MINISTRY OF PLANNING AND INVESTMENT
GENERAL STATISTICS OFFICE

VIETNAM POPULATION AND HOUSING CENSUS 2009

MIGRATION AND URBANIZATION IN VIETNAM: PATTERNS, TRENDS AND DIFFERENTIALS

Hanoi, 2011

PREFACE

The Vietnam Population and Housing Census 2009 was conducted at 00:00 on 1 April, 2009 under Prime Ministerial Decision No. 94/2008/QD-TTg dated 10 July 2008. This was the fourth population census and the third housing census conducted in Vietnam since 1975. The purpose of this census was to collect basic information on population and housing of the Socialist Republic of Vietnam for national development planning for the period 2011–2020.

Besides *The 2009 Vietnam Population and Housing Census: Major Findings* report published in July 2010, in-depth analysis of some important issues including birth, death, migration, urbanization, age-sex structure of the population, and education was undertaken to provide important information about the current status as well as appropriate policy recommendations related to these issues.

The monograph **"Migration and Urbanization in Vietnam: Patterns, Trends and Differentials"** was developed using the data of the 15% sample survey which was included in the 2009 Census in order to provide readers with the most up-do-date information about Vietnam's migration and urbanization situation.

Analysis revealed an increasing trend in migration in both absolute and relative terms, and a strong contribution of migration to urban areas, especially the larger urban areas. Migration contributed positively to migrants as individuals as well as development of the place of destination, however, it may have also contributed to increasing socio-economic disparities between the place of origin and place of destination, between rural and urban areas, and among regions. In parallel with industrialization and urbanization processes, population in urban areas is growing strongly. Urban residents have more advantages compared to rural residents in the development process. However, the situation of over-urbanization in Vietnam has led to a situation in which part of the urban population is unable to access basic facilities, even in the most developed cities such as Hanoi or Ho Chi Minh City. The monograph also provides recommendations for development policies that pay more attention to current migration and urbanization patterns in Vietnam to make sure migration and urbanization contribute in the best way possible to growth and socio-economic development in Vietnam.

The Vietnam General Statistics Office would like to express its special thanks to the United Nations Population Fund for their financial and technical support in the 2009 Vietnam National Population and Housing Census, especially for data analysis and preparation of this monograph. We also would like to express our sincere thanks to Dr. Nguyen Thanh Liem, Institute of Population, Health and Development and Dr. Nguyen Huu Minh, Institute for Family and Gender Studies under the Vietnam Academy of Social Sciences for their great efforts in analyzing data and developing this monograph. Our gratitude also goes to other national and international experts, UNFPA staff, and GSO staff for their hard work and valuable inputs during the development of this monograph, and to the International Organization on Migration (IOM) and UNHABITAT for providing comments on drafts of this monograph.

We are honoured to introduce a special publication with an in-depth look into migration and urbanization, which is now a topic of interest among researchers, managers, and policy makers as well as the whole society. We look forward to your feedback and comments on this monograph to improve the quality of future GSO publications.

Vietnam General Statistics Office

CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF MAP

ABBREVIATIONS

ASFR	Age-Specific Fertility Rate
CBR	Crude Birth Rate
CCSC	Central (Population and Housing) Census Steering Committee
GSO	General Statistics Office
IOM	International Organization for Migration
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
PWG	Poverty Working Group
R-R	Rural-to-rural (migration)
R-U	Rural-to-urban (migration)
SAVY	Survey Assessment of Vietnamese Youth
SMAM	Singulate Mean Age at Marriage
TFR	Total Fertility Rate
UNESCAP	United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
U-R	Urban-to-rural (migration)
U-U	Urban-to-urban (migration)
WB	World Bank

ABSTRACT

Analysis of 15% Census sample survey data clearly showed an increasing trend in migration in both absolute and relative terms. Clear evidence was found for the contribution of migration to population in urban areas, especially the larger urban areas. The results suggest that migration, especially the rapidly growing rural-to-urban migration, deserves greater attention. Migration related policies should take into consideration the great diversity and differences in migration and migrants. Census data shed light on characteristics of 'longer term' migrants but overlook more temporary migrants, the population group that should receive greater attention in further research studies. The relationship between migration and development is complicated: while migration makes positive contributions to migrants themselves, and to development of the place of destination, it also contributes to increasing socio-economic disparities between the place of origin and place of destination, between rural and urban areas, and among regions; rural areas and the main migrant sending regions including the Central Coast and Mekong River Delta regions face disadvantages while urban areas, especially large cities and provinces and major migrant receiving regions, such as the Southeast, have benefitted from the young migrants who tend to have better social capital. Regional and national development plans and policies need to consider measures to ensure the optimal contribution of migration towards development. Findings from the Census also reveal the need for special attention to migrant women and children.

During the last decade, in parallel with industrialization and urbanization processes, there has been a strong growth of population in urban areas. At the same time, clear urban lifestyles are increasingly being formed. Demographic characteristics of urban residents are clearly different from rural residents: household size in urban areas is smaller; urban residents marry later and have fewer children. Urban residents also have more advantages compared to rural residents during the development process: better housing conditions and greater access to amenities of life such as electricity, clean water, better educational conditions and skilled job opportunities. These advantages are more apparent in areas with high levels of urbanization. This has increased the attractiveness of large cities and promoted strong population growth in these areas.

However, over-urbanization has also been observed in Vietnam. This has led to lack of access to basic facilities such as toilets and clean water for part of the urban population, even in the most developed cities such as Hanoi or Ho Chi Minh City. The unemployment rate in urban areas is higher than in rural areas. Thus a small portion of urban residents lack opportunities to share in the advantages of urban areas. With the pace of development and the urban population at present, Vietnam will face an increasing number of complex problems resulting from the urbanization process: increasing population density in urban areas; job creation; shortage of housing; environmental pollution, etc. This will require increased attention to current urbanization issues in Vietnam.

CHAPTER 1: BACKGROUND AND METHODOLOGY

1. BACKGROUND

The 2009 Population and Housing Census was the fourth population survey and the third housing census conducted since reunification of the country in 1975. The main objective of the Census was to collect basic data on population and housing in the Socialist Republic of Vietnam to serve research and analysis of population trends for the whole country as well as for each locality; to provide information for evaluating the implementation of socio-economic development plans for the period 2001–2010 as well as for outlining the socio-economic development plans for the period 2011–2020; and to monitor the implementation of the Government's commitment to achieving the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (CCSC, 2009).

Population and Housing Censuses are carried out in Vietnam every ten years. The 1979 Census was the first one followed by the 1989, 1999 and 2009 Censuses. The 1979 Census collected very simple information and received little technical support from the international community. The last three censuses had much richer information and received much better technical and financial support from the international community. Although information from the Census is relatively simple, most basic socioeconomic indicators are included. The last three censuses shared a lot of common information that can be used for comparison purposes and analysis of trends.

In addition to the full census covering all Vietnamese citizens residing in Vietnam as of the census date, a sample survey, with a longer questionnaire to gather more information, was conducted as part of the 2009 Census. The purposes of the sample survey were: 1) to expand the content of the Census; 2) to improve the quality of the Census, especially regarding sensitive and complex questions; and 3) to reduce census costs. A sample size of 15% of the total national population was adopted in the sample survey of the 2009 Census. Similarly, sample surveys with a sample size of 5% and 3% were adopted in 1989 and 1999 Census respectively (CCSC, 2009).

This monograph provides findings from in-depth analysis of migration and urbanization in Vietnam using the sample data of the last three censuses. Migration and urbanization have been essential parts of the rapid economic growth in Vietnam since the economic reforms and they are key issues of population and development. In the broader context of the Asian region, migration has increased at an unprecedented rate in the last two decades (Deshingkar 2006) and urban population has been growing at the fastest pace in the last decade and a half (UNESCAP, 2007). This monograph is an attempt to provide a general picture of migration and urbanization in Vietnam over the last two decades using census data. The monograph also attempts to look at linkages between migration, urbanization and achievement of some of the MDGs, or from a broader perspective the linkages between migration, urbanization and development.

2. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This monograph aims to describe, analyze, and provide explanations for patterns, trends and prospects of internal migration and urbanization in Vietnam. The monograph uses mainly the 2009 Census data and data of the previous 1989 and 1999 Censuses.

Specific objectives of this study are:

- Describe patterns of migration in Vietnam;
- Describe differentials in patterns of internal migration by key factors, such as region, province, district, types of migration, flows of migration between urban and rural areas, and sex of migrants;
- Describe trends in internal migration over the last twenty years (since 1989) and prospects for the future;
- Describe patterns of urbanization in Vietnam;
- Describe differentials in patterns of urbanization by key factors, such as region and province;
- Describe trends in urbanization over the last twenty years and prospects for the future;
- Provide conclusions about key features of internal migration and urbanization in Vietnam over the last twenty years; and
- Make policy recommendations for population and urban management in Vietnam.

3. METHODOLOGY

As mentioned above, this monograph uses sample data of the last three censuses (the 15%, 3% and 5% samples of the 2009, 1999 and 1989 Censuses respectively) for analysis. These samples are representative not only at the national level but also at the local level. In particular, in 2009, the sample is representative all the way to the district level. The primary sampling unit was the census enumeration area. Area cluster sampling was applied to select the sample. Detailed information on the sampling frame, sample size, questionnaires, survey methods and implementation of the Census are presented in previous publications of the CCSC (see CCSC, 2009; CCSC, 2000; CCSC, 1999; CCSC, 1991).

Descriptive or uni-variate analysis is used to describe patterns of migration and urbanization. Simple projections are used to capture prospects of migration and urbanization in the near future. Bi-variate analysis is used to capture variation and differences in migration and urbanization by major regional, demographic and socioeconomic factors or variables including: region, province, age, living standards, training level, schooling attainment and housing. Gender is considered as a cross-cutting issue and is covered in almost all the analysis. Trend analysis is used to capture trends in migration, urban growth and urbanization over the last two decades. Construction of most of the variables used in this monograph follows the construction of the standard 56 indicators of the 2009 Census of the CCSC (see CCSC 2010a) and urban classification of the Government of Vietnam.

Comparisons are made not only among different groups of migrants but also between migrants and non-migrants. Visual aids, including graphs and maps, are used to help readers more easily understand results of analysis. Detailed results used in graphs and maps are presented in tables in the appendix.

There are certain advantages and limitations of census data that strongly influence the scope of analysis. Therefore, this section presents key advantages and limitations of census and census sample survey data in Vietnam to provide background information and explanations for limitations of analysis in the monograph.

The major advantage of census and census sample survey data is their national coverage or representativeness. The huge sample size of the census and its sample survey data allows analysis at not only the regional level but also sub-regional levels; census sample data contain more detailed information allowing analysis at the provincial level and for the 2009 Census, even at the district level. This is one of the great advantages of census data, enabling us to get macro level information for development of strategies and policies. The large sample size of census data and its sample survey also allows description and analysis of small sub populations like ethnic minority groups, population that undergoes strong fluctuations like migrants, and complex issues like urbanization. Additionally, the availability of basic socio-economic information on respondents, such as age, sex, educational attainment, ethnicity, and occupation, and community characteristics, such as rural/urban residence, allow further looks at differentials in internal migration and urbanization or research on other issues related to those factors.

Census data also have limitations. The large sample size is achieved by sacrificing more detailed information. Therefore, research on the relationship between migration and urbanization and other socioeconomic issues is limited to major issues for which information is available in the census questionnaire. In addition, while patterns and some variation in migration and urbanization can be found, explanations for those variations cannot be confirmed using census data due to the lack of information on explanatory factors.

The censuses in Vietnam also lack important information relating to the process of migration such as reasons for migration, place of birth, and duration of residence in destination area. The comparison of place of residence five years prior to the time of the survey and current place of residence as a proxy measure of migration has several shortcomings. It does not allow us to identify the timing of the last move nor duration of residence in the destination area. It also does not allow us to capture seasonal and temporary migration; return migration that happened within the five years prior to the time of the survey is also missing from the picture; as a consequence, results of census analysis underestimate actual mobility of people. In fact, those shortcomings were already identified in several publications following dissemination of the 1999 Population and Housing Census; however, they were not overcome in the 2009 Census so the same care in interpretation of results should be made. On a more positive note, consistency in the way information was gathered gives us the ability to compare migration patterns between the 1999 and 2009 Censuses.

The Census data also do not include geo-coded data over time which would allow decomposition of the factors affecting urbanization. Over the last twenty years, or the last three censuses, many changes have occurred in geographical boundaries at the provincial and sub-provincial levels. Clearly, the rapid socioeconomic development since introduction of the *Renovation policy* has resulted in not only increasing migration flows but also rapid expansion of urban areas. Consequently, urbanization in Vietnam over the last two to three decades has received significant contributions from both migration and geographical expansion of urban areas. Unfortunately, the respective contributions of these two factors towards urbanization cannot be assessed.

4. STRUCTURE OF THE MONOGRAPH

The monograph contains five main chapters. It starts with background information and methodology. This chapter provides basic contextual information, the rationale and objectives of the study, methodology, basic characteristics of census data, scope and limitations of the study. The second chapter focuses on migration. Since there is no single definition of migration and there are many types of migration, this chapter starts by explaining working concepts and definitions of migration used in the monograph. This chapter presents patterns and trends of different types and flows of migration. It also includes basic characteristics of migrants and differentials in migration across different groups in the population. Urbanization is analyzed in the third chapter. Similar to the previous chapter, this chapter starts with basic working concepts, definitions, and contextual information. It then examines urbanization patterns, trends and differentials in the country over the last two decades. The fourth chapter is an attempt to look in greater depth at linkages between migration and urbanization. The final chapter summarizes the key results, discusses the findings and provides some policy implications.

CHAPTER 2: PATTERNS, TRENDS AND DIFFERENTIALS IN MIGRATION

1. BASIC CONCEPTS AND DEFINITIONS

Migrants in this monograph are defined as people whose place of residence 5 years prior to the time of the census is different from their current place of residence. Non-migrants are defined as people whose place of residence 5 years prior to the time of the census is their current place of residence. Clearly, only people aged 5 or older are able to be considered under this definition of migrant. For this reason and to ensure meaningful comparisons between migrants and non-migrants, people who are younger than 5 years of age are excluded from analysis in this monograph.

Although there are many other ways to define migrants, the current definition is the only one that can be used with the census data. A limitation of this definition is that certain types of migrant, such as temporary migrants, seasonal migrants and return migrants, are not identifiable because they are mixed in with non-migrant or migrant populations.

The available data allow us to classify migrants by administrative level and rural-urban flows. Vietnam is currently divided into 6 regions; under the regional level are 63 provinces; under the provincial level are 690 districts[1], and under the district level are 11,066 rural communes or urban wards.[2] As development policies are usually tied to administrative level, classification of migrants by administrative level is important for integration of migrants in development plans at different levels. In this monograph, the following groups of migrants and non-migrants are identified under this classification of migrants by administrative level:

- Immigrants: include persons aged 5 or older whose current place of residence is in Vietnam and their place of residence 5 years prior to the time of the Census was abroad.
- Regional migrants: include persons aged 5 or older who live in Vietnam and whose region of residence 5 years prior to the time of the Census was different from their current region of residence.
- Inter-provincial migrants: include persons aged 5 or older who live in Vietnam and whose province of residence 5 years prior to the time of Census was different from their current province of residence.
- Inter-district migrants: include persons aged 5 or older whose province of residence 5 years prior to the time of the Census is their current province of residence and whose district of residence 5 years prior to the time of Census is different from their current district of residence.

1 Island districts included.

2 According to 2009 Census; island communes included.

- Intra-district migrants: include persons aged 5 or older whose district of residence 5 years prior to the time of the Census is their current district of residence and whose commune/ward of residence 5 years prior to the time of Census is different from their current commune/ward of residence.
- Each group of migrants has an associated group of non-migrants; in other words, non-migrants can be defined at each administrative level. For instance, provincial non-migrants include persons aged 5 or older whose province of residence 5 years prior to the time of Census is their current province of residence. In this monograph, the term 'provincial non-migrant' will represent all groups of non-migrant population and labelled as non-migrant because there are only very minor differences among different groups of non-migrant population.[3]

Figure 2.1 summarizes the definition of migrant and non-migrant populations. Migrant population in a given year is understood as migrants who arrived at some time in the 5 years prior to the time of the survey in that year; e.g. migrants in 2009 are migrants who came to the study area during the 2004–2009 period.

Figure 2.1: Place of residence 5 years prior to the time of the Census and type of migrant

<table>
<tr><th>Abroad</th><th colspan="4">Viet Nam</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="4">⇓</td><td>Another province</td><td colspan="3">Same province</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">⇓</td><td>Another district</td><td colspan="2">Same district</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">⇓</td><td>Another commune</td><td>Same commune/ ward</td></tr>
<tr><td>⇓</td><td>⇓</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">Immigrant</td><td rowspan="3">Inter-provincial migrant</td><td rowspan="2">Inter-district migrant</td><td>Intra-district migrant</td><td>Communal non-migrant</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">District non-migrant</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Provincial non-migrant / Non-migrant</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Non-immigrant</td></tr>
</table>

Regarding migration flows between urban and rural areas, the following flows are identified based on the rural and urban characteristic of the place of residence 5 years prior to the time of the Census and current place of residence:

- Rural-to-rural migration (R-R);
- Rural-to-urban migration (R-U);

3 This will be seen clearly in Table 2.1 in the next section. By our definition: district non-migrant population = communal non-migrant population + intra-district migrant population; provincial non-migrant population = district non-migrant population + inter-district migrant population. Because intra-district migrant population and inter-district migrant population accounts for a very small share of the total population, communal and district non-migrant populations accounted for 96% and 98% respectively of the provincial non-migrant population.

- Urban-to-rural migration (U-R); and
- Urban-to-urban migration (U-U).

Two associated groups of non-migrants serving as reference groups include:

- Non-migrants in rural areas or non-migrants whose current place of residence is in rural areas; and
- Non-migrants in urban areas or non-migrants whose current place of residence is in urban areas.

Compared to the 2009 and 1999 Censuses, the 1989 Census did not ask about migration at the commune/ward level and it also did not ask about rural/urban characteristic of the place of residence 5 years prior to the time of the Census. Consequently, as analysis in this monograph requires this information, results on this topic will be limited to 1999 and 2009.

2. PATTERNS OF MIGRATION OVER TIME

The migrant population as defined in this study accounted for a small proportion of the population. However, the absolute number of migrants was not small given the large population size of the country. Of the more than 78 million people aged 5 and older in 2009, 2.1% or about 1.6 million people were intra-district migrants, 2.2% or 1.7 million people were inter-district migrants, 4.3% or 3.4 million people were inter-provincial migrants, and a very small proportion of only 0.1% or 40 990 people were immigrants. Similar patterns were found in 1999 and 1989 Census data (see Table 2.1).

International migration was not well covered in the Census because many Vietnamese living overseas were not captured in the Census enumeration. In addition, the immigrant population was under-estimated because people without Vietnamese citizenship were not enumerated in the Census. For these reasons and because of the very small immigrant population, international migration is excluded from further analysis in this monograph. Consequently, the term migration is understood as internal migration in the rest of the monograph.

Table 2.1: Migrant and non-migrant population by type of migration, 1989-2009

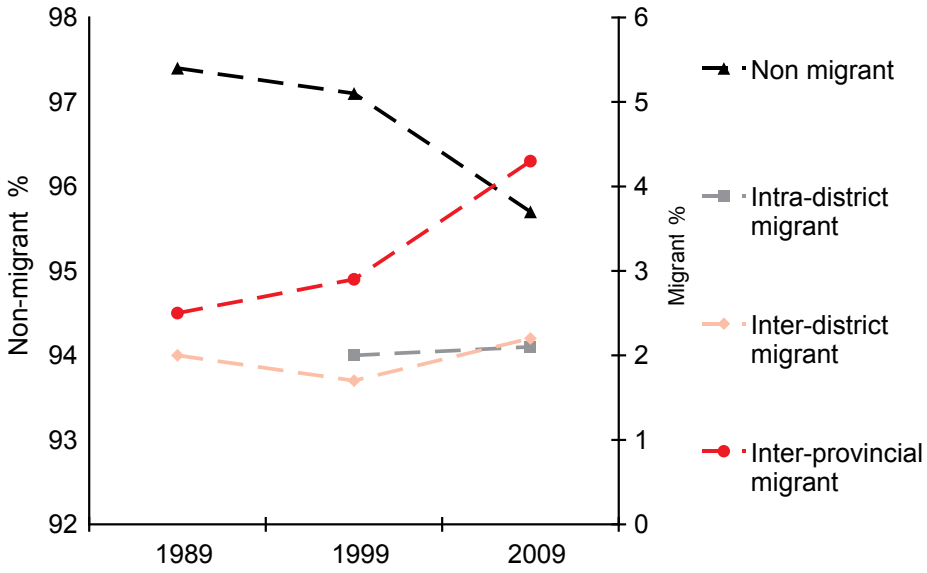
	1989		1999		2009	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Intra-district migrant	-	-	1,342,568	2,0	1,618,160	2,1
Communal non-migrant	-	-	64,493,309	93,5	71,686,913	91,4
Inter-district migration	1,067,298	2,0	1,137,843	1,7	1,708,896	2,2
District non-migrant	51,797,097	95,5	65,835,877	95,5	73,305,072	93,5
Inter-provincial migrant	1,349,291	2,5	2,001,408	2,9	3,397,904	4,3
Provincial non-migrant	52,864,395	97,4	66,973,720	97,1	75,013,968	95,7
Immigrant	65,908	0,1	70,389	0,1	40,990	0,1
Non-immigrant	54,213,686	99,9	68,975,128	99,9	78,411,872	99,9

There has been an increasing migration trend in both absolute and relative terms over the last two decades; however, the clear increasing trend has only become apparent in the last decade. This tendency was expected given the dramatic decline in the cooperative system, the transformation from central planning to a market economy, the removal of regulations that inhibited development of the private economic sector and development of transportation (Dang, et al. 1997), regional disparities (PWG 1999), and relaxation of restrictions on migration (Doan and Trinh 1998; Guest 1998). The inter-district migrant population slightly increased to 1.14 million people in 1999 from 1.07 million people in 1989; it then increased by more than 50 percent to 1.7 million people by 2009. The inter-district migrant share of the population decreased from 2% to 1.7% over the 1989–1999 period but then increased to 2.2% by 2009.

A clear increase was seen in size of the inter-provincial migrant population. This population increased to 3.4 million people by 2009 from 2 million people in 1999 and 1.3 million in 1989. The share of this group in the population also increased consistently to 4.3% in 2009 from 2.9% in 1999 and 2.5% in 1989. Those results indicated a higher rate of increase in the migrant population than the rate of natural increase in the population.

It is interesting that the higher the administrative level of a geographic area the higher the rate of growth in the migrant population. Figure 2.2 clearly reveals that the sharpest increase is seen among inter-provincial migrants, with slower increases in the inter-district migrant population, and the slowest increase in the intra-district migrant population. Although the Census data did not allow us to explore reasons for these differences, increased household income, improvements in transportation and more abundant information through the mass media have obviously led to greater choice for people to move and enabled them to move longer distances and beyond familiar boundaries.

Figure 2.2: Migrant proportion of the population over time, 1989-2009



Census data indicate that the migrant population grew faster than the non-migrant population over the last decade (Table 2.2). Moreover, the growth rate of the migrant population during the 1999–2009 period was higher than in the 1989–1999 period while the growth rate of the non-migrant population during the 1999–2009 period was lower than in the 1989–2009 period. Consequently, the migrant share of the population increased at an increasing pace during the last decade.

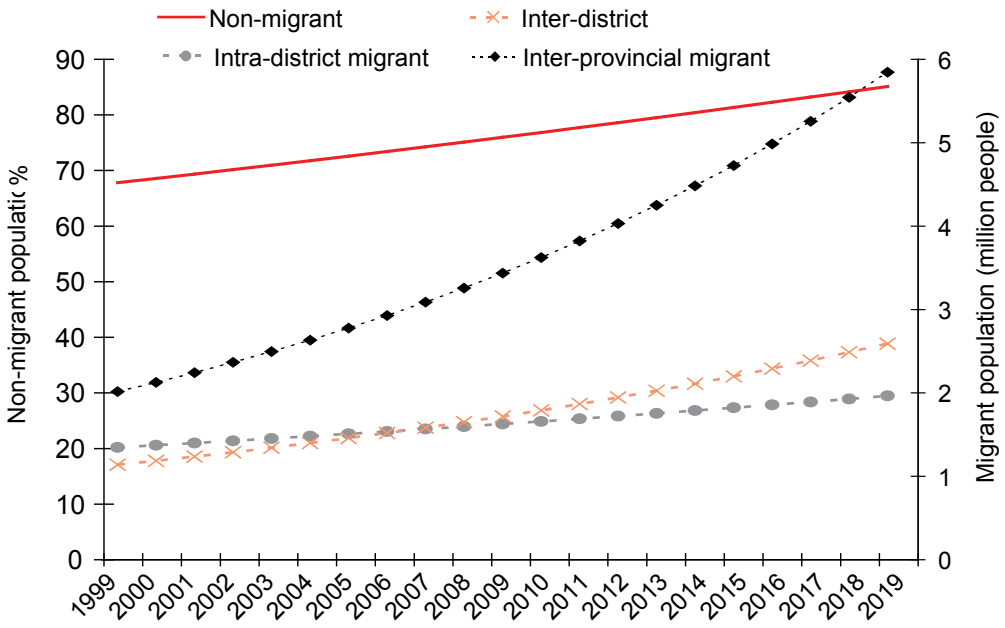
Table 2.2: Annual population growth rate by type of migration, 1989-2009

Unit: Percent

Period	Intra-district migrant	Inter-district migrant	Inter-provincial migrant	Non-migrant
1989-1999	-	0.6	4.0	2.4
1999-2009	1.9	4.2	5.4	1.1

A simple projection of migrant and non-migrant populations aged 5 and older is presented in Figure 2.3. The projection is simple because it is not based on the age-sex structure, fertility and mortality rates of each group of migrant and non-migrant population; it is simply based on average annual population growth rates of each migrant and non-migrant population group during the 1999–2009 period and an assumption that those average annual population growth rates will remain constant for the next ten years. The projection indicates that the inter-provincial migrant population aged 5 and older will approach 6 million people by 2019; the inter-district and intra-district migrant populations will approach 2.0 and 2.6 million people respectively by 2019; the non-migrant population will increase to 84 million people by 2019 from 75 million people in 2009. Given the large and slow increase in the non-migrant population, the curve has a shape indicating a rate of increase similar to overall population growth. The share of inter-provincial migrants increases faster than that of inter-district and intra-district migrants. By 2019, the share of inter-provincial, inter-district and intra-district migrants in total population are projected to be 6.4%, 3.0% and 2.4% respectively.

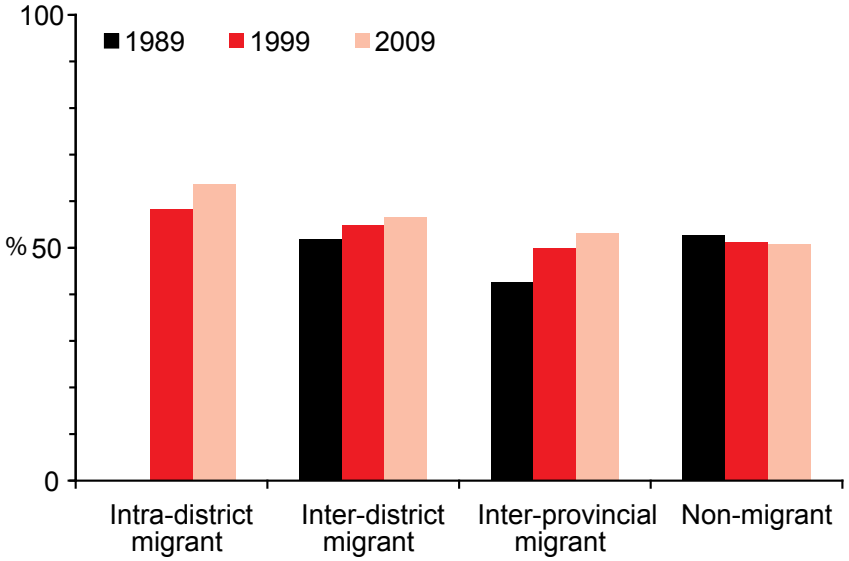
Figure 2.3: Migrant and non-migrant population, 1999-2009 and projection to 2019



Census data provide clear evidence of an emerging phenomenon in migration known as the "feminization of migration". This can be shown through two indicators. First, female migrants account for about half of the overall migrant population. Secondly, the proportion of female migrants in the migrant population has continuously increased over the last two decades. As early as 1989, females already accounted for more than half of intra-district and inter-district migrant populations in the 1984–1989 period. Females accounted for less than half of the inter-provincial migrant population in 1989 but reached half by 1999. In 2009, there were more females than males in all migrant population groups. Similar patterns were found in the 2003 SAVY, 2004 Migration Survey and 2007 Population Change Survey data (Nguyen 2009). The decline in demand for agricultural labour and greater job opportunities for women in urban areas and industrial zones were found to be the main reasons for the emergence of this phenomenon (Dang 2003; Kabeer and Tran, 2006). The opposite tendency was observed in the non-migrant population with the share of female population becoming smaller over time (see Figure 2.4).

One consistent tendency found across the three censuses was that females were more likely to migrate within the closer administrative boundaries. It was clear from Figure 2.4 that the proportion female in any of the census years was largest among the intra-district migrant population, smaller among the inter-district migrant population and smallest among the inter-provincial migrant population.

Figure 2.4: Proportion female by type of migration and year, 1989-2009



3. MIGRATION FLOWS BETWEEN URBAN AND RURAL AREAS

Migrants have contributed more significantly to urban than to rural population (Table 2.3). This result is somewhat expected given the increasing inequalities between rural and urban areas to the advantage of urban areas (Dang et al. 2007; GSO & UNFPA 2006). In total, migrants aged 5 or older contributed 3.8 million people to urban population, in other words 16% of the urban population aged 5 or older are migrants who arrived between 2004 and 2009. During the same period, migrants aged 5 or older contributed 2.7 million people to the rural population but this amounted to only 5% of the rural population aged 5 or older because of its larger size.

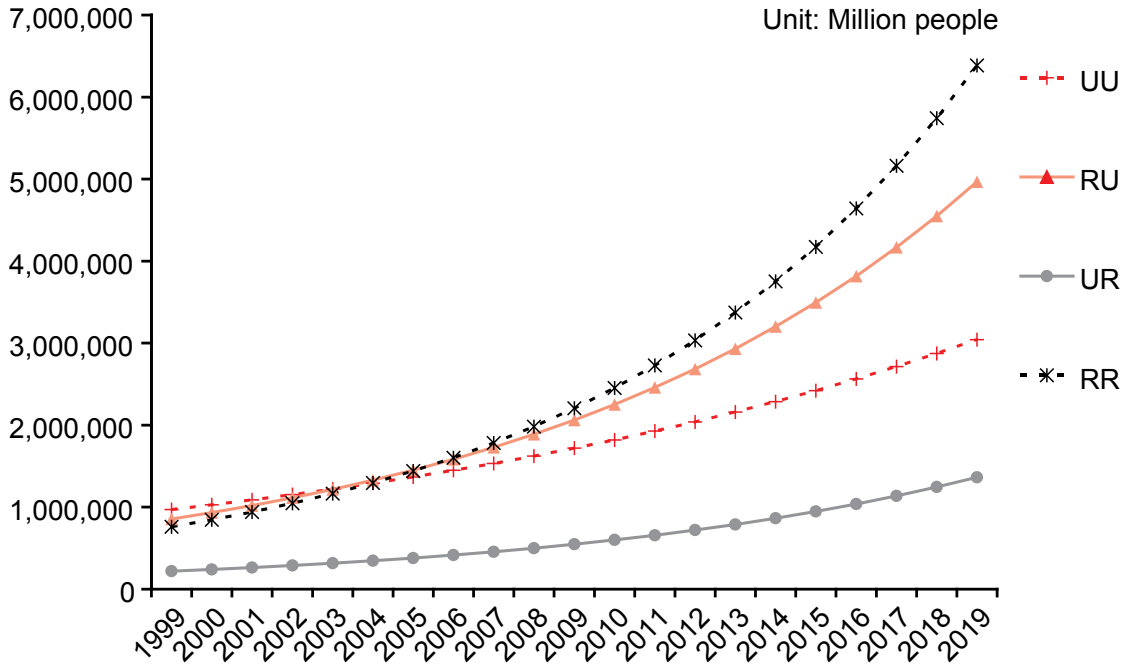
Table 2.3: Population and structure of migrant population aged 5 or older at the place of destination by type of migration flow and census year, 1999-2009

	1999		2009		Annual growth rate (%)[4]
	Population	%	Population	%	
Urban destination					
U-U migrant	971.486	8.2	1.719.056	7.4	5.9
R-U migrant	855.943	7.2	2.062.171	8.9	9.2
Urban non-migrant	10.089.625	84.7	19.413.699	83.7	6.8
Total	**11.917.055**	**100**	**23.194.927**	**100**	**6.9**
Rural destination					
U-R migrant	219.718	0.6	547.626	1.0	9.6
R-R migrant	760.939	2.2	2.204.430	4.0	11.2
Rural non-migrant	33.778.197	97.2	52.273.214	95.0	4.5
Total	**34.758.854**	**100**	**55.025.270**	**100**	**4.7**

4 This is the average annual growth rate for the 1999-2009 period.

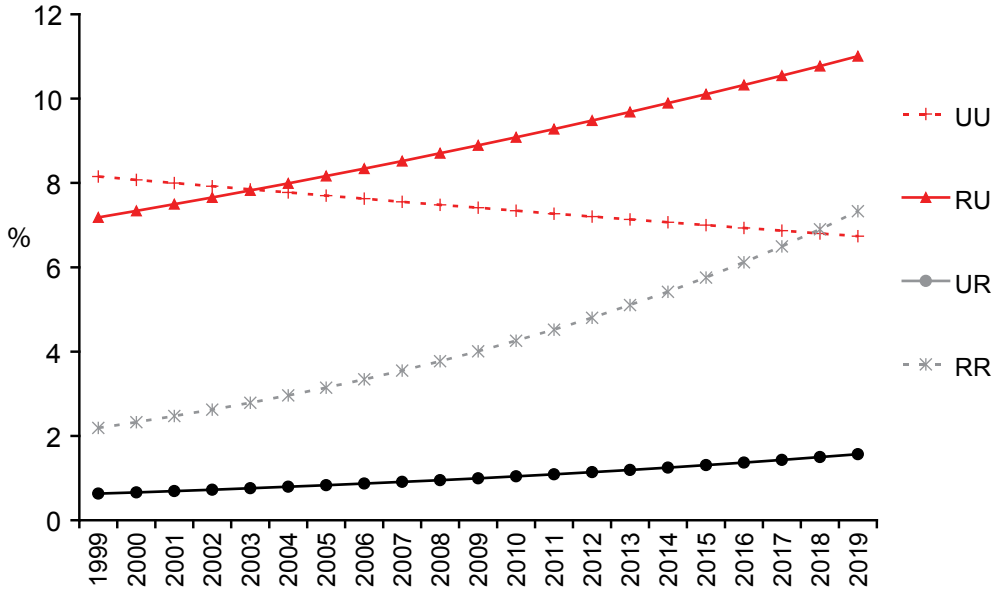
Similar simple population projection based on average annual population growth were applied to estimate migrant population by type migration flow between urban and rural areas up to 2019. The projection indicates that rural-to-rural migrants will make up the largest group in 2019 with 6.4 million people. The rural-to-urban migrant population will reach about 5 million people, much greater than the projected urban-to-rural migrant population of 1.4 million in 2019. Finally, the urban-to-urban migrant population will increase to about 3 million people by 2019 from 1.7 million people in 2009.

Figure 2.5: Migration flows between urban and rural areas, 1999-2009 and projection to 2019



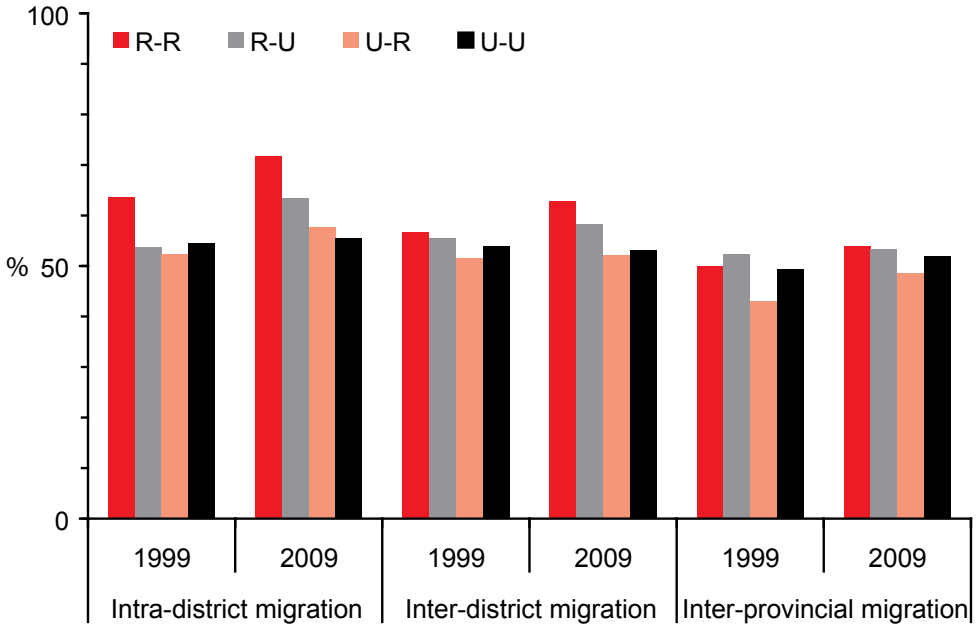
The share of all migrant groups in population in destination areas will increase over the next ten years except for urban-to-urban migrants. Rural-to-urban migration will strongly influence the urban population while rural-to-rural migrants will continue to influence the rural population. More rapid increases in the rural-to-rural and rural-to-urban migrant shares and a slower increase in the urban-to-rural migrant share of the destination area populations are expected. The projection indicates that the share of rural-to-urban migrants in the urban population will increase to 11% by 2019 from 8.9% in 2009 while the share of urban-to-urban migrants in the urban population will decrease to 6.7% by 2019 from 7.4% in 2009. In rural areas, the share of urban-to-rural migrants in rural population will slightly increase to 1.6% by 2019 from 1.0% in 2009 and the share of rural-to-rural migrants in rural population will increase to 7.3% in 2019 from 4% in 2009.

Figure 2.6: The share of migrants to destination area population by type of migration flow, 1999-2009 and projection to 2019



More and more females from rural areas are joining the migrant population. Among the four migration flows between urban and rural areas, females contributed a higher proportion in migration flows from rural areas. Female migrants accounted for the highest proportion in the rural-to-rural flow in intra-district and inter-district migrant populations and those proportions continued to increase over the last ten years.

