	1.01	7.1	1.3	4.2	0.18
Sagaing	15.0	14.7	14.9	0.98	9.1	10.0	9.6	1.09
Tanintharyi	14.9	10.7	12.7	0.72	5.0	8.8	6.9	1.75
Bago	10.6	11.6	11.1	1.09	8.5	12.4	10.4	1.45
Magway	10.1	8.8	9.5	0.87	6.9	7.6	7.3	1.10
Mandalay	12.2	11.1	11.7	0.91	11.4	7.2	9.2	0.63
Mon	17.7	14.0	15.9	0.79	10.2	12.4	11.3	1.22
Rakhine	34.3	33.4	33.8	0.97	36.9	33.9	35.4	0.92
Yangon	14.9	5.9	10.7	0.40	11.1	9.9	10.5	0.90
Shan	6.7	8.2	7.5	1.21	13.0	9.8	11.4	0.75
Ayeyarwaddy	11.7	8.4	10.0	0.72	13.7	16.8	15.2	1.22
Nay Pyi Taw	10.9	8.4	9.7	0.77	3.2	5.0	4.2	1.55
National	13.1	11.4	12.3	0.87	12.0	11.4	11.7	0.95

Source: LFS (2015)

Figure 2. 14. OOSC rate by state/region, 2015



Source: LFS, 2015

The national rate of OOSC for primary age students is 12.2 per cent, and for lower secondary it is 11.7 per cent, and as shown in Table 2.7 and figure 2.14 there is large variation by state and region. Four states - Kayin, Chin, Mon, and Rakhine - and two regions - Sagaing and Tanintharyi - exceed national rates for primary age children, while three states - Kayah, Kayin, and Rakhine - and one region - Ayeyarwaddy - exceed national rates for lower secondary. The rate of OOSC for lower secondary in Mon State is 11.3 per cent and for Shan State, 11.5 per cent, both close to the national rate of 11.7 per cent.

Rakhine State has the highest OOSC rate, followed by Kayin State, for both age groups. Rakhine State is remarkably high in both age groups, with OOSC of 33.8 per cent for primary school age and 35.4 per cent for lower secondary. Chin and Mon states, and Sagaing and Tanintharyi regions, have higher OOSC rates than the national average as well, but only for the primary school age group, while Kayah State and Ayeyarwaddy Region have more OOSC than the national average only in the lower secondary age group.

In contrast, Kayah State has very low rates compared to the other states and regions, at 7.3 per cent OOSC for the primary age group. **The lowest OOSC rates are 4.2 per cent in Chin and Nay Pyi Taw, for the lower secondary age group.** Yet in Kayah State, for the primary and lower secondary age groups, OOSC rates are 7.3 per cent and 13 per cent respectively, while in Chin State they are 15.9 per cent and 4.2 per cent respectively.

National GPI for primary school age children out of school is 0.87, while for lower secondary it is 0.95. Thus there is gender disparity not only in primary school but also in lower secondary out-of-school children. However, there is no significant gender disparity among primary school age OOSC in Chin State, where GPI is 1.01. GPI for Kachin State, Sagaing Region and Rakhine State clearly falls between 0.97 and 1.03 as well, which also means that there is no significant gender difference in these states and regions.

There remains a large gap between male and female OOSC rates in Kayah State, Tanintharyi Region, Yangon Region, Ayeyarwaddy Region and Nay Pyi Taw as well, which indicates that boys are at more of a disadvantage than girls. According to the national GPI, primary school age boys are more likely to be out of school than are primary school age girls. But in Kayin State, Bago Region and Shan State, out-of-school girls are at more of a disadvantage than out-of-school boys are. In other words, girls are more likely than boys to be out of school in these two areas. And although GPI for lower secondary school age children is greater than that for primary school age children, there is still a gender disparity in lower secondary age children. The highest is found in Chin State, where lower secondary age boys are more likely than girls to be out-of-school. Also, among lower secondary age children, boys in Kachin, Kayin, Chin, Rakhine, and Shan states, and Mandalay and Yangon regions, are more disadvantaged than girls, whereas girls are more disadvantaged than boys in Kayah and Mon states, as well as in Sagaing, Tanintharyi, Bago, Magwe, and Ayeyarwaddy regions, and in Nay Pyi Taw too.

Table in Annex A shows OOSC rates for each state and region by age, and across all ages (6-13 years), Rakhine has the highest rate of out-of-school children.

The distribution of OOSC rates by age also shows wide variation among states and regions (see figures in Annex A). Analysis by age shows that for primary school age children, OOSC rates are highest at age 5 and increase with age for all states and regions. Once again, Rakhine State has the highest OOSC rate in all primary and lower secondary ages, and the differences with other states and regions are very high as well.

2.3.5. Percentage of children out of school by rates of participation in child labour

Table 2.8 shows how children who work are much more likely than children who do not work to be out of school. At primary school age, 36.8 per cent of children who engage in child labour are out of school, while at lower secondary school age, 94.5 per cent of child labourers are out of school. Among lower secondary out-of-school children, just a few per cent are not involved in labour.

Table 2. 8. Percentage of primary and lower secondary age children out of school, by sex and participation in labour (2015)

Sex	Dimension 2 Primary school age children out of school (age 5-9)				Dimension 3 Lower secondary school age children out of school (age 10-13)			
	Male	Female	Total	GPI	Male	Female	Total	GPI
Child Labour	38.3	35.3	36.8	0.92	94.5	94.4	94.5	1.00
Not Child Labour	13.1	11.3	12.2	0.87	8.7	8.7	8.7	1.00

Source: MOLIP DOL

There appears to be no gender discrepancy for lower secondary, where GPI is 1.00 for both OOSC involved in child labour and OOSC *not* involved in child labour. However, among primary school age children, there are gender discrepancies in OOSC in child labour and OOSC not in child labour, where GPI is 0.92 and 0.87 respectively. This means that male school age children are more disadvantaged than females at the primary school level.

This paints a complex picture, and the interplay between gender, state/regional characteristics, educational attainment of household head and wealth index quintile for OOSC engaged in child labour is shown in Table 2.9.

Table 2. 9. Interplay of characteristics determining child labour among out-of-school children age 5 to 13 (LFS 2015)

	% of children out of school	% of children in child labour	% of children in child labour who are out of school ³²	% of children out of school who are involved in child labour ³³
Sex				
Total (both sex)	12	1.7	12.6	91.3
Male	12.6	1.8	13.2	91.0
Female	11.4	1.5	12	91.5
GPI	0.90	0.83	0.91	1.01
State/Region				
Kachin	8.2	0.7	7.1	87.7

³² The numerator to estimate the percentage of children in child labour who are out of school includes children age 5-13 out of school who, during the week preceding the survey, were involved in child labour. The denominator is the total number of children in child labour.

³³ The numerator to estimate the percentage of children out of school who are involved in child labour includes children aged 5-13 out of school who, during the week preceding the survey, were involved in child labour. The denominator is the total number of children out of school.

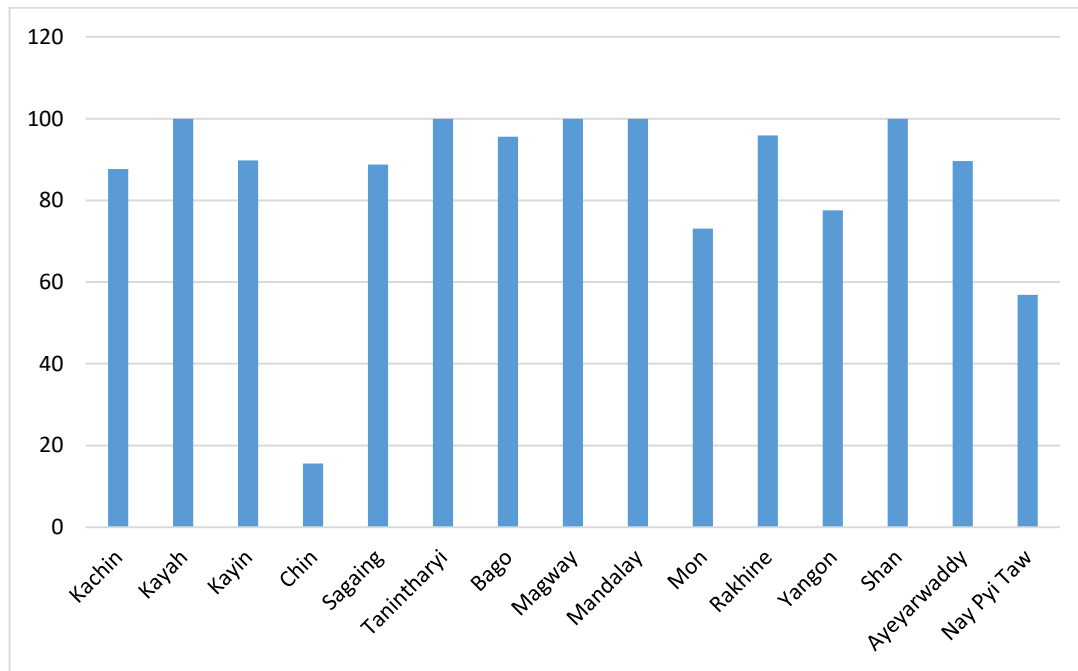
	% of children out of school	% of children in child labour	% of children in child labour who are out of school ³²	% of children out of school who are involved in child labour ³³
Kayah	9.8	0.7	7.6	100.0
Kayin	14.8	0.6	3.6	89.8
Chin	10.9	0.6	0.9	15.6
Sagaing	12.6	1.2	8.8	88.8
Tanintharyi	10	0.6	5.9	100
Bago	10.8	2.1	18.6	95.6
Magway	8.5	1.4	16.5	100
Mandalay	10.5	1.7	16	100
Mon	13.9	1.3	6.8	73.1
Rakhine	34.3	2.3	6.3	95.9
Yangon	10.5	2	14.6	77.6
Shan	9.3	1.7	18.6	100
Ayeyarwaddy	12.3	2.5	18.4	89.6
Nay Pyi Taw	7.5	0.4	3	56.9
Household Head Education				
None	23.7	2.2	8.9	94.7
Primary	10.5	1.9	16.5	90.5
Secondary and higher	7.4	0.6	7.1	87.7
Wealth Index Quintile				
Poorest	17.4	2.1	11.6	94.8
Second	12.4	2.2	15	83.4
Middle	10.4	1.3	11.9	95.3
Fourth	8.5	1.1	13.3	99.7
Richest	7.8	1	11	85.4

As shown in Table 2.9, the discrepancies in GPI between male and female children (1) out of school, (2) in child labour and (3) in child labour *and* out of school are of 0.9, 0.8 and 0.9 respectively. Specifically, they show that out-of-school boys are more often in child labour than out-of-school girls are. But among children involved in labour, boys and girls are equally likely to be out of school.

Regarding percentage of children out of school, Rakhine State has the highest rate, at 34.3 per cent, followed by Kayin State, at 14.8 per cent and Mon State, at 13.9 per cent. Of note is the large gap between Rakhine and Kayin. The lowest rates, meanwhile, are in Nay Pyi Taw (7.5 per cent), followed by Kachin (8.2 per cent), Magwe (8.5 per cent), Shan (9.3 per cent) and Kayah (9.8 per cent).

The highest percentages of children involved in labour are in Ayeyarwaddy Region, at 2.5 per cent, Rakhine, at 2.3 per cent, and Bago, at 2.1 per cent. The lowest rates are in Nay Pyi Taw, which has 0.4 per cent and Kayin State, Chin State and Tanintharyi Region, which all have 0.6 per cent.

Figure 2. 15. Percentages of OOSC involved in child labour by state/region



Source: LFS (2015)

According to the figure above, in Kayah and Shan states, and Tanintharyi, Magwe and Mandalay regions, 100 per cent of OOSC are involved in child labour. Also in Bago Region and Rakhine State, more than 90 per cent of OOSC are involved in child labour, while the rates only drop significantly in Chin State to 15.6 per cent and Nay Pyi Taw to 56.9 per cent. The interpretation is that few children combine child labour with school in most states. But there are some exceptions, such as in Chin and Nay Pyi Taw, where many children in child labour do go to school.

Table 2.9 also shows that education level of household head is closely related to rate of OOSC in child labour, and generally the highest rates are found where the head of household lacks significant education. Table 2.9 further shows that there is a link between school attendance and child labour by wealth quintile: percentage of out-of-school children reduces clearly with increase in wealth. For the lowest quintile, it is 17.4 per cent, and ranges to 7.8 per cent for the highest quintile. The same trend is found in the percentage of children in child labour since 2.1 per cent and 2.2 per cent in poorest and second quintile continue to reduce to 1.1 per cent and 1.0 per cent in fourth and richest quintile. The highest rate of OOSC in child labour is found in the second quintile, followed by the fourth quintile, and the lowest rate of child labour is in the richest quintile.

Table 2.10 shows the percentage of children aged 5 to 13 attending school, by child labour status, based on sex, state vs. region, age group (primary and lower secondary), residence (urban vs. rural), level of education for head of household and wealth index quintile.

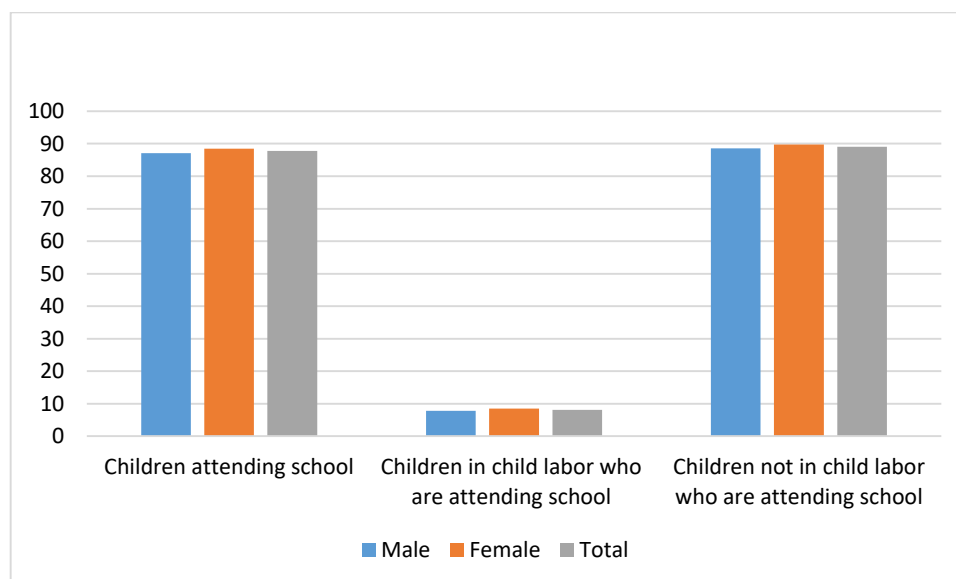
Table 2. 10. Percentage of children aged 5-13 attending school, by child labour status

	Children attending school	Children involved in labour, who are attending school	Children not involved in child labour, who are attending school
Sex			
Total (both sex)	87.8	8.1	89.1
Male	87.1	7.8	88.6
Female	88.5	8.5	89.7
GPI	1.02	1.09	1.01
State/Region			
Kachin	91.7	12.3	92.2
Kayah	90.2	0	90.9
Kayin	85.2	10.2	85.6
Chin	88.9	84.4	88.9
Sagaing	87.1	3.3	88.2
Tanintharyi	89.8	0	90.3
Bago	89.1	4.4	90.9
Magway	91.4	0	92.7
Mandalay	89.4	0	90.9
Mon	85.8	26.9	86.6
Rakhine	65.1	4.1	66.5
Yangon	88.8	22.4	90.1
Shan	90.4	0	92
Ayeyarwaddy	87.6	10.4	89.7
Nay Pyi Taw	92.3	43.1	92.4
Age Group			
5-9 years	87.5	63.2	87.5
10-13years	88.2	5.5	91.1
Residence			
Urban	89.4	17.6	90.4
Rural	87.3	5.5	88.7
Household Head Education			
None	75.9	5.3	77.5
Primary	89.3	8.6	90.8
Secondary and higher	92.5	12.3	93
Wealth Index Quantile			
Poorest	82.3	3.2	84
Second	87.4	16.6	89
Middle	89.2	4.7	90.4
Fourth	91.5	0.3	92.5
Richest	92	14.6	92.8

Source: LFS (2015)

Figure 2.16 shows the percentages of children aged 5 to 13 (1) who are attending school, (2) who are attending school *and involved in labour*, and (3) who are attending school but are *not* involved in labour.

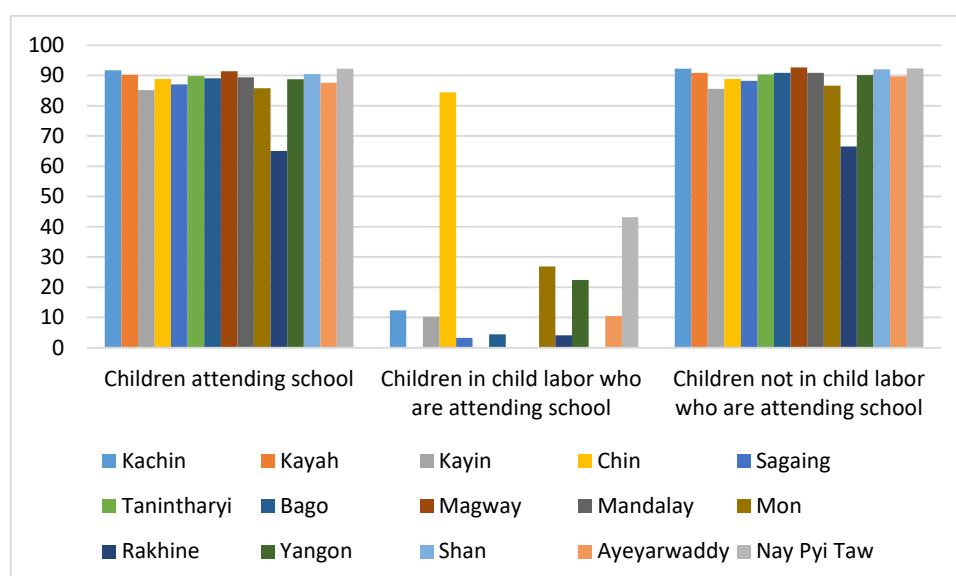
Figure 2. 16. Children aged 5 to 13 attending school, by labour status and sex



Source: LFS (2015)

According to Table 2.10 and Figure 2.16, there is no gender disparity in labour status among children aged 5 to 13 who are attending school. GPI for children attending school is 1.02, for those in school and involved in child labour it is 1.09, and for those attending school and *not* involved in child labour, it is 1.01.

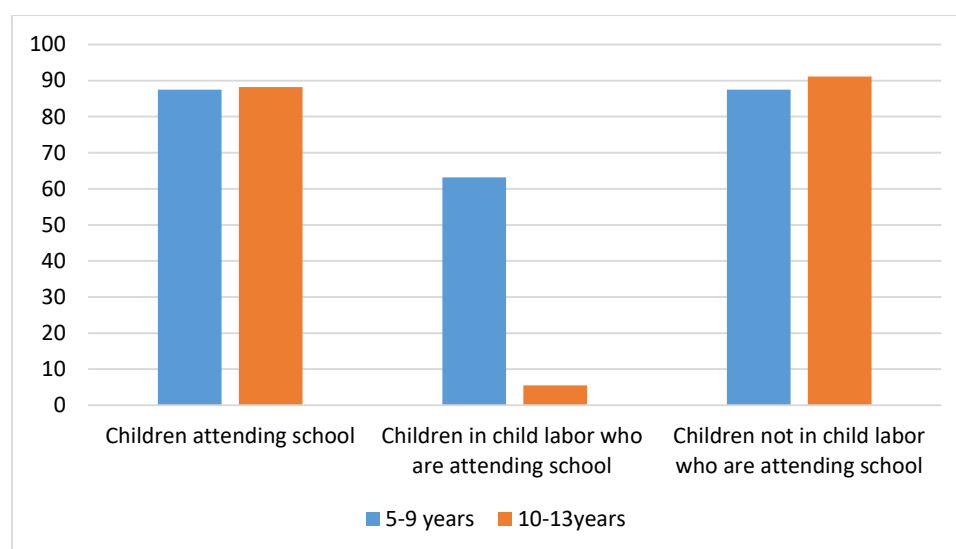
Figure 2. 17. Percentage of children age 5 to 13 attending school, by state/region



Source: LFS (2015)

The percentages of children attending school are not markedly different among states and regions, except for Rakhine State, where only 65.1 per cent of children are in school. Elsewhere the rate is 85 per cent or higher. In Figure 2.17, the same pattern is found in the percentages of children *not* in child labour who *are* attending school. However the pattern changes for percentages of children who *are* in child labour and also attending school. The highest rate for this is found in Chin State, at 88.9 per cent. In Sagaing Region, Bago Region and Rakhine State, just 3.3 per cent, 4.4 per cent and 4.1 per cent respectively are involved in labour and also attending school. Yet in Kayah and Shan States, and Tanintharyi, Magwe, and Mandalay Regions, no children involved in child labour are also attending school.

Figure 2. 18. Percentages of children age 5 to 13 attending school, by age group



Source: LFS (2015)

For the two age groups above, the rates of school attendance do not vary widely: 87.5 for primary school and 88.2 for lower secondary. Similarly, rates of children who are not involved in child labour and who *are* attending school do not differ considerably among these age groups; 87.5 for primary vs. 91.1 for lower secondary. Yet there is a difference among the children who are involved in labour who *are* attending school: 63.2 per cent for primary age and 5.5 for lower secondary. The difference is 57.7, which is noticeably high. And in urban settings, more children in both age groups take part in child labour than children in rural settings do.

There is also a correlation between percentage of children attending school and education level of head of household. And as in other age groups, the lower the level of education of the head of household, the lower the likelihood of school attendance for children.

There is a correlation with wealth index quintile as well, for children attending school and children *not in child labour* who *are* attending school. Roughly speaking, the poorest quintile has the fewest children in school or involved in labour *and* attending school.

But patterns vary for children both involved in labour and *also* attending school. The highest rate for this is found in the second quintile, followed by the highest quintile, then the middle and then the

lowest. In the fourth quintile, only 0.3 per cent of children involved in child labour are attending school.

Thus, although child labour is “low magnitude”, in the sense that it is not rampant in Myanmar, it is still a high severity problem. While it affects a relatively small group of children overall and does not seem to be a statistically predominant reason for children being out of school, those children who are both out of school *and* involved in labour are severely affected by this situation.

2.4. Children at risk of exclusion from primary and lower secondary education (dimensions 4 and 5)

Children in Dimension 4 are at risk of dropping out of primary school and there are large gaps between male and female attendance. The survey found as well that males are more likely to dropout than females. Also, children in rural areas are at greater risk of dropout than are children in urban areas. And although risk of dropping out before the final grade is not appreciably different between urban and rural, more rural children are expected to dropout than are urban children.

Children in Dimension 5 are at risk of dropping out of lower secondary school and GPI of those who do drop out increases with grade, so that more males drop out than females, suggesting that Myanmar faces a situation of male children having greater risk of exclusion from education, while, as with other dimensions, dropout rates in rural areas are mostly higher than in urban areas.

Dimensions 4 and 5 refer to children who are enrolled in either primary or lower secondary school and are also at risk of dropping out, and here, repetition rate, survival rate to final grade, completion rate, transition rate and dropout rate can all help predict whether children are likely to drop out.

To generate a profile of children at risk of exclusion, this study focused on two groups: those who are significantly overage for their grade (by two or more years) either because of late entry or grade repetition or both; and children who are likely to drop out through cumulative dropout rate or a combination of the two. The data used for the analysis is mainly based on administrative data from 2010-2015.

2.4.1. Dropout rate

2.4.1.1. Dropout rate by grade and by gender

This sub-section analyses percentages of children who attended school in the previous year but not in the current year. In other words, children who dropped out of school *after* attending school in the previous year. Table 2.11 lists dropout rate by sex, residence and age difference, disaggregated by grade in primary and lower secondary education using administrative data from 2014 and 2015. The dropout rate is calculated by dividing the number of children who dropped out by the number of children who attended in the previous year.

Table 2. 11. Dropout rate by grade, by sex and by residence in the 2014-2015 academic year (%)

Education Level		Primary					Lower Secondary			
Grade		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Urban	Male	7.09	2.9	0.2	0.4	0	5.6	5.3	5.7	8.8
	Female	3.91	0	0	0.2	0.5	0	0	0	0
	Total	5.5	1.5	0.1	0.	0.2	2.8	2.6	2.8	4.3
Rural	Male	17.8	7.2	5.2	12.3	19.5	9.8	11.7	22.6	36.9
	Female	17.3	6.7	4.8	10.4	17.6	9.0	10.3	18.6	29.2
	Total	17.6	7.0	5.0	11.4	18.5	9.4	11.0	20.5	32.9
Union	Male	16.2	6.2	4.0	9.6	11.4	8.1	8.6	13.6	19.7
	Female	15.1	5.0	3.6	8.0	9.6	5.9	6.0	9.1	11.5
	Total	15.7	5.6	3.8	8.8	10.5	7.0	7.3	11.3	15.5
GPI		0.93	0.82	0.91	0.83	0.84	0.73	0.70	0.67	0.59

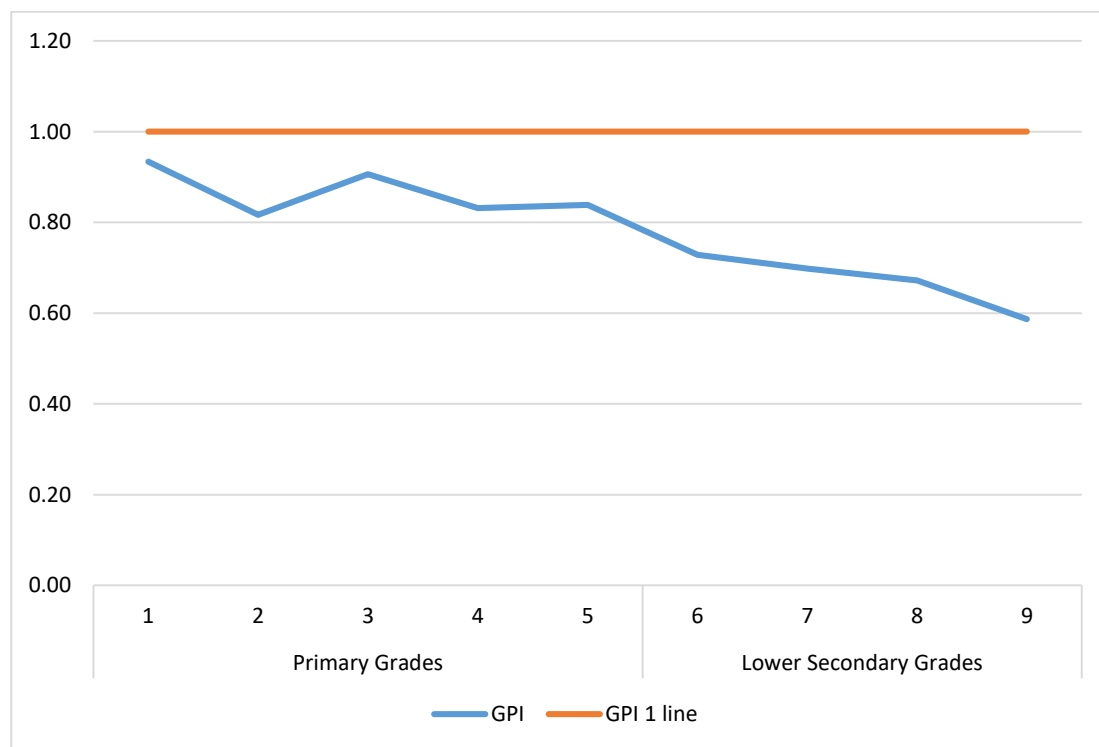
Source: Administrative Data (2014-2015), DERPT, MOE

In primary school, Grade 1, the entry point for basic education, has the highest dropout rate, at 15.7 per cent. Grade 5, the final grade of primary education, has the second highest, at 10.5 per cent. The rate then declines to 7 per cent at Grade 6, and then increases gradually to 15.5 per cent by the end of lower secondary education.

