



KINGDOM OF CAMBODIA
Nation Religion King



ROYAL GOVERNMENT OF CAMBODIA

ANNUAL PROGRESS REPORT 2013

**ACHIEVING CAMBODIA'S MILLENNIUM
DEVELOPMENT GOALS**

Prepared by Ministry of Planning
Phnom Penh, April 2014

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ABBREVIATIONS

AIDS	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome	MMR	Maternal Mortality Rate
ANC	Antenatal Care	MoEYS	Ministry of Education, Youth, and Sports
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations	MoH	Ministry of Health
CDB	Commune Database	MoP	Ministry of Planning
CDC	Cambodia Development Corporation	MoT	Ministry of Tourism
CDHS	Cambodia Demographic and Health Survey	MoWA	Ministry of Women's Affairs
CMDG	Cambodia Millennium Development Goals	MoWRM	Ministry of Water Resources and Meteorology
CMR	Child Mortality Rate	MPWT	Ministry of Public Works and Transport
CPA	Community Protected Areas	MRD	Ministry of Rural Development
CSES	Cambodia Socioeconomic Survey	MTR	Mid-term Review
ERW	Explosive Remnants of War	NBC	National Bank of Cambodia
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment	NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
FoB	Free on Board	NSDP	National Strategic Development Plan
FTA	Free Trade Area	PA	Protected Area
FWUC	Farmer Water User Community	PIP	Public Investment Programme
GDP	Gross Domestic Product	PPAP	Phnom Penh Autonomous Port
GMS	Greater Mekong Sub-region	RCG	Royal Government of Cambodia
IMR	Infant Mortality Rate	RFB	Reference Food Basket
KWH	Kilo Watt Hour	SME	Small and Medium Enterprise
LDC	Least Developed Country	TFR	Total Fertility Rate
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation	U5MR	Under 5 Mortality Rate
MAFF	Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry, Fishery	WATSAN	Water and Sanitation
MEF	Ministry of Economy and Finance	WTO	World Trade Organization
MIME	Ministry of Industry, Mining, and Energy	YoY	Year on Year



SAMDECH AKKA MOHA SENA PADEI TECO HUN SEN PRIME MINISTER OF THE KINGDOM OF CAMBODIA

FOREWORD

The Royal Government of Cambodia is deeply committed to achieving the Millennium Development Goals. For doing this, it has been pursuing inclusive economic growth through planned development in a market framework. Such an approach is reiterated in the Rectangular Strategy Phase III, which is the government's development policy statement for the period 2014-2018. RGC is also striving to fully integrate the country into the ASEAN and benefit from it. Finally, pulling the country out of its Least Developed Country Status is among the high priorities that the government is pursuing. The time for achieving many of these targets and goals is short: some of them must be complete by 2015 while others by 2018. Thus, we must work hard for meeting the aspirations of our peoples and the nation.

During the period of the Fourth Legislature—which also corresponds with the duration of the NSDP Update 2009-2013—the Ministry of Planning, on behalf of the Royal Government of Cambodia, has reported on the progress of the CMDGs annually, beginning from 2010. This CMDG Report 2013 in the 4th Annual Report, but it is the first of its type in the sense that it delves into sub-national level analysis, it provides a special focus on inequality, and it punctuates the text with human stories from the field. Finally, it presents an Acceleration Framework, which could be useful for Cambodia in the development planning process in the future. The report is a definite improvement over the previous reports in terms of using more advanced statistical tools and methods to arrive at clearer policy recommendations. I congratulate the Ministry of Planning for constantly striving to improve upon the quality of reporting on our progress.

Cambodia has achieved a great deal on many aspects: agriculture has grown to the extent that the country has become a net rice exporter, land distribution and titling exercises have been proceeding to the best of our capacities, and infrastructure has advanced rapidly. Non-farm sectors, which had slumped in 2009 owing to the international economic crisis, too have smartly turned around. As a result, the consumption inequality has been reducing, and people are earning more and living better compared to what they did until a few years back. Of special mention is the country's remarkable progress in reducing the poverty rates in the recent years. Also notable is the improved governance in all its dimensions, a fact earlier noted in the recent Mid-Term Review Report (MTR) of the NSDP Update 2009-2013 and is now confirmed in the report. There is a downside, though. While almost all of the children get enrolled in schools, not so many complete the 9-year basic education that we are committed to providing for all children. Next, children's health and nutrition, and women's nutrition, continue to be causes of worry. Finally, there are incomplete tasks in regard to the environment and forests. Thus, while some progress is visible, our task is certainly not complete yet. The country has to strive hard until the time when all problems of underdevelopment, poverty and human suffering are effectively resolved.

The Royal Government is deeply appreciates the contributions of the United Nations Development Programme, our partnering agency in preparing this CMDG Report 2013, which presented RGC achievements.

Phnom Penh, 11 April, 2014

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HUN SEN

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The Royal Government of Cambodia has made an assessment of the progress in achieving Cambodia's Millennium Development Goals (CMDGs) on an annual basis since 2010. In addition to the central topic, CMDGs achievement, the 2013 Report briefly presents the country's macroeconomic situation and puts forth a CMDG Acceleration Framework. The CMDG Acceleration Framework recommends policies and approaches to accelerate the progress of the CMDGs and other human development goals, which could provide the essential inputs for the implementation of the National Strategic Development Plan (NSDP), the NSDP 2014-2018. Moreover, this report for the first time discusses the progress in achieving CMDGs at the sub-national level and also highlights upon the prevailing inequality in the country and its impact on CMDG achievement.

A SNAPSHOT OF THE PROGRESS ON CMDGS

There are nine Cambodia Millennium Development Goals (CMDGs). Under each of these, there are a number of targets and indicators. The following text presents a brief on the progress made on the goals seen through select key indicators.

CMDG1: Eradicating extreme poverty and hunger

Poverty Rate: In 2007: 47.8%; Current Year (2011): 19.8%; Target (2015): 19.5%

Share of the poorest 20% population in total consumption: Baseline (2007): 7%; Current Year (2011): 9%; Target (2015): 11%

Assessment: Targets in reducing poverty rates have been achieved and inequality reduction is on track. Targets on children's and women's nutrition status are steadily improving though there is still some way to go.

CMDG2: Achieving universal literacy and basic education

Primary School Enrolment Rate: Baseline (2008/2009): 94%; Current Year (2012/2013): 97%; Target (2015): 99%.

Literacy Rate in Age Group 15-24 Years: Baseline (2005): 80%; Current Year (2012): 92.1%; Target (2015): 94.5%.

Assessment: Primary school and literacy targets are on track. More effort needs to be made to improve performance beyond the primary school levels.

CMDG3: Promote gender equality and empower women

Gender parity in Primary and Lower-secondary School Levels: Met

Gender Parity in Upper-secondary School Level: Baseline (2007/2008): 69%; Current Year (2012/2013): 93%; Target (2015): 100%

Representation in Public Offices: Baseline (2007): 32%; Current Year (2011/2012): 35%; Target (2015): 50%.

Assessment: Most targets are met and good progress is made on others. Targets related to public offices, though, are more difficult to achieve in short periods as hiring and retiring of employees, or getting them into or out of public offices through elections, are incremental processes.

CMDG4: Reducing child mortality

Infant Mortality Rate: Baseline (2000): 95 (per 1,000 live births); Current Year (2010): 45; Target (2015): 50

Under-5 Mortality Rate: Baseline (2000): 124; Current Year (2010): 54; Target 2015: 65

Assessment: All targets are met.

CMDG5: Improving maternal health

Maternal Mortality Rate: Baseline (2000): 437 (per 100,000 live births); Current (2010): 206; Target (2015): 250

Attended Births: Baseline (2008): 58% of the women giving births; Current (2012): 75%; Target 2015: 87%

Assessment: Targets are met or are well on their way to being met.

CMDG6: Combating HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases

HIV/AIDS Prevalence: Baseline (2008): 0.7% of the population; Current Year (2010): 0.7%; Target (2015): 0.4%

Malaria Mortality: Baseline (1993): 1.5 (per 100,000 population); Current Year (2012): 0.3%; Target (2015): 0.8%

Assessment: Targets are met or are on track.

CMDG7: Ensuring environmental sustainability

Forest Cover Baseline (2008): 56% (2009); Current Year (2013): 59%; Target (2015): 60%

Proportion of People Having Access to Potable Water Baseline (2009): 42% [rural], 78% [urban]; Current Year (2011): 43% [rural], 81% [urban]; Target (2015): 50% [rural], 80% [urban]

Proportion of People Having Access to Sanitation Baseline 2009: 23% [rural], 85% [urban]; Current Year (2011): 33% [rural], 88% [urban]; Target 2015: 33% [rural], 74% [urban]

Assessment: Targets are met or are on track. The initiatives require close monitoring.

CMDG8: Forging a global partnership for development

There are no measurable indicators mentioned on the Goal. Seen qualitatively, partnerships between the government and development partners have been maintained within the framework of the Global Partnership for Effective Development Cooperation. Additionally, international NGOs and have continued to find interest in working in Cambodia.

Assessment: With the changing era, both economic openness and partnerships are likely to undergo change. Managing this change and having to live with fewer foreign concessional inflows are challenges.

CMDG9: De-mining, removing explosive remnants of war, and victim assistance

No targets have been set. Nevertheless, large areas have been cleared of mines and ERWs but fatalities of mine explosions continue to happen. Resource shortage is an impediment.

Assessment: This task will be rendered difficult by resource constraints and the scope of the problem.

PLANNING FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Given the fact that CMDGs are highly interrelated, this report develops an Acceleration Framework to achieve them through enmeshing elements of the CMDGs with the overall and sectoral growth strategies. There are seven broad thrust areas on which the Acceleration Framework has been developed.

1. Inclusive and sustainable growth to reduce poverty
2. Poverty-reduction policies
3. Human capital for human development
4. Conserving natural resources for sustainable development and livelihoods
5. Women's equal participation and empowerment
6. Improvement in MNCH and disease control
7. Safe water and improved sanitation, especially in rural areas

While these areas cover almost the whole economy, some key areas for targeting investments are: small-scale agriculture, irrigation, non-farm enterprises, education at all levels, quality human capital, nutrition, inexpensive health services, universal safe water and sanitation, alternative energy sources, mapping land and demarking areas by ownership, demining, and strengthening M&E. Gender and environment would cross-cut all the areas. The whole strategy requires multiple levels of partnerships between the government, private sector, civil society and the development partners.



A Cambodian farmer cleaning rice grains after the harvesting in Prey Veng province.

INTRODUCTION

1. THE DEVELOPMENT CONTEXT

Cambodia, classified as a least developed country (LDC) by the United Nations, had a per capita income of some US\$1,000 in 2013. It is a post-war transitional economy, and has been a constitutional monarchy since the early/mid-1990s.

Cambodia pursues a development strategy through planned development in a market framework. The Royal Government of Cambodia (RGC) has evolved a 'Rectangular Strategy' (RS), which has been the lodestone of development since 2004. It provides a development framework implemented through five-year plans.¹ The RS is a dynamic document: it has undergone three changes in the last decade to keep up with changes in the socioeconomic conditions. In essence, it combines four key elements:

1. Ensuring an average annual economic growth of 7%. This growth should be sustainable, inclusive, equitable and resilient to shocks, through diversifying the economic base to achieve a more broad-based and competitive structure, with low and manageable inflation, a stable exchange rate and steady growth in international reserves.
2. Creating more jobs, especially for youth, through further improvement in Cambodia's competitiveness to attract and encourage both domestic and foreign investments.
3. Achieving more than one percentage point reduction in the poverty rate annually, including realising the Cambodia Millennium Development Goals (CMDG), while placing high priority on the development of human resources and sustainable management of environmental and natural resources.
4. Improving institutional capacity and governance at both national and sub-national levels and ensuring effectiveness and efficiency of public services to better serve the people.

Most elements of the RS Phase 3 thus embed one or other complementary factors required for the Millennium Development Goals (MDG), implicitly and explicitly.

2. MACROECONOMIC OUTLOOK²

Cambodia's Growth Domestic Product (GDP) has grown at 6 to 7% annually since the late 1990s. The per capita GDP has exceeded \$1,000 for the first time in 2013; it is estimated at \$1,036 in (estimate) at current price. Cambodia is now among the few low-income, post-war countries to graduate out of LDC status. However, graduating out of this category would imply a reduction in some international assistance, currently estimated at about 8 to 9% of GDP. There is some respite, though, as there is a grace period of three to four years for countries to adjust to being without much external assistance, but grants would quickly give way to loans.

Until about 2008, both revenues and expenditures were growing at a steady pace, although expenditures were some 2 to 3% higher than revenues, bridged by external budgetary support. However in 2009, due to the global financial crisis, this gap widened to 8.6% of GDP; total public expenditure



Fishermen unloading small fish caught in the Tonle Sap in Siem Rea province.

¹ The 5-year plans are referred to as National Strategic Development Plans (NSDP) in Cambodia.

² This section has been kept short deliberately as more detailed reporting was done in the 2012 version of this APR-CMDG Report. There are no fresh data available since then.

increased by 15.5% on average per year through 2009-2011, much higher than the revenue. The Government is now committed to bridging the revenue-expenditure gap through implementing Public Finance Management Reform (PFMR), although the path is not easy. This is because Cambodia aims to fully integrate into ASEAN by 2015 and the customs tax—an important component of the revenues—would alter to conform to the ASEAN guidelines. This could result in a reduction of overall revenues, making the task of bridging the revenue-expenditure gap more arduous.

The trend rate of inflation has been in the range 3-5% in the last 4-5 years since 2009, which borders acceptability.

The balance of trade and the current account balance have been negative in the range of 7 to 8% of GDP for a long time, and the gap has been bridged by capital inflows and concessional assistance. The government is acutely aware of this issue and is working towards finding a lasting solution.

3. SECTORAL PERFORMANCE

3.1. Agriculture

Cambodia's main crop continues to be paddy (constituting some 72% of the cropped area in 2012), although other crops are now picking up. Table 1.1 below summarises some basic statistics relating to agriculture. The paddy yield-rate has risen appreciably, although the level is below potential: it could be in the range 4-5 tonnes/ha, a rate both China and Vietnam have achieved. The RGC is now promoting pump irrigation, constructing large irrigation dams (including distribution canals) and strengthening Farmer Water User Communities (FWUC) for optimal water use.

In the recent past, the area under all crops had risen at 5+% annually; the real reason for an increase in agricultural production, and hence farmers' incomes. However, this trend is unlikely to be sustained, as land frontiers are limited. Future growth, therefore, will have to stem mainly from the yield rates, be it in paddy or non-rice crops.

3.2. Industry

Production

Cambodia has a narrow industrial base limited to garment manufacture, some food processing and construction. However, each of these has shown a brisk expansion in the last decade. After the downturn in 2009, garment manufacture was quick to pick up. Construction, which slowed after a lag of one year, began to pick up in 2011. There were brisk activities reported in 2012, although hard data are yet to emerge. The industrial growth has been associated with some labour absorption in non-farm sectors. Since labour productivity in non-farm sectors is higher, this is a key driver in reducing poverty. Additionally, as non-farm activities are often concentrated in a few centres, this promotes urbanisation, giving people access to a range of services (education, health, others). The message is clear: there is a need to graduate out of the present stage of industrial development to one which is more diversified and adds more value. The country has now established well over a dozen Special Economic Zone and a multi-purpose terminal area to further promote industrial development.



A road newly built through a jungle in Koh Kong province.

Table 1.1: Agriculture – Some Key Statistics

Year	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Paddy yield (t/ha)	2.75	2.84	2.97	3.17	3.17	3.30
Area under all crops (incl. permanent crops and plantations)	3,319,935	3,693,523	3,319,961	4,203,250	4,394,534	4,505,267
Paddy area harvested (ha)	2,613,363	2,674,603	2,777,323	2,766,617	2,980,297	2,968,963
% Agricultural area for which irrigation facility created through large embankment system	25.4	24.8	25.6	24.7	-	-

Source: Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (MAFF) and Ministry of Water Resources and Meteorology (MOWRM)

Energy

Electricity consumption increased from 139KWH/person in 2008 to 268KWH/person in 2013, growing around 14% per year. In 2013, Cambodia's energy sources can almost cover all consumption demands. The number of all types of electrical networks putting in operation from 2008 to 2013 has remarkably increased, making 51% of all villages in the entire country in 2013 accessible to electricity supply. The main challenges are to continue the increase in electricity production to meet the growing demands and the expansion of the coverage of the distribution network to all remaining villages and preparation of a more reasonable electricity tariff for consumers.

Infrastructure

At latest count, the length of national roads was 5,623 km, provincial roads 6,641 km, and rural roads 35,000 km; adding up to 47,264 km. This is small for a country of Cambodia's size, especially when railways are virtually non-existent. However, the rate of growth in the construction of roads and bridges has been brisk, at 600-700 km/year (for major roads).³ The Sihanoukville Autonomous Port handles most international cargo. Cambodia also has seaports located in Koh Kong and Kampot. Cambodia's navigable inland waterway measures 1,750 km. In the last five years, the government initiated work on a 265 km rail track (Samrong to Batdeoung) in the southern region and a 71 km rail track (Sisophon to Poipet) in the northern region. Feasibility studies are being conducted for connecting Battambang with Trapaing Sre and Poipet with Siem Reap by railway. Once these routes become functional, Cambodia will find it easier to connect with the ASEAN and different parts of the country.

3.3. Services

Tourism

The year 2009 saw a lull in tourist arrivals, but in 2010, there were some 2.51 million tourists, an increase of about 16% over 2009. In 2011, some 2.88 million tourists arrived and in 2012, 3.58 million tourists arrived. Tourists from Asia now dominate: of the 3.58 million arrivals in 2012, 2.71 million were from Asia. Tourists from both Europe and America showed an increase of about 12 to 13% in 2012 over 2011, despite western economies remaining troubled.



Farmers harvesting organic rice paddy in Prey Veng province.

3.4. Labour

The growth process, especially in labour-intensive sectors, has resulted in a notable transfer of workers from farm to non-farm activities: in 2009, 66% of the labour-force worked in the farm sector, which reduced to 62% in 2011.⁴

3.5. Governance

The investment rate in recent years has been 24 to 25% of GDP. Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) peaked in 2007, ebbed in 2008, and picked up after 2009. This suggests no deterioration in investor confidence, a reflection of good economic governance.

The government is committed to implement key reforms to instill good governance. The four key elements of good governance defined here are:

- a. Fighting Corruption
- b. Legal and Judicial Reform
- c. Public Administration Reform
- d. Reform of the Armed Forces

The country has adopted the Anti-corruption Law, and has established an Anti-corruption Institution consisting of the National Anti-corruption Council and the Anti-corruption Unit, each helping to curb corruption. In judicial reform, the government has modernised the legal framework, enhanced awareness about the law, strengthened the professional capacity and accountability of the law-related officials, increased the budget for the judiciary, and expanded out-

³ This includes both construction and rehabilitation of roads.

⁴ These numbers are obtained from the annual Cambodia Socioeconomic Surveys and pertain to the 'usual status' criterion of enumerating work.



A farmer fishing in a rice field outskirts of Phnom Penh.

of-court settlements. In public administration reforms, the government has managed the size of the civil service and yet almost doubled their salaries in the last five years, established a Single Window mechanism, restructured the administrative system and established a financial system at the sub-national levels, and established rules to support the reforms process. In the reforms of the Armed Forces the achievements include: protecting the sovereignty of the country and contributing to world peace, establishing the Supreme Council of National Defence, promoting implementation of Cambodia National Police Strategic Plan, and promoting the Safe Village/Commune Policy for strengthening security and public order, among others.

4. CAMBODIA'S MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS – A BRIEF

In 2003, the RGC officially embraced the eight universally agreed-upon MDGs, with some modifications and localisation to better suit local realities. These are known as the Cambodia Millennium Development Goals (CMDGs). The RGC added de-mining, explosive remnants of war (ERW) and victim assistance as Cambodia's ninth MDG, as more than two decades of devastating war has left large areas of the country contaminated by mines and ERW.