Figure 2.7: Proportion female by type of migration and migration flow between urban and rural areas, 1999-2009



4. AGE SELECTIVITY OF MIGRATION

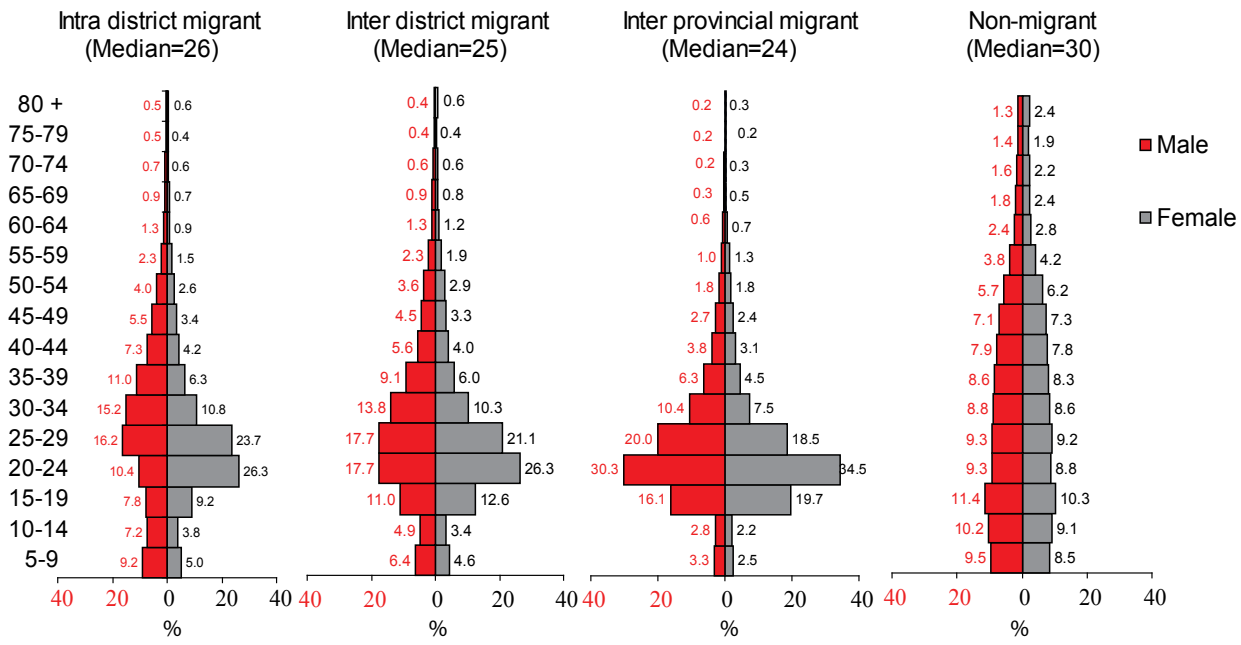
Results of Census sample data analysis provided further support to the frequently found findings that migrants tend to consist of young population groups (Guest 1998; Dang et al. 2003; GSO 2005; GSO & UNFPA 2006; UNFPA 2007; Nguyen 2009). Figure 2.8 presents population pyramids of migrant and non-migrant populations using the 2009 Census sample data. It is very clear from the shapes of those population pyramids that while the non-migrant population had an aged population structure, migrants of all types had a very young population structure with a very high concentration of people around the ages 15 to 29. Results of the 2009 Census showed that the median age of the non-migrant population in 2009 was 30 years of age, i.e. half of the non-migrant population was 30 years old or younger; the median age of the migrant population was about 5 years younger or around 25 years of age.

The population pyramids of the migrant population indicate that the higher the level of administrative boundary the younger the migrant. It was found in the 2009 Census that intra-district migrants were relatively older than the other groups of migrants with a median age of 26 years; inter-district migrants were younger with a median age of 25 years and inter-provincial migrants were youngest with a median age of 24 years.

The population pyramids of the migrant population also revealed an interesting finding that females contributed more than males to the migrant population in the high migration groups between 15 to 29 years of age. Those results indicate the need to pay greater attention to issues for young females, such as reproductive health, when considering the migrant population.

Figure 2.8: Population pyramids of different types of migrants and non-migrants, 2009

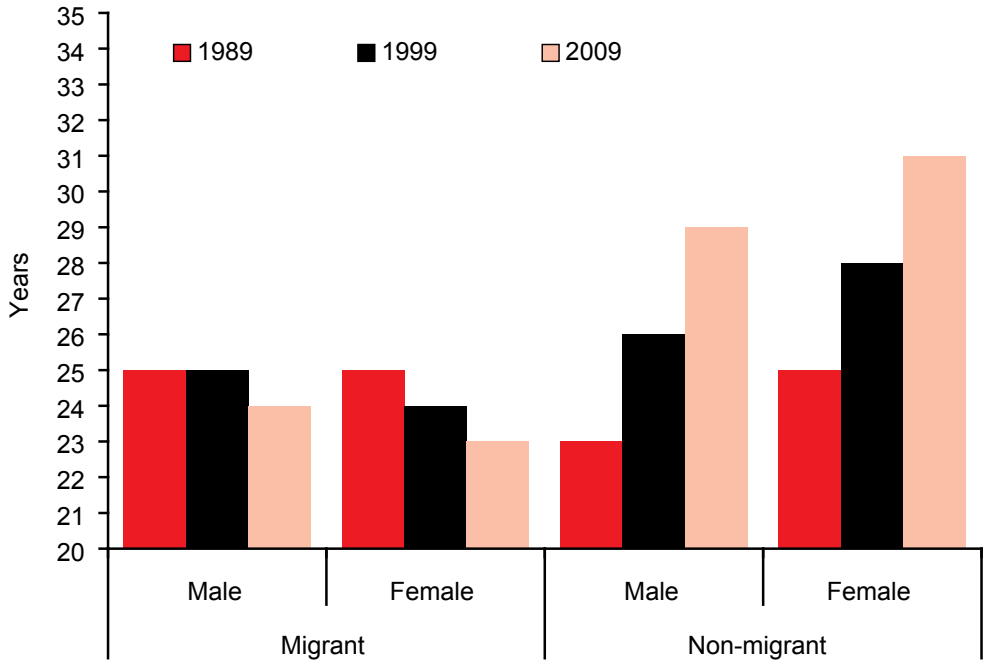
Unit: percent



In the 1989–2009 period, the population of non-migrants was aging (mean age was increasing) quickly over time, while inter-provincial migrants were getting younger (mean age was declining). These patterns were not apparent for other migrant groups (see Figure 2.9). The opposite trends in aging between inter-provincial migrant and non-migrant populations are likely to intensify socio-economic impacts on such areas as marriage and labour markets. Increasing concern regarding the ability to find a marriage partner is being seen among young men in rural areas where out-migration is increasing as more and more women leave the village and especially as these women are leaving at younger and younger ages.

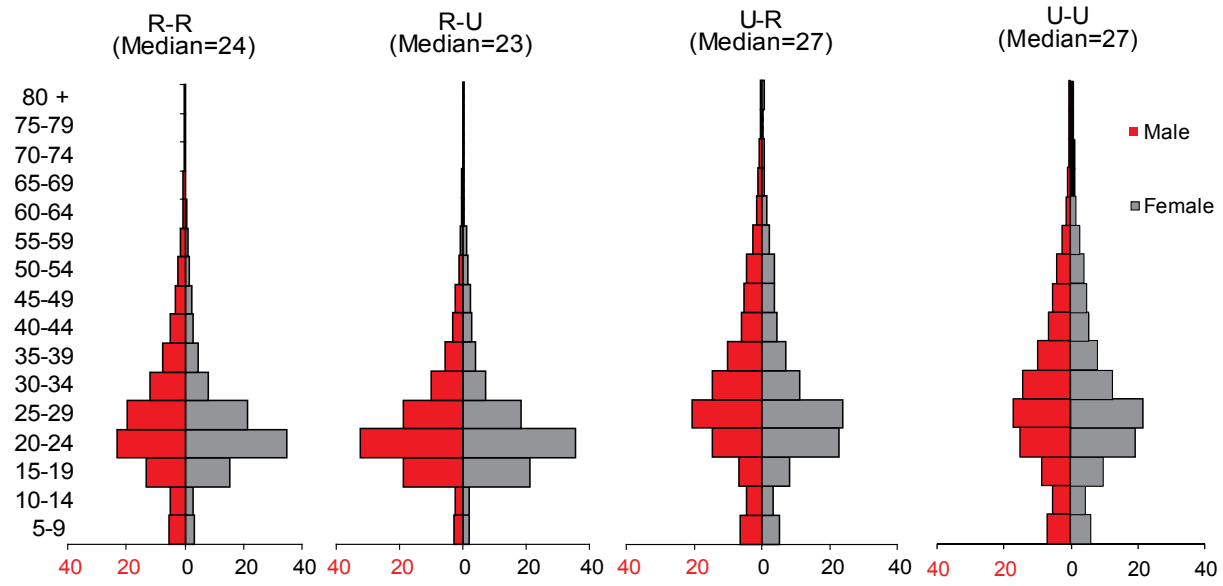
It was interesting to find that females tend to be older than males among the non-migrant population while females tend to be younger than males in migrant populations (see Figure 2.9). This result was found in all groups of migrants and in all three censuses.

Figure 2.9: Median age by gender and type of migration, 1989-2009



Rural origin migrants were much younger than urban origin migrants. The shapes of population pyramids in Figure 2.10 clearly showed young population structures of rural-to-urban and rural-to-rural migrants and older population structures of urban-to-rural and urban-to-urban migrants. Rural-to-urban migrants were youngest with median age of 23 years. Rural-to-rural migrants were just a bit older with a median age of 24 years. Migrants from urban places of origin were about 3 to 4 years older with median age of 27 years. It is likely that results were influenced by the younger population structure in rural areas compared to urban areas: the median age of non-migrants in rural areas was 28 years which was much younger than the median age of non-migrants in urban areas (32 years).

Figure 2.10: Population pyramids for migrants by type of migration flow between urban and rural areas, 2009



5. REGIONAL VARIATION IN MIGRATION

Vietnam faces considerable socio-economic disparities across regions. Disparities were found not only between rural and urban areas of the country but also between regions and provinces. These disparities have long historical and cultural roots. Diversity in natural conditions, natural resources, and cultures have created distinctive characteristics of each region. New socio-economic development policies of Vietnam such as the focal region economic development policies and different levels of economic investment in different regions or provinces also contribute to these disparities. In general, the southern part of the country is more economically developed and has been more attractive to migrants. The very economically dynamic cities such as the five central city-provinces[5] also attract more migrants.

Regional variation

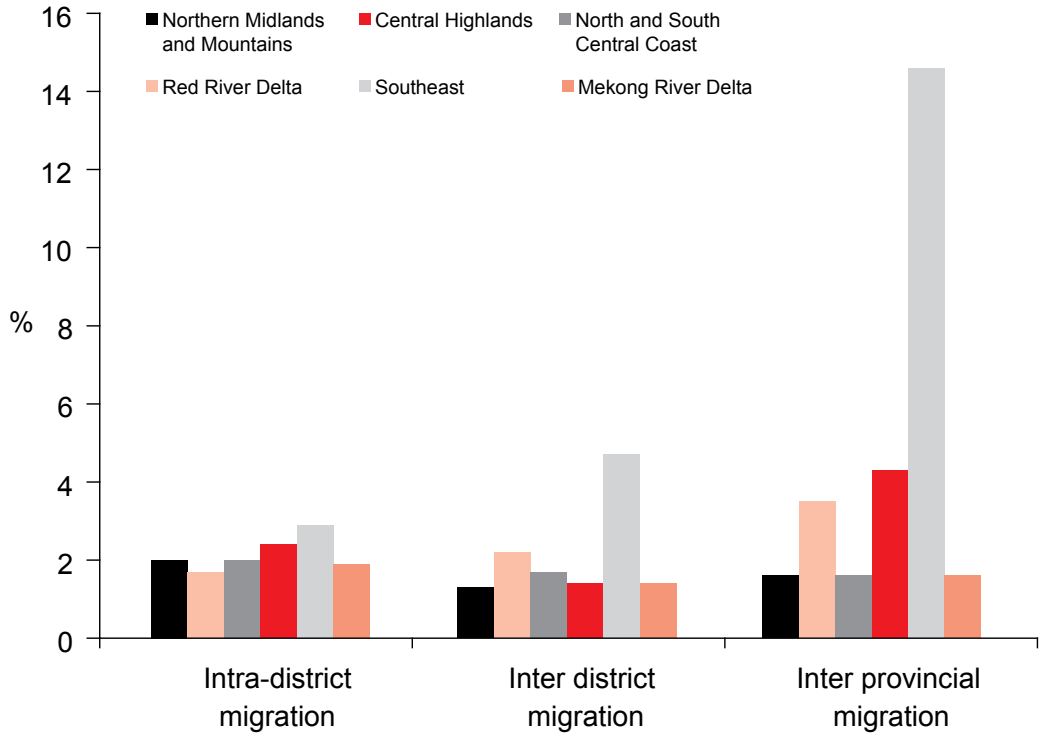
As expected, great regional variations in migration were found. The migrant population as a proportion of the total population varies substantially across regions and types of migrant. The 2009 Census data indicated that migrants accounted for the highest proportion of the population in the Southeast, especially inter-provincial migrants. The inter-provincial migrant population accounted for more than 14% of the total population of the Southeast region in 2009 while this proportion was smaller than 5% in all other regions. This finding was expected since four out of six provinces of the Southeast region (including Binh Duong, Dong Nai, Ba Ria-Vung Tau and Ho Chi Minh City) are well-

5 Hanoi, Ho Chi Minh City, Hai Phong, Can Tho and Hue are the 5 city-provinces, municipalities that are administratively equivalent to provinces.

known for the high concentration of industrial parks and economic development in general, with high demand for labour that is generally not satisfied by the local labour force (see Figure 2.11).

In addition to the Southeast, the Central Highlands and the Red River Delta had a relative greater inter-provincial migrant share of the population than the other regions. Although the Central Highlands region was no longer a destination place under the new economic zone development program in 2009, its great potential for economic development and the momentum or consequences of migration under the past new economic zone development programs continued to make it an attractive destination place for migrants. The attractiveness of the Red River Delta to migrants was also not unexpected as this region contains the important Northeast economic zone and major economically developed cities in the north, i.e. Hanoi and Hai Phong.

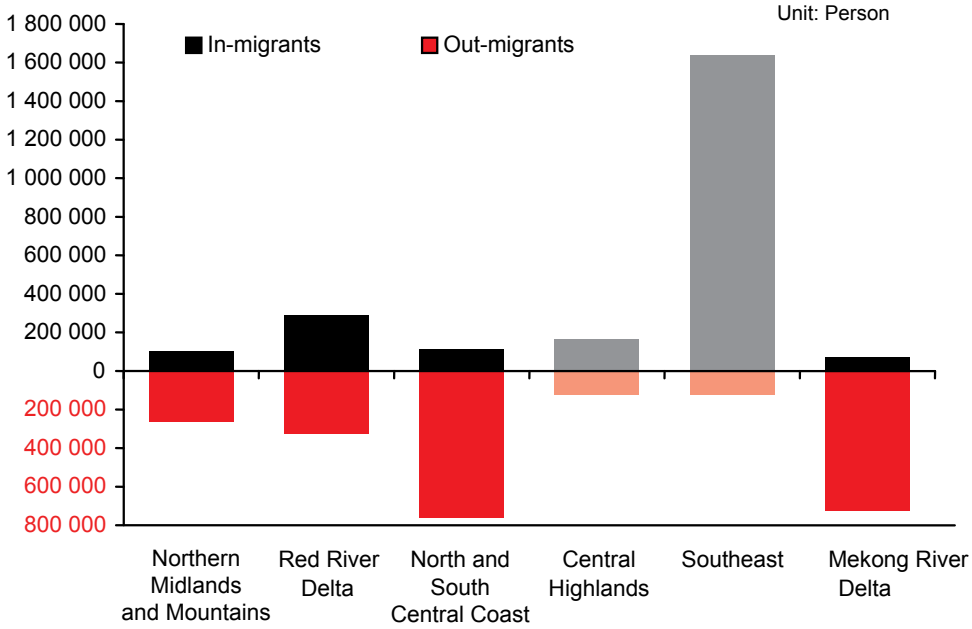
Figure 2.11: Migrant proportion of population by administrative region, 2009



In absolute terms, the Southeast received the largest number of in-migrants with more than 1.6 million in 2009. Although a lower proportion of the population in the Red River Delta were in-migrants compared to the Central Highlands, there was a larger number of in-migrants in absolute terms (about 290 000 in 2009) in the Red River Delta because of its larger population size.

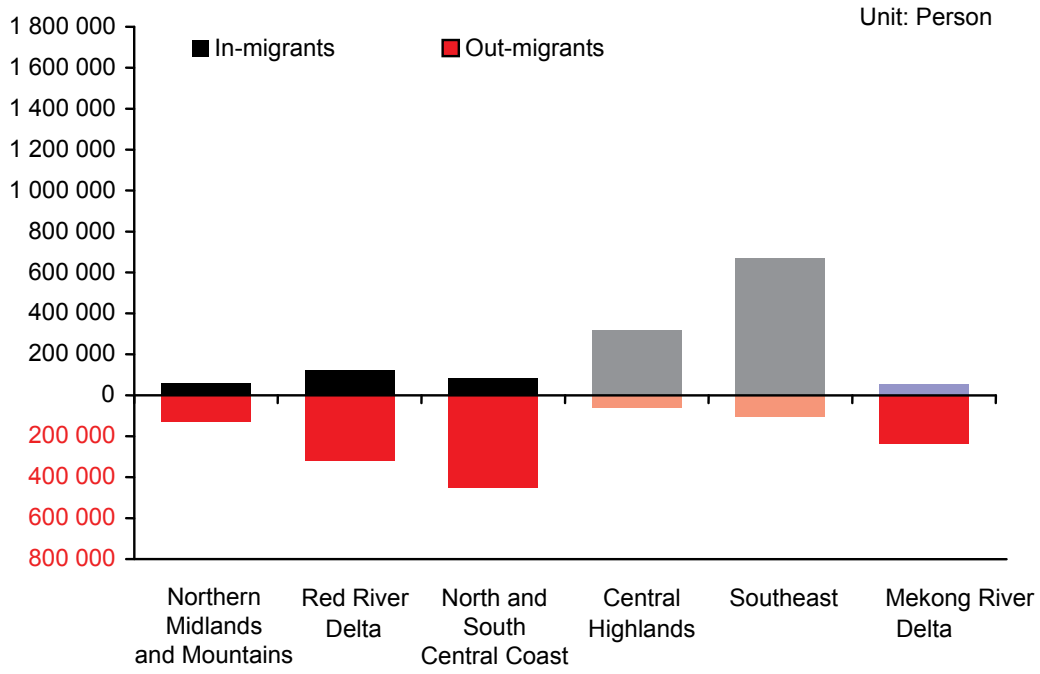
Estimates of in-migrant, out-migrant and net-migrant populations in the five years prior to the 2009 Census (see Figure 2.12) indicate that the Southeast and the Central Highlands were regions that "gained" people through migration while the other regions "lost" people through the same migration process. Although the Red River Delta region has a high proportion of in-migrants in its population, this was also a major place of origin of migrants and the number of out-migrants exceeded the number of in-migrants in this region. The Central Coast and Mekong River Delta regions had the largest numbers of out-migrants.

Figure 2.12: In-migrant, out-migrant, and net-migrant populations in the five years preceding the 2009 Census for inter-provincial migration by region



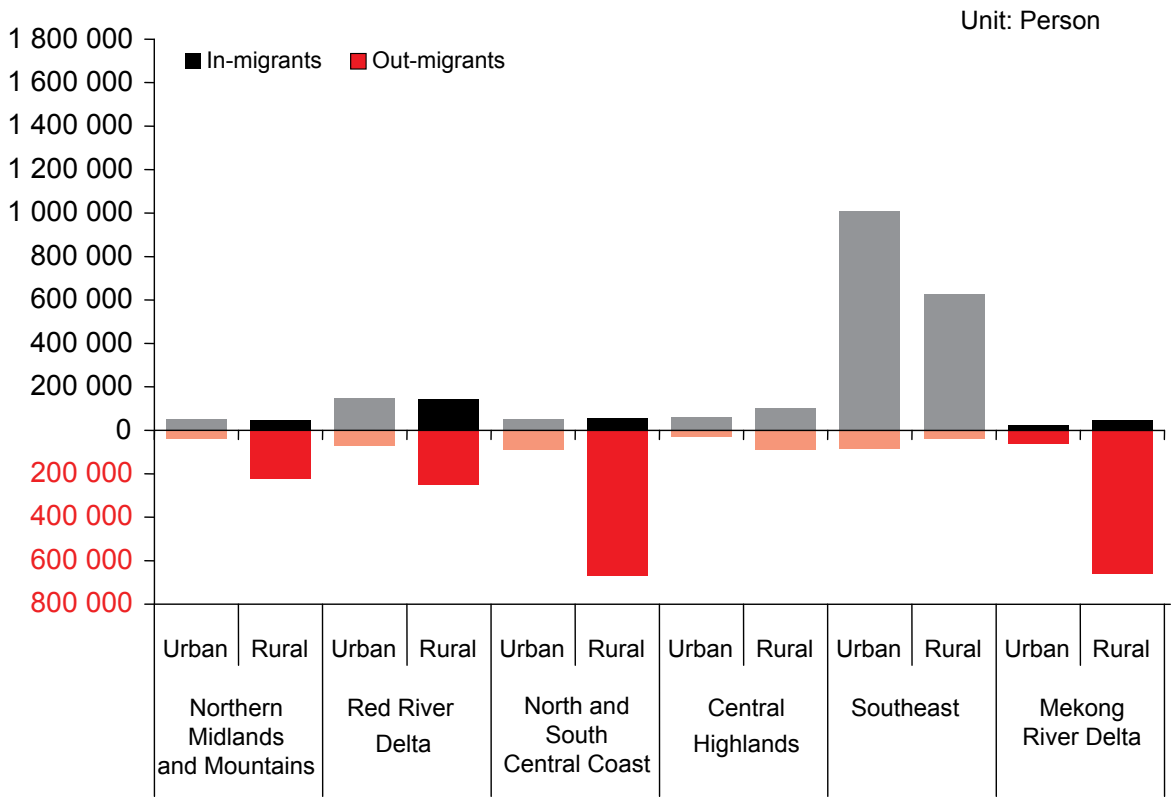
The picture of regional migration in 2009 was similar to the picture in 1999 with regard to patterns but it was very different from the picture in 1999 (Figure 2.13) with regard to the volume of migration. The Central Highlands and the Southeast were net migrant receiving regions in 1994–1999 and they were still net migrant receiving regions in 2004–2009 while the other regions remained net migrant sending regions. Although the Central Highlands still gained population through migration, it lost its attractiveness as the number of in-migrants decreased rapidly, while the out-migrant population increased slightly. The number of in-migrants to the Southeast continued to exceed the number of out-migrants and the gap increased rapidly as the in-migrant population from 2004–2009 increased more than 2.5 times compared to the period 1994–1999, while the out-migrant population remained about constant over the same period. At a smaller scale, the Red River Delta region also attracted more in-migrants while the out-migrant population remained constant over the last ten years. In contrast, the out-migrant population from the Mekong River Delta and Central Coast regions increased rapidly while the in-migrant population to those regions experienced little change.

Figure 2.13: In-migrant, out-migrant, and net-migrant populations in the five years preceding the 1999 Census for inter-provincial migration by region



A large regional variation in migration between urban and rural areas was also found (Figure 2.14). The Mekong River Delta and Central Coast regions 'lost' population through migration in both rural and urban areas but their rural areas lost substantially more people than urban areas. In contrast, the Central Highlands and the Southeast regions 'gained' population through migration in both rural and urban areas and the Southeast region 'gained' considerably more people in urban areas than in rural areas. However, in the urban areas of the Northern Uplands, the pattern of migration reversed, from a net migrant sending area in 1999 the urban Northern Uplands became a net migrant receiving region in 2009. Clearly, migration was having stronger impact on urbanization in some regions of the country than others.

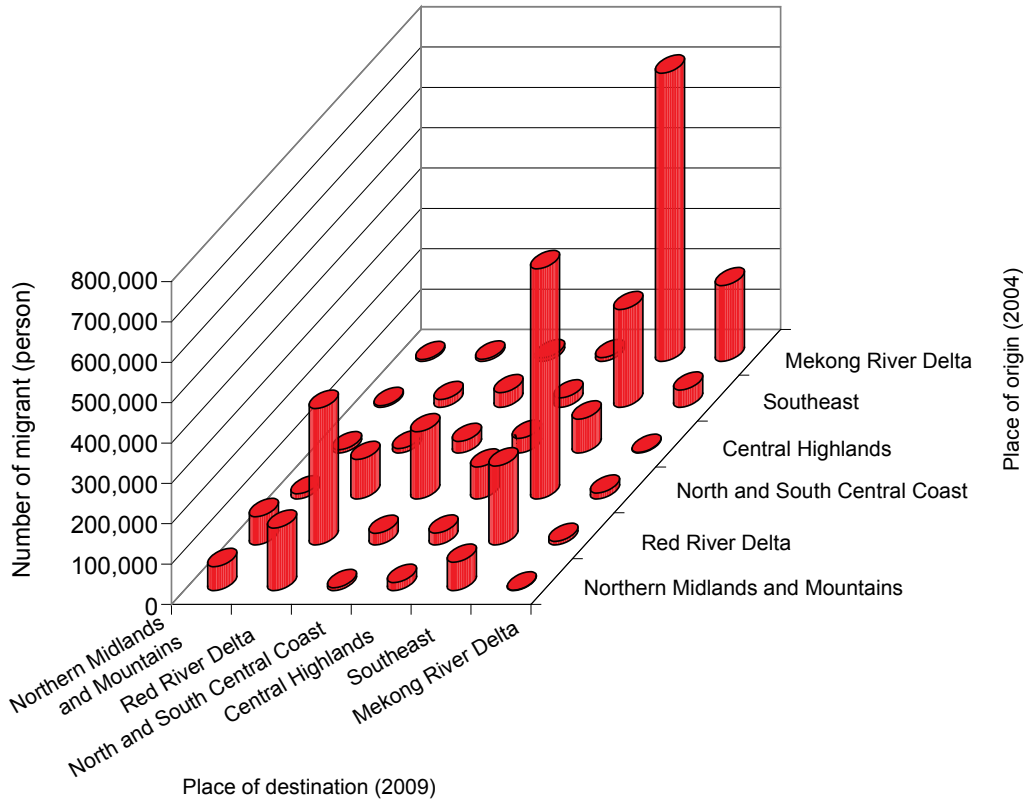
Figure 2.14: In-migrant, out-migrant, and net-migrant population over the five years preceding the 2009 Census for inter-provincial migration by urban/rural place of residence and region



Very dynamic economic development has made the Southeast region an exceptional destination location for migrants. The Southeast region received 1.6 million migrants from other regions, far higher than the number of migrants from other regions to the Red River Delta region which took the second position with about 290 000 migrants from other regions; the Central Highlands ranked third with 161 000 migrants from other regions; the Central Coast received 110 000 migrants from other regions; the Northern Uplands received 100 000 migrants from other regions; and the Mekong River Delta received about 70 000 migrants from other regions (Figure 2.15).

The largest regional migration flow was from the Mekong River Delta to the Southeast with more than 714 000 people. The second largest flow was from the Central Coast to the Southeast with more than 570 000 people. The third largest flow was movement to the Southeast from the Red River Delta with more than 195 000 people. The largest flow of migration to the Red River Delta came from the Northern Uplands with 155 000 people followed by migration from the Central Coast with 98 000 people.

Figure 2.15: Number of inter-provincial migrants by region of origin in 2004 and region of destination in 2009

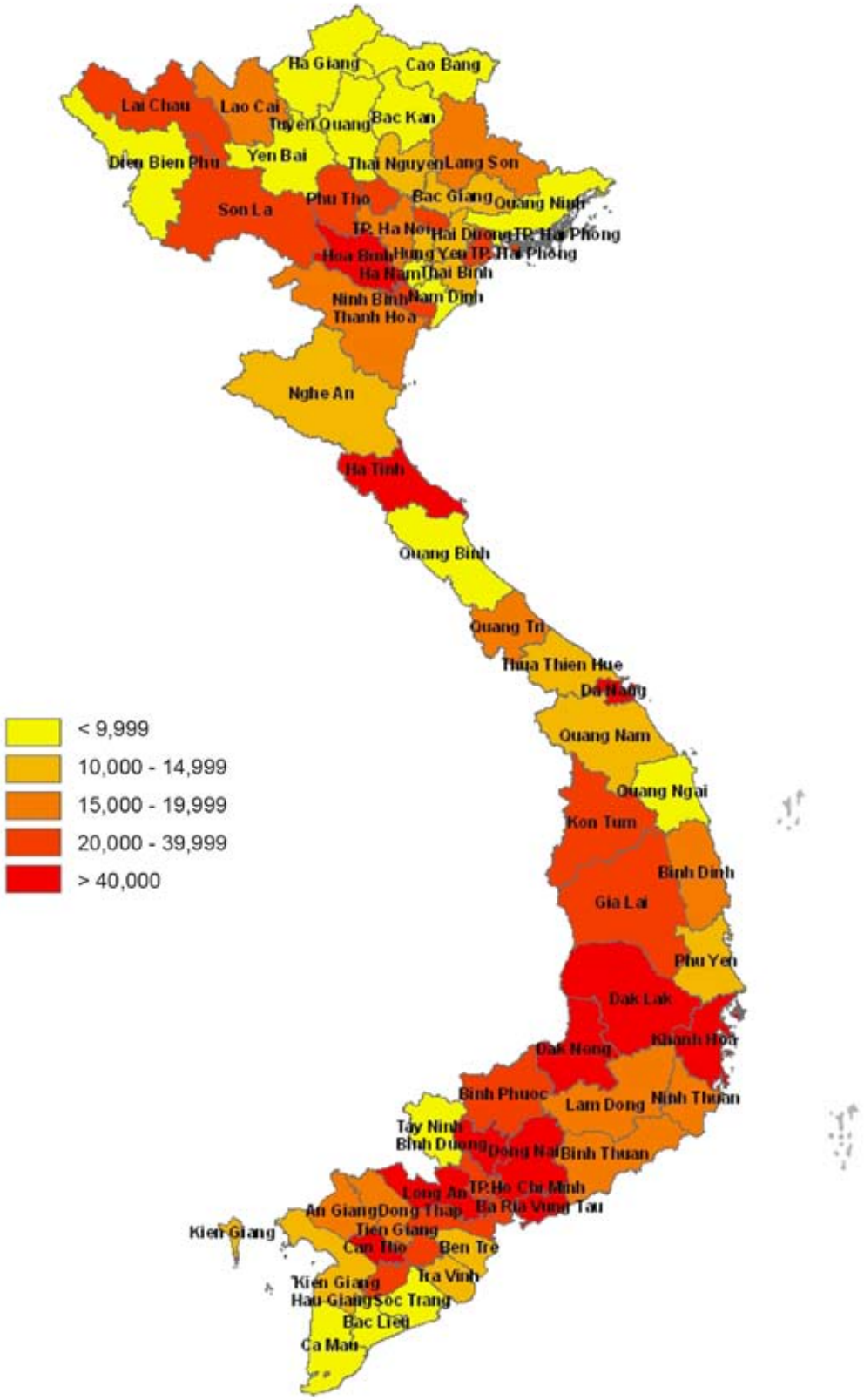


In general it was found that the southern regions of the country continued to attract more migrants than the northern regions. The major region of destination was the Southeast. The major regions of origin were the Mekong River Delta region and the Central Coast; in addition, the Northern Uplands was also a region of origin for migrants but the flow of migration from this region was much smaller than from the two main regions of origin. The Red River Delta and the Central Highlands were both important origin and destination regions for migrants.

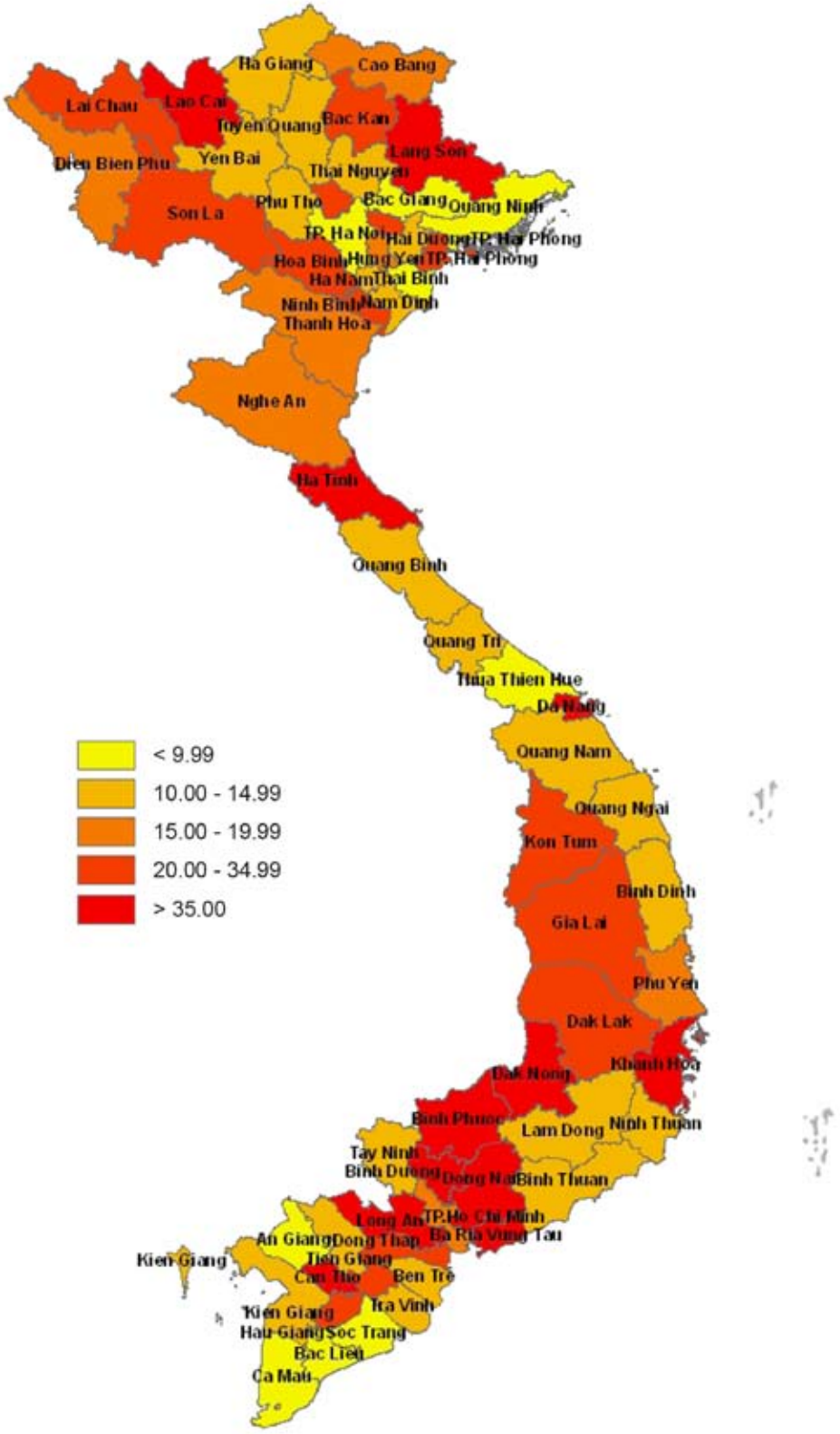
Provincial variation

Large variation in migration is observed across provinces. Map 2.1 visually presents variation in the number of in-migrants by province and Map 2.2 presents variation in the proportion in-migrant in the population by province during 2004–2009. Map 2.3 presents variation in the number of out-migrants by province and Map 2.4 presents variation in the proportion out-migrant in the population by province during 2004–2009.

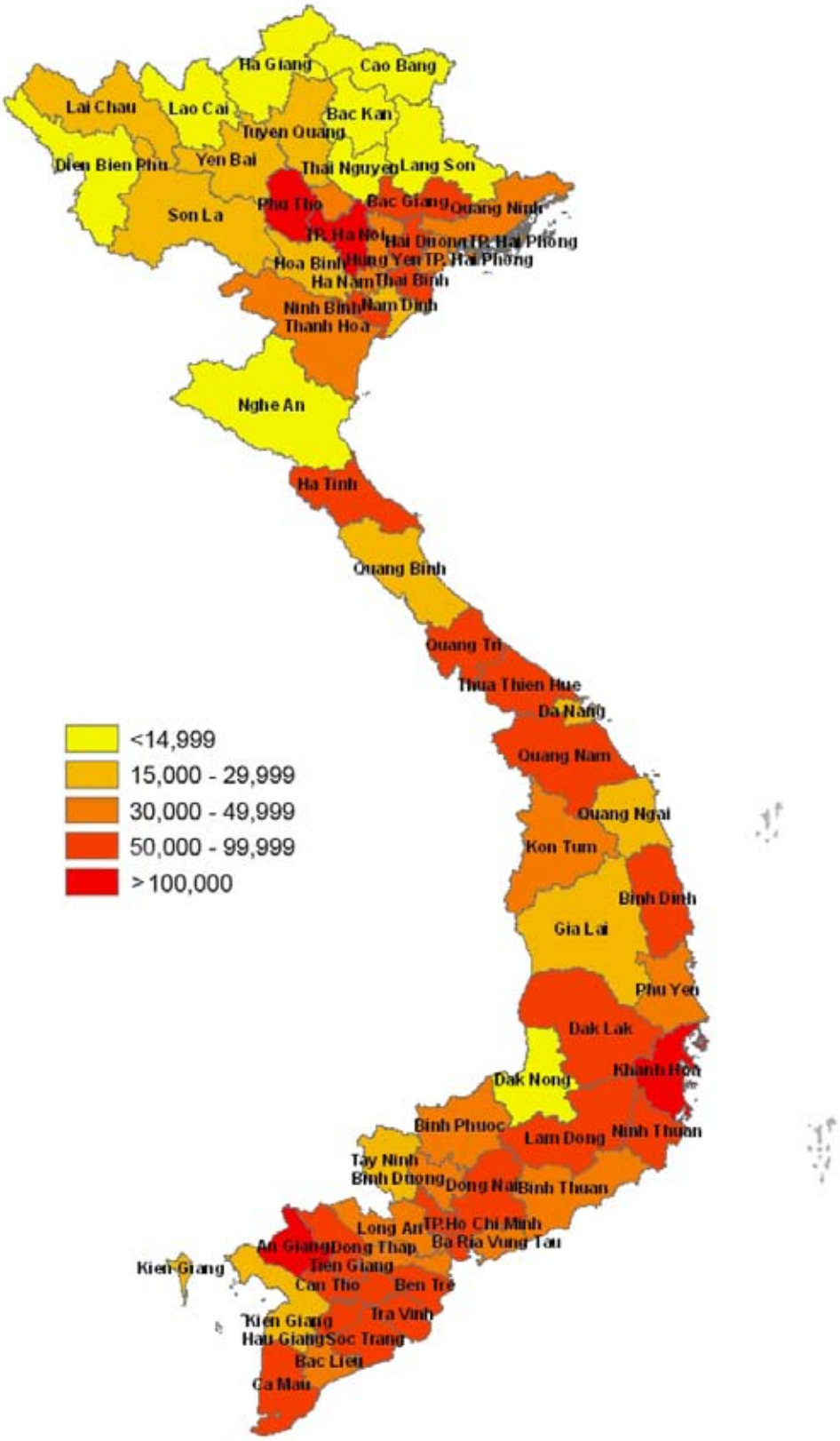
Map 2.1: Variation in the number of in-migrants by province, 2004–2009



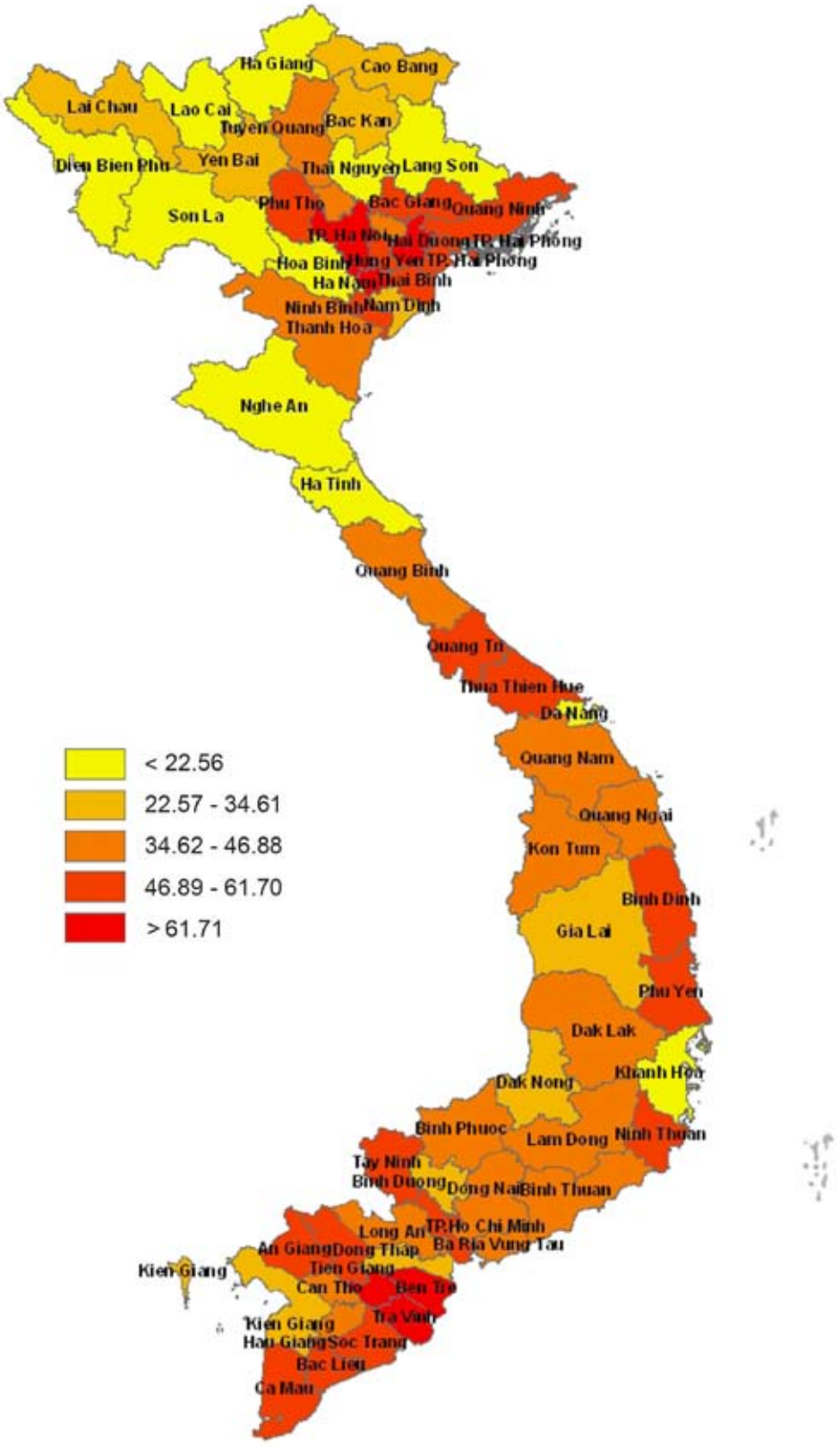
Map 2.2: Variation in the proportion in-migrant in the population by province, 2004–2009



Map 2.3: Variation in the number of out-migrants by province, 2004–2009



Map 2.4: Variation in the proportion out-migrant in the population by province, 2004–2009



Net-migration was estimated by taking the number of in-migrants in the 5 years prior to the census minus the number of out-migrants in the same period. The ten provinces with the lowest net migration are presented on the left side and the ten provinces with the highest net migration are presented on the right side of Table 2.4. Thanh Hoa and Nghe An are major provinces of origin. All provinces on the left 'lost' people in both rural and urban areas through migration except for Nghe An which had a net loss of population in rural areas but a net gain in urban areas.