Exposure to pre-primary education is considered to improve retention rates, however, particularly in Grade 1, and to reduce the likelihood of dropout. But as mentioned in Section 2.1., only 23.4 per cent of children age 4 have access to this. Compared to other countries, this rate is very low. The high dropout in Grade 1 may be partly due to the lack of access to pre-primary education and hence a lack of school readiness.

Figure 2.19 illustrates GPI by grade for this sub-section. The red line is standard GPI, which equals 1, and it is clear that gender disparity among children who dropout increases with grade. According to Table 2.11 as well there are large gaps between male and female, and males are more likely to dropout than females in all grades. Thus, male children in Myanmar take more part in child labour as they age.

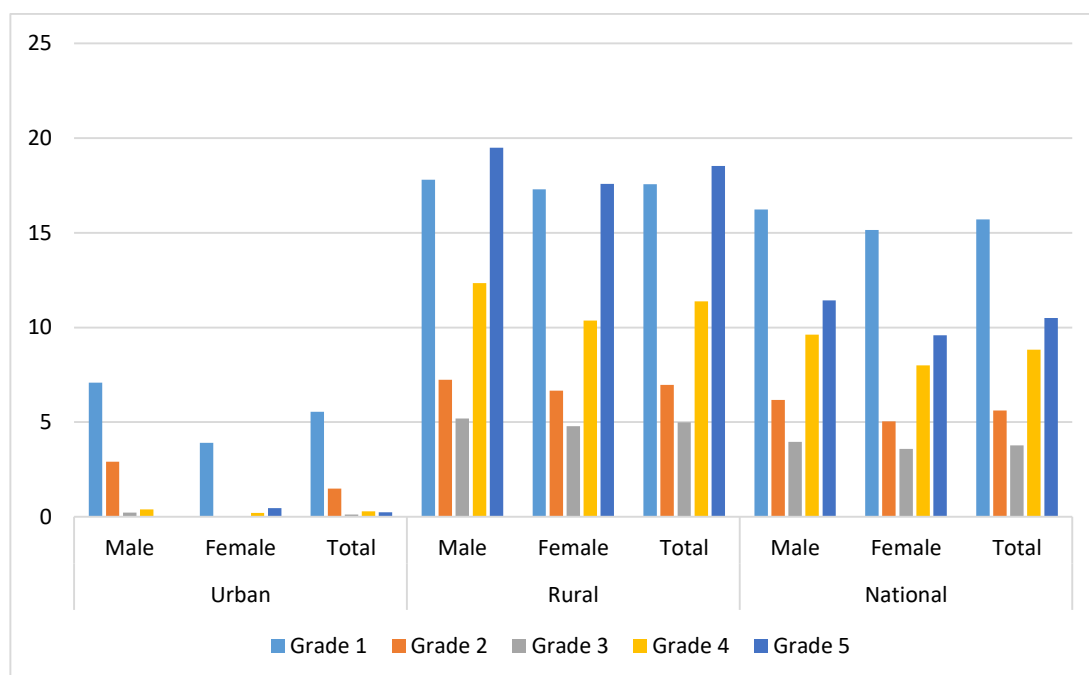
Figure 2. 19. Gender parity index for dropout rates, by grade



Source: Administrative Data (2014-2015), DERPT, MOE

Dropout rates in rural areas are also generally higher than in urban areas.

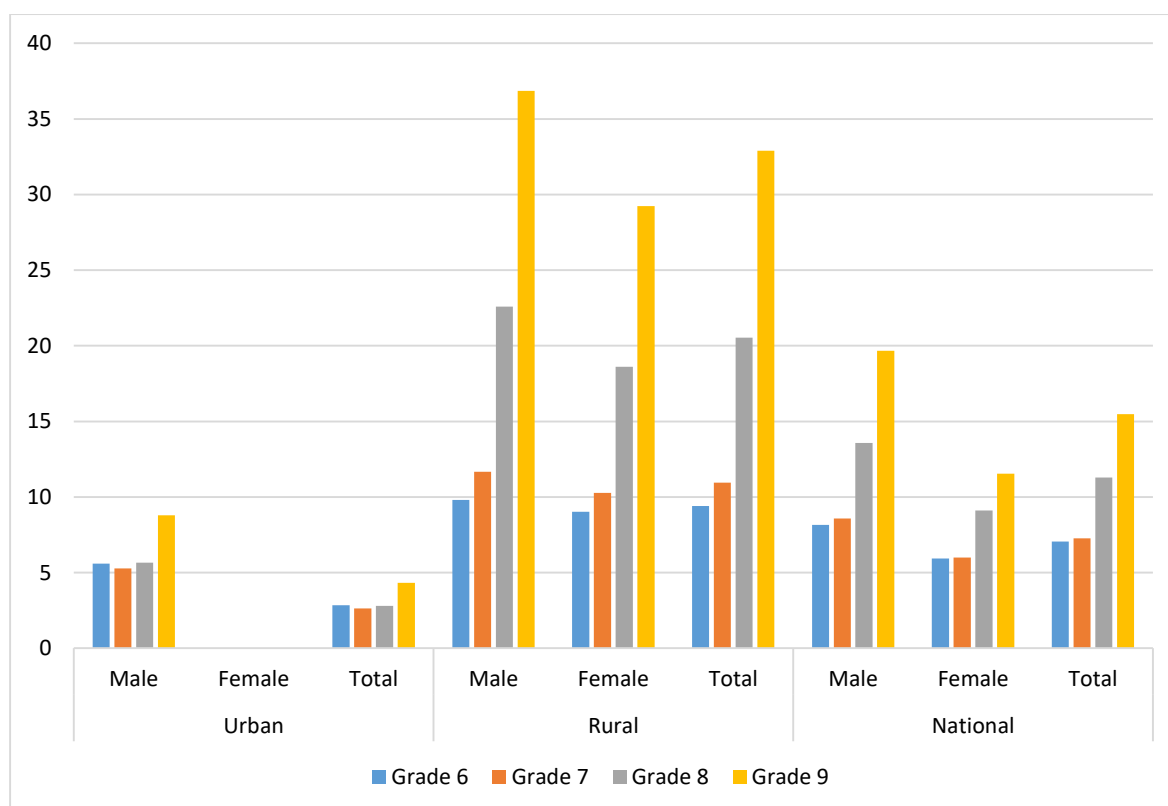
Figure 2. 20. Dropout rates for primary grades, by sex and residence



Source: Administrative Data (2014-2015), DERPT, MOE

The above figure clearly shows the large gap between urban and rural. The highest dropout rates are found in Grade 1, then decrease in grades 2 and 3, and then increase again in grades 4 and 5. The same trend is found for both sexes in rural areas, while there is no dropout among urban males in Grade 5 or among urban females in grades 2 and 3.

Figure 2. 21. Dropout rates for lower secondary grades, by sex and residence



Source: Administrative Data (2014-2015), DERPT, MOE

The above figure also shows the large gap between urban and rural dropout in lower secondary grades. Rural children are more likely to dropout than are urban children and there does not appear to be any dropout among females in urban areas likely because in urban areas male children are more apt to take part in labour. Grade 9, the last grade of lower secondary, has the highest dropout rate and Grade 6 the entry point for lower secondary, the lowest. Dropout then increases with grade for both sexes.

2.4.1.2. Dropout before the last grade, by grade and state/region

Table 2.12 represents the dropout rates before the final grade of primary and lower secondary school by state/region and by residence. Large gaps are found between urban and rural in every state and region.

Table 2. 12. Rates of dropout before final grade, primary and lower secondary, by state/region and by residence (2014-15)

State/Region	Residence	Dropout Rate before the Last Grade	
		Primary	Lower Secondary
Kachin	Total	49.0	64.2
	Urban	0	0
	Rural	62.4	83.0
Kayah	Total	26.7	20.7
	Urban	0	0
	Rural	36.6	41.2
Kayin	Total	35.1	45.5
	Urban	0	0
	Rural	41.3	62.7
Chin	Total	32.8	28.0
	Urban	0	0
	Rural	39.4	50.3
Sagaing	Total	20.5	34.0
	Urban	0	0
	Rural	24.1	49.5
Tanintharyi	Total	8.5	21.9
	Urban	0.8	0
	Rural	11.1	38.0
Bago	Total	17.8	62.8
	Urban	0	42.8
	Rural	11.2	73.5
Magwe	Total	26.5	33.6
	Urban	0	0
	Rural	30.6	46.9
Mandalay	Total	16.8	19.1
	Urban	0	3.6
	Rural	23.6	31.2
Mon	Total	20.4	17.1
	Urban	0	0
	Rural	27.0	27.6
Rakhine	Total	38.3	25.7
	Urban	0	0
	Rural	42.9	37.1
Yangon	Total	9.0	12.6
	Urban	0	3.0
	Rural	23.0	37.8
Shan	Total	29.2	25.1
	Urban	0	13.5
	Rural	40.4	37.7
Ayeyarwaddy	Total	32.8	17.4
	Urban	0	0
	Rural	19.2	17.8
Nay Pyi Taw	Total	23.8	14.8
	Urban	0	0
	Rural	33.0	27.4

Source: Administrative Data (2015), DERPT, MOE

At the primary level, for this sub-set, there is no dropout in any urban area of states or regions except in Tanintharyi. Although there is a large gap between urban and rural, indicating that rural children are more likely to drop out than urban children. Kachin State has the highest rate of dropout before the final grade, at 49 per cent, followed by Rakhine, at 38.3 per cent, and Ayeyarwaddy Region, at 32.8 per cent. Tanintharyi Region has the lowest dropout rate, at 8.5 per cent and Yangon Region, 9 per cent.

For lower secondary school, out of seven states, seven regions and Nay Pyi Taw, only Shan State, Yangon Region, Mandalay Region and Bago Region have significant dropout in urban areas. The highest dropout is in Kachin State, at 64.2 per cent, followed by Bago Region, at 62.8 per cent and Kayin State, at 45.5 per cent.

2.4.2. Survival rate

2.4.2.1. Survival rate to last grade of primary (Grade 5) and lower secondary (Grade 9)

This section analyses the survival rate to the last grade of primary school (Grade 5) and lower secondary (Grade 9). Rate of survival to the final grade is the percentage of a cohort of students who enter the first grade of primary education together and who are expected to reach the last grade, regardless of repetition. For calculation of this figure, this report uses a cohort analysis model to create the survival rate with data on two subsequent cohort groups only.

Table 2. 13. Rate of survival to last grade of primary school (Grade 5) and lower secondary (Grade 9), by sex, 2014-2015

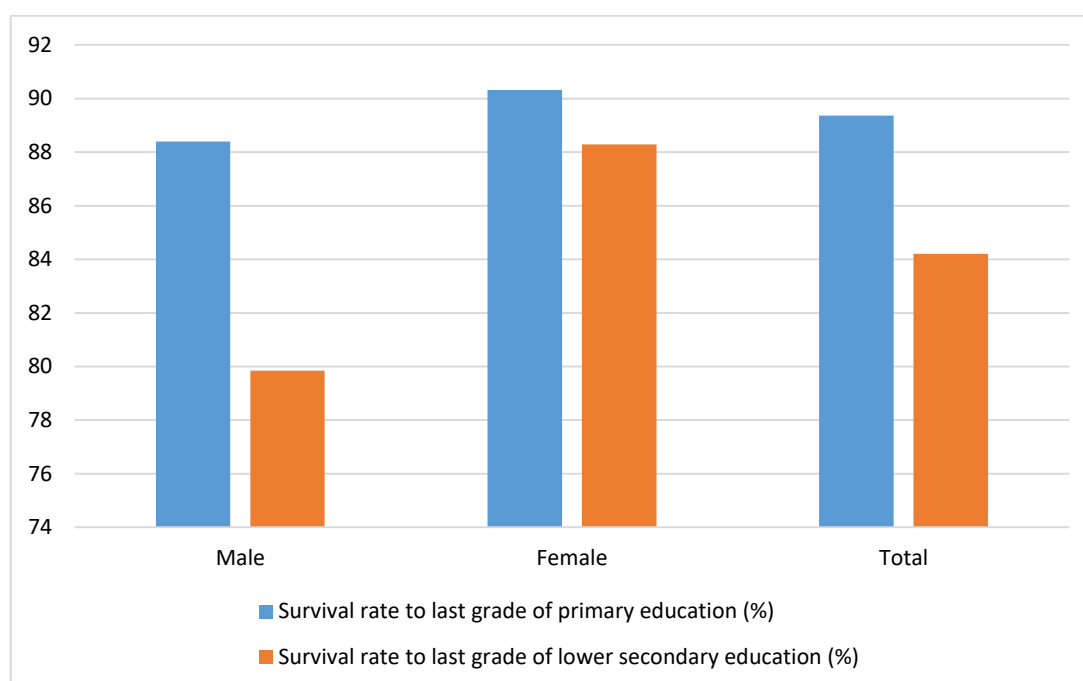
	Male	Female	Total	GPI
Rate of survival to last grade of primary education (%)	88.4	90.3	89.4	1.02
Rate of survival to last grade of lower secondary education (%)	79.8	88.3	84.2	1.11

Source: Administrative Data (2015), DERPT, MOE

For males, rate of survival to last grade of primary school is 88.4 per cent, and for females, 90.3 per cent. And with GPI at 1.02, there appears to be no major gender disparity. However, for lower secondary education, survival rate is 79.8 per cent for males and 88.3 per cent for females; with GPI at 1.11, female students are more likely to survive than male students.

Survival rate then clearly decreases considerably, from 89.4 in primary school to 84.2 in lower secondary school, pushed down perhaps by a survival rate for males of 88.4 in primary school dropping to 79.8 in lower secondary.

Figure 2. 22. Rate of survival to final grade of education, by sex (2014-2015)



Source: Administrative Data, 2015, DERPT, MOE

Table 2. 14. Rate of survival to last grade of primary school (Grade 5) and lower secondary (Grade 9), by residence, 2014-2015

Residence	Survival rate to last grade of primary education (%)				Survival rate to last grade of lower secondary education (%)			
	Male	Female	Total	GPI	Male	Female	Total	GPI
Urban	99.1	100.0	99.5	1.01	91.0	100.0	95.6	1.10
Rural	77.8	78.6	78.2	1.01	63.9	72.3	68.2	1.13
Union	88.4	90.3	89.4	1.02	79.8	88.3	84.2	1.11

Source: Administrative Data, 2015, DERPT, MOE

There are also differences in survival rate between urban and rural areas, pointing to a rate for rural children that is much lower than that for urban children. In urban areas, primary school survival rate for male students is 99.1 per cent and for female students 100 per cent, while for lower secondary these are 91.0 and 100 respectively. These rates drop dramatically in rural areas, however, bringing down the national rate.

There is little or no gender disparity in primary school, but there is high gender disparity in lower secondary school. The pink shaded areas in Table 2.15 show how male students are at more of a disadvantage than females in both urban and rural areas.

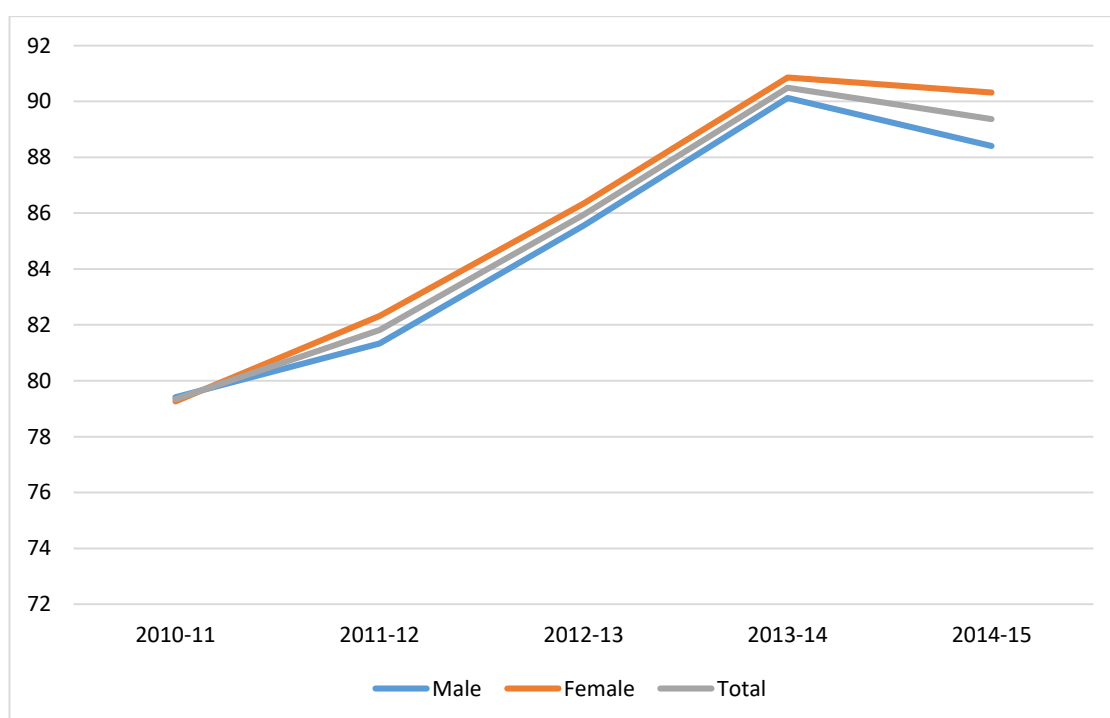
Table 2. 15. Rate of survival to final grade, five consecutive academic years (nationwide)

Academic Year	Primary School				Lower Secondary School			
	Male	Female	Total	GPI	Male	Female	Total	GPI
2010-2011	79.4	79.3	79.3	1.00	78.0	86.4	82.2	1.11
2011-2012	81.3	82.3	81.8	1.01	78.4	86.4	82.5	1.10
2012-2013	85.6	86.3	85.9	1.01	81.2	90.1	85.8	1.11
2013-2014	90.1	90.9	90.5	1.01	80.3	89.4	85.0	1.11
2014-2015	88.4	90.3	89.4	1.02	79.8	88.3	84.2	1.11

Source: Administrative Data (2011-2015), DERPT, MOE

For survival to final grade there is no gender difference for primary school but there is a significant difference for lower secondary school in all academic years, with GPI at about 1.1. Thus, at the lower secondary level, male students are at more of a disadvantage than females.

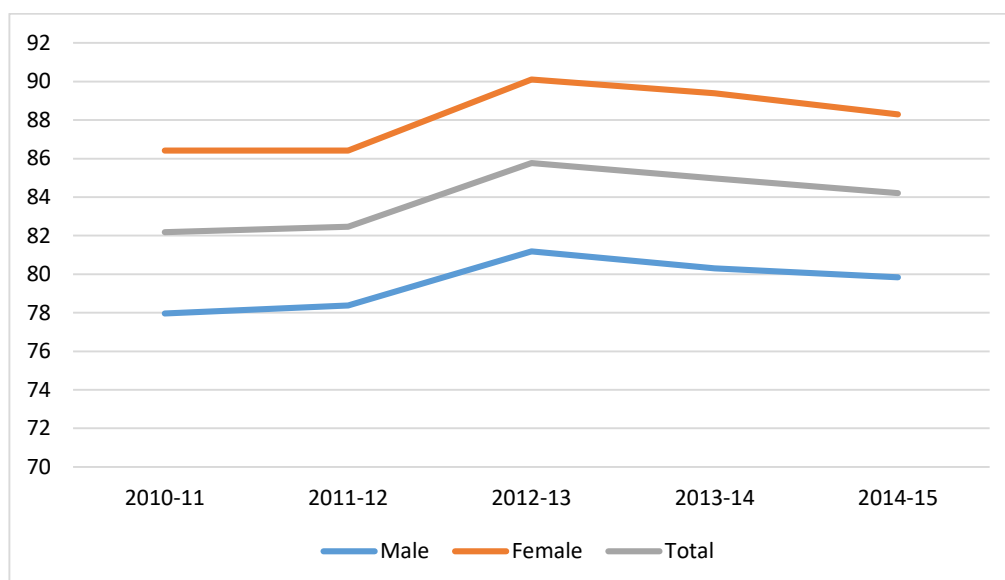
Figure 2. 23. Rate of survival to final grade of primary school, by year (2011-2015)



Source: Administrative Data (2011-2015), DERPT, MOE

In the above figure there are no discrepancies between male and female, while survival rate to last grade of primary school increases year by year, but then declines again in 2014-2015.

Figure 2. 24. Survival to last grade of lower secondary school, by year (2011-2015)



Source: Administrative Data (2011-2015), DERPT, MOE

In lower secondary school, the rates are similar between sexes, but gender disparity is high and male students survive to the final grade less often than female students.

2.4.2.2. Survival rate by grade

Table 2. 16. Rates of survival, five consecutive years, by grade (nationwide)

Academic Year	Primary (%)					Lower Secondary (%)			
	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7	Grade 8	Grade 9
2010-11	87.4	94.8	94.1	92.9	79.3	91.4	90.2	88.1	82.2
2011-12	86.1	95.3	95.5	92.7	81.8	90.4	90.3	89.1	82.5
2012-13	84.5	95.3	95.1	93.0	85.9	93.7	93.1	93.3	85.8
2013-14	83.0	94.4	95.2	92.9	90.5	93.8	93.3	92.2	85.0
2014-15	84.1	94.3	96.2	91.1	89.4	92.9	92.7	88.7	84.2

Source: Administrative Data (2011-2015), DERPT, MOE

In Grade 1, survival rate declines gradually from 2010 to 2014 and then increases again in 2014-2015. However, in Grade 5 the rate gradually increases from 2010 to 2014, and then decreases 1.1 per cent in 2014-2015. The lowest is 79.3 per cent, at Grade 5, for 2010-2011, and the highest is 96.2 per cent, at Grade 3, for 2014-2015.

Table 2.17 shows survival rate for urban areas, where the rates are high in every academic year: the lowest is 90.6 per cent at Grade 1, in 2013-2014. The highest rates are: 99.8 per cent for Grade 5 in 2010-2011 and 99.7 per cent in 2011-2012; 99.6 for Grade 2 in 2012-2013; 99.7 per cent for Grade 6 in 2013-2014; and 99.9 per cent for Grade 3 in 2014-2015. When comparing grades, survival rates are lower for Grade 1, which is the entry grade of primary school, and for Grade 9, which is the final grade of lower secondary. In general, survival rates are high in Grade 5, which is the last grade of primary school.

Table 2. 17. Rate of survival over 5 consecutive years, by grade (urban)

Academic Year	Primary (%)					Lower Secondary (%)			
	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7	Grade 8	Grade 9
2010-11	94.4	99.3	98.9	98.1	99.8	96.0	96.0	99.5	95.8
2011-12	92.6	98.7	98.8	97.4	99.7	95.9	96.9	99.4	95.7
2012-13	92.2	99.6	98.6	97.4	99.5	93.0	93.7	99.2	95.3
2013-14	90.7	97.7	97.3	96.7	99.7	99.7	99.0	98.6	95.3
2014-15	94.1	98.4	99.9	99.7	99.8	97.1	97.4	97.2	95.6

Source: Administrative Data (2011-2015), DERPT, MOE

Table 2.18 shows the survival rate for rural areas, where survival to the final grade is very low compared to urban areas, especially in the last grade of primary and lower secondary schools. The lowest rate is 60.0 per cent, at Grade 9, in 2010-2011, while the highest is 95.0 per cent, for Grade 3, in 2014-2015.

Every academic year follows the trend where survival rate is low in Grade 1 and then gradually increases up to Grade 3, then decreases again at Grade 4 and Grade 5, then increases once more at Grade 6, and then drops off until Grade 9. The highest rates are found at Grade 2 in 2010-2011 (93.6 per cent), and at Grade 3 for the four academic years of 2011-2012 (94.5 per cent), 2012-2013 (94.1 per cent), 2013-2014 (94.5 per cent), and 2014-2015 (95.0 per cent).

At Grade 5, for 2010-2011, the survival rate is 69.0, which then increases gradually to 2013-2014, then decreases again in 2014-2015. Grade 9 displays a similar trend where the rate is lowest (60.0) in 2010-2011, and then increases in 2011-2012 and 2012-2013, and then decreases again in 2013-2014 and 2014-2015.

Table 2. 18. Rates of survival over five consecutive years, by grade (rural)

Academic Year	Primary (%)					Lower Secondary (%)			
	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7	Grade 8	Grade 9
2010-11	85.7	93.6	92.8	91.3	69.0	89.0	86.9	76.4	60.0
2011-12	84.5	94.3	94.5	91.2	71.6	87.7	86.6	78.3	64.1
2012-13	82.7	94.1	94.1	91.4	78.2	94.1	92.7	87.5	72.4
2013-14	81.2	93.6	94.5	91.7	82.2	91.1	90.4	84.8	68.2
2014-15	82.2	93.0	95.0	88.5	81.2	90.6	89.0	79.4	66.6

Source: Administrative Data (2011-2015), DERPT, MOE

2.4.3. Repetition rate by grade and by sex

Repetition rate is defined as the percentage of students out of the total who repeated the same grade in the subsequent year. It is one of the key indicators for determining risk of dropout. Children who repeat a grade may lose motivation to continue or may need more years to move on to the next level, or they may face difficulties in getting support from family members.

Table 2.19 shows rate of repetition for primary and lower secondary education by grade, sex and residence, for the academic year 2014-2015, using administrative data. It reveals that repetition rates are relatively low for all grades, and the highest rate is 2.5 per cent, in Grade 9, for male students, while the lowest rate is 0.3 per cent, in Grade 7, for female students.

However, the table also shows significant repetition particularly in the lower grades of urban primary school. In urban primary Grade 1, 7.5 per cent of children fail to pass and have to repeat. This figure reduces by close to half (4.9 per cent) in Grade 2, continues reducing in Grade 3, then increases slightly in Grade 4 and Grade 5. The downward trend then continues in grades 6, 7 and 8. The rate then increases again to 2.4 per cent in Grade 9, which is the last grade of lower secondary. This may be due to national middle school completion exam.

At the Union (national) level, the repetition rate for each grade is kept down by the low repetition rates in rural areas. However, there is still concern, because the children who do repeat tend to have higher risk of dropping out before reaching the end of each school level, and the lower grade repeaters have the highest risk of dropping out in later grades. In this case, 7.5 per cent of male repeaters at Grade 1 can be considered to have the highest risk of dropout.

