

**Gender Differences in Socioeconomic Status and Health:
Evidence from the 2008 Vietnam Household Living Standard Survey**

FINAL REPORT PREPARED BY:

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I. Introduction

Vietnam's rapid economic growth in the past ten years has contributed to a notable reduction in poverty as well as progress toward gender equality. Economic growth has facilitated the institutionalization and implementation of policies that focus on redistribution in order to provide greater scope for achieving poverty reduction and improvements in well-being. Achieving an equitable expansion of the conditions that enhance well-being depends crucially on how Vietnam continues to achieve growth and how the proceeds of growth are utilized. Just as growth has facilitated progress toward gender equality, reducing inequality has also enhanced the conditions for greater economic growth. Economic development based on gender inequality is inefficient and therefore unsustainable in the long run.¹ The full and productive use of human resources is essential to economic growth and sustainable development. However, gender inequality can permeate many aspects of daily life, through the legal and regulatory environment and through social and cultural life within the community. Gender inequality can impact the economic life of women and men as well, by altering the access to productive resources, and by affecting the allocation of labor supply, income, and health care within the household.

Gender equality and overall improvements in well-being have profound implications for the types of human capital, including the level and quality of education, in which women may choose to invest. Women's investment choices will in turn affect the future productivity of Vietnam's economy. Given the widespread evidence that workers' education and skills matter for economic growth, sub-optimal investments in women's human capital could translate into a significant impediment in achieving long-run socio-economic prosperity. For example, Klasen and Lamanna (2009) show that per capita growth is a full 1.0 percentage point lower in South Asia than what it could have been if the region had gender equality in education; 0.5 percentage

points lower in Sub-Saharan Africa; and 0.7 percentage points below potential in the Middle East and Northern Africa region.² Closely related, a growing consensus has emerged that empowering women through improvements in literacy and in employment opportunities is a major step in the direction of reducing fertility rates, another precursor to long-term, sustained economic development. Besides increasing the productivity of labor, investing in women is important in its own right, and it yields further benefits that have a positive impact on societal well-being.³

Because growth is not sufficient to ensure poverty reduction and improvements in social development, policies enhancing equality will remain an important government objective. In light of the need for sound distributional analyses to bolster such policies, this report identifies key areas of progress and concerns related to various dimensions of gender equality. It also delineates the appropriate roles for the state and market in helping to achieve broadly shared development. The differential ability between men and women to participate in the community and in the economy depends fundamentally on such human capital dimensions as their health status, access to education, and treatment in the labor market. This study examines each of these issues by presenting trends in descriptive statistics and reflecting on policy implications.

The analysis uses data from Vietnam's 2008 Household Living Standards Survey (VHLSS) to explore how men and women in Vietnam differ in educational attainment, labor market status, health status, and land-use rights. The analysis also examines how indicators such as income, ethnicity, region, and household structure are related to gender differences, and how they enrich measures of inequality. Such an analysis matters because inequalities based on gender, ethnicity, and wealth groups undermine the ability to care for families. Furthermore, inequalities in areas like education and wages can have macro-level impacts through such channels as the productivity of workers and the full utilization of the country's resources. These

concerns emphasize the importance of considering both micro and macro-level policies that are likely to promote broadly shared development.

The study begins with an updated examination of the demographic composition of Vietnam's population, with a focus on differences in basic indicators of socioeconomic status across age groups. The study then considers educational attainment and other measures of school performance and educational resources. Gender differences in labor market status, health status, access to health care, and land-use rights are also analyzed. This analysis ends by exploring the common determinants of gender differences across these areas and offers suggestions for policy reforms to help reach the goals of the 2006 Law on Gender Equality. The revealed patterns indicate that many of the successes noted in analyses of the 2002, 2004, and 2006 VHLSS have continued in 2008.⁴ In particular, the gender equality in education that was noted in these earlier analyses is evident in our analysis of the 2008 VHLSS data as well, especially in terms of levels of schooling currently attending and completed in the school-age population. Analysis of the 2008 VHLSS also points to the continuation of trends in progressing toward equality in the labor market. More broadly, the report identifies dimensions of remaining inequality in opportunities and outcomes related to social development, with an eye to connecting these results to concrete policy recommendations that may be adopted to ensure a win-win outcome: gender equality to a greater degree, the mobilization of human resources, and improvements in societal well-being.

II. Methodology, Data, and Household Characteristics

This study presents a battery of descriptive statistics calculated from the 2008 VHLSS. All statistical analyses were weighted to the national population of civilian, non-institutionalized individuals in Vietnam using the sampling weights provided in the 2008 VHLSS. The analysis utilized both the full sample and a number of alternative sub-samples depending on the topic at

hand. The full sample contains observations for 9,189 households and 38,253 individuals ages 0 to 103. All the statistical tables report unweighted sample sizes in order to indicate the actual number of sampled households or individuals under consideration in each case.

A. Distribution of Households

Household level data reveal small shifts in demographic indicators and considerable progress in poverty reduction, as compared to earlier rounds of the VHLSS

Information on the distribution of households and characteristics specific to regions, ethnicity, gender and age of household heads, marital status, and poverty are reported in Table 1-1. From this table, the majority (72 percent) of Vietnam's households still live in the rural sector, with almost half of the population residing in the Red River Delta in the north and the Mekong River Delta in the south. This rural share reflects a small decline since 1998, when 76 percent of households lived in the rural sector, but is consistent with more recent data (2004 and 2006) which show the rural percentage falling to about 73 percent. Most (88 percent) households are members of the Kinh ethnic group and another 0.7 percent is Chinese, with the remainder of households belonging to a number of ethnic minority groups that are spread across the country. As shown in Table 1-1, this pattern is in keeping with trends noted from analyses of the 2004 and 2006 VHLSS.

In terms of family structure, the average household has 4 members, with 70 percent of households exhibiting "nuclear" family structures comprised just of parents and children, and another 20 percent of households (those labeled as "vertical") also including grandchildren or grandparents. As compared to the earlier rounds of the VHLSS, the percentage of nuclear households has decreased and the percentage of vertical households has remained about the same in 2008. The remaining 10 percent of households include other relations or friends; this

percentage has actually doubled since 1998 as the percentage of vertical households has steadily declined. Vietnam has a fairly high percentage of female household heads: 26 percent of household heads are women, and this is consistent with a slightly increasing trend from 2002 when the percentage of households with female heads was 24 percent. Of all household heads in the 2008 VHLSS, 81 percent are married.

Overall economic growth and active government efforts have led to continued poverty reduction. As of 2008, 14.5 percent of all individuals lived below the poverty line, compared to 37 percent just ten years earlier.⁵ As an indicator of more abject poverty, 7 percent of all individuals live in food poverty and do not have sufficient income to consume an adequate diet. Although this percentage is also dramatically lower than its counterpart in 1998, this is consistent with achievements noted in 2006, when the percentage of those living in food poverty was also about 7 percent.

B. Poverty Rate Analysis

Overall women have a marginally higher poverty rate than men, and differences by sector, household structure, and gender of household head, are also relatively small. Poverty rates for women exceed those for men in the North Central Coast region, and among the Khmer/Cham ethnic minority group.

Detailed statistics related to poverty are reported in Table 1-2. In 2008, 15 percent of women lived below the poverty line, compared to 14 percent of men. Both these rates were down relative to those calculated from the 2006 VHLSS, which stood at 16.3 for women and 15.6 for men, with the male poverty rate dropping slightly more. Because the poverty rate is calculated using expenditure data collected at the household level, this result indicates that women are only marginally more likely than men to be concentrated in poor households.⁶

Trends in poverty are magnified when considered through the lens of regional location, ethnicity, and household structure. In particular, the rural poverty rate, at 18.7 percent, is almost six times greater than the poverty rate in urban areas. In addition, the female-male gap in poverty rates has closed in the urban sector relative to 2006, while it remains at slightly above a one percentage point differential in the rural sector. Closely related to the rural/urban difference in poverty rates, one also observes a marked difference across Vietnam's major geographical regions. The Red River Delta in the north and the South East region exhibit lower than average poverty rates, largely explained by their relatively more intense development and large urban areas, especially Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City. The North West region exhibits by far the highest poverty rate in the country: close to half of the North West region's population lives below the poverty line, about three times the country average.

Ethnic groups also exhibit large disparities in the incidence of poverty. While 9 percent of the Kinh/Chinese majority lives below the poverty line, half of the population that is of minority ethnic descent lives in poverty. There is also variation among ethnic groups - Central and Northern Mountain ethnic groups have much higher rates of poverty as compared to the Khmer/Cham. The Khmer and Cham live mostly in the South East and the Mekong River Delta, regions of below-average poverty. Ironically, even though the Khmer and Cham have the lowest poverty rate among the ethnic minority groups, they also have the largest relative disadvantage for women, at about five percentage points.

Household structure also plays a role in the conditions associated with poverty. Children and the elderly are more likely to live in relatively poor households, while adults in their prime working-age years are least likely to live in households characterized as poor. Children and the elderly are also the only age groups to exhibit a relatively large female disadvantage. Closely

related, nuclear households have lower rates of poverty compared to households that need to support grandparents, grandchildren, or other relations living in the same home (“vertical” and other households). Finally, while female-headed households generally have higher poverty rates than male-headed households in most developing countries, the opposite holds in Vietnam. About 16 percent of individuals living in male-headed households fall below the poverty line compared to 11 percent of individuals living in female-headed households. Although this feature of Vietnam’s economic and social fabric is not new, it is complex and warrants closer investigation in the next sub-section.

C. Differences between Male- and Female-Headed Households

While a quarter of Vietnam’s households are headed by women, as a whole they do not conform to the typical scenario of a single parent living with children in poverty. A substantial portion of female household heads is married and enjoys a relatively high standard of living.

As shown in Table 1-3, close to 40 percent of female-headed households are led by married women (859 out of 2250 observations), compared to about 48 percent headed by widowed women. These households led by married women vary in numerous ways compared to the other types of household structures. First, they are more likely to reside in urban areas than rural areas. Among households headed by married women, 56 percent live in urban areas, compared to 29 percent for households headed by widowed women and 24 percent for households headed by men. Households headed by married women also have a higher likelihood than most other household types of residing in the relatively more prosperous South East region, and they also have a higher representation among the relatively well-off Kinh/Chinese ethnic group. Furthermore, while married female heads tend to be younger than most other types of household heads, they are also less likely to live with very young children or elders in their care.

Married female household heads also have, on average, higher educational attainment than other household heads. For example, 30 percent of married female household heads have an upper secondary school education or more, compared to 7 percent of widowed female heads and 20 percent of male heads. In contrast, just 4 percent of married female heads have no education, compared to 21 percent of widowed female heads and 5 percent of men. Similarly, married female heads are more likely to be employed than their widowed counterparts, although less likely to be employed than married male heads. This difference between married women and men might reflect the male breadwinner bias still commonly seen around the world. Finally, a far greater percentage of married female heads compared to other types of household heads are located within the top two expenditure quintiles. While 64 percent of married female heads live in households that are located among the wealthiest two expenditure quintiles, just 41 percent of widowed female heads and 40 percent of male heads occupy this category. These relative advantages in socioeconomic status for married female household heads compared to other types of household heads were also apparent in the 2006 and 2004 VHLSS.

All these relative advantages for married female household heads go a long way in explaining the lower poverty rates for households headed by married women, and for female-headed households as a whole. With a poverty rate of 6.8 percent, households headed by married women fall well below the national poverty rate of 14.5 percent. This low rate serves to decrease the poverty rate for all female-headed households below that of male-headed households.

At the other extreme, households headed by married men have poverty rates that exceed those of households headed by widowed men and widowed women. These households are disproportionately rural, have higher representation among ethnic minorities, and are more likely to be caring for children. Although married male heads have relatively high rates of employment,

this employment tends to be non-wage self-employed in agriculture, helping to explain the relatively higher rates of poverty.

D. Ethnicity and Relative Advantage

As often seen in other countries, ethnic minority groups have far higher poverty rates compared to the majority ethnic group (Kinh/Chinese). Ethnic minorities are disproportionately characterized by factors associated with poverty, including rural residence, less education, and agricultural self-employment, thus making high poverty rates stubborn to change.

Household characteristics by ethnicity are shown in Table 1-4. Although ethnic minority groups on average experience greater poverty than the Kinh/Chinese majority (50 percent versus 9 percent below the poverty line), there is quite some variation among ethnic minority groups. While the Khmer/Cham and the Tay/Thai/Muong/Nung have a relatively low incidence of poverty (22 percent and 40 percent), well over half of households in the Northern Mountain and the Central ethnic groups are poor. While much of this disparity is linked with measurable differences in location of residence, household structure, level of education, and type of employment, some of the differences could be due to unfavorable treatment and cultural norms that are difficult to measure.

Unlike the ethnic minority groups, the Kinh/Chinese majority group is geographically concentrated in the relatively more developed regions of the Red River Delta, South East, and the Mekong River Delta. In addition, the Khmer/Cham minority group is highly concentrated in the Mekong River Delta, helping to explain that group's relatively low poverty among ethnic minorities. The most disadvantaged groups (the Northern Mountain and the Central ethnic groups) are heavily concentrated in regions with less development and fewer urban centers: the North West and the Central Highlands. They are also more likely to live in larger households that

include extended families and young children. Household headship also varies by ethnicity, with the Kinh/Chinese and the Khmer/Cham having relatively high rates of female headed households (but among these two groups, the Khmer/Cham minority group has relatively more households headed by widows).

Education of the household head varies considerably with ethnicity, with the Tay/Thai/Muong/Nung minority group showing a distribution of educational attainment that most closely resembles that of the Kinh/Chinese majority. This educational advantage helps to explain why the Tay/Thai/Muong/Nung group has a lower poverty incidence compared to the average for ethnic minorities. The other minority groups, in contrast, have extremely high rates of household heads with just primary school education or less.

Similarly, the type of employment of the household head also varies noticeably by ethnicity, with the Kinh/Chinese majority and the Khmer/Cham minority reporting the same percentage (44 percent) of household heads engaged in wage-employment, more than double the rate for the other ethnic minorities. This factor would also help to explain the Khmer/Cham's relatively lower poverty incidence compared to the other minority groups. Note that while most of these figures for household characteristics by ethnicity have remained fairly constant since the 2004 VHLSS, the indicators for employment of the household head have changed markedly. Between 2004 and 2008, the percentage of Kinh/Chinese household heads in wage employment rose from 31 to 44 percent, while it only rose from 15 percent to 21 percent for ethnic minorities.

In sum, a complex array of factors is associated with ethnic disparities in poverty. Some, such as region of residence, are structural in nature and can mainly be addressed with longer-term development policies focused specifically on the needs of rural, remote areas. Other factors, including education and wage-employment, could be addressed with shorter term policy reforms

that incentivize opportunities to remain in school and switch from unpaid work in marginal self-employment activities to more highly remunerative work in productive activities.

III. Educational Attainment

Increasing educational attainment has become a top policy priority internationally as it is critical to promoting overall gender equality. A large body of research demonstrates that educating girls also has functional importance in terms of benefits for the next generation, as the socioeconomic status and actions of more educated mothers during pregnancy and child rearing have large impacts on their children's nutritional status, health, and well-being. A woman's education also gives her autonomy and bargaining power within the household, and it improves her ability to gain access to a wider range of rewarding occupations in the labor market. Like other East and Southeast Asian countries, Vietnam has achieved near universal enrollment in primary school, as well as a strong track record at the secondary and tertiary schooling levels.

Vietnam's private and public sectors have also emphasized vocational schooling as a viable and rewarding educational track to prepare individuals for the workforce. International capital mobility and structural shifts in Vietnam's local labor markets have brought issues of training, skills acquisition, and workforce development to the forefront of policy dialogues. Ensuring that workers and students can acquire new types of vocational training has taken on greater importance as Vietnam becomes even more integrated in global markets. Vietnamese students and workers have access to vocational schooling options that include on-site training, vocational and career tracks within general academic secondary schools, and specialized vocational schools and junior colleges.

This section examines the prevalence of gender differences in Vietnam's illiteracy and school enrollment, looking both at male and female disadvantages. Educational achievement, in

turn, has sizable repercussions on labor market performance. A growing literature in economics shows that education enhances cognitive and analytical skills, which in turn make workers more productive. Empirical attempts to differentiate between the effects of educational investments in boys and girls have found that the primary school enrollment rate for girls has a positive and significant effect on economic growth. The magnitude of this schooling effect does not differ significantly between girls and boys, implying that raising female enrollments in primary school will be just as successful in promoting economic growth as raising male enrollment rates. Besides increasing the productivity of labor, educating girls yields further benefits that have a positive impact on social welfare and economic development. Educated women have lower fertility rates, have children with better health and schooling outcomes, use family health services more efficiently, and have higher labor force participation rates.

A. Educational Attainment among Vietnamese Adults

Vietnam has achieved a marked increase among younger cohorts of the working-age adult population in the completion of primary schooling, as well as a closing of the gender gap.

As shown in Table 2-1, within the youngest cohort of adults (ages 18-21), just over 7 percent of men had either no schooling at all or just a few years of primary school, compared to just under 7 percent for women. In contrast, more than 20 percent of the oldest cohort of working-age adult men and almost 40 percent of the oldest cohort of women had either no schooling or just a few years of primary school. This comparison shows the increase in educational attainment over time for younger cohorts of men and women, as well as the relative catching up for female students. This pattern is a continuation of trends in educational attainment that were noted in the previous analyses of the 2004 and 2006 VHLSS.

Also among the younger cohorts, women have either caught up to or surpassed men in terms of attaining junior college or university degrees. For example, among those aged 25-34, 11 percent of men and women had either junior college or university degrees, and among those aged 22-24, the female percentage (11 percent) surpassed that of men (9 percent). Trends over time as new cohorts enter school also suggest that children are staying in school beyond primary school (the end of Vietnam's compulsory education) to complete their secondary schooling. For example, while about 18 percent of men between the ages of 45 and 54 had attained an upper secondary schooling, this percentage jumped up to 49 percent for younger men aged 18-21. The same conclusion applies even more strongly to women, with about 13 percent of women between the ages of 45 and 54 attaining upper secondary schooling, compared to 54 percent of the youngest cohort of working-age adults. This marked increase in the relative schooling levels of older versus younger age cohorts is evident from the 2004 and 2006 VHLSS as well, suggesting that such educational patterns are on a long-term trajectory.

Note that a marked increase for the youngest cohort of men and women, compared to other adults in their twenties, in the proportion with just lower secondary schooling suggests that some individuals in their late teenage years are still working to complete their lower secondary schooling. This assertion is partially supported with the figures on the percentage of working-age adults who were still attending school. Among the youngest cohort of adults, 43 percent of men and 47 percent of women were still in school, compared to just 3 to 4 percent of individual in their late twenties and early thirties.

B. Educational Attainment among School-Age Individuals

Among today's school-age population, Vietnam has closed and even reversed the gender gap in primary, secondary, and tertiary schooling.

In 2008, girls and boys ages 6 to 10 had virtually the same distribution in enrollments across preschool, primary school, and lower secondary school (Table 2-2). Within this age group, there was, however, a very slight (1 percent) disadvantage for young girls currently not attending school. If anything, this disadvantage was reversed in 2006. This small change over time could be symptomatic of the onset of the 2008-2009 global financial crisis and the withdrawal of young girls from school as a family coping mechanism. In contrast, girls showed an advantage over boys in current enrollment rates for upper secondary school: among students aged 11 to 17, about 62 percent of girls were enrolled in upper secondary school, compared to 53 percent of boys, with all of the female advantage occurring among older children within this range. This advantage had appeared in 2006, and it grew larger by 2008. Retrospectively, evidence that the disparities in the schooling ratios are very small is clear from the 2002 VHLSS onwards. Moreover, Nguyen (2008) notes that household expenditures on education are roughly comparable between boys and girls, going back to the 2002 VHLSS.

Among young adults aged 18 to 21, women also showed an advantage over men in attending junior college or university, with about 23 percent of women in that age group attending college/university compared to 20 percent of men. As with upper secondary schooling, this advantage had also appeared in 2006 and it grew over time. Proportionately fewer women in the 22-24 age group were currently enrolled in college/university compared to men (15 versus 17 percent), with some of the shortfall made up by relatively more women who had completed their college/university degrees. Finally, close to 10 percent of students in the 18-21 age-group is currently participating in vocational training programs, with women showing a slightly larger percentage than men. Such outcomes are consistent with the government's emphasis on

workforce development, but they are smaller than other Asian nations such as Taiwan that have placed a heavier premium on vocational schooling.

C. Gender Differentials in Fields of Study

Although the gender gap in educational attainment among school-age individuals has closed or even reversed, women are more likely to study social sciences and the humanities, and men are more like to study engineering at the tertiary level.

While the male and female distributions in educational attainment among school-age children now look quite similar, the distributions in fields of study still show remarkably gendered patterns (Table 2-3).⁷ Among students enrolled in tertiary education, men are considerably more likely to specialize in engineering, manufacturing, construction, and services, while women are more likely to specialize in social sciences, education, and humanities and the arts. In particular, 29 percent of men compared to just 11 percent of women enroll in tertiary degree programs with a focus on engineering, manufacturing, and construction. In contrast, 41 percent of women concentrate in social sciences, business and law, compared to 26 percent of men. These disparate distributions were also apparent in 2006, with even more men clustering in engineering fields. Only in general programs and health and welfare do we see a similar degree of clustering among men and women; however, these fields do not draw as many students in absolute numbers as some of the more gendered fields.

The clustering across fields is also reflected in the gender composition of each field. While general programs and health and welfare have a composition that is about half female, reflecting the total share of students in tertiary education, only a quarter of engineering students, and just 15 percent of students in services are female. At the other extreme, two-thirds of students studying humanities and the arts are female, and 60 percent of students in the social

sciences are female. These patterns are comparable to those observed in the prior year and are consistent with conclusions based on the 2006 VHLSS data.

D. Remaining Inequalities in School Enrollment

Inequalities in educational attainment among school-age children by wealth groups, ethnicity, and region have narrowed over time. These inequalities encompass lingering female disadvantages that are masked in more aggregate totals.

As shown in Table 2-4, among school-aged children in the 15-17 age group, three quarters were still enrolled in a school of some level, with a somewhat higher percentage for girls (78 percent) than boys (70 percent).⁸ Coming in well above these averages were individuals living in urban areas, and those living in Red River Delta and in North Central Coast. In contrast, 15-17 year olds living in rural areas and living in Mekong River Delta and the North West region experienced lower likelihoods of still being enrolled in school. Corresponding with its relatively high poverty rate, the North West region is also the only region where girls face a disadvantage compared to boys in school enrollment; within this age group, just 53 percent of girls remained enrolled in school compared to 68 percent of boys. This disadvantage in the North West region is also consistent with findings in reports of the 2004 and 2006 VHLSS, and the gap between girls and boys in the North West has not changed since 2004.