Some provinces on the right, namely Quang Ninh, Ba Ria-Vung Tau, Hai Phong and Da Nang had net losses of population in rural areas but net gains in urban areas. Ho Chi Minh City had an exceptionally large number of migrants in urban areas with almost 780 000 people. In addition, Dong Nai, Ha Noi, and Binh Duong also had a very high number of migrants coming to both rural and urban areas.

Table 2.4: Provinces with the smallest and largest number of net inter-provincial migrants, 2009

Unit: people

Province	Urban	Rural	Total
Thanh Hoa	-6,172	-192,107	-198,279
Nghe An	6,361	-124,215	-117,854
An Giang	-2,920	-85,476	-88,396
Thai Binh	-4,101	-77,253	-81,354
Nam Dinh	242	-78,621	-78,379
Ben Tre	-5,718	-70,715	-76,433
Ha Tinh	-1,269	-68,954	-70,222
Dong Thap	-863	-66,534	-67,397
Tien Giang	-2,327	-61,599	-63,926
Ca Mau	-4,045	-56,411	-60,456

Province	Urban	Rural	Total
Quang Ninh	16,696	-4,906	11,791
Gia Lai	4,453	8,249	12,702
Ba Ria-Vung Tau	21,347	-664	20,683
Hai Phong	26,451	-2,580	23,872
Dak-Nong	6,270	22,511	28,780
Da Nang	66,672	-3,575	63,097
Dong Nai	78,680	72,370	151,050
Ha Noi	156,983	135,443	292,426
Binh Duong	99,438	366,632	466,070
Ho Chi Minh City	778,113	127,218	905,331

Substantial variation in the migrant share of the population was found (Table 2.5). In Thanh Hoa, migrants accounted for 0.6% of the population living in the province in 2009. In many other provinces, e.g. Ca Mau, Bac Giang, Thai Binh, Quang Ngai, Bac Lieu, An Giang and Soc Trang, less than 1% of the population consisted of inter-provincial migrants. On the opposite end, many provinces had inter-provincial migrants accounting for more than 5% of the population. Da Nang, Dong Nai and Ho Chi Minh City had migrants accounting for more than 10% of their population. Binh Duong was a very special case with more than a third of its population consisting of inter-provincial migrants. The fact that most of the locations with the highest migrant proportion of the population were major cities suggests an important role of migration in urbanization.

Table 2.5: Provinces with the smallest and largest inter-provincial migrant proportion of the population, 2009

Province	(%)	Urban	Rural
Thanh Hoa	0.6	-6,172	-192,107
Ca Mau	0.7	-4,045	-56,411
Bac Giang	0.8	-921	-57,217
Thai Binh	0.8	-4,101	-77,253
Quang Ngai	0.8	-2,934	-51,511
Bac Lieu	0.8	-1,089	-34,326
An Giang	0.9	-2,920	-85,476
Soc Trang	0.9	-840	-53,202
Quang Binh	1	-1,894	-33,950
Phu Yen	1	-271	-21,184

Province	(%)	Urban	Rural
Lai Chau	4.9	7,669	3,388
Lam Dong	4.9	15,980	-7,021
Can Tho	5.1	32,625	-28,382
Ba Ria - Vung Tau	6.3	21,347	-664
Ha Noi	6.6	156,983	135,443
Dak Nong	9.4	6,270	22,511
Da Nang	10.1	66,672	-3,575
Dong Nai	10.4	78,680	72,370
HCM City	15.7	778,113	127,218
Binh Duong	36.6	99,438	366,632

Note: Highlighted provinces were also the ones with largest number of net migrants

6. MIGRANT LABOUR AND LIVING STANDARDS

Migrant labour

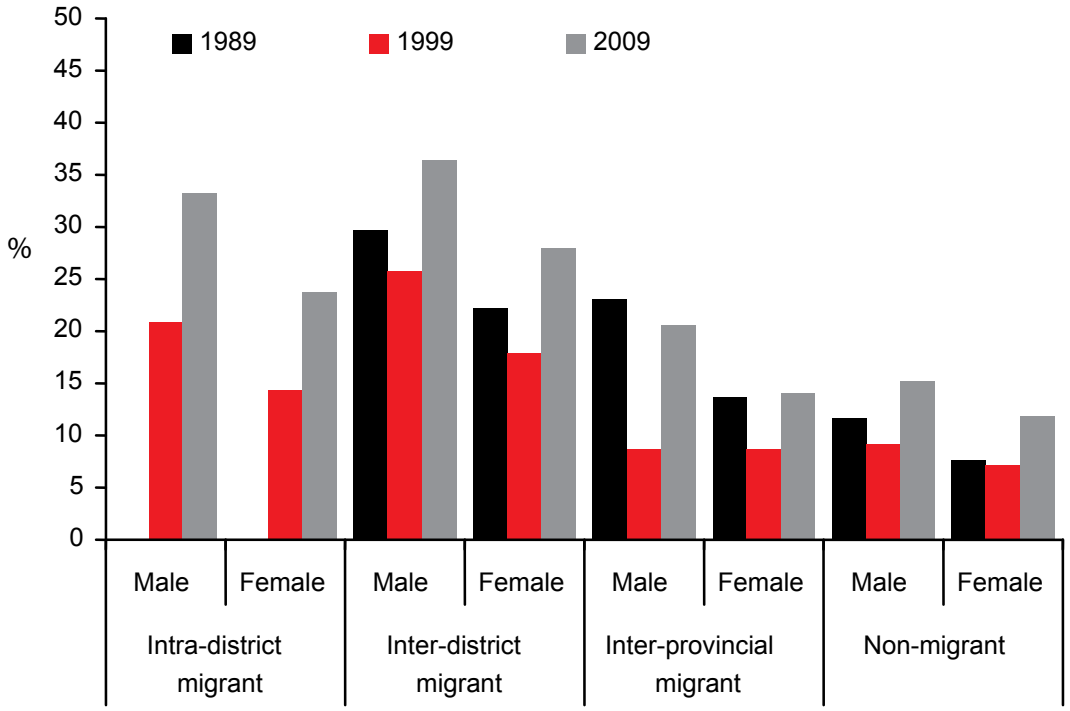
Census data revealed that migrants in working ages (15 to 55) had a higher likelihood of ever having received training, i.e. a greater proportion of people had ever received some training, than non-migrants of the same age group (see Figure 2.16). This finding contributes further evidence to support the common hypothesis that migrants usually have more social capital than non-migrants because social capital is what enables certain people to move (UNFPA 2007). This result implies that migrant receiving areas will benefit as they gain trained workers through in-migration and migrant sending areas will lose out as they lose trained workers through out-migration.

Inter-district migrants had a higher likelihood of ever having received training than intra-district migrants. On the other hand, inter-provincial migrants had a lower likelihood of having ever received training than both inter- and intra-district migrants.

Both migrant and non-migrant populations shared some common features related to training. First, the likelihood of ever having received training decreased between 1989 and 1999 but then increased substantially over the 1999 to 2009 period. Secondly, males had a higher likelihood of having received training than females.

6 According to the current Labour Code, working age of male workers is between 15 and 60 and working age of female workers is between 15 and 55. Analysis in this monograph used the age group 15 to 55 for working age of both male and female workers.

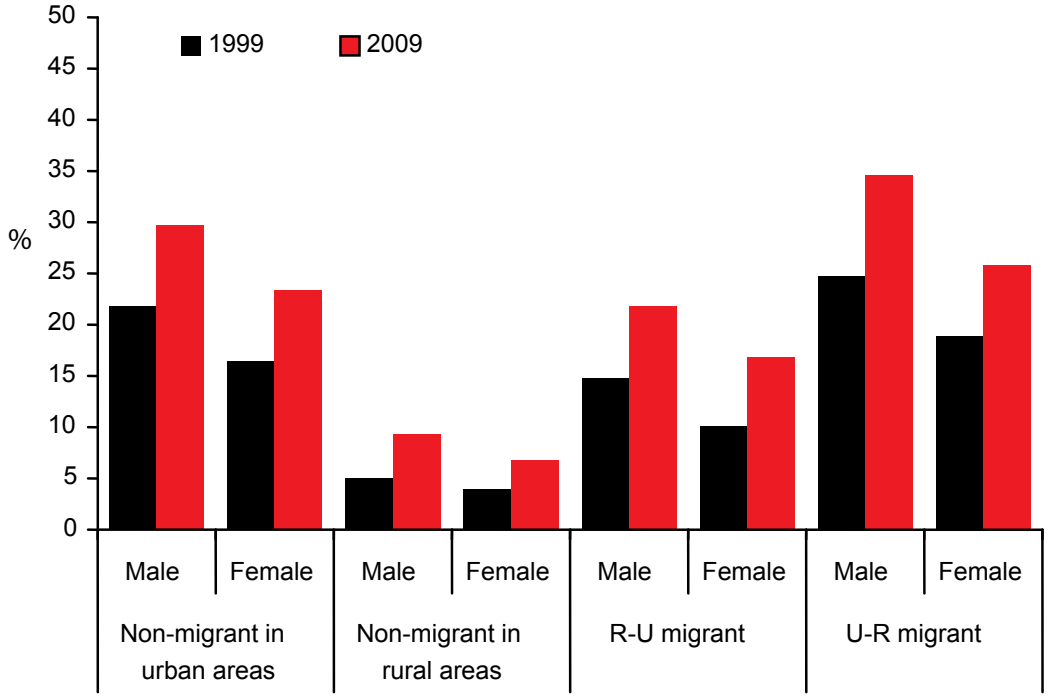
Figure 2.16: Proportion of workers aged 15–55 who have ever received training, 1989-2009



Census data also revealed that rural-to-urban migrants had a lower likelihood of having ever received training than urban-to-rural migrants (Figure 2.17). This finding was expected given the greater availability of training institutions in urban areas. It was also reasonable for the same reason to find that non-migrants in urban areas had a considerably higher likelihood of having ever received training than non-migrants in rural areas.

Rural areas lost trained workers through rural-to-urban migration and gained trained workers through urban-to-rural migration since the likelihood of having some training among rural-to-urban migrants was higher than among non-migrants in rural areas and the likelihood of having some training among urban-to-rural migrants was higher than among non-migrants in rural areas. Similarly, urban areas also lost trained workers through urban-to-rural migration. It is hard to say whether urban or rural areas gained more from migration between urban and rural areas. On one hand, urban areas did not gain as much from rural-to-urban migration as rural areas gained from urban-to-rural migration since rural-to-urban migrants had lower likelihood of having some training than the non-migrants in urban areas. On the other hand, urban areas gained more because the number of rural-to-urban migrants was far greater than the number of urban-to-rural migrants. Moreover, urban areas may still have gained a lot from rural-to-urban migrants as this population provides labour to meet the high demand for manual or low-skilled labour in urban areas.

Figure 2.17: Proportion of trained labour aged 15–55 by migration flow, 1999-2009



Migration and living standards

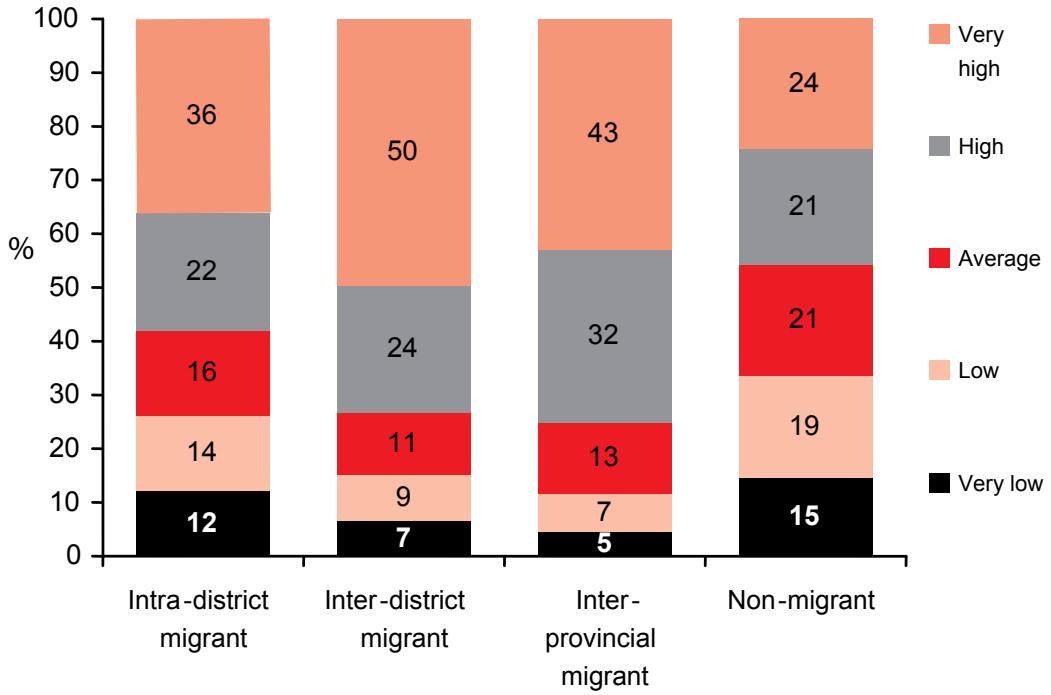
Since the Census sample data did not have information regarding income and labour force participation, a direct measure of household living standards is not available. However, the Census sample data included much information reflecting living standards of households. A household living standards measure was constructed using a classification developed by Guilmoto. The household living standards score was constructed using principal components analysis based on information regarding ownership of seven different assets (TV, telephone, computer, washing machine, refrigerator, air conditioner, motorbike), four types of amenities (type of lighting, type of cooking fuel, source of drinking water, type of toilet), housing construction materials (walls and roofing), as well as the nature of the dwelling. Household living standards were classified into five quintiles: very high, high, average, low, very low. It should be noted that the living standards measure is a composite indicator; it not only reflects living conditions but also economic conditions of the household. It should also be noted that identification of low or high living standards of households in this report is determined through the five quintiles in relative terms compared to other households in the population, and not through other means of identification, for example, identification of the poor in relation to the poverty threshold by the Ministry of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs.

In general, it was found that migrants had higher living standards than non-migrants: the proportion of migrants having very high living standards was substantially higher than that of non-migrants while the opposite situation was found when looking at the share of population with very low living

7 See Appendix 5 of the monograph by Christophe Z. Guilmoto on Sex Ratio at Birth for more details. Guilmoto named this variable socioeconomic status (SES).

standards (Figure 2.18). Again, this finding supported the argument that migrants had greater social capital than non-migrants. Similar to the finding related to quality of workers, this implies that migrant receiving areas have more advantages and migrant sending areas tend to have more disadvantages. This situation provides more evidence for the relationship between migration and increased inequality as has already been found in other studies (Nguyen 2009).

Figure 2.18: Household living standards of migrant and non-migrant populations in 2009

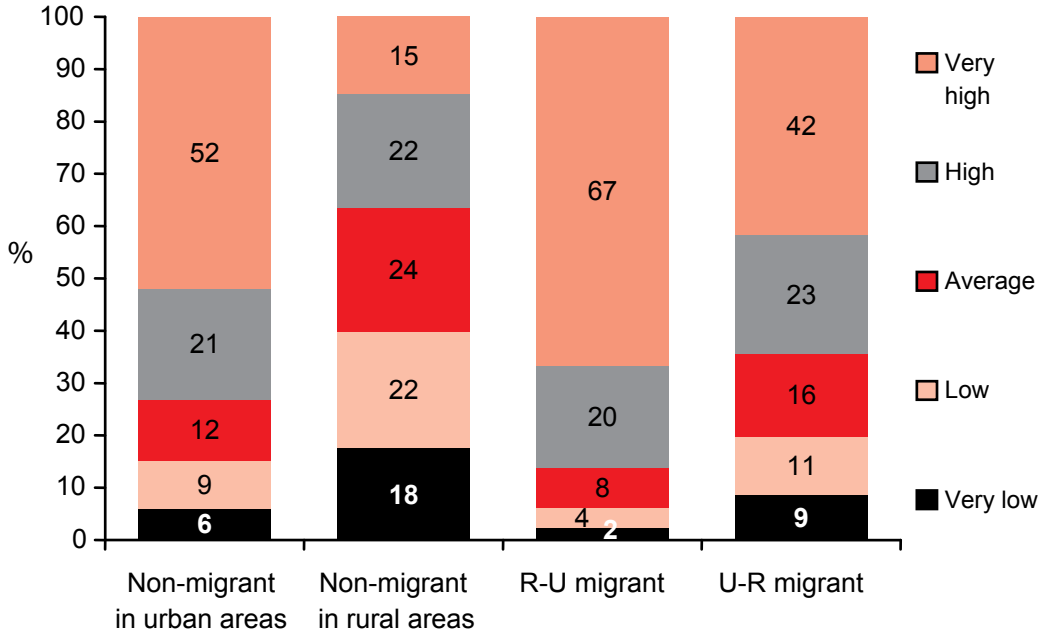


Comparison of living standards between rural and urban areas clearly showed that rural residents had much lower living standards than urban residents. Figure 2.19 showed that while 6% of non-migrants in urban areas had very low living standards, 18% of non-migrants in rural areas did; in contrast, while more than half of non-migrants in urban areas had very high living standards, only 15% of the non-migrants in rural areas did. The question that arises is how rural-to-urban and urban-to-rural migration changes this picture.

It was interesting to find that rural-to-urban migrants had higher living standards than not only non-migrants in rural areas but also non-migrants in urban areas as their population share in the 'very high' living standards group was highest with more than two-thirds (67%) belonging to the very high living standards category compared to only 42% for urban-to-rural migrants, 52% for urban non-migrants, and 15% for rural non-migrants. The result suggests that while rural-to-urban migration may lead to improved living standards of migrants, it should not be used as a means to achieve the first goal of the MDGs, i.e. eradicate extreme poverty and hunger; in fact, rural-to-urban migration could lead to greater inequality between the sending and receiving areas. The more prosperous urban areas may gain more while the poorer rural areas may lose through this rural-to-urban migration as rural-to-urban migrants tend to come from wealthier households.

Living standards of urban-to-rural migrants were lower than living standards of non-migrants in urban areas but higher than those of non-migrants in rural areas. Thus, urban-to-rural migration may benefit both urban and rural areas and reduce the economic gap between these areas.

Figure 2.19: Household living standards by migration flow between urban and rural areas, 2009



It should be noted that findings in this monograph come from the limited information available from Census data. The impact of migration on rural and urban areas in reality is much more complicated and its assessment required much richer data than are available in the Census. Other information needed for a more comprehensive analysis includes data on financial and in-kind resources that households invest in migrants moving to urban areas, remittances in cash and in kind that migrants send from cities to their families and relatives in rural areas, monetary and non-monetary support that migrants provide to other members of the household to enable their migration for studying or working, the level of contribution of those transfers to rural and urban areas, etc. Moreover, findings from this monograph only reflect the socio-economic conditions of permanent migrants who were captured in the Census; temporary migrants are missing from that picture as they were not captured in the Census. We would have a very different picture if temporary migrants were included because those migrants usually have much worse living standards than permanent migrants and non-migrants (Dang et al. 2003; WB 2003; Klump and Bonschab 2004; Nguyen and White 2007; Nguyen 2009). Nevertheless, findings from Census data suggest that, at least for permanent migration, a phenomenon is emerging similar to the well-known "brain drain" found in international migration or permanent migration studies.

7. MIGRATION AND SCHOOLING

Migration may have both negative and positive effect on education. For many families, migration was used as a mean to attain higher and/or better education, especially for their children. For many others, disruptions, including education disruptions accompanying migration can have significant negative impacts on migrants and their family members.

In this monograph, we were most interested in primary education since achievement of universal primary education for all groups of people was an MDG (UN 2010). The 2009 Census data showed that the proportion of migrants of any type (intra-district, inter-district and inter-provincial) aged 15 and above who had completed primary education was significantly higher than of the non-migrant population (see Figure 2.20). This finding was found among both the male and female populations.

For the non-migrant and all migrant groups, the proportion of the population aged 15 and older who had completed primary education among males was higher than among females. A noticeable feature with regard to this indicator was that the difference or gap between males and females was larger among the non-migrant population. This finding implies that the MDG goal of gender equality is likely to be achieved among the migrant population before the non-migrant population.

Figure 2.20: Proportion of the population aged 15 and older who have completed primary education by gender, 2009

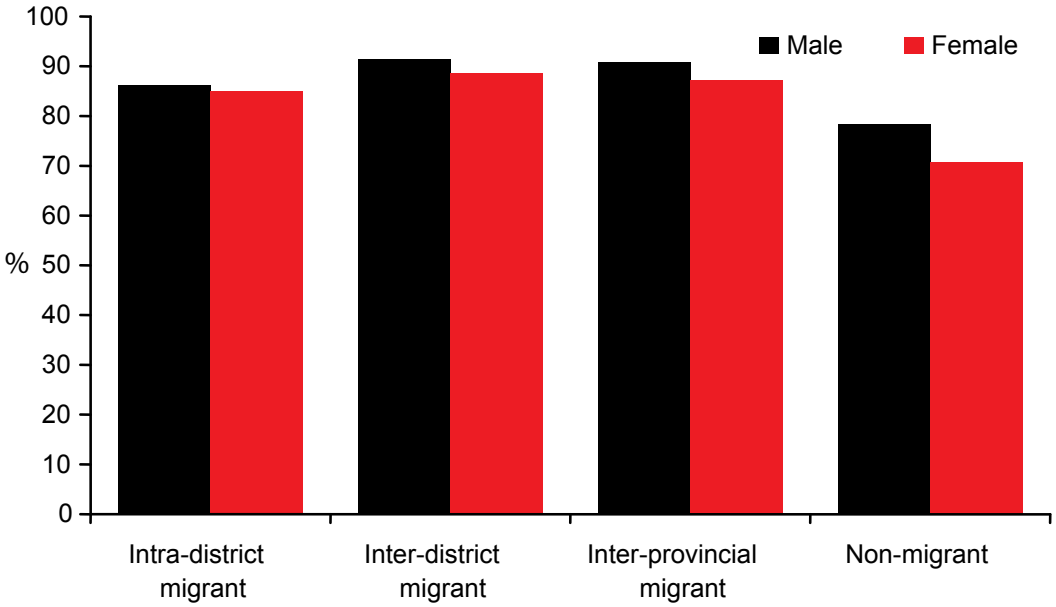
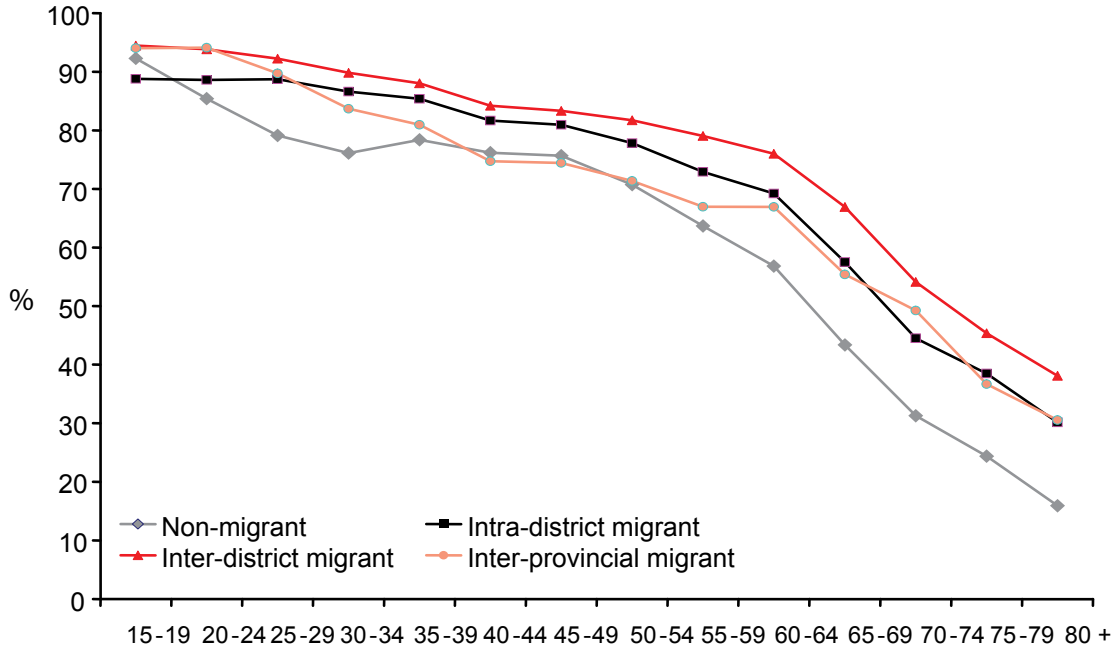


Figure 2.21 provides further evidence that a higher proportion of migrants have completed primary education in almost all age groups and the gap between them has remained almost unchanged except for the 15–19 years old age group. With more than 90% of population aged 15-19 years old having completed primary education, there was no difference between the various migration groups. Moreover, this figure showed a very positive trend in educational attainment for both migrant and non-migrant populations: younger people have had more educational opportunities, and had a higher likelihood of completing primary education.

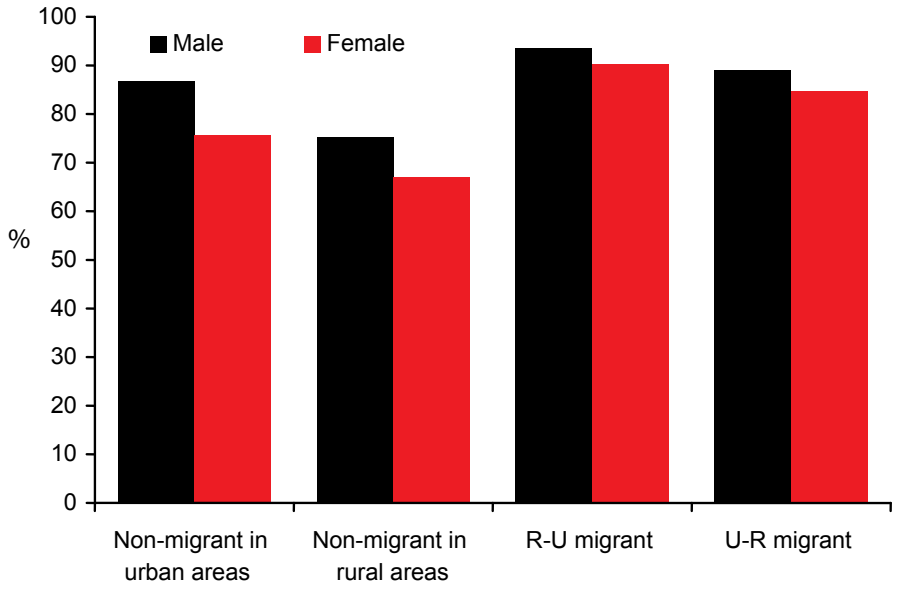
Figure 2.21: Proportion of the population aged 15 and older who have completed primary education by age and migration flow between urban and rural areas, 2009



Among non-migrants, residents of rural areas had a lower proportion of the population aged 15 and older who had completed primary education compared with residents in urban areas. Both rural-to-urban and urban-to-rural migrants had a higher proportion of the population aged 15 and older who had completed primary education than non-migrants regardless of whether they lived in urban or rural areas (see Figure 2.22).

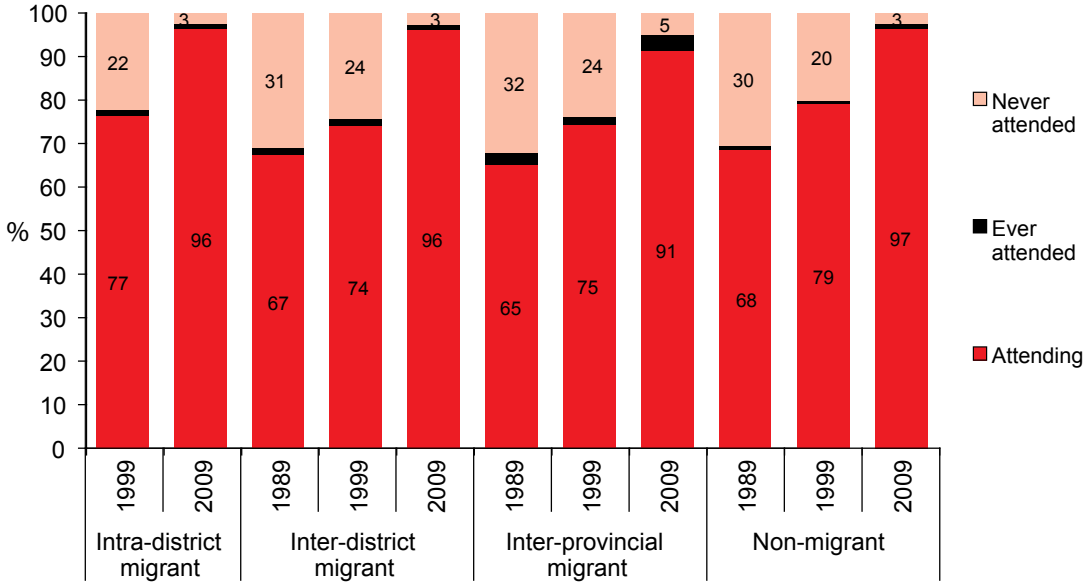
These results indicate that migrants, as defined using Census data, do not require higher priority to facilitate attainment of primary education; however, non-migrants living in rural areas do. In addition, the results indicate that migration has affected both destination and origin areas; places of destination gained while place of origin lost higher quality workers through migration. Again, the finding is very similar to the well-known "brain drain" phenomena found in international migration studies.

Figure 2.22: Proportion of the population aged 15 and older who have completed primary education by migration flow between urban and rural areas, 2009



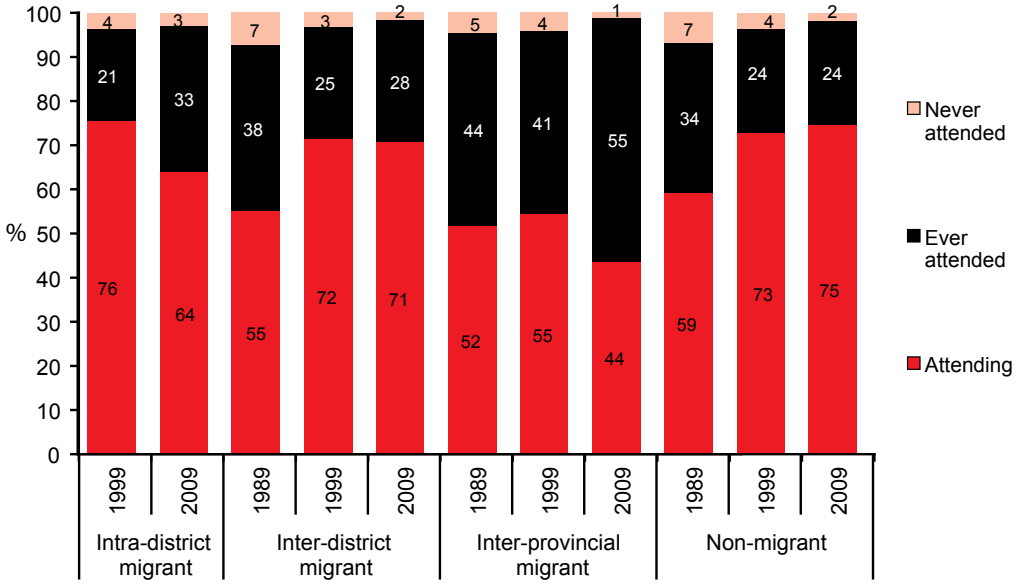
Compared to migrants, non-migrants had a marginally higher proportion of school age children (6 to 10 years of age) attending primary school (see Figure 2.23). Some 97% of non-migrant children aged 6 to 10 were currently attending school in 2009; the proportion was 96% for intra-district and inter-district migrants and 91% for inter-provincial migrants. Apparently, movements within provincial boundaries had only minor impacts while movements across provincial boundary had a somewhat greater impact on education disruption of children.

Figure 2.23: School attendance status of children aged 6 to 10, 1989-2009



The difference between migrant and non-migrant population with regard to school attendance was clearer and of greater magnitude when assessing the situation of children aged 11 to 18 or the standard ages for children to attend lower and upper secondary school (see Figure 2.24). Some 75% of non-migrant children aged 11 to 18 were attending school in 2009. School attendance rates were 64%, 71% and 44% for intra-district, inter-district and inter-provincial migrants respectively. Again, provincial boundary had a clear impact on education disruption of children.

Figure 2.24: School attendance of children aged 11 to 18, 1989-2009



8. MIGRATION AND HOUSING

Health issues appear in at least three of the MDGs. The Government of Vietnam has made strong commitments to ensure good health for all. Although the 1999 and 2009 Censuses did not include a direct measure of health, they included key social determinants of health: physical conditions of the house, the use of safe water and the use of hygienic toilet facilities. The 1989 Census did not have such information and hence analysis in the following section covers only the last two censuses.

Housing status

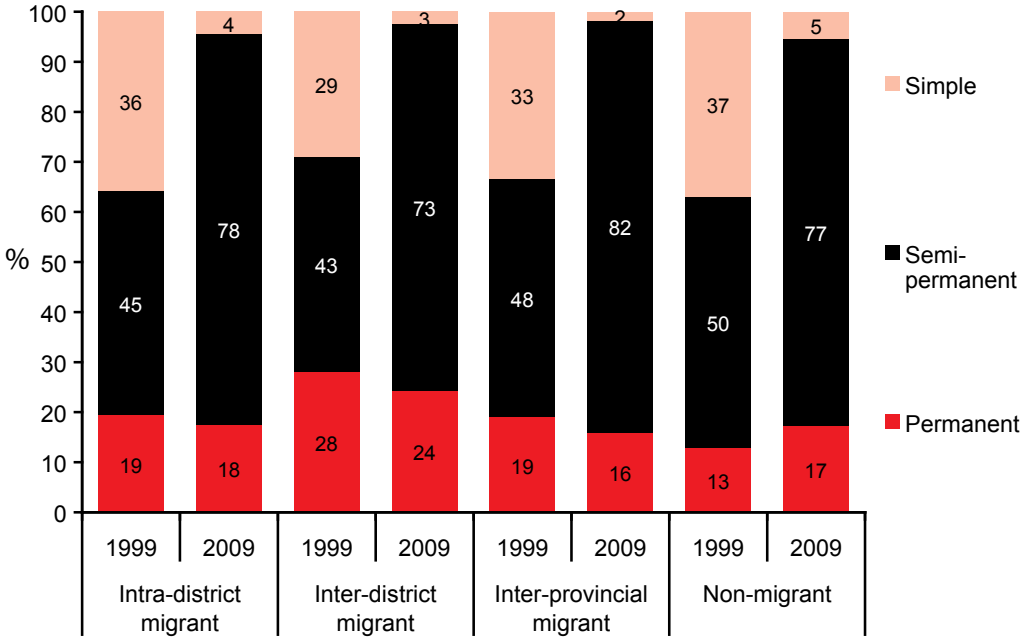
The 1999 and 2009 Census questions about housing differed. In the 1999 Census, housing status was recorded based on self-assessment by the respondent and observation by the enumerator. Four categories of dwelling were recorded: permanent, semi-permanent, durable wood frame, and simple dwelling. In the 2009 Census, housing status was assessed based on three questions regarding the main materials of supporting columns (or supporting walls), the roof, and walls. GSO developed an indicator of housing status based on those three questions.[8] However, construction of this variable was contentious.[9] Therefore, this monograph simply used the main roofing material to construct a simpler variable measuring housing status. Housing status was classified into three categories: permanent (concrete roof), semi-permanent (tile or tin roof), and simple house (leaf,

8 See CCSC, 2010a for the definition and method of determining each indicator.

straw, oil paper roof). For reasons of consistency across time, durable wood frame house and simple dwelling categories of housing in the 1999 Census data were combined into one group namely the simple dwelling type. Because of difference in the construction of the housing status variable between 1999 and 2009, it is not recommended to compare housing status between the two years, or if comparison is made, it should be done with great care.

In general, migrants had better housing than non-migrants; this is reflected clearly in the proportions of people in each group owning simple dwellings and permanent dwellings as shown in Figure 2.25. Compared to 1999, the gap in housing status between migrants and non-migrants was smaller in 2009. Among the migrant population, inter-district migrants had better housing status than intra-district migrants and inter-provincial migrants; and the latter two groups of migrants had very similar housing status.

Figure 2.25: Housing status of people aged 5 and older by type of migration, 1999-2009

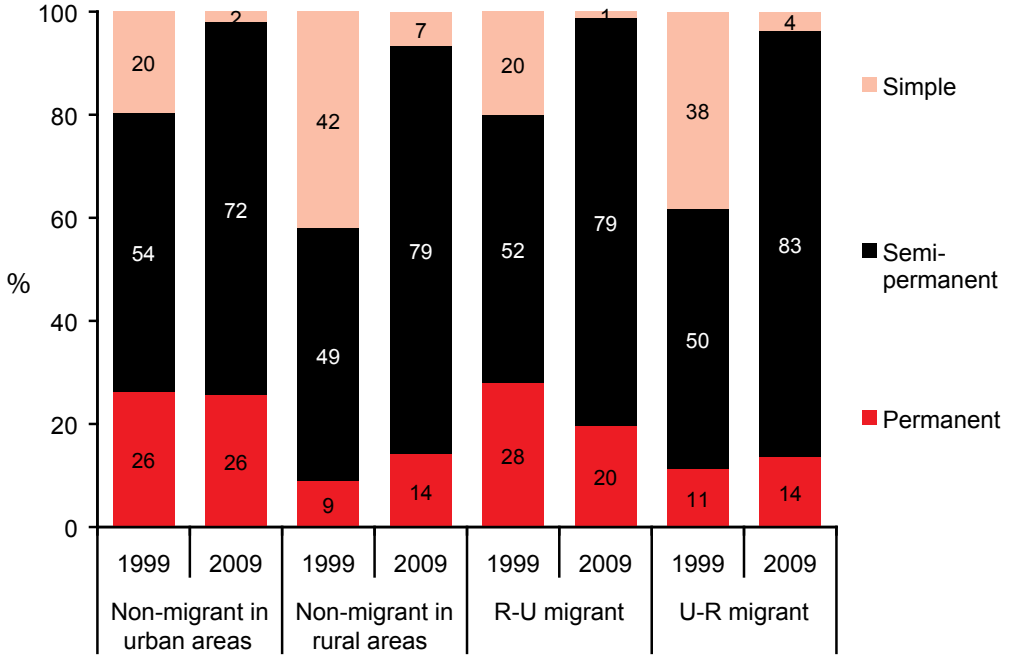


9 The housing classification of the CCSC in 2009 is not a reliable measure as it does not reflect reality. Findings from the 1999 Census indicated that the proportion of households with permanent dwellings in urban areas was greater than in rural areas and findings from the 2009 Census indicated the opposite result. Findings from the 2009 Census are questionable because urban areas have received greater investment and have developed at a faster pace over the last 10 years compared to rural areas. Results of various variables in the 2009 Census also indicated greater advantages of urban areas compared to rural areas. These questionable findings suggest that further assessment of this housing status variable is needed. The classification of housing status used in this monograph is simple but it is considered to be more reliable as it has a strong correlation to other socioeconomic variables in the Census and is consistent with results of the 1999 Census.