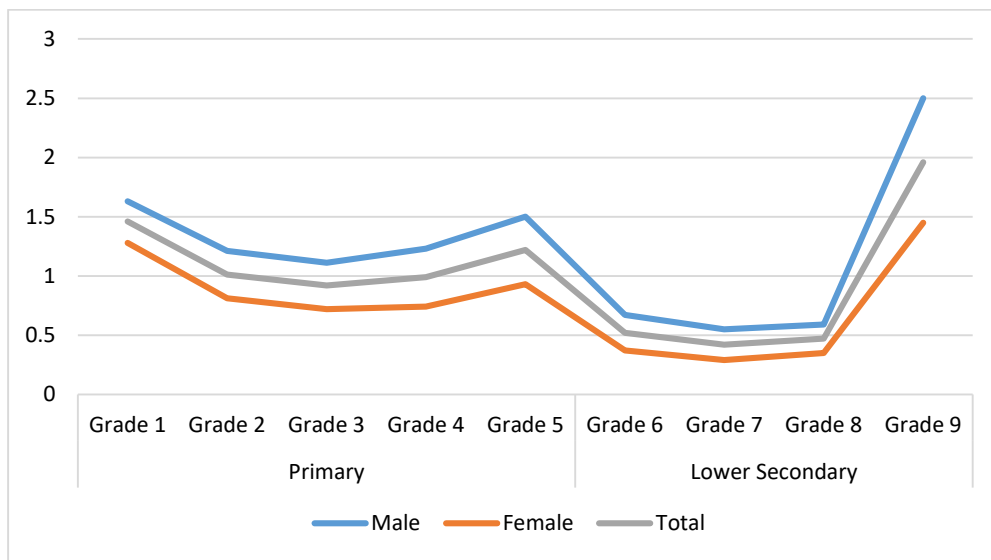
Table 2. 19. Repetition rate for primary and lower secondary school grades, by sex and by residence (2014-2015)

Grade	Primary					Lower Secondary			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Sex									
Male	1.6	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.5	0.7	0.5	0.6	2.5
Female	1.3	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.9	0.4	0.3	0.3	1.4
Both	1.5	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.2	0.5	0.4	0.4	2.0
GPI	0.79	0.67	0.65	0.60	0.62	0.55	0.53	0.59	0.58
Residence									
Urban	7.5	4.9	4.2	4.3	5.0	0.5	0.4	0.5	2.4
Rural	1.5	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.5	0.4	0.4	1.7
Union	1.5	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.2	0.5	0.4	0.5	2.0

Source: Administrative Data (2011-2015), DERPT, MOE

Figure 2.29 shows gender disparity in repetition rate, and male children have consistently higher rates of repetition than their female counterparts.

Figure 2. 25. Repetition rate by grade and by sex



Source: Administrative Data, DERPT, MOE (2014-2015)

2.4.4. Age distributions within grades

Under Myanmar Education Policy, every child of age 5 should be enrolled in formal school, and most are enrolled. Yet there are still overage children in the system, because of the late enrolment and repetition. And where dropout is significant, this may be because there are more overage students.

In general in Myanmar, age of students within a grade does not vary widely, but according to administrative data, the national figures for overage children are 10.3 per cent in primary grades, 13.8 per cent in lower secondary grades and 26.3 per cent in upper secondary grades. The actual age distribution of overage children is provided in Table 2.20, which compares administrative data and LFS data. The official age group for that year is highlighted in blue and any other ages are represented as either over or underage. It is clear from the table that the higher the grade, the higher the proportion of children who are overage.

Table 2. 20. Age distribution of overage children

Sex	Age distribution	Administrative data			LFS data		
		Primary	Lower Secondary	Upper Secondary	Primary	Lower Secondary	Upper Secondary
Male	Underage	-	-	-	0	0.24	1.0
	Official age of the grade	89.5	86.1	73.0	70.3	69.2	42.5
	1 year over	6.8	10.1	19.4	15.4	17.3	31.1
	2 years over	2.8	2.8	7.6	6.5	9.2	25.4
	3 years over	0.7	0.7	-	4.9	2.9	0
	4 years over	0.3	0.2	-	2.8	1.2	0
	Total overage	10.6	13.9	27.0	29.7	30.6	56.5
Female	Underage	-	-	-	0	0.2	1.1
	Official age of the grade	89.8	86.4	74.3	72.0	71.9	40.4

	1 year over	6.7	10.1	20.4	14.8	16.7	31.9
	2 years over	2.5	2.7	5.4	5.5	7.3	26.6
	3 years over	0.7	0.6	-	5.0	2.9	0
	4 years over	0.3	0.1	-	2.7	1	0
	Total overage	10.1	13.6	25.7	28.0	27.9	58.5
Total	underage	-	-	-	0	0.2	1.0
	Official age of the grade	89.6	86.2	73.7	71.1	70.6	41.4
	1 year over	6.8	10.1	19.9	15.1	17.0	31.5
	2 years over	2.6	2.8	6.3	6.0	8.2	26.1
	3 years over	0.7	0.7	-	4.9	2.9	0
	4 years over	0.3	0.2	-	2.8	1.1	0
	Total overage	10.3	13.7	26.3	28.9	29.2	57.6

Source: Administrative Data (2014-2015), LFS (2015)

There is a data gap between administrative data and LFS data, and discrepancies arise when comparing participation rates in education and the number of OOSC generated from administrative and household survey data. This is often due to methodological and other issues. The collection of enrolment data from schools does not always coincide with household surveys, which also collect attendance data. Household surveys are also often not coordinated with the academic calendar and the timing of a survey can affect estimates of participation rates and age reporting.

The household survey used here was conducted from 1 January to 31 March, 2015, but the survey period was extended in Rakhine State to 30 April 2015 because these are remote, conflict areas. The LFS covered the whole Union of Myanmar, however due to the insurgency in Shan State and difficulty accessing certain areas, parts of Shan State, such as Wan Hong, Maing Maw, Wein Kung, Mine Pauk, Pan San Township and Kyuhme Township's sub-township of Mong Long of could not be surveyed. Kachin, Kayin and Chin states were also not surveyed entirely due to difficulty in accessing them.

Both data sources of still point to no gender disparity among overage children.

According to administrative data in Table 2.21, about 10 per cent of children in primary school and 14 per cent of children in lower secondary school are overage. In primary school, about 6 per cent of children are overage by at least one year for their year level while in lower secondary school, nearly 10 per cent of children are one year overage for their year level. Many of the overage children from primary school have ages in the range of 10 to 13, whereas a majority of overage children from lower secondary school are within the 14-to-16 bracket.

In Table 2.21, LFS data further point out that about 30 per cent of children in primary school and lower secondary school are overage, and the highest percentage, 15.1, are in primary school, while 17.0 per cent in lower secondary school are less than one year overage. There are also underage children in lower secondary school, but rates are less significant.

2.4.5. Expected to dropout

Table 2.21 presents the percentage and number of children in primary education who are expected to drop out before Grade 5, by academic year. Except for 2010-2011, expected rate of dropout before Grade 5 increased, from 16.1 per cent in 2011-2012 to 18.1 per cent in 2014-2015. It also suggests that male children are more likely to drop out by grade 5 than female children.

Table 2. 21. Percentage and number of children in primary education expected to drop out before the last grade (2011-2015)

Academic Year	Expected to Dropout						
	Male		Female		Total		GPI
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	
2010-2011	18.1	387,486	15.2	313,313	16.7	700,799	0.84
2011-2012	16.6	360,355	15.3	316,652	16.1	677,007	0.92
2012-2013	17.4	382,571	15.8	330,554	16.8	713,125	0.91
2013-2014	18.0	392,625	17.5	362,143	17.6	754,768	0.97
2014-2015	19.8	429,414	16.6	341,318	18.1	770,732	0.84

Source: Administrative Data (2011-2015), DERPT, MOE

Table 2.22 shows percentage of children in primary education expected to drop out before the last grade, by residence (location), and reveals that expected dropout is high for rural areas for all five consecutive academic years. In 2014-2015, the rates are 19.8 per cent for males, 16.6 per cent for females and 18.1 per cent for both sexes. In primary education, for rural males, rates are six times higher than for urban males and 20 times higher for females.

Table 2. 22. Percentage and number of children in primary education expected to drop out before the last grade, by residence (location) (2011-2015)

Residence	Sex	Expected to dropout	2010-2011	2011-2012	2012-2013	2013-2014	2014-2015
Urban	Male	%	4.4	4.8	9.2	9.3	4.2
		Number	20,541	22,401	42,967	42,272	19,203
	Female	%	4.4	7.1	2.2	8.2	1.3
		Number	19,376	31,571	9,681	36,049	5,748
	Total	%	4.4	6.0	5.8	8.7	2.8
		Number	39,917	53,972	53,648	78,327	24,951
Rural	Male	%	21.9	19.7	19.4	19.3	24.1
		Number	365,762	338,203	334,485	333,062	414,501
	Female	%	18.2	17.6	20.1	21.1	20.8
		Number	293,224	286,322	332,179	345,643	335,978
	Total	%	20.0	19.0	19.9	20.1	22.3
		Number	658,986	624,525	666,664	678,705	750,479
National	Male	%	18.1	16.6	17.4	18.0	19.8
		Number	387,486	360,355	382,571	392,625	429,414
	Female	%	15.2	15.3	15.8	17.5	16.6
		Number	313,313	316,652	330,554	362,143	341,318
	Total	%	16.7	16.1	16.8	17.6	18.1
		Number	700,799	677,007	713,125	754,768	770,732

Source: Administrative Data (2011-2015), DERPT, MOE

The large gap between urban and rural areas can be seen in the table, which points out that the highest rates are found in rural areas, especially in 2014-2015.

Table 2.23 shows the percentage of children in lower secondary education expected to drop out before the last grade, for five consecutive years. The rates decrease from 20.7 per cent in 2010-2011 to 14.2 per cent in 2013-2014, but increase again to 18.1 per cent in 2014-2015. GPI is less than 0.97 in all five years, thus male children are more likely to drop out than females.

Table 2. 23. Percentage and number of children in lower secondary education expected to drop out before the last grade (2011-2015)

Academic Year	Expected Dropout						GPI
	Male		Female		Total		
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	
2010-2011	20.2	184,523	19.4	178,526	20.7	363,049	0.96
2011-2012	20.9	195,629	17.8	170,615	20.0	366,244	0.86
2012-2013	13.2	131,501	11.9	121,602	13.4	253,103	0.91
2013-2014	15.5	163,721	11.4	123,490	14.2	287,211	0.73
2014-2015	21.0	223,713	14.7	163,045	18.1	386,758	0.70

Source: Administrative Data (2011-2015), DERPT, MOE

Percentage of children in lower secondary education expected to drop out before the last grade is shown by residence (location) in Table 2.24. As with primary education, there is a large gap between urban and rural areas, revealing how rural children in lower secondary are more likely to drop out than urban children in the same grade.

Table 2. 24. Percentage and number of children in lower secondary education expected to drop out before the last grade, by residence (2011-2015)

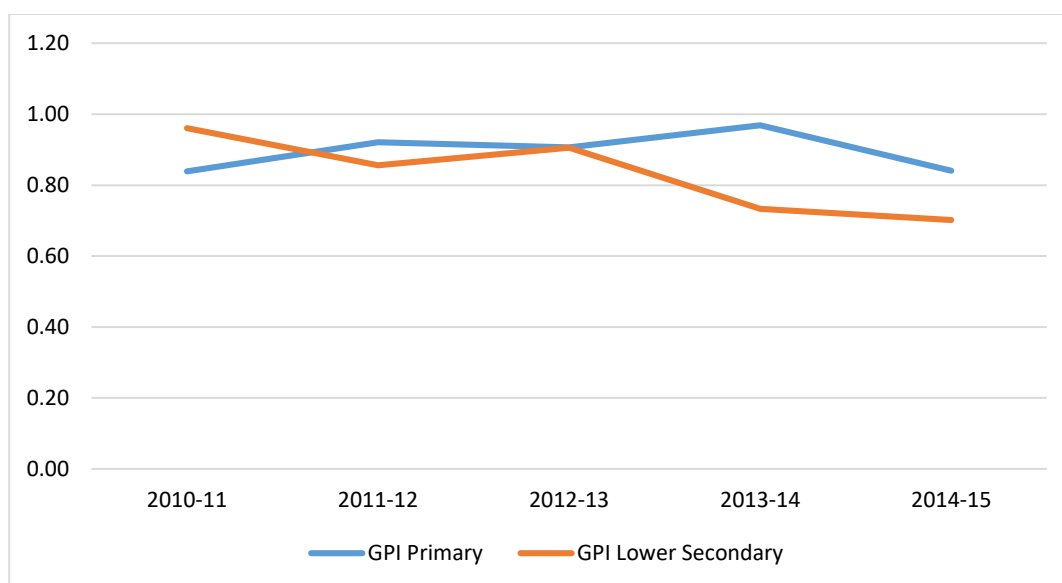
Residence	Sex	Expected to dropout	2010-2011	2011-2012	2012-2013	2013-2014	2014-2015
Urban	Male	%	5.8	5.4	9.4	3.8	11.1
		Number	19,130	18,378	31,311	13,578	39,126
	Female	%	3.1	2.6	5.5	0.3	0
		Number	10,113	8,868	18,625	915	0
	Total	%	4.6	4.2	7.4	2.2	5.5
		Number	29,243	27,246	49,936	14,493	39,126
Rural	Male	%	33.09	34.16	18.3	25.1	31.2
		Number	193,727	204,962	121,945	175,731	222,596
	Female	%	31.0	28.9	16.0	19.9	26.8
		Number	183,727	179,374	109,264	145,544	198,686
	Total	%	33.7	32.6	19.0	23.8	29.4
		Number	377,454	384,336	231,209	321,275	421,282

Union	Male	%	20.2	20.9	13.2	15.5	21.0
		Number	184,523	195,629	131,501	163,721	223,713
	Female	%	19.4	17.8	11.9	11.4	14.7
		Number	178,526	170,615	121,602	123,490	163,045
	Total	%	20.7	20.0	13.4	14.2	18.1
		Number	363,049	366,244	253,103	287,211	386,758

Source: Administrative Data (2011-2015), DERPT, MOE

Figure 2.30 shows GPI for expected dropout before the last grade for five consecutive years: less than 0.97 except in primary (2013-2014). There is thus a gender difference, and male children are more likely to drop out of both primary and lower secondary than female children.

Figure 2. 26. Gender parity index for expected dropout before the last grade, by year



Source: Administrative Data, DERPT, MOE (2011-2015)

In Table 2.25 below, the light green cells represent where there is zero expected dropout, while gold signifies percentage of expected dropout less than 10 per cent and grey represents expected dropout greater than 90 per cent. For both primary and lower secondary education, the urban areas of Kachin State show zero expected dropout, for primary education, Kayin State shows zero expected dropout in urban areas, and for lower secondary education urban areas of Chin State also show zero. The urban areas of Kayah, Chin, Sagaing, Mandalay, Mon, Yangon and Nay Pyi Taw had expected to drop out of less than 10 per cent for primary education while urban areas of Sagaing, Magwe, Mon, Rakhine and Yangon had the same expected dropout for in lower secondary. The rural areas of Kachin had expected dropout greater than 90 per cent at the primary and lower secondary levels, and rural areas of Bago had similar rates for lower secondary level. Kachin State had the highest percentages of expected dropout, at 83.1 per cent for primary education, and Bago Region had 92.8 per cent for lower secondary, shown in red in the table. These rates may be what is pushing OOSC rates up overall.

The risks for dropping out before the last grade of primary education are found not only in rural areas but also in urban areas. Though a large gap between urban and rural is also found, which points out that rural children are more likely to drop out than urban children. Yangon had the lowest expected dropout, at 19.9 per cent, followed by Mandalay Region, at 23.7 per cent, both lower than rural rates, although still high.

As with primary education, there is considerable expected dropout before the last grade of lower secondary education in both rural and urban areas. The highest rates are in Bago and Kachin and the lowest in Yangon, Mandalay and Nay Pyi Taw, where the rates are 25.8 per cent, 33.8 per cent and 37.0 per cent respectively.

Table 2. 25. Number and percentage of children expected to drop out before the last grade of primary and lower secondary education, by state/region and by residence (2015)

State/Region	Residence (location)	Expected dropout before last grade of primary		Expected dropout before last grade of lower secondary	
		Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Kachin	Total	117,500	83.1	76,460	84.97
	Urban	0	0.00	0	0.00
	Rural	101,997	91.4	57,560	95.8
Kayah	Total	10,351	35.9	6,783	41.2
	Urban	34	0.5	1,155	16.5
	Rural	10,395	47.0	5,742	60.5
Kayin	Total	99,497	63.5	53,768	77.2
	Urban	0	0.00	4,728	22.1
	Rural	96,452	70.0	43,030	89.1
Chin	Total	32,230	49.9	13,897	48.4
	Urban	397	4.6	0	0.00
	Rural	31,775	56.8	14,332	70.0
Sagaing	Total	140,872	32.0	139,915	54.3
	Urban	559	1.0	3,002	5.6
	Rural	140,189	36.5	140,001	68.6
Tanintharyi	Total	40,557	26.0	29,109	43.0
	Urban	9,856	29.4	2,260	10.6
	Rural	31,035	25.4	27,665	59.6
Bago	Total	133,369	32.0	190,317	92.8
	Urban	29,464	40.1	42,161	78.5
	Rural	72,200	21.0	145,788	96.3
Magwe	Total	94,836	31.0	92,861	49.8
	Urban	5,484	14.1	682	1.8
	Rural	90,859	34.1	94,252	62.9
Mandalay	Total	98,157	23.7	87,361	33.8
	Urban	5,947	5.4	11,376	11.9
	Rural	93,515	30.8	78,008	47.8
Mon	Total	150,459	81.2	36,248	40.5
	Urban	1,384	3.4	205	0.7
	Rural	121,323	83.9	35,023	56.3
Rakhine	Total	239,102	62.2	48,765	44.2
	Urban	2,831	8.5	97	0.4
	Rural	233,778	66.5	49,601	57.7
Yangon	Total	84,842	19.9	72,010	25.8

	Urban	1,366	0.5	5,439	3.0
	Rural	77,612	44.0	60,715	64.1
Shan	Total	214,636	49.3	75,618	43.8
	Urban	12,397	12.5	13,828	19.2
	Rural	202,573	60.2	61,840	61.5
Ayeyarwaddy	Total	319,701	53.5	90,818	35.3
	Urban	14,795	23.0	6,093	11.4
	Rural	239,135	44.8	77,445	38.1
Nay Pyi Taw	Total	37,365	39.6	19,872	37.0
	Urban	286	1.1	9,029	37.7
	Rural	35,200	51.3	11,640	39.0

Source: Administrative Data (2015), DERPT, MOE

2.5. Profiles of excluded children

In Myanmar, children living in remote areas and those in extreme poverty are more likely to be excluded from education, to have never enrolled or to have dropped out or be at risk of dropping out. Children with disabilities, children involved in labour and those affected by security emergencies and natural disasters also merit special concern.

- ***Language as a form of exclusion***

In its component on Inclusive Education, the Myanmar Education Consortium Baseline Study Report cites the inability to speak Burmese as a barrier for children in ethnic areas attending secondary and higher education, because government schools, which are the majority, do not offer instruction in ethnic minority languages.³⁴

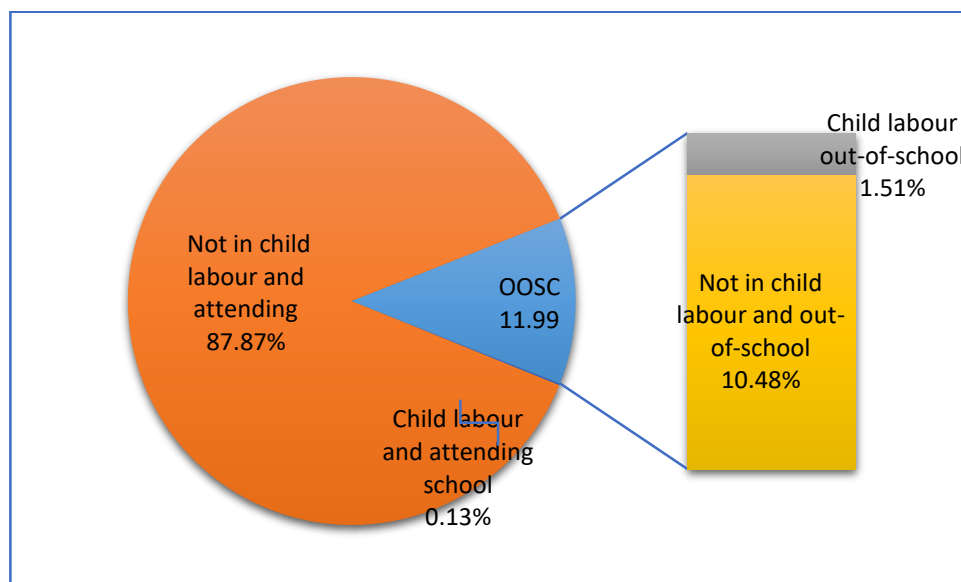
- ***Child labour in Myanmar***

LFS 2015 data show that children who work are much more likely to be out of school than children who do not work. At primary school age, 36.8 per cent of children who engage in child labour are out of school, while at lower secondary school age, 94.5 per cent of children involved in labour are out of school. And among lower secondary OOSC, only a few per cent are *not* involved in labour.

Among children aged 5 to 13 attending school *and* involved in labour, there is no gender disparity, but among out-of-school children who *are* involved in labour, males are far more heavily represented.

³⁴ "Myanmar Education Consortium Baseline Study Report Inclusive Education Component". DantDaLun Management and Consulting Services, January 2015. p. 9.

Figure 2. 27. School attendance among children age 5-13, both involved in labour and not involved in labour



Source: LFS (2015)

By state and region, differences in rates of child labour are not extraordinary, however there is a large gap between the highest and lowest: 18.6 per cent vs. 0.9 per cent, while in Kayah and Shan States, and Tanintharyi, Magwe and Mandalay Regions, *all* out-of-school children are involved in labour. And in Bago Region and Rakhine State, more than 90 per cent of OOSC are involved in labour. The lowest rates are in Chin State (15.6 per cent) and Nay Pyi Taw (56.9 per cent), and as with many other indicators, rates of OOSC involved in labour are highest in rural areas.

- **Disability**

“Disability” is most often described as a physical impairment, a difficulty with communication, a “mental or learning” impairment or “as having a low IQ”, and in some cases derogatory terms are used.³⁵ Article 1 of the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) describes persons with disabilities as “those who have long-term physical, mental, intellectual or sensory impairments, which, in interaction with various barriers, may hinder their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others.”

The 2014 Myanmar National Census reveals that there are approximately 17.2 million children in total in Myanmar and that 1.3 per cent of them, or 232,021, have disabilities. According to the 2016 Situational Analysis of Children with Disabilities in Myanmar³⁶, 67 per cent of the children with disabilities are out of the formal education system and do not attend school. This represents an exponentially higher percentage of disabled children out of school nationwide than children without disabilities, just 11 per cent of whom do not attend school according to the most recent national census.³⁷

An overwhelming 93 per cent of 2-to-4-year-olds with disabilities have no exposure to school readiness programmes, while attendance of children with disabilities at monastic schools, vocational

³⁵ UNICEF 2016. Situation Analysis of Children with Disabilities in the Republic of the Union of Myanmar. Yangon, UNICEF Myanmar. p. 2

³⁶ Ibid. p. 2

³⁷ Ibid. p. 2

training centres and special schools was found to be negligible.³⁸ Also, according to LFS data,, 46.7 per cent of primary age disabled children and 39.2 per cent of lower secondary age disabled children are out of school. There is gender disparity as well, both in primary and lower secondary, and male disabled children are out of school in greater numbers than female disabled children.

2.6. Summary of findings by dimension

This chapter focused on the profiles of out-of-school children in Myanmar covering preschool age children (Dimension 1), primary age (Dimension 2) and lower secondary school age (Dimension 3) as well as children in primary education (Dimension 4) and lower secondary (Dimension 5) who are at risk of dropping out.

Dimension 1: Children of pre-primary school age (4 years old) who are not in pre-primary or primary school

The OOSC rate among children age 4 is 76.6 per cent and percentage of pre-primary age children included in education is still very low, while GPI for out-of-school children aged 4 is 0.99. Preschools tend to be operated by different kinds of entities, including government, non-government organizations and the private sector, with NGOs providing the bulk, followed by the private sector. And by geography alone, there are more OOSC in the 4-year-old age group in rural areas than in urban areas (80.6 per cent vs. 63.56 per cent).

Dimension 2: Children of primary school age who are not in primary or secondary school

These are primary age children (5-9 years) who have left school early or who have never enrolled school. Based on 2015 LFS data, about 12.3 per cent of primary age children are out of school while according to administrative data, rates decreased year by year from 2012-2013 to 2015-2016.

Among 5-year-olds, who are at the entry age for formal school, 49 per cent are not in any form of education, and while adjusted net enrolment rate (ANER) shows the largest percentage of out-of-school children among this age group, this drops dramatically to 10 per cent at age 6 and 4 per cent between ages 7 and 9.

For primary school age, GPI among OOSC is 0.87, which means that more male children are out of school than female children and there are two full percentage points difference between the two, which is considered large. This may be because, in the 5-year-old age group, there are 10.9 per cent more male children out of school than female, which will likely carry over.

In terms of geographical differences, there are 11.9 per cent OOSC in urban areas and 12.4 per cent in rural areas, while GPI for urban areas is 0.75 and for rural areas 0.9. By state and region, percentages of children attending school do not differ much except for Rakhine State, where only 65.1 per cent of children are in school, while the average for other states and regions is about 85 per cent. Kayin, Chin, Mon and Rakhine states - and Sagaing and Tanintharyi regions - also exceed the national average for OOSC in primary age children. Rakhine State has the highest percentage of OOSC, at 34.3 per cent, followed by Kayin State, at 14.8 and Mon State at 13.9. There is also a 19.5 per cent gap between the

³⁸ Ibid. p. 2

highest and the second highest rates, and Nay Pyi Taw has the lowest, at 7.5 per cent, just below Kachin (8.2 per cent), Magwe (8.5 per cent), Shan (9.3 per cent) and Kayah (9.8 per cent).

Analysis of the OOSC rate indicates wide variation by wealth index quintile too, as well as by education level of head of household and disability status of the child.

Economic status particularly affects whether or not a child is in school, and highest OOSC rate found, 17.2 per cent, is in the lowest quintile, then dropping to 7.3 per cent by the highest quintile.

Educational attainment of parents influences OOSC rates in a similar manner, which drops as parents' level of education gets higher: where household head's level of education is secondary or higher, OOSC is only 7.4 per cent.

Also for this dimension:

- at primary age, 36.8 per cent of children involved in labour are out of school;
- 46.7 per cent of primary age disabled children are out of school; and
- there are more boys with disabilities out of school than girls, while disabled children are more likely to be out of school in general than children without disabilities.

Dimension 3: Children of lower secondary school age not in primary school or higher

Dimension 3 represents lower secondary age children (10-13) who have left school early or who have never enrolled in school. Based on 2015 LFS data, 11.7 per cent of children in this age group are out of school and GPI is 0.95, which means that more male children are out of school than female. From age 10 to 11, LFS data show more females out of school than males, however males again are more likely to be out of school at age 12-13. There is a 2.4-per-cent difference in OOSC rates at age 13 between males and females and percentage of children out of school in lower secondary school age tends to be higher as age increases in general. At age 10, OOSC rates are 8.2 per cent, for example, but this jumps to 18.5 per cent by age 13.

The OOSC rate increases year by year for the lower secondary school age group from 2013-2014 forward, based on administrative data. As with the primary school age group, based on LFS data, children in urban areas are less likely to drop out than children living in rural areas, while in lower secondary, the OOSC rates for both males and females in rural areas are higher than those for urban areas. The OOSC rate for rural males is 4.5 per cent and for rural females is 3.2 per cent, which suggests that rural male children are more likely to be out of school than urban male children, and rural female children are more likely to be out of school than urban female children at the lower secondary level. While, in general, rural children are at a greater disadvantage than urban children.

Regarding geographical differences, OOSC rates for lower secondary vary widely across states and regions. Where the national rate for lower secondary is 11.7 per cent, three states - Kayah, Kayin and Rakhine - and one region, Ayeyarwaddy - exceed this. The OOSC rate in lower secondary for Mon State was 11.3 per cent and for Shan State, 11.4 per cent, both close to the national average. But Rakhine State, for example, had 35.4 per cent OOSC in lower secondary while the lowest were Chin, at 4.2 per cent, and Nay Pyi Taw, also at 4.2 per cent.

