

FINAL REPORT

CAMBODIA: Country Gender Profile

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CAMBODIA

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ACRONYMS & ABBREVIATIONS

ADB	Asia Development Bank
ADHOC	Cambodian Human Rights and Development Association
AFESIP	Agir Pour les Femmes En Situation Precaire
APIP	Agricultural Productivity Improvement Project
AQIP	Agriculture Quality Improvement Project
CAEEP	Cambodia-Australia Agriculture Extension Project
CCC	Cooperation Committee for Cambodia
CCCR	Concluding Comments on CEDAW Report
CDHS	Cambodia Demographic and Health Survey
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CMDGs	Cambodia Millennium Development Goals
CNCW	Cambodia National Council of Women
CPA	Complementary Package of Activities
CSES	Cambodia Socio-Economic Survey
CWCC	Cambodian Women's Crisis Centre
DCA	DanChurch Aid
DFID/UK	Department for International Development/ United Kingdom
ECPAT	End Child Prostitution, Pornography and Trafficking of Children for Sexual Purposes
ESP	Education Strategic Plan
EWMI-HRCP	East West Management Institute/ Human Rights in Cambodia Project
GAD	Gender and Development
GAP	Governance Action Plan
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GMAGs	Gender Mainstreaming Action Groups
GMAPs	Gender Mainstreaming Action Plans
GTZ	Deutsche Gesellschaft fur Technische Zusammenarbeit
HIV/AIDS	Human Immuno-deficiency Virus/ Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ICESCR	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
IEEW	Integrated Economic Empowerment, Entrepreneurship and Employment of Women
ILO-IPEC	International Labour Organisation-International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour
IPM	Integrated Pest Management
IOs	International Organisations
JICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency
KAPE	Kampuchean Action for Primary Education

LICADHO	Ligue Cambodgienne de Defense des Droits de l'Homme/ Cambodian League for the Promotion and Defense of Human Rights
MAFF	Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries
MIME	Ministry of Industry, Mines and Energy
MoC	Ministry of Commerce
MoEYS	Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports
MoH	Ministry of Health
MoI	Ministry of Information
MoLVT	Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training
MoP	Ministry of Planning
MoT	Ministry of Tourism
MoSVY	Ministry of Social Affairs, Veterans and Youth Rehabilitation
MoWA	Ministry of Women's Affairs
MoWRAM	Ministry of Water Resources & Meteorology
MPA	Minimum Package of Activities
MRD	Ministry of Rural Development
NAA	National Aids Authority
NCHADS	National Centre for HIV/AIDS, Dermatology and STD
NCSC	National Committee to Support Communes
NGO	Non-government organisation
NIS	National Institute of Statistics
NPP	National Population Policy
NPRS	National Poverty Reduction Strategy
PADV	Project Against Domestic Violence
PAP	Priority Action Programme
PGM	Project on Gender Mainstreaming
PDoWA	Provincial Department of Women's Affairs
PLG	Partnership for Local Governance
RGC	Royal Government of Cambodia
RUA	Royal University of Agriculture
SEDP	Socio-Economic Development Plan
SEILA	RGC Programme for decentralisation, socio-economic improvement and local administration; Khmer term for "foundation stone"
STF	SEILA Task Force
STD	Sexually Transmitted Disease
TPGME	Tracking Progress of Gender Mainstreaming in Education
TWGG	Technical Working Group on Gender
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nation Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNFPA	United Nations Fund for Population Activities

UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women
UNTAC	United Nations Transnational Authority in Cambodia
UXO	Unexploded ordnance
VAW	Violence Against Women
WID	Women In Development
WIN-WOW	Women in Irrigation and Nutrition and Health Project
WTO	World Trade Organisation

1. BASIC PROFILES

1-1 Socio-Economic Profile

	Estimates	References
Macro-economic indicators		1
GDP/Capita (2005)	1,400,000 Riel	
GDP growth (annual %), 2005	7.0	
Inflation rate, 2005	6.2	
% GDP Share/Sector, 2005		
Agriculture	30.1	
Industry	27.7	
Services	34.3	
Demographic indicators, 1998/ 2005		2
Population	12,169,491/ 13,661,375	
% Women in population	51.7/ 51.4	
% Rural population	84.3/ 84.4	
% Urban population	15.7/ 15.6	
% Population younger than 20 years	56.1/ 49.7	
% Female-headed households (1998/ 2004)	25.7/ 29.2	
Dependency ratio 2004 ¹		
Total/ Female/ Male	74.0/ 68.8/ 79.8	
Urban/ Female/ Male	59.7/ 55.1/ 65.9	
Rural/ Female/ Male	76.8/ 71.5/ 82.8	
Labour Force (LF) Indicators		
LF/ economically active population (7 years & above), 2004		2a
Total number of economically active population/ % Women	7,013,887/ 51.7	
% Women/ % Men	51.7/ 48.3	
% Rural (Cambodia)/ % Rural women/ % Rural men	86.0/ 52.1/ 47.9	
LF 15 years and above (2004)		2a
% Total/ % Women/ % Men	83.7/ 81.1/ 83.7	
% Rural (Cambodia)/ % Rural women/ % Rural men	86.0/ 84.0/ 88.3	
% Women in labour force, by sector (1998/ 2004) ^{2, 3}		1
Agriculture	35.0/ 52.5	
Industry	44.0/ 53.5	
Services	21.0/ 27.0	
Employment Status		3
% Employment/ Sector (2003/ 2004) as % of total employment		
Agriculture	64.8/ 60.3	
Industry	11.6/ 12.5	
Services	23.7/ 27.2	
Unemployment rate (2004)		2
% Total/ % Rural (Cambodia)	7.1/ 7.2	
% Women/ % Rural women	6.7/ 6.6	
% Men/ % Rural men	7.6/ 7.9	
Estimated earned income (Purchasing Power Parity US\$), 2004		4
Female/ male	2,077/ 2,793	
% Unpaid family worker, 2004	43.1	5 ^{a/}
Female/ Male	60.4/ 39.6	
% Own account work/ self-employed, 2004	35.5	5 ^{a/}
Female/ Male	42.5/ 57.5	
% Paid employee, 2004	20.8	5 ^{a/}
Female/ Male	41.5/ 58.5	
Type of Employment		5 ^{a/}
% Farm worker, 2004	50.2	
Female/ Male	51.3/ 48.7	
% Non-farm self-employed, 2004	26.7	
Female/ Male	53.9/ 46.1	

Child Workers		6
Number of child workers/ % Child domestic workers		
Girls		
Age 7-9 years/ %	30,851/ 4.4	
Age 10-14 years/ %	61,335/ 6.9	
Age 15-17 years/ %	47,228/ 22.8	
All Girls (7-17 years)/ %	139,414/ 11.8	
Boys		
Age 7-9 years/ %	28,768/ 1.8	
Age 10-14 years/ %	76,548/ 7.9	
Age 15-17 years/ %	47,370/ 10.5	
All Boys (7-17 years)/ %	152,686/ 7.6	
Agriculture Indicators		7
% of national budget earmarked for agriculture and rural development, 2002	4.0	
New land titles issued since adoption of the land Law in 2001	80,000+	
Average land holding size	0.98 hectare	
% of landless women-headed households	21	
% of land titles issued to names of wife and husband, 2001	78	
% of rural households without agricultural land	15	
% rate of increase of landlessness annually	2	
Poverty Indices		
% Population living under poverty line/ Headcount Index, 1993-94/ 2004 ⁴	39/ 35.9	8, 9
% Population living under food poverty line/ Headcount Index, 1994/ 2004		
Rural	22.0/ 22.2	8, 9
Other urban	20.0/ 11.4	
Phnom Penh	3.0/ 1.0	
Cambodia, 2004	20.0	
Food poverty lines (current Riel per capita per day), 1993-4/ 2004		9
Rural	1,185/ 1,782	
Other urban	996/ 1,568	
Phnom Penh	882/ 1,389	
Daily per capita household consumption (mean Riel per day), 2004	3,805	
Gini coefficient, 1994/ 2004 ¹	0.35/ 0.40	8, 9
Women empowerment		4
% Seats of parliament ⁵	10.9	
% Seats in lower house, 2006	9.8	
% Seats in upper house, 2006	14.8	
% Ministers, 2005	0.1	
% Legislators, senators, officers, managers ⁵	14	
% Professionals/ technical workers ⁵	33	
Positions at the Ministry of Justice, 2004		3
# Senior ministerial officials/ % Female	44/ 22.7	
# Ministry staff/ % Female	138/ 13.0	
# Judges/ % Female	131/ 10.7	
# Prosecutors/ # Female	65/ 1	
# Court clerks/ % Female	790/ 16.7	
Development Indices		10
Human development index (HDI) 2000/ 2004 – ranking	130/ 129 out of 174	
HDI score	0.543/ 0.583	
Gender development index (GDI), 2005 – ranking	99	
GDI score	0.567	
Gender empowerment index (GEI), 2005 – ranking	73	
GEI score	0.364	

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- 1 - Ministry of Planning (MoP). *National Strategic Development Plan 2006-2010*. Phnom Penh: MoP. January 2006
- 2 - National Institute of Statistics/ Ministry of Planning (NIS/MoP). 2004. *Cambodia Inter-Censal Population Survey 2004, General Report*. Phnom Penh: NIS-MoP and UNPFA. November 2004

- 2a – NIS/MoP. 2005. *Cambodia Inter-Censal Population Survey 2004, Analysis of CIPS Results – Report 3: Labour Force and Employment*. Phnom Penh: NIS-MoP and UNPFA. September 2005
- 3 - NIS/MoP. 2005. *Statistical Yearbook 2005*. Phnom Penh: NIS/ MoP
- 4 - UNDP: <http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/human-development-report-2003>
- 5 - NIS/MoP. 2005. *Cambodia Socio-Economic Survey*. Phnom Penh: NIS/ MoP
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- 9 - Ministry of Planning. 2006. *A Poverty Profile of Cambodia 2004*. Phnom Penh: Ministry of Planning
- 10 - World Bank. 2006. *Key Development Data and Statistics 2006* in
<http://econ.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/DATASTATISTICS/0,,contentMDK:20535285~isCURL:Y~pagePK:64133150~piPK:64133175~theSitePK:239419~isCURL:Y,00.html>

Notes:

- ¹ Please see Definition of Terms
- ² Source and other related references reviewed do not provide figures for men
- ³ Source does not provide explanations why percentages do not total 100%
- ⁴ Data on Headcount Index are not comparable since the estimate for 1993-94 had a different geographical coverage (59% only of the country's total villages) compared to the CSES 2004. With the 2004 sample limited to the same geographical areas, results show a strong decline in Cambodia's poverty rate from 39% in 1993-94 to 28% in 2004 (MoP, 2006:43).
- ⁵ Source does not indicate reference year for the figure(s) cited

1-2 Health Profile

	Estimates	Ref
Health expenditure, 2003		1
Total (% of GDP)	10.9	
Public (% of GDP)	2.1	
Public (% of total health expenditure)	19.3	
Per capita (US\$)	33.0	
Public sector spending, by source in Million US\$ (1998/ 2001)		2
Government	12.0/ 32.9	
Multilateral	na/ 21.0	
Bilateral	na/ 30.2	
NGOs	na/ 14.1	
Total external aid	59.0/ 65.3	
Total public sector spending	71.0/ 98.2	
Dollar per capita	6.3/ 8.1	
% Government	17/ 33	
% External	83/ 67	
Health Personnel		3
Ratio of doctors to the general population (2003/ 2004)	1:6,151/ 1:5,220	
Total number of public health personnel, 2004		
Number/ % increase	19,105 / 8.6	
Number/ % increase of doctors	2,586/ 20.5	
Pharmacists/ % increase	742 / 36.9	
Registered nurses/ % increase	8,231/ 3.3	
Registered dentists	870	
Life expectancy at birth (years) HDI, 2000-05	56.0	4
Male/ Female	52.0/ 60.1	5
Fertility rate, ages 15-49 (2000/ 2005)	4.0/ 3.4	6
National	4.0/ 3.4	
Urban	3.1/ 2.8	
Rural	4.2/ 3.5	
Family Planning/ Birth Spacing		6
% Use of modern contraceptive methods (2000/ 2005)	19/ 27	
% Most commonly used modern methods (2000/ 2005)		
Pill	4.5/ 11.1	
Injectables	7.4/ 7.8	
Withdrawal	2.3/ 8.3	
Maternal and Child Care (2005)		6
% with professional antenatal care	69.3	
% with anti-tetanus injection	76.7	
% with iron supplements	62.9	
% delivery by health professional	43.8	
% delivery in health facility	21.5	
Full vaccination coverage of children by mothers' education, 2000/ 2005		6
% among children of mothers without education	21.9/ 51.9	
% among children of mothers with primary education	41.4/ 67.6	
% among children of mothers with secondary & higher education	58.8/ 83.3	
Child immunisation (% of ages 12-23 mos.), 2000/ 2005		6
Male	42.6/ 69.0	
Female	37.2/ 64.2	
Child vaccination (% of ages 12-23 mos), 2000/ 2004		6
Measles	55.4/ 76.9	
BCG	71.4/ 91.4	
Polio	51.5/ 77.0	
ALL (BCG, measles and three doses each of DTC and polio vaccine, excluding PO polio vaccine give at birth)	39.9/ 66.6	
Nutrition status of children (2000/ 2005)		7, 8

Stunted	44.6/ 54.2	
Wasted	15.0/ 12.0	
Underweight	45.2/ 46.1	
% children breastfed, 2005		6
Under 6 months	96.0	
2 years	50.0	
3 years	20.0	
Exclusive breastfeeding under 6 months	60.0	
Prevalence of Acute Respiratory Infection (ARI), fever & diarrhoea among children under age 5 (in the 2 weeks prior to CDHS survey) , 2000/ 2005		6
ARI	19.8/ 15	
Fever	35.4/ 35	
Diarrhoea	18.9/ 20	
% health facility or health provider for (2000/ 2005):		
ARI & fever symptoms	31.0/ 57.0	
Diarrhoea	21.6/ 50.0	
Maternal & child mortality		6
Maternal mortality rate # per 100,000 (2000/ 2005)	437/ 417	
Infant/ child mortality ¹ rate per 1000 births (2000/ 2005)		
Neonatal (nn)	37/ 28	
Post neonatal (pnn)	58/ 37	
Infant mortality (im)	95/ 65	
Child mortality (cm)	33/ 19	
Under-five mortality (u5m)	124/ 83	
Health and Sanitation, 2004		9
Access to clean water % of population (Cambodia/ Rural)	44/ 40	
Access to sanitation % of population (Cambodia/ Rural)	20/ 16	
HIV/AIDS & TB		10
Total number of HIV/AIDS incidence/ % female (1997) ²	170,965/ 35.6	
Total number of HIV/AIDS incidence/ % female (2002)	157,483/ 47.9	
HIV/AIDS Prevalence, % of 15-49 age (2000/ 2006 est.) ²	2.8/ 1.9	11
Tuberculosis (TB) Incidence per 100,000 (2004)	510	4
Tuberculosis (TB) Death rate per 100,000 (2002)	90	4

na – not available

Sources

- 1 - World Bank: *Health, Nutrition and Population in* <http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/health-nutrition-and-population-statistics>
- 2 - Health Sector Strategic Plan 2003-2007, Ministry of Health, August 2002
- 3 - National Institute of Statistics/ Ministry of Planning (NIS/MoP). 2005. *Statistical Yearbook 2005*. Phnom Penh: NIS/ MoP
- 4 - UNDP website: <http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/human-development-report-2003>
- 5 - UNDP website: <http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/table-5-gender-related-development-index-gdi>
- 6 - National Institute of Public Health & National Institute of Statistics. 2006. *Preliminary Report: Cambodia Demographic and Health Survey, 2005*. Phnom Penh, July 2006.
- 7 - NIS/ MoP. 2000. *Cambodia Demographic and Health Survey*. Phnom Penh: NIS/ MoP
- 8 - World Bank. 2006. *Cambodia: Halving Poverty by 2015? Poverty Assessment 2006*. Prepared by the World Bank for the Consultative Group Meeting. Phnom Penh: The World Bank, February 2006
- 9 - NIS/MoP. 2004. *Cambodia Inter-Censal Population Survey 2004. General Report*. Phnom Penh: NIS-MoP and UNFPA, November 2004
- 10 - HIV Sentinel Surveillance in Cambodia, National Centre for HIV/AIDS, Dermatology and STD (NCHADS), 2002
- 11 - MoP. *National Strategic Development Plan 2006-2010*. Phnom Penh: MoP. January 2006

Notes:

¹ Please see Definition of Terms

² Source and other related references reviewed do not provide figures for men

1-3 Education Profile

Public expenditure for education		Estimates	Ref
Public expenditure on education: % of total expenditures (1998/2004)		10.3/ 14.6	3
As % of GDP		1.5/ 2.0	3

Teachers and schools		Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Ref
% of teachers, by sex (2005-06)	Female/ Male	41.7/ 58.3	30.8/ 69.2	33.3/ 66.7	7
Pupils to teacher ratio ¹	2000/ 2004	50.1/ 55.1	18.5/ 25.1		4
	2005/06	50.8	31.7	29.5	5
No. of schools	2002/ 2006	5,741/ 6,277	534/ 911	163/ 252	2/ 5
Longest distance to (km.)	2000/ 2005	2.0/ 1.5	8.0/ 5.0	- / -	8

Literacy		Female	Male	Total	Ref
Literacy (% ages 7 & over), 2004	Urban/ Rural	78.6/ 65.3	88.9/ 80.8	83.5/ 72.7	1
	Total	67.4	82.1	74.4	
Adult literacy (% ages 15 & over), 2004	Urban/ Rural	76.9/ 61.6	91.7/ 83.3	83.8/ 71.6	1
	Total	64.1	84.7	73.6	
Literacy Rate (% ages 15 -24 years), 2004	Urban/ Rural	88.0/ 76.8	92.8/ 87.0	90.8/ 81.9	1
	Total	78.9	87.9	83.4	

Gross and Net Enrolment Rate		Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Ref
Gross enrolment rates ¹ 2005-06	Female/ Male	118.6/ 129.4	50.0/ 60.5	15.3/ 23.1	7
	Total	124.0	55.3	19.3	
Net enrolment rate ¹ 2005-06	Female/ Male	89.7/ 93.0	30.4/ 32.1	9.0/ 12.7	7
	Total	91.3	31.3	11.3	
% Female enrolment	2001-02/ 2005-06	46.5/ 47.3	36.2/ 44.9	32.1/ 38.8	7

Gross & Net Enrolment Rate, by area, 2005/06		Primary		Lower secondary		Upper secondary		Ref
Gross enrolment ratio	Female	117.4	118.9	81.3	45.2	40.9	9.6	5
	Male	127.5	129.8	95.5	55.3	50.4	16.5	
Net enrolment ratio	Female	89.7	90.1	50.3	27.4	26.1	6.3	5
	Male	92.7	93.3	49.9	29.7	26.7	9.3	

Technical, Vocational Education & Training ²		Total	% Female	Ref
2000-01		6,169	29.4	7
2001-02		7,943	19.9	7
2002-03		6,790	26.8	7

DROP OUT & SURVIVAL RATE

Drop out rate (across all educational levels)	Urban		Rural		Remote		Ref
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	
2002-03	9.55	8.56	12.51	11.6	23.13	20.68	7
2003-04	9.16	7.81	12.46	10.17	21.58	16.8	
2004-05	8.93	8.6	12.33	11.68	19.03	17.15	

Drop out Rates	Primary School		Lower Secondary		Upper Secondary		Ref
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	
2001-02	9.55	10.84	20.8	17.3	16.5	16.2	7
2002-03	9.52	10.76	22.9	20.4	23.3	23.3	
2003-04	12.2	9.67	22.5	28.8	18	20.5	

2004-05	12.1	11.4	23.5	21.4	15.7	17.8	
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Survival rate, 2005	Grade 1-5	Grade 1-6	Grade 1-9	Ref.
Female	54.94	47.55	24.80	5
Male	56.00	48.70	27.94	

Sources:

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- 8 - MoP. *National Strategic Development Plan 2006-2010*. Phnom Penh: MoP. January 2006

Notes:

- ¹ Please see Definition of Terms
- ² Refers to all education sectors

2. GENERAL SITUATION OF WOMEN & GOVERNMENT POLICY ON GENDER

Despite modest economic gains, women in Cambodia remain poor and face greater pressures with the country's entry into WTO, unfavorable trends in the garment trade and access to land resource, as well as persisting disparities in education and income opportunities. These conditions can increase incidence of women trafficking and prostitution with the concurrent rise in HIV/AIDS prevalence among women. While there are noteworthy efforts in instituting a more gender sensitive policy environment, gender-based discrimination and inequalities remain issues of major concern for government policy-makers and the women sector as a whole.