Urban advantages were also found in housing status (Figure 2.26). Non-migrants in urban areas had better housing than non-migrants in rural areas; urban non-migrants had a substantially larger proportion of people living in permanent dwellings and a smaller proportion of people living in simple dwellings.

Housing status of migrants was similar to housing status of non-migrants living in the destination area. Housing status of urban-to-rural migrants was very similar to that of non-migrants living in rural areas. Rural-to-urban migrants in 1999 had similar housing status to that of non-migrants in urban areas but rural-to-urban migrants in 2009 had worse housing status than non-migrants in urban areas; however, in both years, their housing status was much better than non-migrants in rural areas. These findings imply that housing status of migrants is better after migration from rural to urban areas, probably because of greater availability of better housing in urban areas; but this advantage has fallen over time.

Figure 2.26: Housing status of people aged 5 and older by migration flow between urban and rural areas, 1999-2009



Safe water for cooking and drinking

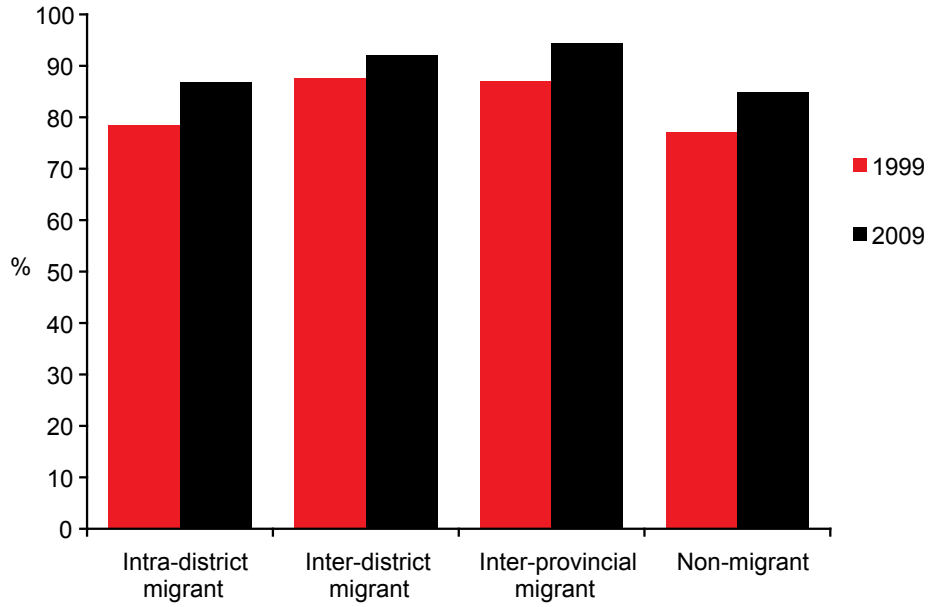
In the 2009 Census, safe water was defined as: "coming from an indoor or public tap, a bore well, a protected dug well or rain water".[10] The 1999 Census used a simpler but consistent definition of safe water for cooking and drinking.

Results from both censuses showed that the proportion of people using safe water for cooking and drinking was higher among the migrant than the non-migrant population. Among the migrant population, inter-district and inter-provincial migrants had higher proportions of people using safe

10 See CCSC, 2010b for definition and construction of this indicator.

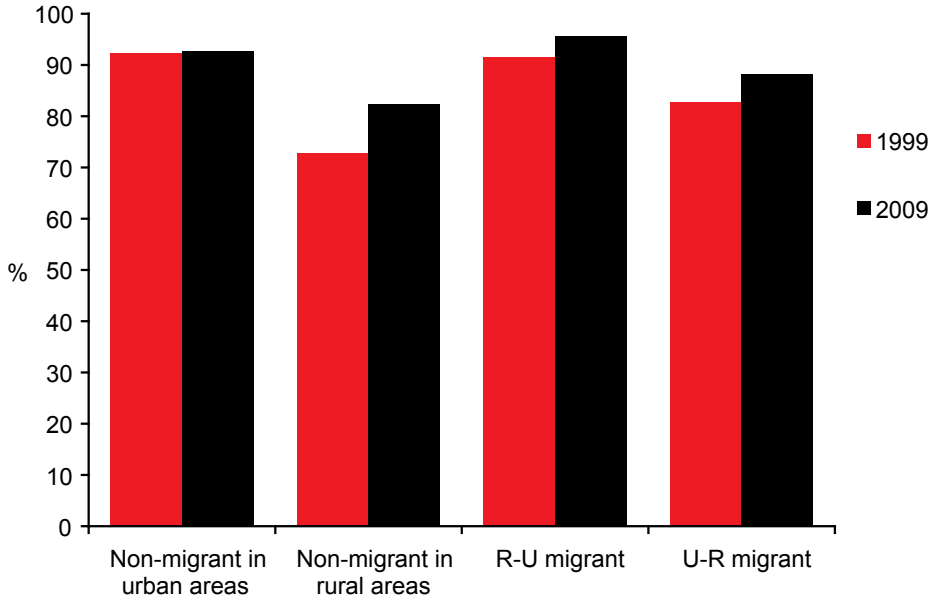
water than intra-district migrants. The proportion of people using safe water has improved over the last decade for all groups of migrants and for non-migrants (see Figure 2.27).

Figure 2.27: Proportion of people aged 5 and older using safe water for drinking and cooking, 1999-2009



Clear improvement in access to safe water was seen as the proportion of people using safe water in 2009 was higher than in 1999 for all groups of migrants and for non-migrants. Results also indicated urban-rural disparities; in urban areas, regardless of migrant status, the proportion of people using safe water was substantially higher than in rural areas (see Figure 2.28). The availability of safe water in urban areas was apparently one explanation for this difference. However, it was not the only one; the higher proportion of people using safe water among urban-to-rural migrants compared to non-migrants in rural areas indicates the presence of other determinants of safe water usage.

Figure 2.28: Proportion of people aged 5 and older using safe water by migration flow between urban and rural areas, 1999-2009



Sanitation

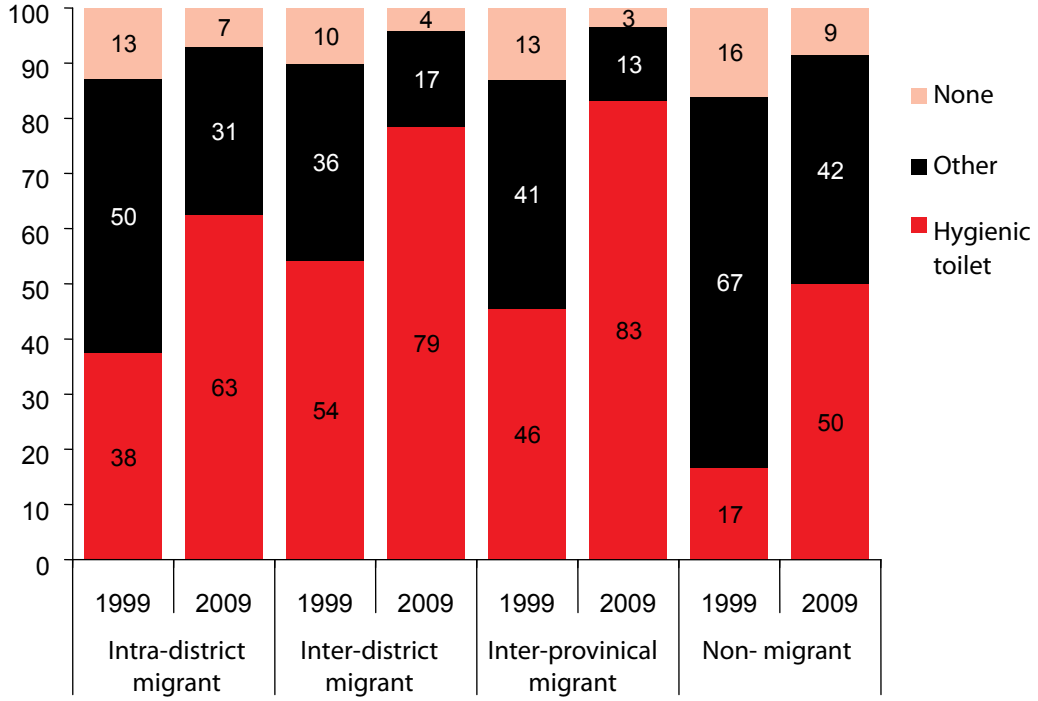
Hygienic toilet facilities were defined as "flush toilets with septic tanks or sewage pipes" in the 2009 Census.[11] Three categories of toilet facilities were created: hygienic (toilet facilities); other (non-hygienic toilet facilities); and none (or the household did not have toilet facilities). Fortunately, the 1999 Census had similar information that enabled us to create exactly the same categories of toilet facilities.

Very clear improvements in toilet facilities were observed over the last decade with an increase in the proportion of people using hygienic toilet facilities and a decrease in the proportion having no toilet facilities in 2009 compared to 1999 in all groups of migrants and among non-migrants.

It was consistently found in both the 1999 and 2009 Censuses that the non-migrant population had the smallest proportion of people using hygienic toilet facilities and the largest proportion of people having no toilet facilities compared to all groups of migrant. There is no significant difference among the different migrant populations. The proportion of people having hygienic toilet facilities among inter-provincial migrants was greater than among intra-district migrants but smaller than among inter-district migrants in 1999. However, there was a big change among the inter-provincial migrant population over the last decade and this population has the highest proportion of people using hygienic toilet facilities in 2009: 83% of inter-provincial migrants have hygienic toilet facilities while the proportions are only 79%, 63% and 50% for inter-district, intra-district migrants, and non-migrants respectively (see Figure 2.29).

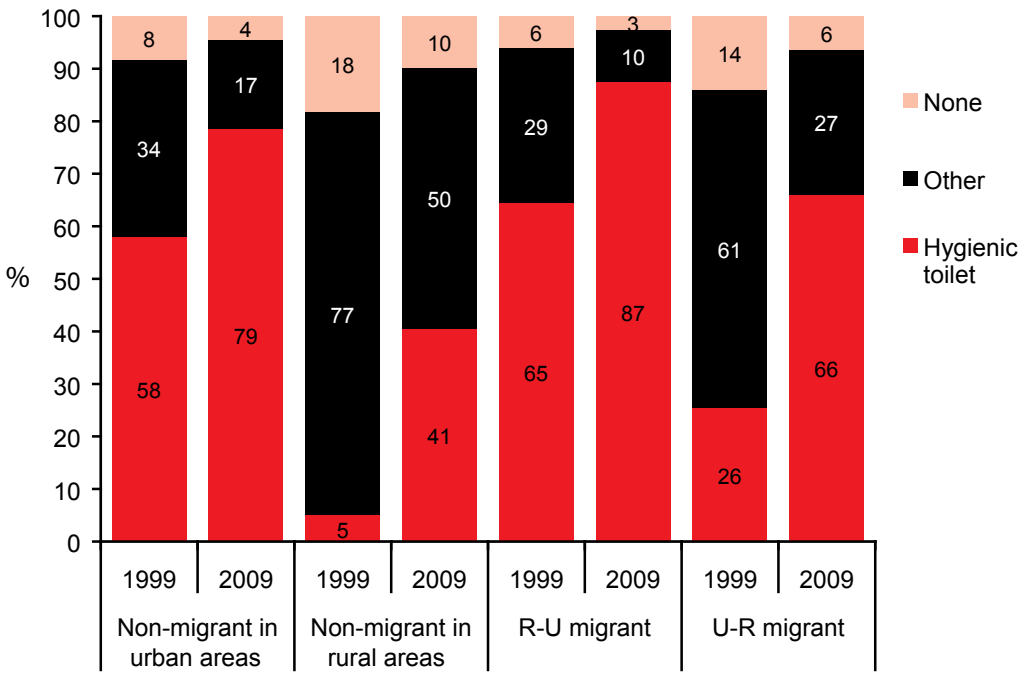
11 See CCSC, 2010b for definition and construction of this indicator.

Figure 2.29: Type of toilet facilities used among people aged 5 and older by type of migration, 1999-2009



The better living conditions of urban residents was again apparent in terms of use of toilet facilities (Figure 2.30). Urban residents, regardless of their migrant status, had a larger proportion of people using hygienic toilet facilities and a smaller proportion of people having no toilet facilities than rural residents. Hygienic toilet facilities were used more commonly among rural-to-urban migrants (65% in 1999 and 87% in 2009) than not only non-migrants in rural areas (5% in 1999 and 41% in 2009) but also non-migrants in urban areas (58% in 1999 and 79% in 2009). The result was expected given the higher living standards of rural-to-urban migrants compared to non-migrants in urban areas. Urban-to-rural migrants had much better use of hygienic toilet facilities than non-migrants in rural areas but worse than among non-migrants in urban areas. Again, this pattern was consistent with patterns found in living standards and it suggests a close association between living standards and the type of toilet facilities used.

Figure 2.30: Type of toilet facilities used among people aged 5 and older by migration flow between urban and rural areas, 1999-2009



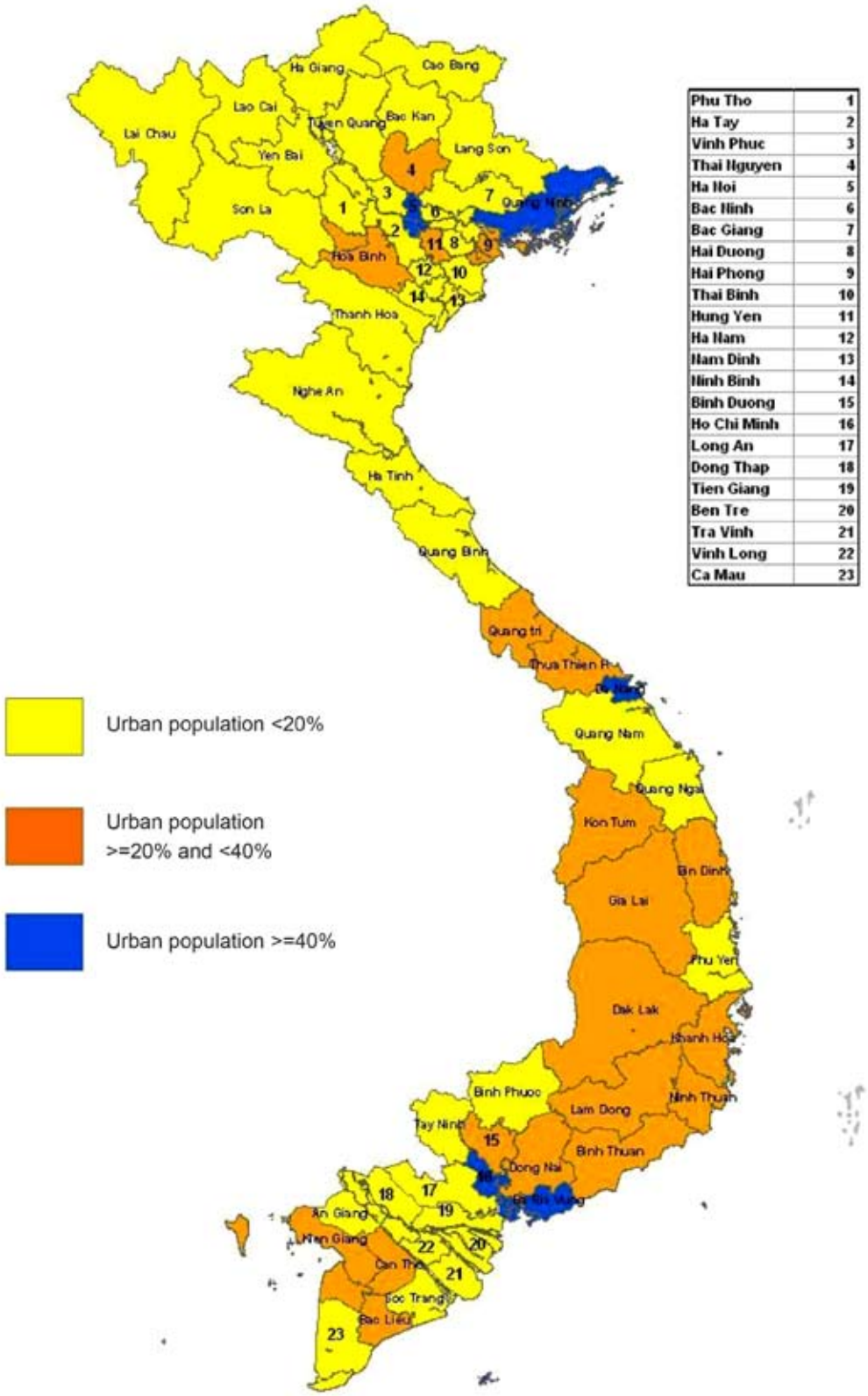
Again, it is important to note that those findings are generally only relevant for permanent migrants as temporary migrants were not well captured in the Census data. The 'better-off' position among permanent migrants and the 'worse-off' position among temporary migrants in comparison to the non-migrant population have been noted in other studies (Djamba et al. 1999; Nguyen and White 2002; Dang et al. 2003).

CHAPTER 3: URBANIZATION AND URBAN GROWTH

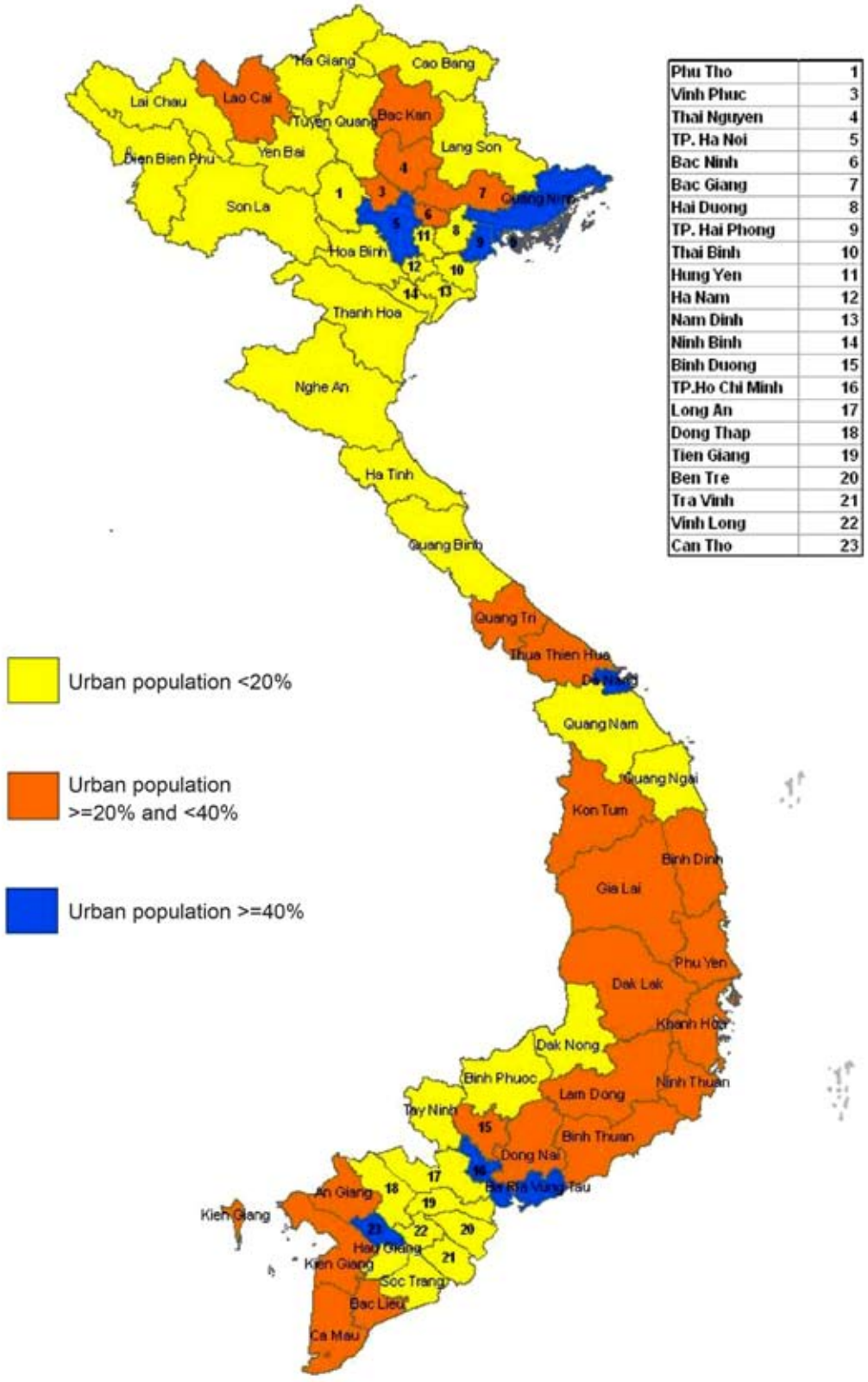
After over 20 years of Doi Moi (Renovation), Vietnam has undergone a dramatic period of urbanization. According to information collected from 63 provinces and cities by the Department of Urban Development (Ministry of Construction 2010), the national urban system has been experiencing changes in both quality and quantity. In 1990, there was only about 500 urban areas nationwide, by 2000 this figure had increased to 649 and by 2003 it had reached 656. The current urban system consists of 753 urban areas, including the 2 special urban areas of Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City, 9 urban areas of grade I, 12 urban areas of grade II, 45 of grade III, 41 of grade IV and 643 of grade V (accounting for 86%). An initial chain of national and regional urban centres has taken form. National urban centres include Hanoi, Ho Chi Minh City, Hai Phong, Da Nang, Hue, and Can Tho. Regional urban centres include cities like: Bien Hoa, Vung Tau, Buon Ma Thuot, Nha Trang, Nam Dinh, Thai Nguyen, etc. Provincial urban centres include cities and towns functioning as the centre of administration, politics, economics, culture, tourism, services, and transportation networks; district urban centres; urban centres of rural residential areas, new urban developments. The urban proportion of the population has increased from 23.7% in 1999 to 29.6% in 2009 (25.4 million urban residents among 85.8 million people in the national population).

Urban centres exist throughout the country. However, the process of urbanization has not taken place evenly. Northern areas have substantially lower urban population than Southern area. This pattern can be seen clearly in Maps 3.1 and 3.2, which illustrate the proportion of the population living in urban areas in 1999 and 2009.

Map 3.1: Proportion of the population living in urban areas, 1999



Map 3.2: Proportion of population living in urban areas, 2009



Phu Tho	1
Vinh Phuc	3
Thai Nguyen	4
TP. Ha Noi	5
Bac Ninh	6
Bac Giang	7
Hai Duong	8
TP. Hai Phong	9
Thai Binh	10
Hung Yen	11
Ha Nam	12
Nam Dinh	13
Ninh Binh	14
Binh Duong	15
TP.Ho Chi Minh	16
Long An	17
Dong Thap	18
Tien Giang	19
Ben Tre	20
Tra Vinh	21
Vinh Long	22
Can Tho	23

The increasing rate of urbanization seen in Vietnam in the first decade of the 21st century is closely related to economic and social structural transition in Vietnamese society in the same period of time. These changes include increases in educational attainment, diversification of occupational structure and spatial integration. Changes in the country, especially since the economic renovation that started in 1986, have taken place in all aspects of life. This has strongly facilitated migration from rural to urban areas as discussed in Chapter 2 and has contributed to an increase in the urban population.

The report on major results of the 2009 population and housing census (CCSC, 2010b) has provided readers general information about the actual situation of urbanization in Vietnam, especially in terms of the population structure in urban areas. In this chapter, we will analyze more comprehensively the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of rural and urban populations, and provide important information about the relationship between urbanization and differences in human resources between urban and rural areas.

1. BASIC CONCEPTS

Urbanization

From the perspective of demography and economic geography, urbanization is understood as migration from rural to urban areas, and increased concentration of people living in urban areas. The level of urbanization of a nation is measured by the proportion of the population living in urban areas. In terms of society, urbanization is understood as a process of restructuring of people's residential environment. However, urbanization not only changes the distribution of population and material factors, but also changes socio-economic patterns, and diffuses urban lifestyles to rural areas, and to the whole society. Therefore, urbanization not only occurs in quantitative terms through population growth, territorial expansion, and production development, but also in qualitative terms through improvements in living standards, and diversification of cultural patterns and needs.

By the 20th century, global trends in urbanization were mainly in the form of expansion of urban population size, predominantly through growth in urban population, an increased number of cities and expansion of urban territory. The second half of the century was marked by an intensification of urbanization, especially in industrial developed countries. The increase in quantitative signs of urbanization levelled off, or even decreased (due to decentralization of urban areas, and of the urbanization process…). Instead, attention began to be paid to qualitative signs such as: quality and standards of living in urban areas and diversity of cultural patterns and needs. However, among the nations of the third world, urbanization is still largely taking place in the sense of expanding breadth of urban areas and population.

Urban population

In this chapter, the urban population is defined as people living in inner city areas and towns. All residents of other administrative units (i.e. communes) are regarded as rural population.

It is worth noting that the definition of urban population as mentioned above differs from the definition of urban population newly promulgated according to the Law on Urban Planning. Decree No 42/2009/ND-CP on grading of urban centres, which stipulates that "*Urban population* is population belonging within the administrative border of an urban area, including: the inner areas and suburbs

of cities; inner and outer areas of provincial towns and the entirety of district townships". According to statistics of the Department of Urban Development, Ministry of Construction, by June 2010 the total population of all urban areas was 33.12 million, accounting for 38.6% of the nation's population, in which the inner city population was 26 million, accounting for 30.5% of national population. Thus, there is a difference between the two indicators, total urban population and population of inner cities (or urban population as newly defined). In this monograph, to ensure comparison with the result of the 1999 Census, the urban population will be defined as stipulated in Decree 72/2001/ND-CP, i.e. residents of inner cities, inner provincial towns and district townships, similar to the general 2009 Census figures published by the General Statistics Office.

Urban classification

Regarding urban classification, this is the first monograph comparing different types of urban areas, therefore we use the official classification for comparing characteristics of different urban areas, conforming to Decree 42/2009 ND-CP, dated 7 May 2009 that came into effect from 2 July 2009, according to which urban areas in Vietnam are divided into 6 grades as follows: special grade, grade I, grade II, grade III, grade IV, and grade V as approved and recognized by the competent state agency. Specifically:

1. Special-grade urban centres include centrally run cities with urban districts, rural districts and satellite urban centres. Vietnam has two special urban areas: Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City.
2. Grade I urban areas include centrally run cities with urban districts and rural districts and possibly attached urban centres; and provincial cities with wards and communes. There are 7 grade I urban areas.
3. Grade II urban areas consist of provincial cities with wards and communes. There are 14 grade II urban areas.
4. Grade III urban areas include provincial cities or towns with wards and communes. There are 45 grade III urban areas.
5. Grade IV urban areas consist of provincial towns with wards and communes or district townships with consolidated street quarters.
6. Grade V urban areas are district townships with consolidated street quarters and possibly rural residential clusters.

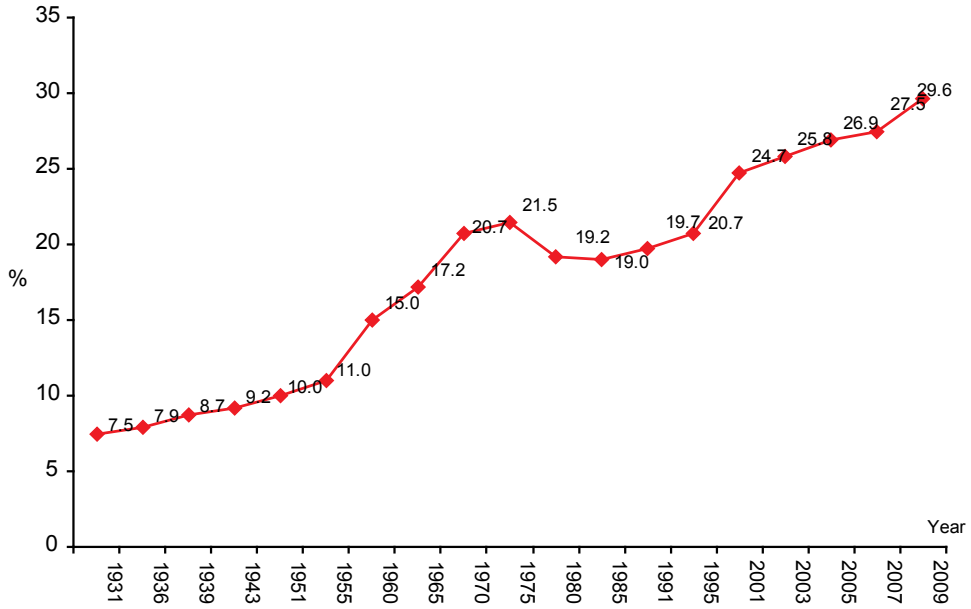
This monograph classifies urban areas based on the Government Decree on grading of urban centres (before the 2009 Census). A detailed list of urban areas of special grade (Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City), grade I, II, III, IV and V are provided in Appendix Table A-3.1 and A-3.2. In the analysis in this section, we combine grade IV and V urban areas into one group. The proportion of the population in each grade of urban area is as follows: Special grade: 9.5%; Grade I: 3.8%; Grade II: 3.7%; Grade III: 4.5%; Grade IV & V: 8.1%. The level of urbanization and urban size are assumed to decrease as grade of urban area increases, i.e., the special grade has the highest level of urbanization.

2. URBANIZATION IN VIETNAM

After reaching an urban proportion of the population at 10% in about 1950, the speed of urbanization increased, thus by 1975, 21.5% of the population lived in urban areas. However, in that period, there

were strong differences between the North and the South. The level of urbanization decreased slightly in the North, while it increased substantially in the South. After the country was reunified, there was a substantial decline in the urban proportion of the population throughout the country until 1982, when it had fallen to 18.4%. Since then, the level of urbanization has increased gradually to 20% and by 2009 it had reached 29.6% (see Figure 3.1)

Figure 3.1: Proportion of population living in urban areas, 1931–2009



Sources:
From 1931–1988: Table 14, page 106 in F. Gendreau, V. Fauveau and Dang Thu (1997). *Démographie de la péninsule indochinoise. Paris: ESTEM*
From 1989–2008 : Census 1989, 1999 and website of the GSO.

2009 : Census 2009

Compared to other countries with urban proportion of the population ranging from 6% in Rwanda to 100% in some city states, Vietnam, with nearly 30% of its population living in urban areas, is clearly not a highly urbanized country. However, it is not that different from other countries in the region it belongs to. In 1970, the level of urbanization in Vietnam was similar to that of countries in Southeast Asia and other parts of Asia, except West Asia (see Table A-3.3). However, the level of urbanization in Southeast Asia over the last 25 years of the 20th century increased considerably to 37%, while in Vietnam it remained low at just over 20% of the population in urban areas (see Table A-3.4). According to the 1999 Census, 23.7% of the population resided in urban areas and the latest figure for 2009 indicates that 29.6% of the population is urban, lower than the average urban proportion in Southeast Asia 10 years previously.[14]

14 According to the World Bank (2008: 518–520), in 2005, the urban proportion of the population in Southeast Asian countries are as follows: Brunei: 73.5%; Cambodia: 19.7%; Indonesia: 48.1%; Laos: 20.6%; Malaysia: 67.3%; Myanmar: 30.7%; the Philippines: 62.7%; Thailand: 32.3%; EastTimor: 26.5%; and Singapore: 100%

The low level of urbanization in Vietnam has been explained by the Ministry of Construction (1992: 65-66) as follows:

1. In Vietnam, cities are formed and developed as administrative/functional centres. Only recently have new cities appeared as the result of economic development.
2. Formation and development of cities in Vietnam was impeded by i) lack of job opportunities and ii) poor technical infrastructure (houses, water supply, electricity, transport, hospitals, schools, etc… and poor urban management)
3. There is a tendency to support a policy of balanced growth to reduce the gap between urban and rural areas and in that process, bigger cities often have to limit population growth and control in-migration.

3. URBAN POPULATION: DISTRIBUTION AND CHANGE IN SIZE

3.1.Urban share of population by region

The urban share of the population is not uniform across regions. The urban proportion of the population in the Southeast is significantly higher than in other regions (nearly 60% compared to about 20–30% in other regions), followed by the Red River Delta and the Central Highlands. However, it is worth noting the important role of central city-provinces[15] in regional redistribution of population. In the Southeast, due to the presence of Ho Chi Minh City, the urban proportion of the population increased from 30.1% to 57.1%. In the Red River Delta, with the presence of Hanoi and Hai Phong, the urban proportion of the population increased from 19.9% to 29.2%. Similarly, with the presence of Da Nang and Can Tho, the urban proportion of population in the Central Coast and the Mekong River Delta increased by about 4 percentage points (See Table 3.1).

Table 3.1: Urban share of population by region, 2009

Unit: percent

Region	Excluding 5 central city-provinces	Including 5 central city provinces
Northern Midlands and Mountains	16.0	16.0
Red River Delta	19.9	29.2
North and South Central Coast	20.9	24.1
Central Highlands	27.8	27.8
Southeast	30.1	57.1
Mekong River Delta	19.6	22.8
5 central city- provinces	62.7	62.7

15 Central city-provinces are 5 municipalities that are administratively equivalent to provinces and directly under the central government including Hanoi, Ho Chi Minh City, Hai Phong, Da Nang and Can Tho

3.2 Urban share by city size

According to data of the 2009 Census in Vietnam, cities were classified into the following sizes: Cities with a population of 2 000 000 or more, inhabitants accounted for 33.9% of total urban population in just 2 cities; cities having 500 000 to less than 2 000 000 people accounted for 12% of the total urban population, with 4 cities; cities having 200 000 to less than 500 000 inhabitants accounted for 8.7% of total urban population, with 9 cities; cities having 100 000 to less than 200 000 accounted for 10.2% of total population, with 17 cities. Compared to previous censuses, the number of cities with these categories of population size and their share of total urban population have been increasing, which indicates a trend towards greater population concentration in big cities (see Table 3.2).

Table 3.2: Urban share of population by city size: Vietnam, 1979-2009

City size	Population	Urban proportion of population (%)	Number of urban centres
2 000 000 and more			
1979	2 700 849	26.8	1
1989	2 899 753	22.8	1
1999	4 207 825	23.3	1
2009	8 612 920	33.9	2
500 000 to less than 2 000 000			
1979	897 500	8.9	1
1989	1 089 760	8.6	1
1999	2 637 344	14.6	3
2009	3 052 870	12.0	4
200 000 to less than 500 000			
1979	703 863	7.0	2
1989	1 726 616	13.6	6
1999	1 394 137	7.7	5
2009	2 219 495	8.7	9
100 000 to less than 200 000			
1979	1 855 274	18.4	11
1989	1 501 255	11.8	12
1999	2 349 359	13.0	16
2009	2 594 629	10.2	17

Sources: 1979: Table 15, page 107 in F. Gendreau, V. Fauveau and Dang Thu (1997) Démographie de la péninsule indochinoise. Paris: ESTEM

1989: Table 1.7 in volume 1 of Vietnam, Central Census Steering Committee (1991) Vietnam Population Census - 1989: Completed Census Results. Hanoi

1999: Census 1999

2009: Census 2009

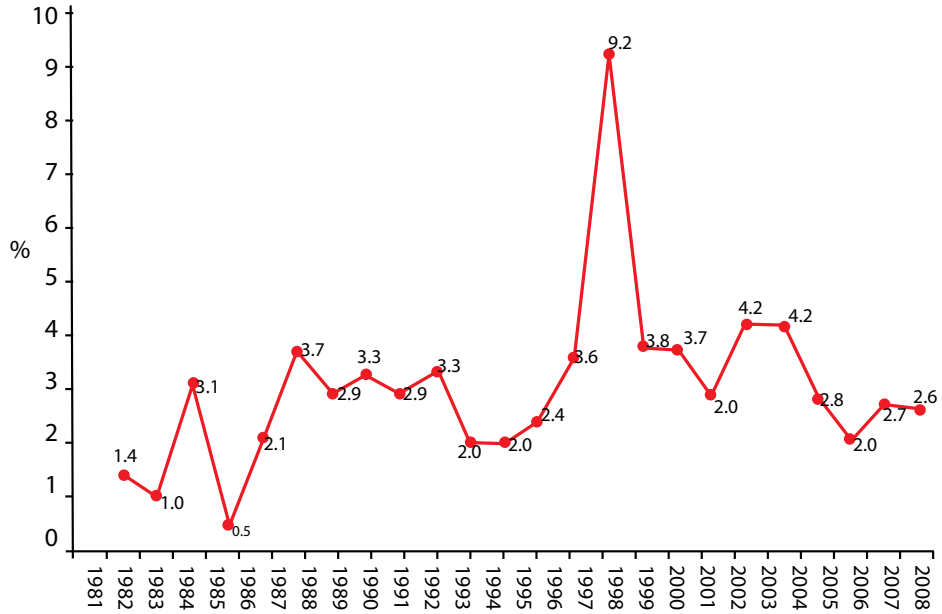
The proportion of the urban population concentrated in the largest urban centre, i.e. the urban centre with the highest population size (in this case, Ho Chi Minh City), according to the 1999 Census, was 23.5% (4 204 662/17 918 217), which is about average for Southeast Asia (ranging from 10.8% in Malaysia to the highest at 55.4% in Cambodia [excluding the city state of Singapore]).

At the time when the 2009 Census was conducted, the urban population of Ho Chi Minh City was 5 929 479, accounting for 23.3% of total urban population (total urban population was 25 374 262). Clearly this indicated little change compared to the time of the 1999 Census.

3.3 Changes in population size of urban areas

The urban population growth rate in Vietnam has fluctuated considerably. During the period from 1931–1995, Vietnam experienced rapid growth in urbanization toward the mid 1950s when the colonial regime came to an end and in the mid 1970s when peace was restored. The pace of urbanization slowed in the last 25 years of the 20th century. The highest annual growth rate was found in 1941 (3.1%), 1957 (3.7%), 1967 (3.3%) and 1975 (3.3%). From 1995 to 2008, the urban growth rate increased, in the range from 3.0% to 3.5%, with some exceptionally high years like in 1997 when it was 9.2%, and in the 2 successive years of 2003 and 2004 when it was 4.2%. On average, in the period from 1999–2009, the annual urban population growth rate was 3.4%. Since 1995, the urban population growth rate of Vietnam has not varied much compared to other Southeast Asian countries with urban population growth rates of 3.6% in the period of 1995–2000 (see Table A-3.5). Between the two censuses of 1999 and 2009, national population increased by 9.47 million people, of which 7.3 million (accounting for 77%) was in urban areas. (see Figure 3.2).

Figure 3.2: Urban annual population growth rate (%) in Vietnam, 1931-2008



Sources: -1931-1993:In Table 14, in Gendreau, V. Fauveau and Dang Thu (1997). Démographie de la péninsule indochinoise. Paris: ESTEM: page 106.

-1994-2008 : Censuses 1989, 1999 and statistics of urban population on the GSO website.

From 1979 to 2009, the number of urban areas with a population 100 000 or more has gone up. In 1979, there were only 15 urban areas with a population of 100 000 or more; that figure increased to 20 by 1989, 25 by 1999 and 32 by 2009. Some urban centres have quite high population growth rates, however the clear impact of the policy of geographic reclassification can be seen, for example in Ha Noi (with a series of new urban districts being formed and urban areas of the former Ha Tay province being merged), Can Tho (with a series of new urban districts being formed after it was upgraded to a central city-province) (see Table A-3.6 in Appendix).

In Vietnam, cites are administrative units and they include territory outside of the city centre, i.e. they include rural areas. In 1989, three quarters of Ho Chi Minh City was urban, while only a third of Hanoi and Hai Phong were urban (see Table 3.3). According to the 1999 Census, Hanoi had become a city with urban population accounting for about 60% of the total because the overall area of the city had decreased and the inner city area had expanded between the two Censuses[16]. By 2009, the urban proportion of the population in Hanoi decreased due to the expanded geographic area that occurred when former Ha Tay province, with a large number of rural districts, 4 rural communes of Hoa Binh province and 1 rural district of Vinh Phuc were incorporated into Hanoi.