OOSC rates by wealth quintile, parents' level of education and disability (of the child) show trends similar to that for primary school age: in the lowest quintile, 17.7 per cent of children are out of school based on 2015 data. This is only 6 per cent among children in the highest quintile, while the lower the level of educational attainment of parents, the more likely a child is to be out of school.

According to profile analysis for this dimension, 94.5 per cent of children who are involved in child labour are also out of school, and among OOSC, only a few per cent are not involved in child labour, while 39.2 per cent of disabled children in this age group are out of school. Male disabled children are more likely to be out of school than female children and in general children with disabilities are more likely to be out of school than children without disabilities.

Dimension 4: Children who are in primary school but at risk of dropping out

This dimension represents all children, of any age, in primary school, who are at risk of dropping out. Currently, 15.7 per cent of students leave school in Grade 1, the entry point for basic education, and 10.5 per cent of students drop out at Grade 5, the final grade of lower primary school. There are large gaps between male and female here, and in all grades males are more likely to dropout than females. Administrative data also show that, compared to urban areas, children who live in rural areas are at greater risk of dropping out throughout all grades, and from the large gaps in dropout between urban and rural before the final grade in all states and regions it is clear that rural children are much more likely to drop out than urban children. But in terms of gender, survival rate to the last grade of primary education is 88.4 for males and 90.3 for females. And with GPI at 1.02, within the 0.97 and 1.03 range indicating no major disparity, there is no significant gender disparity.

Between urban and rural, however, survival rates for rural children are much lower than those for urban children and it is probably the rural rates that depress the national rates. In primary school there is no gender disparity and rate of survival to the last grade in this level increases year by year for years for which there are data, although it declines again in 2014-2015. In Grade 1, survival rate declines gradually from the 2010-2011 academic year to the 2013-2014 academic year, and then increases again in 2014-2015. However, in Grade 5, survival rate gradually increases from 2010 to 2014, and then decreases 1.12 per cent in 2014-2015.

Repetition rates are low for all grades of primary education, while male children consistently have higher rates of repetition than their female counterparts. Comparing rates for specific grades, the lower grades of urban primary school have particularly high rates, and in Grade 1, for example, 7.5 per cent of children fail to pass and have to repeat. This figure drops to 4.9 per cent by Grade 2, however, and continues reducing in Grade 3, then increases slightly in Grade 4 and Grade 5.

The national repetition rate for each grade is low, however, since repetition rates for rural areas are low. However, the children who continue repeating the same grade normally have potential risk of dropping out before reaching the end of each school level, and the lower grade repeaters have the highest risk of dropping out at later grades. In this case, the 7.5 per cent of male repeaters at Grade 1 have the highest risk of dropping out in the future.

And there may also be a correlation between high dropout and age of students: children who are overage for their grade may be at higher risk of dropout. The age of children attending a grade generally does not vary widely and according to administrative data, the national rate for overage children in primary grades is 10.3 per cent.

The data show that expected dropout before Grade 5 increased from 16.1 per cent in 2011-2012 to 18.1 per cent in 2014-2015, and that, in primary education, male children are always more likely than female children to drop out by Grade 5.

Expected dropout for rural areas was high for all five consecutive years: in 2014-2015, rates for males were at 19.8 per cent, and for females were 16.6 per cent; and combined, 18.1 per cent. Rates for

rural males in primary education were also six times higher than for urban males, and for rural females were 20 times higher than for urban females.

Dimension 5: Children who are in lower secondary school but at risk of dropping out

Dimension 5 represents all children, any age, in lower secondary school who are at risk of dropping out. The highest dropout rate, 15.5 per cent, is found in Grade 9, the final grade of lower secondary, and the lowest, of 7.0 per cent, is found in Grade 6, the entry point. Dropout rates increase with grade for both sexes and gender disparity also increases with grade, where males are more likely to drop out than females in all grades.

Male students are thus at greater risk of exclusion and this is largely because they are more likely to take part in labour as they grow. Kachin State has the highest rate of dropout before the last grade of lower secondary, at 64.2 per cent, followed by Bago Region, at 62.8 per cent, and Kayin State, at 45.5 per cent, with a large gap between urban and rural. Rate of survival to final grade of lower secondary is 79.8 per cent for males and 88.3 per cent for females, and the GPI of 1.11 suggests that female students are more likely complete this level than male students.

Overall survival for this level also represents a considerable drop from primary level, from 89.4 per cent to 84.2 per cent, chiefly due to the drops in survival to final grade among male students, which went from 88.4 per cent in primary school to the 79.8 per cent mentioned above.

There are considerable differences between urban and rural as well, with much higher dropout in rural, the rates for which also drive up overall dropout rates nationally. While, as with the other dimensions, rate of survival to the last grade (Grade 9) is low.

Yet repetition rates are low for all grades in this dimension, with the highest, among male students, at just 2.5 per cent in Grade 9 and the lowest at 0.3 among female students in Grade 7. In general, national repetition rates are low, likely due to the low rates in rural areas, while male children have consistently higher rates of repetition than their female counterparts. Administrative data further show that 13.7 per cent of children in this dimension are over age; nearly 10 per cent of children are one year overage and the majority are within the 14-to-16 age bracket. Male children are more likely to drop out here as well, and as with primary education, there is a large gap between urban and rural, with the highest rates in Bago and Kachin and the lowest in Yangon, Mandalay and Nay Pyi Taw.

CHAPTER 3. CHAPTER 3 Barriers to School Participation and Policy Responses

Which barriers are the most harmful

This chapter aims to identify the barriers that are keeping children out of school, and particularly the critical barriers that are either particularly widespread, or particularly severe in their effects. What do children and parents themselves say about the reasons for being out of school? Recent direct evidence on this question is sparse. The 2009 Integrated Household Living Condition Assessment Survey 2009 (IHLCAS) and 2015 LFS provide the data to answer this.

Table 3. 1. Reasons that out-of-school children cite for not attending school (LFS 2015)

Reasons	Percentage
Costs not affordable	27.6
Personal illness	4.0
Lack of interest/poor grades	18.6
To care for family	13.1
Agricultural work	12.2
Other (non-agricultural) work	1.8
School too far away	14.4
Other	8.3

Source: LFS (2015)

Just over 27 per cent of children out of school gave their reason for not attending school as “costs not affordable”, followed by “lack of interest/poor grades” (18.6 per cent), “school too far away” (14.4 per cent), “to care for family” (13.1 per cent) and “agricultural work” (12.2 per cent). Four per cent responded “personal illness” and 1.8 per cent said “other (non-agricultural) work”.

Just over 27 per cent of children not attending school said it was because they had to care for family or they had to earn money. The reason, “costs not affordable”, is also concerned with the families’ economic status or living conditions. “Lack of interest or poor grades”, and “distance to school” are also common reasons, while “personal illness” is relatively rare. IHLCAS 2009-2010 also presents children’s reasons for not attending school. The responses below are from the children who attended last year (one year before IHLCA survey - i.e., 2008-2009 academic year) but did not continue.

Table 3. 2. Responses by children who attended last year but did not continue (IHLCAS, 2009-2010)

Reasons	Percentage
Costs too much	24.9
Personal illness	2.1
Lack of interest/poor grades	27.6
To care for family	2.32
Agricultural work	17.4
Other (non-agricultural) work	13.5
School too far away	8.4
No teacher	3.6

No school supplies	0.04
No clothing/shoes	0.05
Bad weather	0.01
Other	0.01

As shown in the table above, 32.0 per cent of children leave school because their families' economic conditions force them to work. Just over 27 per cent also answered "lack of interest/poor grades", a reason possibly to do with school quality and with youth attitudes toward education. But cost plays a major role as well, and distance to school, especially in rural areas, is another barrier, while personal illness, to care for family, lack of a teacher, lack of school supplies, lack of clothing/shoes and bad weather are relatively rare. Thus, based on IHLCAS and LFS, the main reasons are (1) costs not affordable, (2) lack of interest, (3) to perform agricultural work, (4) to care for family, (5) to perform (non-agricultural) work, and (6) personal illness. The first of these is a direct cost of schooling, while the third through fifth (agricultural work, non-agricultural work and to care for family) are opportunity costs of schooling. The CESR Phase 2 supplementary analysis found as well that, "In terms of opportunity costs, agricultural work and care for family are more important in rural areas, with non-agricultural work more important in urban areas".³⁹

A literature review has also identified a longer list of barriers for which there is some evidence. Table 3.3 in Annexe B lists these barriers, along with an assessment of their magnitude and severity based on the framework provided by the global OOSCI. Based on both this review and on discussions with stakeholders in the Barrier Analysis Workshop, six barriers are particularly critical for out-of-school children, including:

1. Poverty
2. Child labour
3. Inadequate supply of early childhood development services (ECCD) and schools
4. Lack of access to education for children with disabilities
5. Geographical considerations, including
 - a. hard-to-reach areas
 - b. natural disasters
6. Relevance of education and engagement with parents, including issues related to:
 - a. Education infrastructure
 - b. Curricula
 - c. Teachers
 - d. Exam systems
 - e. Access to alternative education
 - f. Access to technical and vocational training

These critical barriers are discussed in detail in the following sections, together with relevant policies and recommendations for action.

³⁹ Myanmar Comprehensive Education Sector Review (CESR) Phase 2: *"In-Depth Analysis. Supplementary Annex: Updated Analysis of Education Access, Retention, and Attainment in Myanmar, with a Focus on Post-Primary Education"*. 3 February 2014; minor updates/revision 30 May 2015. p. 14

3.1. Barrier 1: Poverty

Poverty is the most critical barrier for accessing education, and since a higher percentage of poor people live in rural areas, this barrier especially effects children in rural areas. According to LFS data and IHLCA data, the main reasons why children leave school are “costs not affordable” and “costs too much”, and even though Myanmar has made progress toward universal, free, compulsory primary education, costs of schooling remain a critical barrier.

Myanmar also remains one of the poorest nations in Southeast Asia, and despite great strides in reducing absolute poverty in recent years, as of 2016 it ranks 145th out of 188 on the Human Development Index.⁴⁰ Based on IHLCA, headcount poverty declined from 32.1 per cent in 2004-2005 to 25.6 per cent in 2009-2010, and then to 19.4 per cent in 2015. And a World Bank revised estimate showed a decline of a similar magnitude: poverty dropped from 44.5 per cent in 2004 to 37.5 per cent in 2009-2010, and then to 26.1 per cent in 2015.

The profile analysis still shows, however, that poverty remains substantial, especially in rural areas, where people rely on agricultural and casual employment for their livelihood. Those who live near the poverty line are especially susceptible to economic shocks.⁴¹

3.1.1. The national rural poverty reduction strategy

As at least 70 per cent of Myanmar’s poor live in rural areas, reducing poverty will require increasing access to essential services, economic opportunities and markets. Although Myanmar does not have a poverty reduction strategy per se, a series of national development plans have served that purpose in support of MDG 1, on reducing poverty.

The Government of Myanmar has started to put in place a more coherent approach to development as well, which includes the Poverty Alleviation and Rural Development Action Plan (PARDA), the long-term National Comprehensive Development Plan (NCDP) and the Framework for Economic and Social Reform (FESR). This last sets a direction for the continuing reform process, articulating its broad goals and its medium-term objectives. It focuses on a policy agenda that will provide potential “quick wins” to deliver tangible and sustainable benefits to the population. PARDA, NCDP and FESR provide the umbrella for the agriculture sector through the National Medium-Term Priority Framework 2011-2014 (NMTPF), which has seven priorities. The first of these is to increase agricultural production to ensure food security, and includes measures for poverty reduction; the sixth is to improve rural livelihoods by helping communities to harness their physical, natural and human capital. Although food security was a priority in previous development plans, the inclusion of measures for poverty reduction in the NMTPF is a first within a strategic framework.⁴²

3.1.2. Urban vs. rural disparity

According to the profile analysis of out-of-school children in Chapter 2, OOSC rates of primary school age children are 12.4 per cent for rural areas and 11.9 per cent for urban areas, and among lower

⁴⁰ <http://hdr.undp.org/en/countries/profiles/MMR>

⁴¹ “Myanmar Poverty Assessment 2017: Part One Examination of Trends between 2004/05 and 2015”. Retrieved November 24, 2017 from <http://www.worldbank.org/en/country/myanmar/overview>

⁴² “Myanmar Country Strategic Opportunities Programme”

secondary age children, 12.6 per cent for rural areas and 8.8 per cent for urban. Part of this disparity is likely capturing the effect of poverty, which is largely a rural phenomenon in Myanmar.

Primary education is the least costly *per-learner* (per student) to provide, in part reflecting the Government's efforts to provide free compulsory primary schooling as well as lower transportation costs, among others. But preschool is much more costly per learner, although this is due to the fact that preschool is largely confined to a small minority of children from affluent, urban households.⁴³

MOE currently waives school fees and supports direct costs such as workbooks and textbooks for all school-age children attending formal basic education and monastic schools. However, there are still indirect costs, such as transportation, school bags, pencils/pens, erasers, uniforms, rain coats/umbrellas, private tutoring, boarding, exam fees, student festivals and others.

3.1.3. Decentralizing funding for education

Myanmar is currently working to decentralize school funding to improve and expand school grants programmes and student stipend programmes, and all schools with primary students currently supported by government funding are eligible for participation in the grants programme.

Both of these programmes were initiated in the 2009-2010 academic year to assure quality basic primary compulsory education. There were difficulties in the initial stages, however, since there were originally no stated objectives, detailed descriptions of responsibilities, performance indicators or provisions for monitoring impact on the education system. In addition, there were no trainings or implementation manuals for township officers and school heads, who are the main actors in these programmes.

The School Improvement Support Fund (SISF), also called the School Grants Programme, is a tool for use by school boards to reduce education costs. It is an outcome of the **FESR**. The aim is to assist basic education schools and monastic schools for the improvement support. This programme is national in coverage and grant levels have grown rapidly, albeit from a very small base. Table 3.3 shows the funding by academic year.

Table 3. 3. Distribution of SISF funding, by academic year

Beneficiaries	No. of Schools	No. of Students	Amount (MMK)
2014-2015 • Basic education schools	44,404	From 1 to 100	800,000
		From 101 to 200	1,000,000
		From 201 to 300	1,200,000
		From 301 to 400	1,400,000
		401 and above	1,600,000
2015-2016 • All basic education schools • Monastic schools • Practicing schools	46,989	From 1 to 50	400,000
		From 51 to 100	800,000
		From 101 to 200	1,000,000
		From 201 to 300	1,200,000
		From 301 to 400	1,400,000
		From 401 to 500	1,600,000
		501 and above	1,800,000

⁴³ Ibid. p. 25

2016-2017 • All basic education schools • Monastic schools • Practicing schools	47,557	From 1 to 50	400,000
		From 51 to 100	800,000
		From 101 to 200	1,000,000
		From 201 to 300	1,200,000
		From 301 to 400	1,400,000
		From 401 to 500	1,600,000
		From 501 to 700	1,800,000
		From 701 to 900	2,200,000
		From 901 to 1100	2,600,000
		From 1,101 to 1,500	3,000,000
		From 1,501 to 2,000	3,400,000
		From 2,001 to 2,500	3,800,000
		2501 and above	4,200,000
2017-2018 • All basic education schools • Monastic schools • Practicing schools	48,039	From 1 to 50	400,000
		From 51 to 100	800,000
		From 101 to 200	1,000,000
		From 201 to 300	1,200,000
		From 301 to 400	1,400,000
		From 401 to 500	1,600,000
		From 501 to 700	1,800,000
		From 701 to 900	2,200,000
		From 901 to 1,100	2,600,000
		From 1,101 to 1,500	3,000,000
		From 1,501 to 2,000	3,400,000
		From 2,001 to 2,500	3,800,000
		2,501 and above	4,200,000

Student stipend programmes are another type of decentralizing fund for children from poor families. This provides money to families so that their children may stay in school, while for the 2011-2012 school year, the Government introduced a student stipend programme targeting the poorest students. The Ministry of Education then piloted this in eight townships and schools in 2014-2015. Schools with high dropout rates, or with many students in need of financial assistance, were selected by township stipend and scholarship committees and each was allocated a set number of stipends per grade. The number of townships reached 27 in the 2015-2016 academic year, and by the 2016-2017 academic year, 192,355 students from 55 townships were receiving stipends. The programme now focuses on students grades 5 to 11, as these children are at the highest risk of dropping out. The stipend programme now needs to increase its coverage so that more children from poor families can access education.

3.1.4. Social protection programmes

Current coverage of social protection programmes in Myanmar is low, and poor and vulnerable households lack a formal safety net, which contributes to negative education outcomes associated with poverty. But according to Myanmar's Social Protection Strategic Plan 2014⁴⁴, the MSWRR has the

⁴⁴ The Republic of the Union of Myanmar. "Myanmar National Social Protection Plan". December 2014. p. 55. Retrieved December 5, 2017 from <http://www.social-protection.org/gimi/gess/RessourcePDF.action?ressource.ressourceId=50377>

mandate to deliver social protection programmes targeted at poor and vulnerable households. This Strategic Plan has eight flagship programmes, four of which are unconditional transfers: cash transfers to pregnant women and children under 2; gradual extension of the allowance to other children; cash transfers to persons with disabilities; and social pensions. One programme, public employment, is conditional.

To date only two flagship social protection programmes have been operationalised: a maternal and child cash transfer (MCCT) in three states/regions targeting pregnant women and children up to 2; and a universal social pension for those 90 years and above across all states and regions. The programmes most relevant for improving education outcomes include cash allowance for children aged 3-15 and school feeding programmes, which have not yet been operationalised through government systems.

(a) Cash transfer (CT) programmes

Cash transfer programmes provide assistance in the form of cash or near-cash instruments, e.g., vouchers, to poor and vulnerable households, which helps satisfy consumption needs and allows for more risk-taking in productive activities and investments in human capital development.⁴⁵ Conditional cash transfers (CCTs) provide support with certain conditions based on programme objectives, such as sending children to school and/or accessing health and nutritional services.⁴⁶ Unconditional cash transfers (UCTs) provide support to alleviate poverty and inequality without any conditions. An example of a conditional cash transfer in Myanmar is the MOE stipend programme mentioned above, with the purpose of decreasing dropout and increasing completion among poor and vulnerable students. Since the programme is implemented at the school level, this relationship is established from the start with children already at school. It currently delivers cash to parents or guardians at schools.

The need to extend support to more school-age children in poorer townships has since prompted MOE to review the implementation and to pilot a more systematic design, while the experience of the pilot indicates that (1) a combination of standardized criteria and community validation should be used to select schools and students in greater need; (2) a good communication strategy is crucial and needs to involve all stakeholders at the community level; (3) government structures implementing the programme need additional capacity-building to fulfil their roles effectively; and (4) there may be a need to complement the stipends with additional supply-side interventions to help offset the direct and indirect costs of education.⁴⁷

Anecdotal evidence also suggests that the programme has encouraged parents to get more involved in their children's education, has improved school attendance for students and has helped to cover education costs such as stationery, uniforms and transport.⁴⁸

According to the 2014 Social Protection Strategic Plan⁴⁹, the Government of Myanmar is committed to delivering a nationwide, universal cash allowance for all children in the country. MSWRR is lead agency, and in its first year this allowance will cover children age 3, while later ages are being added

⁴⁵ Baird S., McIntosh, C., and Özler, B. (2010) "Cash or Condition? Evidence from a Cash Transfer Experiment". Policy Research Working Paper 5259. Washington, DC: World Bank.

⁴⁶ Fiszbein, A. and Schady, N., et al (2011) "Document of the World Bank". p. 18.

⁴⁶ Baird S., McIntosh, C., and Özler, B. (2010)

⁴⁶ Fiszbein, A. and Schady, N., et al (2011)

⁴⁷ SC (Save the Children) (2015b) "Qualitative Assessment: Consolidated Report Myanmar School Grant & Stipend Programme Phase 1 & 2". Yangon: SC.

⁴⁸ Ibid

⁴⁹ The Republic of the Union of Myanmar. "Myanmar National Social Protection Plan". December 2014. p. 55. Retrieved December 5, 2017 from <http://www.social-protection.org/gimi/gess/RessourcePDF.action?ressource.ressourceId=50377>

each year. The allowance is MMK 8,000 (US\$5.45) per child per month, and is expected to cost 0.98 per cent of GDP when fully phased in. The goal is to support families in accessing services that promote children's development and the best interests of the child. By 2019, some 11 million children will be reached. Benefits are provided to the primary caregiver and will eventually cover the entire country. To date, this programme has not yet started implementation.

(b) School feeding programmes

School feeding programmes, often involving the provision of a fortified snack or lunch in school and/or take-home rations, are implemented in contexts where attendance is low and child malnourishment is high. School feeding programmes can also be designed to involve community participation through encouraging families to cook meals and support home or school gardens. In Myanmar, school feeding has only been implemented in selected areas through external funding, with very limited coverage. For example, the World Food Programme's (WFP) school feeding programme covered only 49 townships in 5 states and regions as of 2016.⁵⁰

According to the Social Protection Strategic Plan (2014), the Government's flagship school feeding programme⁵¹ will provide one cooked meal per day per child in schools. The leading agency will be the MOE, and the programme will be undertaken in government schools and will last throughout school enrolment. It will initially be launched in schools with low net enrolment in highly food-insecure areas with the goal is to increase enrolment rates, reduce dropout rates, regularize attendance and strengthen the learning capacity of children. The cost will be roughly 0.6 per cent of GDP when extended to all schools. By 2020, over 9 million children will be reached.

3.1.5. Recommendations

- **Expand and improve the school grants programme:** which would mean increasing the size of annual operating grants to schools. It would also mean introducing innovations from global experience, as well as improving the fiduciary management of the programme, in particular its financial management. Innovations should be introduced to the programme by revising its guidelines and by providing training. Specific recommendations include: (i) introduction of well-defined objectives and performance indicators; (ii) tying of the funding to school improvement planning; (iii) introducing increased autonomy on school-level spending; (iv) promoting community participation and oversight through parent-teacher organizations; (v) standardizing financial reporting; (vi) provisions for audits; and (vii) linking programme reporting to MOE's own information systems.
- **Expand and improve the student stipend programme:** While all government-supported schools in Myanmar are nominally eligible to participate in the existing student stipend programme, the small size (11,000 stipends for the whole country) effectively means that while most schools apply for funding, few schools are actually selected and those that do participate would have, in most cases, no more than two stipend students. Because the new student guidelines would include an increase in coverage for each school and more rigorous targeting and administration, the programme will only be expanded to more schools and students in a limited number of townships over time. Improving the stipends programme means introducing innovations from global experience, as well as improving financial management. As with the school grants above, innovations should be introduced to the

⁵⁰ See for example https://www.wfp.org/sites/default/files/wfpMYA_SchoolFeeding_Apr16%20FINAL.pdf

⁵¹ Ibid. p. 55

programme by revising its guidelines and by training. Specific innovations would include: (i) introduction of well-defined programme objectives and performance indicators; (ii) evidence-based selection of initial townships; (iii) evidence-based targeting of schools and students within townships; (iv) better definition and communication of conditionality and of the programme in general; (v) community participation and oversight; (vi) introduction of provisions for audits; and (vii) linking programme reporting to MOE's own information systems.

- **Expand capacity improvement trainings to strengthen monitoring and implementation of programmes.**
- **The School Grants Programme should consider certain structural improvements, including:** (i) extending support to monastic schools and community-based schools, which often are located in poor and remote areas; (ii) providing more intensive training and coaching to teachers to better develop and implement school improvement plans; (iii) putting in place rigorous monitoring mechanisms; (iv) avoiding using school grants as a substitute for parent/community contributions to schools; and (v) making full use of existing entities such as PTAs and boards of trustees instead of creating a new, dedicated committee for the programme specifically.
- **The Stipends Programme should consider structural changes, including:** (i) students below Grade 5 can also be considered for the programme; (ii) NGOs and international non-governmental organizations (INGOs) should collaborate with the MOE to reach out to more disadvantaged students, and in particular disabled children; and (iii) a longer timeframe should be allowed for complaints - **the current seven days** may not be sufficient to allow people from remote areas to provide complaints.

3.2. Barrier 2: Child labour

Data from LFS 2014 and IHLCAS 2010 indicate that a key reason for children not attending school is because they are participating in the workforce: in the 2015 LFS Knowledge, Attitudes and Practices study (KAP), over 90 per cent of non-working children were attending school and just 10 per cent of working children were in school.⁵² The gap between the age when children complete their 5 years of compulsory primary education - usually age 11 or 12, while official age is 10 - and the legal minimum working age (14 years) creates a significant pool of potential underage workers.

OOSC profile analysis shows as well that children who work are much more likely to be out of school than are children who do not work, and at primary school age 36.8 per cent of children who engage in labour are out of school, while at lower secondary school age 94.5 per cent of those who are involved in labour are out of school. Among lower secondary out-of-school children, only a few per cent are not involved in labour. And although child labour is “low magnitude”, it is still a high-severity problem: it affects a relatively small group of children overall and does not seem to be a statistically predominant reason for them to be out of school (hence, “small magnitude”). But those children in that group are overwhelmingly likely to be out of school, which constitutes a severe impact on them.

⁵² ILO KAP study, p. 38.

A large number of Myanmar's children have left school and joined the workforce

Young workers are a common sight in Myanmar, helping at urban teashops and construction sites, with domestic chores, and in the fields, and nationwide nearly one-quarter of children age 10-17 participate in the workforce, according to the 2014 National Census.⁵³ A recent study by ILO in the industrial zone of Hlaing Tharyar, in Yangon, found children between the ages of 10 and 17 working in shops, factories, construction sites, tea shops, restaurants, transport companies and private households. Many of these children had started working before reaching the legal minimum age of 14, which was just raised from 13 in January 2016.⁵⁴ This normalization of child labour thus continues to damage Myanmar's reputation and competitiveness, and the country ranked in the top 10 of 197 countries in a 2014 child labour index that evaluated child labour risk.⁵⁵

Poverty is the main driver of child labour

The major cause of child labour is household financial hardship⁵⁶, with about one-third of Myanmar's households estimated to be living in poverty.⁵⁷ ILO interviews with child workers, their parents and other key informants found a general consensus that children have an obligation to their families to contribute economically if needed, and this rationale is commonly cited as part of the widespread social acceptance of children joining the workforce. The importance of household economics as a contributing factor is also seen in the seasonality of child employment, as the annual agricultural loan cycle means that children are often sent to work when parents have debts to pay.⁵⁸

3.2.1. Current activities and initiatives

Several organizations have initiatives in place to address various aspects of child labour, including the underlying causes, such as poverty and education. Some are focusing specifically on priority issues of serious concern, such as trafficking and child soldiers. Others are addressing a variety of labour issues in the garment sector, and a few are explicitly working on child labour and young workers.

The experience and knowledge generated through these activities provide important lessons and useful insights to build on for any future work related to child labour.

For example:

- The ILO is engaging the Government of Myanmar on labour law reforms, including advice specifically on child labour laws. The ILO's Myanmar Project on Elimination of Child Labour (My-PEC)⁵⁹ includes pilots to test intervention models, such as incentives for families to send their children to school. ILO also provides training for government labour inspectors, employers and workers on labour issues, and publishes research and guidance on labour practices. An awareness-raising campaign on child labour is also under development and would use media channels to reach the public as well as engage schools and communities directly.

⁵³ ILO. 2015. "Knowledge, Attitudes, and Practices (KAP) Study on Child Labour in Yangon, Ayeyarwady Region, and Mon State" (p. 11).

⁵⁴ ILO. 2016. "Child Labour Rapid Assessment in Hlaing Thar Yar Industrial Zone in Yangon, Myanmar."