As stated earlier, the RGC has indigenised the CMDG targets and indicators to match local realities. CMDG targets do not necessarily entail achieving the same goals as in the generic MDGs, for example, halving or reducing by one-third poverty, mortality rates, etc. Instead, the Government has fixed quantitative targets for almost all indicators, which closely match with the country's five-year plan targets based on an earlier benchmark. In fact, the sectoral targets in the plans are fixed to match with the CMDGs (fixed earlier, in 2002/2003). Components of the CMDGs find a place in the entire group of social and economic ministries; they are, thus, an integral part of the national planning process in the five-year plans.

The nine CMDGs are listed in Table 1.2 below. A more detailed list of targets and indicators is discussed in Chapter 2.

Table 1.2: Cambodia Millennium Development Goals

	Goal 1: Eradicating extreme poverty and hunger
	Goal 2: Achieving universal literacy and basic education
	Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women
	Goal 4: Reducing child mortality
	Goal 5: Improving maternal health
	Goal 6: Combating HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases
	Goal 7: Ensuring environmental sustainability
	Goal 8: Forging a global partnership for development
	Goal 9: De-mining, removing explosive remnants of war, and victim assistance

THE REPORT OF CMDGs

Cambodia has been bringing out annual updates on progress made on its five-year plans with special focus on CMDGs. This report is the fourth in the sequence. It presents and discusses spatial issues, which are more disaggregated compared to what was done earlier. It also places special emphasis on inequity. Additionally, it presents a brief CMDG Acceleration Framework based on the performance so far and detailed discussions with senior government officials and development partner agencies. This is the first time that a MDG Acceleration Framework has been developed for all CMDGs in Cambodia.

PERFORMANCE ON CMDGS

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents an account of the progress made on the nine CMDGs, stated in Chapter 1, at national and sub-national levels.⁵ The unit of disaggregation is the province. While some departmental reports present further disaggregated profiles, they are exclusively hinged on project databases and are written with a view to present a limited, though important, purpose; they do not report on CMDGs per se in their generic sense. In contrast, this report is closer to being an MDG report.

Limitations: Not all data are available on an annual basis; nevertheless, effort has been made to patch together a cogent profile of the performance to date. As far as possible, the presentation has been restricted to graphics created in Excel and statistical estimations made in STATA. More complicated illustrations like 3-D maps or graphic designs are avoided, keeping in view the national requirements and sensibilities.



GOAL 1: ERADICATE EXTREME POVERTY AND HUNGER

The different broad targets identified under this goal are:

1. Reduce by 2015, the proportion of people living in poverty to $\leq 19.5\%$, and hunger to $\leq 10\%$;
2. Raise the share in consumption of the poorest 20% of the population to $\geq 11\%$;
3. Reduce prevalence of underweight children (<5 years) to $\leq 19\%$, stunted children to $\leq 25\%$ and wasted children to $\leq 6\%$;
4. Reduce prevalence of anaemia among children aged 6-59 months to 42% and among women aged 15-49 to 42%;
5. Increase the proportion of households using iodised salt to 90%;
6. Reduce prevalence of working children (≤ 17 years) to $\leq 8\%$ of the total children in this age group.

ON POVERTY AND INEQUALITY

Aggregate Trends in Poverty

Between the 1990s and 2010, the RGC measured poverty using a poverty line that the World Bank developed in 1997, based on data pertaining to 1993-1994 [from the first Cambodia Socioeconomic Survey (CSES)]. In 1993-1994, the poverty rate was estimated at about 39% of the population, implying that the CMDG goal would require reducing the poverty rate to 19.5%. According to this (old) poverty line, the poverty rate was 14.6% in 2009: the CMDG target was achieved. However, the government redefined the poverty line in 2011, raising the bar. It also decided that the target for reduction in the poverty rate will continue to be 19.5% by 2015, despite an (upward) revision in the poverty line.

Box 2.1: A brief on the new poverty line

1. The food poverty line is defined as the cost of purchasing food equivalent to 2,200 Kilocalories in a Reference Food Basket (RFB) designed to reflect food consumption patterns in the lowest 5th - 30th quintiles, by consumption distribution from the bottom. There is one single nutritional norm for the whole country.
2. The allowance for non-food items is the average value of non-food items consumed in the 20-30% (per capita) consumption brackets, separately calculated for rural areas, other urban areas and Phnom Penh.
3. A small token allowance for clean water has been made, for the first time anywhere in developing countries.

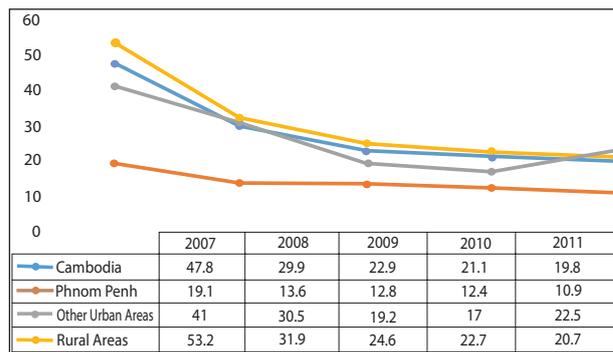
Note: All calculations are based on the CSES database, which has been conducted annually since 2007.

⁵ Official government reports have so far presented the national picture only. The sub-national profile is prepared using the Commune Database by the Ministry of Planning under a project. It does not yet have a national consensus.

Recent trends in the poverty rate, based on the new poverty line, can be seen in Figure 2.1. The target of halving the proportion of people below the national poverty line between the early 1990s and 2015 (i.e. reducing the poverty rate to about 19.5%) has almost been met, despite a stiffer poverty line and an unchanged goalpost. This is a definite achievement. The reasons: double-digit growth in GDP for three to four years, urbanisation, labour-absorption in non-farm sectors, and reduction in inequality.

Calculations based on the new poverty line suggest that there was a steady reduction in the rural poverty rates from about 53% in 2007 to about 21% in 2011: steep in 2008 and 2009, and gradual thereafter. This is similar to the aggregate trend, and expectedly so, as close to 80% of the population resided in rural areas in these years. The reduction in poverty rates in Other Urban Areas is similar. Phnom Penh, however, shows only a gradual fall in poverty rates. What this suggests is that trends in poverty reduction are led by significant changes having happened in rural areas, assisted by large and sustained investments in agriculture and rural infrastructure.

Figure 2.1: Trends in Poverty Rates in Cambodia by Broad Strata, 2007-2011

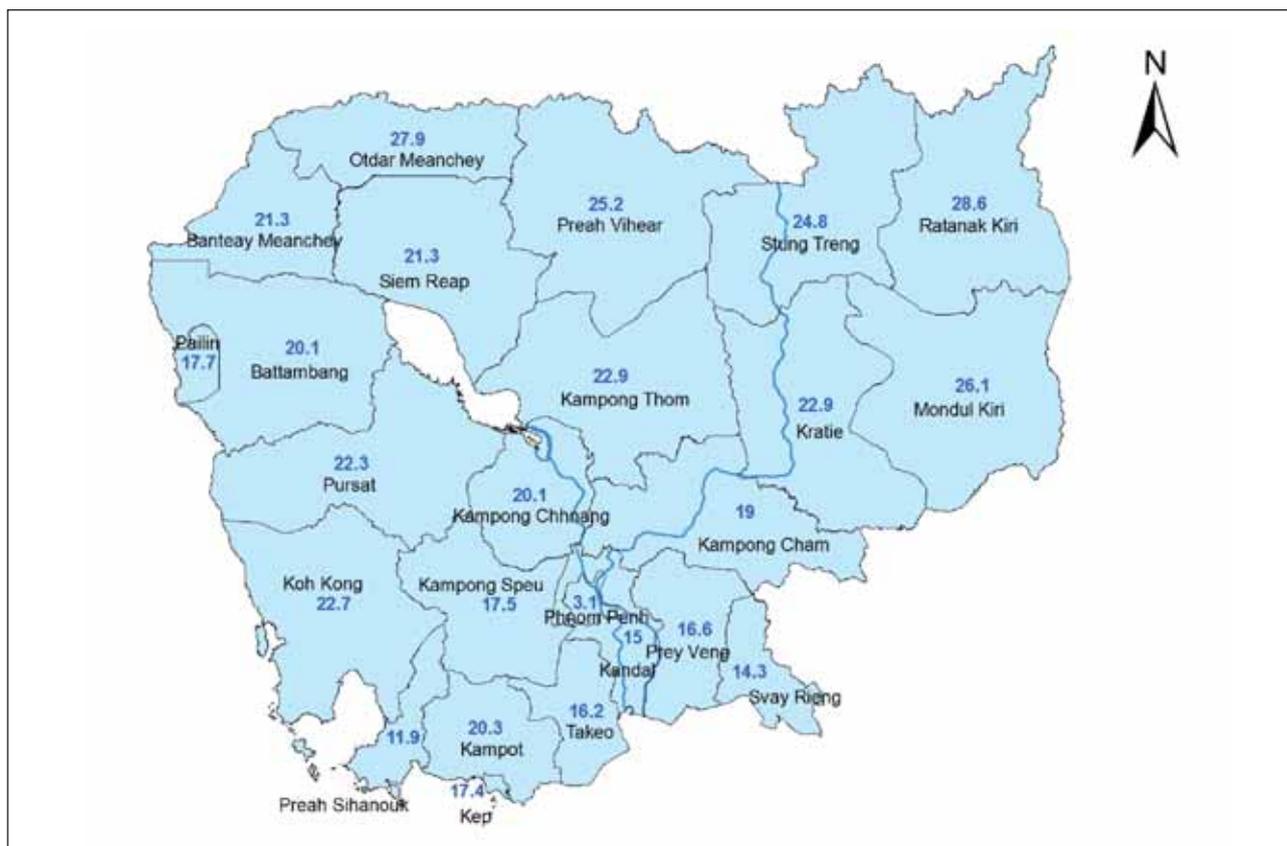


Source: Calculated from CSES

POVERTY RATES AT SUB-NATIONAL LEVELS

The CSES is the only source that collects data on consumption and standards of living in Cambodia, but its sample size and design do not permit disaggregations at province level. However, using the Commune Database (CDB)⁶ it is possible to group together proxy (stock) indicators of poverty to arrive at a composite Poverty Index, and hence poverty rate (see Box 2.2 for the method).

Figure 2.2: Poverty Rates in Provinces, 2011



Source: Calculated, based on CDB and benchmarked with CSES

6 CDB is an administrative database. It collects data from villages and communes from records maintained at that level. This is the only source that provides broad-based data at sub-national levels.

Box 2.2: Calculating Proxy Poverty Rates at the Province Level

A Poverty Index is first calculated using five groups of variables:

1. Assets (motorcycles, bicycles, house-types in villages);
2. Facilities (electricity, clean water, sanitation in villages);
3. Human endowments (literacy, school attendance in villages);
4. Work/productivity (non-farm employment, paddy productivity, <1 ha farmers, dependency ratio in villages); and
5. Isolation (distance of villages from urban centres).

The province-specific poverty rates are calculated using a three-step process. It deploys the method used for constructing the Human Development Index.

Step 1: Calculate Individual Variable Index (EVI) (for X_i) = $[(\text{Actual } (X_i) - \text{Min } (X_i))/(\text{Max } (X_i) - \text{Min } (X_i))]$

Step 2: Calculate Composite Poverty Index = $\text{SUM } (EVI)/k$ (where k is the number of variables – there are 13 here)

Step 3: Re-index the Composite Poverty Index with National Poverty Rate and obtain province-specific poverty rates according to variations in the Composite Poverty Indices across provinces

All variables are measured as ratios to the population to circumvent the problem of comparing provinces when there are unequal populations and population densities across provinces.

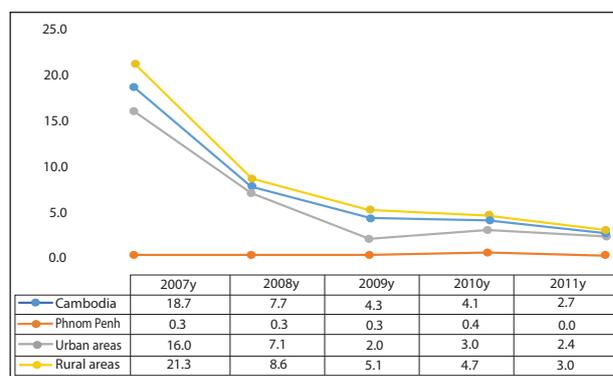
A profile of (proxy) poverty rates constructed at the provincial level is given in Figure 2.2, above.⁷ Provinces in the south and southeast of Cambodia, which are more densely populated and have had a long tradition of practicing sedentary farming, have a lower poverty rate compared to those in the north, northeast and northwest. Of particular concern are the northeastern provinces, where indigenous communities mainly dwell. These provinces are predominantly rural and to an extent ‘un-integrated’ in the national mainstream. People there survive by subsistence agriculture, hunting and gathering. Relatively high poverty rates are seen in Siem Reap and Battambang, despite them having a long tradition of farming. Siem Reap is the most important tourist attraction of Cambodia and Battambang is an important paddy-growing province. The question is, why is it that Siem Reap does not employ larger numbers in tourism? Put alternatively, why is it that there is no spill over of the distribution of gains from

paddy cultivation in Battambang? These are issues requiring more detailed analysis and field research and would form a part of the future development research agenda.

TRENDS IN FOOD POVERTY

Trends in Food Poverty (also referred to as hunger) are seen in Figure 2.3.⁸

Figure 2.3: Trends in Food Poverty Rates, 2007-2011



Source: Calculated from CSES

These data suggest that in 2007 (or earlier, for which data are not presented here) there was hunger in the country, both in Rural Areas and Other Urban Areas (i.e. urban centres outside the Municipality of Phnom Penh). Thereafter, there was a rapid fall; in 2011, it was less than 4% everywhere.⁹ In terms of MDGs, this target was met as early as 2008, and the situation has improved since then.



Socheat, 29, casting fishing net in Balang Commune in Siem Reap province.

7 Note: The ‘derived’ poverty rate for Phnom Penh (Figure 2.2) is quite different from that obtained through direct measurement (Figure 2.1). The derived rates could be effectively used for ranking provinces, but not necessarily for obtaining absolute numbers. To the extent that the ranking is fairly accurately obtained, the (limited) purpose is served.

8 The ‘food poor’ are those whose total consumption is \leq the just the nutritional norm in the poverty line. This is usually referred to as a ‘state of hunger’.

9 CSES also asks a direct question, ‘have you experienced hunger any time?’ The answers match with the findings seen in Figure 2.3.

Box 2.3: Occupational diversification and multiple income sources help, but.....

Young women out-migrate from rural areas to work in the garment industry, earning a gross income in the vicinity of \$80-\$120 per month. They are able to repatriate around USD 30 per month. With these repatriated moneys, the economic status of families back in the villages has stabilized, to the extent that they no longer face uncertainties regarding the failure of the rice crop or a crash in the price of farm produce. Additionally, the recipient families are able to retire outstanding loans, if any. Many households have been able to generate other sources of income, and paddy farming is no longer their most important source of livelihood.

Similarly, people whose lands have been demined (these plots are generally large in this region) have experienced higher incomes. This is possible despite some of these lands not being fertile, or being located in relatively remote locations where there are few, if any, agricultural extension services. Many farmers who have benefitted from mine clearance because they now have land. It does not matter to them that these lands are located in isolated areas. They are happy that some extra income is flowing in: it is better than no income.

Cross-border migration to Thailand from the border areas is quite common, despite it being hazardous. Anxiety is high, the work is difficult and chances of getting caught are real. Most migrants are wary of leaving their families and surroundings and going to an unknown future, but lack of livelihood options forces many to out-migrate. The remuneration across the border is high, at US\$300-400 a month even for illegal migrants, which is a big incentive.

People everywhere face highest anxiety when they fall ill. Illness not only requires them to withdraw from work, treatment is expensive.

Source: Field interviews in Battambang, Prey Veng and Siem Reap

Food poverty is not such a crisis anymore in Cambodia. Among the reasons is the expansion in land area under cultivation, permitting the agricultural land-to-labour ratio to stay invariant, or even to improve despite population growth. The accompanying increased food production has ensured better food availability and therefore, a reduction in food poverty. Currently, agricultural landlessness is not such a critical parameter to watch, although it would not be completely off the radar in the planning framework.

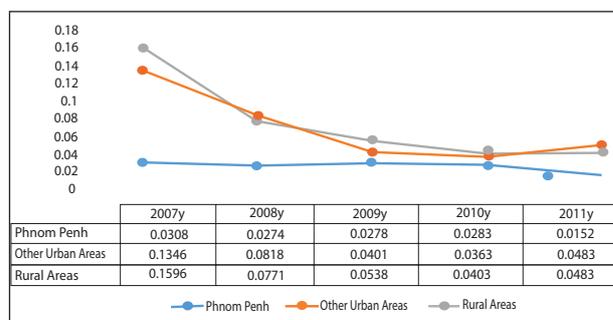
POVERTY GAP AND VULNERABILITY

Finally, the Foster-Greer-Thorbecke (FGT) Index, which measures the poverty gap, has been computed to assess the poverty gap, that is, to assess how poor the poor are. Numbers seen in Figure 2.4 suggest that the poverty gap has been small (<5%) and has been falling over time (except in Other Urban Areas where there was a small, 1%, rise in 2011). Thus, those below the poverty line are huddled close to it: abject poverty is no longer such a great problem in Cambodia.

Figure 2.5—which plots the distribution of total expenditure—suggests that the modal frequency is at a fairly modest level (of expenditure) and after the mode the curve falls steeply. This is particularly so in the rural sample (although not shown here), but in others as well. The figure suggests that there are large numbers of households huddled above but very close to the poverty line. The inference is clear: while abject poverty is not such a concern, vulnerability is. Thus, with a small (downward) swing in income, a large number of people who are currently above the poverty line could be pushed below it. Actually, shocks are not uncommon; they could emerge from both natural (floods, droughts) and human-made phenomena (international economic downturns, fallouts of international integration, etc.).

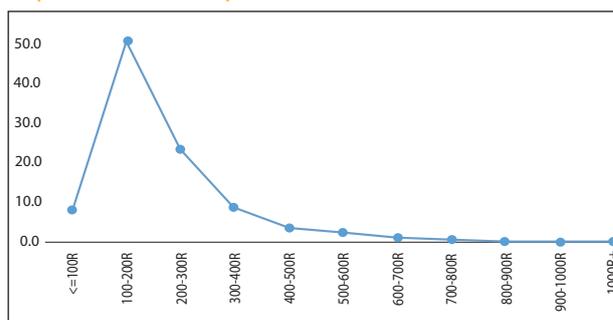
Poverty in the broader sense is still a concern, despite the recent gains. The government's anti-poverty programme will aim to target not just the 19-20% poor, but a band above that as well – say, those in the lowest three decile populations.

Figure 2.4: Trends in Foster-Greer-Thorbecke Index, 2007-2011



Source: Calculated from CSES

Figure 2.5: Distribution of Persons by (Equal) Expenditure Groups (in Riels '000)



Source: Calculated from CSES

INEQUALITY

Two measures of inequality are presented here: the share of poorest 20% in the total consumption, and the Gini Coefficient of inequality. While for the first, the target is to reach 11%, for the latter there is no target. Consumption of the poorest is rising, albeit slowly, but a linear forecast suggests that this target would be met by 2015 (Table 2.1).

The value of the Gini Coefficient of consumption inequality also shows a secular fall. At 0.31, the Gini Coefficient is better than in most countries of the Southeast Asia region or for that matter, all of Asia.

The sharp fall in poverty rates since 2007, seen earlier, could in part be explained by reduced inequality.¹⁰

NUTRITION

Nutritional Status – Children and Women

Data from Table 2.2 indicate that the nutritional deficiency among children is still high. Stunting reduced by 3 percentage points, from 43% to 40% between 2005 and 2010, a small decrease for a five-year period. If the same trend continues, it is highly unlikely that the target of 25% will be met by 2015. Underweight children did not show any improvement and wasted children actually increased between 2005 and 2010. The percentage of children and women suffering anaemia also improved rather slowly between 2005 and 2010. None of



Planting rice seedlings in her rice field, where landmines and UXOs had been cleared in Samlot district, Battambang province.

these five indicators is yet on track. The only on-track indicator is consumption of iodised salt.