Table 3.3: Urban population in Ho Chi Minh City and Ha Noi: 1979-2009

Population				
City	**Year**	**Total**	**Urban population**	**% Urban**
Ho Chi Minh city	1979	3 293 146	2 700 849	82.0
	1989	3 924 435	2 899 753	73.9
	1999	5 037 151	4 204 662	83.5
	2009	7 123 340	5 929 479	83.2
Ha Noi	1979	2 456 928	897 500	36.5
	1989	3 056 146	1 089 760	35.7
	1999	2 672 122	1 553 866	58.2
	2009	6 448 837	2 632 087	40.8

Sources:

- 1979 and 1989: Tables 1.6 and 1.7 in volume 1 of Vietnam, Central Census Steering Committee (1991) Vietnam Population Census - 1989: Completed Census Results. Hanoi

- 1999: Table 2 in chapter 9 and Table 2 in chapter 10 of Gubry, P., ed. (2000) Population et développement au Viêt-nam. Paris : Karthala and CEPED.

- 2009 : Census

Urban growth is most apparent in Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City. In the periods from 1989–1999 and 1999–2009, the population of Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City increased by about 1.5 times, accounting for about

16 In 1990, as changing administrative boundary area, 7 districts were not belonged to Hanoi city. Change of this made population size of Hanoi decreased.

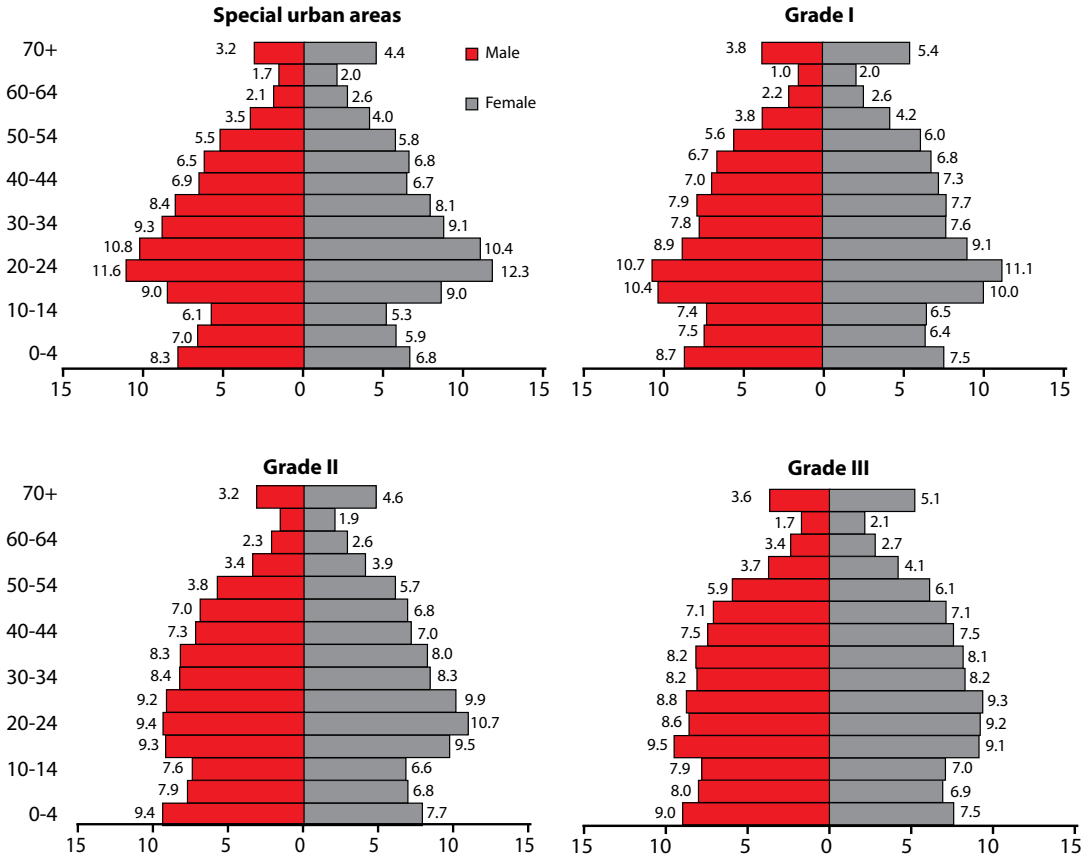
a third of Vietnam's urban population. It is worth noting that, even though the absolute size of the urban population of Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City have substantially increased, the urban population share of these two cities has not increased continuously. In 1989, provinces with the highest urban proportion of the population were mainly in the Southeast region in the vicinity of Ho Chi Minh City. In 1999 and 2009, this pattern remained, with high levels of urbanization expanding out to provinces of the Central Highlands. In general, provinces with low levels of urbanization have high level of out-migration while provinces with high levels of urbanization tend to have high levels of in-migration (see Chapter 2).

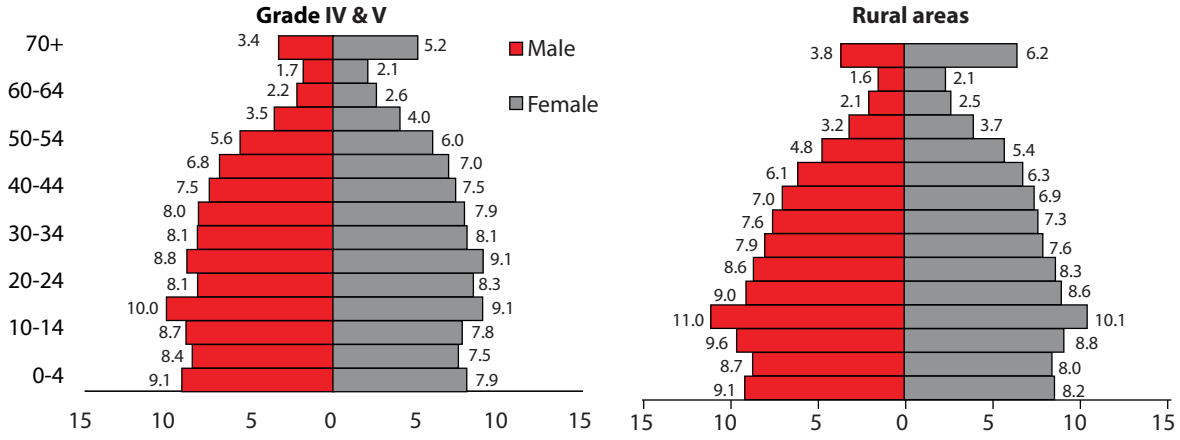
4. URBAN CHARACTERISTICS

4.1 Demographic characteristics

The age and sex structure of the population is presented in population pyramids by grade of urban area and separately for rural areas in Figure 3.3, providing an overview of the population structure in 2009. In general, the Vietnamese population is exhibiting an aging trend with a decreasing proportion of young people and an increasing proportion of the aged. The shorter length of the 3 bands at the bottom of the pyramid, for both men and women in urban and rural areas reflects rapidly declining fertility during the last decade. In addition, these population pyramids show a high proportion of the population in working ages, indicating the typical characteristic of a "golden population structure" but also indicating substantial challenges to ensure enough jobs for this portion of the population.

Figure 3.3. Population pyramids in urban areas (by grade of urban area) and rural areas, 2009





A comparison between grades of urban area and rural areas indicates a rather large difference in the age structure of the population special grade urban areas compared with rural area and the other grades of urban area. The proportion of population between 0–19 is lowest in special grade urban areas, while the proportion of the population in the ages 20–39, the prime working ages, is highest in special grade urban areas. This also indicates much higher need for employment among the population in special grade urban areas compared to other areas.

The total dependency ratio of the population is closely associated with population age structure. This indicator indicates the burden on the working age population. Table 3.4 presents the dependency ratios by grade of urban area and rural areas in 2009. According to **The 2009 Vietnam Population and Housing Census: Major Findings** report, the total dependency ratio of the population (percentage of those at the age of 0–14 and 65 and older per 100 people in working ages from 15–64) was 46.3%, the child dependency ratio (0–14 years of age) was 36.6% and the aged dependency ratio (65 years old and older) was 9.7%. This proportion differs between urban and rural areas as well as among different grades of urban area. The total dependency ratio of the population in rural areas was higher than in urban areas, the difference is clearly evident in the child dependency ratio reflecting higher fertility in rural areas. A comparison among different grades of urban areas shows that the total dependency ratio tends to increase as the level of urbanization decreases. The total dependency ratio in special grade urban areas was 34%, in grade I urban areas it was 39.7%, in grade II urban areas it was 40.1%; in grade III urban areas it was 41.6% and in grade IV and V urban areas it was 44.6%. Low fertility in areas with a high level of urbanization, a concentration of working age population in these areas, and the large number of aged people remaining in rural areas are reasons for the above pattern of the dependency ratio. Thus, the burden on the working age population is heavier in rural areas and urban areas with lower levels of urbanization than in urban areas with higher levels of urbanization. It is also necessary to note that declining fertility has been a very important factor in reducing the dependency ratio in all different grades of urban area.

Table 3.4: Dependency ratio in urban areas (by grade of urban area) and urban/rural residence, 2009

Unit: Percent

Dependency ratio	Special grade	Grade I	Grade II	Grade III	Grade IV & V	Total urban	Total rural	Total
Child dependency ratio (0–14)	26.3	30.7	32.0	32.7	35.7	31.0	39.1	36.6
Aged dependency ratio (65+)	7.6	9.0	8.0	8.9	8.9	8.4	10.3	9.7
Total dependency ratio	34.0	39.7	40.1	41.6	44.6	39.4	49.4	46.3

An important demographic indicator in analysis of urbanization is household size. Table 3.5 presents the percentage distribution of household size in urban areas (by grade of urban area) and in rural areas. The most prevalent size of household in both urban and rural areas consists of 4 members. The second most prevalent size contains 3 members. According to statistics of the 1999 Census, the most common household size in rural area was 5 members. This reflects changes in fertility and is related to migration from rural area over the last 10 years. The average number of household members in urban areas in 2009 was 3.78 and in rural area it was 3.84, a substantial decrease compared to the 1999 Census (4.36 in urban areas and 4.56 in rural area). The decrease in the gap in household size between urban and rural areas between the two censuses reflects the impact of decreasing fertility in both areas and spontaneous migration from rural to urban areas over the last decade.

Table 3.5: Distribution of household size in urban areas (by grade of urban area) and rural areas, 2009

Unit: Percent

Household (HH) size	Grade of urban area					Total urban	Total rural	Total
	Special grade	Grade I	Grade II	Grade III	Grade IV & V			
1	7.1	8.5	9.3	9.0	8.0	8.1	6.9	7.3
2	16.5	16.2	17.7	17.2	16.5	16.7	13.8	14.7
3	23.1	22.9	24.5	24.5	23.9	23.7	20.6	21.6
4	27.0	27.5	26.8	27.0	27.7	27.2	28.9	28.4
5	12.6	13.0	11.7	12.0	13.1	12.6	16.1	15.0
6	7.6	6.9	5.7	6.1	6.6	6.8	8.5	8.0

Household (HH) size	Grade of urban area					Total urban	Total rural	Total
	Special grade	Grade I	Grade II	Grade III	Grade IV & V			
7	2.3	2.4	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.7	2.6
8	1.5	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.3
9	0.9	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.6
10	1.4	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.8	0.5	0.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
No. of HHs	2 159 727	890 539	902 446	1 087 930	1 909 983	6 950 625	15 677 456	22 628 081
Average HH size	3.8	3.7	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.7	3.8	3. 8

On average, household size in urban areas decreases as level of urbanization declines. Household size in the two special urban areas was 3.8, in grade I urban areas it was 3. 7, while in grade II, III, IV and V urban areas household sizes were 3.5, 3.6 and 3.6 respectively. However, there is no big difference in the proportion with household size of up to 5 members among different grades of urban area. The proportion of households with 10 or more members in special grade urban areas is substantially higher than in other grades of urban area. This may be the consequence of difficulties in finding separate housing and the higher proportion of households with live-in maids in the two special grade urban areas.

The sex ratio is defined as the number of men per 100 women. The sex ratio in Vietnam has increased over the past few decades, partially recovering the sex ratio that was so negatively affected by a long period of wars[17]. In 1989, the sex ratio was 94.7; in 1999 it was 96.4 and by 2009 it reached 98.1. In general, the sex ratio in urban areas differs little from that in rural areas. However, there are clear differences in the sex ratio across age groups. For the age group 0–9 years, the sex ratio in urban areas is substantially higher than in rural area, while for the age groups 15–19 years through 60–64 years, the sex ratio in rural areas is much higher than in urban areas. Regarding the age group 65 and older, the opposite situation is found as the sex ratio in urban areas is higher than in rural areas (see Table 3.6).

17 Readers can refer to results in the monograph "Age-Sex Structure and Marital Status of the Population in Vietnam" for further information on this issue.

Table 3.6: Sex ratio in urban areas by age, urban areas (by grade of urban area) and rural areas, 2009

Unit: No. of men/100 women

Age	Special grade	Grade I	Grade II	Grade III	Grade IV & V	Total urban	Total rural	Total
0-4	114	112	115	114	112	113	111	112
5-9	110	113	110	111	110	110	108	109
10-14	108	108	110	108	109	109	108	109
15-19	93	100	92	100	107	99	108	105
20-24	88	93	83	90	96	90	104	99
25-29	88	94	88	90	95	91	102	98
30-34	95	98	96	96	99	97	103	101
35-39	97	98	98	97	100	98	103	101
40-44	96	92	98	96	98	96	100	99
45-49	89	95	98	96	96	94	95	95
50-54	89	89	95	91	92	91	89	89
55-59	81	87	83	86	88	85	87	86
60-64	77	82	82	82	82	81	83	82
65-69	79	76	84	79	80	80	73	75
70+	69	68	65	67	63	66	62	63
Overall sex ratio	93	96	95	96	98	95	99	98

It is notable that the sex ratio for the ages 0–4 (rarely influenced by migration and other factors) in rural areas is 111, and in special grade urban areas it reaches 114, while for the age group 5–9, the respective ratios are 110 and 108 respectively. This finding is related to son preference and access to the means and technology for families to select the sex of their children. The imbalanced sex ratio at birth is one of the biggest challenges in implementing population policies at present.

Indicators of marriage are also important for demographic analysis. In the 2009 Census, all people aged 15 and older were asked about their marital status at the time of the census. Marital status was divided into 2 types, ever-married and never-married. On this basis, the proportion ever-married, never-married, and age at marriage were calculated.

Table 3.7 presents information on the proportion never-married in the population by sex, age group, grade of urban area and rural place of residence in 2009. The difference between urban areas and rural areas in the structure of marital status can be seen very clearly. The proportion of the population never-married in rural area tends to be much lower than in urban areas regardless of

the age group. At the same time, as one moves from higher to lower levels of urbanization, (from special grade through grade IV), the proportion of the population never-married decreases. This is true for both men and women. For example, if we look at men age of 20–24 years (the first age group meeting the legal minimum age for marriage), the never-married proportion of men declines from 88.4% in special grade urban areas; 88.0% in grade I urban area; 84.6% in grade II urban areas; 83.5% in grade III urban areas; 78% in grade IV and V urban areas; and 71.5% in rural area. At the age 25–29, those proportions are 52.8%; 49.1%, 45.0%; 42.8%; 37.5% and 31.2% respectively. Regarding women in the age group 20–24, those respective proportions are 75.2%; 71.5%; 66.1%; 61.0%; 50.8% and 42.8%.

Table 3.7: Proportion never-married by age, sex, urban area (by grade of urban area) and rural area, 2009

Unit: Percent

Age group		Special grade	Grade I	Grade II	Grade III	Grade IV & V	Total urban	Total rural	Total
Male	15–19	99.0	99.1	99.1	98.8	98.6	98.9	97.4	97.8
	20–24	88.4	88.0	84.6	83.5	78.0	84.8	71.5	75.6
	25–29	52.8	49.1	45.0	42.8	37.5	46.1	31.2	35.8
	30–34	22.9	18.2	16.3	16.1	13.1	17.9	9.6	12.1
	35–39	14.1	10.3	7.8	8.4	6.4	9.9	4.2	5.9
	40–44	9.7	5.4	4.9	4.8	3.6	6	2.1	3.3
	45–49	6.4	3.7	3.5	2.7	2.0	3.9	1.2	2.1
	50+	2.8	1.1	1.1	1.2	0.8	1.5	0.5	0.8
	Total	**37.9**	**35.6**	**32.1**	**30.8**	**29.2**	**33.5**	**29.2**	**30.5**
Female	15–19	96.2	95.8	95.7	94.8	93.2	95.1	90.1	91.5
	20–24	75.2	71.5	66.1	61.0	50.8	66.3	42.8	50.8
	25–29	35.4	25.2	22.9	22.0	18.0	26.5	14.0	18.2
	30–34	17.4	10.3	9.5	9.3	8.1	12	6.1	8.0
	35–39	13.5	7.5	7.8	7.4	6.2	9.2	4.7	6.1
	40–44	12.8	7.4	6.9	6.8	5.8	8.4	4.5	5.7
	45–49	10.7	6.3	5.9	6.2	5.3	7.4	4.8	5.6
	50+	7.4	4.2	4.3	4.4	3.7	5.1	2.9	3.6
	Total	**33.6**	**28.8**	**27.3**	**24.8**	**22.2**	**27.9**	**21.3**	**23.3**

Age group		Special grade	Grade I	Grade II	Grade III	Grade IV & V	Total urban	Total rural	Total
Total	15–19	97.6	97.4	97.4	96.8	96.0	97	93.9	94.7
	20–24	81.4	79.4	74.4	71.6	64.1	75.1	57.4	63.1
	25–29	43.6	36.8	33.2	31.8	27.5	35.8	22.7	27.0
	30–34	20.0	14.2	12.8	12.7	10.5	14.9	7.9	10.1
	35–39	13.8	8.9	7.8	7.9	6.3	9.5	4.4	6.0
	40–44	11.3	6.4	5.9	5.8	4.7	7.3	3.3	4.5
	45–49	8.7	5.0	4.7	4.5	3.7	5.7	3.0	3.9
	50+	5.4	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.4	3.5	1.9	2.4
	Total	**35.6**	**32.1**	**29.6**	**27.6**	**25.6**	**30.5**	**25.1**	**26.8**

Consistent with the above result, singulate mean age at marriage (SMAM)[18] of urban residents is higher than among rural residents. SMAM of urban men is 27.7, about 2 years higher than rural men (25.6) and SMAM of urban women is 24.4, about 2.4 years higher than rural women (22.0). Urban lifestyle, desire for a permanent job before marriage, demand for higher quality family life are some factors leading to delays in marriage in urban areas.

There are substantial differences in the total fertility rates (TFR) between urban and rural areas. According to statistics in the *"The 2009 Vietnam Population and Housing Census: Major Findings"* report TFR in urban areas in 2009 was 1.81 children per woman, lower than the TFR of 2.14 children per woman in rural areas (CCSC 2010b: 54) Social and medical factors contribute to this difference, people in urban areas have easier access to birth control services, they have lower desire for many children than in rural area and infant mortality rates are lower. Similarly, figures for age specific fertility rates (ASFR) show that urban women tend to have children at older ages and have fewer children than rural women. If we age standardize the crude birth rate (CBR) of urban and rural areas in 2009 according to the national age structure, CBR in rural areas (18.5‰) is higher by 3.1 per 1000 compared to urban areas (15.4‰), reflecting the differences between rural and urban areas (CCSC 2010b: 61)

4.2 Socio-economic characteristics

Educational attainment and technical qualifications

Educational attainment is a basic indicator of development. According to data of the 2009 Census, the proportion of people who have never attended school in urban areas was 4.4% and in rural areas it was 8.1% .

The literacy rate of people aged 10 and older was 94%, nearly 3 percentage points higher than in 1999. The literacy rate in urban area was 96% and in rural areas was 92%. The urban-rural gap in

18 SMAM indicates the average number of years that a hypothetical cohort lives unmarried before the first marriage. This indicator is usually calculated separately by sex.

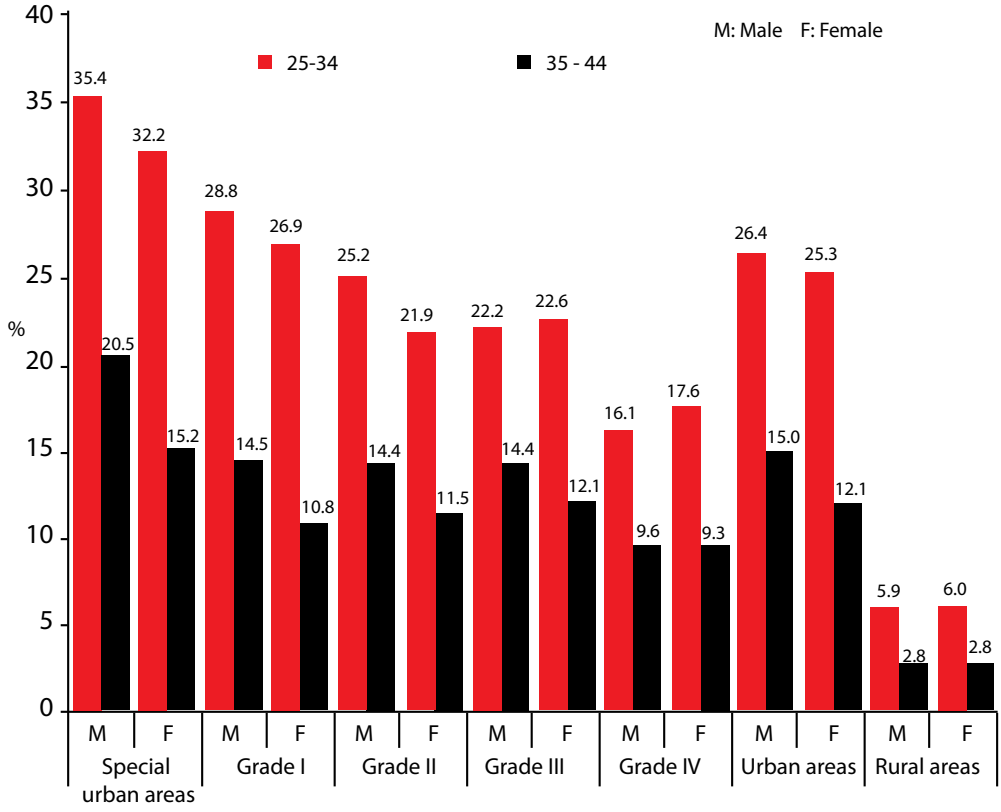
literacy rates fell due to the government policy of actively promoting universalization of education and elimination of illiteracy in recent years.

However, there are still substantial differences between urban and rural areas in indicators related to educational attainment of the population, especially in the higher educational levels. For example, 27.4% of people age 5 and older in urban areas have attained upper secondary education, 15.3% have attained junior college or university levels and 0.7% have post-graduate levels or higher. At the same time, in rural areas the same proportions are 16.9% for upper secondary, 3% for junior college or university levels and 0.03% for post-graduate levels (see Table 3.8). This indicates a substantial advantage to urban area, as centres of education, and with the important role of attracting highly educated people from rural areas.

It is also notable that the proportion of people age 5 years and older who have attained upper secondary or higher educational levels in both urban and rural areas has increased considerably compared to 1999. The gap between 1999 and 2009 in educational levels from lower secondary and higher has increased more rapidly in rural area than in urban areas.

Urban-rural differentials are greatest when comparing proportions of people who have attained junior college or university levels of education. Figure 3.4 shows the urban-rural gap in the proportion with junior college or university or post-graduate educational attainment across age groups. The two age groups of 25–34 and 35–44 are considered here. Regarding the 25–34 year age group, 26.4% of urban men and 25.3% of urban women have junior college or university or higher educational attainment, while these proportions in the rural population are 5.9% and 6.0% respectively. Regarding the 35–44 year age group, 15.0% of urban men and 12.1% of urban women have junior college/university or higher educational attainment, and these proportions in the rural population are 2.8% for both men and women. An important factor explaining these differences is the high concentration of universities, junior colleges and central government agencies in urban areas.

Figure 3.4: Percent with junior college, university and higher level qualification by sex, age group and place of residence, 2009



There are also differences in junior college/university and higher educational levels across different grades of urban areas. The proportion of the population having junior college/university or higher educational attainment was 22.7% in special grade urban areas, 18.5% in grade I urban areas, 15.4% in grade II urban areas, 13.4% in grade III urban areas and 8.6% in grade IV and V urban areas (see Table 3.8).[19]

19 Readers can refer to the Monograph on "Population Changes and Education in Vietnam" for more detailed analysis on education and training.

Table 3.8: Structure of educational attainment among people aged 5 and older in urban areas (by grade of urban area) and rural areas, 2009

Unit: Percent

Educational attainment		Special grade	Grade I	Grade II	Grade III	Grade IV & V	Total urban	Total rural	Total
Male	No schooling	3.0	3.5	3.8	3.9	4.8	3.8	6.2	5.5
	Primary	14.6	17.3	16.5	19.1	22.8	18.1	28.8	25.6
	L. secondary school	28.5	31.1	32.4	34.0	36.8	32.5	42.5	39.6
	U. secondary school	29.0	28.2	30.7	28.8	26.6	28.4	19.3	22.0
	Junior College/ University	23.1	19.1	16.0	13.8	8.8	16.3	3.2	7.0
	Post-graduate	1.8	0.8	0.6	0.4	0.2	0.9	0.0	0.3
	Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	Pop. aged 5+	3 600 128	1 460 614	1 388 534	1 725 514	3 115 528	11 290 318	27 349 449	38 639 767
Female	No schooling	3.6	4.9	4.6	4.9	6.7	4.9	10.0	8.5
	Primary	18.3	21.3	20.3	23.8	27.5	22.2	33.0	29.7
	L. secondary school	29.1	29.8	32.1	32.0	34.4	31.4	39.5	37.1
	U. secondary school	28.3	26.8	28.8	26.7	22.9	26.5	14.6	18.2
	Junior college/ University	19.6	16.6	13.9	12.3	8.3	14.4	2.9	6.4
	Post-graduate	1.1	0.5	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.5	0.0	0.2
	Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	Pop. aged 5+	3 937 894	1 545 717	1 494 741	1 831 701	3 219 170	12 029 223	27 831 808	39 861 031

Educational attainment		Special grade	Grade I	Grade II	Grade III	Grade IV & V	Total urban	Total rural	Total
Total	No schooling	3.3	4.2	4.2	4.4	5.8	4.4	8.1	7.0
	Primary	16.5	19.3	18.5	21.5	25.2	20.2	30.9	27.7
	L. secondary school	28.8	30.5	32.3	33.0	35.6	31.9	41.0	38.3
	U. secondary school	28.7	27.5	29.7	27.7	24.7	27.4	16.9	20.1
	Junior college/ University	21.3	17.8	14.9	13.1	8.5	15.3	3.0	6.7
	Post-graduate	1.4	0.7	0.5	0.3	0.1	0.7	0.0	0.2
	Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	Pop. aged 5+	7 538 022	3 006 331	2 883 275	3 557 215	6 334 698	23 319 541	55 181 257	78 500 798

Overall, 86.7% of the population aged 15 years and older have not obtained professional or technical training. The proportions with different levels of qualifications are quite low: 2.6% have technical worker level, 4.7% have vocational secondary school level, 1.6% have junior college level and 4.4% have university or higher level qualifications. These figures indicate a current irrationality in professional technical training in which lower levels including technical worker and secondary vocational qualifications account for only a small proportion of people with technical qualifications in the population aged 15 years and older.

There are urban-rural differentials in professional/technical qualifications of the population. Only about 8% of the rural population aged 15 and older had professional/technical qualifications of technical worker or higher levels and the proportion having junior college and university or higher levels is only about 3%. Meanwhile, the proportion with professional/technical qualifications in urban areas was 25.4%, of which junior college and higher levels accounted for 13.4% (see Table 3.9). This indicates a serious imbalance in the distribution of the professional and technical workforce between rural and urban areas.

Table 3.9: Structure of technical qualifications of the population aged 15 and older in urban areas (by grade of urban area) and rural areas, 2009

Unit: Percent

	Technical qualification	Special grade	Grade I	Grade II	Grade III	Grade IV & V	Total urban	Total rural	Total
Male	No training	67.3	70.8	66.8	68.2	77.5	70,6	90.2	84.3
	Technical worker with certificate	6.6	6.4	8.0	7.7	5.0	6,5	2.5	3.7
	Vocational secondary school	5.6	8.1	10.7	10.9	8.5	8,1	4.3	5.5
	Junior college	2.1	2.0	2.4	2.2	2.1	2,2	1.1	1.4
	University	16.7	12.0	11.5	10.5	6.7	11,8	1.8	4.8
	Post-graduate	1.7	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.2	0,8	0.0	0.3
	Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	Pop. aged 15+	3 084 118	1 222 371	1 151 502	1 424 084	2 530 000	9 412 075	21 849 945	31 262 020
Female	No training	75.8	78.8	77.4	77.5	82.9	78.5	93.7	89.0
	Technical worker with certificate	2.6	2.5	3.1	2.9	1.9	2.5	1.0	1.5
	Vocational secondary school	5.5	7.3	8.8	8.9	7.2	7.1	2.6	4.0
	Junior college	2.4	2.5	2.9	3.3	3.2	2.8	1.4	1.8
	University	12.8	8.5	7.6	7.2	4.7	8.7	1.2	3.5
	Post-graduate	0.9	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.0	0.2
	Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	Pop. aged 15+	3 465 408	1 329 902	1 278 698	1 556 738	2 685 029	10 315 775	22 752 935	33 068 710

Technical qualification		Special grade	Grade I	Grade II	Grade III	Grade IV & V	Total urban	Total rural	Total
Total	No training	71.8	75.0	72.4	73.1	80.3	74.7	92.0	86.7
	Technical worker with certificate	4.4	4.4	5.5	5.2	3.4	4.4	1.8	2.6
	Vocational secondary school	5.6	7.6	9.7	9.9	7.8	7.6	3.5	4.7
	Junior college	2.3	2.3	2.6	2.8	2.7	2.5	1.2	1.6
	University	14.6	10.2	9.4	8.8	5.7	10.2	1.5	4.2
	Post-graduate	1.3	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.1	0.6	0.0	0.2
	Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	Pop. aged 15+	6 549 526	2 552 273	2 430 200	2 980 822	5 215 029	19 727 850	44 602 880	64 330 730

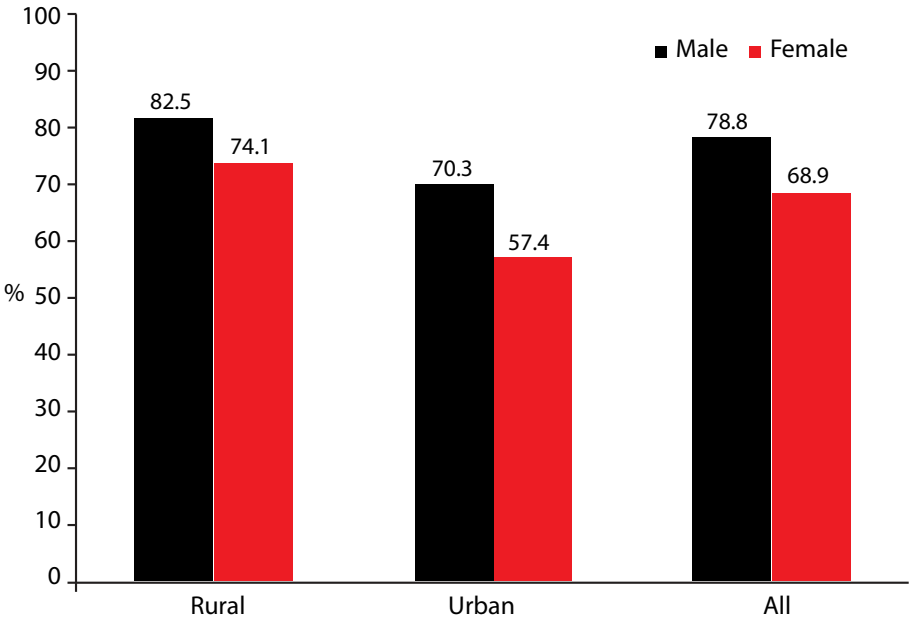
In urban areas, the proportion of the population aged 15 and older with professional/ technical skills, especially junior college and higher levels has increased over the past 10 years, but only slightly (7 percentage points for any technical training and 6 percentage points for junior college or higher educational levels) (CCSC 2000) (see Table 3.9).

Differentials in professional/technical qualifications across levels of urbanization are greatest among the groups with high professional qualifications. The proportion of the population with technical qualifications, especially with university or higher level qualifications is highest in the central city-provinces like Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City (special urban type) and grade I urban area. For example, the proportion of population aged 15 and older with university or higher qualifications is 16% in Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City, 11% in grade I urban areas, 10% in grade II urban areas, 9% in grade III urban areas and nearly 6% in grade IV and V urban areas (see Table 3.9).

Working population

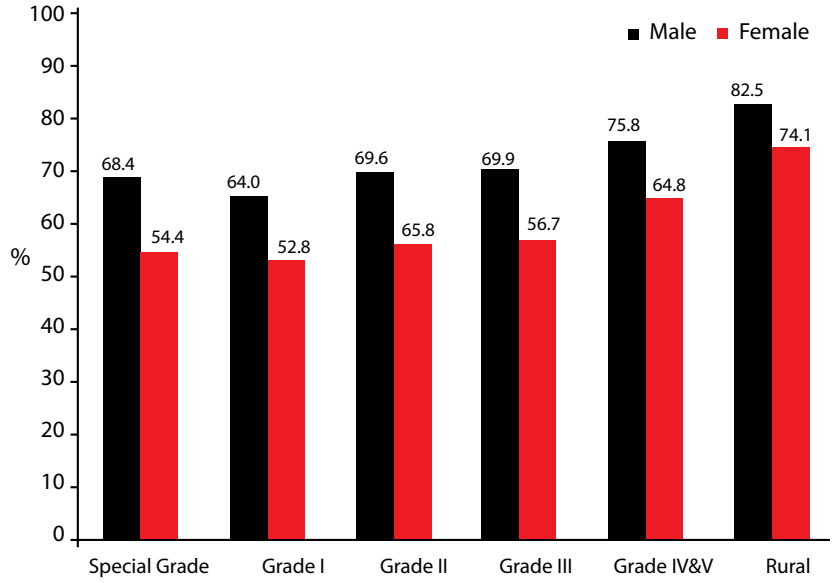
Population in working ages can be divided into those who were employed in an income-earning job and those who are not based on employment status in the 7 days before the Census. Figure 3.5 illustrates the working status of the population aged 15 and older classified by sex and urban- rural areas. There is a substantial urban-rural differential in working status. The proportions of both men and women with a job in the 7 days before the Census in rural areas was higher than in urban areas. Moreover, the working proportion of men was higher than for women in both rural and urban areas. The male-female differential in the proportion of the population with a job in the 7 days prior to the Census in urban areas (13 percentage points) is higher than in rural areas (8 percentage points) This may be a result of having a large number of aged women in urban areas whose main activity was housework.

Figure 3.5: Proportion of the population with income-earning job in the 7 days prior to the Census among the population aged 15 and older by sex and urban/rural residence, 2009



A comparison of working status by grade of urban area shows no big differentials (see Figure 3.6). However, there is a slight tendency that the higher the level of urbanization, the lower the proportion of the population aged 15 and older participating in income-earning jobs. It seems that the higher the level of urbanization, the more difficult it may be to find employment. Another possible explanation is that a higher share of the population may be in school. In addition, higher living standards may allow part of the population to choose not to take part in the labour force.

Figure 3.6: Proportion of the population with income-earning job in the 7 days before the Census among the population aged 15 and older by sex, urban/rural residence and grade of urban area, 2009



Analysis of economic sector in which workers are employed indicates some interesting employment patterns. Among people aged 15 and older who were employed in the 7 days before the census, the proportion of people employed in household enterprises decreased as the level of urbanization increased. For example, the proportion of men employed in the household enterprise sector was 76.9% nationally, however it was 86.1% in rural areas; 69.2% in grade IV and V urban areas, 52.7% in grade III urban areas; 47.9% in grade II urban areas; 50.7% in grade I urban areas and 37.8% in special urban areas. Meanwhile, regarding private, state and foreign-invested sectors, the opposite trend is seen, the proportion employed in these sectors increases as level of urbanization increases. In addition, a very low proportion of people report being employed in the collective sector, indicating that this economic model's potential is not being exploited. In general, only 0.4% of employed people work in this sector, with only slight differences among grades of urban area. The situation for women is similar (see Table 3.10).

Table 3.10: Proportion of people aged 15 and older with income earning job in the 7 days before the 2009 Census by sex, employment sector and grade of urban area

Unit: Percent

Employment sector		Special grade	Grade I	Grade II	Grade III	Grade IV & V	Total urban	Total rural	Total
Male	Percentage employed	68.4	64.9	69.6	69.9	75.8	70.3	82.5	78.8
	Self-employed individual	8.0	7.3	5.5	7.5	4.6	6.6	2.0	3.2
	Household enterprise	37.8	50.7	47.9	52.7	69.2	51.9	86.1	76.9
	Collective	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.4
	Private sector	25.4	16.5	15.9	12.3	6.9	15.8	4.1	7.3
	State sector	21.3	22.6	24.0	25.4	16.6	21.0	5.7	9.8
	Foreign	6.9	2.4	6.1	1.7	2.3	4.1	1.8	2.4
	Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	Pop. aged 15+	2 104 615	792 692	800 249	994 730	1 916 048	6 608 334	17 996 651	24 604 985
Female	Percentage employed	54.4	52.8	55.8	56.7	64.6	57.4	74.1	68.9
	Self-employed individual	7.2	7.5	6.1	7.4	4.4	6.3	1.9	3.1
	Household enterprise	38.2	51.8	45.4	54.1	68.1	51.8	86.1	77.2
	Collective	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.2
	Private sector	21.4	13.8	12.9	9.9	4.9	12.9	3.1	5.7
	State sector	21.1	21.7	22.4	25.2	18.0	21.0	5.2	9.3
	Foreign	11.6	4.9	12.9	3.2	4.5	7.6	3.5	4.6
	Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	Pop. aged 15+	1 881 104	701 447	713 120	881 710	1 730 788	5 908 169	16 834 425	22 742 594

Employment sector		Special grade	Grade I	Grade II	Grade III	Grade IV & V	Total urban	Total rural	Total
Total	Percentage employed	61.0	58.6	62.3	63.0	70.0	63.6	78.2	73.7
	Self-employed individual	7.7	7.4	5.8	7.4	4.5	6.5	2.0	3.1
	Household enterprise	38.0	51.2	46.7	53.4	68.7	51.9	86.1	77.1
	Collective	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.3
	Private sector	23.5	15.2	14.5	11.1	5.9	14.4	3.7	6.5
	State sector	21.2	22.2	23.3	25.3	17.2	21.0	5.4	9.6
	Foreign	9.1	3.6	9.3	2.4	3.3	5.8	2.6	3.4
	Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	Pop. aged 15+	3 985 719	1 494 139	1 513 369	1 876 440	3 646 836	12 516 503	34 831 076	47 347 579

Gender comparison indicates that in urban areas of all grades, there is no big difference in the structure of employment sector employing men and women, except for the foreign-invested sector. The proportion of urban women working in the foreign invested sector is much higher than that of men; in fact generally about two times higher. This may be related to features of the types of activity foreign enterprises invest in, mainly light industry and food processing, which are often regarded as more suitable for women to work in (see Table 3.10). Compared to the results of the 1999 Census, little change has occurred in employment patterns.

The unemployed population includes people aged 15 and older who met the following three criteria in the 7 days prior to the 2009 Census: 1) did not work; but 2) were available for work; and 3) took certain steps to look for a job. This group also includes those who were not working during that time but were planning to open businesses of their own or begin work in a new job after the census; or those who were always available to work but did not look for jobs because of temporary sickness, personal matters (funeral, wedding, taking care of young infants), bad weather or off season during the week before the census was conducted. The proportion unemployed calculated in this monograph is for the population in official working ages, meaning for men aged 15 to 59 and women aged 15 to 54.

The unemployment rate (proportion unemployed in the population) for people aged 15 and older in urban area was 4.6% overall and 4.9% for men and 4.2% for women. In rural areas the unemployment rate was 2.3%. The urban-rural differential in unemployment rates did not vary much by age group or sex. The higher unemployment rates found in urban areas may be a result of the higher reliance on wage work where employment is more clear cut compared to self-employed agricultural work. Nationally, 3.0% of the population in working ages was unemployed.

Age has a strong impact on differences in unemployment rates between urban and rural areas (see Table 3.11). Unemployment rates are higher for people in younger age groups, especially in urban areas and at the age of over 50 for men. The unemployed rate among people aged 15–19 in urban

areas was 11.2%, but ranged from 9% to 18% depending on the grade of urban area while for the age group 20–24, it was 8.9% overall, and ranged from 8% to 13%. A high proportion unemployed among young people indicates that national economic growth has not been able to create sufficient jobs to meet the need for employment of the increased workforce in young ages.