⁵⁵ Verisk Maplecroft. 2014. "Child Labour Index 2014."

⁵⁶ ILO KAP study, p. 35.

⁵⁷ According to World Bank estimates.

⁵⁸ Interview, Myanmar Centre for Responsible Business.

⁵⁹ The ILO's Myanmar Project on Elimination of Child Labour (My-PEC) http://www.ilo.org/ipec/projects/global/WCMS_356062/lang-en/index.htm

- The Myanmar Garment Manufacturing Association (MGMA) has created a voluntary code of conduct for its members, which are nearly all garment manufacturers in the country, or about 350. MGMA's four-year plan of action includes the objective of complete social compliance as a baseline for members, with a minimum working age of 15.
- UNICEF is also supporting the Government of Myanmar in reforming legislation on the rights of the child, including changes in the Child Law and education laws that impact children's access to education and define minimum age of employment for all sectors. This includes supporting the Department of Social Welfare to develop social work mechanisms, as well as work with the MOLIP Factories and General Labour Laws Inspection Department (FGLLID)⁶⁰ on the development of awareness-raising materials for factories, capacity-building for labour inspectors on child labour issues, and development of monitoring mechanisms. Engagement with wider partners on child labour prevention and remediation programmes is also in progress.
- International and local NGOs such as Save the Children and World Vision have programmes that support children in various ways, including through development of government social work infrastructure, which would enable case management for incidents of child labour.
- The Myanmar Mobile Education Project (MyME) provides knowledge and skills training for young workers in the tea shop sector, using a mobile classroom.
- The Myanmar Centre for Responsible Business publishes assessments of human rights issues in specific industries that include investigation of child labour practices.
- The Myanmar Responsible Sourcing Working Group is a platform for business to understand and engage on social and environmental issues related to the garment sector, including child labour.
- Individual companies have also taken steps to actively work with suppliers to improve their "corporate social responsibility" and management of labour issues, including compliance with national and international standards on working age and working conditions.

The Children's Rights and Business Principles (CRBPs) help to provide business with guidance on how to protect child rights. Developed through consultations led by UNICEF, Save the Children and the United Nations Global Compact, the CRBPs set out specific actions and commitments for companies to respect and support children's rights in the workplace, marketplace and community.⁶¹

3.2.2. Improved access to formal and non-formal education options

The creation of a hybrid work-study programme would enable young workers to earn money but also upgrade their skills and knowledge. This is particularly relevant for workers aged 14 and 15 who are only legally allowed to work four hours per day. It would also provide a resource for factory owners who are being approached to provide jobs for young workers to be able to recommend this as an alternative. Technical and vocational education is an area currently under development by both government and civil society groups, and additional resources may be in place in the next few years. Monastic schools are also providing an alternative to the public-school system and may be a viable alternative in instances where formal schooling is inaccessible to children.

⁶⁰ Responsible for enforcing occupational health and safety rules, mainly through factory inspections and training.

⁶¹ Children's Rights and Business Principles website, <http://childrenandbusiness.org/the-principles/principle-2/>

3.2.3. Recommendations

- MOE should encourage back-to-school programmes for working children and/or vocational training school assistance until they reach legal age for work.
- Child labour elimination and prevention strategies should be integrated into national education policy.
- The worst forms of child labour should be eliminated, with a focus on child domestic workers and other vulnerable groups. This would set out actions to be taken by government, including forming a policy for children working in the formal sector, coordinating government and other stakeholders for effective rehabilitation, increasing working children's access to formal and non-formal learning and providing livelihood support to poor households with children.
- Income generation and employment programmes for adults, to reduce poverty, with child-centred educative sensitivity and awareness raising.

3.3. Barrier 3: Not enough early childhood development services and schools

This critical barrier is a strong determinant of school enrolment, school attendance, transition and dropout. This section discusses the factors that contribute to this, its impact and current policies that address it.

3.3.1. Not enough early childhood development services

Currently, MSWRR is working to implement ECCD activities for children aged 0 to 5, while MOHS, local and international NGOs, faith-based organizations, community-based organizations and foundations are playing a vital role in nurturing children younger than age 3. Many of these organizations have opened preschools for children aged 3 to 5. However, this is still not enough. In Myanmar, 76.6 per cent of children age 4 are OOSC according to DERPT data, and this rate is the highest among the Southeast Asia countries. This is largely a result of inadequate supply of early childhood development services.

In virtually all sectors there are large differences between urban and rural populations, among regions/states, and among ethnic groups. With large ethnic minority populations, endemic poverty and instability, border areas tend to have the lowest levels of ECCD services. Yet these differences are often masked by averages presented for the general population. Thus, preschool education needs to be greatly and rapidly expanded in order to meet demand for preschool services and the Government's goal of achieving universal preschool.

(a) School-based pre-primary classes

After developing a preschool curriculum and teachers' handouts, MOE has been expanding pre-primary classes, attached to basic education primary schools, and by academic year 2016-2017, there were 4,290 preschool classrooms in the country and 103,393 children aged 3 to 5 enrolled.⁶² Despite this increased investment, coverage of ECCD is still low, however: this number represented only 9.6 per cent of basic education schools in 2016-2017.

Another challenge for these classrooms was that teachers could not be appointed exclusively for school-based pre-primary classrooms. That would require significant strengthening of qualifications

⁶² Source: Department of Education Planning and Training

for teachers, while incentives for these teachers are few, with low/irregular salaries and uncertainty in professional advancement.

Currently, there is still no dedicated funding for early childhood services from MOE, and in general funds devoted to ECCD provision are very low. Neither are separate classrooms for preschools available, and even indoor or outdoor learning corners, teaching aids and appropriate facilities (such as toys and child toilets) are yet to be provided. There is also little awareness of the positive impact of ECCD on children's psychosocial development and learning potential in Myanmar, and often children younger than 5 are simply urged to study rather than play.

(a) Buddhist monastic education services

Some Buddhist monastic education includes services for preschool age children, but because little is known about the contents, methods and results of monastic education for young children, more research is needed, although monastic ECCD provision should adhere to basic quality standards with due attention to the health, nutrition, hygiene and psychosocial development of the child.⁶³

(b) Human resources

According to DBE data for 2016 to 2017, there are 6,422 preschool teachers for 103,393 pre-schoolers (aged 3-5), making the teacher student ratio 1:16. Government and community-appointed preschool teachers in MOE preschool classrooms in primary schools have received pre-service training only in primary school education, however, although some have attended brief workshops on preschool education. To date, they have been offered little in-service training, however.

(c) Pre- and in-service training resources

Currently, no professional formal training exists at the secondary or university levels for pre-service ECCD or early childhood education (ECE), thus a new system needs to be developed. This system should use ECCD policy guidance and ECCD/ECE curricula, training manuals, educational materials, methods, media, standards and regulations, although these too are yet to be developed. There is some short-term pre- and in-service training now in Myanmar, mainly provided by government and NGOs, several of which have received considerable support from UNICEF, UNESCO, WHO, UNDP and other international organizations.

In-service training sometimes takes the form of informal pre-service training for some ECCD personnel, but this tends to be sporadic, occurring only when funds are available. DSW has worked hard to develop an in-service training system for its ECCD services, however no systematic, regular national and regional/state system exists.

(e) ECCD policy

The Early Childhood Care and Development Policy 2014⁶⁴ is unprecedented in Myanmar, and is expected to have a major impact. Led by MSWRR in collaboration with other ministries, the policy focuses on child and family initiatives related to child development, nutrition and health, education, and the protection of all children aged 0 to 8.

Policy Strategy 3 describes Early childhood intervention services for children aged 0 to 5 in order to “develop, improve and expand early childhood intervention and rehabilitation services to help each child achieve his or her full potential, and to prevent the discrimination against and stigmatisation of children with special needs.”

⁶³ Myanmar Policy for Early Childhood Care and Development. 2014. p. 43

⁶⁴ https://www.unicef.org/myanmar/01_ECCD_Policy_E_Version_Web_72_dpi.pdf

Policy Strategy 4 describes preschool education for children age 3 to 4 in order to “Implement and expand high-quality, culturally and linguistically-appropriate and inclusive preschool education, continuing parent education and involvement and related early childhood services, and conduct awareness raising workshops from community to national levels regarding the importance of preschool education”.

(f) Recommendations

- MOE should encourage the expansion of school-based preschools in basic education primary schools for preschool age children to access ECCD.
- A separate budget should be established for the MOE and all ECCD regulatory activities and services provided for children from birth to transition to kindergarten and primary school; From brief review of available information on the MOE budget, it is clear that current investment in ECCD from birth to transition to primary school is very low compared to the extensive need for improving child education and development, and the amount that MOE dedicates to ECCD must be rapidly increased in order to improve child development and achieve the goals and objectives of the policy.
- MOE and MSWRR should implement and expand high-quality, culturally- and linguistically-appropriate and inclusive preschool education, continuing parent education and involvement and related early childhood services, and conduct awareness raising workshops from community to national levels regarding the importance of preschool education.
- MOE should develop a strong transition programme for children from 4 to 5 years of age from home and preschool to inclusive kindergarten and primary school that includes parent participation in schools, use of mother tongue for learning basic concepts to the extent possible and as requested, and child-centred approaches with active learning methodologies for early-grade learning through play and learning corners.

3.3.2. Not enough schools

(a) Basic education schools

Table 3. 4. Numbers of basic education schools, teachers and students (2016-2017)

	School	Teachers	Students
Upper Secondary	4,000	42,687	1,047,979
Lower Secondary	7,356	107,053	2,977,114
Post Primary	7,723		
Primary	27,389	249,796	5,151,361
Total	464,68	399,536	9,176,454

Source: DBE (2016-2017)

There are 330 townships and 70,838 villages in Myanmar⁶⁵ with 1 primary school to every 2 villages. Above the primary school level, distance to the nearest school location tends to increase, and since distance to school is one of the contributors to OOSC rates, IHLCAS asked, “Where is the school located”? Out of 95,021 participants in IHLCAS, 17,316 responded.

⁶⁵ Ministry of Home Affairs’ General Administration Department.

Table 3. 5. School locations

School Location	Responded “yes”	Percentage
Same ward/village	11,723	67.7
Village next to own town	1,348	7.8
Other city/town	614	3.5
Out of country	13	0.1
Other ward	2,275	13.1
Other village	1,343	7.8

Source: IHL CAS

In the table above, 67.7 per cent of children attend schools that are situated in the same ward/village where they live, while only 0.1 per cent study “out of the country”. The remainder, 32.2 per cent, attend nearby schools that are located outside their village/ward.

For school catchment area in Myanmar, there is one school for every two square miles in hilly regions and one school for every three square miles in lowland regions. But for children in rural and mountainous areas, distance can easily be a deterrent, while in rural areas, seasonal rains and floods often lead to road and track blockages. Children in some remote mountainous areas will walk over two hours each way to school while in delta regions, children will walk through creeks, a considerable risk factor.

(b) Private schools

Private schools, which emerged in Myanmar in the 1990s, have developed as businesses and are not necessarily regulated by MOE. The Private School Registration Law⁶⁶, enacted in December 2011, defines a private school as “a basic education school established privately, that follows the basic education curriculum and syllabus prescribed by the Ministry of Education or with added lessons for the said subjects for raising the quality of education”.

The law goes on to state MOE’s function on private schools:⁶⁷

- (a) laying down policy relating to private schools and private school teachers;
- (b) guiding and supervising Directors General and Education Officers as may be necessary relating to supervision of private schools and private school teachers;
- (c) forming and assigning duties to inspection bodies for added lessons to be taught in a private school; and
- (d) allowing, or refusing to allow, the establishment of a private school or cancellation of the registration certificate of the private school.

The table below shows the number of private schools and the number of teachers and students at private schools according to DBE data.

⁶⁶ http://themimu.info/sites/themimu.info/files/documents/Private_School_Registration_Law_2011_ENG.pdf

⁶⁷ The Private School Registration Law, Section 3

Table 3. 6. Number of private schools, teachers, and students (2016-2017)

	School	Teachers	Students
Upper Secondary	585	5,265	95,750
Lower Secondary	66	2,908	36,533
Primary	79	2,045	43,976
Total	730	10,218	176,259

Source: DBE (2016-2017)

Enrolment in private schools has increased over time, especially in urban areas. As this trend continues, it will necessitate greater oversight by MOE on the quality of education provided in these schools.

(c) Monastic schools

Monastic education is critical in ensuring learning opportunities for those children in Myanmar who are not fully served by the public system; it currently targets marginalized children often from migrant families, conflict areas and remote communities.

Monastic schools are established by monks and administered through the Ministry of Religious Affairs and Culture (MORAC). They are located in every state and region, but until recently have received very little government support and have traditionally relied on community donations. Because no fees are charged and food is provided, these schools are able to reach some of the poorest children. They cater primarily to poor children in the communities in which monasteries are located, including orphans, children of migrant workers and those sent away from remote areas. Facilities are generally very basic and there is a lack of minimum standards.

Monastic schools currently provide the national curriculum to 278,273 students in 1,512 schools in all 14 states and regions of Myanmar⁶⁸, and based on the 2014 Census they are educating 3 per cent of the school-age population (5-16 years), the majority of these being primary school age.

According to analysis by the Myanmar Information Management Unit (MIMU), between 2009 and 2013 there was a 12.6-per-cent increase in the number of registered monastic schools and a 15-per-cent increase in the number of students.⁶⁹

The legislative framework for education is currently being reformed in Myanmar as well, and monastic schools are now legally recognized as a complementary education system included in the list of school types in the new National Education Law (NEL).⁷⁰

School administration and management: The CESR baseline study found that “over half of monastic schools were primary schools, and just under half had boarding students. Almost 20 per cent of schools were attended primarily by students from ethnic minority groups. Systems for financial management, staff and student affairs, and record keeping were informal and inconsistent across schools. There didn’t appear to be any minimum standards either. Staff recruitment and retention was reported to be difficult - monastic schools compete with government schools for teaching staff, and cannot match the salaries offered”.⁷¹

⁶⁸ Department of Promotion and Propagation of Sasana, Ministry of Religious Affairs (2014-15), “Data on Monastic Education System.”

⁶⁹ Myanmar Information Management Unit (MIMU)

⁷⁰ National Education Law (2015), Chapter 6. Section 34

⁷¹ Burnet Institute and Monastic Education Development Group (2014), “Monastic schools in Myanmar - a baseline study”. p. 4

The minimum level of qualifications required for teachers was low as well, despite over half (60 per cent) having a university degree. Schools were reliant on donations from individuals and the community, and 22 per cent of schools supplemented their income by collecting student fees or by engaging in income generation activities (30 per cent).

Teaching staff, and teaching and learning practices: Almost all principals and teachers had heard of child-centred approaches (CCA) and 55 per cent of teachers reported attending some form of CCA training in the past. But only 16 per cent of schools performed well on CCA and most teachers and principals identified barriers to implementation of CCA, including inadequate time, materials, classroom space and training.

For monastic schools, monitoring for quality is limited and most teachers do not have opportunities to attend teacher trainings, so that effective teaching is constrained. The monks and nuns who serve as principals of these schools employ strictly traditional ways of management and it is difficult for middle school graduates from monastic schools, laymen, monks and nuns alike, to continue on to high school.

(d) Technical and vocational schools

The Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Irrigation (MOALI), Ministry of Industry (MOI), MOBA, MSWRR, MOHS and MOE are opening their own vocational schools and MMCWA is also actively taking part in vocational trainings especially for poor and less-educated women. Most of the training schools are for adolescents 14 and over.

(e) Schools under the Ministry of Border Affairs (MOBA)⁷²

Youth development training schools: In the 2016-2017 academic year, over 6,300 ethnic minority students from border areas were attending the 44 “national races” youth development training schools under MOBA.

Technical schools: To give ethnic minority youth from border areas who wanted to pursue higher education more job opportunities, MOBA increased the number of schools from seven to nine. The ministry also conducted courses on computers, wiring, mechanics, construction and welding, among others, and increased the number of vocational training centres for women from 39 to 43. In 2016, 6,500 trainees attended courses on tailoring, knitting, crocheting, weaving and cooking.

(f) Mobile schools and temporary emergency schools

Section 38 of Myanmar’s National Education Law states:

The Ministry of Education and regional governments shall:

- (a) work to establish mobile schools to allow the children and family members of migrant workers to complete primary education; and
- (b) organize special educational services through temporary emergency schools in underdeveloped regions, conflict areas, areas with poor transportation and areas affected by natural disasters.

Opening of mobile schools: This programme has been implemented in collaboration with local authorities and social organizations. Teachers in mobile schools move with the children whose parents

⁷² Ministry of Border Affairs <http://www.moi.gov.mm/moi:eng/?q=news/28/03/2017/id-10327>

migrate to a new place for their employment and children learn the same curriculum, in the same amount of time, as in the formal education system.

In 2011-2012 there were 27 mobile schools with 1,287 students in Bago, Sagaing, Ayeyarwaddy and Magway regions and Rakhine and Mon States.⁷³ But in the 2016-2017 academic year there were only four mobile schools left with 120 students and 11 teachers, based on DBE data from March 2018. In Myanmar there are still seasonal workers and many children leave school because of their parents' displacement.

Temporary emergency schools: The Cross-camp and Trend Analysis Report⁷⁴ found that, "Overall, between 2013 and 2015, access to school in camps was relatively limited and remained stable. The availability of primary school increased from 27 per cent in 2013 to 28 per cent in 2015, the availability of secondary school reduced from 15 per cent in 2013 to 14 per cent in 2015, and the availability of high school decreased from 8 per cent in 2013 to 5 per cent in 2015. However, a higher proportion of large camps have access to schools as compared to small camps. Access to primary schools in the larger camps is notably higher than access to secondary or high school".

Expansion of alternative education (AE): With support from education sector partners, MOE has increased access to alternative education over the years with the aim of giving overage children and early dropouts access to education. In 1998, in collaboration with MOE, UNESCO and UNDP, the Department of Myanmar Education Research and MLRC established the Non-formal Primary Education programme (NFPE), and starting in 2002-2003, DBE and MLRC began implementation.

Table 3. 7. Implementation of NFPE by townships

Academic Year	No. of Townships	Partner Organizations
From 2002-03 to 2007-08	59	UNICEF
2008-09	5	UNICEF
2009-10	12	UNICEF
2010-11	20	UNICEF (17) + Donor (3)
2011-12	48	UNICEF (23) + Donor (25)
2012-13	73	UNICEF (28) + Donor (36) + MOE (9)
2013-14	80	UNICEF (35) + Donor (29) + MOE (16)
2014-15	89	UNICEF (42) + Donor (31) + MOE (16)
2015-16	94	UNICEF (42) + Donor (28) + MOE (24)
2016-17	104	UNICEF (45) + MOE (47) + World Education (7) + UNESCO (4) + Shanti (1)

Source: DBE

In 2010, MLRC revised the NFPE curriculum to make it competency-based, while in 2013-2014, a standardized test was introduced for the programme and a curriculum for a non-formal middle school equivalency programme was been developed and implemented for out-of-school children.

⁷³ The Government of the Republic of the Union of Myanmar, Ministry of Education, "Education for All: Access to and Quality of Education in Myanmar" (Conference on Development Policy Options with Special Reference to Education and Health in Myanmar) (13-16 February, 2012, Nay Pyi Taw, Myanmar)

⁷⁴ Myanmar Kachin and Northern Shan States Camp Profiling Round 1-3 Cross-Camp and Trend Analysis Report 2013-2015), January 2016 retrieved 10 March, 2018 from https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/original_Myanmar_Report_final.pdf

In the area of adult literacy, the Government continues its focus on improving literacy rates across the country and initiated the Summer Basic Literacy Programme in 2013, while in 2014-2015, it implemented its Basic Literacy Programmes in 68 townships, more than doubling the number of learners enrolled to 46,478 over the previous year.⁷⁵

MOE and UNICEF also support Extended and Continuous Education and Learning (EXCEL) implemented by local NGOs, which reached more than 75,000 children in 2006-2010. Yet coverage is still low largely due to the limited number of local NGOs and their capacity to implement EXCEL on a large scale.⁷⁶

(g) Recommendations

- Compulsory basic education law should be enforced and communicated widely.
- Special education programmes⁷⁷ and services⁷⁸ should be established so that every school-aged child and youth, including those citizens who are disabled or who for any reason have not had a chance to study, can access their right to education in line with Education for All.
- The Private School Registration Law, which was promulgated in 2011, requires further amendment to be relevant to the current situation.
- Technical support and funding to monastic education should be provided to establish minimum standards in all monastic schools.
- Advocacy support should be provided to develop and gain recognition of monastic education policy.
- TVET programmes should be provided that enable human resources development as formal education and according to labour market demand.
- In line with the Myanmar National Education Law, basic and mid-level technical and vocational education should be implemented as soon as possible for children who have completed primary and lower secondary education and who have to enter the labour force.
- Informal education and non-formal education programmes for TVET should be geared for early dropouts.
- Non-formal equivalency programmes for primary and lower secondary levels should be encouraged for those who cannot attend formal schools.

3.4. Barrier 4: Access to education for children with disabilities

Poor access to education for children with disabilities is another critical barrier for children with any kind of disability. According to the 2016 Situation Analysis of Children with Disabilities in Myanmar, two out of three children with disabilities do not attend school, and in 46 instances schools also refused admission to a child with a disability. More than half of the children with disabilities aged

⁷⁵ Myanmar NESP, p. 33

⁷⁶ Ibid

⁷⁷ Myanmar National Education Law (2014) Section 2 (x) **special education programmes** - the establishment of schools which have special programs to teach disabled children.

⁷⁸ Ibid. Section 2 (y) **special education services** - the opening of temporary, emergency schools in border areas with conflict, less developed areas, areas with poor transportation, and regions affected by natural disasters.

5-9 years reported receiving no education and only 36 per cent of the children with disabilities know how to read or write, while 55 per cent of classrooms and 74 per cent of toilets are not accessible to students with disabilities.

It is particularly difficult for children with disabilities to complete a full cycle of basic education, especially for girls, and only 2.2 per cent of the children with disabilities were in high school at the time of the survey. Among education professionals, the idea strongly persists that children with disabilities should attend “special schools” (75 per cent). Nearly 1 in 3 of the parents/caregivers of children with disabilities also said their children had been mocked or bullied in the classroom.⁷⁹ Hence the factors contributing toward poor attendance of children with disabilities are:

- (a) negative attitudes toward disabilities by parents, teachers, peers and the community;
- (b) weak implementation of existing laws and policies;
- (c) inaccessible environment and lack of support services for children with disabilities;
- (d) inadequate assistance to children with special needs;
- (e) inadequate provision of teaching materials for disabilities;
- (f) low pedagogic capacity by teachers;
- (g) lack of training for teachers on special needs children; and
- (h) weak coordination among ministries, NGOs and organizations.

These factors can all lead to late enrolment, low enrolment, high dropout, high risk of dropout and poor attendance.

3.4.1. Right to education

MOE is responsible for implementing the Education for all National Action Plan 2003-2015, and inclusive education, or having schools that include all children, celebrate differences, support learning, and respond to individual needs, was initiated in 2010. According to data from DBA, 6,018 disabled children are attending basic education formal schools in the 2017-2018 academic year, while the MSWRR DSW says that 534 children were attending special schools in the 2015-2016 academic year. Yet these numbers are very low when compared with the total number of children with disabilities, and the 2014 Census reveals that 1.35 per cent of the total 17.2 million children in total in Myanmar 232,021 have disabilities.⁸⁰

There is a lack of skilled teachers, lack of tutoring materials and lack of awareness of this idea in general. There are some special schools and vocational centres for children with different kinds of disabilities, most of them located in urban areas, and MOE is working with some NGOs to develop inclusive education pilot projects, such as the Myanmar Independent Living Initiative. But children with disabilities are mostly still enrolled in special schools or institutions.

⁷⁹ UNICEF 2016. “*Situation Analysis of Children with Disabilities in the Republic of the Union of Myanmar*”. Yangon, UNICEF Myanmar. p. 33

⁸⁰ Ibid. p. vii

Table 3. 8. Children with disabilities attending formal schools (2017-2018)

	Male	Female	Total
Visual	392	291	683
Hearing	347	255	602
Autism	751	414	1,165
Physical	2,062	1,506	3,568
Total	3,552	2,466	6,018

Source: Department of Basic Education, MOE (2017-2018)

Table 3. 9. Children with disabilities attending special schools (2015-2016)

Sr.	Special School	Level	Male	Female	Total
1	School for the Hearing Impaired, Mandalay	Primary	89	57	146
		Lower Secondary	14	11	25
2	School for the Hearing Impaired, Yangon	Primary	32	52	84
3	School for the Visually Impaired, Sagaing	Primary	6	8	14
4	School for the Disabled, Mandalay	Primary	59	33	92
5	School for the Disabled, Yangon	Primary	117	56	173

Source: Department of Social Welfare, MOSWRR (2015-2016)

Clearly there are still many barriers for children to participate in education, particularly for children with disabilities.⁸¹

- Numerous children with disabilities are reported to have been denied enrolment in mainstream schools despite a recent finding that social relationships in school are a major enabling factor for many children with disabilities to participate in everyday activities.
- Overall, 67 per cent of children with disabilities are not in school, compared to a much lower - but still high - 19 per cent for children without disabilities. Moreover, in 46 instances it was found that schools had refused admission to a child perceived as having a disability.
- Educational attainment also declines the older the child, with only about 29 per cent of children with disabilities in the 14-to-17 cohort having completed secondary education, while most children, both with and without disabilities, start dropping out of school after completing primary education.
- Of special concern is the number of children with disabilities who have never had the opportunity to attend school, while 97 per cent of the parents/caregivers of children with disabilities age 2-4 reported their children had received “no education,” and for the 5-9 age group, 56 per cent of parents/caregivers reported “no education.”
- Some parents of children without disabilities also resist letting their children befriend children with disabilities, and some teachers do not want to have children with disabilities in their classrooms.

⁸¹ “Situation Analysis of Children with Disabilities in the Republic of the Union of Myanmar”. p. 3

The Situation Analysis of Children with Disabilities in the Republic of the Union of Myanmar found that, “of the 75 families of children with disabilities who were interviewed, only one-third (27) reported that their child with disabilities attended a mainstream school, while 5 others had enrolled in mainstream schools but no longer attended. Many of the parents/caregivers of children with disabilities said that the children found it discouraging to go to school for reasons such as: not fitting in with classmates; teachers not being supportive; not doing as well in school as their classmates; failing some grades; and not being able to make friends like their classmates do”.⁸²

In Myanmar, special education and special schools fall under MSWRR, yet there are only 12 special schools in the country, dramatically limiting enrolment opportunities. Seven of these schools are for children with visual impairment, three are for children with hearing impairment and two are for children with developmental and physical impairment. Only these schools have the technical expertise, equipment and human resources for teaching children with disabilities. And although some in-home special education is available, almost all special schools in Myanmar are boarding schools.

Some of the schools offering special education have tried integrating their students into schools for the general population, yet this has proven difficult because most school buildings are not equipped for this, and there is still the ever-present lack of trained teachers.

The Inclusive Education component of the Myanmar Education Consortium Baseline Study⁸³ further found that when children with disabilities are not in school, it is because (1) they cannot learn, (2) they cannot get to school, (3) there is no school in the area, (4) they are not interested in school and (5) education is too costly.

3.4.2. The Social Protection Flagship Programme - Allowance for people with disabilities⁸⁴

According to the 2014 Myanmar Social Protection Strategic Plan, a disability allowance will be provided to all individuals certified with a disability beginning in 2016, after the law is enacted, guaranteeing the rights of people with disabilities. This programme can then be implemented once the Government establishes a process to certify recipients.