It would be hasty to draw conclusions based on these numbers alone as the situation is more complex than it appears. Some observations:

1. Poverty rates fell rapidly during 2007-2009, but unlike incomes, which can change rapidly, the health status of people does not change rapidly. In fact, a few of the health attributes are even irreversible. Only in future (another 3-5 years), could one expect to see visible changes.¹²

Table 2.1: Trends in Consumption Inequality

Year	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Gini coefficient	0.411	0.381	0.343	0.341	0.313
Consumption of 20% poorest	6.85	7.46	8.00	8.34	8.98

Source: CSES

Table 2.2: Nutrition Indicators¹¹

	2005	2010	2015 (target)
Children 0-59 months moderately/severely stunted	43%	40%	25%
Children 0-59 months moderately/severely wasted	8%	11%	6%
Children 0-59 months moderately/severely underweight	28%	28%	19%
Children 6-59 months suffering from anaemia	62%	55%	42%
Women 15-49 years suffering from anaemia	47%	44%	-
Proportion of households using iodised salt	73%	83%	90%

Source: Cambodia Demographic and Health Survey (CDHS) 2010

10 A study on poverty in Cambodia by the World Bank Country Mission (prepared by James Knowles) suggests that reduction in inequality between 2007 and 2009 has been a major driver for poverty reduction in Cambodia.

11 Definitions: Stunted is deficient on height to age; Wasted is deficient on height to weight; severe is more than two standard deviations from normal; moderate is more than one standard deviation from normal.

12 For record, it needs stating that the Ministry of Health provides micronutrients such as vitamin A supplements (99% coverage in 2012), deworming supplements (95% coverage in 2012), and management of severe malnutrition. For pregnant women and post-partum women of reproductive age likely to be suffering from anaemia, it routinely provides iron foliate supplements (88% coverage in 2012).

- The rise in incomes has been modest (Figure 2.5) and it is not necessary that people would spend the extra earning on child nutrition. A great deal also depends on people's knowledge, attitudes and practices, which do not necessarily change in the short-term, particularly when increases in income are modest.
- Nutrition is a crosscutting issue. For example, some people (children) get food but not safe/potable water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH in general). As a result, they could suffer from worms, ailments like diarrhoea, and parasites in the digestive system, retarding the absorption of nutrients in the body. Thus, only with expansion of the water and sanitation (WATSAN) programme, could effects be seen in future.

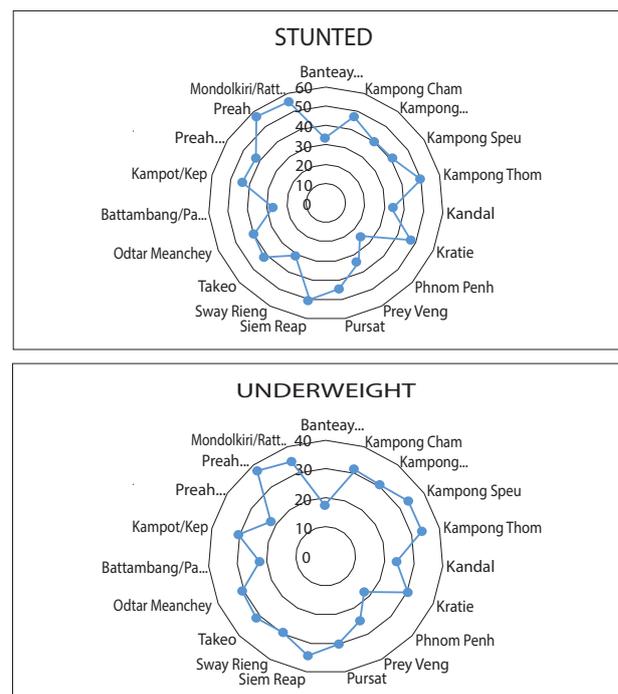
Cambodia is not the only country in Asia exhibiting such a deviation between rapidly reducing poverty and not so rapid reductions in malnutrition. Little can be said on meeting the CMDG target for the next two to three years.

NUTRITIONAL STATUS BY PROVINCES

The provincial picture of the nutritional status of children is contrasting (Figure 2.6 a&b). There is a strong association between the prevalence of stunting and being underweight across provinces: the correlation coefficient is 0.80. It implies that those who are stunted are also underweight. Malnutrition thus affects more than one area of a person's life. A simple correlation across provinces between poverty rates and the prevalence of stunting (among children) is 0.56, and between poverty rates and underweight (children) is 0.50. Poorer provinces have larger proportions of under-nourished children.

The typology of the southern, central and southeastern provinces (e.g. Phnom Penh, Kandal, Preah Sihanouk, Kep/Kampot, Svay Reing) out-performing those in the north and northeast (e.g. Rattanakiri, Mondolkiri, Stung Treng, Siem Reap) in the nutritional status of children is similar to the spatial pattern of poverty seen earlier (Figure 2.7). This only reiterates the relationship between poverty and the nutritional status.

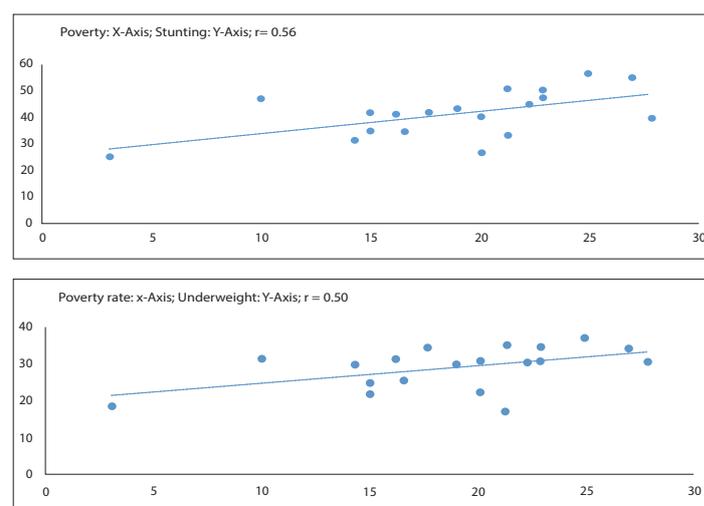
Figure 2.6 (a&b): Children Stunted and Underweight by Province, 2010



Source: Calculated from CDHS 2010

Finally, in Mondolkiri, Rattanakiri, Stung Treng, Preah Vihear and Siem Reap, the proportion of stunted children exceeds 50%, and underweight about 35-40%.¹³ The government will take urgent action to see that associated factors like water and sanitation are addressed in the lagging provinces, in addition to undertaking direct interventions, such as promoting income generation activities.

Figure 2.7 (a&b): Scatter of Provinces by Stunted and Underweight Children, by Poverty Rate



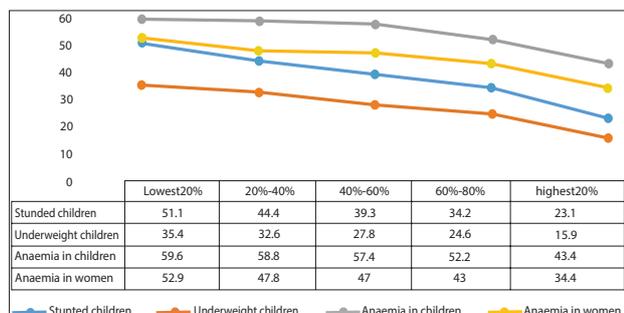
Source: Calculated from CDHS and Figure 2.2 above

13 Siem Reap is the odd entry. It should not be a backward region, given that it is the biggest tourism attraction in Cambodia. It appears as if the distribution of gains in Siem Reap town is not spilling over to the hinterland.

Nutritional Status by Economic Grouping

Figure 2.8, which plots select data from Table 2.2 by the wealth status of households, suggests that the economic status of a household affects the nutritional status. However, Figure 2.8 also suggests that there is substantial malnutrition even in the wealthiest group. This is particularly for anaemia – both children and women.

Figure 2.8: Patterns in Key Nutrition Indicators by Wealth Status of Households, 2010



Source: CDHS 2010

These patterns are clear indicators that greater equity matters; however, other aspects like food habits and WATSAN matter equally. These statistics are a reminder that poverty reduction policies, inclusive growth and other such efforts need to be accompanied by other inputs like WATSAN and changes in knowledge, attitudes and practices.

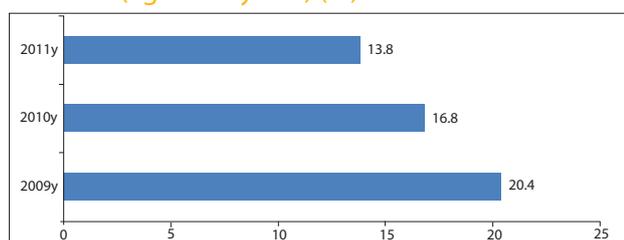
CHILD LABOUR

Cambodian Law requires that no person aged < 18 years should engage in labour for a major part of his/her time, lest s/he is deemed to be a child worker. In 2009, CSES began collecting data on the Usual Status Engagement, i.e. long-term status (six months plus) of persons aged ≥ 5 years. These have been re-tabulated to obtain the labour participation for those aged < 18 years (Figure 2.9).

CHILD LABOUR – PROPORTIONS

The proportion of child workers to total children fell rapidly over 2009-2011, and was about 14% in 2011. A combination of falling poverty proportions and increased effort to retain children in schools in grades higher than the primary level appears to have contributed to achieving this. However, the numbers are still larger than the set target of 8% for 2015.

Figure 2.9: Child Labour as a Proportion of Total Children (age 6-17 years) (%)



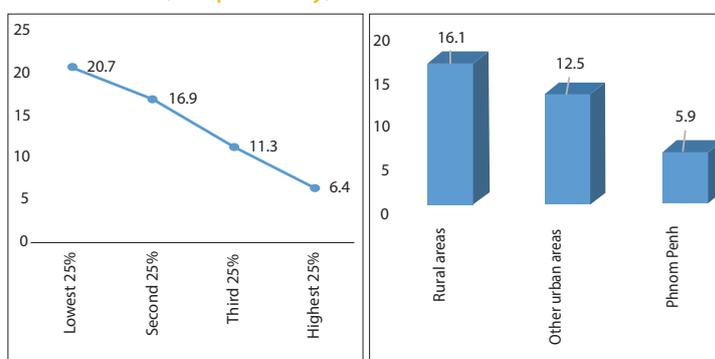
Source: CSES

CHILD LABOUR BY ECONOMIC STATUS AND LOCATION

Figure 2.10a suggests that economic status influences the extent of child labour. Living standards and location of the household also matter. The higher prevalence of child labour in rural areas is partly due to less poverty and more schools in urban areas (Figure 2.10b). Multivariate analysis in Box 2.3 statistically validates these patterns.

A peculiar feature is that while there is a sharp fall in the prevalence of child labour as the standards of living increase, it persists even in the highest expenditure bracket (Figure 2.10a). Part of the reason for this could be the non-availability of schools in many locales (especially lower-secondary schools), but the matter requires greater exploration for more effective action.

Figure 2.10 (a&b): Child Labour prevalence by Monthly Per Capita Expenditure (MPCE) Groups and Location, respectively, 2011



Source: Calculated from CSES

Box 2.4: Explaining the Prevalence of Child Labour

Subsistence of the family is one of the main reasons children work (often on family farms). Households with enough money send their children to school rather than have them work. Two aspects are important: afford ability and cost of education. This logic is partial only, as the supply-side aspects are not adequately captured, and vice versa. Thus, a dummy variable (Rural=0 and Urban=1) is added, following the observation that urban areas have more schools. However, CSES does not provide supply-side data, it being a household survey.

The equation, estimated from the 2011 CSES Database using the logistic regression method, suggests that high costs of education and non-availability of schools deter children from attending school, and open the door for them to become child workers.

$$CL = 5.91 - 0.56\ln MPCE - 0.030ACE + 0.20RU$$

(0.11) (0.001) (0.005)

Nagelkerke R² = 0.40; predicted correct = 85.2%; n = 3,986

Here, CL = child labour; MPCE = monthly per capita expenditure (natural logarithm); ACE = private cost of education as a proportion of MPCE; and RU = location dummy. Numbers in the brackets are standard errors. The equation is a good fit for a logistic regression and the coefficients are statistically highly significant.

Box 2.5: Child Poverty and Child Workers

Children disproportionately bear the burden of poverty. Calculations by the Ministry of Planning (MoP) and UNICEF independently suggest that the child poverty rate is 7-8 percentage points higher than the aggregate poverty rate. Figure 2.10 shows that poorer households have a higher prevalence of child workers. These children are sent out to augment household incomes but in the process they miss out on development opportunities like education. When these (illiterate or semi-literate) children grow up, they do not constitute the 'human capital' pool recognised in a modern, knowledge economy and hence continue to be poor. This is the cycle of inter-generational transmission of poverty. The government recognises that burden of child care needs to be ameliorated through appropriate measures to ensure that these children are not left behind.

TASKS COMPLETED, CHALLENGES AND GOVERNMENT POLICY

Tasks Completed: Cambodia has achieved the goal of poverty reduction and elimination of extreme poverty and hunger. It has also succeeded in continuously reducing inequality in consumption expenditure. Next, while it is true that more children compared to the set target are yet stunted, underweight and wasted, indicators like height and weight of children are incremental and do not change in the short term. The direction of the movement is positive and this is noteworthy. Finally, the target of people getting iodised salt has been achieved.

Challenges: Notwithstanding the achievements in nutrition mentioned above, the government recognises that the task is yet incomplete. Also, the incidence of anaemia among both women and children still remains higher compared to the targets set. Finally, child labour is also prevalent in proportions higher than the stated target.

Government Policy: The Royal Government of Cambodia attaches high priority to reducing poverty and bringing about greater equity and aims at reducing the poverty rate by at least one percentage point each year. As mentioned in Chapter 1, the Rectangular Strategy (RS) emphasises on achieving inclusive growth and job creation, which are key drivers of poverty reduction. Since both child labour and nutritional status of children are inversely linked with the standards of living, these will improve with rising incomes and greater equity in the society. Additionally, the RS has placed emphasis on improving nutrition within its thrust area 'Capacity Building and Human Resource Development'.

14 There could be a little data comparability problem for data between 2004, 2007 and 2008 on the one hand, and 2009, 2010 and 2011 on the other. This is because the sample frame for the former was Census 1998 (forecasts) while for the latter it was Census 2008. Hence, the trends have to be interpreted with care.



GOAL 2: ACHIEVE UNIVERSAL LITERACY AND BASIC EDUCATION

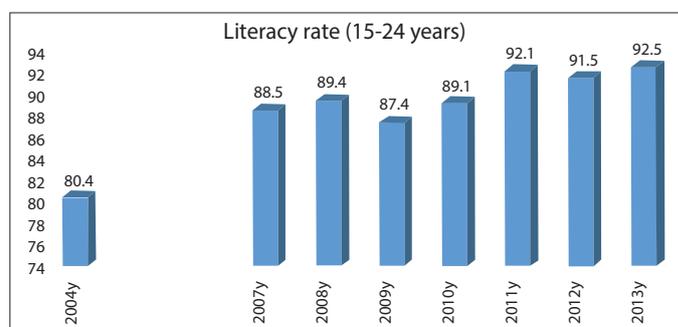
The different broad targets identified under this goal are:

1. Achieve universal literacy to 94.5% in the population aged 15-24 years by 2015;
2. Achieve a net enrolment rate at primary school level of 99%; gross enrolment rate at lower-secondary school level at 74%;
3. Achieve primary completion rate: 100% by 2015; lower-secondary school completion rate: 57%;
4. Achieve gender parity in education at the primary and lower secondary levels.

2.1. ON LITERACY RATES

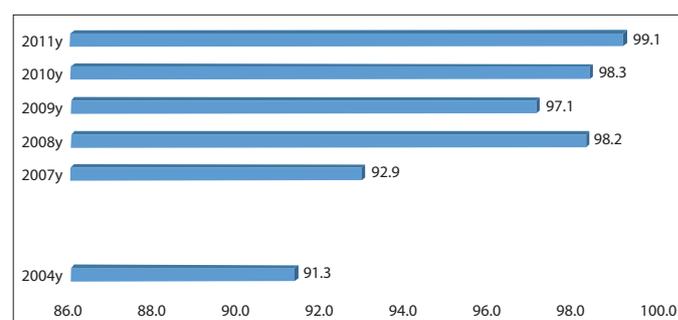
Literacy rates among populations in the age-group 15-24 years, given in Figure 2.11, suggest there has been substantial improvement since 2004. However, in the later years (2007 to 2011), progress appears irregular.¹⁴ Following the logic stated in Footnote 17, a point-to-point comparison between 2004, 2007 and 2008, and a comparison between 2009, 2010 and 2011, would yield the best results. Also, data for 2012 and 2013, being obtained from yet another source, are not fully comparable with CSES data. Nevertheless, the rate of increase in literacy is about 1.6 to 1.8%. This yields a figure of about 98% by 2015, which in any society is considered full literacy.

Figure 2.11: Literacy Rates among Population, Age 15-24 Years



Source: CSES (2004-2011) and MoEYS (2012-2013)

Figure 2.12: Ratio of Female Literacy Rates to Male Literacy Rates (age 15-24 years)



Source: CSES

The gender gap is narrowing quickly: the proportion of female to male literacy was more than 99% in 2011 compared to 91.3% in 2004, and this target is on track (Figure 2.12).

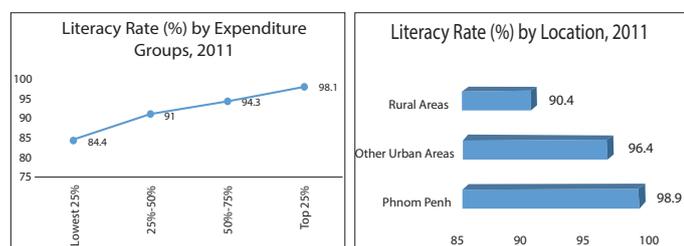
2.2. ON ENROLMENT, COMPLETION AND DROPOUT RATES

The net enrolment rate at the primary level is impressive at over 90%, having progressively improved over the last five years (Table 2.3).¹⁵ Gender balance is also maintained: this difference being less than 1% in 2010 and fully bridged thereafter. All the provinces show similar numbers: the Coefficient of Variation (CoV) in enrolment rates across provinces is only 1.7%.¹⁶ Thus, there appears to be no issue regarding achieving this CMDG target, nationally or at the province level.

The primary school completion rate in 2012-2013 was lower, in the range 87-88% for both boys and girls, implying that 9.6% of children either dropped out or repeated in that year.^{17,18} The drop-out rate was recorded at 5.3%, while the repetition rate was 3.7%, adding up to 9%.¹⁹ The gap stayed invariant in all the five years for which data are presented. The problem is most acute at Grade 1 level, where the drop-out is about 9%; maximum repetition also happens there. In all probability, they are the poorest and/or most remotely located. Seen in terms of CMDG targets, a reduction in drop-out rates to 0% is still some distance away.

There are major problems at lower-secondary school level. There was a huge drop in enrolment at the lower secondary school level: in 2012-2013, 87.4% children passed the primary

Figure 2.13 (a&b): Literacy Rates Age (15-24 years) by Different Classifications



Source: CSES

While among the richest 25% of the population the target seems to have been achieved, in the poorest there is a serious lag (Figure 2.13a). Seen by location, in Phnom Penh the target for literacy rates appears to have been achieved, but in rural areas the goalpost is still distant (Figure 2.13b). These two figures are essentially saying the same thing: that poor people, who largely live in rural areas, are also less literate.

The government recognises the need to strengthen literacy/education in rural and remote areas and also enforce strict implementation of its policy of free education for all.