Table 3.11: Unemployment rates among the population in urban areas (by grade of urban area) and rural areas, 2009

Unit: Percent

	Age	Special grade	Grade I	Grade II	Grade III	Grade IV & V	Total urban	Total rural	Total
Male	15 –19	10.4	19.9	16.8	15.1	9.6	12.5	3.9	5.3
	20 –24	7.5	12.2	9.9	10.1	7.8	8.8	3.6	4.9
	25 –29	4.0	5.8	5.1	4.7	3.7	4.4	2.0	2.7
	30 –34	2.9	3.5	3.0	3.0	2.2	2.8	1.3	1.8
	35 –39	3.1	4.0	2.5	2.9	2.0	2.8	1.3	1.8
	40 –44	3.9	3.9	3.4	3.2	2.4	3.3	1.5	2.0
	45 –49	4.7	5.1	4.1	3.9	3.2	4.1	1.9	2.6
	50 –54	5.7	6.2	5.3	5.0	4.2	5.2	2.8	3.5
	55 –59	7.3	7.6	5.7	7.0	6.0	6.7	3.9	4.6
	Total	**4.8**	**6.4**	**5.2**	**5.1**	**4.1**	**4.9**	**2.3**	**3.0**
Female	15 –19	7.1	16.5	13.3	11.5	8.4	9.8	3.6	4.6
	20 –24	6.9	13.6	10.3	11.0	8.2	8.9	4.5	5.7
	25 –29	4.5	7.9	5.7	5.4	4.3	5.1	2.6	3.4
	30 –34	3.3	4.2	3.2	2.6	2.2	3.0	1.5	1.9
	35 –39	2.6	3.0	2.4	2.1	1.7	2.3	1.1	1.4
	40 –44	2.3	2.5	1.7	1.8	1.5	1.9	1.0	1.2
	45 –49	2.3	2.5	1.8	1.9	1.6	2.0	1.2	1.4
	50 –54	2.5	3.0	3.0	2.8	2.4	2.7	1.8	2.0
	Total	**4.0**	**6.0**	**4.8**	**4.3**	**3.5**	**4.2**	**2.2**	**2.7**
Total	15 –19	8.6	18.3	15.1	13.5	9.0	11.2	3.8	5.0
	20 –24	7.2	12.9	10.1	10.5	8.0	8.9	4.0	5.3
	25 –29	4.3	6.8	5.4	5.1	4.0	4.7	2.3	3.0
	30 –34	3.1	3.8	3.1	2.8	2.2	2.9	1.4	1.8
	35 –39	2.9	3.6	2.4	2.5	1.9	2.6	1.2	1.6
	40 –44	3.2	3.3	2.6	2.5	2.0	2.7	1.3	1.7
	45 –49	3.6	4.0	3.1	3.0	2.4	3.1	1.6	2.0
	50 –54	4.4	4.7	4.3	4.0	3.4	4.0	2.3	2.7
	55 –59	7.3	7.6	5.7	7.0	6.0	6.7	3.9	4.6
	Total	**4.4**	**6.2**	**5.0**	**4.7**	**3.8**	**4.6**	**2.3**	**3.0**

There are some differences between men and women in unemployment rates. Overall, the unemployment rate of men in urban areas is higher than that of women, however it is not distributed evenly among age groups. In the age group 15–19 years, the unemployment rate of men is higher than that of women, while for the age groups 20–24 years and 30–34 years, the unemployment rate of men is lower, and for the age groups over 35, the unemployment rate of men is again higher.

Comparing unemployment rates across different grades of urban areas, we can recognize a particular non-linear pattern. In the younger age groups (15–29), the highest proportions unemployed are found in grade I urban areas, followed by grade II and III, while unemployment rates in special urban areas and grade IV and V urban areas are quite similar. However, regarding the age groups of 30 and older, the general tendency is that unemployment rates are higher in areas with higher levels of urbanization, although this tendency is not as consistent as the patterns among younger age groups mentioned above. Remarkably, these two trends are very similar for men and women.

Housing condition and household amenities

Another socio-economic characteristics that can be compared between urban and rural areas or among different grades of urban areas is housing quality and amenities like availability of electricity and clean water. In addition, household assets like televisions, telephones, refrigerators, air-conditioners, computers, washing machines and motorbikes are also indicators of material quality of life which can be compared between rural and urban households.

In general, the proportion of households sharing an apartment in urban area is higher than in rural areas, with the differential of 2.6 percentage points (9.7% compared to 7.1%). Thus, compared to the 1999 Census, the proportion of households sharing housing has increased in both regions (in 1999, it was 7.7% of urban households and 5.8% of rural households). The above overall differential is generally quite small across rural and urban areas. However, when we examine differences across grades of urban area we find that the proportion sharing housing in grade II to grade V urban areas is lower than in rural areas, while the proportion sharing housing in the two special urban areas is considerably higher. For example, the proportion sharing housing in special urban areas is 17.2%, while it is in the range of from 6 to 8% in other grades of urban area (see Table 3.12).

Table 3.12: Proportion of households with different housing characteristics in urban areas (by grade of urban area) and rural areas, 2009

Unit: Percent

Characteristics	Urban types					Total urban	Total rural	Total
	Special grade	Grade I	Grade II	Grade III	Grade IV & V			
1. Sharing housing	17.2	8.2	6.1	6.4	5.6	9.7	7.1	7.9
2. Housing area per head: **Not shared housing (%)**								
<4 m^2	2.0	1.4	1.8	1.1	1.0	1.5	0.9	1.1
4–6 m^2	4.3	4.2	4.8	3.0	2.9	3/8	3.1	3.3
6–10 m^2	11.7	13.2	12.8	11.0	12.0	12.0	15.0	14.1
10+ m^2	82.0	81.2	80.6	84.9	84.1	82.8	81.1	81.6

Regarding households with their own homes, average housing area per capita in urban areas is lower than in rural areas although the difference is minor. The proportion of households in special urban areas and in grade I and II urban areas with housing area per capita under 6m2 is substantially higher than in rural areas and smaller urban areas. The proportion of households with housing area per capita of under 6m2 was 6.3% in special urban areas, 5.7% in grade I urban areas, 6.4% in grade II urban areas, 4% in rural areas, 4.1% in grade III urban areas and 3.9% in grade IV and V urban areas.

This shows that there is a large differential in housing conditions between highly urbanized areas and less urbanized areas or rural areas.

The gap in living conditions between urban and rural areas is reflected most clearly in the probability of having access to basic amenities. Figures in Table 3.13 show that generally there has been remarkable progress in increasing access to electricity in Vietnam as the proportion of households without access to electricity has fallen from 22% in 1999 to only 3.1% in 2009. The proportion of households without electricity in urban area is considerably lower than in rural area. In grade III up through special grade urban areas only 0.2–0.4% of households are without electricity, while this figure is 4.3% in rural areas and 0.9% in grade IV and V rural areas The proportion of households with access to clean water sources in urban areas is substantially higher than in rural areas, 96.8% compared to 86.6%. Comparison among urban areas shows a higher proportion of households using clean water sources in more urbanized areas; 99.5% of households in special urban area compared to 94–98% in other grades of urban area.

Table 3.13: Proportion of households with various household amenities, by grade of urban area, 2009

Unit: Percent

Amenity	Urban grade					Total urban	Total rural	Total
	Special grade	Grade I	Grade II	Grade III	Grade IV & V			
1. No electricity	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.9	0.4	4.3	3.1
2. Source of drinking water								
Piped from water treatment plant	73.3	81.5	75.7	66.0	36.7	63.,5	8.6	25.5
Rain water	0.2	1.8	0.3	2.2	6.1	2.4	16.1	11.9
Other clean water source	26.0	11.5	21.7	29.0	51.2	31.0	61.9	52.4
Other source	0.5	5.1	2.3	2.8	6.0	3.2	13.4	10.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
3. Type of toilet								
Indoor flush toilet	93.5	76.9	76.7	65.9	44.6	71.4	18.0	34.4
Outdoor flush toilet	5.8	14.7	17.0	21.3	25.9	16.3	21.0	19.6
Simple toilet	0.5	7.2	4.0	10.7	24.4	10.0	50.8	38.3
No toilet	0.3	1.1	2.3	2.2	5.1	2.3	10.2	7.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
4. Television set	93.2	89.4	90.6	91.3	90.7	91.4	84.9	86.9
5. Telephone	67.4	62.1	61.6	61.4	55.8	61.8	38.7	45.8
6. Computer	49.6	31.8	28.9	24.6	17.3	31.8	5.4	13.5
7. Washing machine	52.6	38.2	35.7	29.4	20.5	36.1	5.5	14.9
8. Refrigerator	72.6	57.1	58.7	53.4	42.3	57.5	20.2	31.6
9. Air conditioner	31.7	12.5	12.3	10.6	5.7	16.3	1.3	5.9
10. Motorbike	91.1	81.5	82.8	81.2	76.6	83.3	67.6	72.4

Overall, 87.7% of households in urban areas had flush toilets with septic tanks or sewage pipes, inside or outside the house, while that proportion in rural area was 39%. The proportion of urban households relying on simple toilets was 10% and the proportion without a toilet was 2.3% (in rural areas these figures were 50% and 10.2% respectively). Compared to the situation in 1999, it can be seen that sanitation conditions of households in urban areas have improved considerably (in 1999, the proportion of households using simple toilets like double-pit compost latrines, single

pit latrines or simply a hole dug in the ground was quite high, 33.8%. In particular in 1999, 8.4% of urban households had no toilet at all).

There was a substantial difference in toilet conditions among different types of urban areas. While over 99% of households in special urban areas, and about 92–93% of households in grade I and II urban areas had toilets that flushed to a septic tank or sewage pipes inside or outside their dwelling, this proportion was only 87% in grade III urban areas, and 70% in grade IV and V urban areas. The proportion of households without a toilet in grade IV and V urban areas was about 30%.

The proportion of households having at least one television set is an indicator reflecting the quality of material and intellectual life of people. Access and use of a television to get information about all aspects of life are important factors influencing changes in people's behaviour. The proportion of urban households having a television was 91.4% compared to 84.9% among rural households. Compared to results of the 1999 Census, there was a substantial decline in the urban-rural gap in television ownership (in 1999, 76.5% of urban households and 46.1% of rural households had a television). The proportion of households with a television varies only slightly across grades of urban areas.

Together with the television, another commonly found asset in urban and rural areas is the motorbike with 83.3% of urban households and 67.6% of rural households having at least one. A high proportion and small urban-rural differential in motorbike ownership results partly from the fact that people consider the motorcycle to be important not only for its consumption value, but also for the transport services it provides. Therefore, for many rural households, the motorbike is an important means of production, and even though their lives still encounter many difficulties, they still try to obtain a motorbike for their work.

While television sets and motorbikes are assets that have become widely available in all households in recent times, some other assets commonly associated with urban lifestyles have begun to appear in rural households. For example, 61.8% of urban households and 38.7% of rural households have telephones; 31.8% of urban households and 5.4% of rural households have computers; 36.1% of urban households and 5.5% of rural households have washing machines; 57.5% of urban households and 20.2% of rural households have refrigerators; 16.3% of urban households and 1.3% of rural households have air-conditioners.

Regarding assets used in daily life discussed above, there are clear differentials between rural and urban areas and between grades of urban area The higher the level of urbanization, the higher the proportion of households that have access to these assets. Compared to other types of urban area, the proportion of households in special urban areas with access to these assets is considerably higher. For example, computer and washing machine ownership is twice as prevalent in special urban areas as in grade IV and V urban areas, while air conditioner use is three times higher.

In conclusion, the level of urbanization is closely related to living condition of the people. The higher the grade of urban area, the higher the material quality of life. This is reflected clearly through housing quality, clean water supply, sanitation and ownership of other assets for family life. Clear differences exist in some indicators between special urban areas and other types of urban areas. In other words, the urban population residing in areas with the highest levels of urbanization benefit from the amenities resulting from better infrastructure and the incomes that give them greater access to other assets for family life.

5. URBANIZATION TRENDS AND PROSPECTS

Trends and patterns in urbanization in Vietnam have changed dramatically over the last decade. In general, the urban share of the population increased in all provinces. There were 6 central city-provinces and provinces with an increase of more than 10 percentage points in the urban share of the population compared to 1999 (see the figures indicated in pink in Table 3.14) including: Can Tho (41.5 percentage points); Binh Thuan (16 percentage points); Bac Ninh (14.2 percentage points); Ninh Thuan (12.5 percentage points); Vinh Phuc (12.2 percentage points); Hai Phong (12.1 percentage points). Some 10 provinces and central city-provinces had increases of from 5 to 10 percentage points (see the figures indicated in yellow in Table 3.14) including Cao Bang, Quang Ninh, Hai Duong, Nam Dinh, Ninh Binh, Ha Tinh, Thua Thien Hue, Ba Ria-Vung Tau, An Giang, Da Nang. (see Table 3.14) In Table 3.14, figures with turquoise colour indicate provinces in which the urban share of the population actually decreased.

Table 3.14: Urban share of population by province, 1989, 1999 and 2009

Unit: Percent

Province	Urban 1989	Urban 1999	Urban 2009
Northern Midlands and Mountains			
Ha Giang	8.9	8.4	12.0
Cao Bang	9.7	10.9	17.2
Bac Can	18.8	14.5	16.2
Tuyen Quang	8.9	11.1	12.9
Lao Cai	16.0	17.1	21.2
Dien Bien	-	-	15.2
Lai Chau	13.2	12.2	14.3
Son La	13.1	12.8	13.9
Yen Bai	16.0	19.6	18.9
Hoa Binh	10.2	13.8	15.2
Thai Nguyen	18.8	20.9	25.6
Lang Son	7.6	18.7	19.3
Bac Giang	5.0	7.4	9.6
Phu Tho	7.0	14.2	15.9
Red River Delta			
Ha Tay	10.2	8.0	-
Quang Ninh	43.1	44.1	50.3
Vinh Phuc	7.0	10.2	22.4

Province	Urban 1989	Urban 1999	Urban 2009
Bac Ninh	5.0	9.4	23.6
Hai Duong	5.0	13.8	19.1
Hung Yen	5.0	8.7	12.3
Thai Binh	5.3	5.8	9.9
Ha Nam	10.7	6.1	9.8
Nam Dinh	10.7	12.4	17.7
Ninh Binh	10.7	12.8	17.9
North and South Central Coast			
Thanh Hoa	7.2	9.2	10.4
Nghe An	8.3	10.2	12.6
Ha Tinh	8.3	8.9	14.9
Quang Binh	7.7	10.8	15.1
Quang Tri	13.6	23.5	27.6
Thua Thien Hue	26.7	27.6	36.1
Quang Nam	30.1	14.3	18.6
Quang Ngai	8.2	11.0	14.7
Binh Dinh	18.0	24.0	27.8
Phu Yen	18.2	18.9	21.9
Khanh Hoa	37.4	36.4	39.7
Ninh Thuan	22.2	23.6	36.1
Binh Thuan	22.2	23.4	39.4
Central Highlands			
Kon Tum	15.8	32.1	33.8
Gia Lai	19.3	24.9	28.6
Dac Lac	16.2	20.0	22.5
Dac Nong	-	-	14.8
Lam Dong	34.2	38.7	37.9
Southeast			
Binh Phuoc	4.7	15.2	16.8
Tay Ninh	10.6	17.9	15.8
Binh Duong	4.7	32.6	29.9

Province	Urban 1989	Urban 1999	Urban 2009
Dong Nai	24.9	30.5	33.2
Ba Ria-Vung Tau	91.5	41.6	49.8
Mekong River Delta			
Long An	12.7	16.5	17.5
Tien Giang	12.4	13.3	13.8
Ben Tre	7.4	8.5	10.0
Tra Vinh	9.6	12.9	15.3
Vinh Long	9.6	14.4	15.4
Dong Thap	11.4	14.5	17.2
An Giang	18.8	19.7	28.4
Kien Giang	21.1	22.1	26.9
Hau Giang	-	-	19.7
Soc Trang	18.0	17.9	19.5
Bac Lieu	18.9	24.5	26.3
Ca Mau	18.9	18.7	20.5
5 central city-provinces			
Ha Noi	35.7	57.6	40.8
Hai Phong	31.1	34.0	46.1
Da Nang	30.1	78.6	86.9
Ho Chi Minh City	73.6	83.5	83.2
Can Tho	18.0	21.3	65.8

It is important to realize that the increase in the urban share of the population in provinces and cities did not merely result from economic growth and industrialization. Geographical reclassification played an important role in increasing the urban share of the population in many areas. For example, Can Tho city has just been upgraded to a central city-province after most of its districts were split off to establish Hau Giang province. Vinh Phuc transferred rural Me Linh district to Hanoi so the urban share of the population increased. Another important factor affecting urbanization is clearly migration. The increasing urban share of the population in some provinces like Cao Bang, Ha Tinh, Nam Dinh, and Ninh Binh was due to the departure of large numbers of rural residents from these provinces as they migrated to other places to work as analyzed in Chapter 2 on migration.

The urban share of the population decreased compared to the share in 1999 in some provinces and cities, like Yen Bai, Lam Dong, Tay Ninh, Binh Duong and Hanoi. The decrease in urban share of the population was not substantial, except in Hanoi where it decreased by 17 percentage points due to administrative border re-classification. Compared to 1999, a large number of rural areas in

former Ha Tay and Vinh Phuc provinces were merged into Hanoi in 2009. In fact, transferring rural Me Linh district to Hanoi was the main factor increasing the urban share of the population in Vinh Phuc province by 12.2% in 2009 compared to 1999. For Ho Chi Minh City, the urban share of the population increased 10 percentage points between 1989 and 1999, but between 1999 and 2009 it remained almost unchanged.

In the last decade, not only has the urban share of the population increased, but there have also been substantial changes in socio-economic and demographic characteristics. Some of the changes in these characteristics are discussed in the following section.

Figures 3.7 and 3.8 present the sex ratios in urban areas in 1989, 1999 and 2009 by age group. In Figure 3.8 the curves are adjusted: the curve for 1989 was shifted 20 years ahead and the curve for 1999 was shifted 10 years ahead to allow comparison of sex ratios of the same age group. In this figure, the three lines illustrating the years 1989, 1999 and 2009 would be the same if there were no impacts of migration or mortality. Differences among the three curves reflect difference between men and women in terms of mortality and migration.

From Figure 3.7 an increase in the sex ratio of urban residents in the age group 0–4 years in 2009 was higher than the same age group in 1989 and 1999. In general, sex ratios in this age group at all three points in time were high (about 110). In examining age groups up to 20–24 years or over 70 years, the curves have quite a similar shape. However, in the middle-age groups, sex ratios differ substantially at different points in time. The sex ratio of the age groups from 45–49 years through 55–59 years had an increasing trend at the time of the 1989 Census, while at the time of the 1999 and 2009 Censuses there was a decreasing trend. The impact of war is reflected clearly in these age groups.

Figure 3.8, presents the same cohort distribution of sex ratios but it is adjusted to allow comparison of the gap in sex ratio of the birth cohort aged 25–34 years in the year 2009 to sex ratio of the same birth cohort aged 15–24 in 1999 and aged 5–14 in 1989. The result reflects the greater rural to urban migration of women in these age groups compared to men. In contrast, more men migrated to urban area than women in the previous two decades, i.e. the cohort aged 35–44 in 2009. It is very difficult to distinguish the impact of migration on differences in sex ratio regarding older age groups due to the increasing impact of mortality as age increases.

Figure 3.7: Sex ratio by age group in urban areas, 1989–2009 (unadjusted)

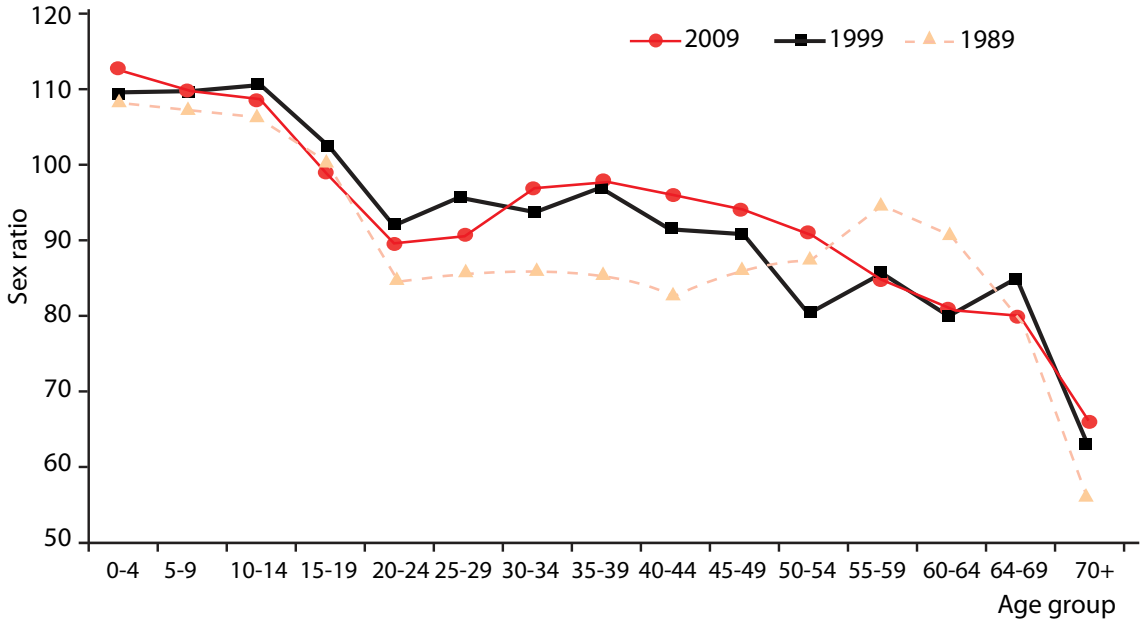
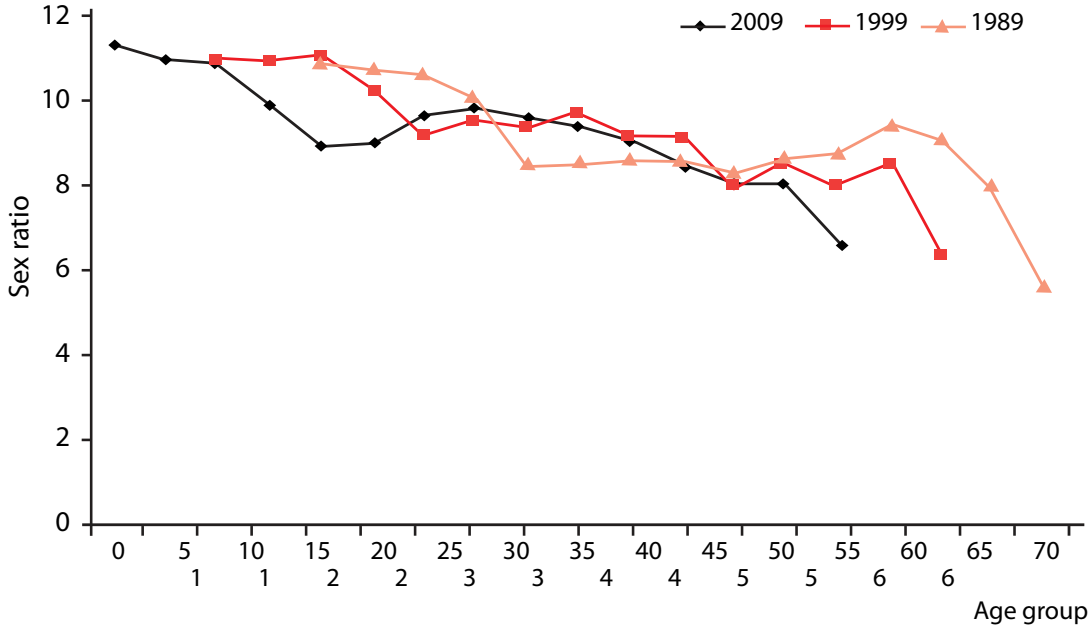


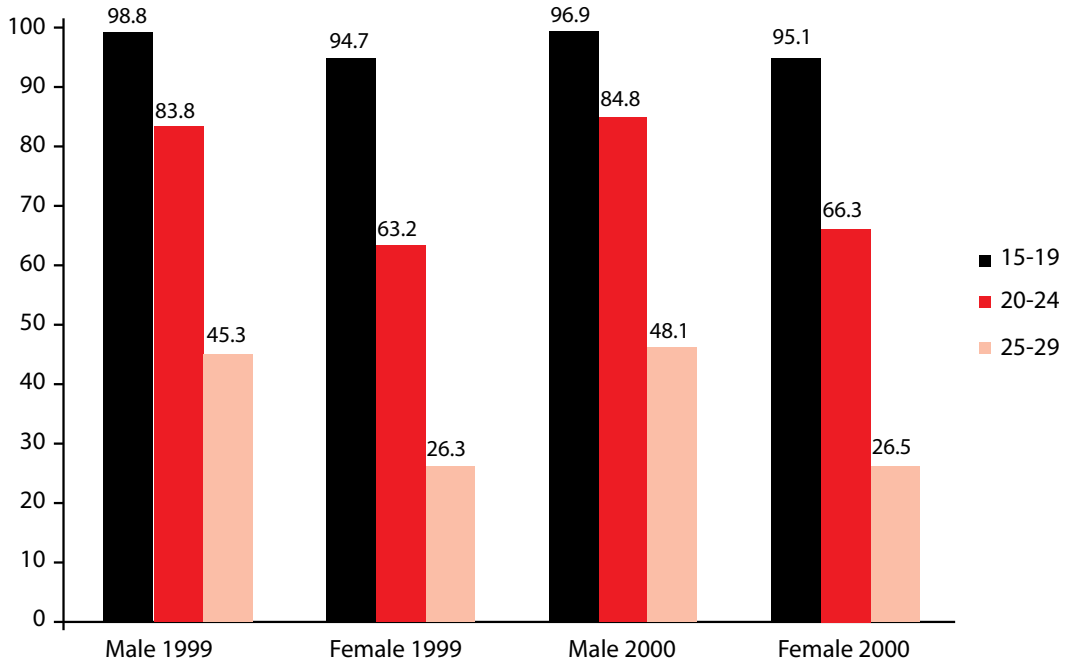
Figure 3.8: Sex ratio by age group in urban areas, 1989-2009 (adjusted)



Regarding age at marriage, no trend of delayed marriage was found in urban areas in 2009 compared to 1999. This finding is rather different from that in rural areas. According to the 1999 Census, 62.3% of the rural population aged 20–24 had never been married, while this proportion has increased to 71.5% by 2009. For the age group of 25–29, 22.3% were never married in 1999 compared to 31.2% in 2009. Singulate mean age at marriage (SMAM) of men in rural areas also increased by about 1 year. However, SMAM of women decreased slightly (from 22.3 in 1999 to 22.0 in 2009).

In 2009, SMAM of urban men was 27.7 (compared to 27.6 years in 1999) and that of urban women was 24.4 (slightly lower than 24.7 years in 1999). Consistent with this result, the proportion never married among men and women has not increased For example, regarding the three youngest age groups from 15–19 to 25–29 and comparing data from 2009 and 1999, we can see only slight differences in the never-married proportions of both men and women of this age group (see Figure 3.9 and Appendix Table A-3.7 for further reference). These results suggest that this is the threshold of mean age at marriage of urban people and it is not likely to increase much in the next decade. When life improves and it is easier to find good jobs, young people may be ready to enter marriage earlier to stabilize their lives.

Figure 3.9: Proportion never married by sex and age, 1999-2009



It is noteworthy that the urban-rural gap in fertility has declined compared to the 1999 Census. The TFR in rural areas in 2009 was substantially lower compared to 1999 (from 2.6 to 2.14 children) while TFR in 2009 increased slightly in urban area (from 1.7 to 1.81 children). The tendency of better-off families to have more children is one reason for these changes in fertility. In addition, the establishment of new urban areas where urban lifestyles were previously not common and fertility was high, has also contributed to the increase in TFR of urban areas.

When the 1999 Census was analyzed, the total fertility rate in urban areas was below replacement level (TFR =1.7) and it was not expected to decrease much in subsequent periods. Results of the 2009 Census confirmed this expectation, in fact the TFR in urban areas had actually increased slightly. However, we predict that in the near future (the next decade) TFR in urban areas will not be able to increase much because most urban people now are aware of the importance of having just one or two children and technology and medical achievement can help people to control their fertility. Therefore, in the future migration will be the major factor determining urban population growth, both directly due to migration and indirectly because most migrants are in child-bearing ages.

The educational attainment of the urban population has increased over the period covered by the three censuses. The literacy rate of the population aged 10 and older in urban areas in 1989 was 94%, while in 1999 it had increased to 95.2% (CCSC 2000: 69; GSO 1991: 50) and by 2009 to 96.6%. Compared to the 1999 Census, the proportion of people who have never attended school has decreased substantially (from about 10% in 1999 to 7% in 2009). This shows the improvements in access to education over the last decade. The proportion of the urban population aged 5 and older having junior college or higher educational levels in the 2009 Census was 16%, much higher than in the 1999 and 1989 Censuses (CCSC, 2000: 67; GSO, 1991: 55). Based on socio-economic achievements in the past, and increasing demands of the market economy, it can be predicted that in the next decade, the educational level of urban residents in Vietnam will increase even further.

The urban-rural gap in educational level is becoming smaller. For example, the urban-rural differentials in literacy rates, the drop-out rate and the proportion never attending school in 2009 was much smaller than in 1999 for the age group in general schooling However, the urban-rural gap in the proportion of those achieving junior college, university or higher levels is still large and a majority of the population with higher educational attainment and professional/technical qualifications, especially young people, still tend to choose to live in urban areas.

CHAPTER 4: MIGRATION AND URBANIZATION

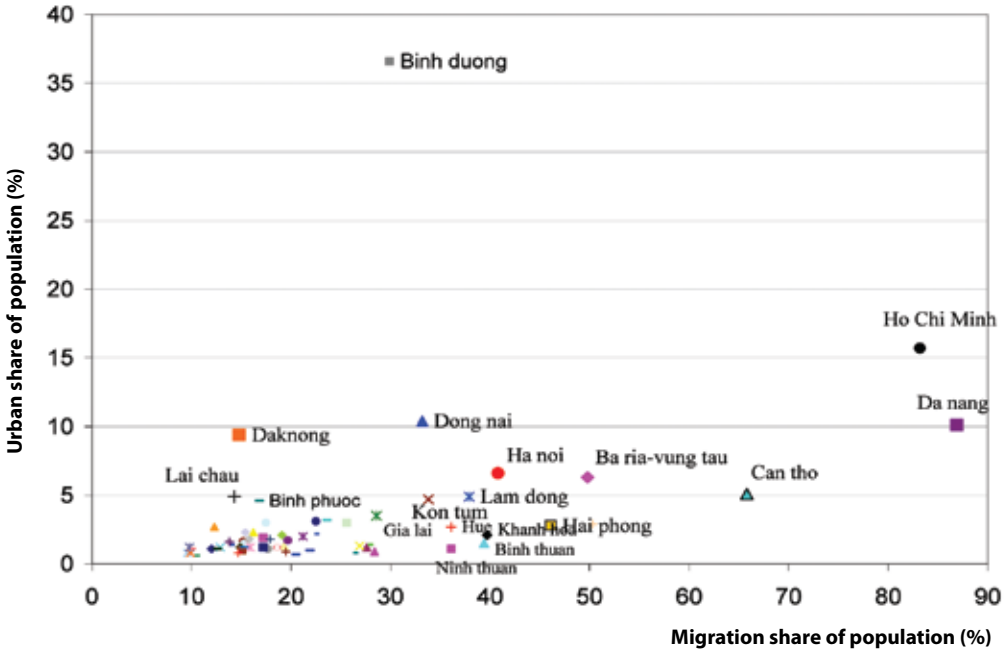
1. MIGRATION AND URBAN POPULATION

In general, 2009 data indicate that provinces with a higher urban share of the population also had higher migrant share of the population (see Figure 4.1). Ho Chi Minh City and Da Nang were provinces with exceptionally high urban shares (i.e. more than 80% of the population) and high migrant shares in the population. The former Hanoi before merging with Ha Tay province would also have fallen into this group of provinces.

Contemporary Ha Noi and Can Tho – two other central city-provinces – were also located on the upper right quadrant of Figure 4.1 indicating that they both had high migrant and high urban shares of the population. Hai Phong was an exception as it was much less attractive to migrants regardless of its high urban share of population.

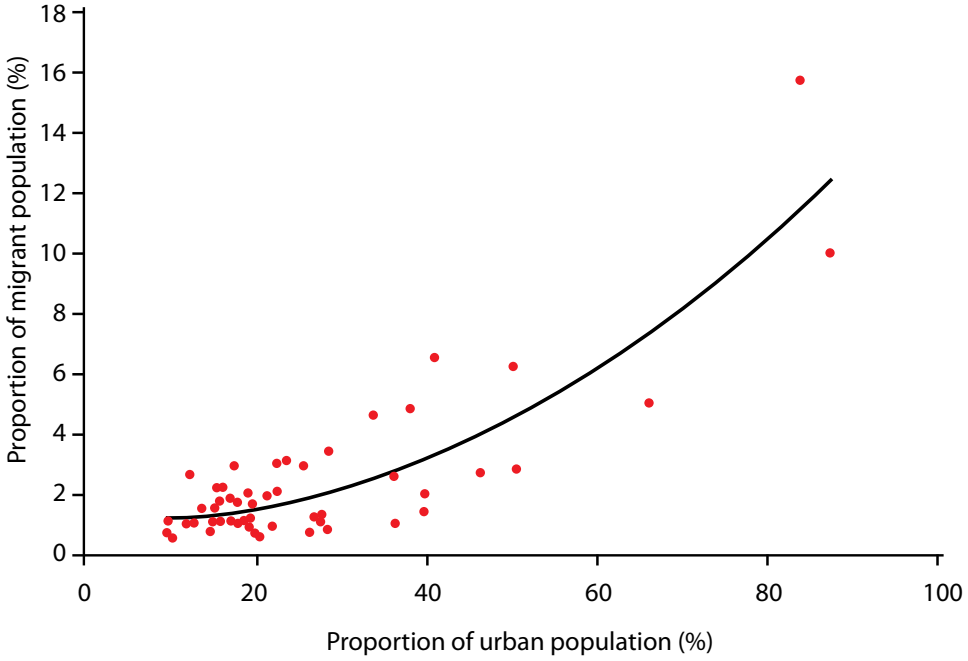
Figure 4.1. also helps to identify several 'outliers', i.e. Binh Duong, Dong Nai, Dak Nong, Binh Phuoc and Lai Chau provinces. The presence of those exceptions and outliers suggests a diversification of migration pulling factors. As mentioned above, Binh Duong and Dong Nai provinces are well-known for their high concentration of industrial parks with a very high demand for migrant labour. Lai Chau, Dak Nong and Binh Phuoc are provinces that have split from other provinces in the recent past and have a high demand for migrant labour from other provinces.

Figure 4.1: Migrant and urban shares of the population by province, 2009



Without those 'outliers', there is a clear positive correlation between migration and urban share of population, with the relationship illustrated with a curve sloping up slightly to the right as seen in Figure 4.2.

Figure 4.2: Trend line fitting migration and urban shares of population after exclusion of 'outliers', 2009



2. MIGRATION BY GRADE OF URBAN AREAS

A positive relationship between migration and level of urbanization was also found using Census data. Table 4.1 presents the migrant population and share of migrants in the population for each type of migration and flow of migrants to urban areas by grade of urban area using 2009 Census data. It was found that inter-provincial migrants contributed a greater share of population to urban areas in each and every type of urban areas than inter-district migrants. Moreover, it was also found that the greater the level of urbanization, the higher the share of inter-district and inter-provincial migrants in the population. Similar results were found when looking at migration flows to urban areas by types of urban area: the greater the level of urbanization the larger the share of rural-to-urban migrant population and urban-to-urban migrant population in its urban population.

Table 4.1: Migrant population and migrant share of total population in each grade of urban area, 2009

	Special urban area	Grade I	Grade II	Grade III	Grade IV & V
Urban population	8 151 292	3 271 084	3 151 083	3 875 846	6 924 957
Migrant population by type of migration					
Intra-district migrant	231 231	137 373	168 851	141 981	138 633
	2.8%	4.2%	5.4%	3.7%	2.0%
Inter-district migrant	573 408	161 423	121 196	150 876	104 757
	7.0%	4.9%	3.8%	3.9%	1.5%
Inter-provincial migrant	1 078 203	225 445	211 091	160 317	270 478
	13.2%	6.9%	6.7%	4.1%	3.9%
Migrant population by migration flow to urban areas					
R-U migrant	905 662	250 147	269 222	257 399	379 742
	11.1%	7.6%	8.5%	6.6%	5.5%
U-U migrant	926 156	262 911	224 543	185 280	120 167

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

1. KEY FEATURES OF MIGRATION AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

Census sample data provided a general picture of internal migration and how it has changed in Vietnam over the last three decades. Some remarkable changes of migration and migrants over that period were observed. Although some information relating to international migration was available, it was not well captured in the Census because it included only Vietnamese immigrants; foreign immigrants and emigrants were excluded. The immigrant population and proportion was also very small and hence it was excluded from in-depth analysis in this monograph. For internal migration, it should be noted that the full heterogeneity of the migrant population could not be captured in the Census; data only covered migrants whose current place of residence is different from the place of residence five years previously; temporary migration was under-estimated or not included in the Census. Since only migration in relation to place of residence 5 years previously was considered, analysis in this report included only the population aged 5 or older. Important features and changes in internal migration in Vietnam are highlighted in the following section.

1.1. The migrant population, especially inter-provincial migrants, increased in both absolute and relative terms. In the past decade, migration has accelerated . The inter-provincial migrant population increased to 3.4 million people in 2009 from 2 million in 1999 and 1.3 million in 1989; its share of total population increased to 4.3% in 2009 from 2.9% in 1999 and 2.5% in 1989. While the annual population growth rate of non-migrants fell to 1.1% during the 1999–2009 period from 2.4% during the 1989–1999 period, the growth rate of inter-district migrants increased to 4.2% from 0.6% and the growth rate of inter-provincial migrants increased to 5.4% from 4.0% over the same period. A simple projection indicates that the inter-provincial migrant population could rise to almost 6 million people, accounting for 6.4% of total population by 2019. As the migrant population has increased rapidly and accounts for a substantial share of the total population, migrants deserve greater attention in development plans and policies.

1.2. There was clear evidence of the 'feminization of migration' while the opposite trend is occurring for the non-migrant population. Females accounted for more than half of the migrant population in almost all types of migration and flows of migrants between urban and rural areas according to 2009 Census data (the exception is urban-to-rural migration in which the female proportion was very close to 50%). Interestingly, the female proportion of the migrant population increased while this proportion among the non-migrant population decreased. Females had a higher propensity to move within a lower level of administrative boundary (i.e. propensity to move within the boundaries of the commune was greater than the district and greater than the province). The limited evidence from available studies on female migrants suggest that female migrants are more vulnerable than male migrants. These results imply that further studies on the situation of female migrants should be implemented and migration-related policies should be responsive to gender aspects of migration.

1.3. Migration contributed substantially to urban population size and there is clear evidence of a positive relationship between migration and urbanization. Most of the provinces with high migrant share of population were central city-provinces. With the exception of some 'outlier' provinces that had a high density of industrial parks, provinces that had a high migrant share of the population also had a high urban share of the population and vice versa. It was also interesting to find that the higher the level of urbanization, the larger the migrant share of the population; special urban areas, i.e. central city-provinces, had the largest migrant shares of the population. While migrants made an increasingly large contribution to urban areas, there are continuing concerns about ensuring social protection for them. There is a need for increased research to understand migrant participation in society, politics and the economy in destination areas, especially in large cities.

1.4. Migrants, especially female migrants, are young; inter-provincial migrants are becoming younger while the non-migrant population is old and getting older. There was a high concentration of migrants, especially inter-provincial migrants, between the ages of 15 to 29 years in 2009. Inter-provincial migrants were the youngest with median age of 24 years; inter-district and intra-district migrants were just a bit older with median age of 25 and 26 years old respectively in the same year. Non-migrants had a much older population pyramid with median age of 30 years in 2009. Comparisons of age structure between migrant and non-migrant populations across the three Censuses indicated that migrants, especially female migrants, had gotten younger while non-migrants had gotten older over the last three decades. Median age of female migrants fell from 25 years in 1989 to 24 years in 1999 to 23 years in 2009. At the same time, median age of female non-migrants increased sharply from 25 years in 1989 to 28 in 1999 and 31 in 2009. The contrasting aging patterns between migrant and non-migrant populations suggests that the receiving areas are gaining young workers through migration while the sending areas are increasing left to face problems associating with population aging such as the increase in the dependency ratio, reduction in productivity, and challenges of providing social security for the aged population.