Once implemented, this programme will support the well-being of all those with disabilities, and will support their access to services that promote all-round development and their best interests, especially during childhood. The allowance will be MMK 16, 000 (US\$10.89) per child per month in addition to the child allowance, which is estimated to cost 0.06 per cent of GDP when fully phased in. It will also provide an adult up to age 64 MMK 30,000 (US\$20.43) per month, which will cost 0.24 per cent of GDP in 2016.

The programme is expected to be implemented nationwide and MSWRR will be the lead agency.

3.4.3. Current policies

Section 37 of current education law states that MOE and other ministries “shall work to open schools with special instructional programmes for disabled persons. They can allow private or social organizations that want to open such schools to do so after having been evaluated”. According to

⁸² Ibid. p. 4

⁸³ “Myanmar Education Consortium Baseline Study Report Inclusive Education Component January 2015”. p. 11

⁸⁴ The Republic of the Union of Myanmar “Myanmar National Social Protection Strategic Plan” December 2014. p. 53 Retrieved December 5, 2017 from <http://www.social-protection.org/gimi/gess/RessourcePDF.action?ressource.ressourceId=50377>

draft disability law, disabled persons also have the right to access education and the right to health care.⁸⁵

The Law thus makes provisions for children with disabilities mainly through special education schools and special education programmes.⁸⁶ This clause is also included in the draft Disability Law⁸⁷, while Section 18 of the Child Law states, “a mentally or physically disabled child has the right to acquire basic education (primary level) or vocational education at the special schools established by the Social Welfare Department or by a voluntary social worker or by a non-governmental organization”.⁸⁸

The Government has taken other legislative and policy steps to advance the rights of persons with disabilities too. It has ratified certain United Nations human rights treaties, including the CRC in 1991, CEDAW in 1997 and the CRPD⁸⁹ in December 2011. However it has yet to ratify the Optional Protocol of the CRPD, which would allow persons with disabilities whose rights have been violated to bring complaints before the Committee on the Rights of People with Disabilities.

3.4.4. Recommendations

Following are recommendations on how to create a more inclusive environment for more students in Myanmar.

- Investment in capacity development for teachers and education professionals should be increased.
- Experienced teachers should be recruited in regular schools as well as in special schools to give more attention to children with special needs.
- Ministries, departments, organizations and international agencies should share experiences and hold workshops at all levels for awareness raising advocacy and implementation.
- MOE and MSWRR should improve coordination on children with disabilities and clarify their own roles.
- All classroom learning environments should be made accessible to all disabled children. For example, all classrooms, and all parts of classrooms, should be wheelchair-accessible.
- MOE should ensure that the right to inclusive education is fully realised by further amending the current education and should also ensure that the amendment and bylaws are aligned with SDG 4, CRPD and the Incheon Strategy, to ensure that children with disabilities are welcome in schools and that their learning is supported in ways that are individualized.
- MOE should develop a strategy to increase level of achievement and improve well-being of students with disabilities, to support more consistent and effective practices nationwide.
- MOE should offer stipends for children with disabilities.
- MOE should provide special funding, or additional funding, to districts and townships to encourage inclusive education and professional training.

⁸⁵ Disability Law (draft) (2015) Act 24 (a)

⁸⁶ Myanmar National Education Law Act 2 (x) & Disability Law (draft) cited in *Inclusive Education and Children with Disabilities in Yangon, Myanmar*. Report from a research study conducted by Eden Centre for Disabled Children in partnership with VSO. Published March 2015. (p 20)

⁸⁷ Disability Law (draft) (2015) Act 25

⁸⁸ Child Law (1993) Act 18 a (i)

⁸⁹ The CRPD is the first international, legally binding treaty aimed at protecting the human rights of persons with disabilities.

- MOE should develop learning materials specifically for children with disabilities.
- MOE should ensure that data on children with disabilities are incorporated into the EMIS system, and it should include level of impairment, the setting where education takes place and the support services needed.
- MOE should ensure that the OOSCI encourages higher attendance rates in mainstream schools in Myanmar and targets children with disabilities.
- There should be awareness raising on Inclusive Education (IE) through media and talks.
- Government, INGOs, NGOs and local authorities should establish networking mechanisms.

3.5. Barrier 5: Geographical differences

The OOSCI profile analysis presented in Chapter 2 shows how there is a large gap between urban and rural areas, even within states and regions. This difference is explored in the following sections.

3.5.1. Hard-to-reach areas

Some of the most vulnerable children in Myanmar, with the greatest humanitarian needs, are those in the hard-to-reach, remote, ethnic-minority areas. These areas have been affected by protracted conflict since independence in 1948 and have poor coverage of basic social services, including education and health.

Following the inauguration of the first civilian government in Myanmar on 30 March 2011, parties made initial moves toward reconciliation and peace talks were restarted with some armed groups. The two sides established a peace committee to resolve ethnic issues and ensure lasting peace. The Government also formed its Human Rights Commission to safeguard the rights of citizens, and committed to improving services in border areas and to creating economic opportunities there.

MICS shows how basic service coverage for antenatal care, institutional deliveries, preschool and primary school are considerably lower in hard-to-reach areas of Chin, Sagaing, Kayin, Kayah and Northern Rakhine states than in other parts of the country, resulting in higher illiteracy and higher infant, child and maternal mortality.⁹⁰

Social services also do not meet standards due to issues in access and quality. Access is made difficult due to geographic remoteness and the mountainous nature of the border areas, combined with security and infrastructure challenges caused by protracted conflict in many of the areas. Quality of social services suffers because of the limited resources, both human and financial, allocated to them, difficulties in attracting and maintaining quality service providers to areas of hardship as well as the disruption of social services due to conflict/security concerns.

As in other situations, children from displaced communities are particularly vulnerable, having few or no means to sustain their livelihood over time. They are particularly vulnerable to illnesses and diseases common in temporary and substandard living conditions, and due to their lack of access to basic social services, and are often at risk of getting no formal education. Conflicts and natural disasters have had a particularly detrimental impact women and children, causing loss of life,

⁹⁰ Ministry of National Planning and Economic Development and UNICEF, “*Situation Analysis of Children in Myanmar, Nay Pyi Taw 2012*”. p. 21

insecurity, psychological distress and displacement, while undermining access to services, affecting livelihoods and pushing people deeper into poverty.

3.5.2. Natural disasters

Myanmar is prone to natural disasters, especially due to cyclones, floods, landslides, droughts, forest fires, earthquakes, tsunamis and coastal storm surges. The World Risk Index puts Myanmar at 42 out of 173, while the Global Climate Risk Index is 2 out of 178.⁹¹ And according to the United Nations Risk Model, Myanmar is “most at risk” for natural disasters. Coastal regions, particularly Rakhine State and the Ayeyarwaddy Delta Region, are at high risk for cyclones, storm surges and tsunamis, and much of the country is also exposed to flooding and landslides during rainy season, or drought and fire during dry season. As Myanmar falls on one of the two main earthquake belts in the world, the Chittagong-Tripura Fold Belt, much of the country is also prone to earthquakes.

These natural disasters impact education, through the psychological impact, shifts in child labour, destruction of schools, damage to educational infrastructure, displacement of teachers and students, loss of information and resulting poverty. There is a clear link between natural disasters, child labour, and education as well. Natural disasters are external shocks that disrupt the livelihoods of families, at times forcing children to assist in income-generating activities to compensate for the loss, and following a natural disaster, high dropout rates may be due to children being pressured or forced by their parents to choose work over school.

Damage to infrastructure caused by natural disasters decreases educational opportunities as well, and increases costs of attending school for many children. Moreover, natural disasters have a larger negative impact on lower income families and communities than on higher income families. In poorer households, where the family cannot support themselves after a natural disaster, children are less likely to go to school.

Since Cyclone Nargis in 2008, Myanmar has expanded disaster prevention and preparedness in all areas, and the Myanmar Action Plan on Disaster Risk Reduction 2009-2015 (MAPDRR) represents a comprehensive effort to address these issues.⁹² In accordance with the the National Disaster Preparedness Central Committee (NDPCC), each ministry issues instructions to its departments for the preparation of natural disaster management plans, and Departments of Health, Public Works, Agricultural Planning and Education have all prepared their own plans. All departments and schools under MOE have received guidelines for drafting plans in order to minimize the impacts of disasters, and in order to promote greater and more effective disaster risk reduction initiatives, complementary policies, guidelines and institutional arrangements will be developed under this component. All sub-components target capacities of existing institutions and lay the foundation for future undertakings.

Planned subcomponents include:

- the Multi-hazard Preparedness and Response Plan for Quick Deployment of Resources;
- the Multi-hazard Response Plan for Regions/States, Districts and Townships;
- establishing an Emergency Operations Centre (EOC);
- strengthening emergency support functions;
- reviewing and expanding rapid response teams;

⁹¹ “Disaster Preparedness and Resiliency: Myanmar”, retrieved December 11, 2017 from <http://www.give2asia.org/disaster-preparedness-and-resilience-myanmar-1/>

⁹² The Government of the Union of Myanmar, “*Myanmar Action Plan on Disaster Risk Reduction (MAPDRR) 2009-2015*”. Ministry of Social Welfare, Relief and Resettlement, Department of Relief and Resettlement.

- a cyclone contingency programme for delta and coastal regions;
- safe shelters;
- development of a School Disaster Preparedness Programme; and
- a preparedness and response programme for psychosocial impacts and epidemic & disease control in the aftermath of natural disasters.

To provide a safer environment for children, teachers and school authorities, the MOE and the Township Disaster Preparedness Committees will take the lead roles in Subcomponent 8, “Development of school disaster preparedness programme”, to work with the school authorities and teachers from selected schools in all states and divisions with priority accorded to Ayeyarwaddy, Chin, Magway, Mandalay, Rakhine, Sagaing and Thanintharyi, in devising individual school disaster preparedness programmes. Township Education Offices will support school risk assessments done by the schools themselves, including of their vicinities, as a basis for preparedness programmes, and township authorities will also support implementation.

Activities under this subcomponent are (i) identify schools in all states/regions; (ii) coordinate and develop individual school preparedness plans; and (iii) implement such plans in pilot schools, report the findings and extend to other schools.

The experience of Cyclone Nargis spurred a range of initiatives with special attention to children, which set an example for the future. The life skills curriculum developed to complement core subjects now includes a disaster risk and emergency behaviour component for all primary and secondary students across the country. It is widely recognized within the disaster risk reduction community that the most effective way to address the costs for future hazards is to invest in expanding the knowledge of children.

The responses to Cyclone Giri in October 2010, and to the earthquake that hit Shan State in March 2011, have reflected the many lessons learned from the experience of Cyclone Nargis and are a testament to the capacities developed in the areas of early warning, emergency preparedness and response at both the central and regional levels. The MSWRR Department of Relief and Resettlement is now taking the leading role in drafting the upcoming Disaster Management Law and the formulation of policies and action plans, such as the Myanmar Action Plan on Disaster Risk Reduction (MAPDRR) and the Standing Order on Disaster Management, are the result of a new high level of political will, commitment and institutional arrangements put in place by the Government, with the support of the international community.

3.5.3. Recommendations

- Education should be prioritized in disaster response, and reconstruction and rehabilitation of damaged schools should be taken as early as possible.
- Funding to ensure safe school construction; capacity building for teachers, local government staff and community members in DRR; and resilience education of students should be raised to ensure that they have a greater awareness of the risks and potential impacts of disasters coupled with basic training on what to do during a disaster.
- Planning and development of comprehensive school safety policies and DRR-related strategies, initiatives and plans that exist in the education sector should be standardized.

- Investment in understanding risks, disaster risk reduction, and response-preparedness in the education sector should be increased.

3.6. Barrier 6: Relevance of education and engagement with parents

Dropout rates after primary school are high, due to high cost and low perceived value

In its report, *Child Labour in Myanmar's Garment Sector: Challenges and Recommendations*, Business for Social Responsibility (BSR) found that, "In our interviews with stakeholders, many mentioned a widespread perception that the value of participation in Myanmar's education system is limited. Many interview participants proposed that most parents do not see a long-term benefit to keeping their children in school, especially given the high cost of enrolment and loss of additional household income."⁹³

Relevance of education and engagement of parents is thus a critical barrier for all school age children, especially for (i) children from poor families; (ii) children who live in rural areas, remote areas and border areas; (iii) children with disabilities; (iv) children whose parents have lower educational attainment; (v) child labourers; and (vi) female children from some religious groups. Contributing factors are low demand from parents, lack of interest, participation in labour and migration. All of these bear on the quality of education, and other factors include insufficient education infrastructure, outdated curricula and teaching methodologies, insufficient number of teachers, lack of well-qualified teachers and weak implementation of existing examination system.

3.6.1. Education infrastructure

Education infrastructure is one of the important factors for quality education and this includes suitable spaces to learn. This is one of the most basic elements necessary to ensure access to education. School classrooms are the most common place in which structured learning takes place with groups of children. While learning also takes place in a variety of different types of spaces - tents, temporary shelters, plastic sheeting, shade of trees, places of worship and private homes - families and communities expect formal education to take place in classrooms that have been designed for safety and comfort.

Some attributes of adequate infrastructure are:

- sufficient space per child, usually guided by standards set by a country's Ministry of Education;
- sufficient space for 30 to 40 children per classroom, to permit efficient use of teachers;
- construction methods that ensure the safety of children in school, suited to the natural hazards of the region;
- adequate, separate sanitary facilities, for boys and for girls, and for staff; and
- increasingly, electricity and Internet connectivity.

Facilities may be inadequate in many ways, including being overcrowded or dangerous, lacking in adequate sanitary facilities and lacking water for hygiene. The health implications of inadequate toilets

⁹³ "Child Labour in Myanmar's Garment Sector: Challenges and Recommendations". BSR Report. BSR, 2016. San Francisco.

and sanitation are very serious and girls in particular are discouraged from attending school if facilities are inadequate.

Inadequacy of learning space and associated facilities is a pervasive factor for out-of-school children in rural and densely populated urban settings as well, particularly where internal migration is high, in remote rural areas, and for girls in puberty.

There are three types of infrastructure: (i) basic infrastructure, such as classroom, blackboard, teaching materials, books and mid-day meals, (ii) supportive infrastructure, such as a network of friends, health check-ups, drinking water and toilet facilities, and (iii) activities-based infrastructure, such as teaching/learning materials, games and cultural programmes. Education officers, principals, parents and students usually focus on basic infrastructure first, then supportive infrastructure and finally activity-based infrastructure. Perception of these also varies with differences in religion, socio-economic status, district and literacy level of the community, and with the infrastructure that is available.

Ultimately, good school infrastructure, with renovated spaces, makes it possible for children and youth who live in remote areas to stay in school and learn, and tends to improve the attendance and interest of students and teachers in learning. For this same reason, investment in school infrastructure has an essential role in solving problems of access for students to the school system and improving their performance.

3.6.2. Curricula

The primary education curriculum was revised in the 1998-1999 academic year and implemented in the 2000-2001 academic year. In this curriculum, general studies, including natural science, morals and civics, life skills, aesthetic education including painting and music, physical education and school activities are added to the lower primary education curriculum, while geography, history, civics, life skills, basic science, aesthetic education, physical education and school activities are added to the upper primary education curriculum.

In 2000-2001, syllabi and textbooks were revised and taught according to the modified curriculum at the high school level, and were then revised at the middle school level in 2001-2002. Lessons on human rights are currently taught under Morals and Civics from Grade 6 to Grade 10 and personal hygiene/health education and environmental education are included in all basic education classes through various subjects.

Human rights lessons in basic education: The Ministry of Education introduced Human Rights Education in the basic education curriculum in the 2004-2005 academic year, and there are teacher manuals for this for both lower and upper secondary. For the Primary level, the concept of Human Rights is integrated into Morals and Civics as well as into other subjects, such as Myanmar Language and Social Studies.

The objective of human rights education is for students to become aware of their rights and responsibilities according to their age. The lessons cover five areas: knowledge about rights, values and attitudes for individual development for respect for rights, civic responsibilities, legal frameworks and peace. The lesson contents for each area are based on the following:

- (a) On knowledge about rights, the lessons are based on the CRC, the Universal Declaration on Human Rights, the Child Law, CEDAW and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.

- (b) The lessons concerning values and attitudes for individual development for respect to rights are based on accepting diversity, the ethics of teachers/students/parents/children, as well as the valuable interpersonal relationships in the society.
- (c) For civic responsibilities, the lessons are based on patriotism, civic responsibilities and good citizenship, as well as on strength of unity.
- (d) On legal rights, the lessons are based on rights and esteem protected by law, organizations from which children can ask for help, various legal systems and the courts, seven road map to democracy and peaceful living under the law.
- (e) For peace building, the lessons are based on the fact that cooperation brings results, the importance of taking individual responsibility and making good collective decisions, helping each other, defining “peace” itself, forgiveness, patience, a means of solving disputes and creating a peaceful society.

Health and Environmental Education: Lessons on personal hygiene/health education and environmental conservation are mainly included in Life Skills. These lessons are also integrated into other subjects, such as morals and civics, general science, geography, Myanmar language and English.

Life skills lessons are competency/skills-based and are taught using a child-centred approach. Students are nurtured to develop a healthy and happy lifestyle and also to have a good attitude and good habits for environmental sustainability.

Initiating reform of the basic education curriculum

MOE conducted a review of existing textbooks in November 2013, with the aim of upgrading content in some areas and reducing curriculum overload in others. At the time, the teaching of co-curriculum subjects was strengthened with the introduction of Agriculture as a subject, as well as the introduction of new student materials for “Morals and Civics” at the primary school level. In addition, new textbooks and teachers’ guides were introduced for “Life Skills” at the high school level.

As set out in the 2014 National Education Law, the Government is committed to restructuring the basic education system from 11 years to 12 years plus one year of kindergarten. Accordingly, the National Curriculum Framework (NCF) for Basic Education, which is aligned with the new KG+12 structure, was developed in September 2013 through intensive consultations among stakeholders. This was finally approved by Myanmar’s Ministry of Education in May 2015.

This framework will have a significant impact on Myanmar’s basic education system, as it is the first attempt in the history of education in the country to clarify the direction of basic education in Myanmar. The Framework is defined as “the systematic written programmes of all fields in formal and non-formal education, which are designed to achieve educational objectives, and which includes learning outcomes, content, instructional methods and evaluation.”

21st Century skills: One key challenge has been to develop a new curricula that are relevant to all students, motivating them to stay in school. The new curriculum must focus on 21st century skills, soft skills (including personal development and employability skills) and higher order thinking skills.

The Framework seeks to emphasize that students acquire “21st Century skills, based on a “skills model” suggested by the P21 Partnership for 21st Century Learning, is composed of intellectual strength, physical strength, moral and ethical strength, social strength and economic strength. It also

includes higher-order thinking skills, cognitive skills, creative skills, problem-solving and leadership as cross-cutting competencies.

All-round and balanced development: The Framework emphasizes all-round and balanced development of students, especially in terms of intellectual, physical, social, moral, emotional and aesthetic dimensions. Instead of the current division into core curriculum and co-curriculum, the Framework intends that all subjects be treated equally.

Local curriculum is allowed: The Framework allows local governments or schools to develop their own curricula as a component of the main curriculum. In primary education, the local curriculum is up to 120 hours per year, while in secondary education, it is up to 108 hours per year. The Framework covers (a) basic principles, (b) objectives, (c) organization of the curriculum with a focus on learning areas, (d) outlines of curriculum content and skills for each subject, (e) language of instruction and local curriculum and (f) approaches to student assessment.

Other major features are formal recognition of CCA as the pedagogical methodology, a wider use of formative assessments as classroom-based evaluation and an introduction of assessment at the completion of primary and middle school education. For secondary students, this includes vocational skills as well.

Timeline: This new education system was introduced in 2016-2017, when the basic education structure changed from 5:4:2 to K-12 (or K: 5:4:3). According to the plan for implementation, new kindergarten curricula and relevant materials were introduced in 2016-2017 with the first cohort of students. In 2018, the new Grade 1 curriculum was developed and introduced to the same group, and this cohort will finish primary education with the new curriculum in 2021-2022.

The new lower secondary Grade 6 curriculum will be introduced in 2019-2020 with another (second) student group, and a new upper secondary Grade 10 curriculum will be introduced in 2020-2021 with a third student group. The first cohort of students will finish basic education in 2029.

The new kindergarten curriculum was developed in line with ECCD policies, with new subject matter to be holistic and thematic, with play introduced as a teaching mechanism. There is also now a link between the kindergarten curriculum and Grade 1, which is content-based and skills-based, and which integrates play and the CCA. The core subjects are Burmese, English, mathematics, science, social studies (geography and history), morals and civics, life skills, physical education and performance/art.

3.6.3. Teachers

One key element in implementing quality basic education is that teachers have access to training, and in 1998 Myanmar upgraded its teacher training colleges to “education colleges”. As of 2017 there were 23 of these plus 2 education universities under MOE, with one University for the Development of National Races (UDNR) under the Ministry of Border Affairs. These facilities play several different roles:

- Education Colleges offer diplomas in Teacher Education (DTEd) for those who have passed an entrance exam, as well as a diploma in Teacher Education Competency (DTEC) for university graduates. Successful trainees are appointed as primary school teachers. Training for post-primary teachers was initiated in 2014 for graduates, who are also appointed as primary school teachers.

- The Universities of Education offer Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) as well as a post-graduate diploma in teaching (PGDT) and post-graduate diploma in multimedia arts education (PGDMA) for university graduates. Successful trainees become primary and junior teachers. From the 2001-2002 academic year to the 2009-2010 academic year there were nine PGDT courses.
- The Universities of Education have also offered the Certificate in Education Technology (CET) for holders of master's degrees, as well as the Special Certificate in Education Technology (SCET) for those with higher degrees from universities. CET was initiated in 2002 and ended in 2007, and about 12,000 teachers were trained. Two batches of SCET courses were also offered in 2006 and 2007, and altogether 2,400 teachers were trained. Successful trainees were appointed as senior teachers. (These two courses are not currently provided.)
- In-service teachers can also take Master of Philosophy (M.Phil.), Master of Education (M.Ed.) and Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.).
- From the 2006-2007 academic year to the 2008-2009 academic year, Myanmar offered instructor courses, refresher courses and multiplier courses for 269,908 primary- and secondary-level teachers.
- To improve capacity for English language and mathematics teachers, the Yangon Institutes of Education offered central-level instructor courses in October 2009, and 634 instructors were trained. Over 130,662 English and mathematics teachers at the region/state-level were given refresher courses, and there were also district- and township-level refresher courses from November 2009 to May 2010. School- and cluster-level multiplier courses were conducted in June 2010 as well.
- In May 2016, there were kindergarten teacher trainings nationwide using a “cascade” model. This included central-level training for instructors and township-level training for all kindergarten teachers and primary school heads. Township education officers and assistant township education officers attended these as observers and overall more than 90,000 teachers were trained.
- In May 2017 there were teacher trainings on the new Grade 1 curriculum. This included four levels of cascade model training, for the central level, state/region level, district level and township level. There were a total 287 central-level trainees, who are still in the process of becoming trainers for the state/region level and supervisors for the other two levels. There were then 4,000 trainees at the state/region level, and some of them were selected as trainers for the district and township levels. At the district level there were 7,573 trainees and at the Township level, 100,698. Altogether, 112,558 Grade 1 teachers were trained.
- In 2018, a curriculum development team will conduct trainings for Grade 2 teachers.

Increasing salary for teachers and education staff

In 2012, the Government of Myanmar awarded an MMK 30,000 monthly bonus (US\$ 20.12) to all employees. In addition, a hardship allowance was introduced for teachers in 87 remote locations across the country, while in 2015 Parliament had approved another civil service pay rise, which benefited all education staff.

Increasing the number of teachers

In order to ensure that there are more teachers in every school, MOE has appointed approximately 72,000 new “daily wage” teachers over the past three years. These teachers receive one month of pre-service training, and recently they have been appointed as government primary school teachers. The Ministry is currently working on a strategy to strengthen knowledge and skills for them to become fully qualified teachers. MOE also opened teacher colleges in Lashio, northern Shan State, in 2014, and in Loikaw, Kayah State, in 2015, to increase the number of trained teachers for basic education. Since 2014, MOE has also provided MMK 30,000 per month for teacher trainees attending education colleges as well, to cover the cost of meals and to enable more students from poorer backgrounds to train as teachers. Degree courses at universities of education have now been extended to five years, with the additional year focused on instructional skills.

Strengthening teacher education

In recent years, MOE has implemented a number of initiatives to improve both pre- and in-service teacher education in Myanmar, with the support of development partners. These include development of teacher competencies and standards for quality assurance of teachers, formulating a policy framework for pre-service teacher education, and designing and implementing models of in-service teacher education, such as Child Friendly Schools teacher training (CFS), CCA teacher training, School-based In-service Teacher Education (SITE), Strengthening Teacher Education in Myanmar (STEM) and leadership training for head teachers.

MOE has also been implementing various capacity-building programmes for teacher educators, such as upgrading English language proficiency for teacher educators through native-English speaking teachers. At the same time, different models and approaches are being applied to strengthen the quality of teachers from the schools outside the government system, which include module-based and mobile training programmes.

Not enough well qualified teachers

The joint MOE/UNICEF Monitoring and Evaluation Report on New Kindergarten Curriculum Implementation⁹⁴ found that “only 4.5 per cent of kindergarten teachers had a teacher education certificate; the majority of kindergarten teachers were uncertified, which means that they did not have professional teacher accreditation. Most of the kindergarten teachers (76.3 per cent) held BA/BSc degrees, whereas 14.4 per cent of them were matriculates. Unfortunately, 2.2 per cent of kindergarten teachers were general workers.” The report also pointed out that “only 21.3 per cent of primary head teachers had teacher education certifications.”⁹⁵

Yet the NEL provides a clear national framework for progressive, integrated teacher and student-centred reforms. This, as well as CESR reports and the policies of the Education Pragmatic Implementation Committee (EPIC), recognize that a motivated and well-trained teaching force is a prerequisite for quality education, and that this can only be realized through quality management and professional development of teachers.

However, currently there is only one way in Myanmar to obtain teacher qualifications with a career path through government schools, which is to attend and complete a course of study at any of the

⁹⁴ Ministry of Education & UNICEF, (2017), “*Monitoring and Evaluation Report on New Kindergarten Curriculum Implementation*”. p. 55-56

⁹⁵ Ibid. p. 55

education colleges or universities of education, or the UDNR. Because of the limited capacity of education colleges and universities, however, and because of the limited resources for teachers at primary schools, MOE has been recruiting teachers who are graduates but who do not have teacher certificates. As a consequence, about 63 per cent of teachers in primary schools have no recognized qualifications. However, according to new policy announced in February 2016, there will now be 1 school head, 6 teachers and 1 general worker in all primary schools, and 126,854 new primary teachers have been recruited for this.

Percentage of uncertified teachers also appears set to increase, however, and “*de facto*” licensing is still common. Thus there is a need to find alternative pathways to license teachers to teach in government schools other than the formal paths listed above. And teachers who do have certificates or diplomas from education colleges still need to improve their professional caliber, since very few have a chance to improve their capacity. Only continuous professional development can accomplish this.

The goal of in-service professional development is to improve the knowledge, skills and commitment of teachers so that they are more effective in planning lessons, using effective approaches in their teaching and monitoring students’ learning, as well as in undertaking other school and community responsibilities. In-service professional development is particularly important when reforms in teaching and learning are introduced. Myanmar is now seeking to shift from pedagogies based on rote forms of learning and memorization of facts to instructional practices promoting more active forms of learning, emphasizing higher-order thinking, such as critical, analytical and problem solving skills. Such reforms can be successful only if all teachers, regardless of the nature of their initial pre-service preparation, have the understanding, knowledge and skills to implement new practices in the classroom.