Table 2.3: School Enrolment and Completion Rates

		2008/09	2009/10	2010/11	2011/12	2012/13
Net Enrolment Rate in Primary Education						
Total	%	94.4	94.8	95.2	96.4	97
Boys	%	94.8	95	95.8	96.7	97
Girls	%	94	94.6	94.6	96.1	97
Gross Enrolment rate in Lower Secondary Education (Grade 9)						
Total	%	61.6	58.1	58.5	55	53.6
Boys	%	64	59	59	55	54.9
Girls	%	59.2	57.1	57.8	55	54.2
Completion Rate Grade 6						
Total	%	85.6	83.2	85.3	89.7	87.4
Boys	%	85.4	82.8	85.6	89.6	86.9
Girls	%	85.7	83.6	85	89.9	87.8
Completion Rate Grade 9						
Total	%	49.1	48.7	46.8	42.1	40.6
Boys	%	52.1	50	49.2	42.6	42.2
Girls	%	45.9	47.3	44.3	41.6	40.4

Source: Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports (MoEYS)

15 Net enrolment rate refers to the ratio of enrolled children in a specific age group to total children in that age group. In gross enrolment rate, the numerator contains all children enrolled irrespective of their age, while the denominator is the same.

16 The Coefficient of Variation is the ratio of the standard deviation of a variable to its mean. The smaller the value of CoV, lesser is the variation across the units of observation.

17 The non-completion rate in rural areas is twice that in urban.

18 Completion rate is defined as the ratio of persons who have completed a certain grade to total number of persons who fall in a defined age group. The ratio will be 1 if all those in that age group actually succeed in completing that grade.

19 Rounding off errors has not permitted these% ages to tally with the total.

level but only 53.6% joined the lower-secondary school stream; thus, almost 34% of children discontinued education after the primary school level. Equally disturbing is that a smaller proportion of children have been joining the lower-secondary education stream in successive years, in this five-year time-series. There is a relatively large variation across provinces in secondary school enrolment rates: the CoV is 20.6%. Provinces showing relatively poorer performance are: Stung Treng, Rattanakiri, Mondolkiri, Kratie, Oddar Meanchey and Pailin. Four of these provinces are in the north/northeast, while two are in the northwest. Seen in the context of the earlier arguments, low standards of living and low supply of education are the likely underlying factors.

Table 2.3 further shows that completion rates at the lower-secondary school (Grade 9) level have been less than enrolment by 10-14 percentage points in different years, more in rural areas than in urban. Seen in terms of CMDG targets, the dropout rates are some distance from the defined target. This CMDG indicator too is lagging behind.

CHILDREN IN EDUCATIONAL STREAMS

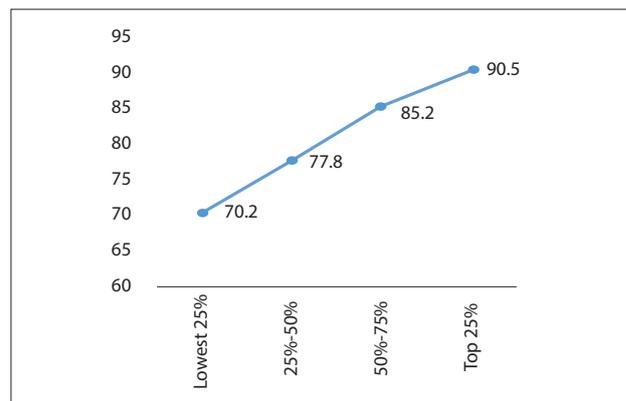
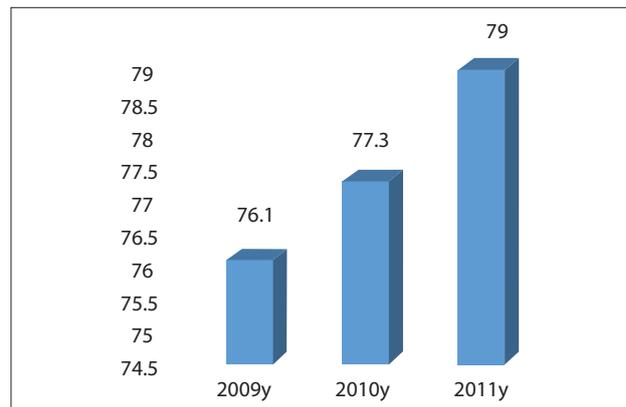
Figure 2.14a suggests that the proportion of children out of school has been decreasing rapidly in successive years. However, about one-fifth of children are not in school. It could be that supply-side factors inhibit children from attending schools in progressive grades, given that there were 6,910 primary schools in the country (in the year 2012-2013) and only 1,214 secondary schools. Moreover, while the average distance to a primary school from a village is 1.2 km, a lower secondary school is located on average 4.2 km away, making it difficult for children to travel.²⁰

As seen from Figure 2.14b, there is a strong association between Monthly Per Capita Expenditure (MPCE, proxy for income) groups and children (age 6-17 years) being in school: the rich are able to afford school much more than the poor. On the positive side, over time, there has been an improvement in the proportion of children in schools, which evidently is due to the reduction in aggregate poverty rates.



School children playing during study break in Kampong Thom province.

Figure 2.14 (a & b): percentage of Children in Schools, Ages 6-17 Years for 2009-2011, and by MPCE Groups (2011)



Source: Calculated from CSES

Box 2.6: EDUCATION – Outlook and problems

Both parents and children in the villages visited have begun to recognise that education is an important exit from poverty. Parents, mainly mothers, said that they are happy to see their children able to read and write. Parents are attaching equal importance to the education of children of either sex: preference for boys is an obsolete thought. People are happier and feel more secure if their daughters study more because the parents eventually live with daughters, not sons.

Over the last few years, children aged 6-7 years routinely register at primary school. Better afford ability and access to schools (distances, roads) have made this possible. However, some children who began education at ages 8-10 now face problems. They are currently in grade 5 or 6 (i.e. aged 13-16 years old), and feel odd sitting with the other, much younger students in class. A large proportion drops out to join the labour force. It was felt that only relatively young children would complete basic education of nine years. Afford ability (of secondary level education) is an issue, as is the distance of (secondary) schools from

²⁰ Data on the number of schools are obtained from the MoEYS while on distance of villages from schools from CDB.

villages. Some parents maintain that poor out-migrating families often take children of age 10+ years with them, in effect withdrawing them from school.

One main concern expressed is the quality of education. Other than the usual problems stated in the literature, parents reported that teaching methods have recently changed. Children do poorly in Khmer language because language teaching is done through 'rote' – word by word, resulting in the students not having any idea how to combine consonants and vowels. Parents feel that the government should revisit this approach to make it more meaningful. Many parents also complained about teacher absenteeism—particularly of male teachers—at the primary school level. At times they come just two days in a week.

The Chief of the Office of Education confirms the three reasons for school dropout (particularly at the lower secondary level): distances to lower secondary schools in some areas; inhibition of over-age students to sit with the younger ones; and poor parents out-migrating with the whole family. On teacher behaviour, the authorities maintain that there is a general shortage of teachers and disciplining some will reduce the numbers further.

Source: Field interviews in Kratie and Kampong Thom

CHILDREN IN EDUCATIONAL STREAMS – AN EXPLANATION

This section presents a multivariate framework for explaining children's enrolment in schools, drawing upon the human capital theory. Putting it simply, children are sent to school when households see definite tangible benefits from schooling. Parents weigh up the expected (lifetime/future) benefits of education with the current (direct and indirect) costs of maintaining children in school, and decide whether children would be sent to school, and for how long.

Two regression equations have been estimated: the first equation explores the reasons for participation (or lack of it) and the second, the spatial variations in participation. The technical details of the regression equations are provided in Box 2.7 and the estimates in Box 2.8.

The estimates obtained from the logistic regression (Equation 1 – Box 2.8), suggest that age, and MPCE, are the two most important influencing factors on child education. The (negative) elasticity value of school enrolment with age is >100%; it jointly reflecting (lack of) demand as well as (constricted) supply of education as a child grows older. On the elasticity value with MPCE, a doubling of MPCE could raise enrolment by 89%. Overall, the equation suggests that both demand and supply-side factors influence participation in schooling. Estimates of Equation 2 in Box 2.8 suggests that the

'income-oriented' factors are far more influential compared to any other, implying that people educate their off-spring as they climb up the ladder towards greater affluence. The findings of the two equations are similar, although they emerge from two entirely different data sets and are specified differently.

First, the equations suggest that people must have a minimum standard of living—whichever way it is measured—to ensure entry of their offspring in an educational stream. Poverty thus affects education, compelling the next generation too to be socio-economically weak – perpetuating poverty. While this is a well-known finding, and has been seen the world over in the recent times, the fact remains that it must be effectively acted upon.

Box 2.7: Technical Details of the Regression Equations

Equation 1: Logistic Regression explaining attending/not-attending school

The explained variable is a binary: whether a child in the age group (6-17) is in school (value=1) or out of it (value=0).

Explanatory Variables

1. Household expenditure (proxy for income): it enables/deprives people to/from major entitlements. Measure: monthly per capita expenditure (MPCE).
2. Industry of the household head: higher diversification in occupations away from farm sectors creates more demand for education as non-farm sectors have higher productivity, greater demand for skills and no engagement of children in farms. Measure: binary (agriculture=0, else=1).
3. Whether household head is educated – literate/educated head would ensure one's offspring goes to school. Measure: binary (illiterate head=0, else=1).
4. Age: demand for education tapers off with age, both due to non-availability of educational facilities in localised environments and increasing costs. Measure: actual age.

Data: Unit record data from CSES 2011

CSES does not provide data on supply-side variables. However, at least two of the five explanatory variables stated above implicitly embed supply-side effects: e.g. industry where the head of household works (through location, which also reflects supply – non-farm jobs are usually in urban/densely populated areas, where facilities are more), and age (higher age-group children are candidates for the fewer secondary schools).

Equation 2: OLS Regression explaining% of children in schools at village level

The explained variable is the percentage of children in school to total children in age group 12-17 years, grouped at the village level. Data on age 6-11 years are not of good quality.

Explanatory Variables

Demand: There are no data available on village incomes per se, thus, proxy indicators are used; the number of motorcycles in the village as a proportion to all families, number of cycles in the village as a proportion to all families, families living in thatched huts as a proportion to all families (inverse of affluence), number of private water connections as a proportion to all families, number of hygienic latrines as a proportion to all families (inverse of affluence), number of farmers cultivators ploughing less than one hectare of land as a proportion to all families (inverse of affluence), wet-season paddy yield, and dry season paddy yield.

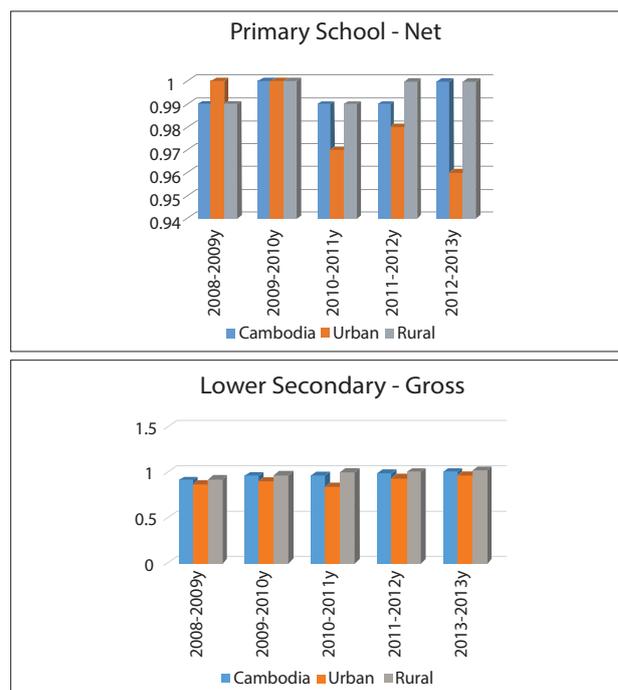
The supply side: This is measured by distance of junior-secondary school from village, distance of senior-secondary school from village, and distance of village from the provincial capital.

Data: Village level data from CDB 2011

Second, remote areas poorly integrated with the mainstream will tend to remain on the periphery. In the Cambodian case, with 14 million people spread across some 14,000 villages, there is a serious challenge in reaching out and spreading the distribution of gains in remote areas.

Finally, education could be promoted further by 'adequately completing' schools, effective vigilance, and providing liberal support to the students based on merit and need. Strengthening the supply side matters as it strengthens the demand side as well.

Figure 2.15: Gender Parity Index in School Enrolment



Source: MoEYS



Students listening to their teacher in Anou Wat primary school in Kratie province.

Box 2.8: Estimates of the two equations discussed in Box 2.7

Equation 1: Logistic Regression – Determinants of Child Currently in School			
	Coefficient	Standard Error	Quasi Elasticity at mean
MPCE (Riels)	0.00005	.000002	0.892
Industry of head of household (binary)	.1595	.003	0.164
Age (years)	-.1693	.0004	-1.606
Whether household head schooled (binary)	.2983	.003	0.192
Constant	2.0182	0.006	

Dependent variable: Whether a child (age 6-17 years) is in school
Nagelkerke R2 = 0.162; Predicted correct = 81.3%; n = 3,986

Note: Sociological variables like sex of child, sex of the head of the household, and ethnicity of the respondent were all found statistically not significant.

Equation 2: OLS Regression – Determinants of % Children in School (as seen from CDB Village-level Data)			
	Coefficient value	t	Elasticity at mean
(Constant)	63.8943	68.7636	
Distance Lower-Sec school km	-0.0028	-1.2274	-0.0002
Distance Senior-Sec school km	-0.0034	-1.6081	-0.0005
Wet season paddy yield	1.4567	5.0639	0.0391
Distance of village to province town	-0.0489	-7.1378	-0.0272
# Motos to families (%)	0.0159	1.9869	0.0106
# Cycles to families (%)	0.0723	16.2546	0.0630
# Families living in thatched huts to total families (%)	-0.1806	-16.2717	-0.0422
# Families cultivating land < 1ha to total (%)	-0.0043	-2.6795	-0.0008
# Toilets to families (%)	0.1168	16.1083	0.0551
# Families with water connection to total (%)	0.0540	11.9045	0.0331
Dry season paddy yield	0.3676	2.5133	0.0047

R2 = 0.150; F = 192.063; n = 11,882

Note: Sociological variables like sex of child, sex of the head of the household, and ethnicity of the respondent were all found statistically not significant.

TASKS COMPLETED, CHALLENGES AND GOVERNMENT POLICY

Achievements: Cambodia is on the threshold of achieving the CMDG target on universal literacy in the age group 15-24 years. Next, both enrolment and completion rates at the primary school level are inching towards their targets. Finally, gender parity targets in enrolments too have been attained and maintained at both primary school and lower-secondary school levels.

Challenges: There are challenges in achieving the targets of lower secondary school education, both in enrolment and completion. Among the reasons, two stand out: (1) There were over 6,910 primary schools in 2012 while the number of lower secondary schools was low at 1,214; there are, thus, bottlenecks in supply. (2) Despite an impressive reduction in the poverty rate, the standards of living are yet to rise to levels where households can effectively afford to send their children to school.

Government Policy: The Royal Government recognises that education is central to a 'knowledge economy'. Completion of primary school is just the first step towards becoming a part of the knowledge economy and the country requires its people to acquire more education than the present 4-5 years. The RS, mentioned earlier, identifies education and human capital as being critical to development within its thrust area 'Capacity Building and Human Resource Development'. It lays out a 10-point programme towards improving education and human capital formation, which includes strengthening education for raising the stock of human capital for greater competitiveness, improving the knowledge base and training in science and technology, arranging for easier access to education (at all levels), institutional capacity building within the education and skill-impartation sectors, improving the quality and effectiveness of education, and strengthening technical and vocational education. The government has developed sectoral plans to achieve these objectives.



Students at Tuol Pongro primary school playing during their break from class.



CMDG 3: PROMOTE GENDER EQUITY AND EMPOWER WOMEN

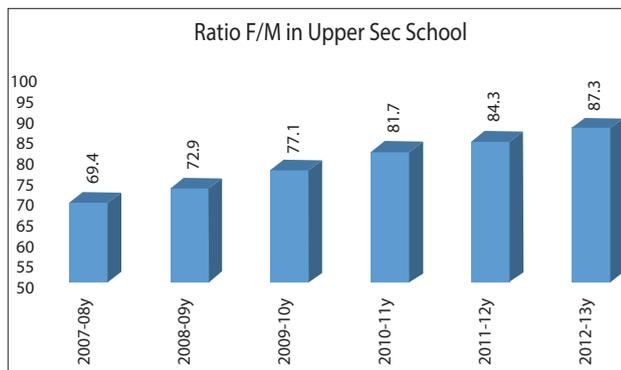
Gender appears in many goals, for example, in education, health and employment. Here, four national targets are put forth:

1. Reduce significantly, gender disparities in upper secondary and tertiary education;
2. Eliminate gender disparities in wage employment in all sectors;
3. Eliminate gender disparities in public institutions; and
4. Reduce significantly, all forms of violence against women and children.

3.1. GENDER PARITY IN EDUCATION

The government is committed to achieving parity in education at higher levels as well maintaining the achievements at the primary level. A gap does exist at the higher education level; the key question is, whether the gap is narrowing, and if yes, at what rate?

Figure 2.16: Ratio of Number of Females to Males at the Upper-Secondary School Level Education, 2007-2013



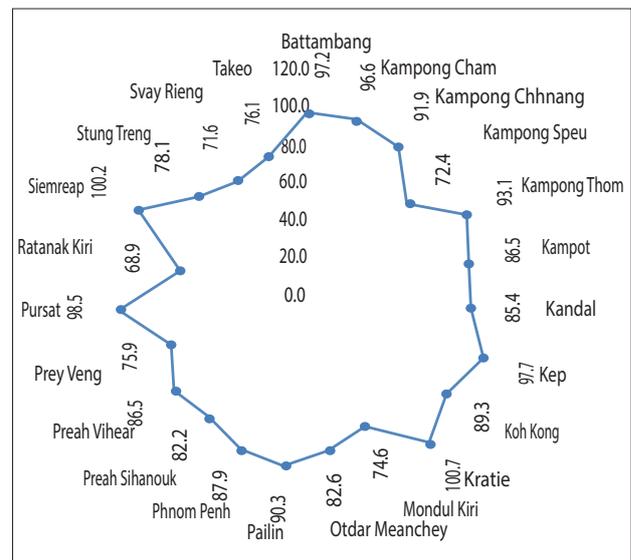
Source: Calculated from MoEYS data

Figure 2.16 shows the ratio of females to males enrolled at the upper-secondary level during 2007-2008 to 2012-2013. In 2007-2008 this ratio was 69.4%, which rose to 87.3% in 2012-2013. At this rate, the target of 100% might just be reached by 2015.

Provincial-level patterns (Figure 2.17) present a contrasting picture: Siem Reap, Battambang, Kampong Cham, Kampong Thom, Kep, Kratie and Pursat seem to have achieved or are very near to achieving gender parity in upper-secondary level

enrolment, while Rattanakiri, Stung Treng, Kampong Speu and Mondul Kiri lag behind significantly. It is not that the most developed provinces have a better gender balance, but that the least-developed ones have the worst. Under-development manifests in many dimensions and if standards of living rise it does not follow that all other development parameters will also improve.²¹

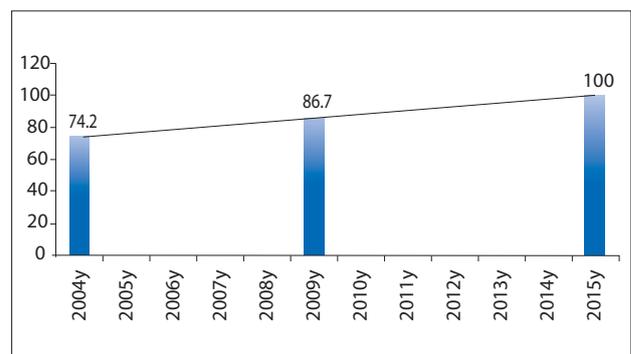
Figure 2.17: Ratio of Number of Females to Males at the Upper Secondary School Level Education, Provincial Profile, 2012-2013



Source: MOEYS data

Gender parity in tertiary education (the ratio of females to males attending tertiary education) for the years 2004 and 2009 (Figure 2.18) has shown an improvement between the two years under consideration. The progress is on track and with some effort the target could be reached.²²

Figure 2.18: Ratio of Females to Males Attending School at Tertiary Level, 2004 and 2009, and the 2015 Target

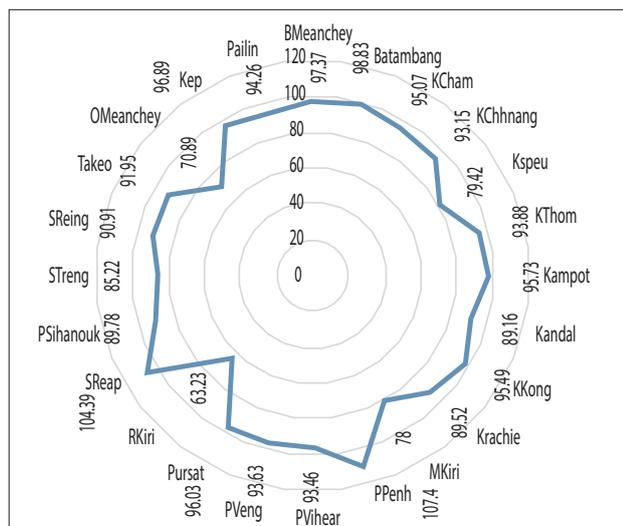


Source: CSES 2004 and 2009

21 These ratios have to be interpreted with caution; the absolute numbers are very small, and in some cases adding or subtracting 50-100 students could change the ratios significantly.