1.5. Large regional variations in migration and substantial changes in regional migration are apparent. The Southeast was a major destination place already in 1999 and migration to this region has accelerated during the past decade. In contrast, the Central Coast and Mekong River Delta regions were major places of origin in 1999 and migration from those regions has accelerated during the past decade. While migrants to the Red River Delta region mostly came from the nearby northern regions, migrants to the Southeast came in large number from all regions of the country. Out-migration from the Red River Delta and in-migration to the Central Highlands both fell; The out-migrant population no longer significantly outnumbered the in-migrant population in the Red River Delta region in 2009 as it had in 1999 and the in-migrant population no longer outnumbered the out-migrant population in the Central Highlands region in 2009 as it had in 1999. Although migrants and their families in both the place of origin and the place of destination gain considerably through the migration process, migration may increase the regional economic gaps; the Southeast is experiencing faster economic growth while the Central Coast and Mekong River Delta regions experience slower economic growth in part due to migration. Government policies compensating for disadvantages in these regions are recommended.

1.6. There was large provincial variation in migration. The in-migrant population accounted for more than 10% of total population in some provinces; exceptionally, in Binh Duong more than a third of the total population consists of migrants. In contrast, the migrant population in many

other provinces accounted for less than 1% of total population. The net gain of population through migration was almost one million people in Ho Chi Minh City and half a million people in Binh Duong province. In contrary, Thanh Hoa province experienced a net loss of almost 200 000 people and Nghe An province lost more than 100 000. Again, the figures would be much higher if temporary migrants were included. The finding suggests that some provinces should pay greater attention to migration-related policies and programs.

1.7. Migrant populations tended to have higher social capital and better living conditions than non-migrant populations. Compared to non-migrants, migrants in working ages had a higher likelihood of having some professional/technical training, tended to have higher living standards as measured by their assets and housing characteristics, adult migrants had a higher likelihood of having completed primary education, migrants also had higher likelihood of having access to safe water sources for cooking and drinking and greater access to hygienic toilet facilities. The results provide evidence supporting the argument that migration results in greater inequalities between the place of origin and place of destination.

1.8. Rural-to-urban migration contributed to increasing socioeconomic gaps between rural and urban areas. It was consistently found that urban non-migrants were substantially more advantaged than rural non-migrants: urban non-migrants had a larger share of workers with professional/technical training, higher material living standards, a larger proportion of adult aged 15 and older who had completed primary education, greater use of safe water sources, and greater access to hygienic toilet facilities. It was also consistently found that rural-to-urban migrants had more advantages than rural non-migrants; they even had more advantages than urban non-migrants for several indicators. The results suggest improvements in physical living conditions of rural-to-urban migrants after migration may be related to greater availability of better living conditions in urban areas. On the other hand, the results are possibly biased due to self-selection of migrants: rural-to-urban migrants may consist of a group of people who were already richer and/or had greater social capital than non-migrants in their place of origin. This selectivity of migrants could result in increased socioeconomic gaps between rural and urban areas through migration.

1.9. Migration had negative impacts on education of school-age migrant children. Census sample data clearly showed education disruption among migrant children in school ages. The likelihood of attending primary and secondary schools was much lower among migrants than non-migrant children. The largest negative educational effect of migration was found among inter-provincial migrant children. The results suggest that revision of educational policies should be considered to create equal opportunities for migrant and non-migrant children to attend school.

2. URBANIZATION IN VIETNAM AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

In general, over the last decade, rapid industrialization and urbanization, have taken place along with dramatic increases in migration to urban areas. Most foreign investment in Vietnam is concentrated in urban centres, which then attract more rural labour to big cities. The growth of unofficial economic zones and services continue to create more jobs for migrant labour. This process has greatly influenced large urban centres like Hanoi, Hai Phong, Ho Chi Minh City, Da Nang and Can Tho. The urban share of the population has increased from 23.7% in 1999 to 29.6% in 2009 (with 25.4 million urban residents out of 85.8 million people). The number of urban centres of 200 000 residents and higher has increased from 4 in 1979 to 15 in 2009 and the proportion of

urban residents concentrated in big cities has clearly increased, indicating a trend towards greater population concentration in big cities. The urban population growth rate in Vietnam was quite slow during the last 25 years of the 20th century. However, during the period 1999–2009, the annual average growth rate of urban population was 3.4%, not much different from other countries in the region. However, the level of urbanization in Vietnam is still low, and the urban share of population in Vietnam in 2009 was still lower than the average level of Southeast Asia 10 years earlier (37%)

Urbanization in Vietnam has not been even. The northern region has a lower urban share of the population than in the Southern region. In addition, 5 central city-provinces have had a very important role in redistributing population structure within each region. Overall, the urban population in the 5 biggest cities accounted for 62.7% of the total urban population in Vietnam. Due to the presence of Ho Chi Minh City, the urban proportion of the population in the Southeast region has increased about 27 percentage points. Similarly, due to the presence of Hanoi, the urban proportion of the population in the Red River Delta has increased about 10 percentage points.

Although urbanization in Vietnam is still mainly occurring in quantitative terms related to increased number and size of urban areas throughout the country, some rural-urban differences in lifestyles are also being noted. This is reflected in demographic features like smaller family size in urban area; older age at marriage of urban people and fewer children in urban families. For example, the average household size of urban areas is 3.78 compared to rural areas at 3.84; SMAM for men in urban areas is 27.7 compared to 25.6 in rural areas, SMAM for women in urban areas is 24.4 compared to 22.0 in rural areas. TFR in urban areas in 2009 was 1.81 children per woman compared to 2.14 children per woman in rural areas. Moreover, urban people have greater access to the means for sex-selective abortion, which may be the reason for the greater imbalance in the sex ratio (more boys than girls) in the age group 0–9 in urban areas compared to rural areas.

Urban people also have more advantages in the development process. Urban people have better housing conditions and greater access to amenities such as electricity, clean water sources and chances to study and obtain professional jobs. In rural areas 4.3% of households still do not have electricity, while in special urban areas this is the case for only 0.2% of households. From 55.8% to 67.4% of households in urban areas have a home telephone compared to 38.7% in rural areas. Only about 8% of the rural population has professional/technical qualifications from technical worker or higher, with nearly 3% having junior college and university level or higher, compared to 25.4% and 13.4% with the same qualification levels in urban areas. Workers in urban areas also have more opportunities to work in private, state and foreign-invested enterprises than in rural areas and therefore have a better working conditions and social insurance. These advantages are even greater in areas with high levels of urbanization. This increases further the attractiveness of big cities. Rapid urban population growth in cities like Ho Chi Minh City and Hanoi will continue if there are no changes in current trends.

Excessive concentration of population in a few cities combined with still inadequate urban infrastructure is resulting in over-urbanization in Vietnam. It is important to note that a portion of the urban population still cannot access basic amenities like hygienic toilets, and clean drinking water. For example, from 0.5% to 6% of urban households do not use clean water sources, from 0.3% to 5.1% urban households do not even have their own toilet. Moreover, even in the most developed urban areas like Ho Chi Minh City, overpopulation and cramped housing have led to a high proportion of households sharing a dwelling. The unemployment rate of people living in

cities with high levels of urbanization tends to be higher. Overall, the unemployment rate in the total population aged 15 and older in urban areas is 4.6% compared to 2.3% in rural areas. This indicates that despite rapid urban population growth rate in urban centres and cities, resulting from high economic growth rates and improvements in living standards, a small portion of the urban population does not have the chance to benefit from these advantages. It is necessary to pay greater attention to these population groups.

According to Prime Ministerial Decision No. 445/QD-TTg dated 7 April 2009 approving adjustments to guidelines for the master plan to develop Vietnam's urban system until 2025 and the vision to 2050, the urban proportion of the population in Vietnam will reach 38% of total national population by 2015 and 45% by 2020, equivalent to an urban population of 44 million. Demand for space to build urban developments by 2015 will be 335 000 hectares, equivalent to 95 m2 per person, and by 2010 will be 400 000 hectares, equivalent to 90 m2 per person. Meanwhile, urban land area zoned for construction at present is only 105 000 hectares, about a quarter of the required area. With such high urban and population growth rates, Vietnam will have to cope with increasingly complicated problems arising from the urbanization process. For example, migration from rural to urban areas and the resulting increased population density in urban areas; generation of employment, especially for young people; housing problems and social protection in urban area; pollution, etc…

Urbanization is an inevitable process for every nation. However, spontaneous urbanization without careful planning will lead to many negative consequences for sustainable development of the country. Therefore, the Government should consider carefully investments to improve the attractiveness of some provincial urban centres to reduce the concentration of migrants flowing to Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City. This investment should focus on improving welfare and opportunities for urban residents in the provinces, reducing inequalities that exist between urban centres in Vietnam. Attractiveness of provincial cities can only match the two major cities if policies on population and urbanization are primary components of the general development strategy, closely attached to the macroeconomic situation and implemented in harmony with other development and social welfare policies in rural areas.

3. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Migration and urbanization have both increased over the last three decades and have accelerated even more during the last decade. The two processes are closely tied to each other; areas that had a high migrant proportion of the population also had a high urban proportion of the population. Moreover, migration has contributed more to population size in areas with higher levels of urbanization than to those with lower levels of urbanization. Findings from the last three censuses suggest that the contributions of migration and urbanization to socioeconomic development should be carefully taken into consideration. Clearly, migration and urbanization have contributed to growth and development of some areas, mostly major areas of destination and large cities. However, migration and urbanization have also contributed to widening gaps between areas of origin and areas of destination, and consequently greater regional and rural-urban disparities. These findings suggest that national development plans should move far beyond the need to achieve economic growth and carefully consider more complicated issues of socioeconomic development.

REFERENCES

CCSC (1991). Completed Census Results, Volume I. Vietnam Population Census 1989: Hanoi.

CCSC (1999). The 1999 Census of Vietnam at a Glance: Preliminary Results. The Gioi Publishers.

CCSC (2000). Population and Housing Census Vietnam 1999. Sample Results. The Gioi Publishers.

CCSC (2009a). The 2009 Vietnam Population and Housing Census of 00.00 hours 1st April 2009: Implementation and Preliminary Result.

CCSC (2009b). The 2009 Vietnam Population and Housing Census of 00.00 hours 1st April 2009: Expanded Sample Results.

CCSC (2010a). The 2009 Vietnam Population and Housing Census: Ministry of Planning and Investment/GSO, UNFPA, June.

CCSC (2010b). The 2009 Vietnam Population and Housing Census: Major Findings. Hanoi.

Dang Nguyen Anh, Cecilia Tacoli and Hoang Xuan Thanh (2003). Migration in Vietnam: A review of information on current trends and patterns, and their policy implications. Paper prepared for the Regional Conference on Migration, Development and Pro-Poor Policy Choices in Asia in Dhaka, Bangladesh on 22-24 June 2003.

Dang Nguyen Anh, Sidney Goldstein and James McNally (1997), "Internal Migration and Development in Vietnam", International Migration Review, Vol. 31(2), p.312-337.

Deshingkar, Priya (2006). Internal Migration, Poverty and Development in Asia: Including the Excluded through Partnership and Improved Governance. Paper prepared for Asia 2015 Conference, Session 3, Parallel Group 3A.

Djamba, Yanyi, Alice Goldstein and Sidney Goldstein (1999). "Permanent and Temporary Migration in Vietnam during a Period of Economic Change". Asia-Pacific Population Journal. Vol. 14, No.3, pp. 25-48.

Doan Mau Diep and Trinh Khac Tham (1998), "Rural-Urban Migration in Vietnam: Nature, Relations, and Management Policies", Migration Policies in Asia, HaNoi: Agricultural Publishing House, p.103-115.

GSO & UNFPA (2006). Internal Migration and Related Life-course Events.

GSO (2005). Vietnam Migration Survey 2004: Major findings. Hanoi: Statistic Publishing House.

GSO 1991. Vietnam Population and Housing Census 1989. Sample Analysis Results Hanoi, 1991.

Guest, Philip (1998). The Dynamics of Internal Migration in Vietnam. UNDP Discussion Paper 1.

Gubry, Patrick, Nguyen Huu Dung and Pham Thuy Huong (Editors) (2004). Population and Development in Vietnam. Hanoi: The gioi (World) Publisher.

Guest, Philip (1998). The Dynamics of Internal Migration in Vietnam. UNDP Discussion Paper 1.

Kabeer, Naila and Tran Thi Van Anh (2006). Globalization, Gender and Work in the Context of Economic Transition: The case of Vietnam. International Working Group on Gender, Macroeconomics, and International Economics working paper series 06-3.

Klump, Rainer and Thomas Bonschab (2004). Operationalising Pro-Poor Growth: A Country Case Study on Vietnam. A joint initiative of AFD, BMZ (GTZ, KfW Development Bank), DFID, and the World Bank. October.

Ministry of Construction, National Institute for Urban and Rural Planning (1992). Data Book- National Urban. Chapter 4. Hanoi

Nguyen Thanh Liem (2009). Youth Internal Migration & Development in Contemporary Vietnam. Paper presented in Workshop on Migration, Development and Poverty Reduction, Hanoi: 5-6 October 2009.

Nguyen, Liem T. and Michael White (2002) "Towards a Better Health Policy in Urban Areas: Determinants of Health Status of Urbanward Migrants and Non-migrants in Vietnam". Paper presented at 2002 IUSSP Regional Population Conference.

PWG (1999). Attacking Poverty, Vietnam Development Report 2000 by the Poverty Working Group.

UN (2010). The Millennium Development Goals Report 2010. New York: United Nations.

UNESCAP (2007). 2007 Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific.

UNFPA (2007). Internal Migration in Vietnam: The Current Situation. Hanoi.

World Bank (2008). World development report: re-identification of economy (reference book). Cultural-Information Publisher. Hanoi.

WB (2003). Urban poverty in East Asia: A review of Indonesia, the Philippines, and Vietnam. East Asia Infrastructure Department: Urban Development Working Paper No.11.

APPENDIX OF TABLES

Table A-2.1: Migrant and corresponding non-migrant population size in the overall population, 1989-2009

	2009			1999			1989		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
Intra-district migrants	589 680	1 028 480	1 618 160	561 144	781 424	1 342 568	-	-	-
Intra-district non-migrants	35 669 170	36 017 742	71 686 913	31 614 357	32 878 952	64 493 309	-	-	-
Inter-district migrants	742 069	966 828	1 708 896	514 356	623 486	1 137 843	513 920	553 378	1 067 298
Inter-district non-migrants	36 258 850	37 046 222	73 305 072	32 175 501	33 660 376	65 835 877	24 421 660	27 375 437	51 797 097
Inter-provincial migrants	1 595 251	1 802 653	3 397 904	1 001 233	1 000 174	2 001 408	773 484	575 807	1 349 291
Interprovincial non-migrants	37 000 918	38 013 050	75 013 968	32 689 857	34 283 863	66 973 720	24 935 579	27 928 816	52 864 395
Immigrants	22 492	18 498	40 990	36 432	33 958	70 389	54 652	11 256	65 908
Non-immigrants	38 596 169	39 815 702	78 411 872	33 691 091	35 284 037	68,975 128	25 709 064	28 504 623	54 213 686

Table A-2.2: Migrant and corresponding non-migrant share of the population, 1989-2009

	2009			1999			1989		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Intra-district migrants	1.5	2.6	2.1	1.7	2.2	2.0	-	-	-
Intra-district non-migrants	92.4	90.5	91.4	93.8	93.2	93.5	-	-	-
Inter-district migrants	1.9	2.4	2.2	1.5	1.8	1.7	2	1.9	2
Inter-district non-migrants	93.9	93	93.5	95.5	95.4	95.5	95	96	95.5
Inter-provincial migrants	4.1	4.5	4.3	3	2.8	2.9	3	2	2.5
Interprovincial non-migrants	95.9	95.5	95.7	97	97.1	97.1	96.8	97.9	97.4
Immigrants	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0	0.1
Non-immigrants	99.9	100	100	100	99.9	99.9	99.8	100	100

Table A-2.3: Sex structure of different types of migrant and corresponding non-migrant, 1989-2009

	2009				1999				1989			
	Male	Female	Total	N	Male		Total	N	Male	Female	Total	N
Intra-district migrants	36.4	63.6	100%	1 618 160	41.8	58.2	100%	1 342 568	-	-	-	-
Intra-district non-migrants	49.8	50.2	100%	71 686 913	49.0	51	100%	64 493 309	-	-	-	-
Inter-district migrants	43.4	56.6	100%	1 708 896	45.2	54.8	100%	1 137 843	48.2	51.9	100%	1 067 298
Inter-district non-migrants	49.5	50.5	100%	73 305 072	48.9	51.1	100%	65 835 877	47.2	52.9	100%	51 797 097
Inter-provincial migrants	47.0	53.1	100%	3 397 903	50.0	50.0	100%	2 001 408	57.3	42.7	100%	1 349 291
Interprovincial non-migrants	49.3	50.7	100%	75 013 968	48.8	51.2	100%	66 973 720	47.2	52.8	100%	52 864 395

Table A-2.4: Migration flows between rural and urban areas, 1999-2009

		Intra-district migration			Inter-district migration			Inter-provincial migration		
		Male	Female	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
2009	R-R	32.7	47.9	42.3	19.2	25.0	22.5	34.7	36.0	35.4
	R-U	11.0	11.1	11.1	23.6	25.4	24.6	44.2	44.8	44.5
	U-R	7.7	6.1	6.7	13.4	11.3	12.2	8.0	6.7	7.3
	U-U	48.6	35.0	40	43.8	38.3	40.7	13.1	12.5	12.8
	Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
	N	563 364	972 602	1 535 966	724 635	940 352	1 664 987	1 565 461	1 766 871	3 332 331
1999	R-R	36.1	45.7	41.7	26.9	28.9	28	39.1	39.0	39.1
	R-U	21.1	17.8	19.2	20.2	20.9	20.6	34.5	37.8	36.2
	U-R	10.0	8.0	8.8	12.3	10.8	11.5	10.5	7.9	9.2
	U-U	32.8	28.5	30.3	40.6	39.4	39.9	15.8	15.3	15.6
	Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
	N	536 805	741 579	1 278 384	506 011	612 430	1 118 441	975 605	978 576	1 954 181

Table A-2.5: Sex structure of population by type of migration and flow of migration between urban and rural areas, 1999-2009

		2009					1999				
		R-R	R-U	U-R	U-U	Total	R-R	R-U	U-R	U-U	Total
Intra-district migration	Male	28.4	36.6	42.4	44.5	36.7	36.4	46.2	47.6	45.4	42.0
	Female	71.7	63.4	57.6	55.5	63.3	63.6	53.8	52.4	54.6	58.0
	Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
	N	649 501	169 711	102 598	614 156	1 535 966	532 669	245 302	112 899	387 515	1 278 384
Inter- district migration	Male	37.2	41.7	47.8	46.9	43.5	43.5	44.5	48.4	46.0	45.2
	Female	62.8	58.3	52.2	53.1	56.5	56.6	55.5	51.6	54.0	54.8
	Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
	N	374 806	409 883	202 831	677 467	1 664 987	313 133	230 240	128 789	446 279	1 118 441
Inter- provincial migration	Male	46.1	46.6	51.5	48.1	47.0	50.0	47.7	57.0	50.8	49.9
	Female	53.9	53.4	48.5	51.9	53.0	50.0	52.4	43.0	49.3	50.1
	Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
	N	1 180 124	1 482 577	242 197	427 434	3 332 331	763 222	706 747	180 263	303 948	1 954 181

Table A-2.6: Sex structure of population by type of migration and flow of migration between urban and rural areas, 1999-2009

		2009				1999				1989			
		Mean	SD	Me-dian	Obs.	Mean	SD	Median	Obs.	Mean	SD	Me-dian	Obs.
Male	Intra-district migrant	29.8	15.0	29	83 238	27.7	15.8	26	25 405	-	-	-	-
	Intra-district non-migrant	31.6	18.5	29	5 943 615	29.0	18.0	26	962 830	-	-	-	-
	Inter-district migrant	28.9	13.6	27	94 422	14.1	27.3	24	17 825	27.7	13.9	26	25 261
	Inter-district non-migrant	31.5	18.5	29	6 026 853	29.0	18.0	26	988 235	27.4	18.1	23	1 003 662
	Inter-provincial migrant	26.9	11.5	24	181 556	27.0	13.4	25	33 746	27.0	13.4	25	44 043
	Inter-provincial non-migrant	31.5	18.4	29	6 121 275	29.0	17.9	26	1 006 060	27.4	18.0	23	1 028 923
Female	Intra-district migrant	27.6	12.7	25	157 785	28.2	15.0	25	32 324	-	-	-	-
	Intra-district non-migrant	34.1	20.0	32	6 106 875	31.2	19.3	28	1 017 792	-	-	-	-
	Inter-district migrant	27.4	12.7	24	131 058	26.8	13.9	23	21 989	27.5	14.6	25	26 652
	Inter-district non-migrant	34.0	19.9	31	6 264 660	31.2	19.2	28	1 050 116	29.4	18.9	25	1 120 070
	Inter-provincial migrant	26.1	11.7	23	203 823	27.0	14.3	24	32 340	27.5	15.6	25	36 324
	Inter-provincial non-migrant	33.8	19.8	31	6 395 718	31.1	19.1	28	1 072 105	29.3	18.8	25	1 146 722
Total	Intra-district migrant	28.3	13.5	26	241 023	28.0	15.4	26	57 729	-	-	-	-
	Intra-district non-migrant	32.9	19.3	30	12 050 490	30.2	18.7	27	1 980 622	-	-	-	-
	Inter-district migrant	28.0	13.1	25	225 480	27.0	14.0	24	39 814	27.6	14.3	25	51 913
	Inter-district non-migrant	32.8	19.3	30	12 291 513	30.1	18.6	27	2 038 351	28.4	18.5	24	2 123 732
	Inter-provincial migrant	26.5	11.6	24	385 379	27.0	13.8	24	66 086	27.2	14.4	25	80 367
	Inter-provincial non-migrant	32.7	19.2	30	12 516 993	30.1	18.6	27	2 078 165	28.4	18.5	24	2 175 645

Table A-2.7: Migrant and corresponding non-migrant population size and share in the overall population by sex and region, 2009

Type of migration		Region of residence in 2009											
		Northern Midlands and Mountains		Red River Delta		North and South Central Coast		Central Highlands		Southeast		Mekong River Delta	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Male	Intra-district migrant	58 430	1.2	82 117	0.9	119 618	1.4	49 811	2.2	165 843	2.7	113 860	1.5
	Intra-district non-migrant	4 784 278	96.2	8 212 503	93.9	8 137 772	95.7	2 119 693	92.1	4 906 103	78.6	7 508 820	96.0
	Inter-district migrant	51 419	1.0	163 669	1.9	120 418	1.4	29 886	1.3	290 609	4.7	86 068	1.1
	Inter-district non-migrant	4 842 708	97.4	8 294 621	94.8	8 257 390	97.0	2 169 505	94.3	5 071 946	81.2	7 622 680	97.5
	Inter-provincial migrant	78 621	1.6	292 401	3.3	130 267	1.5	101 466	4.4	880 230	14.1	112 266	1.4
	Inter-provincial non-migrant	4 894 127	98.4	8 458 289	96.7	8 377 808	98.5	2 199 391	95.6	5 362 555	85.9	7 708 748	98.6
Female	Intra-district migrant	144 064	2.9	215 237	2.4	220 746	2.5	57 799	2.6	202 483	3.05	188 152	2.4
	Intra-district non-migrant	4 721 068	93.9	8 367 464	91.5	8 226 654	93.9	2 075 592	91.6	5 123 824	77.1	7 503 141	94.2
	Inter-district migrant	80 706	1.6	232 082	2.5	168 549	1.9	35 570	1.6	320 833	4.8	129 088	1.6
	Inter-district non-migrant	4 865 131	96.8	8 582 700	93.8	8 447 400	96.4	2 133 392	94.2	5 326 306	80.2	7 691 293	96.6
	Inter-provincial migrant	81 110	1.6	335 186	3.7	147 246	1.7	96 558	4.3	997 378	15.0	145 174	1.8
	Inter-provincial non-migrant	4 945 837	98.4	8 814 782	96.3	8 615 948	98.3	2 168 962	95.7	5 647 140	85.0	7 820 380	98.2
Total	Intra-district migrant	202 494	2.0	297 354	1.7	340 364	2.0	107 611	2.4	368 326	2.9	302 012	1.9
	Intra-district non-migrant	9 505 346	95.1	16 579 967	92.6	16 364 426	94.8	4 195 286	91.9	10 029 926	77.8	15 011 961	95.1
	Inter-district migrant	132 125	1.3	395 751	2.2	288 967	1.7	65 456	1.4	611 442	4.7	215 155	1.4
	Inter-district non-migrant	9 707 840	97.1	16 877 321	94.3	16 704 790	96.7	4 302 897	94.2	10 398 252	80.7	15 313 973	97.0
	Inter-provincial migrant	159 731	1.6	627 587	3.5	277 513	1.6	198 024	4.3	1 877 608	14.6	257 440	1.6
	Inter-provincial non-migrant	9 839 964	98.4	17 273 072	96.5	16 993 757	98.4	4 368 353	95.7	11 009 694	85.4	15 529 128	98.4

Table A-2.8: Net gains and losses from inter-provincial migration by urban/rural residence and region, 2009

Region	Number of in-migrants			Number of out-migrants			Number of net-migrants		
	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total
Northern Midlands and Mountains	53 423	46 574	99 997	39 618	224 251	263 869	13 805	-177 677	-163 872
Red River Delta	147 344	141 873	289 217	73 240	251 939	325 179	74 104	-110 066	-35 962
Norht and South Central Coast	52 241	58 054	110 295	90 016	672 014	762 030	-37 775	-613 960	-651 735
Central Highlands	61 311	99 718	161 029	31 056	91 484	122 540	30 255	8 234	38 489
Southeast	1 007 605	627 688	1 635 293	84 560	37 686	122 245	923 045	590 002	1 513 048
Mekong River Delta	23 573	45 955	69 528	63 418	659 315	722 733	-39 845	-613 360	-653 205

Table A-2.9: Inter-provincial migration by region, 2004–2009

Region of residence in 2004		Region of residence in 2009					
		Northern Midlands and Mountains	Red River Delta	North and South Central Coast	Central Highlands	Southeast	Mekong River Delta
Male	Northern Midlands and Mountains	28 004	67 775	3 266	10 353	33 176	733
	Red River Delta	36 296	160 391	15 429	15 413	98 710	4 652
	Norht and South Central Coast	6 370	45 812	76 055	39 811	258 328	6 965
	Central Highlands	3 965	5 559	13 196	18 816	39 728	901
	Southeast	2 211	10 316	18 447	12 616	118 643	20 160
	Mekong River Delta	1 692	2 477	3 630	4 417	331 641	78 851
Female	Northern Midlands and Mountains	31 576	87 049	4 047	9 842	37 260	816
	Red River Delta	33 558	177 702	13 087	13 691	96 607	3 899
	Norht and South Central Coast	6 341	52 152	90 695	39 173	312 216	7 711
	Central Highlands	4 515	5 860	15 885	18 049	44 642	1 179
	Southeast	1 941	8 887	17 672	10 628	123 572	22 513
	Mekong River Delta	3 108	3 330	5 636	5 086	382 985	109 048
Total	Northern Midlands and Mountains	59 580	154 824	7 313	20 194	70 436	1 549
	Red River Delta	69 854	338 093	28 516	29 104	195 317	8 551
	Norht and South Central Coast	12 711	97 964	166 750	78 984	570 544	14 676
	Central Highlands	8 481	11 419	29 082	36 865	84 371	2 080
	Southeast	4 152	19 204	36 119	23 244	242 215	42 673
	Mekong River Delta	4 800	5 807	9 267	9 503	714 626	187 899

Table A-2.10: Internal migrant share (%) of the population by province

Province	Intra-district migration			Inter-district migration			Inter-provincial migration		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Northern Midlands and Mountains	1.2	2.9	2.0	1.0	1.6	1.3	1.6	1.6	1.6
Ha Giang	0.9	2.5	1.7	0.9	1.5	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.1
Cao Bang	1.0	2.6	1.8	1.5	2.2	1.8	2.3	1.4	1.9
Bac Kan	2.0	3.9	2.9	0.9	2.1	1.5	2.4	2.3	2.3
Tuyen Quang	1.5	3.7	2.6	1.1	1.7	1.4	1.0	1.4	1.2
Lao Cai	1.6	3.1	2.4	1.3	1.7	1.5	2.0	2.0	2.0
Dien Bien	1.4	2.3	1.9	1.7	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.6
Lai Chau	1.4	2.3	1.8	0.8	1.0	0.9	5.4	4.4	4.9
Son La	1.8	3.0	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.5	1.5	1.3	1.4
Yen Bai	1.2	3.0	2.1	0.7	1.2	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1
Hoa Binh	0.9	2.7	1.8	0.6	1.2	0.9	1.4	1.6	1.5
Thai Nguyen	1.2	3.2	2.2	1.0	1.9	1.5	3.0	3.0	3.0
Lang Son	1.0	2.9	2.0	0.7	1.3	1.0	1.4	1.2	1.3
Bac Giang	1.0	2.9	2.0	0.6	1.2	0.9	0.7	1.0	0.8
Phu Tho	0.7	2.4	1.5	0.6	1.4	1.1	0.9	1.4	1.2
Red River Delta	0.9	2.4	1.7	1.9	2.5	2.2	3.3	3.7	3.5
Ha Noi	1.2	2.3	1.8	3.4	4.2	3.8	6.3	6.8	6.6
Quang Ninh	1.6	3.1	2.3	0.7	1.2	0.9	3.0	2.7	2.9
Vinh Phuc	0.4	1.8	1.1	1.2	1.9	1.6	2.2	2.3	2.2
Bac Ninh	0.5	2.1	1.3	0.6	1.2	0.9	2.9	3.5	3.2
Hai Duong	0.6	2.4	1.5	1.5	2.6	2.1	1.9	2.4	2.1
Hai Phong	1.5	3.5	2.5	3.0	4.0	3.5	2.8	2.8	2.8
Hung Yen	0.5	2.2	1.3	0.6	1.2	0.9	2.5	3.0	2.7
Thai Binh	0.7	2.0	1.4	0.5	0.9	0.7	0.6	1.0	0.8
Ha Nam	0.5	1.7	1.1	0.3	0.7	0.5	0.9	1.5	1.2
Nam Dinh	0.8	2.2	1.5	0.7	1.1	0.9	1.0	1.3	1.1
Ninh Binh	0.8	2.3	1.6	1.0	1.1	1.1	2.0	1.6	1.8

Province	Intra-district migration			Inter-district migration			Inter-provincial migration		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
North and South Central Coast	1.4	2.5	2	1.4	1.9	1.7	1.5	1.7	1.6
Thanh Hoa	0.8	2.3	1.6	1.1	1.6	1.3	0.6	0.6	0.6
Nghe An	1.0	2.3	1.6	2.0	2.5	2.3	1.1	1.1	1.1
Ha Tinh	0.7	1.9	1.3	1.0	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.2
Quang Binh	0.8	1.7	1.3	1.0	1.4	1.2	1.0	1.0	1.0
Quang Tri	0.9	1.9	1.4	1.2	1.8	1.5	1.1	1.3	1.2
Thua Thien Hue	2.1	3.3	2.7	1.5	2.0	1.7	2.5	2.9	2.7
Da Nang	4.5	4.9	4.7	6.2	6.5	6.4	9.2	10.9	10.1
Quang Nam	1.0	1.9	1.4	1.0	1.8	1.4	1.1	1.2	1.2
Quang Ngai	0.7	1.7	1.2	0.5	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8
Binh Dinh	1.9	3.2	2.5	1.2	1.9	1.6	1.4	1.4	1.4
Phu Yen	1.1	2.1	1.6	1.1	1.6	1.3	1.1	0.9	1.0
Khanh Hoa	3.0	4.2	3.6	1.1	1.8	1.5	1.8	2.4	2.1
Ninh Thuan	2.0	2.3	2.2	1.1	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.1
Binh Thuan	1.9	2.4	2.1	0.6	0.8	0.7	1.5	1.5	1.5
Central Highlands	2.2	2.6	2.4	1.3	1.6	1.4	4.4	4.3	4.3
Kon Tum	2.9	3.2	3.1	1.7	1.8	1.7	5.1	4.2	4.7
Gia Lai	1.8	1.9	1.8	0.7	1.0	0.9	3.5	3.5	3.5
Dak Lak	2.3	2.8	2.5	1.2	1.6	1.4	3.2	3.0	3.1
Dak Nong	1.7	1.9	1.8	1.6	1.5	1.6	9.7	9.1	9.4
Lam Dong	2.4	2.9	2.6	1.7	2.1	1.9	4.7	5.1	4.9
Southeast	2.7	3.05	2.9	4.7	4.8	4.7	14.1	15	14.6
Binh Phuoc	1.8	2.1	2.0	0.8	1.0	0.9	4.4	4.8	4.6
Tay Ninh	1.4	2.2	1.8	1.5	2.0	1.8	1.6	1.9	1.8
Binh Duong	2.1	2.3	2.2	1.5	1.6	1.5	35.4	37.7	36.6
Dong Nai	2.9	3.8	3.4	1.6	2.2	1.9	10.0	10.8	10.4
Ba Ria-Vung Tau	2.9	3.5	3.2	1.0	1.2	1.1	6.4	6.1	6.3
HCM City	3.0	3.1	3.0	7.9	7.7	7.8	15.4	15.9	15.7

Province	Intra-district migration			Inter-district migration			Inter-provincial migration		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Mekong River Delta	1.5	2.4	1.9	1.1	1.6	1.4	1.4	1.8	1.6
Long An	1.3	2.3	1.8	1.0	1.8	1.4	2.7	3.2	3.0
Tien Giang	1.8	3.0	2.4	1.1	1.6	1.3	1.3	1.9	1.6
Ben Tre	1.6	2.9	2.3	0.8	1.3	1.1	0.9	1.4	1.1
Tra Vinh	1.5	2.1	1.8	1.4	2.0	1.7	1.1	1.3	1.2
Vinh Long	1.3	2.3	1.8	1.2	1.8	1.5	2.1	2.4	2.3
Dong Thap	1.4	2.4	1.9	1.2	1.8	1.5	1.0	1.5	1.2
An Giang	1.6	2.7	2.2	1.3	1.9	1.6	0.8	1.1	0.9
Kien Giang	1.1	1.5	1.3	1.0	1.4	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3
Can Tho	2.2	3.1	2.7	1.5	2.0	1.8	4.7	5.5	5.1
Hau Giang	0.9	1.9	1.4	0.6	1.0	0.8	1.2	2.1	1.7
Soc Trang	1.3	2.0	1.7	0.9	1.2	1.1	0.8	1.1	0.9
Bac Lieu	0.7	1.3	1.0	0.6	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.9	0.8
Ca Mau	1.6	2.5	2.1	1.5	2.0	1.8	0.6	0.8	0.7

Table A-2.11: Number of internal migrants by province

Province	Intra-district migration			Inter-district migration			Inter-provincial migration		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Northern Midlands and Mountains	58 430	144 064	202 494	51 419	80 706	132 125	78 621	81 110	159 731
Ha Giang	2 730	7 928	10 658	2 787	4 688	7 476	3 454	3 698	7 152
Cao Bang	2 387	6 180	8 568	3 353	5 206	8 560	5 349	3 377	8 726
Bac Kan	2 675	5 230	7 904	1 237	2 831	4 069	3 250	3 081	6 331
Tuyen Quang	4 871	12 130	17 001	3 799	5 553	9 352	3 304	4 619	7 923
Lao Cai	4 470	8 357	12 827	3 395	4 561	7 956	5 378	5 286	10 664
Dien Bien	3 007	4 982	7 989	3 656	4 107	7 762	3 598	3 301	6 899
Lai Chau	2 208	3 577	5 785	1 285	1 562	2 847	8 702	6 748	15 450
Son La	8 623	14 241	22 863	11 798	12 388	24 186	7 256	5 932	13 188
Yen Bai	4 073	10 157	14 231	2 327	4 002	6 329	3 467	3 729	7 196
Hoa Binh	3 202	9 666	12 867	1 981	4 179	6 159	4 889	5 854	10 743
Thai Nguyen	5 871	16 542	22 412	5 303	10 093	15 396	15 483	15 729	31 211
Lang Son	3 391	9 798	13 189	2 270	4 462	6 731	4 598	4 182	8 780
Bac Giang	7 087	20 881	27 968	4 448	8 271	12 719	4 634	6 960	11 594
Phu Tho	3 836	14 395	18 231	3 782	8 802	12 584	5 259	8 615	13 874
Red River Delta	82 117	215 237	297 354	163 669	232 082	395 751	292 401	335 186	627 587
Ha Noi	33 076	69 007	102 083	97 897	125 188	223 085	179 133	203 697	382 829
Quang Ninh	8 293	15 847	24 140	3 860	5 877	9 737	16 011	13 834	29 845
Vinh Phuc	1 982	8 320	10 302	5 439	8 892	14 331	9 691	10 687	20 378
Bac Ninh	2 382	9 886	12 268	2 813	5 718	8 531	13 095	16 613	29 708
Hai Duong	4 451	19 286	23 736	11 714	21 091	32 804	14 049	19 429	33 478
Hai Phong	12 694	29 675	42 369	24 555	34 272	58 827	23 664	23 873	47 537
Hung Yen	2 230	11 433	13 663	2 946	6 481	9 427	12 463	15 695	28 158
Thai Binh	5 782	16 734	22 516	3 527	7 891	11 419	4 848	8 459	13 307
Ha Nam	1 791	6 122	7 913	975	2 534	3 509	3 282	5 489	8 771
Nam Dinh	6 203	19 271	25 474	5 786	9 507	15 293	7 991	10 932	18 923
Ninh Binh	3 234	9 657	12 891	4 156	4 633	8 789	8 174	6 479	14 653

Province	Intra-district migration			Inter-district migration			Inter-provincial migration		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
North and South Central Coast	119 618	220 746	340 364	120 418	168 549	288 967	130 267	147 246	277 513
Thanh Hoa	12 553	36 906	49 460	16 795	25 097	41 892	9 873	10 121	19 993
Nghe An	12 764	30 562	43 326	26 148	34 091	60 238	13 866	14 486	28 352
Ha Tinh	3 722	10 935	14 657	5 298	8 001	13 299	6 687	6 423	13 111
Quang Binh	3 154	6 739	9 893	3 997	5 247	9 243	3 771	3 776	7 546
Quang Tri	2 328	5 084	7 412	3 079	4 981	8 060	2 982	3 465	6 447
Thua Thien Hue	10 392	16 736	27 128	7 187	9 946	17 133	12 393	14 581	26 974
Da Nang	17 793	20 199	37 992	24 595	26 761	51 356	36 357	44 967	81 323
Quang Nam	6 059	12 432	18 491	6 153	11 872	18 024	7 126	8 377	15 503
Quang Ngai	3 607	9 455	13 062	2 871	5 647	8 518	3 566	4 777	8 343
Binh Dinh	12 327	22 245	34 571	8 181	13 546	21 727	8 901	9 627	18 527
Phu Yen	4 187	8 398	12 585	4 458	6 121	10 579	4 490	3 490	7 980
Khanh Hoa	15 717	22 416	38 132	5 710	9 592	15 302	9 168	12 735	21 903
Ninh Thuan	5 067	5 964	11 031	2 720	3 416	6 136	2 923	2 760	5 684
Binh Thuan	9 948	12 676	22 624	3 228	4 233	7 461	8 165	7 661	15 826
Central Highlands	49 811	57 799	107 611	29 886	35 570	65 456	101 466	96 558	198 024
Kon Tum	5 473	5 967	11 440	3 212	3 277	6 490	9 645	7 782	17 427
Gia Lai	9 874	10 537	20 411	4 141	5 472	9 613	19 633	19 447	39 080
Dak Lak	18 003	21 792	39 796	9 781	12 473	22 255	24 865	23 202	48 068
Dak Nong	3 780	4 009	7 789	3 676	3 075	6 751	21 931	18 929	40 860
Lam Dong	12 681	15 494	28 175	9 076	11 273	20 349	25 391	27 198	52 589
Southeast	165 843	202 483	368 326	290 609	320 833	611 442	880 230	997 378	1 877 608
Binh Phuoc	7 093	8 251	15 344	3 260	4 024	7 284	17 353	18 692	36 045
Tay Ninh	6 712	11 009	17 721	7 273	9 870	17 143	7 711	9 459	17 170
Binh Duong	13 519	16 594	30 112	9 578	11 261	20 839	231 213	268 568	499 781
Dong Nai	32 345	43 365	75 709	18 172	25 505	43 676	111 441	123 608	235 048
Ba Ria-Vung Tau	13 275	15 883	29 159	4 404	5 380	9 785	28 825	27 948	56 773
HCM City	92 899	107 381	200 280	247 922	264 793	512 715	483 688	549 103	1 032 791