Similar patterns emerge across ethnic groups with the Kinh/Chinese reporting above average school enrollment rates for girls and boys ages 15 to 17, and all the ethnic minority groups reporting below average enrollment rates. For both the Kinh/Chinese and the ethnic minority average, however, the current school enrollment rates of girls exceeds that of boys, a pattern that was reversed in the analysis of the 2004 VHLSS. Note the enrollment rates are particularly low for the Khmer/Cham and for the Northern Mountain ethnic group. These two

groups are also the only groups to report a female disadvantage in enrollment rates. Compared to the results from the 2006 VHLSS, this relative disadvantage for Khmer/Cham girls is new. In the 2006 VHLSS, girls among the Khmer/Cham minority group were at a relative advantage as compared to boys. Higher rates of poverty explain some of these patterns, with a substantial share of the Northern Mountain ethnic group living in the relatively poor North West region. In addition, the Khmer/Cham group has higher rates of wage-employment in 2008, which could explain why children leave school earlier and why relatively more girls are likely to do so.

The expected reverse correlation between poverty and school enrollment also appears in enrollment patterns by expenditure quintiles, where individuals in the two lowest expenditure quintiles have below average school enrollment rates, and girls and boys in the remaining expenditure quintiles have above average enrollment rates. Closely related to poverty and income is parental education, and not surprisingly, children who have parents with little to no schooling have a lower likelihood of remaining in school by ages 15 to 17 compared to their counterparts who have parents with more years of schooling. In fact, the highest enrollment rates among all the sub-groups reported in Table 2-4 are for children of mothers and/or fathers with twelve or more years of education. These patterns are consistent with those in the 2004 and 2006 VHLSS.

By the time that children reach the 18 to 21 age bracket, their likelihood of being enrolled in school drops sharply (Table 2-5). Just 43 percent of young men are still in school, compared to 47 percent of young women. The conclusions made above for the 15 to 17 age bracket regarding inequalities by region, ethnicity, and wealth groups also hold for the 18 to 21 bracket. Thus above average enrollment rates are observed for urban sector residents, the Red River Delta and Central Coast regions, the Kinh/Chinese ethnic majority, and individuals living in higher-income

households in which at least one parent has progressed in the school system. Individuals at a disadvantage include those who live in rural areas and in the North West or Mekong River Delta regions, those who are members of the Northern Mountain or Khmer/Cham ethnic groups, and those who live in poorer households and with parents who have little to no education.

E. Attendance at Extra Classes

Voluntary attendance at extra classes, which families believe can improve grades and test scores for university entrance exams, has become a mainstream educational activity, especially among upper secondary school students. Yet a few gender disparities remain, particularly among ethnic groups.

Table 2-6 shows that even at the primary school level, a third of all students enroll in extra classes, with a slightly larger percentage for girls (35 percent) than boys (33 percent). This average percentage rises to 47 percent for lower secondary students, again with a small advantage for girls. By the time that children are in upper secondary school, almost two thirds are enrolled in extra classes, this time with a slightly higher percentage for boys (64 percent) than girls (61 percent). As seen with school enrollment rates for older children, marked differences remain across the country and are largely driven by regional poverty and household income. Rural children face a disadvantage relative to urban children in terms of access to extra classes, as do members of all the ethnic minority groups. Students who live in the relatively poor North West region and in the Mekong River Delta, known for its relatively high rates of wage-employment, are also less likely than students in other regions to enroll in extra classes. Finally, there is a strong negative correlation between household expenditures and enrollment in extra classes. The same is true of the association between parental schooling and enrollment in extra classes. Overall the gender gap is close to zero, with no clear patterns for a male or female

advantage except for the case of ethnicity. Within this category, three of the four ethnic minority groups report a clear male advantage in access to extra classes, while the Kinh/Chinese majority reports a female advantage. In comparing this result to the 2006 VHLSS, it is evident that for the Central Ethnic minority group, the relative advantage has switched from females to males in 2008.

Those who enroll in extra classes incur a financial cost, which in principle is compensated for with the perceived gains of better grades in school and higher test scores for university entrance exams. Expenditures on these classes generally rise with the level of schooling, and they are considerably higher in urban than rural areas (Table 2-7). Expenditures on the extra classes also increase with a household's average income, with a surprisingly large discrete jump between the fourth and fifth expenditure quintiles. Finally, gender differences in household expenditures on extra classes are fairly small, with no consistent pattern in favor of girls or boys. Although there is not much evidence of a gender gap in aggregate, we do see some differences by sector and household income. In comparison to the 2006 VHLSS, changes in expenditure patterns by household income quintiles are striking. In particular, as opposed to 2006, when increased income was associated with a relative advantage for girls in terms of spending on extra classes, the relative advantage for girls is evident most clearly only among the middle and highest income groups in 2008. Because the financial cost of enrollment can serve as a barrier for those with lower economic means, extra classes can reduce wealth group differences and inequalities in both education and the labor market.

IV. Employment, Household Work, and Wages

Gender differences in labor market outcomes around the world typically encompass a number of areas: participation rates in the formal labor market, hours of paid and unpaid work,

wage differentials, and segregation by occupation and industry. Consistent with other countries at similar stages of development, Vietnam has high female employment rates that are not dramatically lower than those of men. Larger gender differences begin to emerge primarily in the realm of unpaid domestic work. Consistent with many other countries, women in Vietnam generally work longer hours than men and they perform more unpaid housework than men (UNDP 1995; World Bank 2001). Also similar to other countries, Vietnamese men tend to experience a fairly stable time use profile over their lifetimes, whereas women experience more variable paid and unpaid work-loads as family structures change. Differences between men and women are largest when caring for young children.

When women engage in paid work, they earn less than men on average. Gender differences in wages are an international phenomenon, and the male advantage in wages often persists over time. Gender differences in occupational distributions can play a major role in explaining gender earnings gaps: if women are concentrated in relatively low-paying occupations, or if pay structures within occupations are inequitable across gender, then women will have lower average earnings than men. Across countries, men and women cluster in different occupations and industries, and this labor-market feature is true for Vietnamese workers as well.

In terms of gender equality in the labor market, it is important to seek equality of outcomes rather than equality of opportunities.⁹ Outcomes encompass occupations, economic activities, and resources, including income and assets. Of course equality of opportunity and equality of outcomes are closely related, but they are not the same goals. Systematic inequality in outcomes contributes to unequal power between men and women and, as a result, unequal opportunities. Similarly, promoting equal opportunity does not suffice to guarantee equality of

outcomes, given the disadvantages that may arise from social norms and traditional customs. Gender norms are embedded in labor markets, and attempting to promote equal opportunities by fostering competition can actually perpetuate gender inequality. For example, when women enter the labor market, they often receive a lower wage than men on the assumption that women are dependent on men and men are the breadwinners. However, this assumption also provides a rationale for hiring men into jobs with upward mobility, while placing women into low-wage, insecure jobs considered appropriate for their assumed role as secondary wage earners. In addition, without public policies or employer arrangements that address women's unpaid housework and caring responsibilities, competition in labor markets occurs on an uneven playing field since women have difficulty maintaining labor force attachment levels equal to those of men. These barriers, in turn, lead to persistent gender disparities in occupational outcomes and wages. Hence the next section examines progress toward gender equality in outcomes, with special attention to how women's relatively larger unpaid work burdens hamper the attainment of gender equality in employment, hours of paid work, occupations, and wages.

A. Employment

Between 2006 and 2008, men's employment rates in rural areas increased a little, especially for children between 15-17 years of age, while women's employment rates in urban areas fell across a number of age groups.

Table 3-1, which reports employment rates in 2006 and 2008 by gender, sector, and age group, shows that employment rates for all men ages six and above remained almost constant at 65 percent and 66 percent, respectively. Within this broad group, it appears that the biggest jump occurred for boys ages 15 to 17, whose employment rates increased by four percentage points. Some of this rise could be explained by the global increase in food and fuel prices, which caused

inflation to spike in a number of countries and which consequently, put downward pressure on real wages. Vietnam's labor market may have responded to the hardships caused by these macroeconomic changes by attracting more men who otherwise would not be working, such as male students, into the labor market. This argument is also supported by the small increase in men's employment in the rural sector during the 2006-2008 period.

In contrast, women's employment rates in both the rural and urban sectors dropped by about one percentage points between 2006 and 2008, leading to an almost stable employment rate during this time period. Some declines occurred across a number of age groups, with larger drops for women ages 18 to 24 (in both sectors) and ages 45-54 (in the urban sector). If some of this decline was due to the food and fuel price crisis, a possible interpretation is that during this time of hardship, paid jobs became relatively scarce for women, and women were forced to switch to performing more economic activity within the household as a coping mechanism.

The employment patterns in the 2008 data can be compared to trends in the 1998 VLSS and the 2002-2004 VHLSS to show that on average, men's employment probabilities decreased noticeably until 2006 and increased marginally thereafter. For women, employment probabilities have trended slightly downwards over the entire 1998-2008 time period.

B. Time Input in Income-Generating Activities

For those who worked in income-generating activities, gender differences in the average number of weeks worked per year remained small.

Table 3-2, which reports the average number of weeks worked per year in income-generating activities, shows that overall, men worked 38 weeks per year and women worked 37 weeks per year, on average.¹⁰ The small difference comes from the rural sector, where, for every age group, women work a little less in terms of weeks per year in income-generating activities

compared to men. The most likely explanation is that women work more hours in the day (which would translate into weeks per year) in unpaid activities within and outside of the home, especially in the rural sector.

In the urban sector, there are no consistent patterns in the gender difference across age groups. For the very young (ages 17 and below), girls work considerably more weeks per year than boys in the urban sector. However, the difference is reversed for women in their prime child-bearing years, and then it evens out. Overall, the difference between men and women in average hours worked per week was small, consistent with results reported for the 2004 and 2006 VHLSS.

Also of note is the sizeable proportion of young children who work in income-generating activities, especially in the rural sector. About 15 percent of boys and 13 percent of girls ages 11 to 14 worked in income-generating activities, with both groups averaging about 14 weeks per year. Although a smaller percentage of boys and girls in this age group in the urban sector worked to generate an income, their average time spent working was considerably higher than those for their rural counterparts, especially girls. The disadvantage for rural girls is even higher in the 15-17 age group, where the 2008 data show that almost 35 percent of female children work. The relatively higher workloads faced by rural girls in the 11-14 and 15-17 age groups is also noticeable in the 2004 and 2006 VHLSS.

C. Household Work

Women continued to perform more hours of housework than men, with the largest gender differences among cohorts in which women are of prime child-bearing and child-rearing age.

Consistent with other countries and with earlier years for Vietnam, housework remains the primary responsibility of women. For example, in the urban sector, about half of men in their

twenties did no housework at all. For those men in their twenties who did do housework, they did about an hour less per day than women in the same age-group. As they aged, more urban men started participating in the housework, but still a third of men in their fifties did nothing, and those who did, put in at least an hour less than women per day. These gender differences begin at a very young age in urban households. In particular, among children aged 6 to 10, 92 percent of boys did no housework at all compared to 83 percent of girls, and in the next age bracket (11 to 14), still two thirds of boys were doing no housework at all compared to less than one half of girls. One explanation for larger amount of housework by girls might be that they are less likely to be in school. However, in Vietnam, boys and girls are equally likely to be in school. Thus, the additional housework performed by girls appears to be over and above their attendance in schools. Note that the survey definition of housework includes cleaning, shopping, cooking, washing, collecting water and wood, and performing repair work in the house. Because the definition does not include childcare, and because women, on average, perform more hours of childcare, the measures documented above are likely to be under-estimates.

Rural sector residents perform a slightly lower average number of hours of housework per day compared to the urban sector, with a noticeable drop in the percentage of rural men who perform no housework at all compared to urban men (from 49 percent to 42 percent). As with the urban sector, the excess housework performed by women relative to men in the rural sector is most pronounced among women in their prime child-bearing and child-rearing years. Even though hours devoted to childcare are not directly included in these estimates, raising children involves additional time spent cooking, cleaning, and collecting food and fuel.

Relative to patterns indicated in reports of the 2004 and 2006 VHLSS, the average number of hours of housework performed by men and women has changed very little, while the

percentage of men who did no housework at all declined marginally, from 45 percent in 2004 to 44 percent in 2008. These continued high shares of rural and urban men across age groups who perform no housework at all, and relatively few hours of housework for those men who do some, indicate the persistence of long-standing but punitive norms relegating this unvalued work to women.

D. Wage-Employment and Self-Employment

The incidence of wage-employment has continued to grow for urban and rural workers, but self-employment remains the dominant economic activity in the rural sector. Differences in region, ethnicity, and schooling have played a role in determining who has greater access to new wage-employment opportunities.

As reported in Table 3-4, almost 30 percent of adult men held just a wage-generating job in 2008, compared to 22 percent of adult women; both of these shares marked small increases relative to 2006, but large increases relative to 1998, when just 16 percent of men and 11 percent of women held just a wage-generating job. Another 26 percent of men and 15 percent of women were both wage-employed and self-employed. Taken together, less than half of men but almost two thirds of women relied exclusively on self-employment as their only source of employment. These figures for exclusive self-employment were a little smaller than in 2006 but considerably lower than those for 1998 for both men and women.

This reliance on self-employment was relatively stronger in the rural sector compared to the urban sector, especially for women. A total of 69 percent of rural women and 48 percent of rural men relied exclusively on self-employment. These proportions have shifted downward just slightly relative to 2006. Interestingly, the urban and rural sectors differ considerably in the proportions of men and women who hold both types of employment, with far greater proportions

in the rural sector. This pattern suggests that although the rural sector is catching up in terms of creating wage-earning opportunities, the jobs entail low-productivity, low-pay work and require supplementary support through self-employment.

Table 3-5 provides more detailed information on the demographic characteristics associated with those who hold positions in wage-employment, agricultural self-employment, and non-agricultural self-employment. Overall, men's and women's self-employment was more concentrated in agricultural work rather than non-agricultural work. Not surprisingly, this emphasis on agricultural self-employment stemmed mainly from the rural sector, but even in urban areas, about 11 percent of all employed men and women worked in agricultural self-employment as their primary job in the past year. This percentage is a slight increase from the 2006 VHLSS, when about 8-9 percent relied on agricultural self-employment in the urban sector. In addition, overall, men's and women's urban sector employment was heavily weighted toward wage-employment. 61 percent of urban men held jobs in wage-employment as compared to half of urban women. In the rural sector, wage-employment was also more common for men than women, while women were more likely to hold jobs in agricultural self-employment. These patterns are broadly consistent with those in the 2004 and 2006 VHLSS.

Corresponding with their relatively lower rates of poverty and greater intensity of development, the Red River Delta and the South East regions both have higher incidences of wage-employment than other regions. Similarly, corresponding with high rates of poverty and relatively less urbanization, the North West, North Central Coast, and Central Highlands regions have relatively low incidences of wage-employment for men and women, and high rates of agricultural self-employment. Correlations found earlier between ethnicity and poverty also apply to the relationship between ethnicity and wage-employment for men, but less so for

women. In particular, men in the Kinh/Chinese ethnic groups are more likely to hold jobs in wage-employment as compared to agricultural self-employment, while even in this majority ethnic group, women are still more likely to be self-employed in agricultural activities. Within the ethnic minorities, all groups have a higher incidence of agricultural self-employment as compared to wage-employment, with the ethnic groups experiencing the highest poverty rates (Northern Mountain and Central Ethnic) also reporting the lowest rates of wage-employment. The female disadvantage in access to wage-employment holds across ethnic groups. While poverty reduction involves a multidimensional approach, these results indicate that greater access to wage-employment warrants an important component of the mix.

Table 3-5 further indicates that within the urban sector, younger men and women are more likely to hold jobs in wage-employment as compared to their more mature counterparts. The data show a direct negative correlation between age and access to wage-employment for both men and women. Not surprisingly, non-agricultural self-employment is more common than agricultural self-employment for urban men and women, although there is a distinct increase in the proportion of workers who are self-employed in agriculture for the most mature male and female workers aged 55 to 64.

Types of employment in the urban sector vary considerably by marital status, with individuals who are unmarried, divorced, or separated showing a higher tendency toward wage-employment compared to their married and widowed counterparts. Widowed women appear to be at a particularly large disadvantage in their access to urban wage-employment with only 28 percent of these women holding jobs in wage-employment. It is likely that age plays a large role in explaining these patterns with younger people more likely to be both single and wage-

employed, and widowed individuals, especially women, more likely to be older and self-employed.

Interestingly, types of employment across education groups suggests that women with little to no schooling are at a larger disadvantage in obtaining wage-paying jobs compared to women with more schooling, but this pattern is not as evident for men. For example, just 35 percent of uneducated women have access to wage-employment compared to 57 percent of women with upper secondary schooling, while 67 percent of uneducated men have wage-paying jobs compared to 60 percent of men with upper secondary schooling. The implication is that women face a higher standard in attaining wage-paying jobs, or they face gendered barriers in some industries that do employ uneducated workers. A possible reason is that uneducated men may have access to wage-paying jobs involving hard physical labor, such as in the construction and transportation industries, while these jobs are less open to women. Both men and women with college and university educations are extremely likely to hold jobs in wage-employment, with less than ten percent of the college-educated individuals self-employed.

Similar patterns observed for the urban sector hold for the rural sector. In particular, we see a higher likelihood of younger workers holding jobs in wage-employment compared to older workers, with the reverse relationship in agricultural self-employment. Single, divorced, or separated individuals are more likely to be wage-employed as compared to married and widowed individuals, with a particularly large disadvantage for widowed women. Finally, there is a large premium for having more years of education in terms of gaining access to wage-employment for both men and women.

E. Gender Segregation by Industry

Vietnam's employment patterns by industry in the urban sector resemble those of other industrializing countries, with relatively more clustering of men in production and other heavy industries.

While close to one third of all urban male workers are employed in production and other heavy industries such as mining, construction, and utilities, just 23 percent of urban female workers have jobs in these industries (Table 3-6). In contrast, 54 percent of male workers in the urban sector hold jobs in sales and services, compared to 65 percent of urban female workers. These broad industry groupings also contain patterns of segregation at more detailed industry classifications in the urban sector. In particular, almost one half of women employed in production and heavy industry jobs work in textiles and garment production, compared to about a tenth of men in this broad industrial grouping. In direct contrast, almost one third of men in this broad industrial group are employed in construction and utilities, compared to about a tenth of women in this grouping. A similar pattern of gendered segregation exists within sales and services, with relatively more men employed in transportation, communications, business, and finance, and relatively more women employed in retail sales and in education, health, and cultural services. These patterns are generally in keeping with trends in the 2004 and 2006 VHLSS.

Gender segregation by industry also characterizes rural sector employment, but to a lesser degree, since both men and women are concentrated in agriculture. But even among primary industries, one sees proportionately more men in aquaculture, an industry of growing importance for Vietnam's economy. Other patterns described for the urban sector also hold in the rural sector, albeit to a lesser degree. Among secondary industries, men are still more clustered in construction and utilities while women are more concentrated in textiles and garment production.

Among tertiary industries, rural men, like their urban counterparts, are more concentrated in transportation, communications, business, and finance, while rural women are more concentrated in retail sales and in education, health, and cultural services.

To assess whether Vietnam’s industrial distributions for men and women have converged or diverged over time, we calculated a common measure of job segregation -- the Duncan Index - - and compared this measure for 2008 and 2006. The Duncan Index shows the percentage of all female workers who would have to switch industries in order to equalize the employment distributions between men and women. Following Carrington and Troske (1997), the Duncan Index is defined as $DI = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i |\alpha_{mi} - \alpha_{fi}|$, where α_{mi} is the share of males in the sample employed in industry i , α_{fi} is the share of females in the sample employed in the same industry i , and i sums across industries. Figure 1 below shows how the Duncan Index for overall employment across industries in the urban and rural sectors has changed in the past two years.¹¹

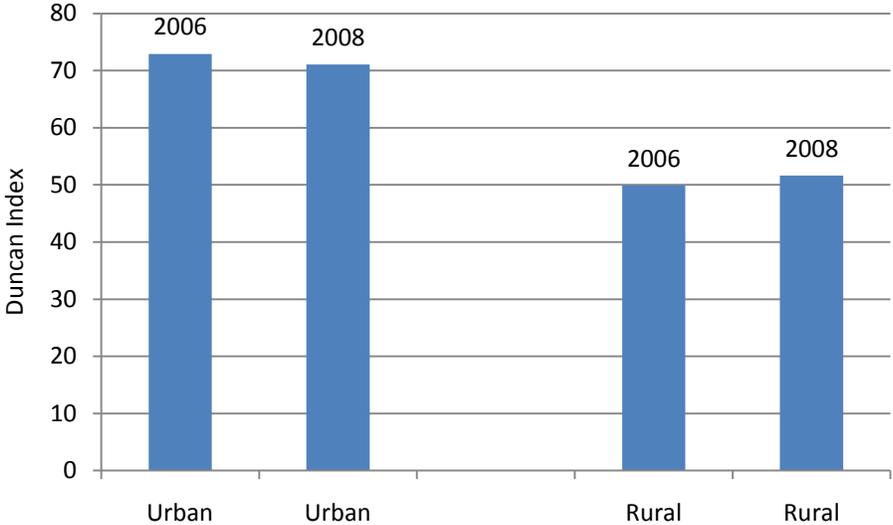


Figure 1: Duncan Index of Industrial Segregation, Vietnam

The figure indicates a higher degree of industrial segregation by gender in the urban sector, which is expected given the high concentration of both men and women working in

agriculture in the rural sector. Furthermore, relative to 2006, industrial segregation by gender fell slightly in the urban sector, from 72.9 to 71.1, and it rose slightly in the rural sector, from 49.9 to 51.7. In absolute terms, these measures are still large. In urban areas, more than 70 percent of women would need to switch industries in order to equalize the job distribution with men, and in rural areas, more than half of women would need to switch.

The remainder of Table 3-6 provides these industrial employment distributions for smaller sub-samples of workers: those employed in wage-employment, and those engaged in nonagricultural self-employment. The patterns of gender segregation across industry for all types of employment continue to hold for both of these sub-samples. One of the main differences one sees in wage-employment across industries relative to all types of employment is a relatively greater concentration of both men and women in secondary industries and in services. These increases in the distributional concentrations of male and female wage-employees come at the expense of the agricultural sector as well as sales. This result implies that Vietnam's sales industries (and agriculture, which is to be expected) as a whole are less intensive employers of wage-based labor compared to production, other heavy industries, and services. This finding is confirmed in the final part of Table 3-6, which shows that the sub-sample of nonagricultural self-employed workers has a much greater clustering among sales industries for men and women compared to the full sample of workers. This result holds for both the urban and rural sectors. About one third of urban self-employed men outside of agriculture are employed in sales, and almost one half of urban self-employed women. These results suggest that in terms of Vietnam's continued transition away from agricultural production to an industrialized economy, support of retail sales activities can pull men and women out of agricultural self-employment into non-

agricultural self-employment and ultimately into larger enterprises that generate additional wage-based employment creation.