2-1 General Situation of Women in Cambodia

Women face greater pressures today despite modest growth in the economy as globalisation poses concerns over possible unfavourable outcomes on women and their families

General Situation of Women in Cambodia

Cambodia has achieved economic growth of about 7.1% per annum over the past ten years. Yet, it continues to be one of the poorest countries in the world with 34.7% of its population living below poverty line or with less than US\$0.46-0.63 per day. Social infrastructure is underdeveloped and only 34% of the population has access to clean water. The maternal mortality rate is 417 per 100,000 live births and the infant and child mortality rate is 149 per 1,000 live births (NIPH/ NIS, 2006). Despite massive external financial assistance during the period 1993-2003 of more than US\$5 billion or an average of 13 % GDP annually, the economy has not improved much: a) Infant and child mortality rates though decreasing in the past five years remain high despite modest real GDP growth since 2000 and are still the highest in the region (World Bank, 2006); b) Cambodia lags far behind on paved roads, toilets, electricity, and clean water when compared to Laos (ADB et al, 2005); and c) the population living below poverty line still remains high at 34.7% in 2004 (World Bank, 2006).

More recently, there is a concern that the opening-up of the Cambodian economy to globalisation through its membership in WTO may result in the elimination of public subsidies and privatisation of health, education and other essential services that will then be borne by the families – "a transference of the welfare functions of the State onto families"¹. Distinct responses when costs of professional healthcare go up are that,

- ❶ Families rely more on traditional and home care, which is provided primarily by women and female children;
- ❷ Demands on the time and labour of women increase as they to find extra paid work to pay for health care costs, and also, they work harder at home to look after family members who are unwell; here too, the household tasks of female children are likely to increase;
- ❸ Overall, because economic pressures created by ill health and sickness without sufficient access to required healthcare, there are fewer resources for children – less money to buy necessities, less time from parents – especially mothers, less emotional support, etc (Oxfam Hong Kong & Oxfam America, 2003).

And when the costs of education go up,

¹ Quoted from Ms. Shalmali Guttal of the Focus on the Global South in her presentation on *Globalisation, An Overview of Key Issues and Impacts*, 11 November 2001 at the Terres Des Hommes Regional Partners Meeting, as cited in *Mekong Region Material on Globalisation: Reading materials provided for the Gender and Trade Workshop at Oxfam-Hong Kong – Cambodia, June 2003*. These cited responses or coping strategies among families are substantiated by a number of socio-economic studies done in Cambodia.

- ❑ Families need to save on spending to pay for children's education – fewer economic resources available for children, less food, fewer comforts, etc.
- ❑ Children in very poor families need to dropout of school; if families have to choose, they often prefer that female children dropout before male children for social, cultural and practical reasons (female children can more housework than male children); loss of formal education or insufficient formal education affects children's future opportunities for self-development and employment;
- ❑ Women in low income and poor families are likely to look for extra paid work to meet rising school costs;
- ❑ Children work outside the home to supplement family income and pay for school costs (which is happening in Vietnam and Cambodia) (Oxfam Hong Kong & Oxfam America, 2003);

When there is decline in public provision of essential services such as fuel, water and sanitation,

- ❑ Poor families and communities are virtually cut off from clean water, cooking facilities, heating and sanitation;
- ❑ There are increases in diseases such as cholera, diarrhoea, pneumonia, dengue, etc.;
- ❑ Since professional and quality healthcare is usually un-affordable for poor families, such as illnesses become chronic problems for children, leading to long term disability and sometimes, to death;
- ❑ Greater pressures on already tight family resources (money, time and labour); increased work load and pressures on family members (Oxfam Hong Kong & Oxfam America, 2003);

When families face economic hardship because of unemployment, drop in wages, increased costs of services, crises and recessions,

- ❑ Women work harder outside the home for wages and any extra income they can find; labour of children needed within households to take over tasks of adult family members (especially female children); labour of children also needed outside the home for extra income – begging, domestic worker, etc.
- ❑ Fewer resources available for children – less money, food, time, clothes, parental attention, emotional security, etc (Oxfam Hong Kong & Oxfam America, 2003).

There is a concern over the possible long-term negative impact of the termination of the Multi-Fiber Agreement on women employed in the garment sector. The garment industry has been the engine of growth for Cambodia since the mid-1990s and now accounts for almost 95% of exports. The textile and garment industry is highly labour intensive. Currently, there are around 200 garment factories in Cambodia, concentrated around Phnom Penh and neighbouring provinces and employing an estimated 200,000 employees. In Cambodia, labour participation rate among women over the age of 15 at 81.07% in 2004 is among the highest in the region, and this has played a critical role in economic development. About 64% of the employees in the manufacturing sector are employed by the garment industry, and almost 90% of them are female (ADB and CRD, 2005).

Garments exports grew by 20% in 2006 which according to IMF and the government fuelled Cambodia's economic growth at around 10.5% last year, almost entirely aside from tourism and construction. However, although GDP increased at an annual rate of 6.8% between 1994 and 2004, it was concentrated only in a handful of sectors and thus did not directly benefit much of the public, concentrated only in urban areas bypassing the rural regions where most of the population lives according to a recent UNDP and ILO report (Maloy and Kimsong, 2007).

The implications of lifting quota restrictions by the end of 2004 under the WTO agreements for Cambodia, a country that hitherto enjoyed a preferential status for exporting garments, are uncertain but could be far reaching and the adjustment costs high. A better understanding is therefore required of the likely impact caused by this change on the garment industry and its employees. It is

important to address the potential social implication of the adjustment cost as well as related labour market issues arising from phasing out of quota restrictions. Employees, affected by removal of quota restrictions, may require assistance (ADB and CRD, 2005).

While primary education enrolment rates have improved significantly, with participation rates of 84% for boys and 81% for girls, the enrolment rates for secondary education have dropped drastically over the last six years to 17% for boys and 8% for girls in upper secondary grades. This is the lowest in the Southeast Asian region (ADB 2007).

Rural women constitute the majority in the country. Their numbers as a labour force engaged in agriculture increased from 35.0% in 1998 to 52.5% in 2004. They face a continuing threat of economic dislocation due to weak or non-implementation of the land distribution policy under the land law, and their own lack of awareness of their rights and understanding of legislations and land registration processes. Hard pressed in particular are those performing the role as heads of families who have completely lost their livelihoods as a result of land grabbing by private logging companies.

Growing numbers of women being trafficked for sexual exploitation, forced domestic labour and factory work have been reported. According to CWCC, 800 women and children are trafficked or smuggled every month into Thailand of which 400 will be deported back by Thai authorities. While there is yet no comprehensive information and data on trafficking, there are reports that women especially young girls who migrate to neighbouring countries in search for work are the most vulnerable to becoming victims not only of trafficking but also violence and exploitation.

Women comprised almost half (47%) of people living with HIV in Cambodia in 2003 compared with just over one third (37%) in 1998. Since 1997, incidence has decreased in men but increased among women, especially among housewives in rural areas, making them the most vulnerable group to new infection. Indeed, a high proportion of married women (41% admit being concerned about being infected by their husbands (2006 AIDS Epidemic Update). The subordination of women and girls, as well as discrimination and violence against them, contribute to their vulnerability to HIV/AIDS and STDs.

Women remain largely marginalised in the political sphere in terms of influencing and implementing state policies. Apart from the traditional and cultural attitudes that confine women to the role of mother and housewife, there is also the lack of institutional mechanisms ensuring the advancement of women in political participation at any level (Cambodian NGO Committee on CEDAW and the Cambodian Committee of Women, 2005). There were fewer women than men in decision-making positions in 2004 regardless of whether they were elected or appointed. In none of the 24 provinces were women appointed as provincial state governors.

It can be expected then that majority of Cambodian women will continue to live in dire poverty due to these current unfavourable trends even as much as due to persisting social inequality, corruption and weak governance, and gender discrimination. Underlying the gender inequality is the prevalence of cultural and traditional norms embodied in the *Chbab Srey* which put women in a lower status than men as well as limit their choices and options in the areas of education, employment and public and political life.

In sum, discrimination against women persists in terms of employment opportunities and within employment, lack of livelihood opportunities, lack of adequate knowledge about reproductive health, less access to land ownership and other property rights, low representation in political life at all levels constrain women's opportunities outside of their households. With economic, social and political developments, Cambodian women need an appropriate environment to seize new opportunities to become a more integrated into the mainstream of social life (UNIFEM et al. 2004).

2-2 Government Policy on Gender

Government has instituted major policy reforms on gender but there still remain concerns needing elaboration and full implementation

Government Policy on Gender

Cambodia is a signatory to several international agreements including the CEDAW that was ratified in 1992. The CEDAW committed the state to address gender inequality in the civil, political, economic, social spheres as well as in cultural and family life. CEDAW is yet to be published in the Official Gazette of the Kingdom of Cambodia and many of its judges and legal officers are unaware of its existence.

The Constitution of 1993 affirms full protection of the fundamental rights of the Khmer people in Chapter III, including an emphasis on protection of women's rights. The protection covers the right to equality before the law (Art. 31) and prohibition of all forms of discrimination against women (Art. 46). This was the government's way of localizing Goal 3 which is to promote gender equality and empower women of the Cambodia Millennium Development Goals (CMDGs) to meet the specific development needs of its people.

There are still laws that clearly violate constitutional provisions and are still in force. Moreover, the courts have not established explicit jurisprudence over contradictions between constitutional provisions and discriminatory provisions in laws (Cambodian NGO Committee on CEDAW and the Cambodian Committee of Women, 2005). One example is Art. 9 of the Law on Marriage and Family which states that: "After the dissolution of marriage...a woman may remarry. However, she shall remain unmarried and she shall in a legal period of conception until at least 300 days after the death of husband...or 300 days after the judgment which grants a final divorce."

Table 1. Cambodian laws and related amendments

Laws and Regulations	Content	Date
The Law on Abortion	Guarantees women's rights to abortion; has provision regulating its procedures and conditions to protect women's health	adopted in 1997
The 1997 Labour Code	Guarantees equality in employment and the right against any discrimination based on sex but has several discriminatory provisions against women	adopted in 1997
The Law on the Prevention and Control of HIV/AIDS	Fully protects the rights of people living with HIV/AIDS, including prohibiting any discrimination against them	adopted in 2002
The Marriage and Family Law	Provides provisions on grounds of divorce, property, on cruelty and wife-beatings. In the Concluding Comments of the CEDAW in its Meeting of Jan. 16-3 February 2006, the Committee urged the government to raise the minimum age of marriage for women and men to 18 years, in line with article 16 of the Convention, the Committee's general recommendation 21 and the Convention of the Rights of the Child.	adopted in 1989

Table 2. Laws promoting women's interests

Laws and Regulations	Content	Date
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The Law on the Prevention of Domestic Violence and the Protection of Victim	Defines domestic violence as consisting of physical, psychological or economic violence; this includes threats aimed at frightening or shocking the victim; provides protection to husbands, wives, dependent children and all other persons under the roof of the house; also establishes intervention by local authorities and protection via a protection order rendered by the Provincial Courts.	Sept. 2005
The Law on Marriage and Family	Stipulates equal rights to both spouses in all property acquired by the earnings and effort of either spouses during the marriage.	adopted in 1989
The Land Law of 2001 affirms the Khmer people's right to land	Has provisions describing and regulating land concessions.	2001
The Law on the Suppression of the Kidnapping, Trafficking and Exploitation of Human Beings	Provides law enforcement and judicial officials with more powers to arrest and prosecute traffickers, and provide protection to their victims.	still a draft per CEDAW Shadow Report 2005

Table 3. Policies and strategies with strong emphasis on gender equality

Laws and Regulations	Content	Date
The Rectangular Strategy for Growth, Employment, Equity and Efficiency	prioritises gender as one of four growth sectors to be targeted; the RGC's main policy for 2004-2008;	CDC, 2004
The National Strategic Development Plan 2006-2010	specifies the umbrella development framework encompassing the CMDG, NPRS and the national population policy;	adopted in 2002
The Cambodian Millennium Development Goals (CMDGs) 2003	are eight localised MDGs plus one additional goal specific to Cambodia – de-mining, UXO and victim assistance.	2003
<i>Neary Rattanak I</i> , Five-Year Strategic Plan	defines a vision and a five-year plan for the Ministry of Women's & Veteran's Affairs to complement the work of other ministries in their own projects that have an impact on women. The aim was to present a new image of Cambodian women, moving from a disadvantaged group to the nation's invaluable assets and its economic potential."	Feb. 1999
<i>Neary Rattanak II</i> , Five-Year Strategic Plan 2004-2008	The second five-year strategy that includes strong statements on domestic violence. It also includes as major concerns rape (including gang rape), violence against women, and to the men and boys who perpetuate violence. It highlights the need for further legal and policy efforts to reduce domestic violence. It also realises the need for existing laws to be examined for their gender bias or the absence of mechanisms to address gender issues.	2004
<i>Neary Rattanak II</i> - Second Strategic Plan 2005-2009	The second <i>Neary Rattanak II</i> considers "gender mainstreaming and decision making" one of its six core programmes.	2005

The Beijing Platform of Action for the Promotion of Status of Women in 1995 became the inspiration of MoWA for the development of *Rattanak I* and Cambodia's participation in Beijing Plus Ten. Among the 12 areas of concern in the Beijing Platform for Action of 1995 that the RGC chose as

priority areas for action were women and education; women and health; women and the economy; women and legal protection; and, women in decision making.

Efforts undertaken by the RGC aimed at achieving gender equality and eliminating discrimination against women include the following:

- ❶ The ongoing process of legal reforms, in particular the reform of the Criminal Code to include punishment of offences of discrimination against women, and the revision of the 1996 Law on suppression of Kidnapping, Trafficking/ Sale and Exploitation of Human Persons to include sanctions against offenders and protection measures for victims.
- ❷ The adoption and entry into force in October 2005 of the Law on the Prevention of Domestic Violence and Protection of Victims.
- ❸ The efforts of the state to reform the justice system and to ensure the independence of the judiciary, including the Law on the Organisation of the Court, the Law on the Status of Judges and the preparation of the code of conduct for judges.
- ❹ The availability of the publication *A Fair Share for Women* as a more objective statistical data to assess the status of women.

However, there are also many policies and strategies that still have to be elaborated and implemented fully as can be gleaned from the Concluding Comments of the CEDAW Report of, Jan. 16-Feb. 3, 2006. Among the most important concerns and recommendations are:

- ❶ To ensure the full application of the Convention in the domestic legal system through publication in the Official Gazette, including the introduction of relevant sanctions.
- ❷ To implement measures to create awareness about the Convention among judges, prosecutors and lawyers and include in the convention in relevant curricula courses on human rights, including on women's human rights.
- ❸ To include in the domestic law a definition of discrimination as well as adequate sanctions against women that encompasses both direct and indirect discrimination in line with art. I of the Convention.
- ❹ The recognition and implementation of women's human rights be integrated into the Rectangular Strategy for Growth, Employment, Equity and Efficiency (RSGEEE).
- ❺ To widely disseminate information about the Marriage and Family Law and to address the cultural and traditional factors that perpetuate discrimination against women. Included here is a provision to raise the minimum age of marriage for women and men to 18 years.
- ❻ To pay specific attention to the needs of ethnic minority women, women with disabilities and elderly, to ensure that they benefit from policies and programmes particularly in the field of education, employment and health care.
- ❼ To ensure adequate coordination among all sectoral programmes so that there is consistent approach with regard to gender mainstreaming as well as the evaluation of the national machineries and related institutions.

2-3 National Machinery

The national machinery for gender mainstreaming has been established but has yet to address institutional weaknesses of line ministries to improve information, communication and coordination

National Machinery

2-3-1 Ministry of Women's Affairs (MoWA)

2-3-1-1 Mandate

The leading national government machinery is the Ministry of Women's Affairs (MoWA), established in 1996 and mandated to influence and guide the line ministries and lower-level administration units to mainstream gender.

Getting its mandate and inspiration from the 1993 Constitution, 1992 CEDAW, Cambodian laws and policies, the Rectangular Strategy for Growth, Employment, Equity and Efficiency, MoWA influenced the development of national plans and strategies – the first being the 5-year National Plan known as *Neary Rattanak* which focused on building women's capacity and the integration of gender perspectives into the National Poverty Reduction Strategy 2003-2005, the Second Strategic Plan for 2005-2009, the National Strategic Development Plan (NSDP) 2006-2010, the Cambodian Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), the Governance Action Plan (GAP) of 2001, and the National Population Policy (NPP) of 2003.

2-3-1-2 Strategy and Activities

As the leading government body that promotes gender equality, the MoWA came up with its *Second Strategic Plan (Neary Rattanak II) 2005-2009*, which focuses on six priority areas, namely:

- Mainstreaming gender in government policy at national and local levels;
- Legal protection of women and girls to enable women to avoid domestic violence, trafficking, rape and all other forms of violence;
- Economic empowerment of women or women's enhanced participation in economic development especially in micro and small enterprises, based on the principle of equitable distribution of economic resources including water, energy, land and information;
- Promoting better health and nutrition among women, youth and children to address serious problems such as maternal and infant mortality, nutritional issues and HIV/AIDS;
- Education, literacy and skills training for women and girls; and
- Encouraging Cambodian women to participate in decision making, or women's substantive participation at all levels in the institutions of governance.

2-3-1-3 Tasks

As part of its second Five-Year Plan, MoWA is tasked to focus particular attention on implementing the National Population Policy in coordination with relevant government line ministries. It is also expected to develop a National Youth Policy together not only with relevant line ministries but with NGOs and donors as well.

The MoWA is also tasked to convene the Women's Forum three times a year and for which it will develop its Terms of Reference, organise the celebration of the International Women's Day and continue to participate in the quarterly meetings GAD Net.

2-3-1-4 Partnerships

In line with the Rectangular Strategy's determination to build partnership "in development with all stakeholders", the MoWA will work closely with the private sector, donor community, NGOs, civil society in the context of enhancing women's participation in economic development as more than 200,000 young people, half of whom women, enter the labour force yearly (MoWA, 2004a). It will strengthen links between the central and provincial levels of Women's Affairs.

MoWA also coordinates with NGO gender networks, the GAD Net and the NGO Forum Gender Working Group particularly on the celebration of the International Women's Day.