Province	Intra-district migration			Inter-district migration			Inter-provincial migration		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Mekong River Delta	113 860	188 152	302 012	86 068	129 088	215 155	112 266	145 174	257 440
Long An	8 370	14 998	23 368	6 519	12 026	18 545	17 875	21 419	39 293
Tien Giang	13 463	23 711	37 174	7 899	12 162	20 061	9 352	14 770	24 122
Ben Tre	9 068	17 374	26 442	4 809	7 833	12 642	5 250	8 070	13 320
Tra Vinh	6 768	10 022	16 790	6 341	9 553	15 894	4 736	6 055	10 790
Vinh Long	6 210	10 959	17 170	5 419	8 745	14 163	9 811	11 743	21 553
Dong Thap	10 375	18 258	28 632	8 808	13 552	22 360	7 676	11 093	18 769
An Giang	15 819	26 772	42 592	12 368	18 300	30 668	7 537	10 579	18 115
Kien Giang	8 549	11 791	20 341	7 580	10 679	18 258	9 747	9 887	19 634
Can Tho	12 143	17 199	29 342	8 309	10 941	19 250	25 225	30 363	55 589
Hau Giang	3 236	6 433	9 669	2 072	3 385	5 457	4 178	7 218	11 396
Soc Trang	7 874	11 993	19 867	5 218	7 368	12 586	4 838	6 308	11 146
Bac Lieu	2 895	4 974	7 869	2 389	3 466	5 854	2 510	3 528	6 038
Ca Mau	9 089	13 666	22 756	8 337	11 080	19 417	3 533	4 144	7 677

Table A-2.12: Inter-provincial migration by urban/rural current place of residence and province

Province	Number of in-migrants			Number out-migrants			Number of net-migrants		
	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total
Northern Midlands and Mountains	**80 964**	**78 766**	**159 732**	**37 111**	**270 983**	**308 093**	**43 856**	**-192 218**	**-148 361**
Ha Giang	3 231	3 921	7 152	1 124	8 076	9 200	2 108	-4 155	-2 048
Cao Bang	4 555	4 171	8 726	1 540	12 660	14 200	3 015	-8 489	-5 474
Bac Kan	2 147	4 184	6 331	1 146	8 069	9 215	1 001	-3 885	-2 884
Tuyen Quang	2 510	5 413	7 923	2 893	22 516	25 409	-383	-17 103	-17 485
Lao Cai	7 089	3 575	10 664	2 202	8 629	10 831	4 887	-5 054	-167
Dien Bien	3 054	3 845	6 899	2 693	4 511	7 204	361	-666	-305
Lai Chau	8 374	7 076	15 450	705	3 688	4 393	7 669	3 388	11 057
Son La	7 821	5 366	13 188	1 506	7 516	9 022	6 315	-2 150	4 166
Yen Bai	2 948	4 248	7 196	3 456	15 379	18 835	-507	-11 131	-11 638
Hoa Binh	5 602	5 141	10 743	1 922	17 425	19 347	3 680	-12 284	-8 604
Thai Nguyen	19 655	11 556	31 211	6 924	28 896	35 820	12 731	-17 340	-4 609
Lang Son	4 808	3 971	8 780	2 441	20 811	23 252	2 367	-16 840	-14 473
Bac Giang	2 981	8 613	11 594	3 902	65 829	69 731	-921	-57 217	-58 137
Phu Tho	6 189	7 686	13 874	4 657	46 978	51 635	1 532	-39 292	-37 760
Red River Delta	345 536	282 052	627 588	109 759	495 427	605 186	235 777	-213 375	22 402
Ha Noi	215 145	167 684	382 829	58 162	32 241	90 403	156 983	135 443	292 426
Quang Ninh	22 444	7 401	29 845	5 747	12 307	18 054	16 696	-4 906	11 791
Vinh Phuc	14 094	6 284	20 378	2 763	39 888	42 651	11 331	-33 604	-22 273
Bac Ninh	10 849	18 860	29 709	2 660	34 821	37 481	8 188	-15 961	-7 773
Hai Duong	18 551	14 927	33 478	5 492	55 099	60 591	13 059	-40 172	-27 113
Hai Phong	35 487	12 050	47 537	9 036	14 629	23 665	26 451	-2 580	23 872
Hung Yen	6 826	21 333	28 159	3 052	41 565	44 617	3 774	-20 233	-16 458
Thai Binh	2 319	10 988	13 307	6 420	88 241	94 661	-4 101	-77 253	-81 354
Ha Nam	2 852	5 918	8 771	2 536	43 858	46 394	316	-37 940	-37 623
Nam Dinh	9 818	9 105	18 923	9 576	87 726	97 302	242	-78 621	-78 379
Ninh Binh	7 151	7 503	14 653	4 314	45 052	49 366	2 837	-37 549	-34 713

Province	Number of in-migrants			Number out-migrants			Number of net-migrants		
	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total
North and South Central Coast	175 505	102 008	277 514	112 687	792 445	905 132	62 818	-690 437	-627 619
Thanh Hoa	5 709	14 285	19 993	11 880	206 392	218 272	-6 172	-192 107	-198 279
Nghe An	16 420	11 933	28 353	10 059	136 147	146 206	6 361	-124 215	-117 854
Ha Tinh	4 115	8 995	13 111	5 384	77 949	83 333	-1 269	-68 954	-70 222
Quang Binh	2 462	5 084	7 546	4 356	39 034	43 390	-1 894	-33 950	-35 844
Quang Tri	2 673	3 774	6 447	4 170	22 782	26 952	-1 497	-19 008	-20 505
Thua Thien Hue	19 982	6 992	26 974	13 663	34 314	47 977	6 319	-27 322	-21 003
Da Nang	79 018	2 305	81 323	12 346	5 880	18 226	66 672	-3 575	63 097
Quang Nam	6 847	8 656	15 503	7 014	58 988	66 002	-167	-50 332	-50 499
Quang Ngai	3 413	4 930	8 343	6 347	56 441	62 788	-2 934	-51 511	-54 445
Binh Dinh	10 154	8 373	18 527	10 872	60 893	71 765	-718	-52 520	-53 238
Phu Yen	4 105	3 875	7 980	4 376	25 058	29 434	-271	-21 184	-21 454
Khanh Hoa	11 961	9 942	21 903	10 451	18 440	28 891	1 510	-8 498	-6 987
Ninh Thuan	3 036	2 648	5 684	3 814	18 334	22 148	-778	-15 686	-16 464
Binh Thuan	5 608	10 218	15 826	7 953	31 793	39 746	-2 345	-21 575	-23 920
Central Highlands	73 416	124 608	198 024	37 314	115 664	152 978	36 102	8 944	45 046
Kon Tum	7 630	9 797	17 427	2 590	4 431	7 021	5 040	5 366	10 406
Gia Lai	12 956	26 124	39 080	8 503	17 875	26 378	4 453	8 249	12 702
Dak Lak	17 237	30 830	48 068	12 877	50 991	63 868	4 360	-20 161	-15 801
Dak Nong	7 775	33 086	40 860	1 505	10 575	12 080	6 270	22 511	28 780
Lam Dong	27 818	24 771	52 589	11 838	31 792	43 630	15 980	-7 021	8 959
Southeast	1 156 979	720 629	1 877 608	179 787	172 743	352 530	977 192	547 886	1 525 078
Binh Phuoc	8 735	27 310	36 045	5 715	30 052	35 767	3 020	-2 742	278
Tay Ninh	1 865	15 305	17 170	5 271	30 233	35 504	-3 406	-14 928	-18 334
Binh Duong	111 325	388 456	499 781	11 887	21 824	33 711	99 438	366 632	466 070
Dong Nai	100 428	134 620	235 048	21 748	62 250	83 998	78 680	72 370	151 050
Ba Ria-Vung Tau	38 462	18 311	56 773	17 115	18 975	36 090	21 347	-664	20 683
HCM City	896 164	136 627	1 032 791	118 051	9 409	127 460	778 113	127 218	905 331

Province	Number of in-migrants			Number out-migrants			Number of net-migrants		
	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total
Mekong River Delta	113 132	144 309	257 441	102 928	802 075	905 003	10 204	-657 766	-647 562
Long An	7 699	31 594	39 293	8 497	57 297	65 794	-798	-25 703	-26 501
Tien Giang	6 322	17 800	24 122	8 649	79 399	88 048	-2 327	-61 599	-63 926
Ben Tre	1 824	11 495	13 320	7 543	82 210	89 753	-5 718	-70 715	-76 433
Tra Vinh	3 046	7 744	10 790	4 424	61 223	65 647	-1 378	-53 479	-54 857
Vinh Long	7 515	14 038	21 553	7 476	62 148	69 624	39	-48 110	-48 071
Dong Thap	6 318	12 450	18 769	7 181	78 984	86 165	-863	-66 534	-67 397
An Giang	7 938	10 178	18 115	10 858	95 654	106 512	-2 920	-85 476	-88 396
Kien Giang	7 135	12 499	19 634	8 991	61 028	70 019	-1 856	-48 529	-50 385
Can Tho	50 465	5 124	55 589	17 840	33 506	51 346	32 625	-28 382	4 243
Hau Giang	4 242	7 154	11 396	4 868	32 455	37 323	-626	-25 302	-25 927
Soc Trang	4 571	6 575	11 146	5 410	59 777	65 187	-840	-53 202	-54 042
Bac Lieu	3 055	2 983	6 038	4 143	37 309	41 452	-1 089	-34 326	-35 415
Ca Mau	3 003	4 674	7 677	7 048	61 085	68 133	-4 045	-56 411	-60 456

Table A-2.13: Household living standards in 2009 by type of migration

		Household living standards level						
		Very low	Low	Average	High	Very high	Total	N
Male	Intra-district migrant	11.5	11.8	13.2	22.0	41.6	100%	434 600
	Intra-district non-migrant	14.9	19.0	20.9	21.4	23.8	100%	29 680 999
	Inter-district migrant	6.1	8.1	10.3	24.3	51.2	100%	553 363
	Inter-district non-migrant	14.9	18.9	20.8	21.4	24.0	100%	30 115 599
	Inter-provincial migrant	4.5	7.0	12.9	32.7	42.9	100%	1 152 835
	Inter-provincial non-migrant	14.7	18.7	20.6	21.5	24.5	100%	30 668 962
Female	Intra-district migrant	12.7	15.1	17.3	21.7	33.2	100%	795 424
	Intra-district non-migrant	14.5	18.9	20.9	21.5	24.2	100%	29 940 491
	Inter-district migrant	6.8	9.2	12.3	23.4	48.3	100%	728 098
	Inter-district non-migrant	14.5	18.8	20.8	21.5	24.4	100%	30 735 915
	Inter-provincial migrant	4.7	7.0	13.5	31.9	42.8	100%	1 323 178
	Inter-provincial non-migrant	14.3	18.6	20.6	21.6	24.9	100%	31 464 013
Total	Intra-district migrant	12.2	13.9	15.9	21.8	36.1	100%	1 230 023
	Intra-district non-migrant	14.7	19.0	20.9	21.5	24.0	100%	59 621 491
	Inter-district migrant	6.5	8.7	11.4	23.8	49.6	100%	1 281 461
	Inter-district non-migrant	14.7	18.9	20.8	21.5	24.2	100%	60 851 514
	Inter-provincial migrant	4.6	7.0	13.2	32.3	42.9	100%	2 476 013
	Inter-provincial non-migrant	14.5	18.6	20.6	21.5	24.7	100%	62 132 975

Table A-2.14: Trained labour among people aged 15 to 55 by type of migration

		2009				1999				1989			
		Trained labour	Un-trained labour	Total	N	Trained labour	Un-trained labour	Total	N	Trained labour	Un-trained labour	Total	N
Male	Intra-district migrant	66.8	33.2	100%	459 584	79.1	20.9	100%	394 258	-	-	-	-
	Intra-district non-migrant	85.7	14.4	100%	24 432 640	91.4	8.6	100%	20 035 159	-	-	-	-
	Inter-district migrant	63.6	36.4	100%	618 982	74.3	25.7	100%	400 162	70.3	29.7	100%	393 839
	Inter-district non-migrant	85.3	14.7	100%	24 892 223	91.1	8.9	100%	20 429 418	88.8	11.2	100%	14 172 750
	Inter-provincial migrant	79.4	20.6	100%	1 462 058	91.3	8.7	100%	817 999	76.9	23.1	100%	612 728
	Inter-provincial non-migrant	84.8	15.2	100%	25 511 205	90.8	9.2	100%	20 829 579	88.3	11.7	100%	14 566 589
Female	Intra-district migrant	76.3	23.7	100%	893 081	85.7	14.3	100%	618 903	-	-	-	-
	Intra-district non-migrant	89.3	10.7	100%	23 845 572	93.4	6.6	100%	20 620 964	-	-	-	-
	Inter-district migrant	72.0	28.0	100%	841 089	82.1	17.9	100%	503 581	77.8	22.2	100%	428 376
	Inter-district non-migrant	88.8	11.2	100%	24 738 653	93.2	6.8	100%	21 239 867	92.8	7.2	100%	16 634 175
	Inter-provincial migrant	86.0	14.0	100%	1 664 061	91.3	8.7	100%	817 999	86.3	13.7	100%	420 980
	Inter-provincial non-migrant	88.2	11.8	100%	25 579 742	92.9	7.1	100%	21 743 448	92.4	7.6	100%	17 062 551
Total	Intra-district migrant	73.1	27.0	100%	1 352 664	83.1	16.9	100%	1 013 161	-	-	-	-
	Intra-district non-migrant	87.4	12.6	100%	48 278 212	92.4	7.6	100%	40 656 124	-	-	-	-
	Inter-district migrant	68.4	31.6	100%	1 460 072	78.7	21.3	100%	903 743	74.2	25.8	100%	822 214
	Inter-district non-migrant	87.0	13.0	100%	49 630 876	92.2	7.8	100%	41 669 285	90.9	9.1	100%	30 806 925
	Inter-provincial migrant	82.9	17.1	100%	3 126 119	88.3	11.8	100%	1 631 293	80.7	19.3	100%	1 033 707
	Inter-provincial non-migrant	86.5	13.5	100%	51 090 948	91.9	8.1	100%	42 573 027	90.5	9.5	100%	31 629 140

Table A-2.15: School attendance of children aged 6 to 10 by type of migration and gender

		2009					1999					1989				
		Attending	Ever attended	Never attended	Total	N	Attending	Ever attended	Never attended	Total	N	Attending	Ever attended	Never attended	Total	N
Male	Intra-district migrant	96.2	1.1	2.8	100	48 996	75.7	1.2	23.1	100	72 589	-	-	-	-	-
	Intra-district non-migrant	96.5	1.0	2.5	100	3 316 730	79.5	0.9	19.7	100	454 772	-	-	-	-	-
	Inter-district migrant	96.0	1.2	2.8	100	41 820	73.8	2.0	24.3	100	48 619	69.1	1.4	29.5	100	50 952
	Inter-district non-migrant	96.5	1.0	2.5	100	3 365 726	79.4	0.9	19.7	100	4 620 341	68.7	1.1	30.2	100	4 175 694
	Inter-provincial migrant	92.0	3.4	4.6	100	45 693	74.7	1.6	23.8	100	84 506	65.8	3.0	31.2	100	69 802
	Inter-provincial non-migrant	96.5	1.0	2.5	100	3 407 547	79.3	0.9	19.8	100	4668959	68.7	1.1	30.2	100	4 226 646
Female	Intra-district migrant	96.7	1.1	2.3	100	45 847	77.5	1.1	21.4	100	65 228	-	-	-	-	-
	Intra-district non-migrant	96.5	1.0	2.6	100	3 056 747	78.9	0.9	20.1	100	4 238 306	-	-	-	-	-
	Inter-district migrant	96.2	1.2	2.6	100	38 591	74.2	1.6	24.2	100	45 588	65.3	2.3	32.4	100	49 420
	Inter-district non-migrant	96.5	1.0	2.5	100	3 102 594	78.9	0.9	20.2	100	4 303 533	68.1	1.2	30.7	100	3 964 834
	Inter-provincial migrant	90.2	4.6	5.2	100	39 969	74.2	2.2	23.6	100	74 379	64.4	2.4	33.2	100	61 782
	Inter-provincial non-migrant	96.5	1.0	2.5	100	3 141 185	78.9	0.9	20.2	100	4 349 121	68.1	1.2	30.7	100	4 014 255
Total	Intra-district migrant	96.4	1.1	2.5	100	94 843	76.6	1.2	22.3	100	137 817	-	-	-	-	-
	Intra-district non-migrant	96.5	1.0	2.5	100	6 373 478	79.2	0.9	19.9	100	8 786 057	-	-	-	-	-
	Inter-district migrant	96.1	1.2	2.7	100	80 411	74.0	1.8	24.2	100	94 206	67.2	1.8	30.9	100	100 372
	Inter-district non-migrant	96.5	1.0	2.5	100	6 468 320	79.2	0.9	19.9	100	8 923 874	68.4	1.1	30.4	100	8 140 528
	Inter-provincial migrant	91.1	3.9	4.9	100	85 661	74.5	1.9	23.7	100	158 885	65.2	2.7	32.2	100	131 584
	Inter-provincial non-migrant	96.5	1.0	2.5	100	6 548 732	79.1	0.9	20.0	100	9 018 080	68.4	1.1	30.4	100	8 240 900

Table A-2.16: School attendance of children aged 11 to 18 by type of migration and gender

		2009					1999					1989				
		Attending	Ever attended	Never attended	Total	N	Attending	Ever attended	Never attended	Total	N	Attending	Ever attended	Never attended	Total	N
Male	Intra-district migrant	74.5	23.5	2.0	100	70 609	79.5	17.2	3.3	100	114 424	-	-	-	-	-
	Intra-district non-migrant	73.2	25.2	1.6	100	6 483 974	76.1	20.6	3.2	100	7 053 472	-	-	-	-	-
	Inter-district migrant	76.4	22.2	1.4	100	81 099	74.2	22.6	3.2	100	75 026	57.8	35.4	6.8	100	71 472
	Inter-district non-migrant	73.2	25.2	1.6	100	6 554 583	76.2	20.6	3.2	100	7 167 896	63.3	30.2	6.5	100	5 787 539
	Inter-provincial migrant	48.3	50.5	1.2	100	186 860	60.3	35.3	4.5	100	133 495	53.8	41.5	4.7	100	97 549
	Inter-provincial non-migrant	73.2	25.2	1.6	100	6 635 682	76.2	20.6	3.2	100	7 242 922	63.3	30.2	6.5	100	5 859 011
Female	Intra-district migrant	56.1	40.5	3.4	100	93 799	71.2	24.9	3.9	100	106 471	-	-	-	-	-
	Intra-district non-migrant	76.9	21.2	2.0	100	5 914 240	69.2	26.9	3.9	100	6 634 164	-	-	-	-	-
	Inter-district migrant	66.1	32.2	1.8	100	97 395	69.1	27.7	3.2	100	79 768	52.5	39.6	7.8	100	71 955
	Inter-district non-migrant	76.5	21.5	2.0	100	6 008 039	69.2	26.9	3.9	100	6 740 635	55.3	37.6	7.2	100	5 552 407
	Inter-provincial migrant	40.1	58.7	1.2	100	238 959	48.9	47.4	3.7	100	137 739	49.3	46.1	4.6	100	88 160
	Inter-provincial non-migrant	76.4	21.7	2.0	100	6 105 434	69.2	26.9	3.9	100	6 820 403	55.2	37.6	7.2	100	5 624 363
Total	Intra-district migrant	64.0	33.2	2.8	100	164 408	75.5	20.9	3.6	100	220 895	-	-	-	-	-
	Intra-district non-migrant	74.9	23.3	1.8	100	12 398 214	72.8	23.7	3.6	100	13 687 636	-	-	-	-	-
	Inter-district migrant	70.8	27.6	1.6	100	178 494	71.6	25.2	3.2	100	154 794	55.1	37.5	7.3	100	143 428
	Inter-district non-migrant	74.8	23.4	1.8	100	12 562 622	72.8	23.6	3.6	100	13 908 531	59.4	33.8	6.8	100	11 339 946
	Inter-provincial migrant	43.7	55.1	1.2	100	425 818	54.5	41.4	4.1	100	271,235	51.7	43.7	4.6	100	185 709
	Inter-provincial non-migrant	74.7	23.5	1.8	100	12 741 116	72.8	23.7	3.6	100	14,063,325	59.3	33.8	6.8	100	11 483 374

Table A-2.17: Housing status by type of migration

			Permanent	Semi-permanent	Simple	Total	N
2009	Intra-district migrant	Male	25.8	44.1	30.2	100%	589 680
		Female	34.6	38.4	27.0	100%	1 028 480
		Total	31.4	40.5	28.2	100%	1 618 160
	Intra-district non-migrant	Male	39.9	37.5	22.6	100%	35 669 170
		Female	40.1	37.3	22.5	100%	36 017 742
		Total	40.0	37.4	22.6	100%	71 686 913
	Inter-district migrant	Male	29.8	42.7	27.5	100%	742 068
		Female	32.9	40.1	27.1	100%	966 828
		Total	31.6	41.2	27.3	100%	1 708 896
	Inter-district non-migrant	Male	39.7	37.5	22.8	100%	36 258 850
		Female	40.0	37.4	22.7	100%	37 046 222
		Total	39.8	37.5	22.7	100%	73 305 072
	Inter-provincial migrant	Male	22.5	48.3	29.2	100%	1 595 251
		Female	23.3	48.6	28.0	100%	1 802 653
		Total	23.0	48.5	28.6	100%	3 397 904
	Inter-provincial non-migrant	Male	39.5	37.7	22.9	100%	37 000 918
		Female	39.8	37.5	22.8	100%	38 013 050
		Total	39.6	37.6	22.8	100%	75 013 968
1999	Intra-district migrant	Male	20.6	55.8	23.7	100%	560 490
		Female	18.6	59.7	21.7	100%	780 679
		Total	19.4	58.1	22.5	100%	1 341 170
	Intra-district non-migrant	Male	12.5	65.5	22.0	100%	31 593 934
		Female	12.4	65.6	22.0	100%	32 854 662
		Total	12.5	65.6	22.0	100%	64 448 596
	Inter-district migrant	Male	26.7	52.7	20.6	100%	513 910
		Female	29.1	52.6	18.3	100%	623 095
		Total	28.0	52.7	19.4	100%	1 137 006
	Inter-district non-migrant	Male	12.7	65.4	22.0	100%	32 154 424
		Female	12.6	65.5	22.0	100%	33 635 342
		Total	12.6	65.5	22.0	100%	65 789 765
	Inter-provincial migrant	Male	18.1	58.8	23.1	100%	999 406
		Female	19.8	57.9	22.3	100%	998 179
		Total	19.0	58.3	22.7	100%	1 997 585
	Inter-provincial non-migrant	Male	12.9	65.1	22.0	100%	32 668 334
		Female	12.9	65.2	22.0	100%	34 258 437
		Total	12.9	65.2	22.0	100%	66 926 771

Table A-2.18: Access to safe water for drinking and cooking by type of migration

		2009				1999			
		Safe water source	Other source	Total	N	Safe water source	Other source	Total	N
Intra-district migrant	Male	87.5	12.5	100%	439 043	78.1	21.9	100%	560 432.8
	Female	86.3	13.7	100%	802 719	78.7	21.3	100%	780 744.1
	Total	86.8	13.2	100%	1 241 762	78.4	21.6	100%	1 341 177
Intra-district non-migrant	Male	84.7	15.3	100%	29 932 528	77.0	23.0	100%	31 589 605
	Female	85.0	15.0	100%	30 194 367	77.0	23.0	100%	32 852 557
	Total	84.8	15.2	100%	60 126 895	77.0	23.0	100%	64 442 161
Inter-district migrant	Male	92.4	7.6	100%	559 171	87.2	12.8	100%	513 903.2
	Female	91.2	8.3	100%	735 564	87.8	12.2	100%	623 117.7
	Total	92.0	8.0	100%	1 294 734	87.5	12.5	100%	1 137 021
Inter-district non-migrant	Male	84.7	15.3	100%	30 371 571	77.0	23.0	100%	32 150 038
	Female	14.9	85.1	100%	30 997 087	77.1	22.9	100%	33 633 301
	Total	84.9	15.1	100%	61 368 657	77.0	23.0	100%	65 783 338
Inter-provincial migrant	Male	94.4	5.6	100%	1 163 841	87.0	13.0	100%	999 198
	Female	94.5	5.5	100%	1 337 328	86.8	13.2	100%	998 343
	Total	94.5	5.5	100%	2 501 169	86.9	13.1	100%	1 997 542
Inter-provincial non-migrant	Male	84.8	15.2	100%	30 930 741	77.1	22.9	100%	32 663 941
	Female	85.2	14.8	100%	31 732 650	77.3	22.7	100%	34 256 419
	Total	85.0	15.0	100%	62 663 391	77.2	22.8	100%	66 920 359

Table A-2.19: Access to hygienic toilet facilities by type of migration, 1999-2009

		2009					1999				
		Hygienic toilet facilities	Others	None	Total	N	Hygienic toilet facilities	Others	None	Total	N
Intra-district migrant	Male	69.1	24.2	6.8	100%	437 518	41.1	46.2	12.6	100%	560 307
	Female	59.0	33.9	7.1	100%	799 314	34.9	52.3	12.8	100%	780 406
	Total	62.6	30.5	7.0	100%	1 236 832	37.5	49.8	12.7	100%	1 340 714
Intra-district non-migrant	Male	49.4	42.0	8.6	100%	29 796 670	16.1	67.9	16.0	100%	31 580 414
	Female	49.9	41.6	8.5	100%	30 056 946	16.3	67.7	16.1	100%	32 841 829
	Total	49.7	41.8	8.5	100%	59 853 616	16.1	67.8	16.0	100%	64 422 243
Inter-district migrant	Male	80.8	15.2	4.0	100%	557 761	54.4	35.5	10.1	100%	513 915
	Female	76.8	19.0	4.2	100%	733 306	54.1	36.0	10.0	100%	623 128
	Total	78.5	17.4	4.1	100%	1 291 066	54.2	35.7	10.1	100%	1 137 043
Inter-district non-migrant	Male	49.7	41.7	8.6	100%	30 234 188	16.5	67.6	15.9	100%	32 140 721
	Female	50.2	41.4	8.5	100%	30 856 260	16.7	67.3	16.0	100%	33 622 236
	Total	49.9	41.5	8.5	100%	61 090 448	16.6	67.4	16.0	100%	65 762 957
Inter-provincial migrant	Male	83.6	12.8	3.5	100%	1 159 601	44.0	42.9	13.1	100%	998 817
	Female	82.9	13.8	3.3	100%	1 332 037	47.1	40.0	12.9	100%	997 787
	Total	83.3	13.4	3.4	100%	2 491 638	45.5	41.4	13.0	100%	1 996 604
Inter-provincial non-migrant	Male	50.3	41.2	8.5	100%	30 791 949	17.1	67.1	15.9	100%	32 654 636
	Female	50.8	40.8	8.4	100%	3 159 565	17.4	66.8	15.9	100%	34 245 364
	Total	50.5	41.0	8.5	100%	62 381 514	17.2	66.9	15.9	100%	66 900 000

Table A-3.1: List of urban areas in Vietnam, 2009

Grade of urban area	
Special urban areas	Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City
I (7 cities)	Hai Phong, Da Nang, Can Tho, Hue, Vinh, Da Lat, Nha Trang
II (14 cities)	Quy Nhon; Buon Me Thuot; Bien Hoa; Nam Dinh; Ha Long; Vung Tau; Thai Nguyen; Viet Tri; Hai Duong; Thanh Hoa; My Tho; Long Xuyen; Pleiku; Phan Thiet.
III (45 cities, provincial towns)	Ca Mau, Yen Bai, Lang Son, Tuy Hoa [Phu Yen], Lao Cai, Quang Ngai, Thai Binh, Dien Bien, Dong Hoi [Quang Binh], Bac Giang, Rach Gia [Kien Giang], Vinh Yen [Vinh Phuc], Phan Rang [Ninh Thuan], Bac Ninh, Cao Lanh [Dong Thap], Son La, Kon Tum, Soc Trang, Tam Ky [Quang Nam], Hoa Binh, Ninh Binh, Dong Ha [Quang Tri], Hoi An [Quang Nam], Ha Tinh, Phu Ly [Ha Nam], Tan An [Long An], Mong Cai [Quang Ninh], Vinh Long, Hung Yen, Ben Tre, Tra Vinh, Bao Loc [Lam Dong], Son Tay [Hanoi], Cam Pha [Quang Ninh], Sa Dec [Dong Thap], Bac Lieu, Chau Doc [An Giang], Thu Dau Mot [Binh Duong]; Ba Ria [Ba Ria-Vung Tau]; Uong Bi [Quang Ninh], Cua Lo [Nghe An]; Tuyen Quang, Ha Giang; Cam Ranh [Khanh Hoa], Vi Thanh [Hau Giang].
IV & V	Remaining provincial towns and all district towns

Table A-3.2: List of remaining provincial towns

Cao Bang town - Cao Bang province	Sam Son town - Thanh Hoa province	Phuoc Long town - Binh Phuoc province
Bac Can town- Bac Can province	Bim Son town - Thanh Hoa province	Long Khanh town - Dong Nai province
Song Cong town - Thai Nguyen province	Thai Hoa town - Nghe An province	Tay Ninh town - Tay Ninh province
Nghia Lo town - Yen Bai province	Hong Linh town - Ha Tinh province	Go Cong town - Tien Giang province
Phu Tho town - Phu Tho province	Quang Tri town - Quang Tri province	Hong Ngu town - Dong Thap province
Lai Chau town - Lai Chau province	Song Cau town - Phu Yen province	Tan Chau town - An Giang province
Muong Lay town - Dien Bien province	Lagi town - Binh Thuan province	Ha Tien town - Kien Giang province
Tu Son town - Bac Ninh province	An Khe town - Gia Lai province	Nga Bay (Phung Hiep) town - Hau Giang province
Phuc Yen town - Vinh Phuc province	Ayun Pa town - Gia Lai province	Huong Thuy town - Thua Thien Hue province
Tam Diep town - Ninh Binh province	Buon Ho town - Dak Lak province	Chi Linh town - Hai Duong province
Dong Xoai town - Binh Phuoc province	Gia Nghia town - Dak Nong province	Binh Long (includes An Loc town (Binh Long) - Binh Phuoc province

Table A-3.3: Proportion of the population in urban areas for selected regions of the world: 1970-2000

Unit: percent

Year				
Major Region	1970	1980	1990	2000*
World	36.7	39.6	43.5	47.0
Developed countries	67.6	71.5	73.8	76.0
Less developed countries	25.1	29.3	35.1	39.9
· Africa	23.1	27.3	32.1	37.9
· Asia	23.4	26.9	32.4	36.7
- East Asia	24.7	27.4	34.3	38.5
- South Central Asia	20.6	24.3	27.4	30.6
- Southeast Asia	20.4	24.3	30.2	37.2
- West Asia	44.4	51.8	62.6	70.2
· Latin America / Caribbean	57.4	64.9	71.0	75.3

** Projected value as of the time the analysis was completed*

Source: Table A.2 in United States Secretariat, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2000) World Urbanization Prospects – The 1999 Revision - Data Table and Highlights. New York: The United Nations

Table A-3.4: Proportion of the population in urban areas for Southeast Asia: 1970-2000 by country

Unit: percent

Year				
Country	1970	1980	1990	2000*
Brunei	61.7	59.9	65.8	72.2
Cambodia	11.7	12.4	12.6	15.9
East Timor	9.3	8.5	7.8	7.5
Indonesia	17.1	22.2	30.6	40.9
Laos	9.6	13.4	18.1	23.5
Malaysia	33.5	42.0	49.8	57.4
Myanmar	22.8	24.0	24.6	27.7
Philippines	33.0	37.5	48.8	58.6
Singapore	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Thailand	13.3	17.0	18.7	21.6
Vietnam	18.3	19.2	19.7	23,5
Southeast Asia	20.4	24.3	30.2	37.2

** Projected value as of the time the analysis was completed, except for Vietnam where data are from the 1999 census*

Source: Table A.2 in United States Secretariat, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2000) World Urbanization Prospects – The 1999 Revision - Data Table and Highlights. New York: The United Nations

Table A-3.5: Annual growth rate of urban population in Southeast Asia by country

Unit: percent

	Period			
Country	1965-70	1975-80	1985-90	1995-2000*
Brunei	7.88	2.96	3.96	3.01
Cambodia	3.98	1.90	3.17	4.59
East Timor	1.08	- 3.78	1.46	1.66
Indonesia	3.89	4.88	4.91	4.22
Lao	5.09	4.39	5.80	5.10
Malaysia	4.90	4.52	4.23	3.34
Myanmar	3.99	2.15	2.03	2.61
Philippines	4.03	3.38	4.60	3.74
Singapore	1.97	1.30	2.15	1.43
Thailand	3.73	4.86	2.61	2.50
Vietnam	4.33	2.72	2.32	1.84
SOUTHEAST ASIA	3.97	3.87	4.03	3.57

** Projected value as of the time the analysis was completed*

Source: Table A.6 in United States Secretariat, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2000) World Urbanization Prospects – The 1999 Revision - Data Table and Highlights. New York: The United Nations

Table A-3.6: Urban centres having more than 100 000 population: 1979- 2009

Unit: urban residents

Urban centres	1979	1989	1999	2009
2 000 000+	2 700 849	2 899 753	4 207 825	8 612 920
Ho Chi Minh City	2 700 849	2 899 753	4 207 825	5 968 384
Hanoi				2 644 536
500 000 +	897 500	1 089 760	2 637 344	3 052 870
Hanoi	897 500	1 089 760	1 523 936	
Hai Phong			569 771	846 191
Da Nang			543 637	770 911
Can Tho				783 122
Bien Hoa				652 646
200 000 to 500 000	703 863	1 726 616	1 394 137	2 219 495
Hai Phong	385 210	449 747		
Da Nang	318 653	369 734		
Can Tho		208 078	245 364	
Bien Hoa		273 879	435 400	
Nha Trang		213 460	261 121	292 693
Hue		211 718	233 768	302 983
Quy Nhon			218 484	255 463
Vinh				215 577
Buon Ma Thuot				211 891
Ha Long				201 990
Long Xuyen				245 699
Vung Tau				282 415
Rach Gia				210 784
100 000 to 200 000	1 855 274	1 501 255	2 349 359	2 594 629
Can Tho	182 856			
Bien Hoa	187 254			
Nha Trang	172 663			
Hue	165 710			
Quy Nhon	121 211	159 852		

Urban centres	1979	1989	1999	2009
Hon Gai	114 573	123 102		
Vinh	159 753	110 793	163 759	
Long Xuyen	112 485	128 817	191 456	
Vung Tau		123 528	196 754	
Rach Gia		137 784	174 717	
Buon Ma Thuot			175 742	
Ha Long			159 231	
Nam Dinh	160 179	165 629	160 421	193 768
Thai Nguyen	138 023	124 871	154 274	199 732
My Tho	101 493	104 724	104 620	130 381
Da Lat	87 136	102 583	143 825	184 755
Cam Pha	76 697	105 336	124 326	168 196
Phan Thiet	75 241	114 236	141 419	189 619
Thanh Hoa			130 081	147 559
Hai Duong			111 686	170 420
Soc Trang			114 161	136 018
Ca Mau			102 887	129 896
Thai Binh				106 915
Tuy Hoa				122 438
Phan Rang				152 906
Pleiku				162 051
Thu Dau Mot				187 379
Vinh Long				103 067
Bac Lieu				109 529
Total Urban Population	10 094 000	12 740 000	18 076 823	25 374 262

Source: 1979 : Table 15, page 107 in F. Gendreau, V. Fauveau and Dang Thu (1997)

Démographie de la péninsule indochinoise. Paris: ESTEM

1989: Table 1.7 in volume 1 of Vietnam, Central Census Steering Committee (1991) Vietnam Population Census - 1989: Completed Census Results. Hanoi

1999: Census 1999

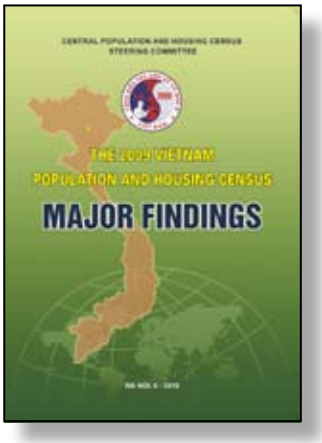
2009: Census 2009

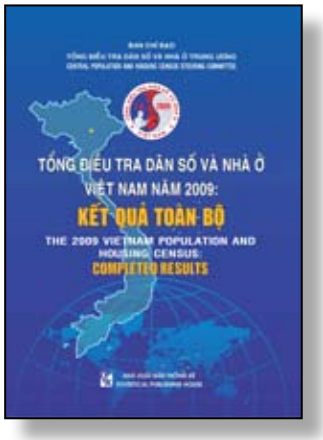
Table A-3.7. Percent never-married by sex and age: 1989, 1999 and 2009

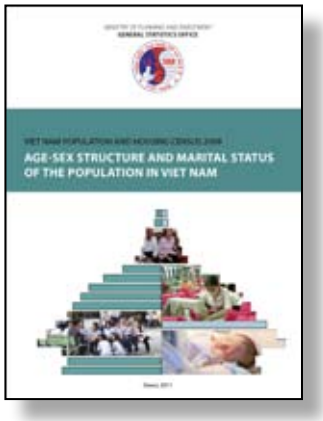
Unit: Percent

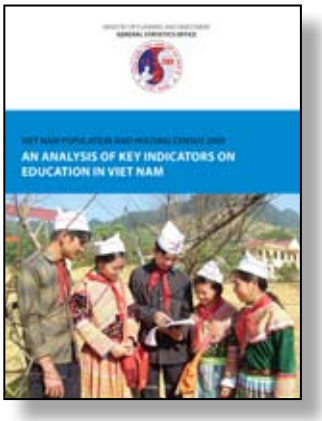
Age	1989		1999		2009	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
15–19	98.1	94.6	98.8	94.7	97.8	91.5
20–24	77.4	58.1	83.5	63.2	75.6	50.8
25–29	38.9	24.9	45.3	26.3	35.8	18.2
30–34	13.6	15.2	17.8	14.4	12.1	8.0
35–39	6.3	12.8	7.5	9.4	5.9	6.1
40–44	3.7	8.4	3.8	8.5	3.3	5.7
45–49	26	5.8	2.1	7.6	2.1	5.6

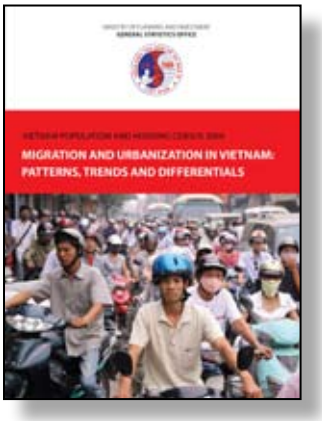
Product for the celebration of the 65th Anniversary of the Vietnam Statistics foundation (06th May 1946 - 06th May 2011)

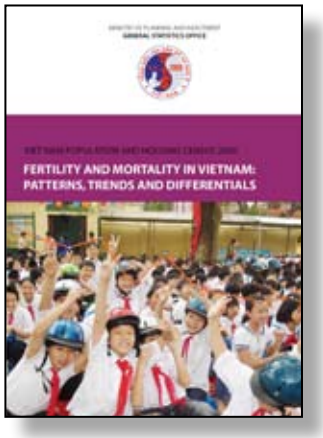


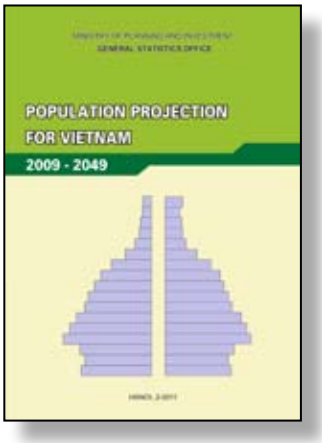












MINISTRY OF PLANNING AND INVESTMENT
GENERAL STATISTICS OFFICE

UNITED NATIONS
POPULATION FUND