F. Gender and Household Enterprises

Vietnam has a thriving network of nonagricultural household enterprises. Although female-operated household enterprises are more common than male-operated household enterprises, female-operated enterprises tend to be smaller in scale.

As shown in Table 3-7, which compares the characteristics of male-operated and female-operated nonagricultural household enterprises, female-operated enterprises are smaller in scale, with a lower incidence of licensing, fewer employees, smaller revenue streams, and a higher likelihood of operating within marketplaces rather than established shops.¹² Yet female-operated enterprises in nonagricultural activities also tend to be more common than those operated by men: in both the urban and rural sectors, about 60 percent of surveyed business operators were women. That said, only a third of these enterprises in the urban sector were licensed, compared to 41 percent for male-operated enterprises. The gender differential in licensing was smaller in rural areas, largely because relatively few rural-based household enterprises were licensed at all. Proportion of businesses licensed in the 2008 VHLSS is in general higher than those in the 2006 VHLSS.

Another indicator of scale and one that interests policy makers in terms of employment creation is the number of workers employed by household businesses. The norm of this type of establishment is one laborer -- the business operator him or herself -- with a higher percentage of female-operated enterprises having just one laborer (69 percent in urban areas and 75 percent in rural areas) as compared to male-operated enterprises (54 percent in urban areas and 58 percent in rural areas). These proportional differences are also reflected in the average number of

laborers employed by household enterprises: 2.4 for urban male-operated businesses, and 1.7 for urban female-operated businesses, and somewhat less in the rural sector. Closely related, female-operated businesses are about half as likely as businesses operated by men to hire paid workers in urban areas, and even less likely in rural areas. This is consistent with trends in the 2006 VHLSS as well.

Household enterprises also differ in the locations from which they operate. While both male- and female-operated enterprises are about equally likely to operate from the home, those that operate from other locations differ considerably by the gender of the owner. Enterprises operated by men are considerably more likely to operate out of an established shop or some other permanent location in urban areas, whereas businesses operated by women are more likely to conduct their activities in the marketplace. Similar conclusions apply to rural areas, except that operation from some other kind of non-permanent place becomes a more important place of business activity for male-operated enterprises.

Vietnam's household businesses tend to be young. In both the urban and rural sectors, the average household business has operated less than a year, with about the same tenure for male- and female-operated businesses. That said, male-operated businesses generate substantially higher revenues than businesses operated by women: in urban areas, the male average is roughly double that of female-operated enterprises, and in rural areas the male average is almost triple that of average revenues earned by women running their own businesses. Interestingly, median earnings across sectors and genders are substantially lower than mean earnings, indicating that relatively few household enterprises bring in large amounts of revenue, while most enterprises have a more modest revenue stream.

G. Occupational Segregation by Gender

Like other developing countries, Vietnam has a high degree of occupational segregation by gender, with men more concentrated in skilled occupations and women more concentrated in unskilled occupations.

As shown in Table 3-8, Vietnam's high degree of occupational segregation appears in both the urban and rural sectors, and it appears in wage-employment and in nonagricultural self-employment. For example, 31 percent of urban male wage-employees work as skilled manual workers, compared to 19 percent of their female counterparts. In contrast, just 18 percent of urban male wage-employees work as unskilled manual workers, compared to 25 percent of their female counterparts. This gender discrepancy between skilled and unskilled manual work also appears among rural sector wage-employees, and it is even more pronounced for self-employed workers performing nonagricultural work in both rural and urban areas. These disparities in the occupational distribution have a direct bearing on the overall gender wage gap since skilled manual work usually pays higher wages compared to unskilled manual work.

That the proportion of female skilled workers is only half that of male skilled workers is consistent with patterns reported for the 2002, 2004, and 2006 VHLSS. Nguyen (2008) shows that the relative gender-disparity in the proportion of workers engaged in skilled work has tended to increase slightly in the 2002-2006 time period. Gender differences over sector averages of estimates reported in Table 3-8 indicate that this pattern is evident in the 2008 VHLSS data as well. Alternatively, the proportion of women in unskilled work has exceeded the proportion of men in the 2002, 2004, 2006, and 2008 VHLSS.

Returning to the discussion of the 2008 data in Table 3-8, while the gender disparities in occupational distributions appear most readily in skilled and unskilled manual work, they also characterize other types of occupations. In particular, administrative and managerial jobs, which

often involve leadership positions that pay more, are disproportionately held by men in both urban and rural sectors. In addition, men are more likely to hold skilled positions in services while women are more likely to hold skilled positions in sales.

Vietnam’s patterns of worker concentration in different occupations have not remained stagnant over time. To assess whether Vietnam’s occupational distributions for men and women have converged or diverged over time, we calculated the same measure of job segregation -- the Duncan Index -- as defined earlier, only in this case the measure is calculated using the occupational distributions rather than industrial distributions. Figure 2 below shows how the Duncan Index for total employment across occupations in the urban and rural sectors has changed between 2006 and 2008.

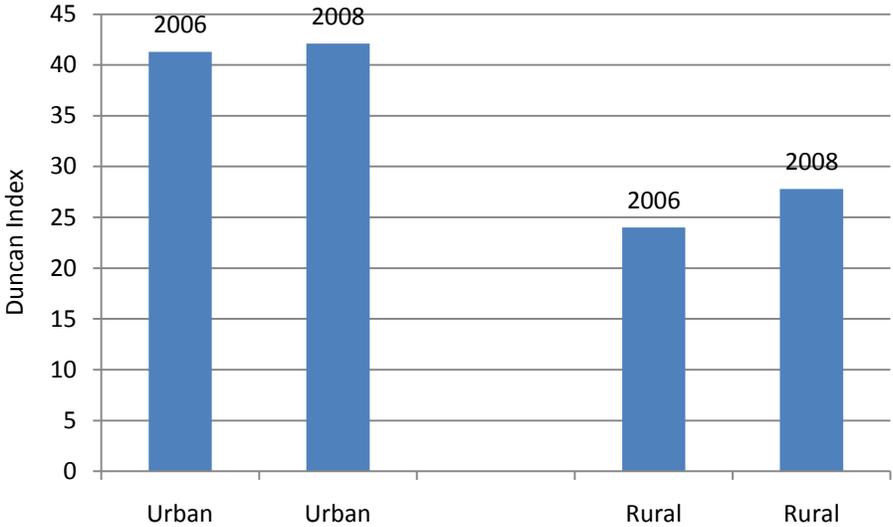


Figure 2: Duncan Index of Occupational Segregation, Vietnam

The figure indicates that men’s and women’s occupational distributions have actually diverged in the past two years. This divergence was fairly small in the urban sector (from 41.3 to 42.1) but more substantial in the rural sector (from 24.0 to 27.8). Less surprising is the higher degree occupational segregation in the urban sector, given that both men and women are highly

concentrated in agricultural occupations in the rural sector. Note also that the Duncan Indices for occupations are smaller than those calculated for industries, suggesting that women are even more concentrated in a few industries than they are in a few occupations. The results can help to inform policy reforms that open up job opportunities for women in nontraditional occupations in a more diverse range of industries.

H. Average Wages and the Gender Wage Gap

Average real hourly wages have risen over time for men and women across sectors of employment, industries, and occupations, with some of the highest wages observed for government officials, workers in joint ventures with foreign companies, and highly skilled professionals. While the female-male wage ratio compares favorably with other countries, it has fallen slightly in recent years.

Table 3-9, which reports average hourly wages earned by wage-employees in their main job, shows that in the urban sector, adult men earned, on average, 11.5 thousand real VND per hour, compared to 9.8 thousand real VND per hour for adult women.¹³ Furthermore, urban real wages are about one third higher than rural wages, with this urban/rural discrepancy slightly larger for men than it is for women. These average real wage levels marked a considerable increase relative to 2006, when adult men earned 9.6 thousand real VND per hour and women 8.3 thousand real VND in the urban sector, and relative to 2004, when these real wages amounted to 7.8 for men and 6.5 for women (Lee 2006, 2008). All of the wage breakdowns for rural areas and by sector of employment, occupation, industry, and education also show increases in 2008 relative to 2006 and 2004.

Government officials on average earn more per hour than employees in other sectors of employees, followed closely by workers in joint ventures with foreign companies. Private

enterprises generally pay below-average wages. This set of findings is consistent with findings in the literature that foreign-owned companies in developing country host markets often pay higher wages than domestically owned companies.

Also commanding a wage premium are male and female professional workers, especially those in a leadership position and those who work in a job involving science, technology, or medicine. Note though, that wage premiums for these two groups are relatively high only in the urban sector. In rural areas, education professionals command the highest wage premium, reflecting the importance associated with providing more educational opportunities in remote areas. Furthermore, despite the heavy concentration of women in sales, both men and women who work in sales in the urban sector still earn a small premium over the average wage, but this premium for sales does not hold for rural areas. Unskilled manual workers, especially women, earn the lowest average wages among the occupational categories. Industry wage premiums are highest for sales, with services not far behind. Interestingly, in urban areas, wages in secondary industries (manufacturing, mining, construction, and utilities) are considerably higher than those in agriculture, but the rural sector, the average wages for these industries are similar (for men) or exhibit the reverse relationship (for women).

As expected and consistent with a large body of evidence for other countries, real wages generally rise with education for both women and men and for urban and rural areas. While the biggest incremental increase in wages occurs for those who attain a junior college or university diploma, there is also a marked jump in wages for those who complete their upper secondary schooling.

Finally, Vietnam has relatively high average female-male wage ratios compared to many countries, but this average within Vietnam has fallen slightly over time. As shown in Table 3-10,

in 2008, urban women ages 15 and above earned 85 percent of the wages earned by men, compared to 87 percent in the 2006 VHLSS. The total wage ratio was somewhat higher in the rural sector, at 91 percent in 2008 and 88 percent in 2006. Combining the urban and rural total wage ratios together, Vietnam's overall wage ratio of 90.0 in 2008 compares favorably with other East and Southeast Asian countries for which published wage data are available (Figure 3).¹⁴

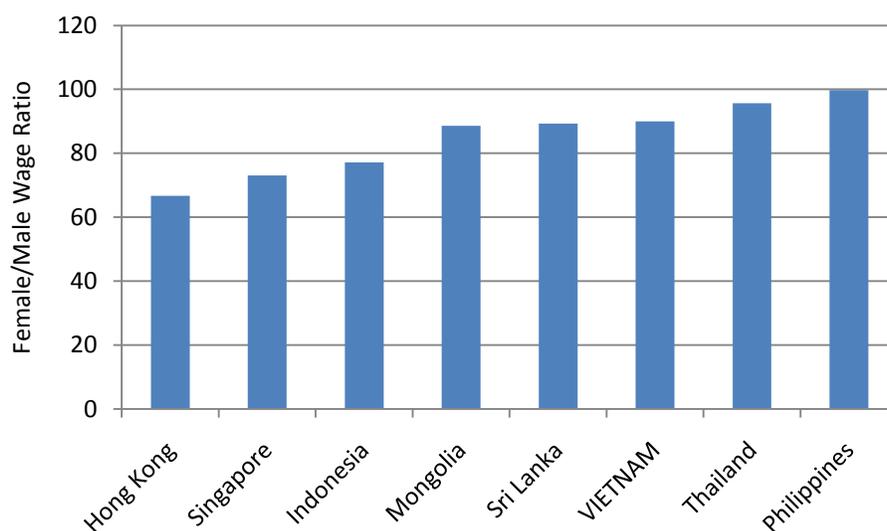


Figure 3: Female/Male Wages in All Industries, Asian Sample

Table 3-10 further shows that women's relative earnings are greatest among government officials, where women actually earn more than men in rural areas, and they are also high among workers in state-owned enterprises. Although joint ventures with foreign companies have high real wages, women's relative wages in joint ventures are substantially below the average wage ratio for urban areas and rural areas as a whole. Within occupational categories, women's relative wages are by far the highest among administrators and managers, where women earn twice the real wages of men in urban areas and about 15 percent more than men in rural areas. In contrast, female skilled manual workers are at a particular disadvantage, where they earn less

than two thirds the wages that men earn in the urban sector and about 70 percent of men’s wages in the rural sector.

At the industry level, Vietnam’s non-agricultural wage ratio of 85.0 in urban areas falls somewhat below the non-agricultural wage ratio in rural areas (91.7), with a country-wide average of 90.0. This aggregate measure for women’s relative earnings also compares favorably with other Asian countries that publish wage data at this level of aggregation (Figure 4).

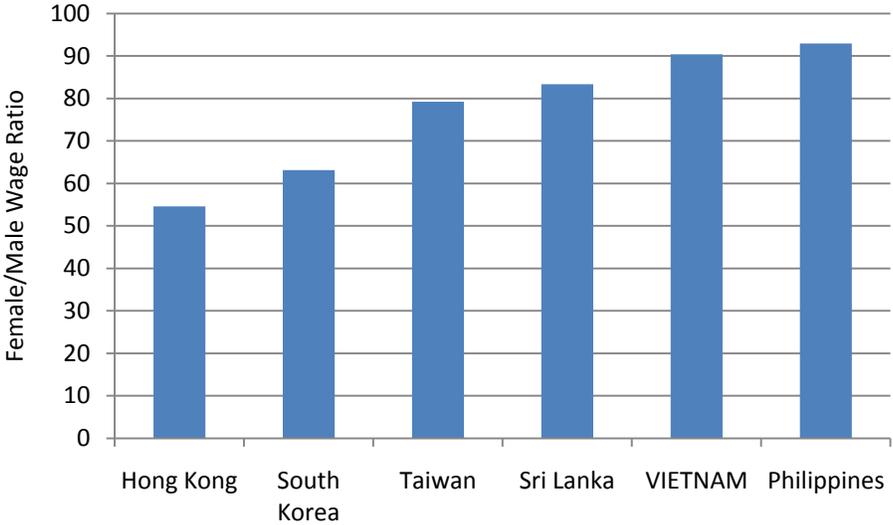


Figure 4: Female/Male Wages in Nonagricultural Activities, Asian Sample

Falling short in these industry aggregates are women’s relative wages in manufacturing. In the urban sector, women’s manufacturing sector wages amount to just 58 percent of men’s wages, with a higher wage ratio in the rural sector (72 percent). Combining sectors, Vietnam’s female/male wage ratio amounts to 66 percent, which ranks in the lower half of a sample of Asian countries that publishing manufacturing sector wage data for men and women (Figure 5). The findings suggest that, especially in urban areas, manufacturing sector employers have been squeezing women’s wages relative to men’s wages in order to maintain their competitive edge in global markets. This argument is supported with a database on labor costs in clothing production

for a sample of 38 developing and transition economies in 2008: of all countries, Vietnam had the fourth lowest labor costs, at 0.38 US\$/hour (Emerging Textiles 2008). Only Bangladesh, Cambodia, and Pakistan had lower labor costs in clothing production.

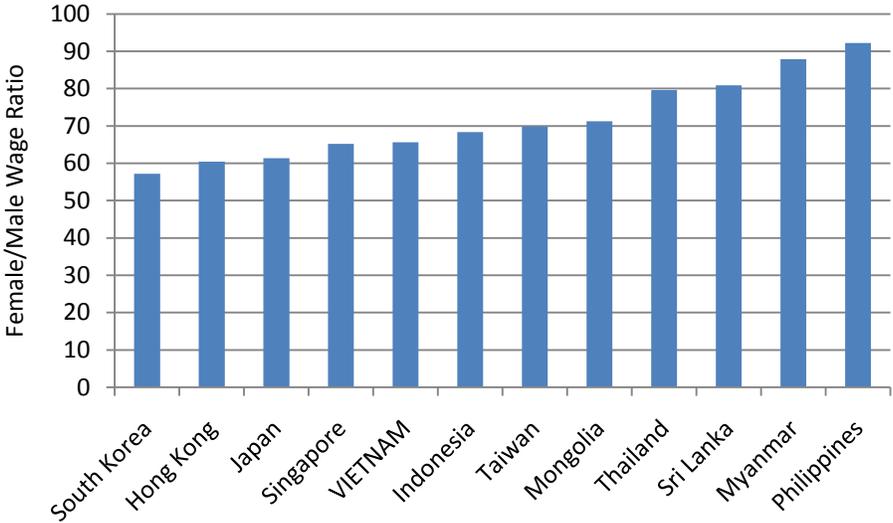


Figure 5: Female/Male Wage Ratios in Manufacturing, Asian Sample

Finally, among education groups, higher education leads not only to sizeable earnings premiums but also to above average female-male wage ratios in both the urban and rural sectors. At the other extreme, women with no schooling have the lowest relative wages in urban areas, while women with just a primary school education have the lowest relative wages in rural areas. These relationships between education and relative wages are broadly consistent with the 2006 VHLSS; the one noticeable difference is that for those with junior college/university, relative wages in the urban sector have remained the same whereas they have improved considerably in the rural areas. For those with no schooling, relative wages improved in urban areas in 2008 compared to 2006, and stayed about the same in rural parts of the country.

V. Health Indicators and Access to Services

Health status is a critical determinant of an individual's human capital. Poor health status can reduce the number of hours worked, limit the productive capacity of the worker, and result in lower wages. The poor health of one family member can lead to detrimental effects for the health of other members, especially children, and can mean poverty and debt for the entire household. Despite the importance of health for the economic well-being of the individual and the household, sharp differences still exist in measures of health across Vietnam's regions and socioeconomic and ethnic groups. These differences reveal remaining gender inequities as well.

Vietnam's economic growth and concerted government efforts have led to sustained improvements in social indicators, especially in terms of health status and access to health services. Consistent with other countries as they move upward on the development ladder, Vietnam has seen reductions in fertility rates, child mortality, and maternal mortality, as well as increases in life expectancy. Yet progress has remained uneven across regions, with a continued need to provide more health care services in remote areas, improve the quality of provision, and ensure affordable care. Not only are people entitled to health care services as a basic human right, but health status also contributes to the viability of the macroeconomy through ensuring productive and efficient workers. Although gender equality has become a mantra of development goals, gender equality in health can be misleading. Women's reproductive health remains a top policy priority, and provision of health care services requires special attention to the time constraints involved with childcare that can limit women's ability to access health care services.

This section offers a rich synopsis of health indicators and health care access as reported by 2008 VHLSS respondents. The report focuses on gender differences in illness as well as the consequences of such illnesses, including absence from school or work. Other dimensions of inequality including those relating to differences across age groups, ethnicity, region, household

income, and type of health insurance, are also revealed. The analysis has clear policy relevance for Vietnam, where the government has placed priority emphasis on the needs of women and vulnerable members of the population. Despite the policy dialogue on health care for women, some parts of the country have been slower in practice to provide publically-funded and widely-accessible health care services.

A. Gender and Health Status

Women over the age of fourteen report a greater incidence of experiencing illness than men, and among those who were ill, women past the prime child-bearing years reported higher rates of absence from school or work due to illness, compared to their male counterparts.

Results in Table 4-1 point to small disadvantages for women in becoming sick. After the age of 15, women across age groups are more likely to have reported that they were ill in the past month as well as in the past year. The difference is as large as 10 percentage points for some of the young adult age groups. This difference is partially explained by women's reproductive health care needs and child birth as discussed further below when examining the reason for visits to a health care provider. Even with this difference, both men and women have a well-defined U shape across age groups in reports of ill health with higher rates among children and the elderly and lower rates among working-age adults.

This U shape across age groups also characterizes reports of missing school or work, as well as reports of needing assistance while bedridden. Among participants who reported an illness, 18 percent of men and 19 percent of women in total missed work or school due to their illness. These rates were higher for children and for the elderly, with almost a third of men and women over the age of 60 reporting absences from work due to their illness. A similar conclusion applies to patterns of requiring assistance while bedridden. Note that after the age of

30 years, women tend to show higher rates of these severe consequences from illness compared to men. It could be that while women are still in their prime child-bearing years with infants and very young children under their care, their time constraints are tight enough that they cannot afford to be absent from work activities or remain in bed. After the age of 30 when their children are older, they are more likely to report an absence or require assistance compared to younger women and men. These differential trends for women after the age of 30 were evident in the 2006 VHLSS as well.

Rates of morbidity are about the same for the rural and urban sectors when examining reports of ill health in the past 4 weeks, but over the course of the year, men and women in the urban sector were considerably more likely to report feeling ill compared to their rural counterparts (roughly 57 percent on average in the urban sector compared to about 51 percent in the rural sector). The gender difference also persisted in both urban and rural sectors, with results pointing to a small disadvantage for women in both sectors. Interestingly, among those who were actually ill, both men and women in the rural sector reported considerably higher rates of absenteeism from work or school, and of needing assistance while bedridden, compared to their urban counterparts. A potential explanation is the rural sector comprises predominantly of agricultural jobs, which likely require greater amounts of physical exertion compared to many urban sector jobs. Thus individuals feeling ill in the rural sector are less able to meet the physical demands of their jobs.

Across regions, rates of morbidity are highest in the Mekong River Delta, while rates of absenteeism and requiring bed rest among those who reported an illness are highest in the North West. As noted in Lee (2008), differences in age group structures of households across regions could explain some of the regional differences, particularly if some regions are more prone to

higher dependency ratios such that the relatively greater number of elderly and children cause rates of morbidity to increase.

Among ethnic groups, the Kinh/Chinese have higher rates of reporting illness in the past year, with the Khmer/Cham not far behind. Interestingly, women's relatively greater incidence of reporting illness persists across all ethnic groups except in one case: among the Tay/Thai/Muong/Nung women and men are equally likely to have reported illness in the past month. In contrast, ethnic minority groups on average reported considerably higher rates of absenteeism from work or school and also higher rates of being bedridden and needing assistance due to illness. One could interpret these results that even though the Kinh/Chinese were more likely to report an illness, the severity of illness was worse for ethnic minorities. Also in contrast to patterns for the Kinh/Chinese, men in minority groups are, on average, more likely to report a severe consequence from their illness (absence from school or work, or being bedridden) compared to women.

Greater household income appears to increase the likelihood of reporting illness in the past year, with men and women from households in higher expenditure quintiles reporting higher rates of illness compared to their counterparts. In comparison to the 2006 VHLSS estimates, these measures are somewhat lower in the 2008 data. The opposite is true, however, for the severe consequences of being ill. Men and women from the lower expenditure quintiles are more likely to report absenteeism or requiring bed rest compared to men and women from the upper expenditure quintiles. One could argue that people from higher income groups have a higher opportunity cost of missing work or school and are thus less likely to take time away from work when they are ill. The observed female disadvantage in morbidity rates appears across the income distribution, especially in the middle. In contrast, the gender gap in absenteeism and

requiring bed rest when ill is actually reversed in some of the expenditure quintiles, especially in the tails of the distribution.