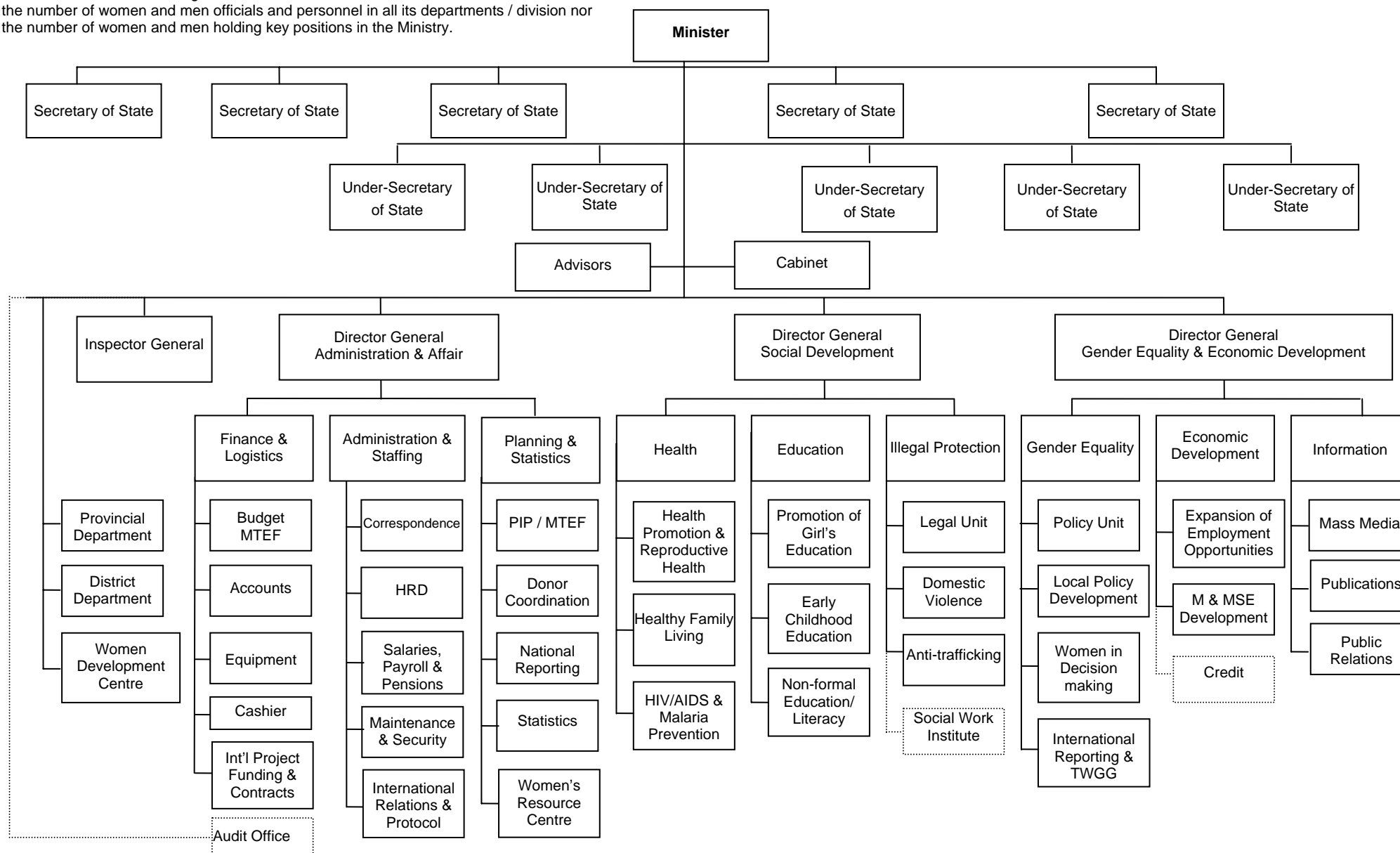
2-3-1-5 Organisational Structure and Budget

The MoWA's budget represented 0.39% of the GDP in 2003 and the government is committed to increase this to 0.50% by 2007. In 2003, the ministry received from the national budget approximately US\$16.5 million, 12% of which was allocated at the national level and the rest to the provincial level departments. This sum had steadily increased, but had only been sufficient to cover at that time, the veterans' pensions², salaries and running costs. For this reason, MoWA has had to rely on donor funding for its programmes, with donor funds amounting to US\$3.4 million in 2003 (MoWA, 2004b). With the change and restructuring of governmental ministries in 2004, the ministry was no longer responsible for veterans' affairs and formulated a new structure to better accommodate its priorities (Figure 1).

² Until the first half of 2004, MoWA was called the Ministry of Women's and Veterans' Affairs (MoWVA).

Figure 1. Organisational Structure – Ministry of Women's Affairs

Note: This current MoWA Organizational Structure received from MoWA does not indicate the number of women and men officials and personnel in all its departments / division nor the number of women and men holding key positions in the Ministry.



2-3-2 Cambodian National Council for Women (CNCW)

The Cambodian National Council for Women was established by Royal Decree 0201/036 dated 14 February 2001. It is an inter-ministerial body of 14 ministries represented at the level of secretary of state, and two related institutions, as shown below³:

1.	Her Majesty, the Queen	Honorary President
2.	Prime Minister	Honorary Vice-President
3.	Minister of Women's Affairs	President
4.	Secretary of State for Interior	One (1) Vice-President
5.	Secretary of State for Justice	One (1) Vice President
6.	Secretary of State for Women's Affairs	One (1) member
7.	Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs and International Cooperation	One (1) member
8.	Secretary of State for Economics and Finance	One (1) member
9.	Secretary of State for Social Affairs, Labour, Vocational Training, and Youth Rehabilitation ⁴	One (1) member
10.	Deputy General Secretary of the Royal Government	One (1) member
11.	Secretary of State for Education, Youth and Sport	One (1) member
12.	Secretary of State for Rural Development	One (1) member
13.	Secretary of State for Culture and Fine Arts	One (1) member
14.	Secretary of State for Health	One (1) member
15.	Secretary of State for Tourism	One (1) member
16.	Secretary of State for Information	One (1) member
17.	Secretary of State for Planning	One (1) member
18.	Deputy President of the Cambodian Human Rights Commission	One (1) member
19.	General Secretary of the Cambodian National Council for Children	One (1) member

Tasked with advocacy, monitoring and evaluation of the laws, regulations and policies of the government from a gender perspective, it is also responsible for monitoring the RGC's compliance with international conventions. It is thus responsible for the promotion of the status of women in Cambodia and for reporting to the United Nations on the CEDAW (MoWA, 2004b). CNCW has its own separate budget within the annex budget of the Ministry of MoWA, which has two capital sources: the national budget and financial assistance from international organisations, donor countries, national and international charitable persons.

CNCW has the potential to influence the development and implementation of gender-responsive policies and programmes within its member ministries, given its senior level representation from 14 ministries. Aside from not having among its members the MAFF and MoC, which are critical for expanding employment opportunities and reducing poverty (UNIFEM, et al, 2004), its functions overlap with that of MoWA and need to be clarified by an amendment.

2-3-3 Technical Working Group on Gender (TWGG)

Within the MoWA is the Technical Working Group on Gender (TWGG) established in September 2005 with the support of JICA and UNDP in order to coordinate efforts by concerned ministries and donors on gender equality. Under the leadership of the Minister of Women's Affairs, it prepared an Action Plan for 2006 that included the following general components: a) Gender Mainstreaming and Women in Decision making; b) Economic Empowerment of Women; c) Protection and

³ This list has been taken from the Royal Decree 0201/036 of 14 February 2001.

⁴ It should be noted that CNCW's founding took place prior to the separation in 2004 of the Ministry Social Affairs, Labour, Vocational Training and Youth Rehabilitation (MoSALVY) into two ministries, namely – the Ministry of Social Affairs, Veterans and Youth Rehabilitation (MoSVY) and the Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training (MoLVT).

Implementation of Law Regarding women and Girls; d) Health on Women, Youth and Children; e) Education of Women and Girls; and f) Harmonisation and Alignment.

2-3-4 Gender Mainstreaming Action Groups (GMAGs)

The MoWA (with support of the UNFPA and the UNDP) also established Gender Mainstreaming Action Groups (GMAGs) in over 20 ministries chaired by a secretary or under secretary of state which were responsible in drafting their respective Gender Mainstreaming Action Plans (GMAPs). To date, five line ministries – Ministry of Health (MoH), Ministry of Rural Development (MRD), Ministry of Information (MoI), Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (MAFF) and Ministry of Education, Youth & Sport (MoEYS) had their respective GMAPs approved and published. Targeted to be completed in February 2006 are those of Ministry of Commerce (MoC), Ministry of Industry, Mines & Energy (MIME), Ministry of Water Resources & Meteorology (MoWRAM) and SSCS's.

2-3-5 Provincial-level Mechanisms

At the provincial, district and commune levels, gender mainstreaming had taken place until December 2006 through SEILA, the RGC's local governance programme for decentralised planning, financing and implementation of development projects in all 24 provinces. A special working group within MoWA called the MoWA Seila Working Group of eight members was formed to guide and facilitate the implementation of the Gender Mainstreaming Strategy particularly related to the SEILA decentralisation. The group had been headed by a deputy director-general, two deputy directors, and four "gender" trainers. Only a few members of this group had the skills and experience to act as advocates, facilitators, and monitors of gender mainstreaming in SEILA.

MoWA has been granted over the past four years the amount of US\$322,451 or 2.3% of the national level SEILA budget. For 2005, it received a combined allocation of US\$114,673 from the Partnership for Local Governance (PLG) Project and UNICEF for capacity building, training materials and development of guidelines on gender mainstreaming in commune and provincial level planning among others.

3. CURRENT SITUATION OF WOMEN BY SECTOR

3-1 Education

Education

In general, literacy rates have increased from 1998 to 2004 but women, particularly rural women (54% in 1998 and 61% 2004) always lagged behind the men. The gender disparity is more pronounced among the 15 year old and above group where female literacy was at 64% while that of males was at 87%. And while primary education enrolment rates have improved significantly, with participation rates of 84% for boys and 81% for girls, the enrolment rates for secondary education have dropped drastically over the last six years to 17% for boys and 8% for girls in upper secondary grades. This is the lowest in the Southeast Asian Region (ADB News and Events, June 2006).

3-1-1 Government policies, strategies and budget aim at overall access, but has yet to address specific gender imbalance in access for girls

The Rectangular Strategy of the government emphasises the commitment to achieving “Education for All” which among others pledged to *eliminate gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and to achieve gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls’ full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality. Furthermore, it seeks to ensure that by 2015, all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to complete, free and compulsory primary education of good quality.*

The CMDG gender-related goals are to achieve universal 9-year basic education and to empower women and minimise gender disparities in policy and decision making processes at all levels. Relative to these, four indicators were defined:

- ❶ Ratio of girls to boys in primary education reach 1:1 by 2005
- ❷ Ratio of girls to boys in lower secondary education reach 1:1 by 2005
- ❸ Ratio of girls to boys in upper secondary education reach 1:1 by 2005
- ❹ Women at management level in government reach 30 per cent of all such positions by 2015

Between 1999 and 2002, MoEYS developed several education policy and strategy frameworks and strategic plans namely; the Education Strategic Plan (ESP) and an Education Support Programme (ESP). The latter involves major reforms designed around 12 priority action programmes (PAPs) that seek to improve access to education for all disadvantaged groups. “However, they are designed to address overall access, rather than specific gender imbalance in access for girls” (UNIFEM et al, 2004).

Among the strategies developed to improve basic education as well specific interventions to increase gender parity include the following (UNIFEM et al, 2004):

- ❶ The MoEYS has created Community Life-long Learning Centres in collaboration with NGOs and other international organisations. These seek to provide programmes that strengthen knowledge and life skills leading to income growth and the acquisition of basic skills. Also there are non-formal education programmes to enable unskilled adults, especially illiterate people and out-of school children to access functional literacy programmes.
- ❷ Improve efficiency in planning and deployment of teaching and non-teaching staff. The target is to reduce the pupil-teacher ratio to 48 by 2003.
- ❸ Construct new and additional classrooms and organise selective multi-grade teaching in those villages and communes without a complete primary school.

- ❶ Construction of 285 lower secondary schools in unserved rural areas for about 44,000 young people.
- ❷ The expansion of 45 existing upper secondary schools to serve students from outlying areas together with providing subsidies for transportation and lodging accommodation.
- ❸ Provision of scholarships targeting girls. This has been successfully pilot tested by a local NGO, KAPE since 2000 and was targeted to be expanded and extended to lower secondary schools in 2003 by MoEYS funded by ADB and the Japan Fund for Poverty Reduction.
- ❹ Inclusion of two separate non-formal education programmes: a traditional non-formal education class and short term re-entry programme aimed at returning dropouts from grades 4 to 6 to the formal education system.

Sadly, apart from the mention of a successful pilot implementation of the scholarship programme for girls and the Creation of Lifelong Learning Centres, there are no reports or citations about the status or level of implementation or performance of these strategies and interventions.

In a more recent development, the Committee on CEDAW in its 34th session on 16 January – 3 February 2006, in order to address the particular needs of rural women, ethnic minority groups and women with disabilities, urged the RGC to undertake the following:

- ❶ Place high priority on the reduction of illiteracy rate of women, particularly those who are from rural areas, belong to ethnic minority groups or who are disabled.
- ❷ To immediately take all appropriate measures, including temporary special measures to eliminate the disparity in school enrolment rates and to achieve universal primary education for girls in accordance with article 10 of the Convention, the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action and the MDGs 2 and 3.
- ❸ To address effectively the obstacles that prevent girls from continuing their education, such as early and forced marriages.
- ❹ To actively encourage diversification of educational and professional choices for women.
- ❺ To revise educational curricula and textbooks to eliminate gender stereotypes.

RGC's commitment to reform the education sector as reflected in its Education Strategic Plan (ESP) for 2001-2005, increased budget allocation from 10% of total budget in 1997 to 19.5% in 2004 with 20% to be reached in 2005. Over 60% of this allocation is for basic education with emphasis on pro-poor expenditures based on the ESP even as it noted "there are continuing and persistent problems in regard to adequacy and timeliness in release of budgetary allocations, which need to be overcome" aside from giving priority attention to the quality of education, student performance, drop-out and repetition rates, pupil-teacher ratio. What these pro-poor expenditures are and how the budget-related issues are addressed have to be looked into.

Apart from health, rural development and agriculture, the government recognises education as one of its four priority sectors. Hence, share of the education sector's budget in the national government budget has steadily increased from 10.3% in 1998 to 14.6 % in 2003-04, and 17.3% in 2004-05. In the aggregate as percentage of GDP, public expenditure for education rose 1.5% in 1998 to 2.0% in 2004. The MoEYS budget for PAPs has likewise increased from 5.5% in 2000/01 to 27.9% in 2004-05, a 4.4 times increase in the PAP budget during the last five years. The national budget allocation for gender programmes amounted to US\$26,000 (MoEYS, 2006).

MoEYS has also obtained financial support in late 2005 from UNESCO, UNICEF and UNFPA amounting to more than US\$137,000 for its specific programmes related to capacity building, gender mainstreaming among others. This is aside from the US\$10,481,373 funding for the girls' scholarships from various sources.

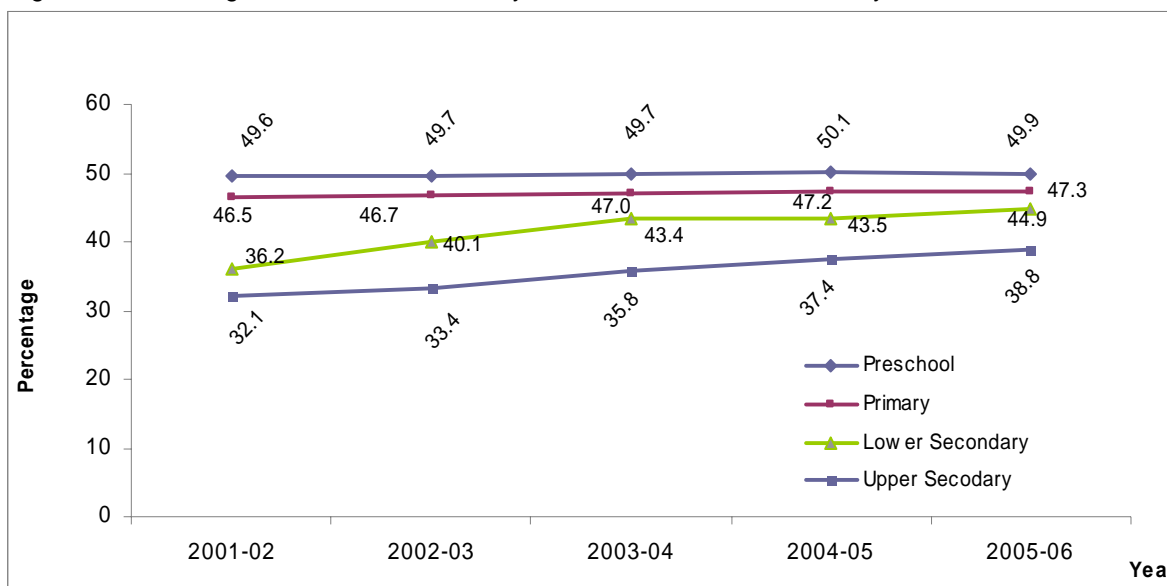
3-1-2 Present condition of basic education improving for women and girls but is in need of more focused strategies

3-1-2-1 Access to Education: Bridging the Gender Gap As Female Enrolment Rates Rise

In a recent review of the Gender Mainstreaming Strategy 2002-2006 undertaken in October 2006, by the MoEYS (supported by UNICEF), the following results were highlighted: More girls entered preschool, primary and lower secondary schools during the last five years from 2001/02 to 2005/06 as shown in Figure 2. In 2005/06, females comprised 49.9% and 47.3% of the enrolments in pre-school and primary school, respectively. Notably, preschool female enrolment in rural and remote areas outstripped male enrolment. Thus, from 27,664 girls in pre-school in 2001/02, the number increased by 30% (36,151) in 2004/05, while preschool boys increased only by 17% (from 32,107 to 37,882) during the same period.

At the lower secondary level, there was a significant jump in the number of female lower secondary students in the past five years: from 135,037 in 2001/02 to 264,129 in 2005/06 or a growth rate of 94.9%.

Figure 2. Percentage of female enrolment, by education level and academic year

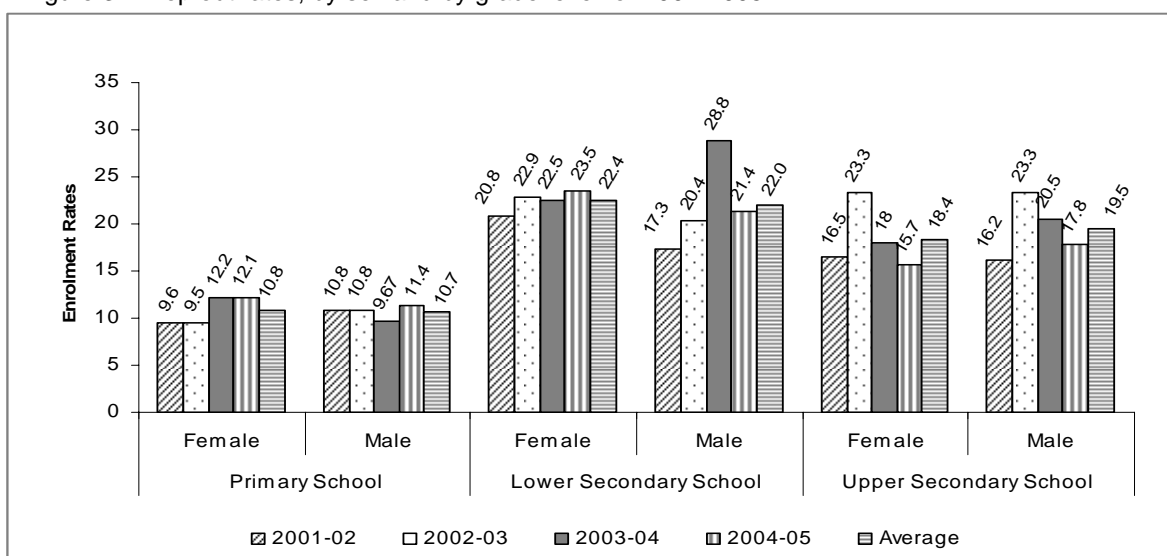


The corresponding growth rate for males was 50.3%. In general, gross enrolment in lower secondary education had increased substantially, 67.31% during the last five years, according to the same review. In addition, the gender gap in net enrolment narrowed down – from 5.5% (2001/02) to 1.7 (2005/06) and the share of female enrolment in lower secondary school grew from 36% to 45% during the same period. However, net enrolment rates of girls in secondary school are lower than boys. Despite some progress made, net enrolment rates remain the lowest in Asia, 17% for lower secondary schools and only 8.5% for upper secondary schools (UNIFEM 2004). As for tertiary education, only 2% of total eligible females are enrolled and only one female out of four males get higher education.