22 These are based on CSES data, as MoEYS does not collect information of this type on tertiary education. CSES conducts large sample surveys every 5 years (2004 and 2009). Annual surveys are based on smaller samples, which do not permit high levels of disaggregation. Hence, grade-specific disaggregation of data is not presented yearly.

Figure 2.19: Ratio of Females to Males Attending School at Tertiary Level, Provincial Profile 2011



Source: CDB

A provincial profile on tertiary education enrolments obtained from CDB for 2011 suggests that there is no discernible relationship between gender parity in tertiary education and the level of development/poverty (Figure 2.19). For example, provinces like Oddar Meanchey Kampong Speu and Rattanakiri and Mondulkiri show a low ratio, while others like Phnom Penh, Preah Vihear and Siem Reap show almost 100% parity or exceed it. The government is acutely aware of this issue.

Although unrelated to the CMDGs, a key challenge is that only about 3-4% of people in the age-group 15-24 years participate in tertiary education. Additionally, most students enrol in disciplines other than science and engineering. Both absolute numbers need to increase, and more students need to opt for science-oriented disciplines if tertiary education is to translate to a better human capital stock, a pre-requisite for industrial development.



Chor Vichara weaving Krama, Cambodian traditional scarf at Women Development Centre in Kampong Speu province.

3.2. WOMEN IN WAGE EMPLOYMENT

RGC recognises the importance and necessity of women's participation in the economy. In this regard, increased participation of women workers in the workforce in the capacity of wage/salary workers is encouraged, as this type of employment is deemed superior to other traditional engagements like 'unpaid family workers'. The CMDG target is to have parity between male and female wage/salary workers by 2015.

Data obtained from CSES 2009, 2010 and 2011 suggest that on aggregate this ratio stood between 42-45%, lower than the target of 50%. The target has been achieved in the agricultural and industrial sectors although the proportion remains lower in the service sector. However, labour discrimination is not an issue in the labour market; instead, it is the structure of the service sector – most enterprises are small, and managed by self-employed operators, mainly women. Hence, these ratios need to be interpreted with care.



Ms. Chhel Sovann making artificial flowers at Khmer Women Handicraft Association (KWHa) in Takeo province.

Table 2.4: Women in Wage Employment by Sector

Net Enrolment Rate in Primary Education	2009	2010	2011
Proportion of women in wage/salary employment in agricultural sector	51.8	53.1	53.8
Proportion of women in wage/salary employment in industrial sector	71.2	73.7	70.8
Proportion of women in wage/salary employment in service sector	29.9	27.4	28.8
Total percentage of women in wage employment	45	42.2	45.8

Source: CSES

Box 2.9: Women's Work in Garment Factories – Some Advancement but Gaps Remain

Women working in garment factories have gained self-confidence. They command greater respect now at least in the villages they come from, owing to their participation in cash-earning activities. Interestingly, jobs in garment factories are looked upon as a more prestigious engagement compared to those in massage parlours or beer bars, despite the remuneration in the latter being higher. The increased prestige has also resulted in reduced domestic violence. In the villages this respect has helped improve these women's status, which in turn is a positive step towards improving the gender status in society in general.

Women garment workers usually live in rented compounds built specifically for them. They are located at a walking distance from the factories, so there is no transport cost and no time spent on travel. About three to four women workers share a room and the toilet facilities are common. The rooms have access to water and electricity. During the rainy season, however, the environment becomes unhygienic, the sewage system is blocked and the bathrooms and toilets become dysfunctional.

Most women find the work environment adequate and congenial: factories comply with labour laws and workers are members of labour unions. In the event of unfair treatment by managers, they can complain through the unions. On health, however, there are complaints: in some cases there is not enough fresh air in the factories resulting in the workers experiencing dizziness (some even faint); standing for long hours, facing the heat of ironing machines results in swelling in legs and difficulty in breathing; and some workers also suffer from noxious smells emitted from chemicals (in dyes). Although the workers are covered by health insurance, there are long-term health impacts of exposure to unhealthy environments.

Source: Field interviews in Prey Veng of workers engaged in factories in Phnom Penh

Women's roles in economic sectors are being promoted through providing economic opportunities for women. These include establishing 'Women Development Centres (WDC)', which have so far been set up in 13 provinces. They play important roles in delivering business development services to women. Some 13,102 women have received vocational skills at WDCs. The Cambodia Women Entrepreneurs Association (CWEA) was established in 2012, and has 150 members. It promotes women in business and strengthens their voices in the private sector.

The Ministry of Women's Affairs (MoWA) has developed an Acceleration Framework for speeding up achieving targets in CMDG 3; women's economic empowerment. It aims to mobilise both public institutions and the private sector as development partners for:

- 1) Strengthening vocational skills for women, based on market demands;
- 2) Developing micro, small and medium enterprises; and
- 3) Improving livelihoods in rural areas.

DESPITE MANY EFFORTS, HOWEVER, THERE ARE CHALLENGES:

- a) There is limited cooperation between different line institutions in imparting technical and vocational training and interventions for enabling women to get job opportunities or for promoting entrepreneurship.
- b) There are limited cooperation and links between the public and private sectors for increasing services at the Women in Development Centres (WDC).

3.3. WOMEN IN DECISION MAKING IN PUBLIC SECTOR AND POLITICS

LEGISLATIVE FORUMS

The number of women in the National Assembly has continuously increased over the past four legislatures. In 1993, female lawmakers constituted only 5% of the total. This rose to 19% in 2003 and 20.3% in 2013. The proportion of female members in

the Senate remained stable at 14.75% between 1999 and 2012. The target of 30% in each case is yet to be achieved.

RGC is advocating with political parties to increase female representation in the parliament in the next elections. The difficulty is that there is no quota for women; all efforts, therefore, must be through advocacy alone.

WOMEN MEMBERS OF THE ROYAL GOVERNMENT

The CMDG target is to have women ministers to be at least 15% of the all the ministers, women secretaries of state to be 18% of all secretaries of state, and women under-secretaries of state to be 20% of all under-secretaries of state. As in early 2013, there was 1 female deputy prime minister, 3 female ministers, 38 female secretaries of state and 48 female under-secretaries of state or holders of equivalent ranks. The Government looks forward to increased participation of women in positions of decision-making in the new government in 2013 and beyond.

WOMEN IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

In 2007, through the State Secretariat for Civil Service, the Government issued a guideline to all ministries and institutions advising them to raise the proportion of women 20% to 50% while recruiting new staff. Consequently, the number of women civil servants has increased from 32% in 2007 to 37% in 2013. In addition, the Government has issued a Royal Decree on revision of retirement age of female civil servants, raising women's retirement age to 60 years, and on a voluntarily basis.

WOMEN'S LEADERSHIP AT SUB-NATIONAL LEVEL

Targets:

1. Women representatives at the level of deputy governors of cities, provinces, towns, and districts/khans: 15%.
2. At the local commune level, elected women councillors of towns/districts/khans: 25% (more than 300).

There is no woman governor in the capital or at the province level. The proportion of female deputy governors in the provincial level is 21% in 2013, exceeding the target. There is two female governor at city, district/khan level (2% - much below target) and 186 deputy governors at city, district, and khan level (29% - exceeding the target). In the Capital/Provincial Council Elections of 2009, 38 women (10%) were elected as members of the capital/provincial councils and 363 women (13%) were elected as members of the city, district and khan councils nationwide. The proportion of female members of commune/sangkats increased from 14.6% in 2007 to 17.8% in 2012. Each of these, however, is less than the stipulated 25%.

In 2007, there were 67 (4.1%) female chiefs of Communes/Sangkats, 151 (9.3%) first vice-chiefs and 131 (8%) second vice-chiefs. In 2012, there were 69 (4.2%) women chiefs of Communes/Sangkats, 189 (11.57%) first vice-chiefs, 151 (9.24%) second vice-chiefs, and 30% of village leadership positions held by women. In terms of numbers, the CMDG targets appear to have been met.

VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN

Cambodia considers violence against women a criminal offence. It has adopted legislation to protect women against such offences, for example:

1. Law on Prevention of Domestic Violence and Protection of Victims;
2. Law on Suppression of Human Trafficking and Sexual Exploitation.

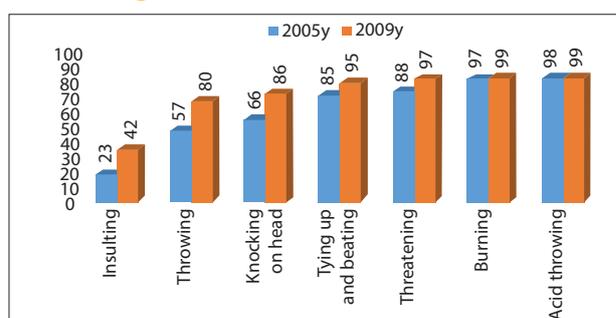
The implementation of the Safe Village-Commune Policy has contributed to promoting social morality and women's and family values, especially as enshrined in MDG 3. The policy mentions, "No Vices; No Trafficking in Women and Children; and No Domestic Violence".

According to results obtained through monitoring, domestic violence cases decreased from 41,474 in 2006 to 35,408 in 2009. Meanwhile, the number of households increased from (an estimated) 2,596,322 to 2,852,943. Thus, the decline in domestic violence was about 23.9%.²³

A comparison of data pertaining to 2005 and 2009 suggests that an increasing number of women now recognise violence against them to be an illegal act (Figure 2.20).

Article 20 of the Law on Prevention of Domestic Violence and Protection of Victims states that courts shall issue protection orders to victims on request. In 2012, courts issued 14 protection orders. In accordance with Article 14 of the law, local authorities issued 13,053 Administrative Decisions in 2009 and 11,136 in 2010, according to the records maintained at the commune level.

Figure 2.20: % of Women knowing that Domestic Violence against Women is a Crime



Source: Ministry of Women's Affairs (MoWA)

23 MOWA: Report on Data Collection and Monitoring of Violence Against Women in Cambodia 2010

MoWA, in cooperation with the Cambodian Women's Crisis Centre (CWCC), provided counselling services to 720 victims of domestic violence through 2012 and 2013 in the provinces of Siem Reap, Banteay Meanchey and Phnom Penh.

In 2013, 141 MoWA staff members at both national and sub-national levels were trained as Judicial Police Agents on protection and assistance for women victims of gender-based violence.

To prevent trafficking in persons, MoWA has developed a National Action Plan for implementation in 2012-2014. It amended the Memorandum of Understanding between the RGC and the Royal Government of Thailand for a bilateral cooperation to eliminate trafficking in women and children and rescuing trafficked victims. MoWA also signed an amendment to an agreement between the RGC and the Government of Vietnam on a bilateral cooperation to eliminate trafficking in persons and rescuing trafficked victims, and drafted an action plan for implementation during 2013-2014.

TASKS COMPLETED, CHALLENGES AND GOVERNMENT POLICY

Achievements: Cambodia is on its way to achieving gender equity in education at both, the upper-secondary and tertiary levels. Next, there is gender parity in wage employment in the agriculture and industry. If it not reached in the services sector there is no reason for worry since self-employment predominates in this sector. The public representation of women is on the rise. At this rate, while the targets for 2015 will not be met since the next commune elections are in 2017 and

national assembly elections in 2018, the direction of the trend is right. Finally, over time, increasing numbers of women are getting aware of the government policies in regard to violence against them is a crime and to this extent that the target has been met.

Challenges: The overall rate of participation of girls (and boys) in education at this level remains low when seen in the larger developmental context and beyond the CMDGs. Inter-provincial gaps also exist. Sparse availability of educational facilities beyond the primary school level is an important reason for the low participation. Lack of human capital then translates to low productivity. Next, again looking beyond CMDGs, the proportion of women engaged as 'unpaid family workers' is large, which constrains their growth in the labour market.

Government Policies: The Royal Government is fully committed to attaining gender parity in the development process in the country. Women would be effectively empowered when the economy grows on a high (inclusive) and sustainable growth path, and the Rectangular Strategy—as stated earlier—attaches high priority to inclusive growth. At the same time, the government has developed the Neary Rattanak Strategic Plan, aimed at women's empowerment through skill enhancement, opportunities in self- and wage-employment, and increasing their share in civil service and public offices. It has also developed an MDG Acceleration Framework to promote the gender cause. Finally, the government has implemented the 'Law Against Domestic Violence and Victim Protection', the 'Law Against Human Trafficking and Sexual Exploitation', and the 'First National Action Plan on Preventing Violence Against Women'.



University students discussing during Gender Studies class in Phnom Penh.



CMDG 4: REDUCE CHILD MORTALITY

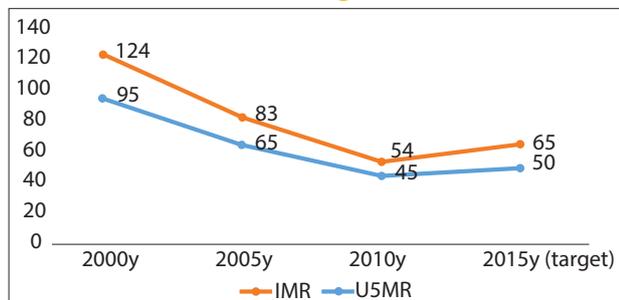
There are four targets under this goal:

1. Reducing infant mortality rate (IMR) to 50 by 2015;
2. Reducing 'under 5-year' child mortality rate (U5MR) to 65 by 2015;
3. More than 90% children are vaccinated by 2015;
4. Up to 70% infants \leq 6 months are exclusively breast-fed by 2015.

4.1. INFANT/UNDER-5 MORTALITY ²⁴

Cambodia has made significant progress in reducing infant and under-5 mortality rates. Figure 2.21 shows a sharp reduction in IMR between the years 2000 and 2010. This means Cambodia's IMR target of 50 has been met five years in advance, a notable achievement for a low-income post-conflict economy. The IMR target was set in 1998, based on calculations made by the Population Census conducted that year. According to that Census, the IMR was 124 in that year. The statistical authorities in the country soon recognised that dedicated health surveys like the CDHS yield better results than population censuses. The IMR target for 2015, however, remained unchanged, despite the CDHS in the year 2000 showing a different number.

Figure 2.21: Trends in IMR and U5MR, 2000, 2005 and 2010, and the 2015 Target



Source: CDHS, 2000, 2005 and 2010

Reduction in U5MR has been equally impressive and again, the CMDG target has been reached five years in advance (Figure 2.22). There has been an all-round improvement in pre-natal and post-natal care, which is an important reason for the fall in IMR and U5MR. For example, the proportion of babies delivered by a health professional increased from 44% in 2005 to 71% in the 2010. The Ministry of Health (MoH) maintains that this proportion rose to 75% in 2012. The proportion of babies delivered at a health facility more than doubled

between 2005 and 2010, from 22% to 54%. This proportion rose to 66% in 2012. Progress has been particularly high in urban areas, where 86% of babies were delivered in a health facility compared to less than 50% in rural areas.²⁵ Women's education has played a major role in them seeking modern medical assistance for delivery; in addition, RGC's initiative in providing incentives to midwives since 2006, and advocacy for facility-based deliveries have helped.

Figure 2.22 presents a provincial profile of IMR and U5MR across provinces. The national average conceals a lot: there are many provinces which are still some distance from the CMDG 2015 target; more so, in the north and in some provinces around the Tonle Sap. Bridging inter-provincial disparity is thus an unfinished task.

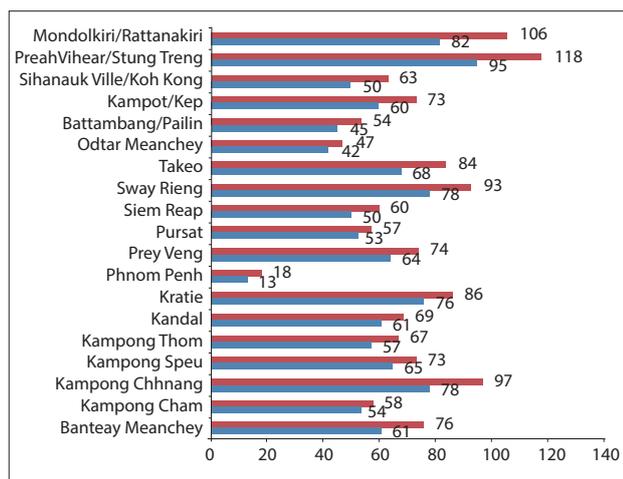


A woman weighing an infant during a health check in Kratie province.

²⁴ IMR is children < 12 months dying per 1,000 live births and U5MR is children < 59 months dying per 1,000 live births

²⁵ Data for 2005 and 2010 are drawn from CDHS reports while data pertaining to later years have been drawn from the administrative records of the Ministry of Health.

Figure 2.22: IMR and U5MR, 2010, Provincial Profile



Source: Calculated from MoEYS data

IMR and U5MR correlate with each other and have an association with the poverty rate and wealth status (Figure 2.23). With a further reduction in the poverty rate, the infant/child mortality status will also further improve. As seen earlier, child malnutrition and poverty were also correlated. Poverty reduction is thus central to achieving CMDGs 1 to 4.

The Ministry of Health maintains that the key challenge now is to address neonatal mortality rates (deaths within the first 28 days of birth, which constitute a major component of IMR). This requires interventions to address infections, complications of pre-term births and birth asphyxia. The interventions would

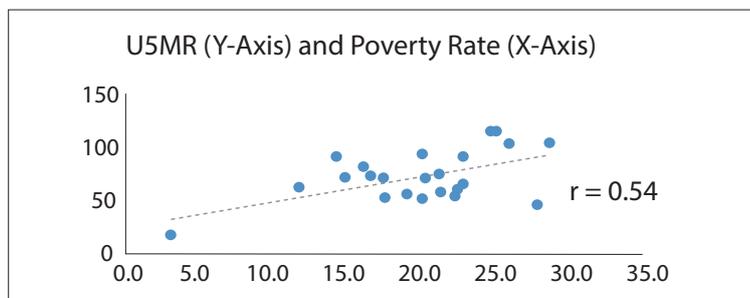
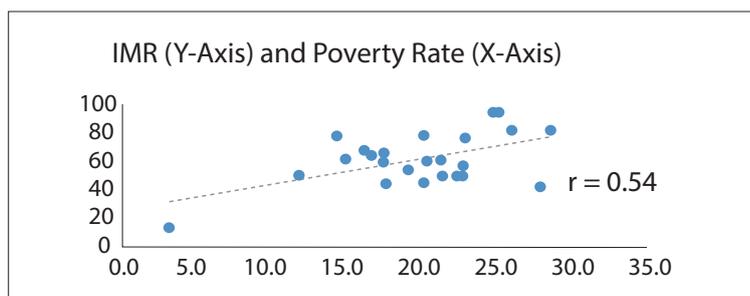
involve tetanus toxoid (TT) protection, promotion of health facility deliveries, improved skills of health staff, strengthening of referral systems, and improved quality of care.