Finally, among individuals in the working-age population, the female disadvantage in morbidity appears across schooling categories. Overall, 50 percent of all women of working age with no schooling reported being ill in the past year, compared to 44 percent of men with the same amount of schooling. The size of this discrepancy is also fairly constant across the education groups. In contrast, men and women have more similar rates of absenteeism from work or school and needing bed rest when sick, although there is still a small relative disadvantage for women overall. This disadvantage for women in absenteeism and bed rest due to illness arises mostly from individuals with intermediate amounts of schooling. Working against this pattern are individuals with little to no education, where men are more likely to be absent from work or require bed rest when ill. Illness could serve as a larger barrier for men in attending work if men with little to no education are more likely to work in physically demanding manual labor compared to women with the same amounts of education. These patterns are similar to those revealed in the 2006 VHLSS.

B. Access to Health Care

Close to two-thirds of those who reported an illness in the past year visited a health care worker or center, with somewhat greater proportions for women in both the rural and urban sectors.

As shown in Table 4-2, among individuals who reported an illness within the past year, 61 percent of men and 65 percent of women visited some sort of a health care worker or center. These proportions are lower than in the 2006 VHLSS, where 77 percent of men and 78 percent of women visited some sort of a health care worker or center when sick. This greater likelihood

of seeking health care for women in 2008 persists across most age groups, except for the very young and the very old. The greater likelihood of women than men to utilize healthcare services is also consistent with patterns for 2004 and 2006, as reported in Nguyen (2010). Interestingly, this male advantage among the oldest and youngest members of the population in access to health care comes from the rural sector. In contrast, very young girls and elderly women in the urban sector have greater access to health care compared to their male urban counterparts. Consistent with patterns of becoming ill, the likelihood of seeking health care when sick also exhibits a distinct U shape across age groups: the young and elderly are more likely to seek health care when sick compared to members of the working-age population. In general, men and women living in the rural sector are more likely to seek health care services when they are sick compared to their urban counterparts, and this rural/urban differential holds for almost all age groups. This rural/urban differential is in contrast to trends in the 2006 VHLSS where such clear-cut patterns in rural versus urban were not evident.

The small female advantage in access to health care observed across most age groups also holds for the Kinh/Chinese ethnic group as well as the ethnic minorities in aggregate, although a closer look by sector indicates a small male advantage in some of the ethnic minorities in the urban sector. In terms of expenditure quintiles, the gender differences appear weakest in the tails of the distribution where the female advantage is either smaller (for the highest expenditure group) or reversed (for the lowest expenditure group) compared to groups in between. This narrowing or reversal in the gender differential arises in the rural sector and is generally the same as seen in the 2006 VHLSS data.

Finally, and not surprisingly, health insurance serves as an important determinant of the extent to which people seek health care. The highest rates of access to health care are observed

for people who have health insurance as policy beneficiaries and people with other voluntary health insurance. People with coverage under these insurance types tend to be older, on average, than people covered by other types of health insurance (Lee 2008). Some of the lowest rates of health care access are found for individuals with no health insurance and for individuals covered by student health insurance, especially in the urban sector. Student health insurance is considered to be voluntary, yet rates of health care access are considerably lower in both the rural and urban sectors compared to other voluntary types of health insurance. The female advantage in access to health care services holds across most types of health insurance in the rural and urban sectors (in keeping with the 2006 VHLSS), and it is largest for rural residents with non-state health insurance.

C. Types of Services Utilized

Individuals living in urban areas are more likely to visit hospitals compared to their rural counterparts. Commune health centers are especially important in rural areas.

About 60 percent of urban men and women sought hospital care when they were sick or required some other type of medical attention, including preventive care.¹⁵ In comparison, just 40 percent of rural men and women sought hospital care. In contrast, rural men and women were more likely to seek care from commune health centers compared to their urban counterparts. Private clinics also provided a considerable proportion of respondents with health care services, with a somewhat larger share in urban areas (21 percent) compared to rural areas (16 percent). Other private health services made up for some of this difference between urban and rural areas in private providers, with private health services accounting for a larger proportion of the rural sector compared to urban. The relative dependence on commune health centers in rural areas and provincial hospitals in urban areas are documented in the 2006 VHLSS as well.

Gender differences in the types of services were not as striking as the urban and rural differences. Men and women showed comparable patterns in terms of the dominance of hospital usage and private clinics in urban areas, and the relatively greater reliance on commune health clinics and private health services in rural areas. Within the urban sector, however, men were more likely than women to use provincial hospitals (28 percent versus 24 percent), and within the rural sector, women were more likely than men to use commune health centers (31 percent versus 27 percent).

D. Reasons for Seeking Health Care

Treatment for an illness or injury constituted the most frequent reason for seeking health care for urban and rural individuals, with women showing a relatively greater incidence than men of seeking preventative care.

In urban areas, seeking treatment constituted the reason for 80 percent of men's visits to health care providers, while treatment served as the reason for 73 percent of women's visits (Table 4-4). Women's greater likelihood in seeking preventive care and meeting their reproductive health needs made up the difference. This difference is especially pronounced for adults in the 20-49 age bracket, which includes women in the prime child bearing years. Also in the urban sector, women show a slightly greater proportion of health care visits devoted to vaccinations compared to men, especially for adults in the 20-49 age bracket.

Rural sector patterns are similar to those of the urban sector, with an even greater percentage of health care visits devoted to treatment for illness or injury (83 percent of visits for men, and 76 percent for women). In contrast, vaccinations, check-ups, and consulting make up for relatively fewer visits to rural sector health care providers, while there is virtually no difference between the rural and urban sectors in terms of the percentage of visits devoted to

women's reproductive health. These outcomes are comparable to those revealed in the 2006 VHLSS.

E. Health Expenditures

In aggregate, urban women had higher expenditures on health care services than urban men, whereas rural women had lower expenditures on health care than rural men. Of those expenses, however, men in both urban and rural areas had a greater amount covered by health insurance or free health insurance cards.

Table 4-5 shows the gender-disaggregated patterns for expenditures on outpatient treatment (expenses for medical service, treatment, and other costs such as bonus for doctors, equipment, and transportation) and for inpatient treatment (expenses for additional medicine requirement, equipment, and transport) in the last twelve months. Table 4-6 shows how much of these expenses were covered by health insurance or by a free health care insurance card/certificate. Hence Table 4-5 reports total expenses for the treatments and Table 4-6 shows the portion of total expenses that was paid from insurance. Note that about 58 percent of women have health insurance, compared to about 62 percent of men, a small disadvantage for women that was also observed in 2004 and 2006 (Nguyen 2010). Individuals with insurance still report incurring non-zero expenses, which is expected if there are restrictions under insurance contracts that limit the amount of the total expenses for procedures and medications covered by insurance.

Patterns in Table 4-5 indicate that on average, health expenses for urban women are higher than for urban men, whereas rural health expenditures for men exceed those of women. Among prime working age adults, expenditures for women in urban areas are consistently lower than those for men; however, such trends are less clear in rural settings. The largest disparity along ethnic lines is evident in the almost four-fold higher expenses in urban areas for men from

the Central ethnic groups as compared to women from the same group. In rural areas, expenditures along ethnic lines are almost always higher for men as compared to women, with the one exception being the close parity for the Northern Mountain ethnic group. In terms of expenditure quintiles, the gender-disparity in health expenditures in the richest quintile in urban areas is less pronounced than in rural areas, where the gap substantially favors men. By types of health insurance, average expenses are relatively higher for women in urban areas for five of the eight categories considered. In rural areas, expenditures under seven of the eight health insurance types favor men. Finally, by health care services, average expenditures are relatively higher for women in centers, clinics, and other groups (traditional practitioners and private health services) in urban areas. Expenditures by women exceed those of men in rural areas only for centers and clinics. If hospitalization represents more advanced care, men have an advantage over women in terms of spending on this type of advanced care in both urban and rural areas.

Finally, Table 4-5 shows how household expenditures on health care services differ by whether the providers are public or private. While urban and rural men spend more than twice as much on public health care services compared to private health care services, the differential between public and private is less than double for women, implying that women have a relatively stronger preference for private services than men. This preference is also seen in the absolute expenditure levels in the urban sector, when women spend more on private health care services than men. One potential explanation for the gender difference is that women have a stronger preference to pay less out of pocket for each treatment (or women are relatively more budget constrained), and, as documented in Nguyen *et al.* (2002), the per treatment contacts at private providers are actually lower than at public providers. Women's stronger preference for private services than men appears to be a change since 1998, when the Nguyen *et al.* analysis indicated

there was no difference between men and women in the use of private versus public health providers.

Many of the patterns in Table 4-5 are reflected in Table 4-6, with the general trend that expenditures paid from insurance are relatively higher for men than women in both urban and rural settings. By types of health insurance, expenditures from insurance are almost always lower for women than men in urban and rural areas. This advantage for men is generally true for expenditures by types of health care services as well, with a particularly large differential favoring men in expenditures on more advanced care in hospitals.

V1. Land-Use Rights

Vietnam's economic reform policies have included the issuance of land-use right certificates (LUCs), with continued progress recorded within the past few years. For example, the percentage of households with LUCs for any type of land has increased from 81 percent in 2004 to 85 percent in 2008. In terms of women's autonomy, Vietnam has also seen progress in terms of women having formal rights to land use. Because LUCs serve as one of the main sources of collateral, they are a crucial instrument for gaining access to credit, and they can help to strengthen women's bargaining power within the household and the community.

This section examines the proportion of households with LUCs as well as the variation in land-use titles by male holders, female holders, and joint holders. Both of the analyses focus on annual agricultural land and residential land, and they also report variations by regional, ethnic, household, and personal characteristics. Note that the 2008 VHLSS has questions on land use rights for each plot of land belonging to a household, so some households have responses for multiple plots of land for a particular type of land and/or for more than one type of land. The analysis considers LUCs at the household-level, rather than for specific plots of land.

A. Variations in Land-Use Titling

Vietnam has seen continued progress in land-use titling since 2004, especially in urban areas and for vulnerable groups.

As shown in Table 5-1, of those households with annual agricultural land, 86 percent hold land-use certificates, up from 81 percent in 2004. This percentage was virtually the same in rural and urban areas, with a small advantage for the rural sector. This gap between rural and urban land-use titling has narrowed since 2004, when considerably more rural households held land-use certificates compared to the urban sector. In terms of region, the highest rates of land-use titling are found in Mekong River Delta and South Central Coast, while the lowest rate of titling occurs in Central Highlands. These regional rankings have not changed since 2004, but the rates of titling have risen in every region except in the North West. Even though the Central Highlands remains relatively low, in just four years the rate of titling has risen from 55 percent to 77 percent. As shown earlier, the most disadvantaged ethnic groups (the Northern Mountain and the Central ethnic groups) are heavily concentrated in the North West and the Central Highlands, regions with less development and fewer urban centers. The substantial increase in titling for the Central Highlands thus marks progress for a region that needs it, while the setback for the North West affects those who are already relatively underprivileged.

The rate of titling of annual agricultural land is higher for the Kinh/Chinese compared to ethnic minorities as a whole, but the difference is only 2 percentage points, and both groups have seen an increase since 2004. These averages, though, mask some larger ethnic gaps by region. In particular, the South East has the largest ethnic gap in titling: while 86 percent of Kinh/Chinese households have LUCs for their agricultural land in the South East region, only 61 percent of ethnic minority households in the South East have LUCs. Although this gap has narrowed since

2004, it has remained persistently large. The South Central Coast also has a persistent and large gap between the titling rates of the Kinh/Chinese and the ethnic minorities. Even though these two regions do not have high concentrations of minority groups, those who do live in these regions fall short in terms of land rights.

Titling rates for annual agricultural land are virtually the same for married female- and male-heads of household (85 percent), as they are for widowed female- and male-heads of household (about 89 percent). Only divorced/unmarried female household heads stand at a discernable disadvantage compared to their male counterparts. As suggested by the relatively higher rates for widows, land titling appears to increase with age. While only 61 percent of households with heads below the age of 26 years have a LUC, 89 percent of households with a head over the age of 65 years have a LUC. This advantage of age also appears in the relatively higher titling rates for vertical and other household structures, which include grandparents, compared to nuclear families. As expected, the end of Table 5-1 shows that titling also reflects the privilege of wealth; the rate of holding LUCs rises steadily with expenditure quintiles.

These patterns in LUCs generally hold for residential land, with some exceptions. The rural advantage in land titling over the urban sector is a little larger compared to agricultural land, and some of the large regional ethnic gaps are relatively narrower or even reversed for residential land (especially in the South East and the South Central Coast). Female-headed households who are widowed or divorced/unmarried actually do better than their male counterparts in terms of LUCs for residential land. Finally, mature ages and income have the expected influence on land titling for residential land, with an even larger premium for older household heads in terms of titling rates compared to very young household heads.

B. Women's Progress in Land-Use Titling

In general, female-only and joint holders of land-use titles for annual agricultural and residential land have seen increases across regions and household characteristics since 2004.

Table 5-2 shows patterns of holdings in LUCs for annual agricultural and residential land disaggregated by male-only, female-only, and joint holders. In comparison to 2004, the percentage of male-only holders has fallen from 66 percent to 62 percent, whereas the percentage of female-only and joint holders has increased slightly from 19 percent to 20 percent and from 15 percent to 18 percent, respectively. In terms of regional patterns, the biggest increase for female-only holders has occurred in the South East region, where the percentage jumped from 16 percent in 2004 to 25 percent in 2008. Alternatively, the biggest decline (7 percentage points) for female-only titles occurred in the Central Highlands region. This same region also saw the largest increase in joint holdings, with an increase in joint titling from 15 percent to 26 percent.

The rural versus urban comparison shows that female-only holdings have fallen in urban areas compared to 2004, whereas the proportion of joint holdings has increased somewhat in rural settings and held fairly steady in urban settings. Disaggregation by ethnic groups shows that female-only and joint holdings have increased slightly among the Kinh/Chinese. Among minority groups, joint-holdings have increased substantially, from 12 percent in 2004 to 19 percent in 2008. In so far as joint-holdings allow husband and wife equal rights to land, this improvement has occurred among groups that were the most disadvantaged. Patterns by gender and marital status of household head show expected trends: among male-headed households, proportions are largest for male-only holders. For female-headed households, proportions of holdings are highest among female-only and jointly held land titles. Differences by marital status tend to follow gender of the household head. In particular, for female headed households, the

largest proportions of titles among married, widowed and other (divorced/separated) categories are for female-only held titles. These patterns are similar to those documented in the 2004 data.

Table 5-2 also shows that for annual agricultural land, the highest proportions for male-headed households by education of household head are for male-only held titles. Correspondingly, among the different schooling categories considered, the highest percentage of land titles in households that are female-headed are female-only. This outcome is similar to patterns in 2004. Finally, disaggregation by expenditures quintiles shows that in comparison to 2004, the proportion of female-only titles has fallen and the proportion of jointly-held titles has increased in 2008. This increase in jointly-held titles has occurred across all categories of wealth groups. This outcome contrasts with patterns in male-only or female-only held titles, which show more variation in trends across wealth groups between 2004 and 2008.

Table 5-2 also reports results for residential land. Again, there is a slight overall increase of almost 3 percentage points in joint-holdings in 2008 as compared to 2004. However, female-only held land has fallen by about 4 percent in 2008. Although male-only held titles continue to dominate across all regions in 2008, there have been increases across all regions in the proportion of jointly-held titles in 2008. In so far as much of this improvement has come from reductions in male-only held titles, such increases bode well for women's credit-worthiness and overall measures of welfare.

Table 5-2 also shows that female-only holdings have fallen in both rural and urban areas in comparison to 2004, and joint-holdings have increased in rural areas but fallen in urban areas in 2008. Patterns by gender and marital status of household head and gender and education of household head among holders of titles to residential land are the same as those noted among holders of titles to agricultural land. Finally, break-downs by wealth categories show that the

percentage of jointly-held land has increased across all groups except the wealthiest. Among the wealthiest in particular, residential land titles held by females only has declined substantially, from 29 percent in 2004 to 20 percent in 2008. Since this decline has occurred among a group that is not particularly vulnerable, the fall is not too worrisome. The wealthiest group has also seen the largest increase in the percentage of male-only held titles to residential land, from 44 percent in 2004 to 56 percent in 2008.

VII. Comprehensive Overview and Closing Remarks

The study has provided new evidence on gender differences in educational attainment, labor market status, health status, and land titling in Vietnam. Up-to-date statistical evidence on household well-being in Vietnam is particularly important given the heavy weight the government has placed on meeting the needs of vulnerable members of the population, reducing overall poverty, and improving societal well-being. Vietnam's government has placed priority emphasis on achieving gender equality in the 2006 Law on Gender Equality. This goal requires policy reforms that promote gender equality in its various dimensions. For example, universal enrollment in higher levels of schooling, more rewarding labor market opportunities for all, universal access to free or low-cost health care, and increased land titling for women remain top government priorities that will promote gender equality and improve welfare.

One of the major themes addressed in this report is Vietnam's demonstrated progress in achieving social development targets, albeit with achievements at the aggregate level masking some persistent gaps, especially among ethnic groups and regions. This theme, which appeared repeatedly in the analysis, has major implications for gender equality. For example, the analysis showed that Vietnam continued its progress with poverty reduction, with only a marginally higher rate of women living in households under the poverty line (15 percent) compared to men

(14 percent) at the aggregate level. Yet poverty rates vary substantially across regions, with considerably higher poverty in the North West, and also across ethnic groups, with persistently high poverty among the Central and Northern Mountain ethnic groups. It is also among the minority ethnic groups that we see larger gender gaps in poverty (with higher poverty for women than men).

Another major theme addressed in this report is some of the structural impediments to achieving gender equality, especially in terms of the persistence in women's relatively larger unpaid work burdens, as well as traditional norms and beliefs that undervalue women's work and steer them into specific educational and career tracks. Without government policies or employer actions that address women's unpaid housework and caring responsibilities, competition in Vietnam's labor market will continue to occur on an uneven playing field since women's greater work burdens at home will prevent them from maintaining labor force attachment levels equal to those of men. These impediments, in turn, lead to persistent gender inequality in employment, hours of paid work, occupations, and wages. In the remainder of this section, we discuss a number of policy implications in the context of these two major themes and the study's main results.

Educational excellence for all. The theme of aggregate progress masking some persistent gaps also appears in the analysis of education, with household heads belonging to minority ethnic groups lagging behind the national average in terms of educational attainment. Overall though, rapid economic growth has occurred simultaneously with the opportunity for male and female workers to attain higher levels of education, upgrade their skills, and earn higher wages. Results of this analysis show that Vietnam has already achieved considerable success in terms of increasing primary, secondary, and tertiary schooling among younger cohorts, which, in turn, has

helped to close the gender gap in schooling. Current school enrollment rates for younger cohorts are actually higher for girls than boys, even for ethnic minorities in aggregate, while four years ago ethnic minority girls had lower school enrollment rates than boys. The government needs to focus on maintaining active policy strategies to increase enrollment rates in secondary school, especially for minority ethnic groups, and find ways to make high-quality tertiary education more feasible and affordable. As noted in Nguyen (2008), one of the main paths by which gender equality in Vietnam had been achieved is through decreases in measures of schooling inequalities between girls and boys among the minorities. Furthermore, household expenditures on schooling among ethnic groups are comparable between boys and girls, although substantially lower for minority groups compared to the majority Kinh/Chinese ethnic group.

Workforce development. In principle, a greater emphasis on vocational education at the secondary level may help increase productivity in the face of changing labor market demands through the heightened flexibility of workers. As Vietnam experiences industrial restructuring, women face persistent difficulties in obtaining newly created jobs in high-tech industries that demand workers with scientific, engineering, and technical skills. This analysis has shown that women tend to concentrate in studying social sciences and the humanities, which probably plays a large role in contributing to their concentration in sales and service industries. As the economy goes through its process of structural transformation, the government needs to consider alternative policy instruments that enhance the educational opportunities for all students as they train for rewarding jobs.

More specifically, Vietnam needs to establish the groundwork for encouraging more girls and women to pursue alternative careers in non-traditional sectors such as engineering. Workforce development planning ought to create clear incentives for women to train for highly

paying jobs in technology and skill-intensive manufacturing industries. Such incentives will help to reduce the persistent occupational segregation by gender documented in this study: this segregation shows that as compared to men, women tend to work in relatively unskilled jobs. Stronger enforcement of the gender equality law would also help more women advance in engineering and technical tracks. Improved enforcement will provide women with greater access to a wider range of occupations and industries and also open up access to new training opportunities. Enforcing the gender equality law will not only provide women with more suitable education options and more rewarding career opportunities, it will also promote essential workforce training for meeting Vietnam's economic growth objectives. Such policies will further strengthen Vietnam's women's already respectable ranking among the Asian tigers in terms of relative wages in services, and help to improve their relative wages in manufacturing, which are relatively low compared to other countries.

Enforcement of anti-discrimination measures. To the extent that the gap between men's and women's wages in manufacturing is due to wage discrimination against women, enforcement of anti-discrimination provisions will also help to boost women's relative wages in manufacturing.¹⁶ The low relative wages in manufacturing also reflect the intense global pressure on labor costs, with Vietnam ranking among the lowest-cost producers of clothing in the world; only Bangladesh, Cambodia, and Pakistan have lower labor costs in apparel production (Emerging Textiles 2008). This "low-road" approach to women's wages can only represent a short-term strategy to export success, and cannot be sustained if Vietnam continues to diversify toward higher margin products produced with well-paid, productive workers. In addition, reinforcing state support for childcare services, support that was cut during Vietnam's earlier

economic reforms, will make it easier for women to find and hold formal-sector jobs (Nguyen 1999).

Job creation. Findings related to employment and wages for Vietnam point to the importance of creating more wage-employment and productive self-employment opportunities, especially for ethnic minorities through policy reforms that incentivize opportunities to switch from unpaid work in marginally productive activities to more remunerative work in productive activities. Results in this study show that female-operated household enterprises outnumber male-operated enterprises, but female-operated enterprises are smaller in scale. Household enterprises tend to use family labor, yet this feature retards their ability to provide productive employment opportunities for large numbers of workers. Thus, policies that increase the scale and scope of household enterprises may help to convert them into powerful engines for widespread productive employment in the future. This objective becomes all the more important when one considers that across developing countries where the very poor are more constrained in their economic choices by the market environment, lack of infrastructure, and insufficient sources of affordable credit, small-scale entrepreneurship serves as one of the primary vehicles for income generation (Banerjee and Duflo 2007). In addition, women use self-employment as a means of combining employment with childcare responsibilities.