3-1-2-2 School dropout and survival rates

On average, dropout rates for school girls have been stable in 2001-2005 period, at about 11% for the primary school and 20% for the secondary school. More females, however, dropped out of lower secondary schools during the last five years, 2001-2006—1 out of 4 girls. In 2004-2005, female dropout rate stood at 23.5% versus the male dropout rate of 21.4% increasing from 2001/02 when the female dropout rate was 20.8% against 17.3 % for male (Figure 3).

Figure 3. Drop out rates, by sex and by grade level for 2001-2005

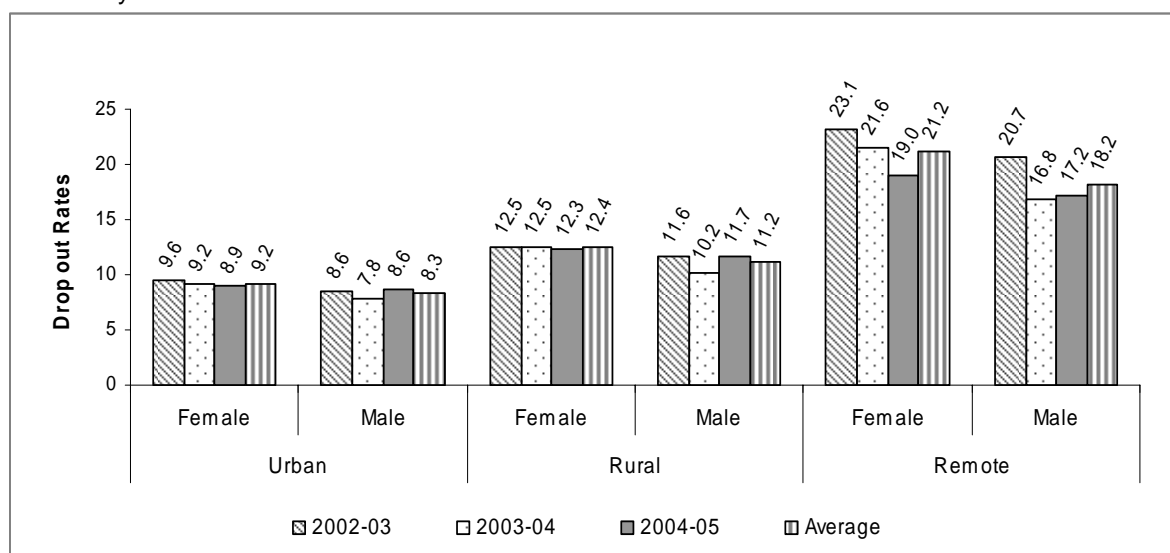


Limited education facilities and services in terms of quantity and quality will continue to impact on girls' as well as boys' education. Poverty, gender stereotypes, early marriage, official and unofficial school fees and frequent migration are the most common reasons cited in high dropout rates. Poor households often urge girls to drop out of school in favour of their male siblings. Girls themselves are strongly influenced by gender-based concepts and thus make no objections to dropping out of school. Still to be adopted is the draft law penalizing or sanctioning parents who do not comply with the principle that their children have rights to receive 9 years of basic education – grades 1-6 for primary school and from grades 7 to 9 for the lower secondary level (Cambodian NGO Committee on CEDAW and the Cambodian Committee of Women, 2005).

The TPGME review also reported that since 2002, consistently, more females dropped out of school in urban and rural areas. Across educational levels, more girls dropped out of school in rural and urban areas (Figure 4). In 2004-05, female dropout rate in urban areas was 8.9%, while in rural areas it was 12.3% versus males' 8.6% in urban and 11.6% in rural areas. In remote areas where access and transportation to the schools are difficult, female dropout rate was also higher at 19.0% as against male rate of 17.2%. Dropout rates declined by two and a half percentage points over the three years from school years 2002/03 to 2005/06.

Female survival rates remain lower compared to male rates based on 2005 statistics. For Grades 1-5, Grades 1-6, and Grades 1-9, female survival rates are 54.9%, 47.6%, and 24.8% as against the male rates 56.0%, 48.7%, and 27.9%, respectively. This suggests the extent to which the school system can retain pupils, with or without repetition, indicates the dropout rate, as well as measure the impact of repetition and dropout on internal efficiency. The survival rate to Grade 5 of primary education is of particular interest since completion of at least four years of schooling is commonly considered a pre-requisite for a sustainable level of literacy.

Figure 4. Summary dropout rates across all educational levels, by sex, geographic areas and academic year



3-1-2-3 Literacy Rates Up Yet Female Rates Still Lag Behind

In general, literacy rates have increased from 1998 to 2004 but women have always lagged behind the men (Table 4). Female literacy rates among 15-24 year old group was at 78.9% in 2004, while that of the males is at 87.9%.

Table 4. Literacy rates of 15 – 24 year olds, by year, location and by sex

Education Level	1998		Total	2004		Total
	Urban	Rural		Urban	Rural	
Female	82.7	68.6	71.1	88.0	76.8	78.9
Male	89.9	80.2	81.8	92.8	87.0	87.9
TOTAL	86.2	74.2	76.3	90.8	81.9	83.4

Source: CIPS 2004

The gender gap is also marked among the same group where female literacy was placed at 64% while that of males' was at 87% (Table 5). Consistently, rural women have the lowest literacy rates: 54.3% in 1998 and 61.6% in 2004 (MoEYS, 2006).

Table 5. Literacy rates of 15 year olds and above, by year, location and by sex

Education Level	1998		Total	2004		Total
	Urban	Rural		Urban	Rural	
Female	70.8	54.3	57.0	76.9	61.6	64.0
Male	88.3	77.6	79.5	91.7	83.3	84.7
TOTAL	79.1	64.9	67.3	83.8	71.6	73.6

Source: CIPS 2004

Girls have extremely limited opportunities to receive education in rural areas particularly among ethnic minority groups and women with disabilities. Obstacles for girls going to school arise from the gender stereotypes that girls need no education. Other constraints rural girls face are the lack of secondary schools, the long distance the girls have to travel to go to secondary schools, and the high attendant transportation cost and the high security risks girls face while going to and from school.

3-1-2-4 Increased number of female teachers and education staff still not enough

For the whole of Cambodia, female teachers have increased from school year 2003 to 2005 (Table 6). This has been a welcome development for those who believe that the quality of education among girls has a correlation with the presence of female role models provided by women teachers. By school year 2005-2006, female teachers comprised 40.2% of the 78,606 teachers in the entire country. The proportion of female teachers has been lowest at the lower secondary school with 30.8%, 33% in the upper secondary school and 41.7% in primary school. It is worth noting that 98.6% of the preschool teachers are females.

Table 6. Number of female teachers, by academic year and levels of formal education

Education Level	2003-2004		2004-2005		2005-2006	
	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female
Pre school	2,528	98.97	2,650	99.01	2,788	98.63
Primary school	49,603	40.71	50,140	41.24	50,378	41.72
Lower secondary school	9,404	30.98	9,799	30.65	9,860	30.80
Upper secondary school	14,815	31.63	15,308	32.40	15,660	33.25
Cambodia	76,350	39.68	77,897	40.13	78,606	40.25

Source: TPGME, MoEYS, 2006

There remains, nonetheless, a serious shortage of female teachers especially in remote rural areas. In addition, there has been a limited supply of qualified women for teaching and non-teaching positions. In 2005, quota was reserved for women in the Finance Department to strengthen

technical capacity in accounting, finance and procurement but few women could be placed. Also in March 2003, at the primary level male teachers comprised 63% of the total and at secondary level, at 73%.

3-1-2-5 Curriculum and gender stereotypes

Gender and negative stereotypes about women being reinforced by a customary code of conduct for women, taught to all Cambodian school children, with provisions such as "never turn your back to your husband when he sleeps" and "never respond to his excessive anger" can still be found in the curriculum (Report on "Code of Conduct", Trafficking, Quotas Among Issues Addressed, CEDAW, 705th & 706th Meetings, Jan. 19, 2006). Thus, gender has yet to be mainstreamed in the curriculum after a thorough review and revision of the education curricula and textbooks to eliminate these gender stereotypes.

3-1-2-6 Females in Technical and vocational education and training outnumbered by males 1 out of 3

Table 7. Technical and vocational education and training

Year	Males	Females	Total
2000-01	4,357	1,812	6,169
2001-02	6,357	1,586	7,943
2002-03	4,971	1,819	6,790

Source: TPGME, MoEYS, 2006

In the same TPGME review of the education sector, female beneficiaries comprised less than 30% of the total beneficiaries of technical education and vocational training (MoEYS, 2006). It also noted the apparent need for stronger non-formal education and vocational education training, particularly among many out of school youth. To stem the trend of high drop out rate among girls, the pro-poor, pro-girls scholarships must be sustained along with some pro-active measures to assist the poorest and disadvantaged families to uplift themselves economically and reduce the need for girls being put to work which leads to school drop out at the lower secondary level (MoEYS, 2006).

Although investment in non-formal education (NFE) has risen since 1996, primarily due to donor funding, it was only 3% of the total education investment in 1999. And although women in development (WID) centres target females for training and a number of NGOs focus particularly on vulnerable groups of women such as VAW victims, homeless, vendors, etc., these programmes are also quite limited in scale. Much of the skills training available is traditional or "women's skills like sewing, hairdressing, weaving, reinforcing the gender stereotypes associated with female labour. Also, most training is centre-based making it difficult for women to access. Lower levels of literacy and education further constrain participation in available training programmes. Functional literacy is rarely integrated into skills training programmes (ILO, 2001 as cited by UNIFEM, 2004).

3-2 Health

Health

Cambodia has some of the worst health indicators in the region despite efforts to improve the health situation. The number of mortality rate remains high at 417 per 1,000 live births owing largely to lack of access to obstetric emergency services. Only 20% of birth takes place in a health facility. The number of men currently living with HIV/AIDS has been declining since 1997; in contrast, the number of women with HIV continues to increase and children have become most vulnerable to new infection. Only 29% of the population has access to clean water. For the poorest 20 % of the population in rural areas, only 4% have access to safe water.

3-2-1 Government health care delivery and strategies largely dependent on private expenditure

Several articles in the Cambodian Constitution guarantee the right to health care and delivery of services to its people who are poor. In particular, these relate to provision of free medical services to poor people, giving priority to disease prevention and medical treatment with special consideration to mothers and children as reflected in such laws as the Law on Abortion and The Law on the Prevention and Control of HIV/AIDS.

The CMDG gender-related goals for achievement by 2015 are the following:

- ❶ Halve, between 1990-2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than \$US 1 a day
- ❷ Reduce by two thirds between 1990 and 2015 the under five mortality rate
- ❸ Reduce by three quarters between 1990-2015 the ratio of maternal mortality
- ❹ Attain universal access to safe and reliable contraceptive methods by 2015
- ❺ Have halted by 2015, and begun to reverse, the incidence of malaria and other major diseases

However, in the Health Sector Strategic Plan for 2003-2007, it noted that that the above goals are highly ambitious for Cambodia given its extremely high levels of mortality and morbidity and poor resource base. Hence, for realistic achievement of its health-related goals, the Plan set the following targets for achievement by Cambodia by 2007 (MoH, 2002):

- ❶ Reduce the proportion of under-weight children aged less than five years from 45% to 31%
- ❷ Reduce infant mortality from 95 to 84 deaths per 1,000 live births, and for under-five mortality from 125 to 111 deaths per 1,000 live births
- ❸ Reduce the ratio of maternal mortality from 437 to 305 deaths per 100,000 live births
- ❹ Increase modern contraceptive prevalence rate from 19% to 35% among women aged 15-49 years
- ❺ Reduce HIV infection rate from 2.8% to 2.1% among those aged 15-49 years
- ❻ Reduce incidence of malaria from 11% to 8%, and mortality from 10% to 7%

These health targets are then concretely translated into two strategies towards strengthening the existing system so that all health centres can provide a Minimum Package of Activities (MPA) while all district hospitals provide a Complementary Package of Activities (CPA) (UNIFEM et al, 2004).

In addition to the multi-purpose health care delivery system, a special programme on maternal and child health focusing on nutrition, birth spacing, immunisation and respiratory infections also exists. This is being administered by the National Centre for Maternal and Child Health.

According to the 2002 budget, 40% of 48 provincial and district hospitals were able to provide the CPA, while 82% of 991 health centres were able to provide the MPA. The minimum package of activities focused on child health, nutrition, maternal health and communicable disease control especially HIV transmission and referral to hospitals for necessary higher levels of care.

The national budget for the health sector is only 10.9% of GDP or equivalent to per capita GDP of only US\$33 per year. Often, disbursement is delayed affecting maternal health services. The Royal Government of Cambodia (RGC) has established the "Health Equity Fund" to exempt the poor from paying fees. However, exemptions are not uniformly applied and unofficial payments to doctors and nurses have not been eliminated, mainly because of low salaries of health professionals.

Financing wise, 10.9% of the GDP was spent for health in 2003 with public health expenditure estimated at only 2.1% of GDP. Of the total public expenditures, 19.3% was allocated for public health during the same year. In 2001, for instance, the government spent US\$98.2 million of which external aid accounted for US\$65.3 million. Only 53% of the total health sector allocation is channelled to provincial health departments. Thus, health financing is dominated by private expenditures of roughly US\$24 per capita per year validating 2005 CEDAW report that 92% of citizens reported that they preferred to go to private clinics. This means that those who cannot afford private medical services are the ones who go to public health centres/ hospitals.

Salaries in the health sector is one of the lowest in the world, accounting only for less than 10% of total health expenditures as of 2001. This pales in comparison to Vietnam's share of 23% and Bangladesh of 45% (UNIFEM et al, 2004). Hence, there is very little incentive to work efficiently and effectively. The national budget allocation for health in 1992 was 11%. This was increased by 264% from 1998 to 2004, according to the NDSP 2006-2010. The Plan also mentioned that "much more needs to be done in actual allocations ensuring that funds are released in time and used well" since actual needs are very high, actual expenditure is still low while substantial private sector or external partners' direct expenditure are high.

3-2-2 Improving women's health needs gender-focused health care and poverty alleviation efforts

Despite efforts to improve the health situation, Cambodia continues to have the worst health indicators in the region particularly for the women sector. Maternal mortality rate remains high owing largely to lack of access to obstetric emergency services as only 21.5% of birth takes place in a health facility and only 43.8% assisted by a health professional. From 1998 to 2001, the number of nurses and midwives per population decreased from 11,535 to 11,105. HIV/AIDS prevalence among women has not decreased as much as among men, and married women have become most vulnerable to new infection.

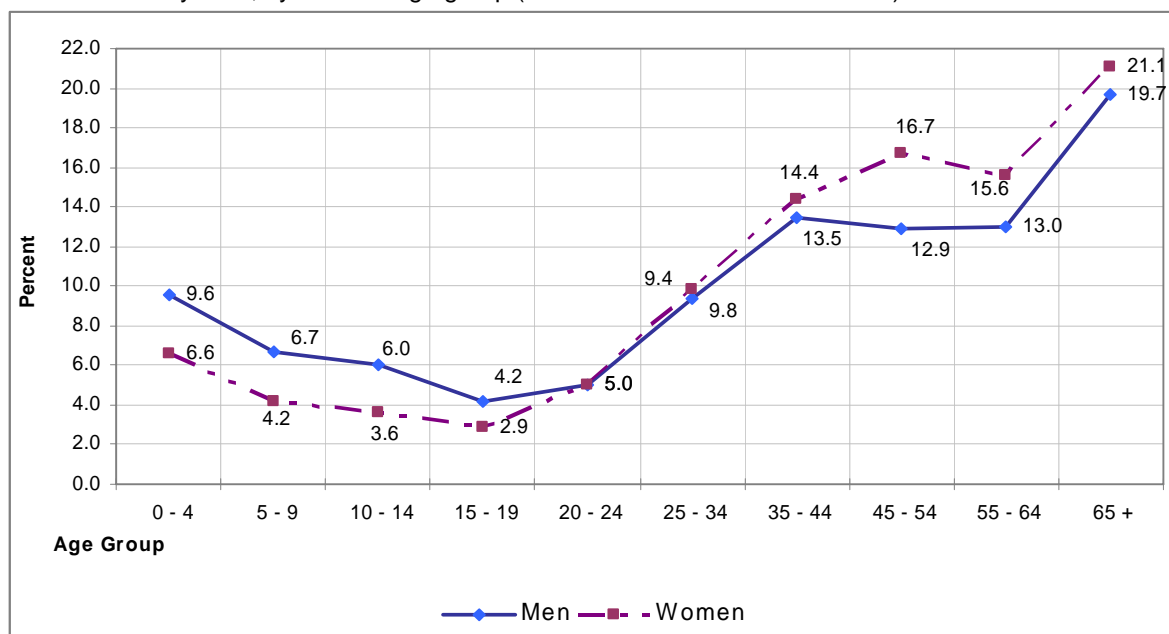
The leading causes of mortality in the country are tuberculosis, malaria and acute respiratory infections (ARI). This sad situation is affirmed by the CSES (Fifteen Month's data 2003-2004) in November 2003-January 2005:

1. About 10% of Cambodians are in "bad" or "very bad" health condition according to layman health status evaluations done by household heads or spouses.
2. About 4 per cent or 538,000 of the non-institutionalised population have some disability as reported by household heads. Seeing, moving and hearing difficulties in old age dominate.
3. In an average month about 18% of the population has some episode of illness, injury or other health related symptom, of which 2 out of 3 sought treatment for the illness.
4. 97% of children below age two have been breast fed for some time but only 30% get breast milk as first intake and 28% get only after the first day. Some 13% of children under 2 years of age have no vaccination.

5. Fully 40% of Cambodian men over age 14 are daily smokers as against only 4% of Cambodian women. Smoking is prevalent in rural areas; almost 90% of the population knows that smoking is harmful to one's health.
6. HIV/AIDS awareness is very high in Cambodia. Fully 90% of the population over age 14 has heard of the illness and almost 88% mention condom use as one of the methods to avoid the illness.
7. About 90% of Cambodian households use mosquito nets but only 4% have impregnated nets.

The survey also showed that male members of the households are in better health than female members based on an evaluation of the household heads or their spouses (Figure 5). For both sexes, the proportion with the "average" health is about 78%. The proportion in "very good" or "good health" is 14% among men and 10.6% among women. The proportion in "bad" or "very bad" health is higher among women than men, 11.1% against 7.9% and close to 10% with both sexes combined corresponding to close to 1.3 million in Cambodian population.

Figure 5. Household members' health as evaluated by household head or spouse: Percent "bad" or "very bad", by sex and age group (CSES Fifteen months' data 2003)



Source: NIS/MoP. *Health and Access to Medical Care in Cambodia 2004: Draft Statistical Report*, CSES 2004.

Figure 5 also shows that the differences in health are smaller between men and women than between the age groups. Both men and women seem to have their best period in youth from about 25 years of age. Only 5% are judged to be in bad or very bad health in those ages.

More than 10% of small children below age 5 are reported to be in bad health, small boys more than small girls. This is consistent with the high infant mortality rates in Cambodia although rates have been falling over the about ten years.