4.2. VACCINATION OF CHILDREN

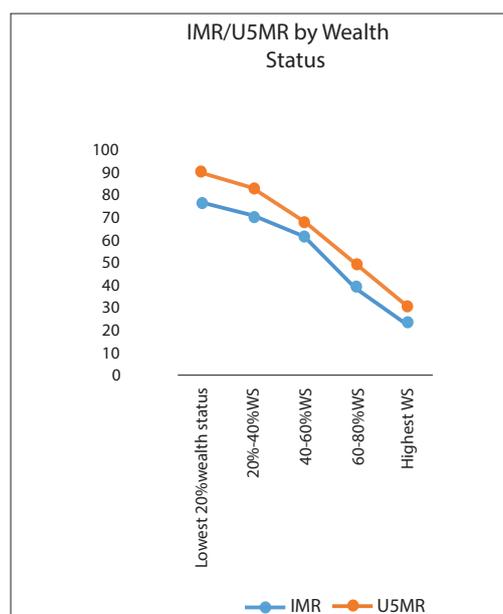
A child is considered fully vaccinated if s/he has received vaccinations against tuberculosis; received three doses of DTC vaccine to prevent diphtheria, tetanus, and pertussis; received at least three doses of polio vaccine; and received one dose of measles vaccine. These vaccinations are to be administered during the first year of the infant's life. Since 2006, the Cambodian National Immunisation Programme has replaced DTC vaccines with a Tetravalent Vaccine, which includes DTC and Hemophilus Influenza Type B Vaccine (Hib), and a Pentavalent Vaccine that includes DTC, Hib, and Hepatitis Type B Vaccine (HepB).

Some 79% of children in the age-group 12-23 months were fully vaccinated in 2010.²⁶ This is a significant improvement over 2005, when only 67% of children in this age group were fully vaccinated. More than 90% of children received BCG vaccines, two doses of tetravalent or pentavalent, and two doses of polio vaccine (CMDG 2015 target for DPT3: 95%). The proportion of children receiving the third dose of tetravalent vaccine or pentavalent vaccine and polio vaccine was 85%. More than 93% of children received Hepatitis-0 vaccinations (CMDG target: 95%)²⁷, and 93% of children received measles vaccination (CMDG target: 95%). Progress is on track.

Figure 2.23: Classification of IMR and U5MR by Poverty Rates (Provinces) and Wealth Status (all Cambodia), 2010



Source: CDHS 2010



26 Source: CDHS 2010

27 Hepatitis-0 vaccination is given at age 0 year. It is the same as Hep B. It is not known whether it protects against other forms of Hepatitis: A, C, etc.

Full vaccination coverage varies by mother's education. It was low, at 58% among children whose mothers had no education, relatively high, at 80% among children whose mothers had obtained primary education, and 88% among children whose mothers had secondary or higher education. The wealth status of the household is closely associated with vaccination. People in urban areas are better vaccinated: the coverage was higher in urban areas (86%) compared to rural areas (77%). In short, much depends on mothers' education and economic status and location. These are well-known results, reiterated by these data. The message is clear: poverty alleviation, women's education and availability of services are central to children's health and family welfare.

Seen in terms of CMDG 2015, the set indicators have either been met, or are on target to being met.

Exclusive breast-feeding is becoming common in Cambodia, with 74% of children ≤ 6 months being exclusively breast-fed as in 2010. This is a significant increase compared to 2005, when the then CDHS reported this rate to be about 60%. Only 3% of infants under 6-months were not being breast-fed in 2010. Nearly all children were breast-fed through the first year of life, but by age 6-9 months, most breast-fed children were also receiving supplementary food. Bottle-feeding is not very common yet, but it has slightly increased since 2005: 14% of children ≤ 6 -months have been fed with a bottle compared to 11% in 2005. Children ever-breast-fed, ranges from 87% in Mondolkiri and Rattanakiri (low), to 99% in Svay Rieng (high). About two-thirds of breast-fed children were breast-fed within one hour of their birth (65%) and 89% within one day of their birth. Early initiation of breast-feeding is more common among

children whose mothers were assisted by trained attendants in delivery.

The CMDG 2015 targets have been met.

TASKS COMPLETED, CHALLENGES AND GOVERNMENT POLICY

Achievements: Cambodia has achieved all its CMDG targets in regard to child health: the IMR, U5MR, child vaccination and exclusive breast-feeding.

Challenges: There are inter-provincial differences in child health indicators, which is a reflection of unequal standard of living and unequal spread of public services.

Government Policy: Notwithstanding the achievements, Cambodia still has higher child mortality rates compared to other countries in the region and inadequate coverage and quality of health services in response to the demand. The RS of the Royal Government puts forth a 10-point programme on health, which has an explicit mention of infant and child health. It states that infant/children health including their nutrition status will be improved through enhancing the quality and effectiveness of reproductive, maternal, infant and children healthcare services by focusing on: expanded coverage of child delivery by professional mid-wives and physicians, maternal emergency and new-born baby care services and consultation services on birth spacing options; increasing the coverage of children's vaccination, especially vaccinations against measles and tetanus; and providing mineral supplements and proteins to infants during the initial 1,000 days after birth and special care services for those with severe malnutrition.



Health care worker giving oral vaccination to a student in a school in Kampong Cham province.



CMDG 5: IMPROVE MATERNAL HEALTH

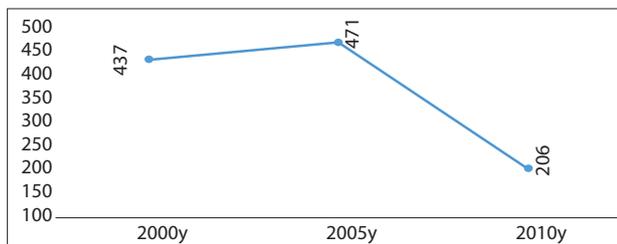
CMDG puts forth six indicators to gauge maternal health:

1. Maternal mortality ratio (mortality per 100,000 live births) – 2015 target: 250;
2. Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel – 2015 target: 87;
3. Total fertility rate – 2015 target: 3;
4. Proportion of married women using modern contraceptive methods – 2015 target: 60;
5. Proportion of pregnant women with ≥ 2 ANC with skilled health personnel – 2015 target: 90;
6. Proportion of pregnant women delivering by Caesarean Section – 2015 target: 4.

5.1. MATERNAL MORTALITY RATE (MMR) AND ATTENDED BIRTHS ²⁸

The MMR target—like many other health/demographic targets—was initially set at 140 per 100 000 live births, based on the Population Census of 1998 and projections based on other demographic estimates made in the 1990s. With the performance seen in the 2000 CDHS, and the health extension services and their response from the field, the target was later revised to 250.

Figure 2.24: Trend in Maternal Mortality Ratio, 2000-2010



Source: CDHS, 2000, 2005 and 2010

Figure 2.24 shows the MMR numbers for 2000, 2005 and 2010. Estimates for both 2000 and 2005 exceed 400, an unacceptably high figure in absolute terms. However, there was a notable reduction in 2010 (to 206), to the extent that the CMDG target of 250 has been met five years in advance.²⁹

The reasons the MMR has fallen include:

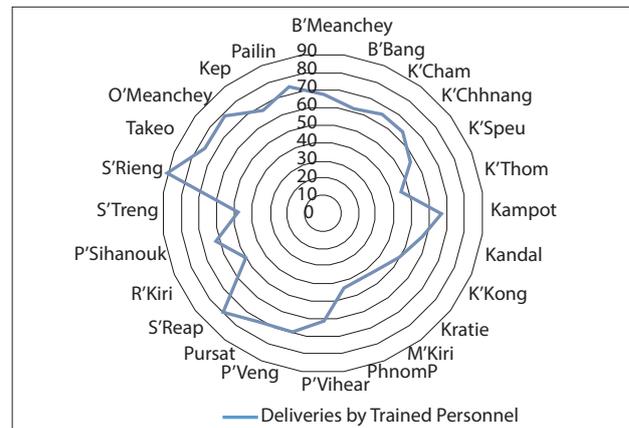
- 1) Both proportion of births assisted by trained health staff and deliveries in public health facilities rose dramatically during 2005-2010.

- 2) There has been improvement in the provision of comprehensive and basic Emergency Obstetric and New-born Care (EmONC), which can actually save mothers' lives.
- 3) Midwifery incentives for attended live births, introduced by MoH in 2006, have contributed.
- 4) Improvements in mothers' educational status have helped.

Further analysis of MMR is not permissible as data are not available on either sub-national levels or by wealth/standard of living groups. However, the CDB suggests that more remote and less developed provinces, like Stung Treng, Koh Kong, Rattanakiri and Mondolkiri have a much higher MMR than the national average.

The proportion of women who were attended by trained personnel while giving birth was 58% in 2008, rising to 75% in 2012.³⁰ Linear trends suggest that the target of 87% should be reached by 2015 if there is no major setback.

Figure 2.25: Inter-provincial Variations in percentage of Attended Births, 2012



Note: Provincial level data presented here do not include National Hospitals or most private health care providers and facilities.

Source: MoH



Pregnant women staying at a maternal waiting home in Stung Treng province prior to delivery.

²⁸ MMR is women dying due to pregnancy complications (deaths from the date of conception until 42 days after delivery) per 100,000 live births.

²⁹ Though the estimate for 2005 is a little higher than that in 2000, MoH believes that there was really no change because the method of calculating MMR is imprecise, permitting high margins of error.

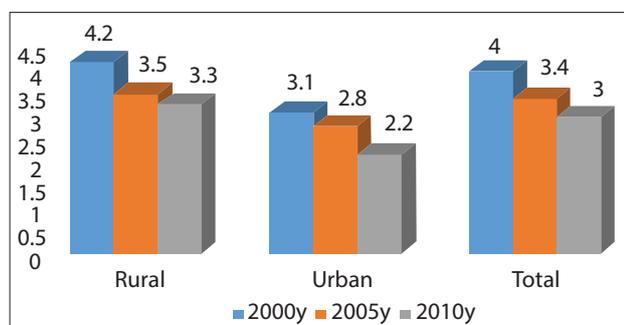
³⁰ Source: Administrative data, MoH

Figure 2.25 suggests some variation across provinces in attended births:³¹ the pattern, however, is nothing like the ones seen earlier—of better-off provinces showing higher attended births—though some poorer provinces (Mondolkiri, Rattanakiri, Stung Treng) exhibit low proportions. This suggests that direct interventions can also be effective.

5.2. TOTAL FERTILITY RATE

The total fertility rate (TFR) refers to the number of children that would be born to a woman over her lifetime if she were to experience the currently prevalent age-specific fertility rates through her lifetime, and that she would survive until the end of her reproductive life. If this number is large, it would imply that the woman is engaged in reproductive activities much of her time, which is detrimental to her economic engagements and/or health, and also increases the risk of maternal death. The CMDG target for 2015 has been fixed at 3.

Figure 2.26: Total Fertility Rates

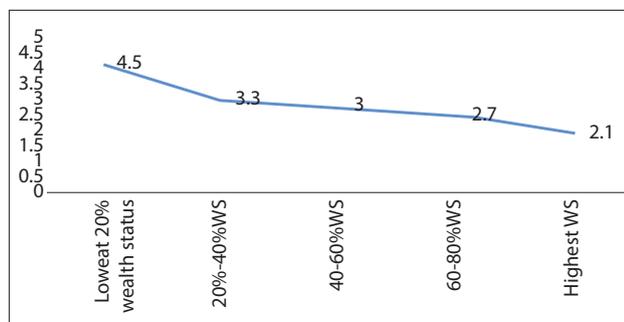


Source: CDHS 2000, 2005 and 2010

There has been a steady fall in the TFR in the decade 2000-2010. It was slightly faster in urban areas than rural (Figure 2.26). Overall, the CMDG target has been met five years in advance; however, the rural-urban gap calls for attention.

TFR varies with the wealth-status of households: poorer ones have a higher TFR than those relatively more affluent (Figures 2.27).

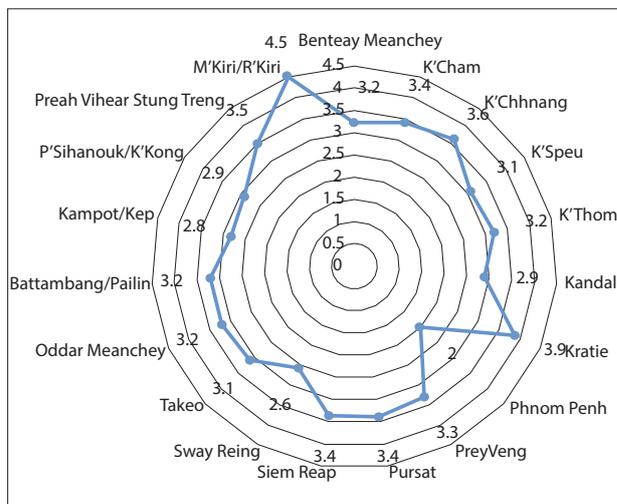
Figure 2.27: TFR by Wealth Status, 2010



Source: CDHS 2010

An inter-provincial variation also suggests that the relatively poorer provinces exhibit a higher TFR, and vice versa [simple correlation between TFR and Poverty is (-) 0.76]] (see Figure 2.28 for inter-provincial variations).

Figure 2.28: TFR by Provinces, 2010



Source: CDHS 2010



A woman breastfeeding her child at her house in Kandal province.

31 CoV across provinces is 21% - not too high, but cannot be neglected.

5.3. CONTRACEPTIVE USE AND ANC CONSULTATIONS

Of all married women in the age group 15-49 years, in 2000 19% were using modern contraceptive methods. This increased to 27.2% in 2005 and further to 35% in 2010.³² An increase of 1.5-2% annually suggests that the CMDG 2015 target of 60%, in all probability, will not be met.

Pregnant women receiving at least two ANC consultations increased from 83% in 2009 to 87% in 2012. In absolute terms, these are good numbers and the CMDG 2015 is well within sight.³³

5.4. C-SECTION DELIVERIES

An increase in C-Section deliveries suggests there is recognition of possible complications and health risks to the mother and foetus, and facilities have been created for conducting operations. The proportion of deliveries by C-Section increased from 0.77% in 2008 to 2.83% in 2012, against a target of 4% for 2015. While pregnancy and childbirth are natural processes, a target of 5% is still reasonable, as it is believed there could be complications in a small number of cases as data from other countries suggest. Beyond 5%, there is a need to interpret data with caution.



Ms. Koet MeakDina, midwife in Stung Treng referral hospital checking health of a pregnant woman before delivery.

Box 2.10: Health facilities and use

Since 2007, there has been a marked improvement in health care services, as stated by residents in several villages. Health centres have been built, and are staffed by eight to 10 nurses (including part-time/full-time trainees). They operate round the clock, which is most helpful, especially for women in extending MNCH. Knowledge about and access to health services is crucial. Pregnant women feel quite secure, as when something unusual happens they know where they can go for help. Each village has two Village Health Support Group (VHSG) elected members, one male and one female whom the villagers consult on contraceptive use, the advantages of doing pre-natal testing regularly and breast-feeding, sending patients to hospitals, and coordinating with health centres for vaccinating children.

Almost all women in reproductive age-groups know about the services provided by the health centres: e.g. free pre-natal check, free 90 tablets of folic acid and iron, and the advantages of delivering babies by skilled health personnel. In the last few years, some women who delivered babies with a traditional birth attendant had to be sent as emergency cases to the provincial referral hospital. These cases are evidence to others on the need to consult trained personnel. The service provided at the health centre is much better than before, in terms of attitude of the staff and transparency in fee payment. The fee-structure is displayed on the walls. For instance, there is no fee to be charged to poorer women (who have ID-Poor cards). In severe cases, NGOs support poorer patients financially and otherwise. All this effort has been helpful, especially to the poorer people.

Up to 90% of children in the age-group 12-24 months are fully vaccinated. All are aware that a child-vaccination book is given to each mother. Health centre staff comes to each village to vaccinate, and the VHSG brings them the children who need vaccinations.

Some 10% of children who do not get vaccinated are from very poor families. Such families often also have many older people with them. Women in the age group 60-70 years do not trust modern doctors and do not understand the advantages of vaccination. Although the health centre staff visits them in their homes, they still refuse to have their children vaccinated.

Source: Field interviews in Kratie, Kampong Thom, and Battambang

32 Source: CDHS. The Administrative Data from MoH suggest more modest numbers. E.g. the use of modern contraceptive methods was about 31% in 2012. Reason: they cover public provisioning alone.

33 The variation across provinces is small here: CoV is 16%. The pattern, however, is similar to that seen earlier in Attended Births. Source: MoH.

TASKS COMPLETED, CHALLENGES AND GOVERNMENT POLICY

Achievements: Cambodia has achieved the CMDG targets on maternal mortality ratio and total fertility rate much in advance. It has also made significant progress on CMDG targets related to skilled birth attendants assisting in delivery, and pregnant women making ANC visits to health centres. The country is well on its way to achieving these targets by 2015.

Challenges: Targets in contraceptive use in most likelihood will not be met, since its use stems from a behavioural change. This is a slow, incremental process.

Government Policy: As stated earlier, the RS has put forth a 10-point programme on health, which has an explicit mention of maternal health and care. To reiterate, effort will be made to improve reproductive, maternal and infant/children health including their nutrition status through enhancing the quality and effectiveness of reproductive, maternal, infant and children healthcare services by focusing on expanded coverage of child delivery by professional mid-wives and physicians and maternal emergency and new-born baby care services, and consultation services on birth spacing options.



CMDG 6: COMBAT HIV/AIDS, MALARIA AND OTHER DISEASES

The three main diseases that the government has brought under the purview of CMDGs are:

1. Reduce the prevalence of HIV/AIDS to 0.4% in the population
2. Reduce the prevalence of malaria (including dengue) to 0.8% in the population, and
3. Reduce the prevalence of tuberculosis to 653 per 100 000 population.

6.1. HIV/AIDS

In 1998, the proportion of people who appeared to have contracted HIV was near to 2% of the population. Based on this, the 2002 National Human Development Report of Cambodia painted a fairly grim picture of the spread of the disease.

The situation is now under control. Prevalence of HIV has declined considerably in the last decade, and is now at 0.7% among adults aged 15-49 years, as per the last count (Table 2.5). Fifty-one Operational Districts in 21 provinces now offer treatment for opportunistic infections and provide anti-retroviral (ARV) services. Thirty-two facilities provide paediatric care. More than 90% of people living with HIV/AIDS (PLHA) and currently using ARV treatment survived at least 12 months after the treatment in 2012, compared to 86% in 2009. MoH data suggest that the number of voluntary confidential



Women receiving counselling about nutrition during a health check in Kratie province.

Table 2.5: Key Statistics Relating to HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB

		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2015 target
HIV prevalence	% Adults 15-49	0.7	0.7	0.7	-	-	0.4
Malaria mortality	Per 100,000 population		70.8				
Prevalence of all forms of TB	Numbers				764		653

Source: CSES

counselling and testing (VCCT) facilities available in referral hospitals and health centres increased from 212 in 2008 to 233 in 2009, and 239 in 2010.³⁴

The government, based on a new research report, believes that the prevalence of HIV/AIDS could increase four-fold if further action to prevent its spread is not taken. The likely affected groups are those engaged in entertainment activities, men who have sex with men (MSM) or people who inject narcotic substances. Drug resistance is also developing in treating HIV/AIDS. The AIDS National Strategic Plan Phase III (NSP III) (2011-2015) is implementing the following key strategies: further expand coverage; offer services for effective prevention; improve care and treatment; mitigate the impacts of the disease; create an enabling environment; and mobilise resources. NSP III is expected to control the HIV epidemic carried through sexual transmission, MSM and drug-use.

Achieving the CMDG target for HIV/AIDS depends on how successful these programmes are. Much emphasis will be placed in prevention, as the economy is poised to make substantive leaps in tourism. The government is also aware that there will be greater movement of workers in and out of the country as Cambodia integrates into ASEAN and foreign workers coming in, each of which raises the risk of exposure to this disease.

6.2. MALARIA, DENGUE AND OTHERS

Malaria and dengue, both caused by mosquitoes, are well under control (Table 2.7). To control malaria and other mosquito-related diseases, the government distributed 3,700,000 chemically treated mosquito nets to people living in high prevalence areas during 2011-2012.