With adequate support, Vietnam's large network of household business ventures can expand and potentially employ a larger proportion of the workforce in wage-based employment. This approach to job creation can help to further diversity employment options, especially for women holding low-pay jobs in manufacturing. In addition to better supporting viable household business ventures, dissemination of know-how on accounting and management practices would also serve as useful mechanisms for increasing the productivity of household businesses and for

increasing their ability to generate employment. Public and non-governmental institutions could play key roles by providing subsidies that facilitate the purchase of profit-enhancing new technologies, as well as support for the marketing and sale of products created by female-operated businesses. Such policies would play an especially useful role in contexts where female entrepreneurs may be isolated from informal networks that serve to provide support and information on new business strategies.

Public support for working families. As shown in this study, women continue to perform more hours of housework than men, with the greatest disparity occurring during prime child-bearing and child-rearing ages. Part of this unequal distribution of labor in the household stems from cultural factors that pre-suppose that women are responsible for children, and thus must bear primary responsibility for child-care and housework (Nguyen 2008). This traditional belief has particular hold among the ethnic minority groups (Nguyen 2008). The continued high proportions of men across age groups in rural and urban areas who perform no housework at all indicates the perpetuation of cultural norms dictating that such work is women's work. The expectation that women are responsible for unpaid work in the house places a large time burden on women, with even greater loads for urban women in their child-bearing and child-rearing years. Together with very high economic activity rates for women, these results point to a double work burden for women. Thinking about this double work burden as a time poverty issue couches these gender differences in terms of poverty, and increases the importance of finding ways to reduce such differentials.

Universal health care access. In terms of health care availability, the finding that the majority of those who reported an illness were able to visit a health care worker or center implies that the health care infrastructure in Vietnam is keeping up with the needs of the population.

However, the fact that individuals in urban areas are more likely to visit hospitals as compared to their rural counterparts implies that there might be disparities in the quality of care received between urban and rural areas of the country. Such disparities in care may be especially problematic if urban hospitals are at the forefront of new advances in medicine, while rural-based commune health centers lack the same kind of expertise. Since situating hospitals in rural areas involve high expenses, policies that encourage the adoption of new and advanced medical practices by practitioners in commune health centers might aid in resolving some of the discrepancies.

The health-related results in this analysis also show that with few exceptions, health expenditures for the majority Kinh/Chinese group exceed those of ethnic minorities. A policy priority to improve access to social services for marginalized individuals, especially health care, is to remove cultural barriers to health care that discriminate against ethnic minority communities in remote parts of the country. Furthermore, of total health expenses, men have a larger proportion covered by health insurance or free health insurance cards as compared to women. This disparity in insurance coverage is particularly striking given that women above the age of fourteen report a greater incidence of experiencing illness as compared to men. Differences in insured health care coverage between women and men warrant closer attention in order to devise appropriate remedial policies. Another gender difference documented in this study is women's relatively greater spending compared to men on private health care services, possibly because they place a higher value on the cost effectiveness of private providers. This pattern is consistent with arguments in Nguyen *et al.* (2002) that the government show stronger recognition of private providers as key players in Vietnam's health care system and do more to incorporate the private sector into health care planning and financing. Allowing users to cover a

greater proportion of private health care costs with insurance would be a possible step in this direction. Collectively, these reforms could go a long way in stretching tight budgets to meet the universal health care needs of Vietnam's population.

Continue progress in women's land titling. The analysis of patterns in holdings of land-use certificates has revealed improvements in the overall proportion of those with land-use right certificates for any type of land. In particular, joint-holdings by husbands and wives of LUCs for agricultural and residential land have increased in 2008 as compared to 2004 (the previous time an analysis of LUCs was implemented). Such trends are likely to benefit Vietnam's women and will help to further improve their creditworthiness and reduce disparities in bargaining power within and outside of the home. For female-headed households in particular, such improvements may be crucial to ensuring economic success and reductions in overall measures of vulnerability. Hence, procedures that encourage women's titling to land need to be further strengthened and encouraged. More specifically, highlighting the economic benefits of joint-ownership of LUCs can help to bolster current trends.

Closing the ethnic and rural/urban gap. The analysis has found relatively greater poverty, lower rates of wage-employment, and lower educational attainment not only among ethnic minorities, but also in the rural sector in general. More broadly, these ethnic and regional disparities as of 2008 reflect longer-term patterns and support the argument that gains in well-being since the Vietnamese government initiated its Doi Moi reform policies have not been evenly distributed (Packard 2008). Some of the ethnic disparities have even grown since the early 2000s, especially the large relative advantage for Kinh/Chinese in obtaining wage-employment rather than remaining engaged in self-employment. Because of their higher socioeconomic status and their superior access to resources, women in the dominant ethnic group

and in urban areas have benefited more from economic reforms in terms of income and improvements in capabilities than have ethnic minority and rural women.

Policy reforms to address these disparities include investment in rural infrastructure and policies to strengthen the economic links between Vietnam's urban and rural areas as a means to reducing rural poverty and the rural–urban income gap that may have left rural women and ethnic minorities behind. Furthermore, improvements in the design of Vietnam's public safety net, including more spending to meet needs as well as better responsiveness to changing household circumstances, will help more people move from and stay out of poverty (van de Walle 2004). Finally, increasing the proportion of female leaders and managers in rural communes will help to bring remaining gender-related disparities to national attention (Nguyen 2008). Policies of this nature lend themselves to win-win situations in terms of being both pro-women as well as pro-growth.

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Table 1-1. Distribution of Households in 1998 and 2008.

<i>Indicator</i>	<i>1998</i>	<i>2004</i>	<i>2006</i>	<i>2008</i>
(No. of households)	5,999	9,188	9,189	9,189
Region (%)				
Red River Delta	22.8	24.0	23.7	23.8
Northern Uplands	17.1			
North East		11.3	11.3	11.2
North West		2.6	2.8	2.7
North Central Coast	14.0	12.6	13.0	12.7
South Central Coast	10.3	8.7	8.3	8.3
Central Highlands	3.1	4.9	5.2	5.3
South East	12.5	15.5	15.5	16.1
Mekong River Delta	20.3	20.6	20.2	20.0
Rural vs. Urban (%)				
Rural	76.0	73.5	72.5	72.0
Urban	24.0	26.5	27.5	28.0
Ethnicity(%)				
Kinh	85.9	88.6	87.8	88.2
Chinese	1.8	0.9	0.9	0.7
Ethnic minorities	12.3	10.5	11.3	11.1
Household type (%)				
Nuclear	71.2	74.2	73.0	70.1
Vertical	23.7	18.6	18.7	19.9
Others	5.1	7.2	8.2	10.0
Mean household size (no. of individuals)	4.7	4.3	4.2	4.1
Gender of household head (%)				
Male	73.7	74.5	74.5	74.4
Female	26.4	25.5	25.6	25.6
Marital status of household head (%)				
Married	81.2	80.7	81.1	80.9
Widowed	13.6	14.6	14.1	14.3
Divorced	1.5	1.8	1.7	1.7
Separated	1.5	0.9	0.9	0.9
Unmarried	2.2	2.0	2.3	2.2
Age of household head (%)				
<=24	0.9	0.5	0.6	0.6
25-34	16.7	12.7	10.8	9.9
35-44	30.8	29.0	28.3	26.8
45-54	20.0	26.5	28.4	29.2
55-64	16.5	14.4	15.7	16.9
65 and older	15.1	16.9	16.2	16.5
Mean age of household head (in years)	47.8	49.0	49.8	50.4

Poverty and food poverty incidence of all individuals

(No. of individuals)	28,509	40,438	39,071	38,253
% in poverty	37.4	19.5	16.0	14.5
% in food poverty	15.0	7.4	6.7	6.9

Note: Percentages are weighted; sample sizes are unweighted totals. Figures for 1998, 2004, and 2006 come from Lee (2008).

Table 1-2. Poverty Rates by Gender and Selected Characteristics (in %)

	<i>Total</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
(No. of individuals)	38,253	18,810	19,443
Total	14.5	14.0	15.0
Rural vs. Urban			
Rural	18.7	18.0	19.4
Urban	3.3	3.3	3.3
Region			
Red River Delta	8.1	7.5	8.7
North East	24.3	23.9	24.7
North West	45.7	45.4	46.0
North Central Coast	22.6	20.4	24.7
South Central Coast	13.7	12.8	14.6
Central Highlands	24.1	22.8	25.5
South East	3.5	3.5	3.5
Mekong River Delta	12.3	12.5	12.1
Ethnicity			
Kinh/Chinese	9.0	8.5	9.4
Ethnic minorities	50.3	49.2	51.4
Tay/Thai/Muong/Nung	40.4	39.2	41.7
Northern Mountain ethnic groups	65.8	64.3	67.3
Central ethnic groups	76.4	76.8	75.9
Khmer/Cham	22.3	19.9	24.5
Age group			
0-14	21.3	19.6	23.0
15-24	12.8	12.4	13.3
25-34	15.2	15.2	15.2
35-44	13.1	13.6	12.7
45-54	9.1	8.8	9.3
55-64	9.3	9.4	9.2
65 and older	14.4	12.2	15.9
Household structure			
Nuclear	12.3	11.8	12.8
Vertical	18.1	18.0	18.2
Others	17.8	17.4	18.1
Gender of household head			
Male	15.5	14.8	16.3
Female	10.8	10.1	11.2

Note: Percentages are weighted; sample sizes are unweighted totals.

Table 1-3. Characteristics of Male-Headed and Female-Headed Households

	Male-Headed				Female-Headed			
	<i>Total</i>	<i>Married</i>	<i>Widowed</i>	<i>Other</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Married</i>	<i>Widowed</i>	<i>Other</i>
(No. of households)	6939	6657	193	89	2250	859	1073	318
Region (%)								
Red River Delta	24.2	24.5	18.5	15.2	22.8	22.1	24.1	20.3
North East	11.9	12.1	9.1	7.5	9.0	12.4	6.4	8.4
North West	3.0	3.1	2.0	1.6	1.8	2.3	1.2	2.2
North Central Coast	13.2	13.4	12.4	4.9	11.1	8.4	14.1	8.6
South Central Coast	8.1	8.2	7.1	5.7	8.8	8.9	8.9	8.4
Central Highlands	5.9	6.0	2.1	3.8	3.5	3.9	3.1	3.5
South East	13.9	13.2	22.6	42.3	22.5	26.0	18.9	24.9
Mekong River Delta	19.8	19.6	26.1	19.0	20.6	16.0	23.2	23.8
Rural vs. Urban (%)								
Rural	76.5	77.1	65.6	60.1	58.8	44.0	71.1	57.8
Urban	23.5	22.9	34.4	39.9	41.2	56.0	28.9	42.2
Ethnicity (%)								
Kinh/Chinese	86.8	86.6	90.0	92.3	94.9	96.0	94.2	93.9
Ethnic minorities	13.2	13.4	10.0	7.7	5.2	4.0	5.8	6.2
Marital status of head (%)								
Married	95.6	100.0	0.0	0.0	38.2	100.0	0.0	0.0
Widowed	2.9	0.0	100.0	0.0	47.4	0.0	100.0	0.0
Divorced/Separated	0.7	0.0	0.0	45.1	8.3	0.0	0.0	57.9
Unmarried	0.8	0.0	0.0	54.9	6.1	0.0	0.0	42.1
Age of head (%)								
<=24	0.6	0.4	0.0	13.3	0.6	0.8	0.0	2.0
25-34	11.4	11.5	0.5	26.1	5.5	10.3	1.4	6.5
35-44	30.2	31.1	4.4	27.1	16.9	30.1	6.3	16.6
45-54	29.2	30.0	6.9	21.5	29.3	35.8	19.0	45.8
55-64	15.5	15.5	18.6	9.4	21.1	16.1	24.6	22.4
65 and older	13.0	11.5	69.6	2.7	26.8	7.0	48.7	6.9
Mean age household head	48.7	48.3	68.7	38.8	55.2	47.2	63.3	49.7
Household structure (%)								
Nuclear	72.9	74.0	50.6	48.3	61.9	75.7	51.0	61.2
Vertical	18.5	18.2	26.6	22.5	24.0	15.0	31.7	22.1
Others	8.6	7.8	22.8	29.2	14.2	9.3	17.3	16.7
Mean household size	4.3	4.4	3.4	2.4	3.5	4.0	3.4	2.6
% with adult male(s) 18+	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	67.6	90.0	59.1	36.6
Presence of children								
% with children age < 6	27.5	28.0	22.0	5.5	23.7	24.6	25.0	16.6
% with any children < 18	70.2	71.7	46.6	22.2	58.0	68.5	55.0	40.3
Presence of elders								
% with elders age 60+	29.1	27.5	81.6	33.7	44.4	26.9	63.6	27.2

Education of head (%)								
No diploma	4.5	4.4	11.1	1.7	12.9	3.9	21.1	9.8
Less than primary	15.4	15.1	29.4	9.3	26.5	14.2	37.5	22.8
Primary school	27.2	27.0	32.8	33.3	20.4	21.0	19.4	21.8
Lower secondary	32.8	33.6	12.0	21.9	22.1	31.0	14.8	22.7
Upper secondary	14.4	14.5	10.3	15.7	13.3	21.1	6.2	16.2
College/university or more	5.6	5.4	4.5	18.1	4.8	8.8	1.0	6.8
LF status of head (%)								
Employed	89.4	90.9	41.5	87.8	70.9	80.2	58.7	86.3
Unemployed	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.7
Inactive	10.6	9.1	58.5	12.2	29.0	19.8	41.2	13.0
Employment sector of head (%)								
Wage employment	39.8	38.6	68.2	64.2	46.0	46.2	49.1	35.1
Agriculture self-employment	44.7	45.6	25.5	26.4	31.1	25.6	35.3	32.0
Non-ag. self-employment	15.5	15.8	6.4	9.3	22.9	28.2	15.6	33.0
For all household members:								
Expenditure quintiles (%)								
1 st poorest	18.4	18.5	15.5	16.8	13.2	7.6	17.8	16.2
2 nd	20.0	20.3	12.0	16.4	17.2	12.9	20.8	18.6
3 rd	21.2	21.2	21.1	16.0	17.5	15.0	20.3	15.5
4 th	20.5	20.5	24.0	17.8	21.5	23.9	19.6	19.7
5 th wealthiest	19.9	19.6	27.5	33.0	30.7	40.5	21.6	30.0
Poverty incidence (%)	15.5	15.5	14.7	16.4	10.8	6.8	13.8	14.2
Food poverty incidence (%)	7.6	7.6	7.9	7.7	4.5	2.2	6.2	6.2

Note: Percentages are weighted; sample sized are unweighted totals.

Table 1-4. Household Characteristics by Ethnicity

	Ethnic Minorities					
	<i>Kinh/ Chinese</i>	<i>Total Minorities</i>	<i>Tay, Thai Muong & Nung</i>	<i>Northern Mountain Ethnic</i>	<i>Central Ethnic</i>	<i>Khmer & Cham</i>
(No. of households)	7,811	1,378	756	269	220	133
Region (%)						
Red River Delta	26.6	1.5	2.8	0.0	0.0	0.0
North East	7.8	38.1	51.2	64.8	0.0	0.0
North West	0.7	18.7	25.3	31.2	0.0	0.0
North Central Coast	13.1	9.5	13.5	1.6	11.1	0.0
South Central Coast	8.8	4.3	0.7	0.0	21.5	0.6
Central Highlands	4.3	13.0	4.4	2.0	57.2	0.7
South East	17.6	3.9	2.1	0.5	10.3	7.3
Mekong River Delta	21.1	10.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	91.5
Rural vs. Urban (%)						
Rural	69.4	92.9	91.7	98.4	93.4	90.2
Urban	30.6	7.1	8.3	1.6	6.6	9.9
Household structure (%)						
Nuclear	70.8	64.0	61.6	61.8	67.9	72.0
Vertical	19.6	22.1	25.5	16.8	19.5	17.8
Others	9.5	14.0	13.0	21.4	12.6	10.2
Mean household size	4.0	4.9	4.7	5.5	5.4	4.3
Age of head (%)						
<=24	0.5	1.7	1.3	3.1	2.0	0.9
25-34	8.7	19.6	17.9	26.7	24.3	10.0
35-44	26.1	32.5	36.2	33.2	28.6	20.7
45-54	29.7	25.7	27.5	21.9	24.9	24.1
55-64	17.4	13.0	11.3	11.4	11.7	25.1
65 and older	17.7	7.6	5.8	3.6	8.6	19.4
Mean age of household head	51.0	45.0	44.4	41.6	44.4	53.0
% with adult male(s) 18+	91.1	96.4	97.0	97.4	95.7	93.3
Presence of children						
% with children age < 6	25.0	39.0	34.2	50.4	53.3	23.9
% with any child age 6-10	23.6	34.9	28.0	46.4	51.4	25.5
% with any children < 18	65.2	81.9	79.8	87.8	91.6	68.8
Presence of elders						
% with elders age 60+	33.7	27.6	29.6	18.6	25.1	34.3
% with any male elder 60+	30.0	26.6	29.4	17.5	23.7	30.5
% with any female elder 60+	32.9	27.5	29.6	18.6	24.8	34.3
Gender of head (%)						
Male	72.7	88.2	89.6	94.2	87.3	74.6
Female	27.3	11.8	10.4	5.8	12.7	25.4

Marital status of head (%)						
Married	79.9	89.0	90.6	93.7	87.8	76.8
Widowed	15.0	8.2	7.0	3.4	9.0	19.2
Divorced/Separated	2.8	1.5	1.2	2.6	0.8	2.5
Never married	2.3	1.3	1.3	0.3	2.4	1.4
Education of head (%)						
No diploma	5.1	19.6	6.7	33.0	37.5	32.3
Less than primary	17.7	22.7	16.5	25.1	30.5	35.8
Primary school	25.0	29.0	32.4	27.2	22.4	25.8
Lower secondary	31.4	19.8	30.6	10.7	6.3	3.6
Upper secondary	15.0	7.3	11.0	3.1	3.3	2.5
College/university or more	5.9	1.7	2.9	0.9	0.0	0.0
LF status of head (%)						
Employed	83.5	94.0	95.2	98.2	95.4	80.8
Unemployed	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.8
Inactive	16.5	5.9	4.8	1.8	4.6	18.4
Employment sector of head (%)						
Wage employment	43.9	21.1	19.4	11.9	19.5	43.9
Agriculture self-employment	36.9	75.7	77.2	87.4	79.6	47.6
Non-agriculture self-employment	19.1	3.2	3.4	0.8	0.9	8.5
For all household members:						
Expenditure quintiles (%)						
1 st poorest	11.1	57.2	46.8	71.9	82.0	35.2
2 nd	19.2	20.5	24.6	18.8	11.1	20.8
3 rd	21.7	11.8	14.6	4.3	3.8	26.2
4 th	22.9	6.7	8.6	2.4	2.3	13.1
5 th wealthiest	25.1	3.9	5.4	2.7	0.9	4.7
Poverty incidence (%)	9.0	50.3	40.4	65.8	76.4	22.3
Food poverty incidence (%)	3.2	31.2	21.2	51.2	51.2	7.4

Note: Percentages are weighted; sample sizes are unweighted totals.

Table 2-1. Levels of Schooling Completed Among Men and Women Aged 18-64 (%)

MEN	<i>Age</i>					
	<i>18-21</i>	<i>22-24</i>	<i>25-34</i>	<i>35-44</i>	<i>45-54</i>	<i>55-64</i>
No schooling	2.2	2.8	5.5	3.8	3.4	3.9
Less than primary	5.2	5.4	10.9	11.4	11.2	16.5
Primary	15.4	19.0	28.9	27.8	21.5	23.4
Lower secondary	27.2	22.8	22.5	34.9	37.8	31.1
Upper secondary	49.4	40.7	21.1	17.1	18.4	16.0
Junior college	0.5	3.8	3.1	0.7	1.9	0.7
University or more	0.1	5.5	7.9	4.3	5.8	8.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
% currently attending school	43.0	23.0	3.9	0.9	0.7	0.0
(No. of observations)	1,745	1,037	2,448	2,727	2,363	1,237

WOMEN	<i>Age</i>					
	<i>18-21</i>	<i>22-24</i>	<i>25-34</i>	<i>35-44</i>	<i>45-54</i>	<i>55-64</i>
No schooling	2.5	3.7	6.9	6.7	7.1	10.9
Less than primary	4.1	5.9	11.4	13.2	17.2	28.6
Primary	12.3	18.7	32.8	27.6	25.6	24.0
Lower secondary	26.2	21.6	21.3	32.8	32.3	23.0
Upper secondary	54.1	39.2	16.9	14.7	13.0	8.9
Junior college	0.3	5.5	3.0	1.9	1.9	1.7
University or more	0.4	5.4	7.8	3.2	3.0	2.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
% currently attending school	46.9	18.6	2.5	0.6	0.3	0.0
(No. of observations)	1,516	921	2,518	2,869	2,708	1,430

Note: Percentages are weighted and sample sizes are unweighted. Individuals attending vocational schools are included in the rate of current attendance.

Table 2-2. Levels of Schooling Currently Attending and Completed in the School-Age Population (Age 6-24; %)

2008 VHLSS	Male					Female				
	6-10	11-14	15-17	18-21	22-24	6-10	11-14	15-17	18-21	22-24
<i>Currently attending</i>										
Preschool	5.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	5.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Primary	88.6	11.2	0.3	0.1	0.0	88.0	11.5	0.1	0.1	0.0
Lower secondary	2.4	78.9	18.0	0.5	0.0	2.2	79.1	16.3	0.5	0.1
Upper secondary	0.0	2.3	50.2	14.3	0.2	0.0	2.2	59.5	14.4	0.4
JC/university	0.0	0.0	0.3	19.6	16.7	0.0	0.0	0.9	22.5	15.0
Vocational training	0.0	0.1	1.1	8.4	6.1	0.0	0.0	0.7	9.5	3.2
<i>Not attending - highest level completed</i>										
Primary or less	3.3	7.5	18.1	22.4	27.1	4.4	6.8	12.7	18.7	28.4
Lower secondary	0.0	0.1	11.5	20.2	21.8	0.0	0.3	9.6	20.4	21.2
Upper secondary	0.0	0.0	0.7	14.1	21.6	0.0	0.0	0.2	13.9	24.8
JC/university	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	6.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	7.1
(No. of observations)	1,422	1,569	1,478	1,745	1,037	1,349	1,558	1,313	1,516	921

2006 VHLSS	Male					Female				
	6-10	11-14	15-17	18-21	22-24	6-10	11-14	15-17	18-21	22-24
<i>Currently attending</i>										
Preschool	4.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	5.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Primary	88.8	11.7	0.4	0.0	0.0	88.2	12.1	0.1	0.0	0.0
Lower secondary	2.9	77.4	18.0	0.6	0.0	3.3	78.3	16.9	0.3	0.0
Upper secondary	0.0	2.5	51.5	14.6	0.6	0.0	2.7	57.1	13.0	0.1
JC/university	0.0	0.0	0.2	15.4	14.4	0.0	0.0	0.5	17.2	11.3
Vocational training	0.0	0.0	1.5	10.1	5.7	0.0	0.0	0.9	11.1	4.0
<i>Not attending - highest level completed</i>										
Primary or less	4.0	8.2	18.4	25.5	30.7	3.3	6.8	15.8	25.4	35.0
Lower secondary	0.0	0.1	9.9	20.1	21.5	0.0	0.2	8.5	18.5	19.2
Upper secondary	0.0	0.0	0.3	13.4	22.8	0.0	0.0	0.1	13.9	23.4
JC/university	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	4.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	7.1
(No. of observations)	1,645	1,770	1,617	1,774	1,072	1,501	1,886	1,463	1,581	1,000

Note: Percentages are weighted and sample sizes are unweighted. JC denotes junior college. Results from the 2006 VHLSS are from World Bank (2006).