The strategic challenges facing teachers and teacher management in Myanmar are:⁹⁶

- (i) lack of a representative body to support teacher education to strengthen coordination among teachers regarding ongoing and planned teaching and teacher management reforms;
- (ii) lack of a clear and practical competency framework against which teachers can be held to account for quality teaching and measurable improvements in student learning;
- (iii) lack of a transparent and widely-owned teacher licensing or accreditation system;
- (iv) a need to improve the quality of pre-service teacher education; and,
- (v) a need to establish and sustain a quality national in-service professional development programme.

Thus the policy framework for in-service teacher education in Myanmar needs to equip the teaching profession to meet the needs of a democratic society in the 21st century, bringing clarity and coherence to the complex matrix of teacher education activities, from initial recruitment and preparation to self-motivated professional development. It should provide an overall strategy for the successful recruitment, retention and continuous professional development of teachers.

3.6.4. Exam systems

Basic education schools in Myanmar have been using the Continuous Assessment and Progression System (CAPS) as their main assessment approach for more than a decade. This was developed to conduct Chapter End Tests (CETs) in primary schools, while secondary schools use a combination of

⁹⁶ CESR and EPIC experts

CETs and semester tests. The Matriculation Exam is the only national exam currently administered on a nationwide basis to measure learning achievement of students at the end of high school.

There are also no standardized achievement tests to assess learning progress in a systemic manner, and in early grades, children are automatically promoted, so the transition rate to lower secondary education is high, albeit lower among the poorest than among the richest children.

However, in 2012-2013, MOE, with support from development partners, conducted Monitoring of Learning Achievement (MLA) for reading and mathematics with students from Grades 3 and 5 in 31 project townships. In addition, since November 2013 MOE has been conducting Early Grade Reading Assessment (EGRA) to assess reading skills for kindergarten and Grade 3 students in the Yangon region. The Ministry will build on the experiences of these initiatives to establish an assessment system. In 2015, MOE also reinstated completion examinations for Grades 5 and 9 throughout the country to measure student achievement prior to transitioning to middle and high school.

3.6.5. Ensuring the quality of basic education

Adopting the child-centred approach (CCA): Myanmar has adopted the child-centred approach to promote children's creativity, analytical skills, critical thinking and problem-solving. Since the 2004-2005 academic year, CCA project townships have been using this approach at the primary level in collaboration with the Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA). And with the adoption of CCA nationwide, teacher training was conducted in a phased-in manner from 2012-2013 to 2015-16 at the primary level, throughout the country.

Child-Friendly Schools (CFS): UNICEF helped to introduce the concept of the child-friendly school in 2001 as an approach to whole-school transformation for effectiveness, promoting child-rights-based education and practices in schools. Myanmar then adopted CFS as a national strategy for increasing access to, and improving quality of, education in the Education for All National Action Plan (EFA-NAP) in 2003. Since then, CFS has been implemented in 96 townships throughout the country. This model promotes inclusive enrolment and participation of all children in school, effective teaching and learning, and improvement of school environment for healthy and better learning, while carefully considering gender sensitivity and responsiveness in education service delivery and involving parents and communities in all efforts for children. A review of this in 2009 indicated that many schools had demonstrated quality processes and outcomes over the three year period. For example, achievements in Burmese language increased from 24 to 59 per cent. Yet despite those promising results, the initiative is still being implemented only in selected schools, and there is a need for a national campaign.

Monitoring & Supervision: Since 2006-2007, Myanmar has been strengthening Monitoring & Supervision by focusing on the teaching and learning processes, and MOE has increased the number of school supervisors at all levels, providing trainings. Under this model, basic education schools are classified by five levels, A, B, C, D, and E, based on the following monitoring and supervision criteria:

- (a) accomplishment of the school principal;
- (b) level of school attendance;
- (c) implementation of monthly lesson plans;
- (d) student achievements;
- (e) use of teaching aids, facilities & laboratories;
- (f) cultivating morale and ethics;
- (g) capacity of teaching staff;

- (h) adequate classrooms and furniture;
- (i) school sanitation and tidiness;
- (j) adequate teaching aids and multimedia facilities;
- (k) greening of school campuses; and
- (l) good physical setting of schools.

From 2008 to 2011 there were five rounds of training in school management and administration for Departments of Basic Education; for state, regional and township education officers; and also for high school heads. Altogether, 1,381 participants attended.

Development of morale and discipline: The students of basic education schools are nurtured for patriotism, union spirit and willingness to abide by laws, regulations and discipline by undertaking the following:

- (a) “Union Spirit” lessons were introduced in 1999-2000 under Morals & Civics.
- (b) Myanmar History Volume 2 has been added to History starting from Grade 5 in order to nurture patriotism.
- (c) Morals and ethics are taught to formulate the habits of respecting and obeying discipline, and abiding by the laws of the nation. Physical education and aesthetic education (painting and music) are also provided to foster regulations and obligations.
- (d) School principals and teachers give talks at school assemblies on Union spirit, patriotism, school spirit, team spirit and the spirit of fair play.
- (e) To develop the qualities of good citizens, students are trained through cooperative activities, participation in literary and art competitions, national commemorative activities and important events of the United Nations.

Use of multimedia facilities and laboratories: computers, televisions, VCRs, DVD players and cassette players are provided as teaching aids, provided by Local Authorities, NGOs and well-wishers.

Anti-drugs messages: There is a working group on drug abuse education and there have been teacher trainings on the dangers of drug use, on HIV/AIDS, on amphetamine-type stimulants (ATS), tobacco and other products. The trainees were from Project townships, regions and states with high risk of drug abuse. Per the structure of the peer education programme, pre-service trainees from the University of Education and from Education College have been trained through discussion among peers concerning the dangers of drugs and the importance of health education.

3.6.6. Recommendations

- Expand education budgets.
- Ensure CCA in all basic education schools and LCA in all education colleges.
- Provide all the necessary requirements for a quality learning environment, such as teaching materials, furniture, safe drinking water, safety equipment, materials for a child friendly environment and sanitary latrines.
- CFS principles and practices should be mainstreamed into regular training for teachers and education officials at different levels, to promote and sustain it as a viable strategy for ensuring all children’s access to quality education.

- Communication strategies and related materials should be developed to raise awareness of CFS as a national EFA strategy among educators as well as the general public.
- Innovations such as CFS, CCA, multi-grade classes and language enrichment should be mainstreamed into instruction at education colleges.
- CFS monitoring should be part of routine MOE monitoring.
- In order to control the quality of basic education, primary and lower secondary exams should be standardized.
- M&E should be enhanced.
- Teacher competencies should be developed for different levels, which could be a framework for further reform to improve teacher training.
- Quality of in-service and pre-service teacher training should be improved.
- There should be capacity building for township education officers in decentralized planning, management and monitoring of education activities ensuring accountability and transparency.
- Training institutions for non-teaching staff and administrative personnel should be improved.
- There should be a quality assurance/quality control system for education.
- There should be a national qualification framework (NQF) for basic education in line with a regional qualification framework (RQF) international qualification framework (IQF).
- There should be an accreditation body for national qualifications in basic education.
- Disparity among the regions and states in quality of education should be reduced.
- Computer databases should be used under EMIS.

For quality improvement in teacher education:

- The pre-service teacher education curriculum is overloaded and should be revised.
- Student-teachers should have more opportunities to practice new knowledge and skills in classrooms during their formal training, while formulation of new procedures, practices and networking is essential in order to equip student-teachers with the skills they need to teach effectively in their classrooms.
- Teaching should follow an interactive model of instruction so that student-teachers can engage in discussion and dialogue to enrich their learning experiences.
- Course duration for primary and lower secondary teacher education is not long enough for training student-teachers. Time span for diploma teacher training courses should be expanded as well, to turn out better-qualified primary and lower secondary teachers.
- Pre-service teacher education should be redesigned with a focus on a new teacher education curriculum, modern pedagogy and assessment strategies.
- Professional capacity of teacher educators should be strengthened.
- Classroom-based pedagogical practices of all teachers should be improved through continuous professional development for in-service teachers.

To ensure development and retention of quality teachers, the following teacher management areas should be strengthened:

- Teacher recruitment.
- Teacher employment.
- Evaluation of teacher performance.
- Teacher promotion based on teacher performance and career experience, and a career pathway system.
- Incentives for the retention of quality teachers.

With regard to teacher recruitment, it is essential to design practical and feasible strategies that can attract new entrants with the potential to become quality teachers. In the area of teacher deployment, reallocation of teachers to schools that need them should be based on subject specialization and more qualified teachers should be given incentives to go to remote and rural areas.

Regarding teacher evaluation, current evaluations of teacher performance should be revised and improved, and linked to a teacher promotion system and performance-based career pathway system, and in general, all teacher management areas should be supported by an effective incentive system.

To improve the quality of alternative education (AE):

- common curriculum standards should be developed;
- systematic monitoring and evaluation of AE programmes should be guided;
- an AE quality assurance system should be established; and
- an AE management information system should be established to document and analyze data on AE providers, age-specific out-of-school children and youth, demand for skills and local resources.

Quality assurance for TVET graduates:

- a TVET qualification framework should be designed in line with a National Qualification Framework and the Regional Qualification Framework;
- cooperation between the Government and private sector should be expanded;
- legislative and policy frameworks for public-private partnership should be established; and
- coordination between relevant TVET ministries should be extended.

3.8 Summary

The quality of primary education service delivery is low, and learning outcomes need to be improved. Despite moves to introduce child-centred approaches, rote learning remains the dominant form of instruction in Myanmar and there are no standardized achievement tests to assess learning progress in a systemic manner. In the early years of education, children are still automatically promoted and transition rate to lower secondary education is artificially high, albeit lower among the poorest children.

As with primary education, teachers generally maintain traditional, didactic practices and an emphasis on rote learning in lower secondary education. Use of the child-centred approach is also made harder by increasing class sizes and an overwhelming majority of children fail to complete basic education (primary and secondary) as defined by the Government.

There is considerable education outside the public sector, in monastic schools, and there are about 180,000 children registered, but the total number in the system is more likely to be around 200,000.⁹⁷ Most monastic schools are primary schools, and they do use the official school curricula, but they also teach Buddhist culture and way of life. Because no fees are charged and food is provided, these schools are able to reach some of the poorest children.

Yet the immediate causal factors hampering children in Myanmar from realizing their right to education are the limited quality of education services and the high actual costs and opportunity costs. The quality of education is impaired by insufficient infrastructure, not enough teachers, outdated curricula, outdated teaching methodologies and large teacher-to-pupil ratios. Parents also have to consider the opportunity cost of keeping their children in education, both for themselves and their children. Parents' appreciation of the value of education, and their willingness to support it for their children, is strongly linked to their own educational experience (or lack of it). Many feel that work is a better option than education.

The underlying causes for the failure of children in Myanmar to realize their right to education include structural factors undermining service delivery, a lack of options in non-formal, basic education and language barriers. The former includes lack of funding for the education sector as well as limited policy development and planning, limited quality of teacher training, sector-level management failings and inadequate monitoring and assessment. The current provision of non-formal or alternative primary education for children who have dropped out of school is very limited in coverage, and despite the country's very complex linguistic diversity, the Burmese language is the sole language of government, public affairs and public education. This language barrier is thus a significant factor in children from ethnic minorities dropping out of school.

The rates of enrolment in primary school are fairly high, however, and this suggests that Myanmar's cultural norms do highly value education, also that the decision for children to work rather than attend school is primarily a matter of financial hardship. However, the perception that the educational system does not provide useful skills and knowledge certainly contributes to the willingness of families and children to leave school and enter the workforce. Improving the quality of educational options and closing the gap between the age when compulsory education is completed and the minimum age for employment would help to reduce the availability of out-of-school children for the workforce.

⁹⁷ *"Situation Analysis of children in Myanmar"*. p. xix

CHAPTER 4. Conclusion and Recommendations

4.1. Profiles of OOSC

This report is the outcome of in-depth analysis of data on out-of-school children in Myanmar. It highlights the low levels of enrolment in early childhood education and significant urban-rural and wealth-based disparities, especially for children of secondary school age.

In Dimension 1: The percentage of pre-primary age children in school is still very low and the OOSC rate for age 4 is 76.6 per cent. Moreover, there are significant disparities: children from the poorest households, and those living in rural areas, are less likely to participate. Regional disparities are particularly marked but there is no gender difference, with GPI of 0.994.

In Dimension 2: The OOSC rate of primary school-aged children (5-9 years) is 12 per cent according to OOSC profile analysis. There has been improved coverage at the primary level through increased numbers of schools as well as the establishment of many schools with multi-grade teaching. However, regional disparities exist and there are disparities between urban and rural, and enrolment is slightly higher in urban areas, and highest for rich households. In general, children are expected to enrol in primary school at age 5, but late enrolment is common in rural areas, leading to many overage children in primary education. And here too there are regional, urban-rural and income-related disparities in both enrolment and completion rates. In both urban and rural areas, more male children are out-of-school than are female children, while among states and regions attendance rates do not differ markedly except in Rakhine State. But OOSC rate for primary age does vary widely across states and regions. OOSC rate also reduces as parent's education level gets higher.

In Dimension 3: Based on LFS data, the OOSC rate for lower secondary school age (10-13) was 11.6 per cent as of 2015. As with primary school age children, more male children are out-of-school than are female children and the rural-urban difference in attendance is far more pronounced for lower secondary than for primary schools. So too are the disparities based on socio-economic status and regional disparities. The OOSC rates of lower secondary age also vary widely across states and regions. Education level of household head is also a significant factor.

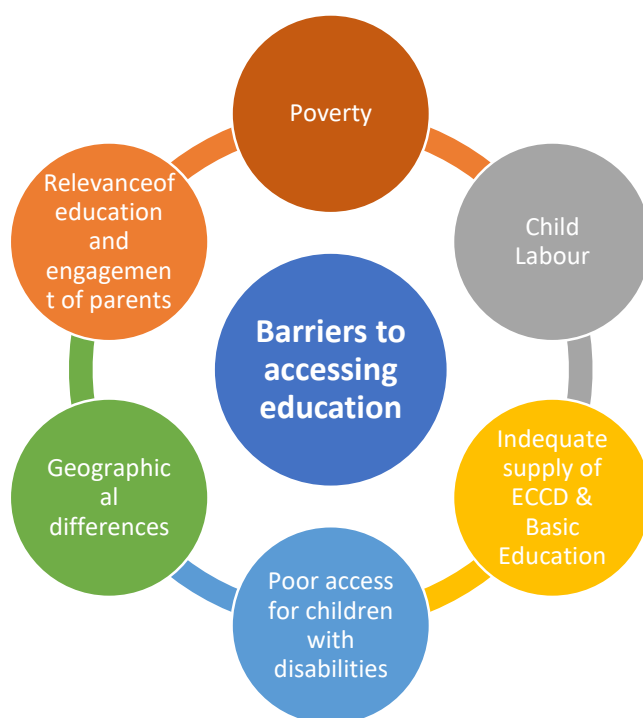
In Dimension 4: Many children are at risk of dropping out of primary school and males are more likely to dropout than females. Also, children in rural areas have greater risk of dropout than those in urban areas. There is also substantial risk of dropout in both rural and urban areas, yet more rural children are expected to dropout than are urban children.

In Dimension 5: Children here are at risk of dropping out too, and GPI increases with grade, so that more males dropout than females. Myanmar thus faces the situation of male children having higher risk of exclusion from education and, as with other dimensions, dropout rates in rural areas are mostly higher than for urban areas.

4.2. Barriers to education

The OOSCI has identified six key barriers to accessing education, many of which are interlinked and affect access to education in different ways.

Figure 4. 1. Barriers to accessing education



An important thread underlying the analysis of barriers to education is quality: In general, the quality of education in Myanmar is affected by the lack of teachers with adequate qualifications and experience, as well as by deficiencies in curricula, in textbooks, and in infrastructure, with high student-teacher ratios. A related issue is the use of outdated teaching methodologies. Teachers generally rely on traditional, didactic teaching methods and encourage rote learning for tests and examinations. Neither have current curricula, teachers' guides or resource books been assessed for quality of content, gender sensitivity, age-appropriateness and developmental appropriateness. Efforts are underway to introduce child-centred teaching, yet there is little evidence to suggest that a substantial, transformational shift has been achieved. Many, if not most, schools in Myanmar are in poor physical condition and lack basic infrastructure, such as water and sanitation facilities. Schools rely extensively on community contributions for primary school building and maintenance, and spaces for learning may be inadequate or may lack partitions. Teachers then have to share the same classroom. Schools may also lack usable blackboards and teaching aids, sufficient desks and chairs, clean water and basic sanitation. Moreover, most schools, and teachers in them, are not equipped to meet the learning needs of children with disabilities and very few children with disabilities are mainstreamed into the government schools. There are very few education facilities for children with disabilities and many schools depend on private contributions to sustain their programme.

Similarly, the inability to afford education due to poverty is a complex barrier: Although direct costs for accessing formal education are theoretically zero, as basic education in Myanmar is free, there

may be indirect private or opportunity costs. In other words, the earnings missed with the child in school rather than working. Parents have to weigh the relative costs of keeping their child in the education system against those from having the child engage in alternative activities, notably work and domestic chores. When children are working, families gain in the short term, or they gain from children looking after younger siblings and doing domestic chores, thus freeing their parents to work. Many parents also think that work is also a better long-term option for their children than education, a view aggravated by the problems with quality of education delivery in Myanmar. When parents see their children progressing only slowly through the system - or if they fail to see clear, improved learning outcomes - this will likely undermine the perception that their child is benefitting. In the same vein, there is an opportunity cost of time for parents, particularly in the case of young children whose schools are a long distance from their home. Children cannot walk alone to distant schools and parents often will not have the time to take and bring them back daily, so they keep the children at home. This is one of the reasons for the relatively high proportion of overage children in schools, particularly in rural areas.

Other problems encountered in the education sector stem from structural factors such as decades of under-investment and poor policy planning in the education sector: A lack of investment in early childhood development as a key strategy to increase school readiness and retention has put the Myanmar education system at a disadvantage. Teacher competence, for example, is directly related to the quality of education colleges. These institutions struggle with such challenges as: inadequate skills in pedagogical teaching; poor facilities, equipment and information resources; overloaded curricula; and lack of supervision. School management is not necessarily geared toward achieving quality in teaching and learning and head teachers tend to be promoted on the basis of years of service and qualification. Some secondary school head teachers receive specific training in management, budgets, finance and supervision, yet most primary school head teachers have no training and very limited opportunities to learn and develop in their role. And since the education system is highly centralized, townships and schools are unable to develop activities and programmes to meet local needs. Poor communication between the central and local levels only contributes to the confusion regarding rules and regulations, thus weakening policy implementation, service delivery and monitoring. Similarly, the absence of an effective system for disbursing funds directly to schools undermines school administration. Little capacity exists, meanwhile, to provide extra services to any child or group of children, irrespective of how needy or well justified. Officials, especially at the subnational levels, would benefit from capacity building in management skills that can strengthen their abilities to increasingly target services to the needs of the poor.

4.3. Policy responses

Myanmar has seen increased investment in the education sector since 2011, evidenced by increases in government spending, as well as contributions from development partners: Spending on education as a percentage of GDP rose from 0.7 per cent in fiscal year 2011/2012 to 2.1 per cent in 2013/2014.⁹⁸ The Citizen's Budget for Myanmar (2017-2018) shows continuous increase in government spending on education from MMK 485 billion (US\$321 million) in 2012/2012 to an estimated MMK 1,756 billion (US\$1,162 million) in 2017/2018.⁹⁹ Yet, despite the increase, Myanmar's ASEAN neighbours spend far more on education, averaging 3.6 per cent of GDP.¹⁰⁰

⁹⁸ <https://oxfordbusinessgroup.com/overview/back-basics-major-changes-education-sector-are-under-way>

⁹⁹ http://themimu.info/sites/themimu.info/files/documents/Core_Doc_Citizens_Budget_Information_for_2017-2018_31May2017.pdf

¹⁰⁰ <https://oxfordbusinessgroup.com/overview/back-basics-major-changes-education-sector-are-under-way>

- To promote greater access to, and quality of, basic education, Myanmar has been implementing its Thirty-Year Long-Term Basic Education Development Plan for 2001-2002 2030-2031. This consists of six 5-year, medium-term plans.
- In line with the Long-Term Basic Education Development Plan, and based on the framework of the Dakar EFA Goals and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), Myanmar formulated its Education for All-National Action Plan (EFA-NAP) 2003-2015 with the six goals, including access to complete, quality basic education.
- The Myanmar National Education Strategic Plan (NESP 2016-2021) provides the Government, education stakeholders and citizens with a roadmap for sector-wide education reforms over the next five years that will dramatically improve access to quality education for students at all levels.
- The Early Childhood Care and Development Policy 2014 makes provisions for age-appropriate ECCD services for children 0-8 years (see Section 3 for details). According to the policy, care is to be provided in holistic, high-quality and developmentally appropriate ways established through multi-sectoral coordination, while also being culturally and linguistically appropriate.

The relatively low level of investment in the education sector compounds challenges in policy development, and capacity for planning and operationalisation: Effective planning requires a long-term perspective, aligning short- and medium-term goals and programmes with a broader strategic vision. Several policy documents have articulated Myanmar's policy response on improving access to education (see Annex D for details). The most comprehensive of these, the Myanmar National Education Section Strategic Plan 2016-21 (NESP), issued in 2017, presents an ambitious reform agenda for the education sector.¹⁰¹ It includes nine transformational shifts to achieve quality education for all: preschool education; basic education, including improvements in access and inclusion; curriculum; assessment; teacher training and management; alternative educational programmes; TVET; higher education; and education sector management (see figure below). The NESP puts greater emphasis on improving the quality of compulsory basic education, addressing the problem of out-of-school children, and developing TVET as an alternative to more formal education.

While the NESP presents a well-researched, clearly articulated and comprehensive reform agenda, it is ambitious and requires strong fiscal and political commitment to be implemented. Moreover, it necessitates capacity building across administrative levels, as well as strong coordination between line ministries in terms of planning and budgeting. This alignment of policy and coordination is not always evident, however. One key education goal of the government is to expand quality ECCD, as stated in the Myanmar Policy for ECCD¹⁰² and NESP, but ECCD services are not included in the Myanmar Health Vision 2030.

¹⁰¹, ¹⁰¹ http://www.moe-st.gov.mm/wp-content/uploads/2018/01/NESP_20Summary_20-20English_20-20Final_20-20Feb_2023.pdf

¹⁰² https://www.unicef.org/myanmar/01_ECCD_Policy_E_Version_Web_72_dpi.pdf

Figure 4. 2. NESP goal and transformational shifts



4.4. Recommendations for access to quality basic education

The analysis in this report, together with stakeholder consultations, suggests a series of recommendations to improve access to education. Addressing the issue of children not in school or at risk of dropping out of school requires a multi-sectoral approach and a focus on operationalising the NESP (2016-2021). The analysis in Chapter 3 in particular presents detailed recommendations linked to all critical barriers identified in OOSCI. To conclude, some recommendations are highlighted as priorities for the short to medium-term:

- building capacity; improving sector and partner coordination; and increasing investment to implement existing education policies and plans such as the NESP (2016-2021);
- increasing investment in provision of ECCD services since the OOSC rate of preschool age children is very high;
- bridging the infrastructure gap between urban and rural areas;
- capacity development of teachers across all grades;
- increasing investment in inclusive education;
- increasing investment in technical and vocational education;
- introducing a job oriented curriculum in secondary schools; and
- increasing the quality of basic education.

In addition to the supportive recommendations provided for each barrier in Chapter 3, more specific recommendations are presented below:

Concerning legislation, policy and education expenditure in the basic education sector:

- Existing laws related to basic education should be reviewed and revised in accordance with new administration systems and new government policy.
- According to the Private School Registration Law (2011), rules and regulations should be developed and implemented.
- Provisions made for free, compulsory basic education under the education law (2015) should be communicated across all administrative levels, and should be enforced.
- Policy framework should be created for both public and private sector services and advocacy for Early Child Care Education should be enhanced.
- Policy should be developed to implement non-formal education more effectively and extend coverage.
- There should be a teacher education Policy for recruiting teachers and training them on 21st-Century teaching skills.
- The NESP should be linked with other sectors, as some of the key barriers identified for education access can be addressed by efforts in rural development, poverty alleviation and social protection.
- Education funding should be increased in line with regional and international norms, and a separate budget for ECCE should be considered.
- Non-formal equivalency programmes, such as non-formal primary education (NFPE) and non-formal middle school education (NFMSE) should receive increased funding.
- As external financing of the education sector increases, it is important that support from development partners is coordinated and aligned with the NESP. Efforts should be made to ensure that education systems are strengthened instead of taking the programme-based approach to financing different activities of the NESP. These efforts should be led by MOE, which can develop and communicate a coherent policy for more educational cooperation and effective coordination with external partners.

For expansion of ECCD services:

- ECCD should be considered a high priority, with investments across Ministries of Education, Social Welfare and Health aligned.
- Continuous ECCD pre-service and in-service trainings should be provided to produce qualified ECCD teachers in both public and private sector services.
- Parenting education should be expanded among parents and caregivers to increase awareness and knowledge on the fundamental needs of child development.
- A functional administrative data collection system, including an M&E framework, should be developed to monitor the quality of ECCD services provided by different service providers (MOE, NGOs, and private organizations).
- Expand existing programmes, such as school-based, community-based and home-based ECCD, in line with the focus of NESP and national policy on ECCD.

- Emphasize participation in the regional collaborative project, “Preschool Education for All”, especially for children from poor families.

For improving access to basic education:

- Set clear targets, and invest adequately, in reaching those out-of-school and at risk of dropping out to meet commitments in providing access to education for all;
- Learning opportunities, including formal and non-formal education, should be expanded for hard-to-reach groups of children.
- Ensure increased enrolment in basic education through initiatives such as “Enrolment Week”, “the Post-primary School Project”, “the Mobile Schools Programme”, “the Special Programme for Overage Children” and “the Non-formal Primary Education Programme” as well as through opening schools in border areas.
- Where public schools cannot enrol children, monastic education should be strengthened and expanded.
- Free, compulsory primary education should be continued, for achieving basic education development plans as well as SDG and EFA goals.
- Primary and secondary education should be made more accessible to children with increased focus on retention and completion across all grades.
- Inclusive education should be enhanced and MOE should ensure that the right to inclusive education is fully realized by further amending national education law; MOE should also ensure that the amendment and its bylaws are aligned with SDG #4, CRPD, and the Incheon Strategy, to ensure that children with disabilities are welcome in schools and that their learning is supported in ways that are individualized.
- Disparity among rural and urban, and regions and states, in access to education should be reduced through encouraging infrastructure development and jobs creation in rural areas.
- MOE should expand coverage of school grants programmes and student stipends, and should encourage monastic schools and community-based schools, which often are located in poor and remote areas typically associated with poor education outcomes.
- MOE should implement school feeding programmes in target areas to increase enrolment rates, to reduce dropout rates and to regularize attendance, and to strengthen the learning capacity of children; monastic schools and community-based schools should also be included.
- MSWRR should increase coverage of social protection programmes as outlined in the Myanmar National Social Protection Strategy 2014. This includes cash-transfer programmes targeted to support poor and vulnerable families with school-age children, and an *equity* approach should be considered rather than an *equality* approach.

For increasing retention and completion rates in school activities:

- School retention projects should be monitored and supervised, with feedback provided.
- Motivational activities using Information, Education and Communication (IEC) should be undertaken at the community level to promote retention and completion of basic education.
- A means for creative teaching/learning methods for all students, especially for ethnic national groups, should be introduced.