Malaria and dengue affect forest-based peoples the most. If these people are provided livelihood opportunities in plains/open areas and encouraged to resettle there, it would serve the triple purpose of reducing the prevalence of the disease, improved livelihoods, and forest conservation. This is an early thought, not yet translated into policy.

Tuberculosis, a disease largely associated with poverty and malnutrition, has not shown much reduction in its prevalence (Table 2.7). The earlier target for tuberculosis prevalence was 464 per 100,000 people by 2015, which has now been made more modest. At the same time, the government has scaled-up the use of DOTS for treating tuberculosis. In 2008, 506 health centres provided this service; in 2009, 744 centres provided it; and in 2010, 839 centres provided it. A public-private partnership programme now provides for treatment of tuberculosis in 39 districts in 11 provinces. This target is well within sight, also because both people's standards of living and nutrition status are steadily improving.



A family setting up a mosquito net for the night in Kandal province.

³⁴ Data source: MoH



Twelve new health centres have been established along the border with Preah Vihear, Benteay Meanchey and Oddar Meanchey. Poor people being covered by equity funds and subsidies for health care increased from 73% of the population in 2009 to 77% in 2010. Implementation of the law has become stricter, with illegal pharmacies and drug stores declining sharply from 38.5% in 2009, to 5.4% in 2010. Similarly, illegal private health provision declined from 28% of all patients 'treated' in 2009, to 7% for the same period.

TASKS COMPLETED, CHALLENGES, AND GOVERNMENT POLICY

Achievements: Cambodia has achieved the target on malaria and is well on its way to achieve targets on tuberculosis and HIV/AIDS.

Challenges: There are no remaining challenges per se. It needs underscoring nevertheless, that an efficient surveillance system and adequate resources on a continued basis are real needs.

Government Policy: The Royal Government, in its RS, has put forth a 10-point programme on health, which has an explicit emphasis of further reducing morbidity and mortality rates caused by major communicable diseases such as HIV/AIDS, TB, malaria, dengue, and other poorly treated tropical diseases including newly emerged transmitted diseases and other re-emerged diseases, particularly exerting more efforts to completely eliminate malaria by 2025.



Doctor and nurse checking the health of a woman after her giving birth at Kratie Referral Hospital.

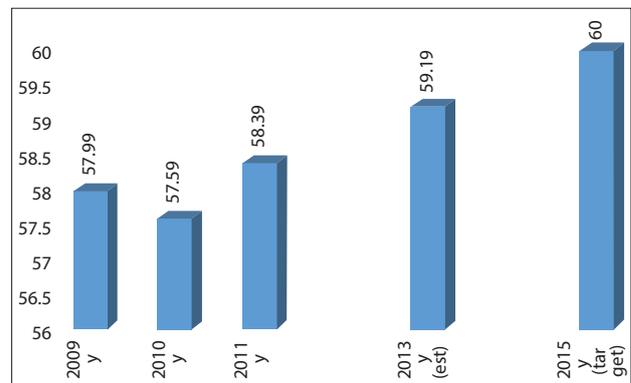
Under this CMDG the major targets are:

1. Reverse the loss of environmental resources;
2. Increase the proportion of people who have access to potable water supply and sanitation, to a stipulated number (separately defined for rural and urban areas – see in the text later);
3. Reduce dependence on firewood for cooking to 52%;
4. Increase the proportion of people with secure land tenure.

7.1. FOREST COVER

In the 1960s, forests covered more than 70% of Cambodia's area. Since the 1990s (after the war), forests were one of the few real resources that the country possessed in the commercial and agriculture sense; consequently, deforestation began. Other than the all-round ecological impacts, deforestation particularly affected inland water (and fish) availability the year round, a situation of which the RGC is acutely aware. It is attempting to address the problem now.

Figure 2.29: Current Area under Forest and Future Proposals



Source: Mid-term Review of the NSDP Update 2009-2013

Between 1990 and 2010, the government estimates that Cambodia lost 22% of its forest-cover, or around 2,850,000 hectares of forest. A national forest cover assessment conducted in 2006 found that the total forest-cover had decreased from 61.2% in 2002 to 59.1% in 2006, representing a loss by conversion (due to expansion of agriculture and other commercial plantations) of 373,510 ha of forest. The Forestry Administration estimates that forest cover in 2010 was about 57.59% (Figure 2.29).

Most deforestation has happened in the four northwest provinces. Some losses have occurred in the protected areas, although these are smaller in scale and have occurred over a much longer period.

The environment is high on the Government's list of priorities. The Prime Minister has stated, '*...development with environmental sustainability is the key goal of Cambodia and (other) countries in the region.*'³⁵ The Royal Government of Cambodia are striving to maintain the forest cover at 60% of the total land area, which is also the CMDG 2015 target. For this, they are reinforcing the protection and management of forests, decreasing the pressure on forests by improving farming techniques, trying to reduce dependence on wood fuel, and engaging in an active programme of forest rehabilitation and reforestation through maintaining newly growing forest and planted forest, including commercial plantations.

7.2. PROTECTED AREAS³⁶

The government has identified protected areas and community-protected areas as part of its environmental protection strategy. Its current protection system includes 23 protected areas totalling 3.1 million ha, amounting to some 27% of the country's total land area and protected forest and genetic protected areas. This is one of the highest in the world (Table 2.6). The area under '23 protected areas' is expected to stabilise in the coming years and community-protected areas are on the rise. These are positive developments and the government is optimistic that the 2015 targets could be met.³⁷

Table 2.6: Environmental Sustainability – Forestry Development Indicators

		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2015 (est.)
Surface of 23 Protected Areas	Ha	3,100,199	3,100,199	3,111,041	3,111,041	3,111,041	3,111,041	3,111,041
Community Protected Areas	Numbers	82	84	98	102	115	120	140

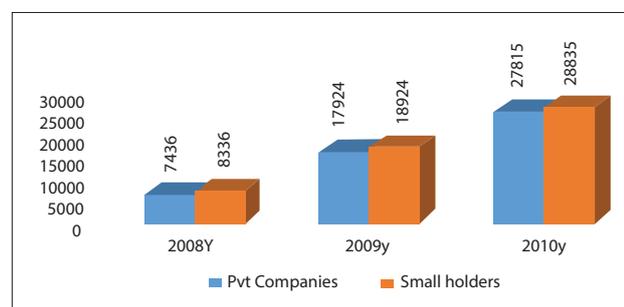
Source: Ministry of Environment (MoE)

7.3. EFFORTS TO REFOREST

The Ministry of Environment (MoE) and Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (MAFF) jointly promote afforestation in Cambodia. The Government has adopted a new law related to protected areas, which classifies protected areas into four zones: core, conservation, sustainable use, and community. MoE is in the process of defining these zones in each of the protected areas. (See Figure 2.30 for efforts towards reforestation).

The RGC has permitted conversion of some degraded forest areas within 'sustainable development' zones of protected areas under Economic Land Concessions, to serve as green belts to protect the conservation and core zones and to promote economic development and local people's livelihoods.

Figure 2.30: Reforestation Efforts



Source: MAFF



A forest ranger picking mushroom for food in Monk Community Forest in Oddar Meanchey province.

35 Prime Minister's Opening Speech at the Third Greater Mekong Sub-region Environment Ministers' Meeting, July 28, 2011, Phnom Penh. Quote taken from MTR of the NSDP Update 2009-2013.

36 Seen historically, in 1925, Cambodia became the first country in South-East Asia to establish a protected area.

37 The 23 protected areas are under discussion and are likely to be raised to >30 in the near future.

A challenge, nevertheless, is the evolution of a clear definition of forests and enforcement: The next task to do is to define the definition of forests, to clearly define the demarcation of protected forest and protected areas and to enforce the protection. The management of the forest and protected areas is still an issue because of limited human and financial resources.

In terms of management, there is shortage of both human and financial resources, further aggravated by periodic budget cuts, due to the financial crisis and consequent rationalisation of expenditure. For example, the number of rangers in protected areas increased according to plan, to 910 in 2009, but reduced to 480 in 2010, although it rose again to 960 in 2012. Similarly, the number of rangers in Protected Forests decreased from 500 to 315 over this period. To overcome this shortage, the authorities are increasingly engaging community groups in the protected forests to manage resources. There are 457 Community Forestry (CF) groups (2013)—although not all of them are recognised—expecting to conserve an area over 400,000 ha. There are also 120 Community Protected Areas covering some 164,480 ha. The impact of these is yet to be gauged.

Some other challenges are limited technologies and techniques available for replanting; low incentives for staff; high dependence of many villagers on forests for livelihood; illegal logging; and forest areas not being fully-demarcated.

Cambodia needs to focus on conservation of forests and sustainable management of forest eco-systems to reap multiple benefits: economic, environmental, social and cultural. The country also requires large investment in rural development, water and sanitation, roads and other infrastructure, in addition to investment in education and health. This would create livelihoods outside extractive activities and reduce pressure on forests.



Villagers living around monk community forest in Oddar Meanchey collecting non-timber products where they can pick in the forest for sale.

SUPPORT MEASURES

Among the support measures, the most important are the legal component and capacity building. A number of laws have been and are being passed to protect the environment and make sustainable use of natural resources, specifically in regard to the inland fresh water resources. Officials are regularly sent for training and studies. Environmental impact assessments of commercial projects are being made compulsory before clearances are given. Finally, a Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) System is being put in place, and a database on the environment is possible.

7.4. FISHERIES

The Fisheries Sector underwent a major transformation in Cambodia after reforms introduced from 2000 to 2013. These have included the establishment of Community Fisheries, and the release of fishing lots from large-scale fishing operations (which are now given to family/small-scale fisherpersons through community control). In 2012, all large-scale fishing lots ceased operation and all areas are now under community fisheries, and open to anyone for fishing.

The numbers of community fisheries gradually rose from 246 in 2002 to 469 in 2010 and 516 in 2013, covering an area of 683,734 ha. However, only 360, covering an area of 800,000 ha, were registered by 2010, against a target of 470 for 2015. Some 390 Community Fish sanctuaries covering 1,170 ha, and 335 fish sanctuaries covering 46,618 ha, have been established and established 778 community fish refuge ponds. The establishment of fish sanctuaries is on track to meet the 2015 CMDG target.

From 2010 to 2013, the Fisheries Administration of MAFF succeeded in all sub-sectors: preparing regulatory legal instruments, strengthening community fisheries, establishing community fish refuge ponds, developing aquaculture, undertaking research, conserving, suppressing illegal fishing practices and fisheries extension work. A Royal Decree, Sub-decrees and Prakas (government orders) have been drafted, reviewed, revised and approved, to ensure sustainable management of fisheries.

The biggest challenge lies in managing the ecology of the Tonle Sap. With upstream deforestation in the catchment area, incidences of silting, and alternate floods and droughts have become frequent. Floods inundate lands in the wet season but there is paucity of water in the dry seasons. There is the challenge of controlling illegal fishing and using eco-friendly approaches to catch fish. Additional challenges relate to preserving and marketing the produce, given that it is highly perishable.



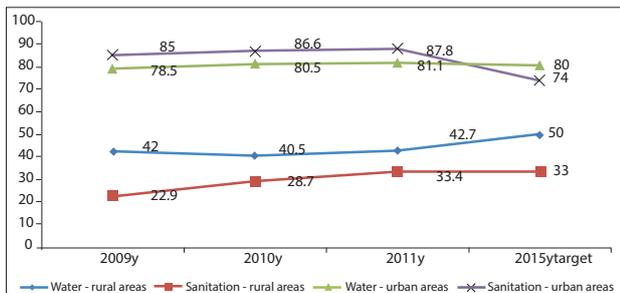
Farmers catching fish from a backyard pond in Siem Reap province.

7.5. POTABLE WATER AND SANITATION

Safe water and proper sanitation are central to achieving MDGs the world over, and Cambodia is no exception.

The CMDG target requires providing safe drinking water to 50% of the population in rural areas. This could be met with some effort (Figure 2.31). The target for sanitation (measured by improved latrines) in rural areas is 33%, which appears to have been met. The CMDG target requires providing safe drinking water to 80% of the population in urban areas by 2015. The proportion of urban population with access to safe water was about 81% in 2011, exceeding the target in advance. The target for sanitation in urban areas is 74% for 2015, which has also been exceeded in advance.³⁸

Figure 2.31: Trends in People Using Safe Water (%) and Hygienic Latrines (%) by Rural / Urban Areas, 2009-2011



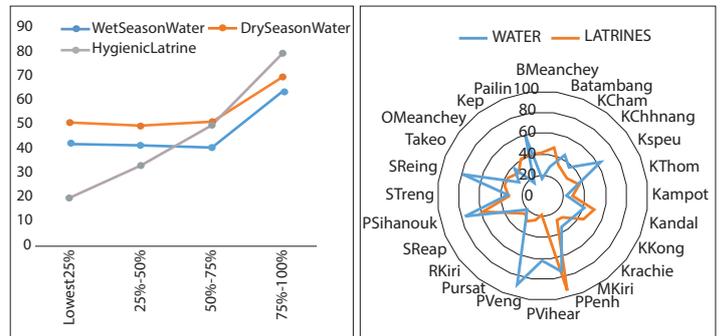
Source: CSES

Looking at access to safe water MPCE group-wise, there appears to be a relatively small gap in access to safe drinking water across the first three MPCE brackets. A large jump is seen between the rest and the top 25% MPCE bracket. However, the same cannot be said for hygienic latrines: there is a distinct gradation as the MPCE brackets rise (Figure 2.32a). Finally, there are large variations in access to safe water and sanitation across provinces: the CoV for access to safe water is about 42%, and to latrines, 40% (Figure 2.32b). The lagging provinces will be accorded priority targeting in the future.



Primary school students taking water from a water container in their classroom in Kandal province.

Figure 2.32 (a&b): Access to Safe Water and Hygienic Latrines, by MPCE groups and Provinces, respectively, 2011



Source: CSES for 2.33a and CDB for 2.33b

7.6. FIREWOOD USE

Firewood and/or charcoal, the traditional sources of cooking fuel, are now deemed ecologically harmful in view of the emerging threats of global warming. Even efficient woodstoves are quite wasteful in burning fuel. Additionally, smoke can be harmful to eyes and respiratory systems of those who cook. The process of making charcoal burns out part of the carbon uselessly, resulting in an avoidable contribution to greenhouse gases. The effective firewood consumption which is established based on new technology has helped to increase the charcoal quality and saved the forest around 30%, compared with traditional consumption.

38 Numbers on rural water and sanitation seen from administrative data of Ministry of Rural Development is somewhat different from that seen in survey data (see table below). Reason: the methods are collection and definitions are different.



Farmers in Kampong Chhange using fuel wood to process palm sugar. A UNDP project is encouraging the farmers to use a new cook stove that consume less fuel wood.

There were some 84% of households dependent on firewood for cooking in 2005, which came down to 79.5% in 2010 and 62% in 2013. Short-term strategy for reducing the proportion of families using firewood is to encourage the use of effective stove, which can save the charcoal about 20%, compared with normal stove and it has reasonable price. In response to this strategy, about 2.5 million effective stoves were distributed for selling in the markets since 2003 until 2013 with the use of effective charcoal ovens has helped to prevent and reduce the forest logging for firewood or charcoal production.

In a long-term vision, RGC is implementing the strategy connecting distribution networks and sub-distribution networks to the rural areas to contribute to the development of renewable energy and biogas consumption. The plantation of fast-growing forest for firewood production is the choice, which needs to be continued. This target is likely to be met at 52% by 2015.

7.7. TENURE SECURITY FOR LAND

The RGC, through the Ministry of Land Management and Urban Construction (MLMUC), gave out 2,257,151 land titles through systematic land titling (estimate until early 2013). Another 603,332 titles were given out through sporadic land titling. The total titles given out were 2,860,453. The rate of farmland registration, measured by the percentage of total plots registered per year, rose secularly from 22% in 2009 to 24% in 2010, and 28% in 2011. The aim is to reach 43% by 2015 (which has been scaled down from an earlier target of 65%). To achieve this, the government proposes to quicken the progress.

The registration of indigenous people's community lands is complete in three target pilot areas: Andong Kraling village, Orang Ov district in Mondolkiri; and Ochum district and Konmom district, in Rattanakiri. To strengthen capacity for implementing both systematic and sporadic titling, MLMUC has conducted training courses for its officials.

TASKS COMPLETED, CHALLENGES AND GOVERNMENT POLICY

Achievements: Cambodia has achieved, or is well on its way to achieve, CMDG targets on reversing the environment losses (including forests and fisheries) and on potable water and sanitation.

Challenges: Notwithstanding the success, a strong M&E system for forestry and economic land concessions, early demarcation of the forest areas, improving the quality of human resources deployed for conservation, improving technologies of conservation, and protecting the rights of the forest-dependent people, are critical to sustaining the achievements. Next, land titling will require speeding up. Finally, achieving the 2015 target of reducing the proportion of households using firewood to 52% is unlikely. .

The government policy: as stated in the RS, aims to strengthen laws, develop institutional frameworks and build institutional and human capacities. Key elements:

Forests: RGC will promote the 'National Forest Programme 2010-2029'. Key elements: demarcation and forest classification; management of state and private forests; participation from forest-dependent communities; management of conservation measures; reduction of deforestation and degradation of forests; and intensified tree planting and forest rehabilitation.

Fisheries: RGC will promote the 'Strategic Planning Framework for Fisheries Sector 2010-2019'. Key elements: tighten control over fishing gears and fishing periods; elimination of overfishing; strengthening of fishing communities' capacity for the management; pollution minimisation; and demarcation of flooded forest and fisheries conservation zones.

Land: RGC will pursue a 9-point programme, which includes preparing the Law on Land Management and Urbanisation and Law on Agricultural Land; and accelerating land registration and issuance of land titles including for state lands, private lands, and indigenous community lands.

Water and Sanitation: RGC will expand the coverage of clean water supply to the rural and urban areas through implementing 'The National Strategy for Rural Water Supply and Sanitation 2011-2025', including formulation of an action plan, and encouraging participation from the private sector.



CMDG 8: FORGE A GLOBAL PARTNERSHIP FOR DEVELOPMENT

There are no defined indicators for this goal; however, at least four objectives are identified:

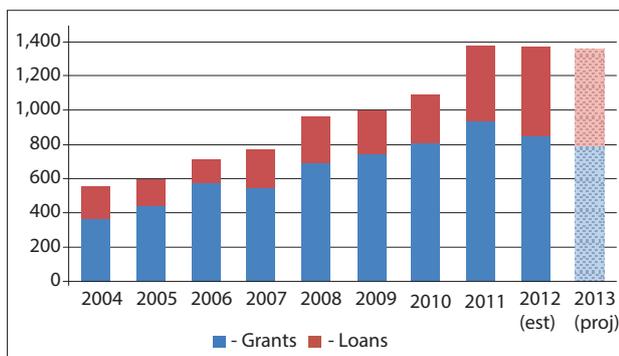
1. Raise and effectively use resources received under international assistance programmes, and coordinate and harmonise the assistance;
2. Maintain economic openness;
3. Forge partnerships;
4. Cooperate with the private sector to seek maximum benefits from new technologies, especially information technologies.

8.1. AID RECEIPTS, COORDINATION AND HARMONISATION

The RGC has succeeded in mobilising resources through development cooperation to support socio-economic development from external resources, which have exceeded \$1 billion annually since 2008. Development cooperation assistance has constituted some 8-9% of GDP in recent years, which has helped the country attain high economic growth, reduce poverty and make strides towards achieving the CMDGs. External support has also helped create a positive environment for public and private investment in infrastructure, the garment industry, agriculture, construction, and tourism sectors. The RGC is now well-positioned to promote and sustain high rates of economic growth in the coming years, graduate Cambodia to middle-income status, and engage in and benefit from regional and global integration initiatives.