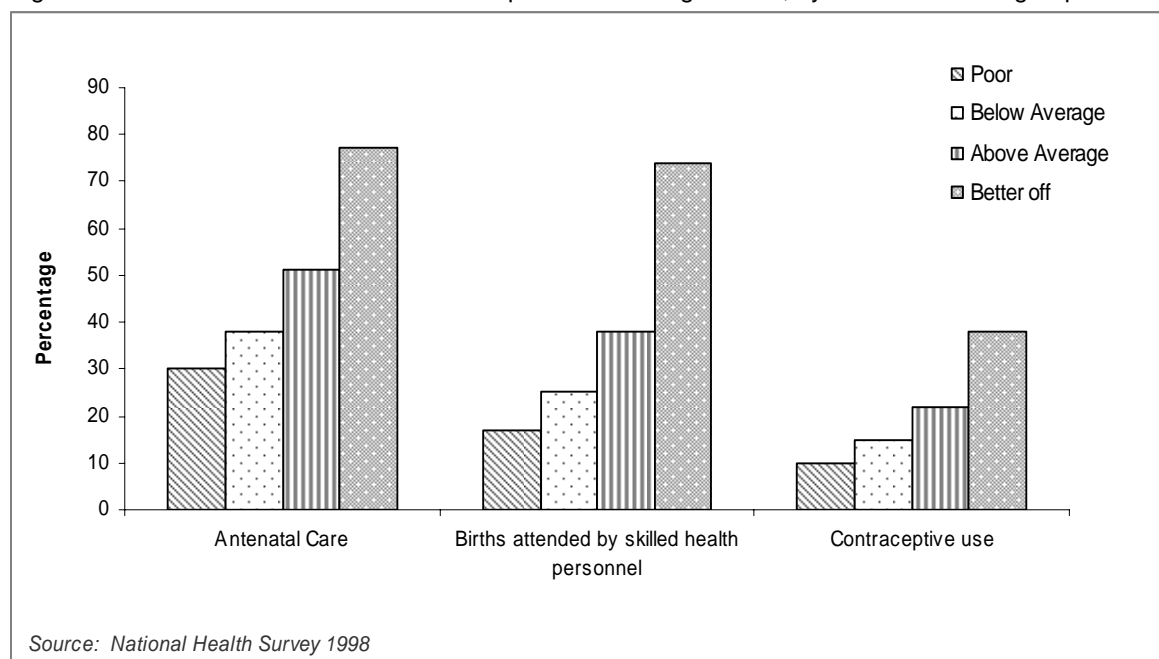
After age 25, the proportion in bad health is about the same and increasing for women and men until age 45. After that age, the proportion in bad health is clearly higher among women. This situation warrants that poverty alleviation efforts take into account the female specific needs and vulnerabilities.

3-2-3 Access to basic health services more difficult for poor, uneducated and rural women

The CSES 2004 also shows that 20.1% of women had been ill in the previous four weeks (NIS/ MoP, 2004). The CDHS of 2000 also indicated that: a) on average, households spend almost US\$20.7-24 per capita on health services amounting to 99% of per capita health expenditures; b) among those who sought care, 80% has to use savings, or even borrow or sell assets to pay for health care costs. The price of health care is a major barrier to health service especially at referral hospitals. Furthermore, the 1999 Cambodia Poverty Assessment shows that only 12% of poor people received exemptions from fees for public services, compared with 26% of the richest quintile (UNIFEM et al, 2004).

Rural women find it more difficult to access health services. Distance to health clinics especially to rural women and its attendant transportation costs add to their already heavy financial burden. This is why poor women forgo accessing prenatal services during pregnancy and professional care during delivery resulting in high mortality rate at 437 per 100,000 live births and infant mortality rate at 95 per 1,000 live births. Cost is the major barrier to seeking health care (UNIFEM et al, 2004).

Figure 6. Maternal health care and contraceptive use among women, by socio-economic groups



Note: CDHS 2005 has not as yet been analysed based on socio-economic groupings, hence this figure has been drawn from NHS 1998.

Aside from poverty and lack of education, access to basic health services is also a gender issue for women in Cambodia especially when it comes to reproductive health. Evidence suggests that men have greater access to health care and more household budget is spent for men than on women, in spite of the fact that women's health needs are greater as a result of their reproductive health care requirements (UNIFEM, et al 2004). Access to family planning services is still limited although use of modern contraceptive methods has increased over the recent past from 19% of currently married women using modern methods in the CDHS 2002 to 27% in the CDHS of 2005 (NIPH/ NIS, 2006).

Women who have little education are also less likely to receive health care, especially antenatal care and assistance from trained personnel during the delivery of their babies (Figure 7) (UNIFEM et al, 2004). This finding is confirmed by the CHDS 2005 Preliminary Report which noted that half of the surveyed women with at least some secondary education use a modern or traditional method, in contrast to 30% of women with no education (NIPH/ NIS, 2006).

Figure 7. Maternal health care and contraceptive use, by women's levels of education



Note: CDHS 2005 has not as yet been analysed based on socio-economic groupings, hence this figure has been drawn from CDHS 2000.

3-2-4 Plan to reduce maternal mortality proposed

In its last session, the Committee on the CEDAW noted that despite the reduction of the maternal mortality rate, the number remains high and deserved due attention. Main causes of these deaths are the lack of access to obstetric emergency services, poor access to and quality of maternal services, insufficient access to birth spacing and family planning information, poor nutritional status, lack and poor access to basic social services like transportation and water and cultural beliefs.

The Committee recommended that obstacles to accessing obstetric services be monitored and removed and that: a) a strategic plan to reduce maternal mortality and morbidity be put in place through which quality pre-natal, post natal and emergency obstetric services are progressively distributed in all provinces; b) a proactive referral service be established to facilitate access to obstetric services; c) benchmarks be set for the reduction of maternal mortality; and d) the necessary funding be specifically mobilised from all sources.

3-2-5 Reproductive health and rights: concerns over birth control and abortion

The RGC's report to the CEDAW Committee in 2005 mentioned that about 95% of women are aware of birth spacing methods while only 19% use contraception. The preliminary report of the 2005 CDHS reveals a rise in the use of modern contraceptive methods at 27%, with pills, injectables and withdrawal being the most commonly used.

Illegal abortions or abortions taking place in private homes or unlicensed clinics is considered a serious problem, cited as one of the major causes of maternal mortality in Cambodia (UNIFEM et al, 2004). There is no clear data showing the magnitude of this problem.

3-2-6 Nutritional deficiencies among women and children are widespread

Malnutrition among women and children is a major problem. Fifteen per cent of children less than six months of age have stunted growth, increasing to 53% of children three to five years. Twenty-one per cent of 15-49 year-old women are underweight. Widespread nutritional deficiencies among women represent the bigger risk factor for childhood mortality. Poor infant and child feeding practices, lack of access to health services and inappropriate health-seeking behaviour are major contributing factors (WHO, 2007).

3-2-7 Sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) and HIV AIDS: A matter of grave concern for women's health

Cambodia has the highest HIV/AIDS prevalence rate in Southeast Asia although it has steadily declined since 1997, from 3.3% to 2.6% in 2002 and 1.9% in 2003 till 2006 (NCHADS, 2002). The National Aids Authority of Cambodia (NAA) states that out of 20 new infections every day, 7 are housewives and 7 are babies indicating that the epidemic has spread to broader sections of the population including married women and children.

The number of people living with HIV/AIDS declined from 210,000 in 1997 to 157,483 in 2002, of whom 52% (82,037) were men and 48% (75,448) were women (NCHADS, 2002). An estimate of 2.7% of HIV/AIDS prevalence in Cambodia and two-fifths of new infections result from husband-to-wife transmission. CEDAW 2005 reported that the rural women are becoming the most vulnerable group to new infection together with traditionally high-risk groups of beer promotion and karaoke girls. These are groups put at risk because of economic, social and political circumstances. Hence, such groups need to be given priority in research, policy and interventions.

3-3 Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries

Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries

Despite the importance of agriculture and rural development for poverty reduction and broad based growth, policy statements do not provide guidelines for priority-setting, and government allocations to these sectors remain relatively small. Concerns exist over higher levels of poverty among rural women and their need to have access to education, health services and credit facilities, and to participate fully in decision-making processes.

3-3-1 Government policies, strategies and budget for agriculture, forestry and fisheries leave too little for rural development and poverty reduction

The Cambodian Constitution have several provisions guaranteeing its citizens the right to own property and the provision of special protection for rural women for them to enjoy decent living conditions. Articles in the Law on Marriage and Family, adopted in 1989, stipulates equal rights to both spouses in all property acquired by earnings and effort of either spouse during the marriage. The Land law adopted in 2001 affirms the Khmer people's right to own land. Cambodia also ratified the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) that also includes equal access to property ownership, administration and disposition in marriage. However, there is no explicit provision that prohibits discrimination against women in obtaining land titles.

The Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry (MAFF) and the Ministry of Rural Development (MRD) are primarily tasked with the development of agriculture and rural economy. Other ministries also play a major role, namely: the Ministry of Commerce, the Ministry of Environment, the Ministry of Water Resources and Meteorology, the MoWA and the Ministry of Land Management. The MoC is the driver of the Pro-Poor Trade Sector Strategy, focused on agri-business and agro-processing.

Government policy, as stated in the Second Social and Economic Development Plan, the National Poverty Strategy and the Rectangular Strategy, acknowledges the important role of natural resources. However, these policy statements do not provide any guidance regarding the hierarchy of priorities in terms of public goods (World Bank, 2004: 70).

Despite the importance of agriculture and rural development for poverty reduction and broad based growth, government allocations to these sectors remain relatively small. Agriculture and rural development are two of the four priority sectors in the NPRS and SEDPII, but their shares of the total current expenditure for 2003 are 2.3% and 1.1% respectively, as compared to 22% for defence and security (Beresford et al, 2003 as cited by UNIFEM, et al, 2004). Delivery of agricultural extension services especially to rural areas is severely affected.

3-3-1-1 Perception and Practice of Gender Mainstreaming in the Agricultural Sector

In order to ensure gender mainstreaming for the whole sector of agriculture and rural development, the MAFF established a Gender Unit (GU) as the over-arching body to oversee the implementation of the policy and strategy for gender mainstreaming. The policy developed for the purpose of including gender equality in every strategy, programme and plan of action concerning agricultural services in order to contribute fully to the achievement of the objectives of national socio-economic development.

One challenge faced in mainstreaming gender is that many people do not yet understand gender issues in the agricultural sector. As a provincial officer in a workshop states, "we do not understand what gender mainstreaming is. We have high respect for women in our families, but still continually hear this same message about women's work."

Yet several projects of the MAFF have worked to include gender issues and have been successfully implemented. For example, the Integrated Pest Management (IPM), Agriculture Quality Improvement project (AQIP), Cambodia-Australia Agriculture Extension Project (CAAEP), Agricultural Productivity Improvement Project, Women in Irrigation and Nutrition and Health Project (WIN-WOW). But because they were implemented as projects, the sustainability of gender mainstreaming became co-terminus with the duration of the projects.

Agricultural terminology tends to be neutral by not emphasising women's roles in production, processing, marketing, and in short, the entire agricultural production cycle. Women manage food security in the family and ensure that there is food daily. Their work has two parts, side by side with the men in the fields in addition to their housework and the caring of children. Women are the primary labour force in farm work with the exception of work related to irrigation, field management and the care of farm animals. If a woman is employed, her additional income is not discretionary, but rather vital to the support of the family's entire way of life. The active role of women in the agricultural sector is largely unrecognised and therefore needs to be promoted.

3-3-1-2 Decision-making by women in the agriculture sector

The MAFF is comprised of an approximate 8,000 government officials of which 20% are women and very few are in positions of decision-making. It is estimated that women working in agricultural extension services make up only 5-10% of staff. In 2002-2003, for example, only 17% of all students at the Royal University of Agriculture (RUA) are women.

The representation of women in decision-making positions is still small at all levels in government administration and civil service. The RGC encourages the participation of a greater number of women in decision-making in both of these government sectors

MAFF personnel plantilla for the year 2004 reveals that the number of women government officials that have leadership roles in the department or equivalent level in the MAFF is still at a very low level:

Position	Total	Men	Women
Minister	1	1	-
Secretary	5	5	-
Undersecretary and equivalent	5	5	-
General Directorate and equivalent	3	3	-
Deputy Directorate and equivalent	14	14	-
Department Directors and equivalent	31	31	-
Department Deputy Directors and equivalent	75	71	4

The MAFF recognises that there needs to be a change in the opportunities for women to be recruited, promoted and trained in order for them to attain positions of authority. In summary, women are a minority among the beneficiaries and providers of agricultural services. Women's significant contribution to the agricultural sector has not been translated into their wider participation in running the affairs of the sector (MAFF, 2006).

3-3-1-3 Agricultural Research and Information Services need to Be More Women-Oriented

Women have lesser opportunities to participate in community activities, training and other programmes that enhance knowledge and skills in management and leadership due to many hours spent for household work. Agricultural research and information do not yet fully address the immediate needs and activities of female farmers. Research can provide opportunities for women's

active role in increasing agricultural productivity and raising standards of living among farming households.

3-3-1-4 Organising Female Farmer Groups for Women Empowerment

Farmer associations are presently not yet widespread in the country. Farmer cooperatives have existed in the past but with poor track records. The lead role of female farmers can be enhanced through participation in associations, cooperatives, and other forms of collective action. Such collective action provides women with synergy and value-for-money support as well as from each other. The MAFF must provide support with guidelines and procedures on how such groups can be organised and trained.

3-3-2 Rural women need to have greater access and control over productive resources

Women constitute more than half of the agricultural workforce. Approximately 15% of the rural households, many of whom are female-headed, do not have land to till. Land rights of women, especially for women-headed households are often ignored, partly owing to lack of knowledge of land rights and of land titling procedures. Land grabbing by powerful persons and the economic land concessions also results in a number of serious human rights violations in which women were evicted from their land and had no place to make a living. Some recent incidents resulting in serious cases of human rights violations perpetrated by large scale crop developers and usually involving government officials, military or their dummies as in the case of 307 families living on Koh Kpich Island who were evicted to give way to a City Hall development project in 2004. Majority of the victims were women (CEDAW, 2005).

About 80% of the rural population depends directly on land and its resources for agricultural activities. But forest concessions have already destroyed most of Cambodia's forest cover to only 35 to 50 percent from the 70% in the 1960's. The government awarded some 6.5 million hectares of Cambodia's forests to 30 concessions from 1994-1997 and 0.8 million hectares have been set aside for agricultural concessions. Large-scale logging is occurring under the guise of land concessions and plantations, most of which were awarded in secret and contravene several laws. The same logging companies that include a firm noted for forest destruction in Indonesia controls several concessions (Mckenney & Tola, 2002).

Fishery grounds have been appropriated by private interests with some 953,000 hectares of the country's most productive freshwater fishery resources managed as private fishing concessions since 2001. This large scale granting of land and economic concessions throughout Cambodia to private companies has direct consequences such as increased landlessness, depletion of natural resources due to over fishing by business concessionaires, and siltation of waterways and farmlands due to excessive logging.

The Committee on CEDAW in its recent meeting expressed concern over the higher levels of poverty among rural women, who constitute the majority of women in the country. The Committee noted the situation of female heads of households who have lost their livelihoods as a result of the confiscation of land by private companies, and have been excluded from decision-making processes concerning land distribution. It urged the government to pay special attention to the situation of rural women so as to enhance compliance with the Convention, to ensure that rural women have access to education, health services and credit facilities and that they participate fully in decision-making processes. It also asked the government to disseminate information on the Land Law and the land registration processes, and to take appropriate measures to eliminate all forms of discrimination with respect to the ownership and administration of land by women.

3-3-3 Gender-based activities in the rural sector, extension and grassroots activities

3-3-3-1 Overcoming Women's Constraints

The agricultural sector is the economic backbone of Cambodia with 86% of the labour force supporting itself through this sector. Rural women are responsible for 80% of food production and more than 65% of women are farmers. Among all female farmers, half are illiterate or have less than elementary education and 78% work the farm as a family.

More than 89% of rural women depend on subsistence agriculture, aptly because they lack access to other employment opportunities. They depend on a combination of livelihood activities that include agriculture, fisheries, livestock growing, etc. Although 52.5% (2004) of them depend on agriculture as main source of employment and income, the sector has low productivity at an average annual rate of only 3.6%. Moreover, there is absence of sufficient low interest loans or credit facilities for women and there are no established favourable conditions for rural women to embark on commercial or entrepreneurial activities. Most female farmers are turning towards existing commercial agricultural production and agro-enterprise in order to supplement household income.

3-3-3-2 Constraints in Agriculture as an Occupation

In general extension services, credit and resource inputs are still not yet widely available to farmers, especially poor female farmers. In addition, women face numerous constraints because agricultural technologies they use are still primitive. This has tremendous impact on the rural economy particularly on economic activities of women who primarily carry the burden of agricultural production and the family's daily subsistence. Limited access to resources and technologies has a significant negative impact on women's food security. The agricultural production system remains highly vulnerable to natural disasters and pest damage, leading to large fluctuations in yields. The result is food deficits in nearly half of the 24 provinces and municipalities (CEDAW, 2005: 11).

3-3-3-3 Financial services and agricultural extension too limited

Rural and agricultural credit is a relatively new resource. Traditionally, credit is a personal and difficult saving effort. Loans are used for both consumption and production. Borrowing from relatives may not include interest but borrowing from money lenders can incur interest of more than 100% annually. Micro finance from NGOs is gradually increasing but still inadequate to fulfil the increasing needs of farming families. Micro finance institutions usually provide loans without the concomitant capacity building to utilise loans optimally.

Only 1% of all farmers is estimated to receive agricultural extension service, of which only 10% are women. Most extension services are offered to either male or female farmers. During the few times that services are extended, women are not able to avail of them due to time constraint, lack of mobility or education, and other socio-cultural factors like the need to take care the child or house chores.

The agricultural marketing sub-sector is of particular concern as it deals with the distribution of cash crops and processed agricultural products to various markets. In order to reap the benefits of agricultural production, farmers need access to market information.

Agricultural extension techniques are still limited and have not addressed the different problems and needs between men and women. A shift towards agricultural development that distinguishes and caters to the differences between male and female farmers requires that there is robust agricultural framework that provides procedures, sets inspectional standards, and supervises and enforces an engendered agriculture sector that all stakeholders comply with.

Although women make up majority of farmers and informal sector workers, they are only a minority, or only about 10% among beneficiaries of agricultural and rural livelihood-related services and assets. Overall, agricultural extension service levels remain very low. In 2002, only 20,000 or 0.7% of all farmers participated in extension services.

3-3-3-4 Women's access to water and land in agricultural production not secure

Though all need water, the management of water for agricultural production and conservation is different for men and women. There is increasing demand for irrigation instead of the traditional practice of dependence on rain for cultivation which makes "farmers at the mercy of nature." Women who manage food security for the family have become vocal on the issue.

With increasing pressure on land, Cambodia is in the process of resolving the legal aspects of ownership and inheritance rights to land through legislation. Female-headed households have smaller land holdings than male-headed households and are particularly at risk of poverty (UNIFEM et al, 2004).

Land is registered not as a joint property of husband and wife. In general, land registration is usually in the name of the husband especially in rural areas. Protecting the security of women will become increasingly important as pressure on land becomes more intense and land grabbing intensifies. Even where the names of both wife and husband appear on the land title, men still make the major decisions in relation to the use of the land (UNIFEM et al, 2004). Most impoverished women live in male-headed households.

3-3-3-5 Gender discrimination in agricultural employment and agro-enterprises

Men and women spend approximately the same amount of time working on the farm. Female farmers provide 73.5% of agricultural labour in rural areas and work longer than men. In terms of wages, women on average receive less pay than the men with men receiving wages that are 33% higher than those of women taking experience, age and education into account (UNIFEM et al, 2004:5).

3-4 Economic Activities

Economic Activities

Women compose the majority of the economically active population in Cambodia with 83% over 15 years old and 68% of girls in the age group 15-19 working. Female workers are often employed in unwaged or low skilled family employment. Disparities in opportunities and income between men and women workers persist. About 17% of Cambodian women, particularly aged 20-24 are most likely to migrate to work in the garment industry, as domestic workers, in the sex industry or in the tourism industry.

3-4-1 Government policy for economic growth: inclusive of poor sectors among women?