Table 2-3. Major Fields of Study in Tertiary Education

<i>2008</i>	<i>Male Distribution</i>	<i>Female Distribution</i>	<i>Total No. of Students</i>	<i>Percent Female</i>
General programs	3.5	3.7	58,946	50.2
Education	20.4	28.5	402,653	57.2
Humanities and arts	2.6	5.6	67,314	67.6
Social sciences, business, and law	26.1	40.8	550,714	59.8
Engineering, manufacturing, construction	29.2	10.6	332,884	25.6
Agriculture	7.2	5.7	107,712	43.1
Health and welfare	3.4	3.7	58,967	50.8
Services	7.6	1.4	75,656	15.1
Total	100.0	100.0	1,654,846	48.8

<i>2007</i>	<i>Male Distribution</i>	<i>Female Distribution</i>	<i>Total No. of Students</i>	<i>Percent Female</i>
General programs	3.9	3.6	59,134	47.1
Education	20.0	31.3	405,757	60.5
Humanities and arts	2.1	5.2	57,600	70.4
Social sciences, business, and law	27.6	40.7	540,903	59.0
Engineering, manufacturing, construction	35.6	11.1	373,658	23.4
Agriculture	7.7	5.3	103,473	40.4
Health and welfare	3.2	2.7	47,084	45.5
Services				
Total	100.0	100.0	1,587,609	49.3

Note: Data are from UNESCO (2010).

Table 2-4. Current School Enrollment among Children Aged 15-17 (Percent in school of any level)

	<i>Male</i>		<i>Female</i>		<i>All</i>		<i>Gender gap (%)</i>
	<i>% in school</i>	<i>(No.)</i>	<i>% in school</i>	<i>(No.)</i>	<i>% in school</i>	<i>(No.)</i>	
Total	69.8	1,478	77.5	1313	73.5	2,791	-7.7
Area							
Urban	80.7	326	88.8	292	84.6	618	-8.1
Rural	66.5	1,152	73.9	1,021	70.0	2,173	-7.4
Region							
Red River Delta	84.4	282	86.0	231	85.1	513	-1.6
North East	64.6	211	76.6	179	70.2	390	-12.0
North West	68.1	98	52.7	87	60.5	185	15.4
North Central Coast	76.4	192	85.9	153	80.7	345	-9.5
South Central Coast	70.9	150	86.3	119	77.7	269	-15.4
Central Highlands	65.3	125	76.4	110	70.5	235	-11.1
South East	65.6	178	83.3	182	74.7	360	-17.7
Mekong River Delta	54.0	242	61.0	252	57.5	494	-7.0
Ethnicity							
Kinh/Chinese	72.5	1,172	81.0	1,068	76.6	2,240	-8.6
Ethnic Minorities	55.3	306	56.2	245	55.7	551	-0.9
Tay/Thai/Muong/Nung	64.4	163	76.2	128	69.7	291	-11.8
Northern Mountain ethnic	53.1	67	29.1	56	41.4	123	24.0
Central ethnic	47.1	54	55.4	36	50.2	90	-8.3
Khmer/Cham	29.6	22	20.3	25	24.9	47	9.3
Expenditure quintiles							
1 st poorest	46.7	308	52.0	260	49.1	568	-5.3
2 nd	62.3	318	77.1	282	69.2	600	-14.8
3 rd	71.8	323	80.1	312	75.8	635	-8.3
4 th	80.8	295	84.7	254	82.7	549	-4.0
5 th wealthiest	88.3	234	92.3	205	90.2	439	-4.0
Mother's schooling*							
No schooling	40.0	146	41.3	103	40.6	249	-1.3
1-4 years	50.4	247	60.8	198	55.1	445	-10.4
5-8 years	65.8	348	75.3	352	70.7	700	-9.5
9-11 years	80.3	430	89.4	369	84.4	799	-9.1
12+ years	94.3	194	95.4	151	94.8	345	-1.1
Father's schooling*							
No schooling	40.5	83	35.7	45	38.8	128	4.8
1-4 years	45.4	182	56.5	160	50.6	342	-11.1
5-8 years	61.5	328	71.2	297	66.1	625	-9.7
9-11 years	80.3	480	87.0	405	83.4	885	-6.7
12+ years	95.9	214	95.8	191	95.9	405	0.1

Note: Percentages are weighted and sample sizes are unweighted. * denotes only for children with mothers and/or fathers in the household.

Table 2-5. Current School Enrollment among Children Aged 18-21 (Percent in school of any level)

	<i>Male</i>		<i>Female</i>		<i>All</i>		<i>Gender gap (%)</i>
	<i>% in school</i>	<i>(No.)</i>	<i>% in school</i>	<i>(No.)</i>	<i>% in school</i>	<i>(No.)</i>	
Total	43.0	1,745	46.9	1,516	44.8	3,261	-3.9
Area							
Urban	54.1	421	61.9	361	57.8	782	-7.8
Rural	39.2	1,324	41.5	1,155	40.3	2,479	-2.3
Region							
Red River Delta	56.9	308	55.1	281	56.0	589	1.9
North East	36.8	225	44.0	228	40.5	453	-7.2
North West	34.0	109	28.0	105	31.1	214	6.0
North Central Coast	56.1	181	58.4	167	57.2	348	-2.3
South Central Coast	55.9	160	58.2	144	57.0	304	-2.3
Central Highlands	33.4	166	58.5	100	42.6	266	-25.1
South East	37.5	244	50.3	205	43.5	449	-12.8
Mekong River Delta	29.2	352	24.8	286	27.2	638	4.4
Ethnicity							
Kinh/Chinese	45.9	1,428	49.8	1,213	47.7	2,641	-4.0
Ethnic Minorities	25.0	317	30.8	303	27.8	620	-5.8
Tay/Thai/Muong/Nung	34.4	164	39.0	187	36.9	351	-4.6
Northern Mountain ethnic	18.9	65	15.0	59	17.1	124	3.9
Central ethnic	17.8	63	27.6	34	21.3	97	-9.9
Khmer/Cham	6.2	25	7.3	23	6.8	48	-1.1
Expenditure quintiles							
1 st poorest	15.1	299	18.6	266	16.8	565	-3.5
2 nd	24.2	298	29.7	258	26.7	556	-5.5
3 rd	40.2	345	45.8	321	42.8	666	-5.6
4 th	51.5	409	55.3	362	53.3	771	-3.8
5 th wealthiest	67.6	394	70.7	309	69.1	703	-3.1
Mother's schooling*							
No schooling	9.9	148	8.8	109	9.4	257	1.1
1-4 years	21.3	317	28.7	230	24.3	547	-7.4
5-8 years	37.1	434	43.8	367	40.2	801	-6.8
9-11 years	54.8	496	64.2	404	59.1	900	-9.5
12+ years	77.8	222	76.8	172	77.3	394	1.0
Father's schooling*							
No schooling	9.2	63	8.3	50	8.9	113	0.9
1-4 years	12.4	223	23.8	165	17.1	388	-11.4
5-8 years	34.8	394	35.5	296	35.1	690	-0.7
9-11 years	52.5	502	59.1	445	55.6	947	-6.7
12+ years	75.2	296	79.2	230	77.0	526	-4.0

Note: Percentages are weighted and sample sizes are unweighted. * denotes only for children with mothers and/or fathers in the household.

Table 2-6. Attendance at Extra Classes Among Current Primary and Secondary School Students

	<i>Male</i>		<i>Female</i>		<i>All</i>		<i>Gender gap (%)</i>
	<i>% in school</i>	<i>(No.)</i>	<i>% in school</i>	<i>(No.)</i>	<i>% in school</i>	<i>(No.)</i>	
Total	46.0	4,021	46.9	3,882	46.5	7,903	-0.9
Current school level							
Primary	33.1	1,473	35.3	1,377	34.2	2,850	-2.2
Lower secondary	46.7	1,539	48.2	1,493	47.4	3,032	-1.5
Upper secondary	63.6	1,009	60.6	1,012	62.1	2,021	3.0
Area							
Urban	54.6	913	54.5	861	54.5	1,774	0.1
Rural	43.1	3,108	44.5	3,021	43.8	6,129	-1.4
Region							
Red River Delta	75.9	739	79.4	736	77.6	1,475	-3.5
North East	36.9	574	38.6	548	37.8	1,122	-1.7
North West	13.0	267	19.3	212	15.8	479	-6.3
North Central Coast	59.4	532	56.1	492	57.8	1,024	3.3
South Central Coast	53.7	424	51.1	395	52.5	819	2.6
Central Highlands	32.8	374	32.5	365	32.7	739	0.3
South East	33.1	487	32.8	495	33.0	982	0.3
Mekong River Delta	22.0	624	25.8	639	24.0	1,263	-3.8
Ethnicity							
Kinh/Chinese	51.6	3,236	53.1	3,134	52.3	6,370	-1.5
Ethnic Minorities	12.5	785	10.9	748	11.7	1,533	1.6
Tay/Thai/Muong/Nung	15.7	413	16.6	388	16.1	801	-0.9
Northern Mountain ethnic	8.9	195	4.0	147	6.7	342	4.9
Central ethnic	9.0	146	7.3	168	8.1	314	1.7
Khmer/Cham	7.6	31	0.0	45	3.1	76	7.6
Expenditure quintiles							
1 st poorest	26.3	834	26.6	875	26.5	1,709	-0.3
2 nd	41.6	899	43.7	922	42.7	1,821	-2.1
3 rd	50.0	823	50.9	825	50.4	1,648	-0.9
4 th	50.5	817	56.5	677	53.3	1,494	-6.1
5 th wealthiest	61.0	648	60.3	583	60.6	1,231	0.7
Mother's schooling*							
No schooling	8.8	328	5.4	299	7.1	627	3.4
1-4 years	26.0	478	28.1	464	27.1	942	-2.1
5-8 years	41.2	1,056	43.1	1,060	42.2	2,116	-1.9
9-11 years	58.2	1,094	60.0	1,034	59.1	2,128	-1.8
12+ years	68.5	519	66.1	480	67.3	999	2.4
Father's schooling*							
No schooling	6.9	168	9.4	151	8.2	319	-2.5
1-4 years	16.7	422	27.4	381	21.9	803	-10.7
5-8 years	37.4	921	38.2	921	37.8	1,842	-0.8

9-11 years	59.3	1,181	58.9	1,133	59.1	2,314	0.4
12+ years	59.6	645	59.0	608	59.3	1,253	0.6

Note: Percentages are weighted and sample sizes are unweighted. * denotes only for children with mothers and/or fathers in the household.

Table 2-7. Average Expenditures on Extra Classes for Past 12 Months

	<i>Male</i>		<i>Female</i>		<i>All</i>		<i>Gender gap (VND)</i>
	<i>VND</i>	<i>(No.)</i>	<i>VND</i>	<i>(No.)</i>	<i>VND</i>	<i>(No.)</i>	
Total	549.32	1,698	548.30	1,680	548.81	3,378	1.03
Current school level							
Primary	434.20	433	399.86	421	416.95	854	34.34
Lower secondary	465.46	660	492.45	668	479.11	1328	-27.00
Upper secondary	727.29	605	728.05	591	727.66	1196	-0.76
Area							
Urban	1,096.74	490	1,158.57	465	1,126.92	955	-61.83
Rural	315.47	1,208	305.09	1215	310.22	2,423	10.38
Expenditure quintiles							
1 st poorest	167.81	174	175.01	188	171.64	362	-7.21
2 nd	235.61	340	222.43	371	228.75	711	13.18
3 rd	318.33	393	338.63	400	328.39	793	-20.29
4 th	523.44	410	482.86	371	503.39	781	40.58
5 th wealthiest	1,223.33	381	1,351.31	350	1,284.58	731	-127.98

Note: Averages are weighted and sample sizes are unweighted. All expenditures are in thousands of VND and are calculated only among students who attended extra classes, excluding zero values.

Table 3-1. Employment Rates in Past 12 Months (% worked)

2008 VHLSS <i>Ages</i>	All Areas		Urban		Rural	
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
6-10	1.4	1.5	0.2	0.0	1.8	1.9
11-14	12.4	11.3	5.2	5.1	14.7	13.2
15-17	37.3	29.6	20.6	11.6	42.4	35.3
18-24	64.8	59.3	53.3	45.7	68.8	65.0
25-34	95.5	91.1	93.9	87.5	96.1	92.7
35-44	97.3	94.0	94.5	86.0	98.5	97.3
45-54	95.0	88.8	91.0	79.0	96.9	93.1
55-64	80.7	67.8	62.5	47.0	88.8	77.1
65+	41.3	30.4	22.8	18.4	48.5	34.5
All Ages 6+	66.1	61.2	60.5	54.5	68.2	63.8
No. of observations	17,202	17,952	4,291	4,562	12,911	13,390
Ages 15-64 only	81.5	77.1	75.5	67.3	83.9	81.2
Ages 25-64 only	93.8	87.8	88.5	78.4	96.0	91.9

2006 VHLSS <i>Ages</i>	All Areas		Urban		Rural	
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
6-10	1.5	1.1	0.3	0.0	1.8	1.4
11-14	11.6	11.0	3.3	3.7	14.0	13.0
15-17	33.2	28.6	14.6	14.4	38.4	33.0
18-24	68.1	65.7	55.9	52.0	72.3	71.0
25-34	95.9	92.3	93.5	86.2	96.9	94.6
35-44	97.8	94.0	95.8	88.8	98.6	96.0
45-54	95.0	90.8	91.4	84.8	96.7	93.5
55-64	80.9	68.4	67.3	47.5	86.8	79.1
65+	44.3	30.6	28.0	17.8	50.7	35.0
All Ages 6+	64.8	61.0	60.7	55.4	66.3	63.1
No. of observations	17,664	18,511	4,311	4,551	13,353	13,960
Ages 15-64 only	81.3	78.2	76.0	69.3	83.3	81.8
Ages 25-64 only	94.3	88.9	90.0	80.2	96.1	92.6

Note: Percentages are weighted; sample sizes are unweighted totals. The employment rate is the number of people employed at some point during the past 12 months relative to the age-group population; the rate does not include the unemployed. Rates for 2006 are from Lee (2008).

Table 3-2. Number of Weeks Worked on Income-Generating Activities Per Year

ALL AREAS	Male		Female	
<i>Ages</i>	<i>% Did not work</i>	<i>Mean weeks worked</i>	<i>% Did not work</i>	<i>Mean weeks worked</i>
6-10	98.6	13.1	98.5	11.5
11-14	87.6	14.9	88.8	17.3
15-17	62.7	24.1	70.4	23.3
18-24	35.2	36.6	40.7	35.8
25-34	4.6	43.5	8.9	40.8
35-44	2.7	42.6	6.0	40.8
45-54	5.0	40.6	11.2	38.7
55-64	19.3	33.5	32.2	31.7
65+	58.7	23.4	69.6	23.6
Total	33.9	38.4	38.8	37.0
No. observations	17,202	11,453	17,952	11,127

URBAN AREAS	Male		Female	
<i>Ages</i>	<i>% Did not work</i>	<i>Mean weeks worked</i>	<i>% Did not work</i>	<i>Mean weeks worked</i>
6-10	99.8	3.8	100.0	0.0
11-14	94.8	19.6	94.9	42.8
15-17	79.4	26.2	88.4	31.6
18-24	46.7	43.7	54.3	41.1
25-34	6.1	50.4	12.5	47.1
35-44	5.6	49.1	14.0	49.5
45-54	9.0	48.6	21.0	49.3
55-64	37.5	42.3	53.0	42.1
65+	77.2	32.0	81.7	34.4
Total	39.6	46.8	45.5	46.5
No. observations	4,291	2,600	4,562	2,516

RURAL AREAS	Male		Female	
<i>Ages</i>	<i>% Did not work</i>	<i>Mean weeks worked</i>	<i>% Did not work</i>	<i>Mean weeks worked</i>
6-10	98.2	13.5	98.1	11.5
11-14	85.3	14.4	86.8	14.1
15-17	57.6	23.8	64.7	22.5
18-24	31.2	34.7	35.0	34.2
25-34	3.9	40.8	7.3	38.1
35-44	1.5	40.1	2.7	37.6
45-54	3.1	37.1	6.9	34.7
55-64	11.2	30.8	22.9	28.8
65+	51.5	21.8	65.5	21.7
Total	31.8	35.6	36.2	33.8
No. observations	12,911	8,853	13,390	8,611

Note: Mean weeks and percentages are weighted; sample sizes are unweighted totals. The number of weeks is only among those who did any work, excluding zero values. Data on weeks worked cover the two main jobs worked.

Table 3-3. Average Number of Hours Spent on Housework (per day)

ALL AREAS		Male		Female	
<i>Ages</i>	<i>% Did no housework</i>	<i>Mean hrs worked</i>	<i>% Did no housework</i>	<i>Mean hrs worked</i>	
6-10	84.5	1.3	80.3	1.4	
11-14	58.0	1.3	40.9	1.5	
15-17	45.7	1.3	25.9	1.6	
18-24	51.8	1.4	27.2	2.0	
25-34	40.1	1.5	9.3	2.4	
35-44	30.7	1.6	4.3	2.4	
45-54	28.1	1.6	4.5	2.5	
55-64	26.4	1.7	5.6	2.5	
65+	42.8	1.7	32.9	2.3	
Total	43.6	1.5	21.3	2.2	
No. observations	17,202	9,781	17,952	14,134	

URBAN AREAS		Male		Female	
<i>Ages</i>	<i>% Did no housework</i>	<i>Mean hrs worked</i>	<i>% Did no housework</i>	<i>Mean hrs worked</i>	
6-10	91.7	1.0	82.6	1.3	
11-14	67.1	1.3	48.2	1.5	
15-17	57.6	1.3	24.2	1.7	
18-24	55.5	1.3	25.8	2.1	
25-34	46.1	1.4	8.8	2.6	
35-44	40.0	1.6	6.4	2.7	
45-54	33.7	1.6	6.1	2.9	
55-64	31.0	1.9	7.6	3.0	
65+	45.8	1.9	31.8	2.5	
Total	49.2	1.6	20.2	2.5	
No. observations	4,291	2,162	4,562	3,617	

RURAL AREAS		Male		Female	
<i>Ages</i>	<i>% Did no housework</i>	<i>Mean hrs worked</i>	<i>% Did no housework</i>	<i>Mean hrs worked</i>	
6-10	81.9	1.3	79.7	1.4	
11-14	55.1	1.3	38.6	1.5	
15-17	42.0	1.4	26.4	1.6	
18-24	50.5	1.4	27.8	1.9	
25-34	37.7	1.5	9.5	2.4	
35-44	27.1	1.5	3.5	2.3	
45-54	25.6	1.6	3.7	2.3	
55-64	24.4	1.7	4.6	2.3	
65+	41.6	1.7	33.2	2.2	
Total	41.5	1.5	21.7	2.1	
No. observations	12,911	7,619	13,390	10,517	

Note: Mean hours and percentages are weighted; sample sizes are unweighted totals. Mean hours on housework is only among those who did any housework, excluding zero values.

Table 3-4. Types of Employment for All Jobs of Past 12 Months among Men and Women (Ages 18-64; %).

2008 VHLSS	All Areas		Urban		Rural	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Wage-employment only	28.8	21.7	55.2	44.5	19.2	13.4
Self-employment only	44.9	63.4	35.7	47.9	48.2	69.0
Both	26.3	15.0	9.1	7.6	32.6	17.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
No. of observations	10,104	9,925	2,439	2,385	7,665	7,540

2006 VHLSS	All Areas		Urban		Rural	
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
Wage-employment only	27.2	20.0	54.1	42.4	17.4	12.2
Self-employment only	45.3	64.7	36.0	49.8	48.7	69.9
Both	27.5	15.3	9.9	7.8	34.0	17.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.1	100.0
No. of observations	10,212	10,146	2,381	2,384	7,831	7,762

Note: Percentages are weighted; sample sizes are unweighted totals .