- MOE should ensure that every school has an adequate number of trained teachers throughout the school year.
- Flexible learning programmes for maximum participation, e.g. multi-grade teaching, should be introduced as appropriate.
- MOE should continue to equip basic education Schools with ICT and e-education.
- MOE should adopt appropriate rules and regulations for universal basic education.

For life skills:

- National life skills education programmes should be strengthened by regular supervision.
- Projects implemented and tested by NGOs and other development partners, such as the Extended and Continuous Education and Learning Programme (EXCEL), should be scaled-up in instances where they have shown significant impact on learning outcomes.

For literacy and continuing education:

- Disparities among regions and states with low adult literacy rates should be reduced through targeted adult literacy programmes.
- Continuing education programmes should be enhanced through community learning centres.
- The MOE Department of Alternative Education (DAE) should be strengthened to implement more NFE activities effectively.

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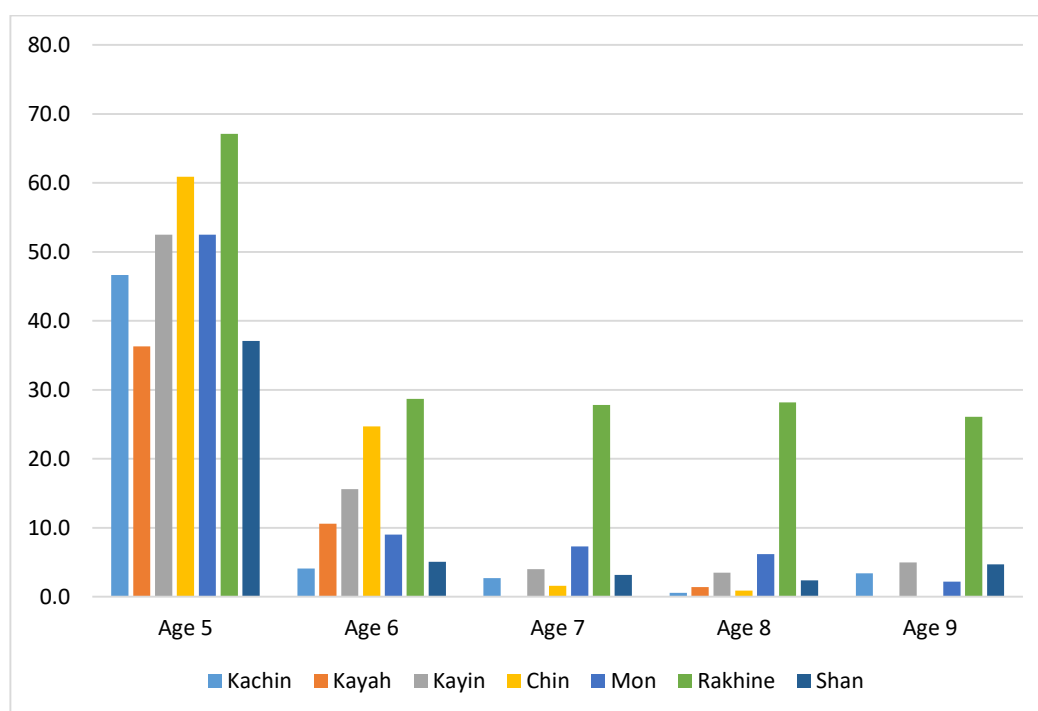
Annex A: Important statistics

Table A. Percentage of primary and lower secondary age children out of school, by age and state/region, 2015

State/Region	State							Region							Nay Pyi Taw	National
	Kachin	Kayah	Kayin	Chin	Mon	Rakhine	Shan	Sagaing	Tanintharyi	Bago	Magwe	Mandalay	Yangon	Ayarwaddy		
Age																
5	46.7	36.3	52.5	60.9	52.5	67.1	37.1	60.9	61.2	45.6	44.7	48.0	49.1	38.9	47.7	49.0
6	4.1	10.6	15.6	24.7	9.0	28.7	5.1	9.7	11.5	17.5	9.3	6.9	6.1	6.2	5.7	10.0
7	2.7	0.0	4.0	1.6	7.3	27.8	3.2	5.2	3.8	1.6	3.5	3.3	4.4	3.7	0.0	4.7
8	0.6	1.4	3.5	0.9	6.2	28.2	2.4	3.2	2.0	1.4	0.0	1.5	2.4	4.2	2.1	3.9
9	3.4	0.0	5.0	0.0	2.2	26.1	4.7	5.6	1.5	2.7	1.2	3.7	6.3	4.3	1.2	4.9
10	5.5	14.8	10.2	3.6	6.9	34.8	7.2	7.7	0.5	3.5	10.5	8.1	3.3	9.2	2.8	8.2
11	2.8	8.2	13.7	0.0	4.1	25.4	8.2	2.7	3.1	6.6	2.3	6.2	9.1	6.3	3.7	6.9
12	9.5	12.9	20.3	0.5	12.7	37.4	14.0	9.5	9.5	10.3	2.9	7.5	12.7	20.8	6.0	12.9
13	8.4	17.8	21.1	11.6	20.3	41.4	16.8	18.2	14.8	19.1	14.3	15.2	17.3	23.5	3.5	18.5
Blue - OOSC rate is more than the national average. Yellow - highest OOSC rates Pink - second highest OOSC rate Green - zero OOSC																

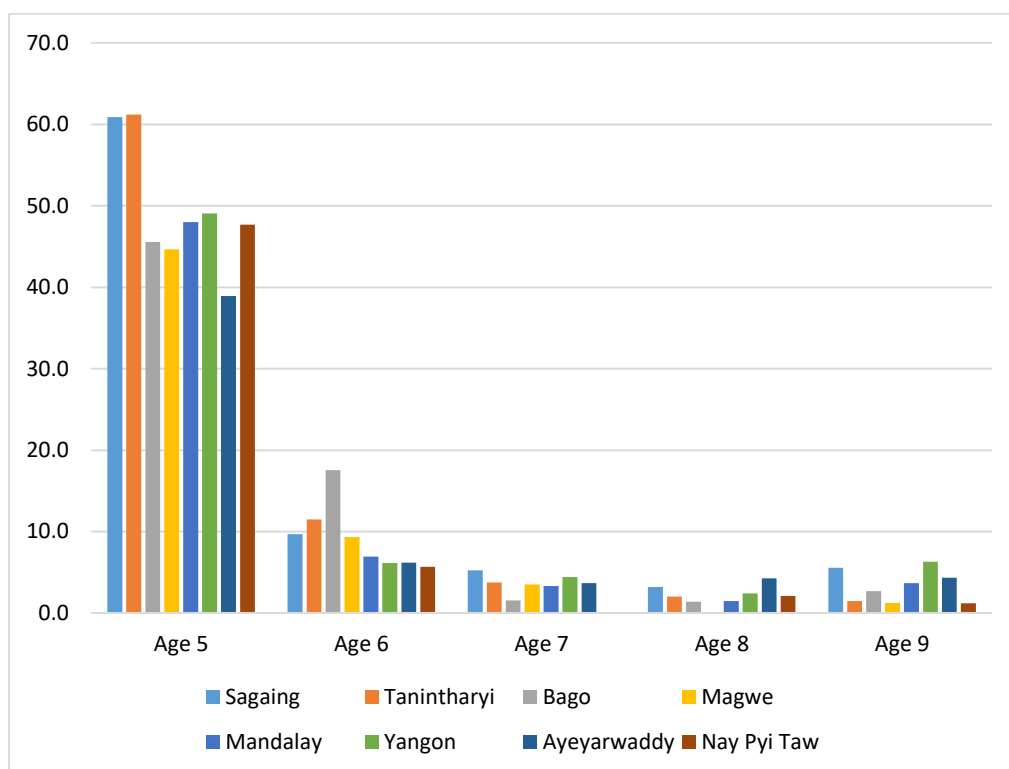
Source: LFS (2015)

Figure A. 1. Percentage of primary age children out of school, by state



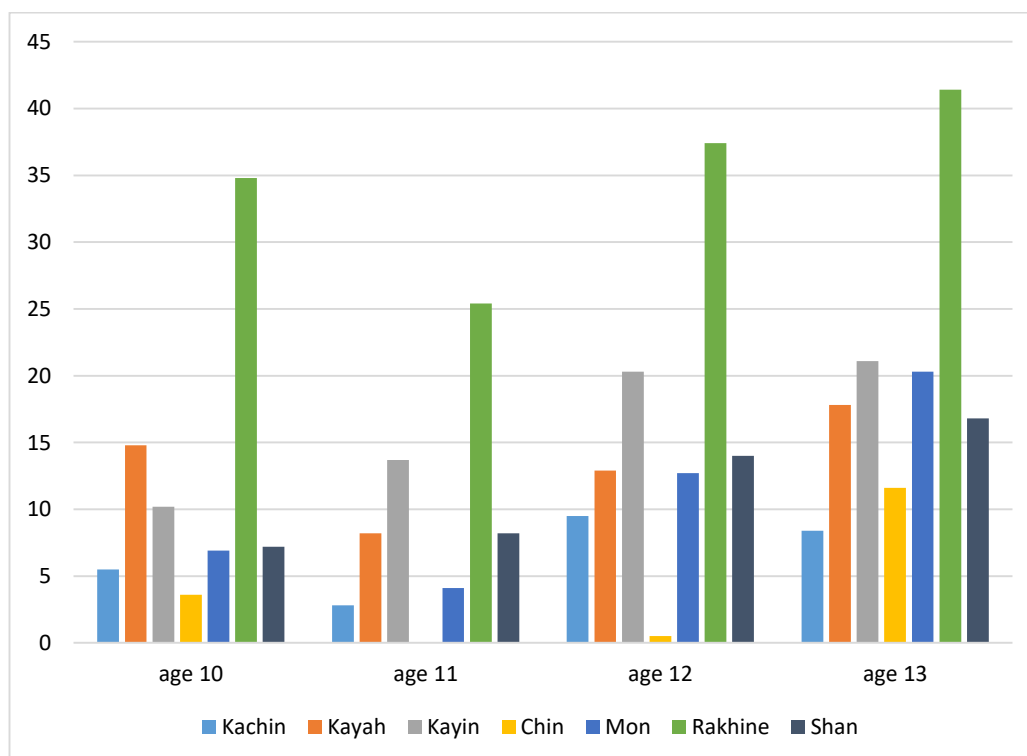
Source: LFS (2015)

Figure A. 2. Percentage of primary age children out of school, by Region



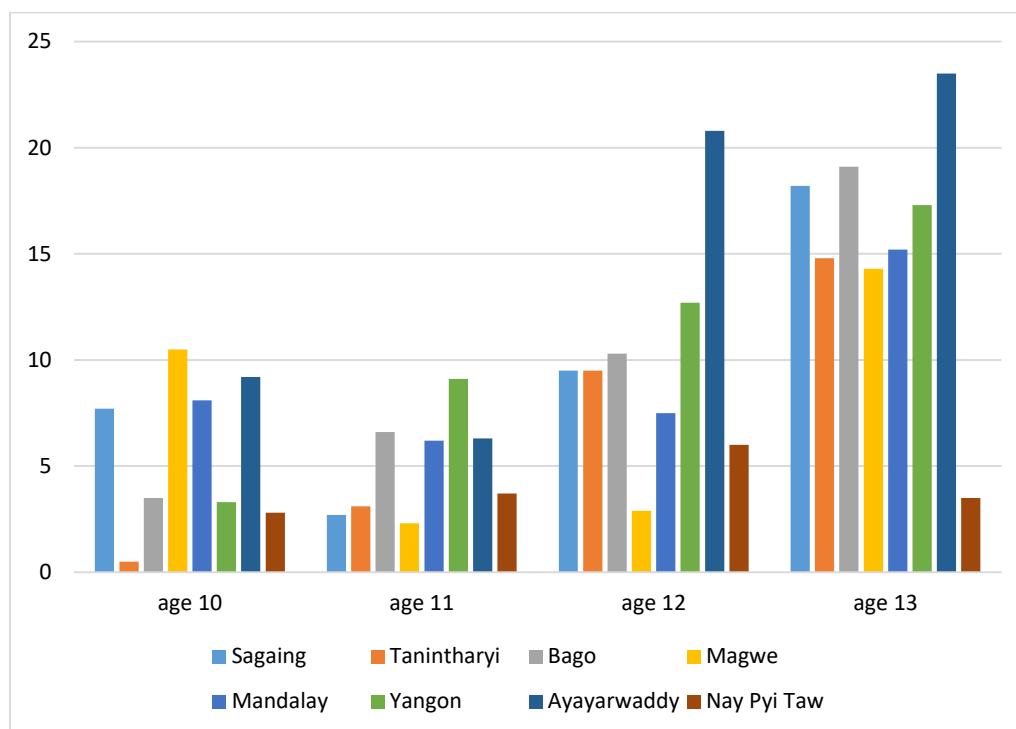
Source: LFS (2015)

Figure A. 3. Percentage of lower secondary age children out of school, by state



Source: LFS (2015)

Figure A. 4. Percentage of lower secondary age children out of school, by region.



Source: LFS (2015)

Annex B: Assessing critical barriers

Table B. Barriers to education, with magnitude and severity

Domain	Category	Barrier	Profiles Affected	Magnitude of Impact	Severity of Impact
Enabling environment	Legislation/Policy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Limited political commitment to inclusion Lack of compulsory primary education legislation No clear and exact legislation exists to cover Non Formal Education No legislation or policy exists related to stakeholders in the Myanmar education sector Lack of policy on publishing and distributing textbooks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dimension 1-3 (out-of-school children) Children with disabilities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> medium low 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> medium high
	Budget/expenditure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Education budget is inadequate Weak in allocating funding across different budget headings Inequitable allocation of resources Lack of costed strategies to reach the poor Limited stipend Limited availability of learning materials for disabled children Ineffective use of school improvement funds (SIF) (Good management of SIF depends on personality of individual head teachers) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> All dimensions, especially poor children Children in remote areas Children with disabilities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> medium medium low 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> medium medium high
	Management/coordination	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lack of effective delegation and devolution Lack of transparency and accountability mechanism 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> All dimensions, especially children in remote, conflict-affected and 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> high 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> high

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limited systematic data collection • Weak monitoring mechanisms • Lack of technical capacity • Lack of mechanisms for inter-sectoral coordination • Lack of effective participatory mechanisms at local levels • Education system collapse during emergencies 	disaster prone areas		
Supply	Availability of essential inputs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inadequate number of preschools especially in rural areas • Inadequate number of teachers per class • Lack of schools or learning spaces especially for rural and remote areas, and for disabled children • Lack of schools or learning spaces during emergencies • Unqualified school infrastructure • Weakness in free textbook distribution particularly for remote and border areas • Inadequate provision of teaching learning materials 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All dimensions, especially rural preschool age children • Children in remote, conflict, disaster risk areas • Children with disabilities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • medium • medium • low 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • medium • medium • high
	Access to adequately staffed services, facilities and information	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of water and sanitation in schools • Long distance to schools • Lack of transport in hilly/delta regions • Inaccessible environment and lack of support services for children with disabilities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All dimensions, especially children in rural areas, remote areas, disaster-prone areas, conflict areas and hilly/delta regions • Children with disabilities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • medium • high 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • medium • high

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unsafe schools especially in disaster-prone and conflict areas 			
	Financial access	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Opportunity costs and support for household subsistence • Economic repercussions of emergencies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All dimensions, especially children from poor families • Overage children • Children especially from rural areas • Child labourer • Disaster affected areas 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • high • high • high • low • medium 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • high • high • high • high • medium
Demand	Social and cultural practices and beliefs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Children in Myanmar are expected to study hard and/or work hard (including domestic chores) • Attitudes towards children make little allowance for the need for play and recreation • Lack of benefits of education due to low rate of labour market return • Lack of interest (low parental recognition of the value of education) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All dimensions, especially children of parents with little education • Children from rural areas • Children with disability • Migrant children • Overage children 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • high • high • high • high • high 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • high • high • high • high • high
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Child labourers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • high 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • high
	Timing and continuity of use	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Poor attendance • overage children 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Children from internal migrant families • Overage children 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • high • high 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • high • high
Quality	Quality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Irrelevant curriculum, with weak links to livelihoods and jobs • Lack of MOE technical support in developing local curriculum by respective states or regions • Lack of integration of local values/cultures • Lack of professional, certified 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dimensions 4 and 5, and in all dimensions children from poor families, children from rural/remote/ border areas, children parents with little education • Children from ethnic groups 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • medium • medium 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • high • medium

		<p>teachers/inadequate pedagogy</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of qualified teachers • Lack of specialized teacher training for disabilities • Ineffective evaluation approaches • Poor monitoring of teacher/student attendance and learning progress • Inadequate assistance to children with special needs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Children with disabilities • Learning disabled 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • high • medium 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • high • medium
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Annex C: Provision of ECCD services in Myanmar

Ministries

- Ministry of Education (MOE)
- Ministry of Health and Sports (MOHS)
- Ministry of Social Welfare, Relief and Resettlement (MOSWRR), Department of
- Department of Social Welfare (DSW)
- Ministry of Border Affairs (MOBA)

Non-governmental, faith-based and community-based organizations, intellectual associations, foundations

- Pyinnya Tazaung Association
- Myanmar Maternal and Child Welfare Association (MMCWA)
- Myanmar Red Cross Society (MRCS)
- Metta Development Foundation (MDF)
- Yinthway Foundation
- CARITAS
- Catholic Relief Services (CRS)
- Kachin Baptist Convention
- Karen Baptist Convention
- Karuna Myanmar Social Services
- Myanmar Baptist Convention
- Save the Children
- World Vision

Annex D: Education-related plans in Myanmar

I. Long-Term Basic Education Development Plan

To promote greater access to and quality of basic education, the Thirty-Year Long-Term Basic Education Development Plan (2001-02 to 2030-31) consisting of six 5-year medium-term plans is being implemented with the following 10 broad programmes:

- (a) emergence of an education system for modernization and development;
- (b) completion of basic education by all citizens;
- (c) improved quality of basic education;
- (d) opportunity for pre-vocational and vocational education at all levels of basic education;
- (e) providing facilities for e-Education and ICT;
- (f) producing all-round developed citizens;
- (g) capacity-building for educational management;
- (h) broader participation of the community in education;
- (i) expansion of non-formal education; and
- (j) development of educational research.

For the programme on completion of basic education by all citizens, targets have been set as follows:

- universal primary education by the end of the first five-year medium-term plan;
- universal lower secondary education by the end of the third five-year medium-term plan; and
- universal basic education by the end of long-term plan.

The long-term basic education development plan focuses on MDGs 2 and 3:

- (a) MDG 2: "Achieve universal primary education" with the target of ensuring that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling; and
- (b) MDG 3: "Promote Gender equality and empower of women" with the target of eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005, and to all levels of education no later than 2015.

II. EFA National Action Plan (2003-2015)

In line with the long-term basic education development plan and based on the framework of the Dakar EFA Goals, and also adopting the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), the Myanmar Education for All National Action Plan (EFA-NAP) 2003-15 was formulated with the following six goals:

- ensuring that significant progress is achieved so that all school-age children have access to and complete *free and compulsory basic education* of good quality by 2015;
- improving all aspects of the quality of basic education: teachers, education personnel and curriculum;
- achieving significant improvement in the levels of functional literacy and continuing education for all by 2015;
- ensuring that the learning needs of young people and adults are met through non-formal education, life-skills and preventive education;
- expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education; and
- strengthening EMIS.

III. Education activities in the framework of rural development and poverty alleviation (2011-2015)

The Government has developed its Border Areas and National Races Development Plan for 24 Special Development Areas, Rural Development and Poverty Alleviation Plan and National Comprehensive Development Plan (2011-2031), and is implementing these to promote development in all areas, including education.

According to the plan, the following activities are being implemented in the formal education sector:

- provision of necessary requirements for all school age children in schools in order to achieve cent percent successful implementation of free, compulsory primary education;
- opening of new schools, appointment of teachers, provision for construction of school buildings, furniture and teaching learning materials for mobile families and the rural areas with low population density;
- fulfilling necessary regional requirements, constructing buildings for boarding students and establishment of trust fund in order to reduce educational wastage in primary and lower secondary level;
- provision of scholarships in lower and upper secondary levels;
- undertaking a programme to ensure access to higher education for all students who passed matriculation exams;
- better school infrastructure, sufficient desks and teaching learning materials;
- Improving capacity/strength of teaching staff, improving “teacher friendliness” (which means making education systems more friendly to teachers as well as making teachers more friendly), improving the socio-economic life of teachers in collaboration with local authorities and local people; and
- encouragement the private sector to participation in and contribution to education services.

According to the plan, the following activities are being implemented in the non-formal education sector:

- undertaking basic literacy with high momentum to increase adult literacy rates;
- implementing continuing education, which consists of post-literacy, income generation and better life programmes;
- opening and expanding CLCs and organizing and mobilizing voluntary staff for CLCs through mass media;
- implementing continuing education through the integration of village libraries and CLCs; and
- implementing continuing education in collaboration with UN agencies, INGOs and NGOs.

IV. The National Education Strategic Plan (NESP) (2016-2021)¹⁰³

The NESP provides government, education stakeholders and citizens with a roadmap for sector-wide education reform over the next five years that will dramatically improve access to quality education for students at all levels of the national education system.

¹⁰³ The Government of the Republic of the Union of Myanmar, Ministry of Education. “National Education Strategic Plan 2016-21”.

a. NESP Goals

MOE commits to achieving the following NESP goal statement by 2021:

Improved teaching and learning, vocational education and training, research and innovation leading to measurable improvements in student achievement in all schools and educational institutions.

The three main reasons for this goal are:

1. High expectations from parents and students

There is consensus among education stakeholders consulted to develop the NESP that parents want their children to significantly improve their learning achievement at all levels of the national education system. To address these expectations wide-ranging reforms and innovative strategies and programmes will be undertaken over the next five years to improve student learning in all schools and educational institutions.

2. Teachers have a key role to play in implementation of NESP reforms

There is convincing national and international evidence that highlights the crucial role to be played by teachers in the successful implementation of the reforms outlined in the NESP. For example, in the basic education sub-sector, teachers will play a key role in the successful rollout of the new curriculum, as well as adoption of new interactive pedagogy and application of a new assessment system. Therefore, teachers have been placed at the centre of the NESP goal.

3. TVET and higher education are fundamental for Myanmar's long-term social and economic development

High-quality technical and vocational education and training (TVET), that equips Myanmar's economy with a skilled and competitive workforce, is vital for sustainable socio-economic development. In the coming years a large number of skilled employees will be needed for the agricultural, energy, manufacturing, infrastructure, livestock, fisheries and tourism sectors. To address this demand the TVET system will need to equip learners with the knowledge, skills and competencies to achieve their career aspirations and contribute to economic growth. Higher education is responsible for nurturing skilled human capital needed in government, business and industry. Higher education institutions (HEIs) have a key role to play in undertaking research and incubating innovative and creative thinking needed for an economically and globally competitive society.

b. The nine transformational shifts to achieve the NESP goal

TMOE has identified nine transformational shifts that will contribute to the achievement of the NESP goals. A transformational shift is defined as high-level vision statement that describes a desired future state of a particular part of the education sector in Myanmar in 2021. Importantly, these nine shifts will enable MOE to make significant advancement toward *SDG Goal 4: Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all*.

The nine transformational shifts:

1. Kindergarten education: All children get a head start on their learning pathway through accessing quality preschool and kindergarten.
2. Basic education access, quality and inclusion: All children can access, progress through and successfully complete quality basic education.

3. Basic education curriculum: All school children develop knowledge, skills, attitudes and competencies that are relevant to their lives and to the socio-economic development needs of 21st century Myanmar.
4. Student assessment and examinations: Teachers and education managers implement a quality assessment system to improve student learning achievement.
5. Teacher education and management: Teachers support, develop and apply interactive classroom teaching and learning benefiting all students.
6. Alternative education: Learners can access and graduate from quality-assured, certified and nationally credentialed alternative education programmes to achieve their learning and career aspirations.
7. TVET: More learners can access TVET and graduate from quality-assured and labour market-responsive TVET programmes under a more effective TVET management system.
8. Higher education: Students have equitable access to a world-class higher education system, leading to better opportunities for employment and significant contributions to a knowledge-based economy.
9. Management capacity development and quality assurance: Education managers at all levels apply evidence-based decision making and demand accountability for improved teaching and learning in schools and educational institutions.

Strategies for quality preschool and kindergarten

1. Strengthen governance and co-ordination of preschool services
2. Expand access to preschool services for children in rural and remote areas
3. Improve preschool quality to better prepare children for primary school
4. Implement quality kindergarten education

Strategies for basic education reforms for 21st century

1. Strengthening policy, legislation and systems
2. Strengthening partnerships
3. Advocacy and communication

Strategies for quality basic education

1. Enable universal access to free basic education
2. Support compulsory and inclusive education
3. Improve school quality through a national school-based quality assurance system

Strategies for the basic education curriculum

1. Redesign the basic education curriculum emphasizing 21st century skills
2. Build the professional capacity of curriculum development teams
3. Implement the new curriculum through strengthened curriculum management, dissemination and monitoring and evaluation systems

Strategies for student assessment and examinations

1. Improve assessment and examinations
2. Strengthen coordination, management and monitoring

Strategies for teacher education and management

1. Strengthen teacher quality assurance and teacher management
2. Improve the quality of pre-service teacher education
3. Improve the quality of in-service teacher professional development

Strategies for alternative education

1. Strengthen coordination and management
2. Expand access through multiple AE pathways
3. Strengthen the quality of AE programme

Strategies for TVET

1. Expanding access to TVET for various target groups including ethnic and disadvantaged populations and people with disabilities
2. Strengthening the quality and relevance of TVET
3. Strengthening TVET management

Strategies for higher education

1. Strengthen higher education governance and management capacity
2. Improve quality and relevance of higher education institutions
3. Expand equitable access to higher education

Strategies for management, capacity development and quality assurance

1. Strengthen and sustain sector-wide, sub-sector and sub-national coordination mechanisms
2. Strengthen education sector management structures, systems and tools
3. Strengthen the capacity of education managers to successfully undertake education reforms

National Education Strategic Plan is the evidence-based plan than can strengthen alignment between education sector laws and policies and medium-term strategies and programme.

V. Cooperation with international agencies

In addition to the above mentioned national-level plans, the following plans have been implemented in collaboration with international agencies:

Table D. Implemented programmes in collaboration with international agencies

Sr.	Programme	Collaborative Organization	Implementing Year	
			From	To
1	Child Friendly School (CFS)	UNICEF	2006	present
2	Head Teacher Training	UNICEF	2008	present
3	School-based In-service Teacher Education (SITE)	UNICEF	2012	present
4	Township Education Improvement Plan (TEIP)	UNICEF	2013	present
5	Early Grade Reading/Mathematics Assessment (EGRA) / (EGMA)	World Bank	2013-14	present
6	CREATE	JICA	2014	present
7	Strengthening Teacher Education in Myanmar (STEM)	UNESCO	2014	Present
8	English for Education College Teachers (Efect)	UNESCO	2014	2017
9	Southeast Asia Primary Learning Metrics (SEAPLM)	UNICEF	2015	present
10	Myanmar Information Management Unit - MIMU (School Mapping)	UNESCO	2015	Present
11	WASH in School	UNICEF	2016	present
12	Teacher Mentoring Programme and Cluster Support Programme	World Bank	2016	present
13	National EMIS System Development	UNESCO	2016	Present
14	IIEP Planning and Management training	UNESCO	2016	Present

15	OOSCI	UNICEF, UNESCO, UIS	2016	Present
16	Myanmar Education Quality Improvement Plan (MyEQIP)	AUSAID	2017	Present
17	Social Inclusion Implementation Programme	EDO, IFE	MOU Signed soon	

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