The Cambodian Constitution fully guarantees equality in employment between women and men, and discrimination against women is explicitly forbidden. Cambodia is also a signatory to Convention No 100 concerning Equal Remuneration for Men and Women Workers for Work of Equal Value (Cambodian NGO Committee on CEDAW and the Cambodian Committee of Women, 2005). Both the NPRS and SEDP II reflect the national development objectives as well as its macro-economic framework focusing on economic growth that is broad enough to include sectors where the poor derive a livelihood, social and cultural environment, and the sustainable use of its natural resources and sound environmental management (UNIFEM et al, 2004).

In October 2004, Cambodia joined the WTO to pursue its pro-poor trade strategy and as part of its trade liberalisation programme.

The Labour Law of 1997 also guarantees equality in employment, but the 2005 Shadow Report on the Implementation of CEDAW concludes that the labour law includes several discriminatory provisions against women (Cambodian NGO Committee on CEDAW, 2005). An example is Article 200, in the section on agricultural workers, stating that “plantation workers are entitled to a daily allocation of rice... for their wives and dependent children.” Another example is Art. 207, in the section on housing that says that “workers are prohibited from housing anyone other than wife and legitimate or illegitimate children”.

Furthermore, there is currently no adequate mechanism allowing women to bring legal action in the case of wrongful dismissal or discrimination. The Law on Co-Statute for Civil Servants of the Kingdom of Cambodia also includes a provision discriminatory against women, regarding women as “dependent on their husbands” (Cambodian NGO Committee on CEDAW, 2005).

The Rectangular Strategy does not explicitly mention advancement of women’s status in the economy. *Neary Rattanak II* addresses the importance of the enhancement of women in economic activities and sets a goal for poverty reduction through the economic empowerment of women, especially poor and disabled women and young women who are unemployed. However, neither goals nor policy mention the advancement of women from ethnic minority groups, majority of which have less access to employment opportunities.

3-4-2 Women constitute the majority of the labour force but suffer more compared to men

Eighty-three (83%) percent of Cambodian women over 15 years old are in the work force and 68% of girls in the same age group 15-19 are working. This has been the same trend cited by the document *A Fair Share for Women* (Figure 8). Nevertheless according to the same report, 53% of female workers are still employed in unwaged or low skilled family employment, an indication of the strong stereotype of appropriate jobs for women. The income disparity between men and women

remains high as shown for instance in the estimated earned income (Purchasing Power Parity or PPP\$) in 2003 with 1,807 for the female worker as against 2,360 for the male. Among workers with no schooling, aged 15-29, wages are 75% higher for men than for women. These wage differentials between rural areas and the cities are partly the reason why internal and out migration has been increasing.

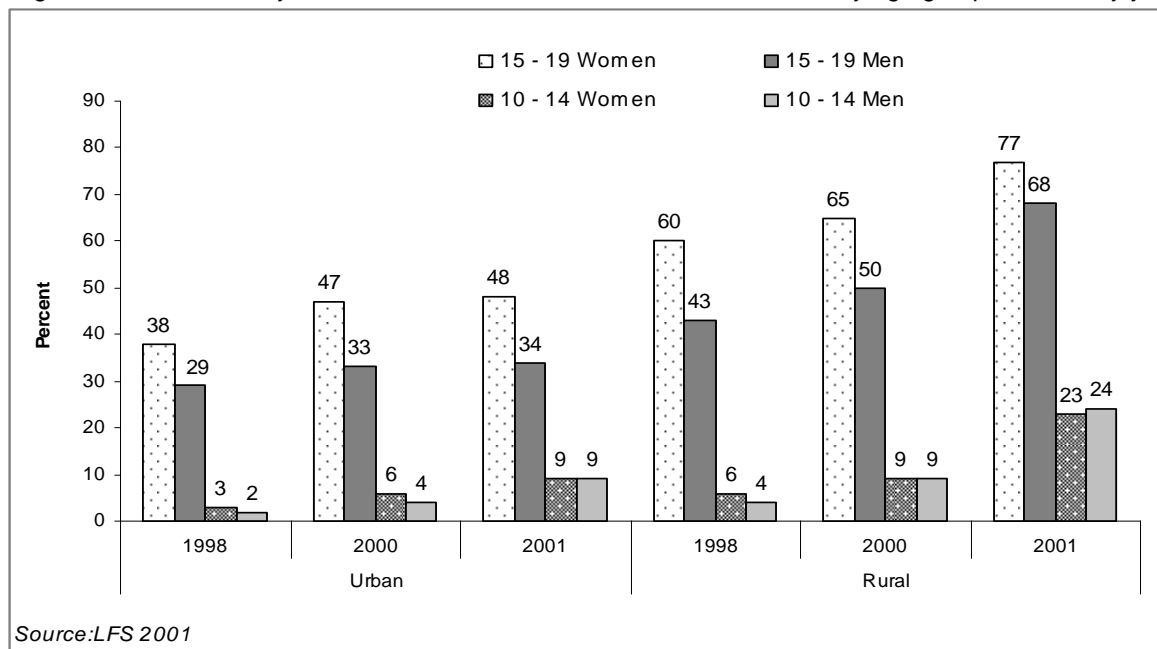
Figure 8. Children & youth in the labour force, by sex and by urban and rural areas, 2004



Source: CIPS 2004

The document, *A Fair Share for Women*, noted the disturbing trend in the apparent increase of children and youth in the labour force, particularly in the rural areas as shown in Figure 9.

Figure 9. Children and youth in the labour force in urban and rural areas, by age group, sex and by year



Source: LFS 2001

Taken from UNIFEM et al (2004: 37)

Many of these children especially girls, aged between 15 to 17 years, work as domestic workers. In 2003, 10,790 or 22.8% are female compared to only 4,981 or 10.5% male.

In terms of employment status, majority or 60.4% of the total unpaid family workers are women and only 39.6% are men. Only in unpaid family work are women dominant, the rest of the sectors are dominated by men, in both urban and rural areas. Only 20.8% of the total employment status are paid employees and only 0.1% are employers. And of these paid employees and employers, majority or 58.5% and 66%, respectively, are men.

Table 8. Primary employment status, by sex and by sector (% distribution)

Occupation/ Employment Status	Total			Urban			Rural		
	Male	Female	Total (n)	Male	Female	Total (n)	Male	Female	Total (n)
Unpaid family worker	39.6	60.4	43.1 (18,279)	38.7	61.3	31.8 (2,501)	39.7	60.3	45.6 (15,778)
Own account worker/ Self-employed	57.5	42.5	35.5 (15,065)	50.7	49.3	33.0 (2,592)	58.9	41.1	36.1 (12,473)
Paid employee	58.5	41.5	20.8 (8,844)	61.0	39.0	34.6 (2,716)	57.4	42.6	17.7 (6,128)
Employer	66.0	34.0	0.1 (53)	85.7	14.3	0.2 (14)	59.0	41.0	0.1 (39)
Other	59.1	40.9	0.5 (203)	52.8	47.2	0.5 (36)	60.5	39.5	0.5 (167)
Total	50.0	50.0	100.0 (42,444)	50.5	49.5	100.0 (7,859)	49.9	50.1	100.0 (34,585)

Source: CSES, 2004 and based on a sample of 42,444 households

By type of employment or occupation, 50.2% are farm workers of whom 48.7% are male and 51.3% are female. There are more females as farm workers, non-farm self-employed, and as private employees while males occupy other relatively high-paying employment statuses in government (76%), state enterprises (67%), local and international NGOs (75% & 54% respectively). This is the same trend in rural area where female are also dominant particularly in agriculture, hunting and forestry sectors where more than 75% are females and 69% are males (NIS/MoP, 2004).

Table 9. Primary types of employment, by sex & by sector (% distribution)

Occupation/ Type of Employment	Total			Urban			Rural		
	Male	Female	Total (n)	Male	Female	Total (n)	Male	Female	Total (n)
Farm worker	48.7	51.3	50.2 (21,243)	47.5	52.5	25.9 (2,027)	48.8	51.2	55.7 (19,216)
Non-farm self-employed	46.1	53.9	26.7 (11,298)	43.8	56.2	35.9 (2,808)	46.9	53.1	24.6 (8,490)
Domestic servant	57.6	42.4	9.4 (3,973)	58.4	41.6	9.4 (736)	57.5	42.5	9.4 (3,237)
Private company	45.7	54.3	5.8 (2,453)	50.8	49.2	10.4 (815)	43.1	56.9	4.7 (1,638)
Government	76.2	23.8	4.5 (1,922)	72.2	27.8	12.1 (950)	80.0	20.0	2.8 (972)
Joint venture	54.6	45.4	0.3 (130)	43.2	56.8	0.5 (37)	59.1	40.9	0.3 (93)
Foreign gov't, IOs, & NGOs	54.7	45.3	0.3 (117)	50.0	50.0	0.9 (70)	61.7	38.3	0.1 (47)
Local NGOs	57.8	42.2	0.3 (109)	55.9	44.1	0.8 (59)	60.0	40.0	0.1 (50)
State enterprise	67.0	33.0	0.2	60.7	39.3	0.4	69.7	30.3	0.2

			(94)			(28)			(66)
Other	47.6	52.4	2.3 (980)	44.7	55.3	3.9 (302)	48.8	51.2	2.0 (678)
Total	50.0	50.0	100.0 (42,319)	50.5	49.5	100.0 (7,832)	49.9	50.1	100.0 (34,487)

Source: CSES 2004

A study on the garment industry in 2004 revealed that employees are predominantly women (90%) and usually migrate from rural areas primarily for economic reasons (ADB and CRD, 2004). They typically come from large families, and their household frequently suffers from drought and floods, severely impacting their family's rice-farming livelihood. Over 50% have a partial elementary education, and 74% are under 25 years old. They come to work in the factories because they see no other economic or even livelihood opportunities for them. Their skill levels are initially low, but either through experience or training they gain the skills required for employment.

Like other economic sectors, health and safety factors are of grave concern to the employees who participated in the said study. Many stated they are breathing cloth dust without adequate protection, and suffer from food-borne illnesses, which severely impact their health. Medicine costs are a major expenditure for many employees. Other significant expenditures are basic living costs, and sending money home to parents. Monthly income, including overtime pay, is in the US\$50-\$75 range for most of the respondents. The cost of basic living is usually between \$20 and \$40, while depending on income for the month, remittances to family will be \$10 to \$30 (ADB and CRD, 2004).

The 33% gender disparity in income, job segregation in the paid workforce, with women disproportionately occupying low-skilled and low paid jobs as well as women's unequal access to employment opportunities, remain a serious concern for women's employment. Only 12% of the total female workforce are engaged in paid work; of whom 26% are garment factory workers. Currently, there is no specific policy or law to ensure equal promotions, job security and employment benefits for women.

Another area of concern is the internal migration of young unmarried women, 17% of Cambodian women, particularly aged 20-24 who are most likely to migrate to work in the garment industry, as domestic workers, in the sex industry or in the tourism industry (GMS Labour Migration Programme, 2005). For them and for many Cambodians, migration is a necessary option in the absence of sustained livelihood opportunities in their places of origin. Migration of young girls sometimes ends up with trafficking or labour exploitation, which has serious social impacts (Derks et al, 2006:18).

3-5 Violence against Women

Violence against Women

Almost a quarter of married Cambodian women have experienced violence in their families. At the same time, women in increasing numbers have been victims of human trafficking since the early 1990s and many suffered sexual exploitation, forced domestic labour and factory work. Domestic violence, trafficking in women and rape are issues that call for a comprehensive approach in law enforcement, public education, judicial training and strengthening, and providing legal, medical and social assistance to victims.

3-5-1 Government legislation, policies still ineffective in protecting women

3-5-1-1 On domestic violence: need for policy reform and enforcement

On 16 September 2005 and 29 September 2005, the National Assembly and the Senate, respectively, passed the Law on the Prevention of Domestic Violence and the protection of Victims, with King Sihamoni signing the law on 24 October 2005. However, at the date of the LICADHO Report on January 2006, this law was yet to be implemented within Cambodia, 13 years after it has taken the government to pass a basic human rights law crucial to the protection of its women.

Other relevant laws that also provide some protection for victims of domestic violence are: (a) the United Nations Transitional Authority in Cambodia – Provision Relating to the Judiciary and Criminal law and Procedure Applicable in Cambodia During the Transitional period (UNTAC Criminal Code) which sets out rape, indecent assault, and battery as crimes and (b) the Law on Aggravating Circumstances of the Felonies also classifies rape as a crime. LICADHO (2006) notes that these laws are more than sufficient in the provision of protection to domestic violence victims and in its prevention. However, the strength of these laws is undermined by the lack of implementation within the domestic context and by the lack of sufficient efforts to assist and protect victims of domestic violence.

Neary Rattanack II, the second five-year strategy for the Ministry of Women's Affairs (MoWA), addresses domestic violence and highlights the need for further legal and policy efforts to reduce domestic violence.

Working towards a policy framework on addressing domestic violence, the RGC has made several major policy statements about the importance of women in general, and about domestic violence in particular. The RGC highlighted its commitment to reducing domestic violence by including this challenge in its Cambodian Millennium Development Goals that incorporates specific interventions, from legal reforms to concrete prevention and counselling programmes (GTZ et al, 2006). Efforts have yet to be initiated in educating and training the police, lawyers, judges and the general public about the seriousness of the problem.

3-5-1-2 On trafficking: towards a more effective response

There is a range of legal instruments that stipulates that trafficking in women (and children) is illegal in Cambodia. Central to these is the 1993 Constitution (Articles 31, 45, 46 and 48), and which is complemented by the Law on Suppression of kidnapping, Trafficking, Exploitation of Human Persons and the Constitution. Several government circulars and instructions as well as memorandums of understanding (MOUs) with neighbouring countries also provide guidelines in response to the increased trend in the problem.

Efforts of the RGC in response to trafficking have involved a range of line ministries (MoWA, Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training/ MoLVT, MoSVY, MoT) as well as international and local non-

government organisations (ECPAT, ILO-IPEC, AFESIP, CWCC, etc). In addition, the CNCW has been mandated to promote the status, role and social welfare of Cambodian women for the purpose of reducing and abolishing all forms of discrimination and violence against women. In March 2000, MoWA also signed an agreement a 3-year programme (2000-2003) with the Finnish government which targeted implementing officials situated at border areas to respond to trafficking of women and children. In October 2004, the RGC joined 5 other countries in the Mekong Region in signing the Coordinated Mekong Ministerial Initiative against Trafficking (COMMIT) MOU on a cooperation against human trafficking. The MOU is a comprehensive document, covering trafficking of all persons and in all its forms and recognises the special vulnerability of women and children to trafficking.

The enforcement of all these legal instruments and guidelines leaves a lot to be desired. Among the problems that have been identified include (a) the lack of legislation protecting trafficking victims from prosecution on illegal immigration charges; (b) insufficiency of existing legislations in the protection of trafficking victims as well as the punishment of traffickers; (c) lack of law enforcement and impunity; and (d) insufficient repatriation, reintegration and rehabilitation measures (LICADHO, 2006:16-17).

3-5-1-3 On rape and sexual assault: policy gaps remain

Cambodia's Criminal Code (Article 33) classifies rape as a crime and indecent assault as a misdemeanour – however, this does not recognise statutory rape (consensual sex with a minor) (UNIFEM et al, 2004:115). Other guidelines underpinning its prevention and punishment for this crime are embodied in legal instruments for domestic violence but there is no specific governmental policy on rape in the country.

Other barriers to effective responses about rape have been also cited by LICADHO (2006:8). Among these are (a) inadequate rape provisions in current legislation; (b) misinterpretation of the law by judges, prosecutors and defence lawyers; (c) impunity; (d) corruption; and (e) unlawful compensation payments. According to ADHOC (2006:25), the widespread indifference shown and bribery by the courts and police contribute to the victims' mistrust in the legal system.

3-5-2 Domestic violence continues to be widespread

"Domestic violence in Cambodia takes place within a complex web of attitudes and values about gender roles, social relations and violence in general. Even though a wide range of donors, government agencies and NGOs have worked intensely to reduce domestic since PADV published its findings in 1996, the situation has not improved significantly". This was the conclusion of the first systematic national survey conducted in 2005 among 3,000 respondents in 13 provinces on violence against women (GTZ et al, 2005:34). Among all respondents, 64% said they knew a husband who used physical violence with his wife, while 22.5% of the women said their husbands had been physically violent toward them, the latter being similar to the 23% of ever-married women aged 15-49 in the CDHS 2000 who said they experienced violence.

Other human rights groups like ADHOC, PADV and LICADHO and the results of the Youth Risk Behaviour Survey by MoEYS also mention the seriousness of domestic violence. Young people report high levels of violence in their families as 74% of those surveyed said they had experienced violence in their families over the previous month (MoEYS, 2004:15). ADHOC (2006:26) sees the situation as becoming more serious and brutal, with the perpetrators using batons, picks, axes or guns which can lead to the death of the victim. Instances have been reported where women victims can target abusive husbands or the mistresses and new wives of current and past partners through acid attacks which is aimed at making the target "suffer forever... to destroy the face and make the [target] look like a monster, so nobody will love the victim ever again" (LICADHO, 2004:14).

Significant factors have been cited as being associated to the incidence of domestic violence. These include rapid change and growth in society, alcohol use, poverty, gambling, family conflicts, lack of education and long exposure to violence (e.g., civil war and a history of parental violence) (GTZ et al, 2005; DCA-Cambodia, 2006:11; CCC-ADI, 2005, 24-31). Cultural ideals about gender, codes of social behaviour and attitudes about domestic violence itself serve to perpetuate the violence among women.

The high prevalence of domestic violence demonstrates the low status of women in society rooted also in the *Chbab Srey*, a Cambodian code of conduct that promotes the culture of silence on the part of women victims who have been taught and trained to serve and obey their husbands at all times. An added detrimental product of this is that women are reluctant to report domestic violence abuse because “women face shame and dishonour in seeking outside help for domestic problems and they may be seen to betray their family (LICADHO, 2006:5).

Unfortunately, the Law on Prevention of Domestic Violence and Protection of Victims still does not have specific provisions against conditions that prevent women from accessing justice arising from the lack of trust in the judicial system and the arbitrary interpretation of the criminal law by judges in favour of perpetrators. It also fails to address the limited availability of legal aid and the high cost of medical certificates that are required in cases of rape and sexual assault.

3-5-3 Trafficking in women remains a critical issue

Increasing numbers of Cambodian women have been trafficked since the early 1990s, many for the purpose of sexual exploitation, forced domestic labour and factory work. In 2005, Cambodia was officially recognised as one of the worst countries for trafficking in women and was subsequently placed on Tier 3 by the US Department of State for the RGC’s lack of progress in preventing trafficking and providing protection to victims of trafficking (LICADHO, 2006:13; DCA-Cambodia, 2006:13). Citing estimates from the Cambodian Women’s Crisis Centre, *A Fair Share of Women* notes that, at any given time, 100,000 women and children are being trafficked in Cambodia – a figure that includes women trafficked within the country and those from neighbouring countries, particularly Vietnam (UNIFEM et al, 2004:116).

Trafficking in Cambodia continues to be a complex issue that has frequently been viewed from the supply side, which is facilitated by poverty, corruption, weak law enforcement and gender inequality that places women in a weak economic, legal and social position (UNIFEM et al, 2004:117). Other push factors have included the lack of legitimate and fulfilling employment opportunities particularly in the rural areas, individual family situations such as domestic violence and abuse, and the lack of access to education which limits of opportunities particularly for women to increase their earnings in more skilled and better protected occupations (ARCPPT, 2003:5-6).

As with all forms of violence against women, there are no official figures to date to indicate whether the rate of trafficking cases has increased or decreased. However, recent reports show that growing numbers of women are being trafficked to Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam (LICADHO, 2006:7).

3-5-4 Rape and sexual assault is an emerging problem

Rape is an equally serious problem in Cambodia but one that rarely leads to the arrest of the perpetrator, with the accused rarely found guilty in cases where proceedings are initiated (UNIFEM et al, 2004:115). It is also one of the least recognised crimes due again to Cambodian social and cultural attitudes towards women and sexuality. Of particular concern is *bauk* or gang rape which is becoming more common, particularly among male university students (UNIFEM et al, 2004:115;

LICADHO, 2004:11). Frequent victims of *bauk* are sex workers, garment workers or other *srey kalip* (modern women).