Table 3-5. Types of Employment for Main Job Held in Past 12 Months among Men and Women (Age 18-64; %)

	Men				Women			
	<i>Wage employment</i>	<i>Agricultural self-emp</i>	<i>Non-agricultural self-emp</i>	<i>No. Observations</i>	<i>Wage employment</i>	<i>Agricultural self-emp</i>	<i>Non-agricultural self-emp</i>	<i>No. Observations</i>
TOTAL	43.3	40.6	16.1	10,104	29.0	47.9	23.1	9,925
Area								
Urban	61.2	11.3	27.5	2,439	49.6	10.8	39.6	2,385
Rural	36.8	51.3	11.9	7,665	21.6	61.2	17.2	7,540
Region								
Red River Delta	54.6	25.7	19.7	1,897	32.8	43.6	23.7	2,011
North East	32.5	56.3	11.2	1,512	19.3	70.0	10.7	1,545
North West	17.6	73.2	9.2	587	11.3	82.5	6.2	591
North Central Coast	31.1	56.5	12.5	959	14.0	70.1	15.9	1,018
South Central Coast	47.7	35.3	17.0	888	31.2	41.8	27.0	887
Central Highlands	25.7	65.3	9.0	710	16.4	65.0	18.6	646
South East	58.7	20.0	21.3	1,349	47.0	17.9	35.1	1,251
Mekong River Delta	39.7	44.5	15.8	2,202	30.8	41.6	27.7	1,976
Ethnicity								
Kinh/Chinese	47.1	34.7	18.2	8,278	31.9	41.9	26.2	8,116
Ethnic minorities	18.9	78.3	2.8	1,826	10.2	86.1	3.8	1,809
Tay/Thai/Muong/ Nung	17.3	79.1	3.6	995	9.9	87.0	3.1	1,027
N. Mountain ethnic	8.0	91.4	0.6	374	1.6	97.8	0.6	374
Central ethnic	19.0	80.7	0.3	294	9.0	89.8	1.2	267
Khmer/Cham	43.1	50.7	6.2	163	28.9	53.7	17.4	141

Table 3-5. Types of Employment for Main Job Held in Past 12 Months among Men and Women (Age 18-64; %) (continued)

URBAN AREAS	Men				Women			
	<i>Wage employment</i>	<i>Agricultural self-emp</i>	<i>Non-agricultural self-emp</i>	<i>No. Observations</i>	<i>Wage employment</i>	<i>Agricultural self-emp</i>	<i>Non-agricultural self-emp</i>	<i>No. Observations</i>
Age								
18-24	73.9	12.7	13.4	356	66.9	8.7	24.3	273
25-34	69.9	7.1	23.0	575	66.1	5.9	28.1	605
35-44	59.4	8.9	31.7	656	44.6	10.4	45.0	674
45-54	53.8	12.5	33.8	628	39.7	12.8	47.6	626
55-64	44.4	23.7	31.9	224	17.8	25.6	56.6	207
Marital Status								
Married	56.0	12.3	31.8	1,842	45.3	12.5	42.2	1,750
Widowed	61.0	27.9	11.1	13	27.5	14.4	58.1	118
Divorced/separated	80.7	4.2	15.1	40	58.6	4.8	36.7	93
Unmarried	77.2	8.0	14.8	544	69.1	5.0	26.0	424
Education								
No schooling	67.4	25.5	7.1	42	35.0	21.7	43.3	65
Less than primary	59.9	20.0	20.2	156	35.5	24.9	39.7	202
Primary	49.3	18.5	32.2	502	32.8	14.1	53.1	512
Lower secondary	50.8	15.2	34.0	654	34.1	15.6	50.3	595
Upper secondary	59.3	6.2	34.5	660	56.5	5.1	38.4	643
Junior college/university	91.5	1.1	7.4	425	91.0	0.7	8.4	368

Table 3-5. Types of Employment for Main Job Held in Past 12 Months among Men and Women (Age 18-64; %) (continued)

RURAL AREAS	Men				Women			
	<i>Wage employment</i>	<i>Agricultural self-emp</i>	<i>Non- agricultural self-emp</i>	<i>No. Observations</i>	<i>Wage employment</i>	<i>Agricultural self-emp</i>	<i>Non- agricultural self-emp</i>	<i>No. Observations</i>
Age								
18-24	46.7	47.3	6.0	1,477	38.4	51.1	10.5	1,198
25-34	45.1	42.2	12.7	1,767	30.6	53.2	16.2	1,693
35-44	36.5	48.4	15.1	2,009	17.6	60.6	21.8	2,044
45-54	29.5	57.1	13.5	1,621	14.1	68.1	17.8	1,815
55-64	16.9	73.0	10.1	791	6.0	77.9	16.0	790
Marital Status								
Married	32.6	54.0	13.4	5,902	17.9	64.3	17.8	5,886
Widowed	19.7	74.4	6.0	53	13.0	70.2	16.8	435
Divorced/separated	45.3	48.4	6.3	49	19.4	54.2	26.4	160
Unmarried	51.7	41.0	7.2	1,661	45.5	41.8	12.7	1,059
Education								
No schooling	29.1	67.3	3.7	438	17.2	74.1	8.7	743
Less than primary	29.9	61.2	8.9	1,033	16.3	65.5	18.3	1,266
Primary	32.4	56.5	11.2	2,187	15.6	65.0	19.5	2,178
Lower secondary	34.0	51.6	14.4	2,549	16.8	64.9	18.4	2,305
Upper secondary	48.5	37.2	14.3	1,235	43.2	40.8	16.0	846
Junior college/university	83.5	11.3	5.2	223	87.2	8.2	4.6	202

Note: Percentages are weighted; sample sizes are unweighted totals.

Table 3-6. Type of Industry for Main Job among Men and Women (age 18-64; %)

	Urban		Rural	
	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>
All Adults 18-64				
Primary	14.5	12.5	57.7	65.4
Agriculture/forestry	11.7	11.8	52.6	63.6
Aquaculture	2.8	0.7	5.1	1.7
Secondary	31.5	22.7	23.6	14.4
Mining	1.2	0.4	1.0	0.2
Food/beverage manufacturing	3.0	3.1	2.2	3.1
Textiles/garments production	3.6	10.6	1.3	5.4
Wood/paper manufacturing	1.9	1.9	1.7	2.3
Other production/processing	9.2	4.1	5.9	2.1
Construction/utilities	12.7	2.6	11.5	1.2
Tertiary				
Trades	15.2	24.5	5.8	10.4
Vehicle sales/repairs	2.4	0.4	0.8	0.1
Wholesale & agent sales	4.8	3.5	1.4	1.2
Retail sales	8.0	20.6	3.6	9.1
Services	38.9	40.3	12.8	9.9
Hotels/restaurants	4.5	12.4	1.1	3.0
Transportation & communications	12.4	2.6	3.9	0.5
Business & financial services	12.1	7.8	4.0	1.1
Education, health & cultural services	6.4	13.3	2.5	4.2
Sanitation & personal services	3.4	4.2	1.4	1.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
(Sample N)	(2439)	(2385)	(7665)	(7540)

(continued)

Table 3-6. Types of Industry for Main Job among Men and Women (age 18-64; %) (continued)

	Urban		Rural	
	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>
Adults in Wage Employment				
Primary	8.6	6.0	39.9	41.3
Agriculture/forestry	6.2	5.8	36.8	40.0
Aquaculture	2.4	0.2	3.1	1.3
Secondary	40.8	31.8	38.8	33.3
Mining	1.6	0.6	1.8	0.6
Food/beverage manufacturing	3.1	4.1	2.4	5.3
Textiles/garments production	4.3	13.1	2.1	14.8
Wood/paper manufacturing	1.9	2.5	2.4	3.9
Other production/processing	11.1	7.0	8.4	5.4
Construction/utilities	18.9	4.5	21.6	3.4
Tertiary Trades	9.1	11.3	3.4	3.6
Vehicle sales/repairs	1.5	0.4	0.8	0.2
Wholesale & agent sales	4.3	3.0	0.8	0.7
Retail sales	3.4	7.9	1.8	2.7
Tertiary Services	41.4	50.9	17.9	21.8
Hotels/restaurants	2.3	6.3	0.7	1.8
Transportation & communications	10.4	3.6	3.8	1.1
Business & financial services	17.8	13.6	7.5	3.3
Education, health & cultural services	8.8	23.5	4.4	13.1
Sanitation & personal services	2.1	3.9	1.5	2.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
(Sample N)	(1565)	(1217)	(3847)	(2241)

(continued)

Table 3-6. Types of Industry for Main Job among Men and Women (age 18-64; %) (continued)

	Urban		Rural	
	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>
Adults in Nonagricultural Self-Employment				
Primary	4.4	2.6	27.6	25.5
Agriculture/forestry	4.1	2.5	26.3	25.3
Aquaculture	0.3	0.1	1.3	0.1
Secondary	19.0	16.4	24.2	19.3
Mining	0.5	0.2	0.7	0.2
Food/beverage manufacturing	3.6	3.0	6.6	6.9
Textiles/garments production	2.7	9.3	1.4	4.5
Wood/paper manufacturing	2.2	1.5	3.2	5.2
Other production/processing	7.1	1.7	9.2	1.8
Construction/utilities	2.9	0.7	3.1	0.8
Tertiary Trades	31.6	45.1	24.3	40.1
Vehicle sales/repairs	5.0	0.4	2.6	0.2
Wholesale & agent sales	7.3	4.8	5.9	4.2
Retail sales	19.3	39.9	15.8	35.8
Tertiary Services	45.1	35.9	23.9	15.1
Hotels/restaurants	10.4	22.0	4.2	10.6
Transportation & communications	20.0	1.9	11.4	0.7
Business & financial services	3.9	2.7	1.9	0.7
Education, health & cultural services	3.4	4.0	2.3	1.2
Sanitation & personal services	7.3	5.3	4.1	1.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
(Sample N)	(730)	(1027)	(1356)	(1792)

Note: Percentages are weighted; sample sizes are unweighted totals.

Table 3-7. Characteristics of Male-Operated and Female-Operated Nonagricultural Household Businesses

	Urban Areas			Rural Areas		
	<i>Male-operated</i>	<i>Female-operated</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Male-operated</i>	<i>Female-operated</i>	<i>Total</i>
(No. of businesses)	572	861	1,433	1,116	1,453	2,569
% with business license	40.9	32.8	36.1	22.6	18.8	20.5
Number of laborers (%)						
1 only	54.3	68.9	63.0	57.9	74.9	67.5
2-3	34.1	25.0	28.7	33.9	23.1	27.8
4-5	5.4	3.1	4.0	4.3	1.4	2.7
6-10	3.3	1.7	2.3	2.7	0.4	1.4
11-36	2.9	1.3	2.0	1.2	0.2	0.7
Average number of laborers	2.4	1.7	2.0	1.9	1.4	1.6
% with paid laborer	25.3	12.0	17.4	15.0	3.9	8.8
Place of business activities (%)						
Home	51.0	51.7	51.4	58.2	57.7	57.9
Industrial zone/trade center	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.3
Markets	8.6	23.2	17.3	6.9	24.0	16.6
Other shops/permanent places	22.3	16.0	18.5	13.6	8.6	10.8
Non-permanent place	17.5	8.7	12.2	21.1	9.4	14.5
Average number of months in operation	11.2	11.4	11.3	9.7	10.1	9.9
Monthly revenue (VND in thousands)						
Mean	14,728	6,923	10,083	8,722	2,627	5,301
Median	3,904	2,415	3,000	2,249	1,306	1,625

Note: Sample sizes indicate unweighted totals of nonagricultural businesses operated at the household level. Since some households have more than one business activity, the sample size indicates the total number of household businesses, not the number of individuals. Percentages and means are all weighted.

Table 3-8. Categories of Occupations for Main Job among Men and Women (Age 18-64; %)

	Urban		Rural	
	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>
Total				
Administrative/managerial	3.5	1.1	2.1	0.4
Professional-science/health/technical	14.2	12.8	2.1	1.6
Professional - education related	3.5	7.9	1.3	2.9
Other professional/armed forces	4.0	3.3	1.2	0.7
Services - skilled	5.2	4.3	1.5	0.8
Sales - skilled	2.6	5.4	1.4	3.0
Agriculture/forestry/fishery	14.0	12.3	56.8	65.0
Skilled manual workers	29.1	15.0	19.2	8.6
Unskilled manual workers	24.0	37.8	14.5	17.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
(Sample N)	2,439	2,385	7,665	7,540
Wage Employment Only				
Administrative/managerial	4.7	1.2	4.0	1.4
Professional-science/health/technical	21.1	23.1	3.9	5.0
Professional - education related	5.2	14.9	2.6	9.3
Other professional/armed forces	5.9	6.2	2.3	2.3
Services - skilled	5.4	2.2	2.5	1.3
Sales - skilled	1.2	2.7	0.5	1.4
Agriculture/forestry/fishery	8.0	5.8	38.4	40.6
Skilled manual workers	30.8	19.2	28.2	19.5
Unskilled manual workers	17.7	24.9	17.6	19.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
(Sample N)	1,565	1,217	3,847	2,241
Nonagricultural Self-Employment Only				
Administrative/managerial	2.0	1.2	0.8	0.4
Professional-science/health/technical	4.2	2.3	0.9	0.2
Professional - education related	1.1	1.7	0.7	0.7
Other professional/armed forces	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.2
Services - skilled	6.5	7.5	1.7	1.8
Sales - skilled	5.9	9.8	6.3	11.3
Agriculture/forestry/fishery	4.2	2.6	27.7	25.8
Skilled manual workers	32.6	12.5	28.4	12.1
Unskilled manual workers	42.7	61.7	32.8	47.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
(Sample N)	730	1,027	1,356	1,792

Note: Percentages are weighted; sample sizes are unweighted totals.

Table 3-9. Mean Hourly Wages of the Main Job in Wage Employment (VND in thousands)

	Urban Areas				Rural Areas			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	Wage	Emp %	Wage	Emp %	Wage	Emp %	Wage	Emp %
All ages 6+	11.323		9.653		8.118		7.343	
No. of observations	(1527)		(1182)		(2837)		(1638)	
All ages 15+	11.343		9.682		8.148		7.380	
No. of observations	(1523)		(1175)		(2804)		(1620)	
Adults ages 18-64	11.479		9.806		8.300		7.553	
No. of observations	(1477)		(1147)		(2643)		(1514)	
Sector of employment (all ages 15+)								
Government	16.314	27.0	14.243	33.0	10.775	16.4	13.161	20.7
State owned enterprises (SOE)	12.747	13.7	9.879	12.6	8.667	7.9	8.507	8.6
Private enterprises	8.131	53.6	6.234	43.3	7.409	72.5	5.302	60.2
Foreign invested enterprises (FDI)	14.601	5.8	9.361	11.1	10.105	3.3	6.980	10.6
Occupation (all ages 15+)								
Administrative/managerial	13.619	5.0	27.962	1.2	7.677	5.3	8.729	1.9
Science/technology/medical professional	19.152	21.5	15.033	23.7	12.597	5.3	11.217	6.6
Education professionals	15.476	5.3	13.516	15.3	17.115	3.4	15.644	12.6
Other professionals	12.228	6.1	9.553	6.4	10.528	3.2	7.528	3.1
Services	6.588	5.9	6.140	2.3	7.033	3.3	5.951	1.6
Sales	12.508	1.3	10.619	2.6	8.085	0.8	5.462	1.4
Agriculture/forestry/fishery	6.985	4.7	5.103	3.3	7.177	16.3	5.822	19.2
Skilled manual workers	9.265	31.5	5.908	19.8	7.987	38.0	5.589	27.5
Unskilled workers (excluding agriculture)	6.329	18.8	5.279	25.4	6.767	24.4	5.533	26.2
Industry (all ages 15+)								
Primary	7.306	5.3	5.211	3.4	7.156	18.2	6.167	19.7
Non-Primary Total	11.570	94.7	9.840	96.6	8.370	81.8	7.677	80.3
Secondary	10.367	42.7	6.789	33.6	7.688	53.7	5.637	47.0
Manufacturing	10.784	21.1	6.228	28.4	7.581	21.1	5.491	41.8

Tertiary trades	13.563	9.3	10.627	10.9	8.207	4.1	8.307	3.7
Trade services	12.337	42.7	11.647	52.0	9.921	24.0	10.831	29.6
Education completed (all ages 15+)								
No schooling	5.955	1.8	4.091	2.0	6.863	4.0	5.422	6.5
Less than primary	5.847	6.4	4.701	6.0	6.525	10.5	5.236	12.7
Primary	6.747	16.7	5.278	14.0	7.583	25.8	5.169	21.5
Lower secondary	7.844	22.2	6.374	17.3	7.239	31.8	6.245	25.9
Upper secondary	11.489	25.7	8.293	30.9	8.945	21.0	9.088	22.5
Junior college/university	18.515	27.3	16.439	29.9	15.290	6.9	14.563	10.9

Note: Mean wages and percentages are weighted; sample sizes are unweighted totals.

Table 3-10. Female to Male Wage Ratios in the Main Job in Wage Employment (in %)

	Urban <i>F/M wage ratio</i>	Rural <i>F/M wage ratio</i>
All ages 6+	85.2	90.5
All ages 15+	85.4	90.6
Adults ages 18-64	85.4	91.0
Sector of employment (all ages 15+)		
Government	87.3	122.1
State owned enterprises (SOE)	77.5	98.2
Private enterprises	76.7	71.6
Foreign invested enterprises (FDI)	64.1	69.1
Occupation (all ages 15+)		
Administrative/managerial	205.3	113.7
Science/technology/medical professional	78.5	89.0
Education professionals	87.3	91.4
Other professionals	78.1	71.5
Services	93.2	84.6
Sales	84.9	67.6
Agriculture/forestry/fishery	73.1	81.1
Skilled manual workers	63.8	70.0
Unskilled workers (excluding agriculture)	83.4	81.8
Industry (all ages 15+)		
Primary	71.3	86.2
Non-Primary Total	85.0	91.7
Secondary	65.5	73.3
Manufacturing	57.8	72.4
Tertiary trades	78.4	101.2
Trade services	94.4	109.2
Education completed (all ages 15+)		
No schooling	68.7	79.0
Less than primary	80.4	80.2
Primary	78.2	68.2
Lower secondary	81.3	86.3
Upper secondary	72.2	101.6
Junior college/university	88.8	95.2

Note: Percentages are weighted. Sample sizes and underlying wage data are found in previous table.

Table 4-1. Gender and Health Status (in %)

	All Respondents				Respondents ill in past 12 months			
	<i>% Ill in past 4 weeks</i>		<i>% Ill in past 12 months</i>		<i>% Absent from school/work due to illness</i>		<i>% Bedridden and needed assistance</i>	
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
(No. of observations)	18810	19443	18810	19443	9081	10587	9081	10587
Total	14.9	17.5	49.3	55.3	18.2	19.0	8.4	8.8
Age								
0-4	29.0	24.4	65.8	62.1	19.0	19.0	14.0	10.5
5-9	17.9	16.0	58.9	54.8	16.6	17.4	7.4	6.2
10-14	12.9	10.2	49.5	45.8	15.5	13.4	5.2	4.2
15-19	8.2	9.3	38.9	42.7	12.0	10.7	5.2	4.7
20-29	7.1	9.0	34.0	44.0	13.0	12.2	5.4	5.7
30-39	11.3	14.6	43.0	52.3	16.6	17.5	5.9	6.1
40-49	14.0	18.0	49.8	58.9	16.8	18.5	5.7	5.9
50-59	17.5	24.3	55.8	64.2	21.6	23.0	7.7	10.3
60+	31.8	34.1	73.0	74.6	30.0	29.7	18.2	19.2
Area								
Urban	14.9	17.4	53.9	59.9	12.8	12.9	7.1	6.7
Rural	15.0	17.5	47.6	53.5	20.6	21.6	9.0	9.7
Region								
Red River Delta	11.1	13.3	41.8	48.6	17.7	18.6	9.0	8.5
North East	13.8	15.1	41.3	47.1	23.1	22.8	10.4	9.3
North West	12.4	16.1	37.1	42.4	24.9	29.1	12.5	15.4
North Central Coast	12.4	15.0	41.9	47.1	23.5	24.3	10.9	11.4
South Central Coast	13.3	15.2	44.0	49.8	18.7	17.6	9.8	8.2
Central Highlands	16.3	20.2	53.9	60.4	21.9	26.1	10.5	12.5
South East	17.1	19.6	60.2	65.7	12.8	11.9	6.0	6.5
Mekong River Delta	20.1	23.5	60.4	66.2	17.2	18.8	6.7	8.1
Ethnicity								
Kinh/Chinese	15.0	17.9	50.8	56.7	17.1	18.3	8.1	8.5
Ethnic minorities	14.3	15.1	39.9	45.6	28.0	24.7	11.2	10.9
Tay/Thai/Muong/Nung	14.4	14.4	36.9	41.5	31.0	26.3	12.7	10.9
N. Mountain ethnic	10.2	13.2	37.1	43.4	21.7	24.6	8.2	9.8
Central ethnic	15.6	16.6	46.5	52.8	27.9	23.9	11.4	13.5
Khmer/Cham	18.7	19.3	47.3	55.5	24.5	20.5	9.2	7.5
Expenditure quintiles								
1 st poorest	15.5	16.1	42.3	46.9	23.1	23.0	10.4	10.1
2 nd	15.0	16.6	46.1	51.8	21.1	21.0	9.0	9.5
3 rd	13.9	17.3	51.6	58.1	16.5	17.5	7.0	7.8
4 th	15.2	19.2	50.2	57.2	18.1	21.0	8.4	9.4
5 th wealthiest	15.1	18.0	54.5	60.7	15.0	14.5	8.1	7.8

Schooling completed (age 15-49)

No schooling	15.9	17.8	43.7	50.3	23.1	20.9	11.8	8.7
Less than primary	16.9	19.1	50.9	59.7	20.2	18.5	7.6	5.4
Primary	11.5	15.3	44.1	52.4	16.2	18.2	5.0	6.4
Lower secondary	9.4	12.2	40.4	49.3	14.4	15.6	5.6	5.7
Upper secondary	7.1	8.8	35.7	44.0	12.0	10.4	4.7	5.1
JC/university	7.0	8.2	40.3	49.2	6.3	7.3	3.5	2.8
Total	10.0	13.0	41.2	49.9	14.8	15.4	5.6	5.7

Note: Percentages are weighted; sample sizes are unweighted totals.

Table 4-2. Access to Health Care among People Reporting Illness in Past 12 Months (in %)

	<i>Total</i>		<i>Urban</i>		<i>Rural</i>	
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
(No. of observations)	9,081	10,587	2,424	2,832	6,657	7,755
Total	61.0	65.4	53.3	59.4	64.3	68.0
Age						
0-4	75.1	72.2	72.4	74.0	76.3	71.5
5-9	61.5	63.7	52.7	55.1	65.5	66.5
10-14	52.0	50.6	46.4	41.5	54.1	54.1
15-19	46.6	47.3	35.1	44.2	50.5	48.5
20-29	47.0	57.0	35.4	46.7	52.1	62.6
30-39	57.4	64.2	47.2	54.0	61.6	68.7
40-49	57.5	65.6	49.1	57.9	61.4	69.1
50-59	69.3	74.2	62.7	69.5	72.5	76.4
60+	80.0	79.1	74.9	79.1	82.0	79.1
Ethnicity						
Kinh/Chinese	60.6	65.2	53.1	59.2	64.3	68.1
Ethnic Minorities	64.5	67.7	66.8	68.6	64.3	67.6
Tay/Thai/Muong/Nung	61.8	65.8	51.6	61.5	62.5	66.1
Northern Mountain ethnic	56.6	57.1	100.0	100.0	55.8	56.4
Central ethnic	75.3	80.4	86.7	74.6	74.7	80.8
Khmer/Cham	65.2	66.0	72.8	72.6	63.7	64.8
Expenditure quintiles						
1st lowest	66.0	65.5	61.2	64.8	66.4	65.6
2nd	62.7	68.7	55.3	61.6	64.0	69.9
3rd	60.2	64.9	50.1	55.5	63.0	67.7
4th	59.3	66.2	51.2	58.3	63.4	70.3
5th highest	59.1	62.7	54.7	60.6	65.2	65.9
Type of Health Insurance						
None	53.4	59.5	41.8	52.9	57.9	62.2
HI for children under 6	75.5	73.3	71.5	73.4	77.5	73.2
HI for the poor	64.4	70.9	61.5	68.2	64.9	71.3
HI for policy beneficiaries	76.7	80.0	87.5	84.1	74.6	79.2
Required state HI	66.2	69.8	59.8	65.6	74.1	77.3
Required non-state HI	49.3	60.2	49.1	55.2	49.6	66.9
Student HI	52.7	53.5	44.8	45.2	57.4	58.5
Other Voluntary HI	78.1	82.2	76.1	77.1	78.9	84.7
Health card	69.3	77.4	70.1	79.5	69.2	77.1

Note: Percentages are weighted and sample sizes are unweighted. Figures represent the proportion of all those who were sick in past 12 months who visited any health care worker or center.

Table 4-3. Types of Health Care Services Utilized in Past 12 Months (in %)

Urban areas			
<i>Type of health service</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
Village health center	0.3	0.3	0.2
Commune health center	7.2	7.1	7.4
Regional health clinics	3.0	2.5	3.4
District hospital	20.7	19.9	21.3
Provincial hospital	25.8	28.3	23.8
Central hospital	8.5	8.9	8.1
Other state-owned hospital	2.6	3.2	2.1
Private hospital	3.3	2.5	3.9
Other hospital	0.3	0.5	0.3
Private clinic	21.1	19.8	22.0
Traditional practitioner	0.8	0.6	0.9
Private health services	5.4	5.3	5.5
Other facilities	1.0	1.1	1.0
(No. of observations)	3,288	1,408	1,880

Rural areas			
<i>Type of health service</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
Village health center	1.1	1.0	1.2
Commune health center	29.1	27.2	30.6
Regional health clinics	3.6	3.6	3.5
District hospital	21.8	22.5	21.3
Provincial hospital	11.7	11.8	11.7
Central hospital	3.1	3.6	2.7
Other state-owned hospital	0.9	1.0	0.8
Private hospital	1.8	1.9	1.6
Other hospital	0.1	0.1	0.1
Private clinic	15.9	16.4	15.6
Traditional practitioner	1.6	1.4	1.8
Private health services	8.6	8.7	8.5
Other facilities	0.8	0.9	0.7
(No. of observations)	10,113	4,479	5,634

Note: Percentages are weighted and sample sizes are unweighted. About 20 percent of respondents listed more than one type of health care service used during the past 12 months. This table reports the distribution of only the first health care facility listed by respondents.

Table 4-4. Reasons for Visiting Health Care Facilities in Past 12 Months (in %)

Reasons for visit	Urban Areas							
	<i>All Ages</i>		<i>Age 0-19</i>		<i>Age 20-49</i>		<i>Age 50+</i>	
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
Vaccination	2.3	3.1	6.0	7.1	0.3	3.4	0.2	0.1
Pregnancy & other GYN reason	0.0	4.4	0.0	1.3	0.0	10.0	0.0	0.1
Check-up and consulting	18.3	20.0	10.5	16.6	24.5	23.3	20.4	18.6
Treatment	79.5	72.5	83.5	75.0	75.2	63.4	79.4	81.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
(No. of observations)	1408	1880	501	440	457	778	450	662
Reasons for visit	Rural Areas							
	<i>All Ages</i>		<i>Age 0-19</i>		<i>Age 20-49</i>		<i>Age 50+</i>	
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
Vaccination	2.0	2.2	5.0	5.3	0.4	1.8	0.1	0.3
Pregnancy & other GYN reason	0.0	4.4	0.0	1.5	0.0	9.8	0.0	0.0
Check-up and consulting	15.4	17.0	12.1	14.6	16.0	19.4	18.6	16.0
Treatment	82.6	76.4	82.8	78.6	83.6	69.0	81.3	83.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
(No. of observations)	4479	5634	1657	1518	1529	2296	1293	1820

Note: Percentages are weighted; sample sizes are unweighted totals. About 20 percent of respondents listed more than one type of health care service used during the past 12 months. This table reports the distribution of only the reason for visiting the first health care facility listed by respondents.

Table 4-5. Total Health Expenses for Outpatient and Inpatient Treatments in the Past Year (VND in thousands)

	<i>Urban</i>		<i>Rural</i>	
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
(No. of observations)	2496	2958	6846	8086
Total	876.3	942.6	692.6	619.2
Age				
0-4	571.0	560.7	305.1	255.4
5-9	195.8	206.0	276.6	187.7
10-14	189.8	183.6	236.4	268.2
15-19	334.1	322.0	502.8	219.9
20-29	886.3	614.7	585.5	669.4
30-39	979.8	847.7	817.1	565.6
40-49	866.0	607.9	808.2	691.7
50-59	1437.7	1892.8	911.2	920.3
60+	1789.8	1916.4	1371.0	1030.1
Ethnicity				
Kinh/Chinese	880.7	958.5	741.5	677.4
Ethnic Minorities	688.2	284.7	405.7	279.9
Tay/Thai/Muong/Nung	461.4	262.1	469.0	318.4
Northern Mountain ethnic	235.4	447.9	205.8	212.6
Central ethnic	1755.6	390.1	404.4	195.7
Khmer/Cham	494.9	240.4	445.6	403.4
Expenditure quintiles				
1st lowest	164.8	206.4	211.4	199.3
2 nd	360.6	262.3	333.1	338.3
3 rd	239.7	373.6	468.8	510.9
4 th	434.8	643.6	819.0	840.0
5th highest	1451.0	1445.7	1993.8	1553.1
Type of Health Insurance				
None	894.9	814.6	770.4	710.5
HI for children under 6	566.9	576.1	321.4	254.8
HI for the poor	373.7	642.7	591.7	573.2
HI for policy beneficiaries	1728.8	1842.9	616.2	548.6
Required state HI	1027.4	929.7	1180.4	736.6
Required non-state HI	376.6	610.5	567.7	767.2
Student HI	220.5	246.5	393.1	306.7
Other Voluntary HI	3359.5	3047.1	1458.3	1077.2
Health card	736.5	537.4	517.9	413.4

(continued)

Type of Health Care Services

Centers	258.8	332.5	305.9	422.7
Clinics	472.7	806.4	488.5	587.0
Hospitals	2294.3	2133.3	2041.2	1591.2
Other	322.0	567.5	393.4	367.7

Public or Private Health Care Services

Public	1913.3	1832.0	1254.1	1008.6
Private	860.8	971.9	600.3	601.5

Note: Outpatient care includes expenses for medical service, treatment, and other related costs such as bonuses for doctors, equipment and transportation. Inpatient care includes expenses for service charges for additional medical requirement, equipment, and transport.

Table 4-6. Health Expenses for Outpatient and Inpatient Treatments Paid from Insurance in Past Year (VND in thousands)

	<i>Urban</i>		<i>Rural</i>	
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
(No. of observations)	2496	2958	6846	8086
Total	180.1	146.7	124.4	95.3
Age				
0-4	110.4	76.6	74.0	62.9
5-9	26.4	27.2	54.9	44.2
10-14	27.9	35.1	43.1	50.5
15-19	76.4	37.6	75.5	33.1
20-29	38.3	72.5	79.1	98.1
30-39	39.4	134.5	81.1	46.3
40-49	154.4	108.3	116.4	108.9
50-59	558.0	333.4	131.6	178.5
60+	427.9	276.1	372.9	144.7
Ethnicity				
Kinh/Chinese	179.0	149.2	129.4	95.9
Ethnic Minorities	228.9	43.6	94.7	91.7
Tay/Thai/Muong/Nung	115.1	55.1	92.4	111.0
Northern Mountain ethnic	176.3	192.8	44.0	71.4
Central ethnic	872.7	10.2	158.5	74.1
Khmer/Cham	41.1	21.3	48.3	80.2
Expenditure quintiles				
1st lowest	48.0	36.6	62.6	55.2
2 nd	115.5	42.3	53.7	62.3
3 rd	59.3	71.4	76.4	93.8
4 th	103.4	103.5	115.6	142.1
5th highest	279.5	218.4	390.3	141.9
Type of Health Insurance				
None	0	0	0	0
HI for children under 6	106.8	75.4	79.9	66.2
HI for the poor	195.8	165.0	203.6	200.6
HI for policy beneficiaries	868.9	769.4	202.9	160.8
Required state HI	270.5	253.4	586.1	188.6
Required non-state HI	176.3	159.0	126.5	366.0
Student HI	63.4	64.5	79.3	69.4
Other Voluntary HI	1160.9	591.7	489.5	340.7
Health card	418.0	129.8	118.9	164.0

(continued)

Type of Health Care Services

Centers	82.9	36.6	91.2	72.4
Clinics	33.4	40.1	33.5	30.8
Hospitals	494.0	378.7	385.9	283.1
Other	36.0	21.8	3.8	5.3

Public or Private Health Care Services

Public	461.8	354.0	266.3	188.5
Private	15.4	15.3	9.1	7.6

Note: Outpatient care includes expenses for medical service, treatment, and other related costs such as bonuses for doctors, equipment and transportation. Inpatient care includes expenses for service charges for additional medical requirement, equipment, and transport. People who have no insurance are coded with values of zero.

Table 5-1. Percentage of Households with Land-Use Right Certificates (LUCs) by Type of Land

	All types		Annual agricultural land only		Residential land only	
	%	(No. obs.)	%	(No. obs.)	%	(No. obs.)
Total	85.4	6569	85.6	5411	91.1	2505
Region						
Red River Delta	78.2	1508	78.3	1452	85.4	435
Northern Uplands						
North East	89.9	1067	90.2	996	91.3	566
North West	77.9	379	79.0	353	87.1	214
North Central Coast	84.2	811	84.9	707	94.5	428
South Central Coast	93.4	536	93.6	515	98.0	111
Central Highlands	76.9	487	77.1	305	84.3	179
South East	83.9	472	83.2	242	90.0	114
Mekong River Delta	93.8	1309	95.6	841	94.6	458
Rural vs. urban						
Rural	85.6	5967	85.7	5036	91.5	2298
Urban	82.8	602	83.7	375	86.4	207
Ethnicity						
Kinh/Chinese	85.9	5273	85.9	4193	91.5	1894
Ethnic minority	82.5	1296	83.8	1218	89.0	611
<i>Kinh/Chinese</i>						
Red River Delta	78.0	1494	78.2	1438	85.4	428
Northern Uplands						
North East	92.1	519	92.9	462	94.3	289
North West	59.8	48	61.7	25	66.5	27
North Central Coast	84.2	744	83.8	647	94.1	396
South Central Coast	94.9	495	95.2	474	97.9	103
Central Highlands	78.4	319	80.3	158	85.5	110
South East	85.8	430	85.8	212	90.0	107
Mekong River Delta	94.2	1224	95.9	777	94.8	434
<i>Minority</i>						
Red River Delta	93.8	14	93.8	14	86.8	7
Northern Uplands						
North East	87.3	548	87.2	534	87.2	277
North West	80.4	331	80.2	328	89.9	187
North Central Coast	84.3	67	94.4	60	98.8	32
South Central Coast	77.7	41	77.7	41	100.0	8
Central Highlands	73.7	168	73.0	147	81.7	69
South East	61.3	42	60.8	30	90.0	7
Mekong River Delta	86.8	85	91.1	64	90.8	24

(continued)

	All types		Annual agricultural land only		Residential land only	
	%	(Sample N)	%	(Sample N)	%	(Sample N)
Household structure						
Nuclear	83.7	4571	84.0	3725	89.6	1689
Vertical	89.8	1365	90.0	1143	93.7	564
Others	87.9	633	87.3	543	95.2	252
Gender and marital status of household head						
<i>Male-headed</i>						
Married	84.9	5128	85.1	4262	91.3	1982
Widowed	90.0	130	89.9	102	89.1	57
Divorced/unmarried	87.4	43	93.9	31	84.0	18
<i>Female-headed</i>						
Married	84.8	390	85.2	291	86.7	137
Widowed	88.7	711	89.0	597	93.4	255
Divorced/unmarried	82.0	167	80.6	128	87.8	56
Age of household head						
<=25	57.9	35	60.5	28	55.8	15
25-34	77.3	745	78.4	655	84.0	266
35-44	83.5	1840	84.1	1556	89.9	652
45-54	87.0	1885	87.0	1525	92.6	725
55-64	87.9	1069	87.7	857	91.9	464
65 and older	89.2	995	89.2	790	94.3	383
Expenditure quintiles						
1 lowest	81.0	1407	81.9	1287	89.2	595
2	82.9	1461	83.0	1277	90.8	566
3	86.7	1379	86.1	1150	92.3	527
4	86.6	1316	87.4	1015	90.0	463
5 highest	91.0	1006	92.5	682	93.5	354

Note: Percentages are weighted; sample sizes are unweighted total number of households. Some households may have more than one plot of land for each type; percentages are calculated as having a land use right for any plot of the land within a specified type. Other types of land surveyed include perennial agricultural land, forest land, water surface, grassy land, and shifting cultivation land, in addition to annual agricultural and residential land.

Table 5-2. Holders of Land-Use Titles for Annual Agricultural and Residential Land (%)

	Land-Use Title Holders				No. obs.
	Male	Female	Joint-holders	Total	
<i>Annual Agricultural Land</i>					
Total	62.3	19.9	17.8	100.0	4230
Region					
Red River Delta	60.4	23.5	16.1	100.0	1091
Northern Uplands					
North East	72.8	13.7	13.5	100.0	805
North West	74.2	7.5	18.3	100.0	252
North Central Coast	55.3	17.7	27.0	100.0	534
South Central Coast	59.8	22.8	17.5	100.0	450
Central Highlands	62.3	12.0	25.7	100.0	193
South East	56.1	25.3	18.5	100.0	171
Mekong River Delta	62.9	22.4	14.6	100.0	734
Rural vs. urban					
Rural	62.4	19.8	17.9	100.0	3956
Urban	61.2	21.3	17.5	100.0	274
Ethnicity					
Kinh/Chinese	60.3	22.1	17.6	100.0	3332
Minority	72.6	8.4	19.0	100.0	898
Gender/ marital status of household head					
<i>Male headed</i>					
Married	97.3	0.6	2.1	100.0	2619
Widowed	97.3	0.6	2.1	100.0	2524
Widowed	97.5	2.5	0.0	100.0	76
Other	100.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	19
<i>Female headed</i>					
Married	8.1	49.7	42.3	100.0	1611
Married	0.0	94.1	5.9	100.0	159
Widowed	0.0	100.0	0.0	100.0	425
Other	1.5	98.6	0.0	100.0	85
Education of household head					
<i>Male headed</i>					
No schooling	98.7	0.0	1.4	100.0	140
Less than primary	98.8	0.4	0.8	100.0	433
Primary school	97.4	0.9	1.7	100.0	760
Lower secondary	96.8	0.6	2.7	100.0	960
Upper secondary	96.9	0.3	2.9	100.0	291
JC/University +	93.8	3.7	2.5	100.0	35

(continued)

Female headed

No schooling	0.0	99.5	0.5	100.0	93
Less than primary	0.0	98.9	1.1	100.0	233
Primary school	0.8	98.4	0.8	100.0	151
Lower secondary	0.0	98.2	1.8	100.0	154
Upper secondary	0.0	94.7	5.3	100.0	34
JC/University +	0.0	100.0	0.0	100.0	4

Expenditure Quintile

1 lowest	64.2	17.1	18.7	100.0	859
2	62.0	20.6	17.4	100.0	837
3	66.5	17.7	15.8	100.0	850
4	60.1	21.5	18.4	100.0	855
5 highest	58.9	22.2	18.9	100.0	829

Residential Land

Total **61.5** **18.1** **20.4** 100.0 **1992**

Region

Red River Delta	57.7	18.9	23.4	100.0	330
Northern Uplands					
North East	72.7	12.8	14.6	100.0	452
North West	71.8	9.4	18.8	100.0	140
North Central Coast	54.9	18.3	26.8	100.0	366
South Central Coast	63.1	21.6	15.4	100.0	99
Central Highlands	51.3	13.4	35.3	100.0	139
South East	58.4	17.2	24.4	100.0	92
Mekong River Delta	62.8	25.0	12.3	100.0	374

Rural vs. urban

Rural	62.3	17.5	20.2	100.0	1827
Urban	52.0	24.5	23.5	100.0	165

Ethnicity

Kinh/Chinese	59.5	20.2	20.3	100.0	1556
Minority	71.2	7.9	20.9	100.0	436

Gender/marital status of household head

<i>Male headed</i>	95.9	1.0	3.2	100.0	1252
Married	95.9	0.9	3.3	100.0	1200
Widowed	95.6	4.4	0.0	100.0	46
Other	100.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	6
<i>Female headed</i>	7.3	45.0	47.7	100.0	740
Married	0.0	91.3	8.7	100.0	73
Widowed	0.0	100.0	0.0	100.0	178
Other	0.0	100.0	0.0	100.0	41

(continued)

Education of household head					
<i>Male headed</i>					
No schooling	92.6	2.2	5.3	100.0	70
Less than primary	97.5	1.3	1.2	100.0	221
Primary school	97.3	1.4	1.3	100.0	351
Lower secondary	95.6	0.4	4.0	100.0	457
Upper secondary	93.9	0.0	6.1	100.0	132
JC/University +	85.9	6.5	7.6	100.0	21
<i>Female headed</i>					
No schooling	0.0	98.9	1.2	100.0	39
Less than primary	0.0	98.5	1.5	100.0	93
Primary school	0.0	98.0	2.0	100.0	58
Lower secondary	0.0	97.5	2.5	100.0	76
Upper secondary	0.0	100.0	0.0	100.0	15
JC/University +	0.0	88.1	12.0	100.0	11
Expenditure Quintile					
1 lowest	67.2	16.2	16.6	100.0	388
2	63.6	18.4	18.1	100.0	406
3	67.1	13.9	19.1	100.0	392
4	55.2	21.6	23.2	100.0	377
5 highest	55.6	20.0	24.4	100.0	429

Note: Percentages are weighted; sample sizes are unweighted total number of households. Some households may have more than one plot of land for each type, and different plots may have different holders. The categories of title holders are created as mutually exclusive, giving priority to joint holders first, then female holders, and then to male holders.

ENDNOTES

¹ For example, several studies have shown that if there were an equitable distribution of assets between men and women, on-farm productivity and output would grow substantially. Results for Burkina Faso, Kenya, and Zambia indicate a 10 to 20 percent increase in output would be possible if women had equal access to agricultural inputs (Udry 1996; Saito 1994). Women's lack of access to agricultural inputs is partly the result of land ownership laws, with women prohibited from owning land in some countries or prevented from having their names placed on land titles due to local customs and traditions. As a result, women lack the collateral required to borrow money to purchase inputs (Berik *et al.* 2009).

² Klasen and Lamanna (2009) is part of a growing body of work showing that gender inequality slows the long-run rate of economic growth, with inequality measured by gender gaps in education, life expectancy, and employment. See also Hill and King (1995), Dollar and Gatti (1999), Esteve-Volart (2004), Klasen (2002), and Knowles *et al.* (2002).

³ For studies with evidence on the positive impact of maternal education and children's health, see Behrman and Wolfe (1987), Thomas *et al.* (1991), Sandiford *et al.* (1995), Glewwe (1997), Guilkey and Riphahn (1998), and Miller and Rodgers (2009). For studies with evidence on the positive impact of women's control over money and child well-being, see Blumberg (1988), Haddad *et al.* (1997), Hoddinott and Haddad (1995), Pitt and Khandker (1998), Quisumbing and Maluccio (2000), World Bank (2001), and Duflo (2003).

⁴ Throughout this study, any comparisons we make to analyses of the 2002, 2004, and 2006 VHLSS are based on results presented in Lee (2008), Lee (2006), and Nguyen (2008).

⁵ The poverty rate is the proportion of people living below the poverty line, where the poverty line is calculated by Vietnam's General Statistical Office with support from the World Bank.

Based on household expenditure data, Vietnam's poverty line gives the minimum expenditure level required for food and non-food consumption, with a food consumption benchmark at 2100 calories per person per day. The rate of food poverty indicates the proportion of people who cannot afford the minimum consumption level required for 2100 calories per person per day.

⁶ We estimated the poverty rate using data on per capita expenditure based on VHLSS consumption expenditure data collected at the household level. Per capita expenditures were calculated by dividing total household expenditures by the number of people in the household. Based on this unitary household assumption and the lack of adult equivalence scales, everyone in the household has the same poverty status.

⁷ Note that the 2008 VHLSS did not ask respondents about field of study while the 2006 VHLSS did ask this question. In order to compare results on field of study across these years we turned to data from UNESCO (2010) to generate the results for 2008.

⁸ School enrollment refers to attendance at any level of schooling, including vocational schools, in the past twelve months.

⁹ This paragraph on equality of outcomes in the labor market draws from Berik *et al.* (2009). In addition, Phillips (2004) argues that equality of outcomes should be considered as a reasonable test for the availability of equality of opportunity.

¹⁰ The average number of weeks worked during the year is calculated from survey data on hours per day, days per month, and months per year. Hours per year is then converted to weeks per year by assuming 6 days of work per week and 8 hours of work per day.

¹¹ Note that the Duncan Index for 2006 (here for industries and further down in the report for occupations) is calculated using data in Lee (2008), and the Duncan Index for 2008 is calculated by the authors using the 2008 VHLSS.

¹² As noted in the table, figures represent the number of businesses, not the number of households (approximately one of out five households listed multiple nonagricultural business activities). Female-operated and male-operated are defined the person in the household who manages or controls each of the business enterprises.

¹³ The hourly wage includes the main salary and other benefits in the past year, divided by the number of hours worked on the main job in the past year. Hours in the past year is calculated from survey data on hours per day, adjusted to hours per year by multiplying by reported days per month and months per year. All nominal wages are converted to real values by deflating by both the monthly and the regional consumer price indices.

¹⁴ Female to male wage ratios for other countries in this figure and the wage ratio figures below are constructed using data from ILO (2010) for those East or South Asian countries reporting wages separately for men and women at the aggregations shown in the figures (total, non-agricultural, or manufacturing) for the most recent year possible after 2006.

¹⁵ In the survey questionnaire, people who were not sick in past twelve months could still answer questions about visiting a health facility for preventive care.

¹⁶ Much research suggests that gender gaps are only partially due to productivity differentials with up to two-thirds of gender gaps unexplained, with discrimination a potential culprit. For some examples, see Behrman and Zhang (1995) and Horton (1996). The latter finds that 55 percent of gender wage differentials in Asia are explained by factors other than human capital differences. In addition, the unexplained portion of the gender wage gap shows no evidence of narrowing across countries (Weichselbaumer and Winter-Ebmer 2005). In Vietnam as in several other Asian economies, including China, Taiwan, and India, the discriminatory portion of the gender wage gap has also shown no sign of shrinking (Maurer-Fazio *at al.* 1999; Liu 2002,

2004a, 2004b; Berik *et al.* 2004; UNRISD 2005; Pham and Reilly 2007; Menon and Rodgers 2009).