As with trafficking, there are no clear statistics on the number of women who are raped every year in Cambodia. Increasing reports to NGOs have been made on the issue, however, particularly on violent rapes, gang rapes, and rape crimes on children and younger women. Many families do not wish to involve the authorities in rape cases due to the shame and stigma associated with it, thus preferring to protect their reputation and settle out of court by accepting a compensation payment (UNIFEM et al, 2004; LICADHO, 2006:12; ADHOC, 2006:23). Other factors that contribute to refusals to report rape cases and in pursuing legal actions include (a) distrust of the justice system, (b) costs of pursuing a prosecution, (c) fears about retaliation from the perpetrator, (c) social and cultural myths, and (d) the unofficial “compensation” settlements between perpetrators and victims. (LICADHO, 2006:8).

3-5-5 Problems, issues related to violence against women: working out a lasting solution

A number of major obstacles prevent effective responses against the prevailing violence among women and in protecting the victims. Among these are (LICADHO, 2006; NGO Committee on CEDAW, 2005):

- a) Under reporting of the different forms of violence owing mainly to Cambodian cultural and social attitudes. Reported figures do not accurately reflect the reality of the violence and abuses against women in Cambodia, due to under-reporting by victims. Women face shame and dishonour, in seeking outside help, feel that they are in a weak position, are poor and without connections.
- b) Lack of sufficient actions by the government in combating violence against women, particularly in educating and training law enforcement officers, including the courts and lawyers, on the issue and fair legal and judicial processes. Governmental policies continue to pose gaps and dissemination of relevant laws is not broad, with the legal terms and text not simplified for the average person to understand, especially for the people in the rural areas, who have limited education. Education and advocacy on the subject has to date, been assumed by civil society such as the NGOs.
- c) Impunity exists on issues of rape and trafficking, with the perpetrators believing that they are above the law, and that their only punishment if they are caught would be to pay money. Impunity is also more likely to occur when the perpetrator is wealthy, holds a position of authority, or has connections with those in positions of authority. Particularly with regards to trafficking, authorities have also been known to accept bribes and some are even part-owners of brothels and prostitution enterprises.

In relation to these issues, the Committee on CEDAW in its 16 January - 3 February 2006 meeting recommended among others the following:

- a) To place high priority on implementing a comprehensive approach to address all forms of violence against women, including the effective enforcement and monitoring of legislation on domestic violence;
- b) To raise public awareness through media and education programmes that violence against women, including domestic violence, is unacceptable;
- c) To train the judiciary, law enforcement officials, legal professionals, social workers and health providers, particularly on the new law on domestic violence;
- d) To make available legal aid to victims in both urban and rural areas and that required medical certificates be provided free of charge;
- e) To increase the number of female judges and law enforcement officials as a means to encourage women to report cases of violence; and

- f) To establish support measures for victims of violence, including (rehabilitative) shelters and legal, medical and psychological support.

4. GENDER PROJECTS

4-1 LIST OF GENDER PROJECTS, BY GOVERNMENT LINE MINISTRIES (ONGOING AND IMPLEMENTED)

Gender Projects	Donor	Period of Implementation	Objectives/ Main Activities	Approximate Amount
MoWA-based/ affiliated				
Gender Mainstreaming through Upgrading Information & Research Capacity	JICA	April 2003-2008	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Establish an effective mechanism for GM by strengthening MWVA especially in information & research Pilot projects in 1-2 provinces 	US\$2-3M
Partnership for Gender Equity, Phase II (PGE); MoWA as Executing Agency	UNDP	April 2004 – March 2009	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Engendered sectoral plans and budgets of selected ministries Strengthened leadership by women in civil service and an increase of women in elective bodies Long term gender advocacy strategy in place and information; communication campaign Market-driven job skills training programme and a package of business development services specially designed and delivered to women 	US\$5,425,834
Partnership for Gender Equity (PGE)	UNDP/Royal Netherlands Government	2002-2004	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Capacity Building of MWVA to mainstream gender Build the capacity of MWVA to plan, manage and coordinate its internal operations and external assistance. 	US\$800,000
Sustainable Employment Promotion for Poor Women	Asian Development Bank (ADB)	2002- 2004 (18 months)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Strengthening the capacity in advocacy for economic empowerment. Development of approaches and materials for strengthening women's employment opportunities. Strengthening capacity in policy formulation and networking. 	US\$400,000
Gender and Legal Protection	GTZ	2002-2005 (1 st phase)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Legal Mainstreaming in MWVA and gender mainstreaming in selected legal areas. 	US\$2.3M
Prevention of Trafficking	International Organisation for Migration (IOM)/ Finland	2000-2003 May	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Legal literacy, advocacy and information 	
Cambodian National Project Against Trafficking in Women & Children in Mekong Sub-Region	UNIAP	1999-2005	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Innovative approaches to community based support systems through capacity building, law enforcement, policy and legislation; Strategy analysis & impact evaluation 	US\$2.315M (Additional funds need to be raised)

Gender Mainstreaming in Decentralisation & Deconcentration	UNDP Partnership for Local Governance	2001-2005	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gender mainstreaming in 17 Seila provinces; capacity building of provincial departments, CDC/VCD, local authorities & commune councils; advocacy workshops, monitoring and evaluation. 	US\$300,000 (approx.)
Asian Regional Programme for Expansion of Employment Opportunities for Women (EEOW)	ILO/Japan	2001-2006	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Strengthening institutional competency related to gender analysis at work. Community based pilot activities 	US\$250,000
Integrated Economic Empowerment, Entrepreneurship and Employment of Women (IEEEW)	ILO	2001-2004	<p>WID Centres upgraded as IEEEW Centres to provide</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> HRD through specialised skills Enterprise development Linkages to financial support services Training and support mainly for poor rural women 	US\$1.652M
Assisting Women to Improve Household Food Security & Family Economy	FAO	2001-2003	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Training workshops at ministerial and provincial levels Training of rural women as trainers Pilot training for 200 rural women Assist establishment of rural technology centres 	US\$249,000
Market Development Pilot Project	New Zealand ODA	Nov 2002-Apr 2003	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Basic training in business development and marketing Market/marketing development advisory services Formation of vendors' association 	US\$70,000
MAFF Projects				
Five Year Work Plan for Gender Mainstreaming in Agriculture 2006 – 2010	ADB	2006 – 2010	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Agriculture Sector Development Programme (ASDP) loan No 2028-CAM New programme in accordance to the policy and strategy for gender mainstreaming in agriculture sector 	US\$1,903,825
Implementation of the Action Plan for Gender Mainstreaming on the Agriculture Sector, TA 4459	ADB	2004	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ADB provide advisory technical assistance to support implementation of the gender mainstreaming action plan development under the Agriculture Sector Development Programme (ASDP). The ASDP facilitates agricultural commercialisation and diversification and promotes participation of poor women in agricultural production, marketing, and postproduction 	Unavailable
MoEYS Projects				
Innovative Approaches to Increase Access of	ADB	June 06, 2006	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Residential facilities and learning centres for girls in three upper secondary schools – one each in 	US\$800,000 plus

Poor Girls to Secondary Education in Cambodia			<p>the provinces of Kampong Thom, Preah Vihear, and Siem Reap</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Construction on residential facilities and media learning centres, training of trainers on basic computer literacy, and life skills training for students and community members • 300 poor girls in the selected pilot schools, who will be chosen based on merit, the distance of their homes from the school, and the socioeconomic status of their families. In addition, the grant will provide scholarships for the selected students 	US\$150,000 from RGC
Development of Gender Mainstreaming Strategies and Action Plan, Gender Mainstreaming Policy Development	UNICEF	October – December 2005		US\$68,090
Capacity building and dissemination on gender mainstreaming action plan, policy and gender mainstreaming monitoring and evaluation tools	UNESCO	October – December 2005		US\$7,934
Capacity building and dissemination on gender mainstreaming action plan, policy and gender mainstreaming monitoring and evaluation tools	UNFPA	Sept-Oct, 2005		US\$3,000
Pilot: UNICEF KAPE Gender secretariat care Cambodia Japanese gender secretariat scholarship for lower secondary students from 2001-2004	UNFPA	Oct-Dec, 2005		US\$58,000
Girl Scholarships	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Japanese Fund for Poverty Reduction 	2002-2007		US\$10,481,373
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cambodia Education Sector Support Project 			US\$2,410,03
				\$6,800,00

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Basic Education Teacher Training 			\$200,514
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Priority Action Programme 			\$1,070,822
MoH Projects				
Reproductive Health-Community based distribution of contraceptives	UNFPA	2001-2003	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • MoWVA was sub-contracted to better make available reproductive health services especially community-based distribution of contraceptives and IEC (executed by an NGO) 	US\$203,844 US\$250,000 \$500,000
HIV/AIDS Policy for Women & Girls	UNFPA	2003	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Policy on women and girls and HIV/AIDS and workshops 	US\$23,000
Health Sector Support Project	ADB	1998-2006	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Construction & renovation of health centres & hospitals & support disease control campaigns against HIV/AIDs, malaria, etc... 	US\$20M / loan
Reproductive Health and Gender Advocacy	UNFPA	2002-2004	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strengthen capacity of selected government institutions and NGOs in advocacy to support gender equality in reproductive health • Increase understanding and commitment of policy and decision makers and media 	US\$755,920

Source: MoWa website, 2/23/07; UNDP website; GTZ website; ADB News & Events 2/23/07; MAFF 5-Year Work Plan for Gender Mainstreaming in Agriculture 2006 – 2010.

4-2 LIST OF GENDER PROJECTS BY INTERNATIONAL NGOS FOR 2005-2006

Organ-isation	Projects/ Programs	Sectors/ Target Groups	Area	Project Budget (\$US)/ Funding Source	Cambodian partners
Action Aid International-Cambodia	• Empowerment urban women	Gender women issue	Phnom Penh	\$65,000-ActionAid	Urban Poor Women Development
	• Community development	Women and livelihood	Kampong Cham	\$17,000-ActionAid	SAKAMY
	• Community organizing and development	Rights to food and women's rights	Kampong Thom	\$7,220-ActionAid	Elderly and vulnerable people help organisation
	• Women community organizing and capacity building for indigenous people	Rights to food, women's rights and HIV/AIDS	Preah Vihear	\$6,014-ActionAid	Human Resource Development for Sustainable Community Organization
Australian Catholic Relief (ACR)	Community Empowerment Programme	Women/ Gender Issues	Kampong Thom, Kampong Chhnang, Battambang	\$233,296.00-Caritas Australia	- CoDec - PNKA - RDA & Homeland
Church World Service (CWS)	Community Development	Water and sanitation, Agriculture, Health Nutrition, Credit and Saving, Disaster Preparedness/ Relief, Environment/ Natural Resource, Gender/ Women Issues, Education/ Training	Kampong Thom, Svay Rieng	\$675,031.00	Not Indicated
DIAKONIA	Human Rights and Democracy	Gender/ Women Issues	7 provinces, 12 provinces	- \$31,00.00-Diakonia - \$19,00.00-Diakonia - \$81,000.00-Diakonia	- Khmer Ahimsa - KKKHRDA - LICADHO
Lutheran World Federation/ Department for World Service (LWF)	• Integrated Rural Development through Empowerment Project	Gender/ Women Issues	Battambang, Kampong Speu, Kampong Chhnang, Kandal, Takeo	\$3,491,318.00-ALWS, ALWS-AusAID, CoS, DCA, DCA/ DANIDA, DCA/ EU, ELCA, EED, FCA, FCA/ Finida, FCA/EU, GNC-AH, Deutscher Hau, InWEnt, WFP-in kind,	RGC, MRD, PDRD, Prov. Gov'ts/ departments, Dist. Gov't / Commune Council / Village Leader, Development Councils, CBOs, Pagodas, Partner, Households, Rural Poor, Vulnerable

				Community-in-kind	and marginalized, NGO Forum, MAG, CRS, FFI, CCBEN, WFP, ADHOC.
Norwegian People's Aid (NPA)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Women's Rights 	Gender/ Women (GW) Issues	Banteay Meanchey	\$121,429.00-NORAD-USD	Project Again Domestic Violence (PADV)
Ockenden International-Cambodia (OIC)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rural Development for Vulnerable Displaced Population in 2 North-west provinces of Cambodia 	Environment and Gender Awareness	Battambang, Oddar Meanchey	\$84,114.00-EU2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ADA KBA OMC
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ockenden International Integrated Development Project 	Delivery of Appropriate Vocational Training to Vulnerable Men and Women	Battambang, Oddar Meanchey, Banteay Meanchey	\$199,465.00-DFID	Not Indicated
Oxfam Québec (OQ)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Anti-Human Trafficking 	Gender/ Women Issues	Stung Treng	\$35,000.00-CIDA, Public	CWARS
Pact Cambodia (PACT)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A Global Women Empowerment Programme (WORTH) 	Gender/ Women Issues	Kampong Cham, Kandal, and Takeo	\$6,088,799.00-DANIDA, ICCO, DCA, USAID, US Embassy, British Embassy, World Bank, PADCO, Forum Syd, Pfizer Foundation, GTZ, UNICEF, UNFPA, Concern, CIDSE Ockenden, PLG. Diakonia, Oxfam GB, VBNK, PSI, OPM, CLEC, NAA, COMFREL, NICFEC	PSAD, KWCD, CWPD, AFD, CADET
The Asia Foundation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Counter Trafficking in Persons in Cambodia 	Women/ young girls at risk & victims of human trafficking	Phnom Penh, Koh Kong, Kandal, Banteay Meanchey Battambang	USAID, US\$2.1M	MoWA (National Task Force on Trafficking & Exploitation of Women; CCPCR, HCC, World Hope International, IJM, Transit Centre (Poipet)
World Vision Cambodia (WVC)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reduce gender based violence thru community mobilization (RGBV) 	Gender/ women Issues	Kandal	\$191,480.00-United Kingdom	Not Indicated

Source: CCC Directory of Cambodian Non-Government Organisations (CNGOs) 2004-2005

5. GENDER INFORMATION SOURCES

5-1 LIST OF ORGANISATIONS WITH GENDER PROJECTS

Name/ IOs/ Local NGOs	Past records/ Projects	Contact Address
Amara	Mentoring Activities for the Commune Council	National Road 5, Battambang Province; Tel: 053 952 419; Email: amara@camintel.org
Agir Pour les Femmes En Situation Precaire (AFESIP)	Advocacy, legal assistance and protection to trafficking victims; reintegration, rehabilitation (among other) of victims of trafficking	#23 Street 315 Boeung Kork 1, Toul Kork, Phnom Penh; Tel: 023 884 123; Email: admcambodia@afesip.org
Banteay Srei	Tackles domestic violence issues; promotes livelihood activities among women through home gardens	#36 Street 480 Phsar Doem Thkov, Chamcar Mon, Phnom Penh; Tel: 023 216 922; Email: banteaysrei@online.com.kh
Cambodian Association for Assistance to Families and Widows (CAAFW)	Livelihood programme, social services (legal advice, medical/ emergency assistance), community organising	#447, Group 20, Road 2, Sisophon Town, Banteay Meanchey Province; Tel: 054 958 882/ 012 599 094; Email: caafw@forum.org.kh
Cambodia Defenders' Project	Women's Resource Centre	Address: No. 12, Street 282 Sangkat Beung, Keng Kang 1, Khan, Chomcar Mon, Phnom Penh; Tel: 023 362 524; Email: cdp@cdpcambodia.org
Cambodian Human Rights and Development Association (ADHOC)	Public forums on trafficking and prevention; protection of young migrant women & girls seeking work abroad	#1, Street 158, Boeung Raing, Daun Penh, Phnom Penh, P.O: 1024, Phnom Penh, Cambodia, CCC Box: 20, Tel: 023 218 653/990 544, Fax: 023 217 229, Email/ web page: adhoc@forum.org.kh / www.adhoc.org.kh
Cambodian Midwives' Association (CMA)	Promotion of sexual and reproductive health rights among women through midwives	#44C Street 454, Tuol Toumpong Phnom Penh; Email: cma@forum.org.kh
Cambodian Women for Peace and Development (CWPD)		#23 Street 47, Stras Chak, Daun Penh, Phnom Penh; Tel: 023 724 274; Email: cwpd@online.com.kh
Cambodian Women's Crisis Centre (CWCC)	Improving Girls Life's Options Through Education and Training; provision of start-up capital for survivors of trafficking in Siem Reap	#42F, Street 488, Phsar Deum Thkov, Chamcar Morn, Phnom Penh, CCC Box: 356, Tel: 023 982 158, Fax: 023 982 158, Email: cwcc@forum.org.kh
Cambodia Women's Development Association (CWDA)	Advancement of women's economic and social rights	Address: #19, St. 242, Kh. 7 Makara Postal address: P.O.Box 2334, Phnom Penh 3, Cambodia Tel: (855) 23 210 449, (855) 12 970 660 Email: cwda@online.com.kh
Community Economic Development (CED)	Domestic Violence / Men's Network	Street 3, Tropang Pring, Kratie Province, CCC Box: 308, Tel: 072 971 676, Email: cedcam@camintel.com
Gender and Development for Cambodia (GAD-C)	Training and internships Advocacy and networking Information, education % communication Specific projects/ activities are:	#4, Street 294, Tonle Bassac, Chamcar Mon, Phnom Penh, Tel: 023 215 137; Email: gad@online.com.kh

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ GADnet (network of 61 NGOs) ▪ Women's Empowerment through Legal Activities (WELA) ▪ Cambodian Men's Network (CMN) 	
Hagar	Shelter and livelihood programme (and employment) for battered women, literacy education/ life skills and vocational training for trafficking survivors and women and girls at risk	53D, Street 242, Veal Vong, 7 Makara, Phnom Penh; Tel: 023 219 045; Email: info@hagarproject.or
Islamic Local Development Organisation (ILDO)	Women for Development (Sewing projects)	# 238, Group 18, Damspey, Slaket, Battambang province, CCC Box: 362, Tel: 012 830 223, Fax: 053 952 213, Email: ildosokha@camintel.com
Kampuchean Action for Primary Education (KAPE)	Girls' education and scholarship programme for economically disadvantaged; curriculum enhancement; vocational training for girls	Provincial Teacher Training College of Kampong Cham, Kampong Cham Province, Tel: 042 941 481, Fax: 042 941 918, Email: kape.cambodia@online.com.kh, Website: www.kapeonline.com
Khemara	Leads 50 other Cambodian NGOs in forming public debate on women's issues; lobbying on women's issues to protect the rights of women	Ottara Padei Wat, National Rt. 5, Russey Keo, Mittapheap, Phnom Penh, Cambodia Tel/Fax855-23-360134
Khmer Women's Voice Centre (KWVC)	Empowering & encouraging women to participate and make decisions in the political, economic, social and cultural spheres. One of its major projects is the Gender Democracy and Women's Access to mid and top-level positions in the government.	94, St. 470, Toul Tumpoung 1, Chamcar Mon, Phnom Penh, Cambodia Phone/Fax(855) 23 21 23 52 Email: seametr@forum.org.kh
Khmer Youth Association (KYA)	Human Rights Investigations Advocacy on Youth Policy, Right to Education, Right to Health and Domestic Violence project Targets young women and men from secondary schools, high schools and universities	135A, Group 33, Street 259, Toek Laak 1, Toul Kork, Phnom Penh; Tel: 023 884 306; Email: kya@forum.org.kh
Khmer Youth Camp for Culture (KYCC)	Gender women's rights and CEDAW workshop	# 236, Street 376, Boeung Keng Kang III, Chamcar Mon, Phnom Penh, CCC Box: 377, Tel: 012 736 166, Email: info@kycc4peach.org, Website: www.kycc4peach.org
Kratie Women's Welfare Association (KWWA)	Gender and Community Development	Sresdao, Orussey, Kratie Province, CCC Box: 274, Tel: 072 971 586 / 012 916 329, Fax: 072 971 586, Email: kwwakrt@caminet.com
Legal Support for Women and Children (LSCW)	Assists Cambodian migrant workers, particularly women and children and those in crisis in Klong Yai District, Trad province, Thailand and Koh Kong province of Cambodia	#38, Street 456, Tuol Tumpoung II, Chamcar Mon, Phnom Penh; Tel: 023 986 457
Mlup Baitong	Gender and Environment	#37B, Street 113, Boeung Keng Kang II, Phnom Penh, P.O Box: 2510, Phnom Penh,

		Cambodia, CCC Box: 400, Tel: 023 214 409, Fax: 023 220 242, Email: mlup@online.com.kh , Website: www.mlup.org
Project Against Domestic Violence (PADV)	Pioneering research on domestic violence; community workshops involving victims of domestic violence, perpetrators, students and local authorities	#15, Street 105/278 Boeung Keng Kang II, Chamcar Mon, Phnom Penh; Tel: 023 721 654; Email: padv@online.com.kh
Stung Treng Women's Development Centre (SWDC)	Livelihood Development	Sre Po, Stung Treng province, P.O Box: 9500, Phnom Penh, Cambodia, Tel: 074 973 977, Email: swdcs@camintel.com
Trotrung Ning Akphiwat Sokopheap Neak Kre Kror (TASK)	Women's health	#227, Street 10CA, Chak Angre Leu, Meanchey, Phnom Penh, P.O Box: 2681, Phnom Penh, Cambodia, Tel: 023 425 045, Email: task@servantsasia.org
Urban Poor Women Development (UPWD)	Savings and credit programmes; trainings on reproductive health; people's organisations with focus on women's participation	11Deo, Street 183, Tumnub Teuk, Chamcar Mon, Phnom Penh; Tel: 023 211 474; Email: upwd@forum.org.kh
Women Association for Community Development (WACD)	Public Forum	Otapouk Loeu, Pailin City, CCC Box: 198, Tel: 011 743 704 / 016 855 807
Women's Media Centre of Cambodia (WMC)	Promotes, through the media, specifically broadcasting, social change, particularly on HIV/AIDS, trafficking, election, domestic violence, and poverty among women	#30, Street 488, 484 Phsar Deum Thkov, Chamcar Morn, Phnom Penh; Tel/ Fax: 023 364-882; Email: wmcc@online.org.kh
Women for Prosperity	Training for women's legal rights and advocacy; supports a network of women commune councillors; providing a forum for women-elected officials on experiences, problems/ issues of concern	#4 Street 432 Boeung Trabek, Chamcar Mon, Phnom Penh; Tel: 023 212 429; Email: wfpnp@forum.org.kh

Source: CCC Directory of Cambodian Non-Government Organisations (CNGOs) 2004-2005; CCC Agency Contact Listing 2005. Period of implementation for the above projects were unavailable from the source.

5-2 LIST OF REPORTS AND REFERENCES RELATED TO GENDER

TITLE	AUTHOR/ PUBLISHER	YEAR	WHERE TO GET
Education Statistics & Indicators 2005 / 2006, supported by UNICEF / CIDA. Final draft	Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport Planning Department	2007	MoEYS
Gender Mainstreaming and Decentralisation: An Assessment of the Process with Recommendations	Brereton, Helen/ UNDP-PGE; SEILA-PLG, UNFPA, UNICEF, the World Bank, and MoWA	2006	UNDP-PGE; SEILA-PLG, UNFPA, UNICEF, the World Bank, and MoWA
Cambodia Demographic and Health Survey 2005. Preliminary Report.	National Institute of Public Health / National Institute of Statistics, Cambodia (with USAID, ADB, DFID, UNFPA, UNICEF, CDC/GAP Cambodia)	2006	National Institute of Statistics, Ministry of Planning; UNICEF; UNFPA
Review of Labour Migration Dynamics in Cambodia	International Organisation for Migration (IOM)	October 2006	IOM
Sex Workers on the Street: Living with Violence	Nakagawa Kasumi/ DanChurch Aid (DCA)-Cambodia and Violence Against Women and Children in Cambodia (VAWCC)	2006	DanChurch Aid - Cambodia
Violence Against Women in Cambodia: A LICADHO Report. Phnom Penh: LICADHO. January 2006	Ligue Cambodgienne de Defense des Droits de l'Homme/ Cambodian League for the Promotion and Defense of Human Rights (LICADHO)	2006	LICADHO
Tracking Progress of Gender Mainstreaming in Education	Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport	2006	MoEYS
Gender Assessment Report: Kampong Cham Province	Logarta, Mercedes / Din Virak / Chea Saintdona / Rebecca F. Catalla, JICA-PGM	2006	JICA-PGM
Violence Against Women. A Baseline Survey. Final Report	GTZ, EWMH-HRCP and UNIFEM	2005	MoWA/ GTZ/ UNIFEM/ EWMH-HRCP
Evaluation of the Seila Gender Mainstreaming Strategy 2001-2005 and Recommendations for the Next Phase of Decentralisation and Deconcentration Reform	Brereton, Helen	2005	
A Report on the Situation of Beer Promotion Women in the Workplace, Cambodia: Results of a Harassment and Abuse Survey	Bury, Louise/ CARE	2005	CARE-Cambodia
Infant and Youth Child Feeding (IYCF) Formative Research: Breast-feeding practices in Cambodia.	Helen Keller International, IYCF Working Group, Ministry of Health, LINKAGES project, and Academy for Education Development. Cambodia, Infant and Youth Child Feeding	2005	Ministry of Health
GAMES. Programme for Rural Action – Capacity Building for Decentralisation	Gender and Development for Cambodia (GAD-C)	2005	GAD-C
Domestic Violence in a Rapidly Growing Border Settlement: A Study of Two Villages in Poipet Commune, Banteay Meanchey Province. Cambodia,	Cooperation Committee for Cambodia - Analyzing Development Issues (CCC-ADI) Project	2005	Cooperation Committee for Cambodia

Gender Based Violence and HIV/AIDS in Cambodia: Links, Opportunities and Potential Responses.	GTZ. 2005.	2005	GTZ
Violence Against Women Evaluation Report	Curran, Patty/ CWCC Banteay Meanchey/ Oxfam Hong Kong	2005	CWCC
Gender Based Violence and HIV/AIDS in Cambodia: Links, Opportunities and Potential Responses	Duvvury, Nata and Johanna Knoess/ GTZ-ICRW	2005	GTZ/ ICRW
Gender and HIV/AIDS in Phnom Penh, Cambodia: Situation Analysis and Action Plan	Earth, B. and F. Chea, Urban Management Programme-Asia	2005	
Situation of Women and Men in Cambodia	JICA-PGM and MoWA	2004	JICA-PGM, MoWA
Social Marketing for Health/ The Availability of Social Marketed Contraceptives through the Private Sector	Butler, R. B./ Population Services International Cambodia (PSI)	2004	Population Services International - Cambodia
A Fair Share For Women: Cambodia Gender Assessment	UNIFEM, WB, ADB, UNDP and DFID/UK.	2004	MoWA
Country Monitoring and Advocacy on Sexual and Reproductive Health and Right (SRHR)	Asian Pacific Resource and Research Centre for Women (ARROW)/ Cambodia Midwives Association (CMA)	2004	Cambodian Midwives Association (CMA)
Cambodian Women Report 2004: A Brief on the Situation of Women in Cambodia	Cambodian League for the Promotion and Defense of Human Rights (LICADHO)	2004	LICADHO
Guidelines on Gender Mainstreaming in the Preparation Process of the Commune/ Sangkat 3-years Rolling Investment Programme Ministry on Women's and Veteran's Affairs. Summary for CS Councillors	MoWA	2004	MoWA
National HIV/AIDS Policy & Plan Gender Analysis, Cambodia. Cambodia, Gender and Development for Cambodia (GAD/C). A review on the existing constraints in policy frameworks to effectively address gender dimensions of HIV/Aids in Cambodia	Quinn, I./ GAD-C	2004	GAD-C
Trainers' Manual. Women Workers' Rights and Gender Equality: Easy Steps for Workers in Cambodia	Rosalinda Terhorst, N. H., GAD/C, ILO, EEOW	2004	ILO-IPEC Office (Phnom Penh)
Trading Away Our Rights: Women Working in Global Supply Chains	Raworth, Kate/ Oxfam International	2004	Oxfam-GB
Technical Backstopping to the SEILA Gender Mainstreaming Training Materials Development: A Review of the SEILA Gender Mainstreaming Strategy	Shroff, R./ UNOPS-UNDP	2003	UNDP Cambodia
Gender, Human Trafficking, and	Asia Regional Cooperation to	2003	ARCPPT Office at the

the Criminal Justice System in Cambodia. Phnom Penh: ACIL and AusAID. December 2003.	Prevent People Trafficking (ARCPPT)/ Ministry of Justice		Ministry of Justice
Gender and Education in Cambodia: Historical Review of Trends and the Way Forward: Final Draft	Bredenberg, Kurt, Lon Somanee, and Ma Sopheap/ Oxfam-GB	2003	Oxfam-GB
Guidelines for Preparing Gender Responsive EFA Plans	UNESCO Asia and Pacific Regional Bureau for Education, Bangkok, Thailand	2003	UNESCO
<i>Cambodia Country Paper</i> . Paper presented by H.E. Mrs. You Ay, Secretary of State, MoWVA, at the 2nd Regional Conference on "Illegal Labour Movements: The Case of Trafficking in Women and Children". Bangkok, November 2002	MoWA/ Royal Government of Cambodia	2002	MoWA
Government and NGO Response to Counter Trafficking of Women and Children in Cambodia: A Review of Programmes, Funders and Programmatic Gaps	Preece, Shelley/ The Asia Foundation	2002	The Asia Foundation
Gender in Community Forestry Management. A Case Study	Sun Vann and Kouk Theun/ CBNRM Learning Initiative, World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF)	2002	CBNRM Learning Initiative of the WWF (Phnom Penh)/ Oxfam America
Draft Advocacy Strategy 2001-2005, Ministry of Women's and Veterans' Affairs	MoWVA	2001	MoWA
Gender Appraisal of the Education Strategy Plan 2001-2005	Velasco, E./ MoEYS	2001	MoEYS
"I Live in Fear"/ Consequences of Small Arms and Light Weapons on Women and Children in Cambodia	Yem, Sam Oeun & R. F. Catalla, Working Group for Weapons Reduction (WGWR)	2001	WGWR (Phnom Penh)
Tool Kits for Gender-Responsive Mekong River Basin Development	Mekong River Commission Secretariat	2000	Mekong River Commission (MRC)
"Environmental Problems and Gender Issues: Experiences of Indigenous Communities in Ratanakiri Province, Cambodia". <i>Indigenous Affairs</i> . No. 4	Van den Berg, Conny/ International Work Group for Indigenous Affairs (IWGIA)	2000	Crossroads to Development (CTD) Library
Population Matters in Cambodia: A Study on Gender, Reproductive Health, and Related Population Concerns in Cambodia.	Beaufils, Laure/ UNFPA	2000	UNFPA
The Social Impact of WFP Food for Work Projects: Analysis of Opportunities and Constraints in WFP Food-for-Work (FFW) Projects Across Gender Groups	World Food Programme	2000	WFP
When the Poor Are Also "Mae Mai" 1999 Gender Research Project Working Papers	World Food Programme	2000	WFP

World Food Programme - Cambodia. Summary Report	World Food Programme	2000	WFP
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<http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/cedaw/34sess.htm>
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DEFINITION OF TERMS

Dependency ratio refers to the number of persons less than 15 years and 65 or over years per 100 adults aged 15-64 years (NIS/ MoP, 2004)

Dropout rate (%) is the percentage of a cohort of pupils (total, male, female) enrolled in the first grade of primary education who are not expected to reach the last grade of primary education. It is calculated as 100% minus the survival rate to the last grade of primary education. (UNESCO Institute for Statistics)

Female-headed households refer to households that are headed by females due to the absence or death of the male family head or bread winner.

Fertility rate is the number of children that the average woman will have in her lifetime needed to determine long-term population growth.

Food Poverty Line, is based on the estimated cost of a basket of food that would provide a subsistence-level dietary intake of 2,100 calories per day.

Gender development index (GDI): A composite index measuring average achievement in the three basic dimensions captured in the human development index – a long and healthy life, knowledge and a decent standard of living – adjusted to account for inequalities between men and women.

Gender empowerment index: A composite index measuring gender inequality in three basic dimensions of empowerment – economic participation and decision-making, political participation and decision-making and power over economic resources.

Gender mainstreaming is the integration of gender concerns into the analyses, formulation and monitoring of policies, programmes and projects, with the objective of ensuring that these reduce inequalities between women and men (MoWA, 2006:10). According to the United Nations Economic and Social Council/ ECOSOC (1997), mainstreaming a gender perspective is the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in any area and at all levels. It is a strategy for making the concerns and experiences of women as well as of men an integral part of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres, so that women and men benefit equally, and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal of mainstreaming is to achieve gender equality.

Gender stereotypes refer to commonly held ideas, beliefs, attitudes or practices that discriminate or promote bias or hatred against people based on their sex rather than their individual merits, but can also refer to any and all systemic differentiations based on the sex of the individuals. **Gender role stereotyping**, on the other hand, is the portrayal of women and men in social roles based on the traditional gender division of labour. Such stereotyping reinforces a social norm and makes it difficult to change: for example, the portrayal of men as decision maker within the family or society, or women as housekeepers (MoWA, 2006:11).

Gini coefficient, is a measure of inequality where a Gini of 0 represents perfect equality while a Gini of 1 represents perfect inequality.

Gross Domestic Product (GDP): The sum of the gross value added by all resident producers in the economy plus any product taxes and minus any subsidies not included in the value of the products. It is calculated without making deductions for depreciation of fabricated assets or for depletion and degradation of natural resources (The World Bank)

Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita: GDP per capita is gross domestic product divided by midyear population. GDP is the sum of gross value added by all resident producers in the economy plus any product taxes and minus any subsidies not included in the value of the products. It is calculated without making deductions for depreciation of fabricated assets or for depletion and degradation of natural resources. Data are in constant U.S. dollars (The World Bank)

Gross enrolment ratio (GER) or gross enrolment index (GEI) is a statistical measure used in the education sector to give a rough indication of the level of education –primary, secondary, and/or tertiary – among residents in a given country or jurisdiction. The GER is calculated by dividing the total number of students enrolled at each level (regardless of age) by the population of the age group that should be enrolled at that level at the start of the academic year.

HIV prevalence (% of adults) is the percentage of people ages 15–49 infected with HIV (The World Bank, Health, Nutrition and Population website)

Human development index (HDI) is a comparative measure of life expectancy, education, and standard of living for countries worldwide. It is a standard means of measuring well-being, especially child welfare. It is used to determine and indicate whether a country is a developed, developing or underdeveloped country, and also to measure the impact of economic policies on quality of life.

Infant mortality is the death of infants in the first year of life. Related statistical categories: Perinatal (PN) mortality only includes deaths between the foetal viability (28 weeks gestation or 1000g) and the end of the 7th day after delivery. Neonatal (NN) mortality only includes deaths in the first 27 days of life. Post-neonatal (PNN) death only includes deaths after 28 days of life but before one year. Under 5 mortality refers to death of a child one year and above but before reaching age five. Child mortality (CM) includes deaths within the first five years. Infant mortality rate (IMR) is the number of newborns dying under a year of age divided by the number of live births during the year. The infant mortality rate is also called the infant death rate.

Inflation rate is defined as the rate of increase in the general level of prices, as measured against some baseline of purchasing power. Inflation is viewed as caused by the interaction of the supply of money with output and interest rates or the relationship between net changes in the money supply and two of the most commonly used broad measures of inflation: the purchasing power and consumer price indexes.

Labour force comprises people who meet the ILO definition of the economically active population. It includes both the employed and the unemployed. While national practices vary in the treatment of such groups as the armed forces and seasonal or part-time workers, the labour force generally includes the armed forces, the unemployed, and first-time job-seekers, but excludes homemakers and other unpaid caregivers and workers in the informal sector (ILO/ The World Bank)

Life expectancy is a statistical measure defined as the expected (mean) survival of human beings based upon a number of criteria such as gender and geographic location. Popularly, it is most often construed to mean the life expectancy at birth for a given human population, which is the same as the expected age at death. However, technically, life expectancy means the expected number of years remaining to live, and it can be calculated for any age.

Literacy rate, adult (% of people 15+) is the percentage of people (total, male, female) ages 15 and older who can, with understanding, both read and write a short, simple statement about their everyday life out of the whole population (total, male, female) ages 15 and older. (UNESCO Institute for Statistics)

Literacy rate, youth (% aged 15-24) is the percentage of people ages 15 to 24 who can, with understanding, both read and write a short, simple statement about their everyday life (UNESCO Institute for Statistics)

Maternal Mortality Rate is a measure of the risk of death directly related to the pregnancy once a woman has become pregnant. It is usually measured in terms of maternal deaths per 100,000 live births.

Net enrolment rate is the number of pupils (total, male, female) in the theoretical age group for primary or secondary education enrolled in schools expressed as a percentage of the (total, male, female) population in that age group (UNESCO Institute for Statistics)

Population includes all residents (total, male, female) regardless of legal status or citizenship – except for refugees not permanently settled in the country of asylum, who are generally considered part of the population of their country of origin. (The World Bank)

Population below poverty line is number of people in a country that live below the minimum level of income deemed necessary to achieve an adequate standard of living. It is more common to use only one standard of poverty threshold in order to compare economic welfare levels. Determining the poverty line is usually done by finding the total cost of all the essential resources that an average human adult consumes in one year to maintain a tolerable life.

Population below food poverty refers to the number of people in a country who do not have sufficient means to maintain food consumption levels needed to avoid chronic hunger or even starvation in times of food shortages.

Population growth (annual %) is the exponential change of the population for the period indicated.

Pupil-teacher ratio is the average number of pupils per teacher in primary and/or secondary education in a given school year, based on headcounts for both pupils and teachers (UNESCO Institute for Statistics)

Reproductive rights refer to the right of any individual or couple to decide freely and responsibly on the number, spacing and timing of their children and to have the information and means to do so, and the right to attain the highest standard of sexual and reproductive health (MoWA, 2006:13).

Survival rate: This indicator is used to show the extent to which the school system can retain pupils, with or without repetition, and indicates the dropout rate. It is also used to measure the impact of repetition and dropout on internal efficiency. A survival Rate approaching 100 per cent indicates a high level of retention and low dropout incidence. Survival Rate may vary from grade to grade, giving indications of grades with relatively more or less dropouts. The distinction between survival rate with and without repetition is necessary to compare the extent of wastage due to dropout and repetition. The Survival Rate to Grade 5 of primary education is of particular interest since completion of at least four years of schooling is commonly considered a pre-requisite for a sustainable level of literacy.

Unemployed refers to one who is willing and able to work for pay yet is unable to find employment. The unemployment rate is the number of unemployed workers divided by the total civilian labour force, which includes all those willing and able to work for pay - both unemployed and employed.

Violence against women (VAW) is "any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in physical, sexual or mental harm or suffering to women, including threat of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life", according to the United Nations Declaration on the elimination of Violence against Women. This declaration also

notes that violence against women encompasses amongst others "physical, sexual and psychological violence occurring in the family and in the general community including battering, sexual abuse of female children, dowry-related violence, marital rape, female genital mutilation and other traditional practices harmful to women, non-spousal violence and violence related to the exploitation, sexual harassment, and intimidation at work, in educational institutions and elsewhere, trafficking in women, forced prostitution, and violence perpetrated or condoned by the state" (MoWA, 2006:15).

Women in Development (WID) is a development framework or approach which gives recognition to the distinct needs and capacities of women with considerable focus on developing strategies and action programmes that will facilitate their participation in the productive sector (MoWA, 2006:15).