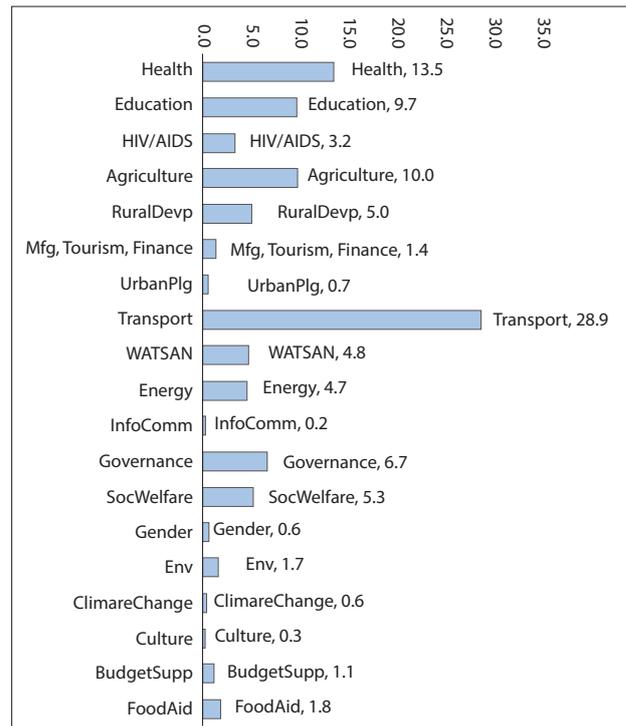
The grant share of the support actually rose from 66% of all disbursements in 2004 to 75% in 2010, but thereafter the balance shifted in favour of loans. However, the grant component is still significantly higher than the loan component. With an increasing share of loans in future, the country will need to be judicious in the use of funds, as they must be paid back (Figure 2.33).

Figure 2.33: Trends in development assistance: Loans, grants and total (US\$ million)



Source: CDC

Figure 2.34: Disbursement of Official Development Assistance Funds by Sector (%), 2013 (Est.)



Source: CDC

The majority of the assistance was allocated to health, education, transport, governance and transport sectors, followed by education, rural development and agriculture (Figure 2.34). It is not surprising that health indicators and poverty ratios have shown good results in recent years. There could also be a claim that social sector investments can leverage economic growth.

8.2. THE PARTNERSHIP PROCESS: COORDINATION AND HARMONISATION

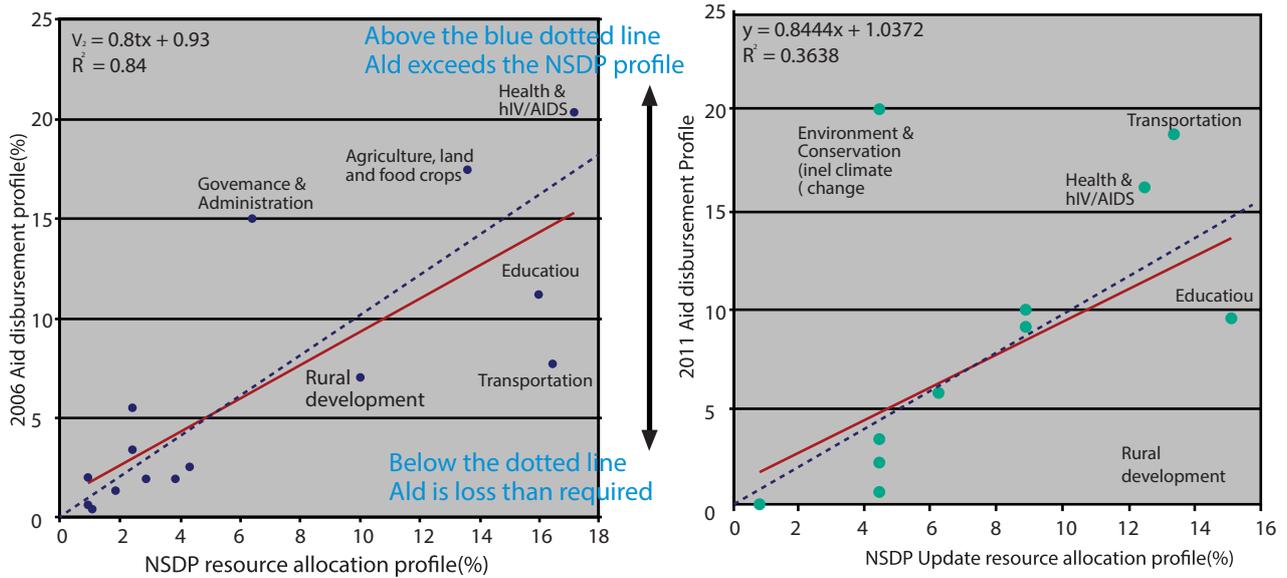
There are three components of partnership between Cambodia and its development partners:

1. A government-to-government partnership;
2. Private sector partnership;
3. Non-government organisations (NGO) and civil society partnership.

Cambodia has established several levels of partnership and has set up forums to make them functional. Some examples:

1. Cambodia Development Cooperation Forum (CDCF);
2. Government-Development Partner Coordination Cooperation Committee (GDCC);
3. Technical Working Groups (TWGs) – there are 18 to 19 of them, covering different areas;
4. Bilateral RGC-Development Partnership Consultations;
5. Government-NGO Consultation Meetings.

Figure 2.35: Alignment of development cooperation line with NSDP, 2006 and 2011



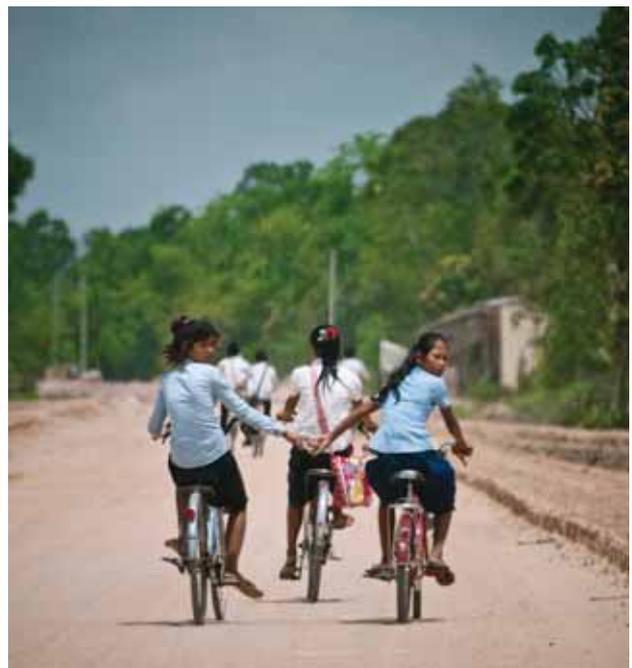
Source: CDC

The RGC has made good progress in enhancing effectiveness and efficiency in using development cooperation resources. Cambodia adheres to requirements in regard to implementing the commitments on aid effectiveness agreed upon globally at the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness, 2005, and reaffirmed at the Accra Agenda for Action, 2008. Transparency in the flow and use of development cooperation resources has been improved, and the national information system, the Cambodia ODA Database, is regularly updated. Harmonisation of support from development partners has been greatly enhanced with the introduction and implementation of tools such as Program-Based Approaches, Annual Operational Plans, Budget Strategic Plans and the on-going progress in the Public Financial Management Reform Programme. The development resources, in principle, are expected to be allocated to support national priorities as laid down in the Rectangular Strategy and the National Strategic Development Plans (which provide a policy framework for aligning resources with national development), although the process is not too smooth and it needs improvement (Figure 2.35).

The national and global development context now requires greater emphasis on achieving development results and adopting approaches that support planning, partnership and monitoring. For the development effectiveness approach to be meaningful, however, activities to strengthen partnerships, achieve results and develop sustainable capacities must be linked to national planning, budgeting and monitoring frameworks. ODA-supported efforts must become more closely integrated with the Government's reform programmes to build effective institutions. The government is working towards establishing a Results-Framework for monitoring at national and sector levels to promote and guide effective development partnerships.



Farmer pumping water into rice fields through a tube during dry season in Svay Rieng Province.



Students holding hands while riding bicycle on their way back home from school.

Cambodia has been integrated into the world economy since the present constitution was drawn up in 1993. As a full member of the ASEAN, Cambodia has been active in this group of nations. It was also the Chair of ASEAN in 2012. Cambodia became a member of the World Trade Organisation (WTO) in 2004, which gave it the Most Favoured Nation (MFN) status for its exports. It benefits from the “Everything but Arms (EBA) Initiative” of the EU’s Generalised System of Preferences (GSP). Cambodia has been participating in other regional, sub-regional and global cooperation initiatives. Cambodia’s trade has been significant with other countries in the ASEAN, Europe and the United States. It has been receiving significant investments from the countries in the ASEAN.

Note: Cambodia cannot be compared with other countries in economic integration on many counts. For example, its stock market has just been inaugurated, and its stocks cannot be traded in international markets for several years, until the time when local companies and markets become more mature. The currency situation is similar.

8.3. ECONOMIC OPENNESS

At the time of the Paris Peace Accord of 1991, Cambodia was a small, closed, war-torn, low-income economy, with virtually all institutions of economic management and governance seriously eroded. What stayed was an institutional mechanism for economic management and a resource allocation strategy through central ‘command and control’. After the general elections in 1993, the economy opened up: the currency was floated; a free trade regime was established (albeit without adequate regulations); the private sector was permitted to operate in all sectors; and many foreign investors came in.

Two decades later, Cambodia is still small, but is an open, exported-oriented economy, with a high growth rate in GDP and a floating exchange rate. It has more regulation on the inflow and outflow of capital, goods and money, despite the economy remaining open.

Two indicators to measure economic openness are:

1. The importance of trade – the proportion of imports plus exports (two-way trade) to GDP;
2. The extent of foreign investment inflow – i.e. trends in foreign investment.

Table 2.7: Trade to GDP Ratio (% of GDP)

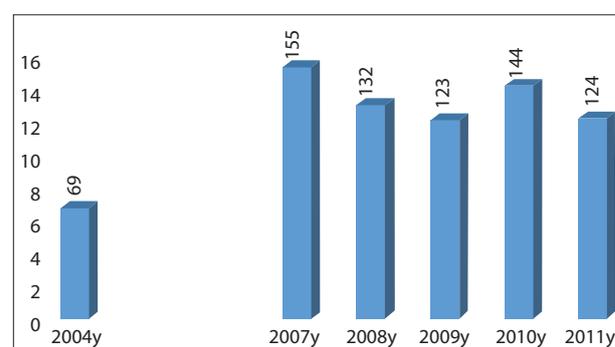
	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013 (est.)	2014 (exp.)
Exports of goods (% of GDP)	33.8	28.8	33.4	36.8	39.2	41.7	45.0
Imports of goods (% of GDP)	49.1	43.2	47.0	47.7	48.3	50.0	52.7
(Export+Import)X100/GDP (2-way trade)	82.9	71.0	80.4	84.5	87.5	91.7	97.7

Source: Ministry of Environment (MoE)

The last row of Table 2.7 suggests that the international interface of the Cambodian economy—measured by a proxy indicator ‘two-way trade’—exceeded 90% of GDP in 2013. The global economic crisis was responsible for a reduction in both exports and imports in 2009, in an otherwise fairly open economy.

As Figure 2.37 suggests, foreign direct investment (FDI) as a proportion of GDP rose until 2007, falling sharply in 2009, but then rose again in 2010. It tapered off in 2011. There are cycles of investment; when one set of projects is complete, there would be a slack before another set of investment projects is initiated. The global meltdown and the consequent turmoil in the international markets are affecting capital inflows. It is not a reflection of the economy becoming less open.

Figure 2.36 Foreign Direct Investments in Cambodia (% of GDP)



Source: MEF, MOP, and NBC

8.4. BENEFITS OF NEW TECHNOLOGIES – CONNECTIVITY

RGC has aimed to promote modern and high quality information and communication technology. For this, it has undertaken a number of reform measures, the results of which are reflected in several indicators:

- (1) The number of mobile cellular subscription increased from 3.8 million in 2008 to approximately 19 million in 2012, equivalent to 130 subscriptions per 100 persons, and covered around 90% of urban areas,
- (2) The number of Internet service subscribers increased from 20,000 in 2008 to 2.7 million in 2012,
- (3) The quality of telecommunication network and services has steadily enhanced along with gradual development of the fixed-line telephone services, and

- (4) The network and service coverage of optical cable now connects Phnom Penh with all the districts and communes across the country as well as the neighbouring countries in the region.

The RGC, in partnership with the private sector where possible, is attempting to expand and deepen media coverage through technological up-grades, building more broadcasting stations in provinces, involving the D&D governance framework in Information Communications Technology (ICT), improving human capacities, gender mainstreaming, institutional-capacity building, and encouraging compliance with the Press Law.

TASKS COMPLETED, CHALLENGES AND GOVERNMENT POLICY

Achievements: Cambodia has regularly received international assistance in the last five to six years from diverse sources suggesting that its partnership strategy is effective. It has also set up institutions and processes to follow up on the Paris Declaration and the Accra Declaration on aid effectiveness, which have shown maturity over time. Cambodia is an open economy, having become a member of the WTO in 2004. Being a WTO member requires it to be open, a condition it has not violated so far. Finally, the success of mobile telephony has transformed the connectivity scene.

Challenges: Cambodia will soon face challenges that accompany its greater integration into the ASEAN in 2015. Some of these could affect industry and employment and some the budget revenues. Additionally, Cambodia will soon move out of its 'least developed country' status. Its immediate implication would be reduction in grants, which would be replaced by loans. To be a winner, these challenges must be faced.

Government Policy: The Royal Government will continue to focus on attracting investments both from domestic or foreign sources for diversifying the production base; on promoting transport connectivity and logistics systems; on improving the regulatory framework and strengthening institutional mechanisms; and on enhancing capacities to ensure a favourable environment for development. It will commit itself



A man using his mobile phone to communicate on his way back home from rice field.

to effectively fulfilling its role in regional and international affairs; introduce the 'Industrial Development Policy' to move the country to a higher value chain in the regional and global economy; further improve the regulatory framework aimed at improving business, trade and investment environment; take measures to expand Cambodia's export markets; take steps to join the ASEAN Community by 2015, particularly through effective implementation of ASEAN-related agreements; and establish frameworks to manage changes resulting from its participation in ASEAN Economic Community.



CMDG 9: DEMINING, REMOVING EXPLOSIVE REMNANTS OF WAR (ERW) AND VICTIM ASSISTANCE

SITUATION ANALYSIS

Cambodia is a mine/ERW-affected country. The RGC maintains that cleaning up these areas is a priority, and has included an extra CMDG, Goal 9, in the list of CMDGs. There are, however, no firm targets or indicators set for this CMDG, as the size of the problem is not known. The RGC—with support from the international community—has made significant efforts over the past 20 years to eradicate landmines/ERWs. Between 2009 and 2012, the Cambodian Mine Action Authority, with support from mine action stakeholders, implemented a Baseline Survey (BLS) in the 124 landmine/ERW-contaminated districts.

Between 2009 and 2012, mine clearance operators cleared and released 40,529 hectares of contaminated land for productive use: agriculture, resettlement and infrastructure development (schools, health centres, roads and irrigation systems). Casualties too have reduced. The land clearance progress from 2009 to 2011 included land cleared outside of the baseline survey (BLS) polygons. Clearance in 2012 excluded land cleared outside BLS polygons.

Cambodia is also participating in UN missions on demining; it sent 278 demining personnel to Sudan and Lebanon between 2010 and 2012. It also shared its experiences in mine action with other countries affected by landmines and ERW.



Young Cambodians discuss during a national consultation workshop in Phnom Penh.

Box 2.12: Mines and ERW affect more than lives and incomes

Despite hostilities ceasing more than a decade ago, people on or in the vicinity of formerly mine-affected areas still feel insecure. The impact of landmines is not simply physical; it is also psychological. For example, people's worldview is to live just for today: they do not plan to construct a proper house, and do not care about safe water, education for their children, and so on.

Those living in the vicinity of mine-contaminated areas or on areas that have been cleared of mines, still fear that there are many anti-tank mines buried on their lands. Their fears are not totally unfounded: there are instances when, for tactical reasons, some lands are not cleared of mines in the first lot, but people are unwilling to wait for clearing as they have to earn a living. There was an accident here in 2010, in which 13 people died and one was seriously injured.

People began farming these fields back in 1997, using simple traditional farming methods which do not require digging the soil deep, fearing that they would touch and explode the mines or ERW buried below. This method of farming does not provide much in terms of yield rates and their incomes are low.

These farmers do not venture out into other occupations, and they are unable to find land for cultivation elsewhere; hence, the despondency.

Source: Field interviews in Battambang



Repairing a bicycle in his small repair shop. He was a soldier until 1987 when he lost a leg when he stepped over a land mine.

Table 2.8 indicates the achievements in terms of casualty reduction and clearance / release of contaminated land between 2009 and 2012.

Table 2.8: Status of Mine and ERW Clearance

Indicator	Unit	Target/ result	2009	2010	2011	2012
Number of casualties caused by landmines and ERW (killed and injured)	Person	Target	244	240	220	200
		Result	244	286	211	186
Landmine and ERW contaminated land cleared/ released (annual target)	Ha	Target	5,268	5,374	5,481	5,591
		Result	6,136	11,950	14,150	8,293

Source: CMAA

TASKS COMPLETED, CHALLENGES AND GOVERNMENT POLICIES

Achievements: A Baseline Survey was completed in a majority of Cambodia's provinces where known landmine contamination was previously reported, by end-2012. It came to be known that about 191,482 hectares of landmine and ERW contaminated lands remain to be cleared.

Challenges: Large areas contaminated by ERW yet remain to be surveyed systematically in the coming years. People living in the vicinity of mine-cleared areas live in fear of the mines exploding. Occasional accidents have fuelled this fear. Since Mine-Action in Cambodia relies on financial support from development partners supporting the national budget, the government is concerned by the decrease in funding since 2011.

Government Policy: The Royal Government has a standing policy, mentioned in the RS, on stepping up the implementation of the 'National Mine Action Strategy 2010-2019', especially the clearance of the remaining mines and Explosive Remnants of War to expand arable land, secure safety of infrastructure development, and further reduce mines and ERW explosion accidents.



Cambodian farmer Prak Chrin, front, planting green bean seeds on her new land recently cleared of land mines in Samlot district, Battambang province.

SUMMING UP – A SNAPSHOT

CMDGs	Assessment
CMDG1: Poverty	Met on main indicators
CMDG2: Basic Education	Most likely to be met on main indicators
CMDG3: Gender	Met on main indicators
CMDG4: Child Health	Met
CMDG5: Maternal Health	Met
CMDG6: Communicable Diseases	Met
CMDG7: Environment	Met on main indicators
CMDG8: Partnerships	Met
CMDG9: Demining	Some way to go



CMAC deminers searching for buried landmines or UXOs in the field in Banteay Meanchey province.

Chapter 3

MOVING AHEAD: 2015 AND BEYOND

INTRODUCTION

Cambodia has achieved rapid economic growth in the past 10 to 15 years and has made significant progress in virtually eliminating abject/food poverty. Governance too has improved, and the government is able to respond to crises like natural disasters more effectively. However, there are gaps and vulnerabilities that require attention in the years to come. Among the outstanding concerns are (low) living standards of the people albeit that many have crossed the 'poverty line', inter-provincial/intra-provincial disparities, and inequalities on many other counts. In the context of the CMDGs, the remaining tasks are mainly in the areas of child nutrition, lower secondary education, environmental monitoring and demining.

Seen in a long-term development perspective, however, the task is much larger. Ensuring rapid, sustainable and inclusive growth is central to more people (especially youth) getting remunerative and decent jobs, thereby ensuring a greater distribution of gains among the larger populace. Next, improving human capital for climbing to the next stage of industrial development and competitiveness in ASEAN is paramount. Third, the 'Industrial Development Policy' and Agriculture Policy needs to be rolled out quickly for ensuring

maximum retention of value added within the country. Finally, other social priorities (education, health, social protection) and physical infrastructure (roads, electricity, others) require continuous development through at least the next 15 to 25 years.

This chapter presents some early thoughts within the government on how the CMDG targets and the larger development goals could be taken forward beyond 2015. The exercise has been undertaken in partnership with the UNDP and while the government does not endorse it as a policy statement yet, it proposes to seriously examine the options put forth since the thoughts closely match the current vision of the Royal Government. It presents a framework for achieving CMDGs based on multiple discussions the details of which are presented below.

1. PROSPECTS FOR THE FUTURE

Proposals and voices

There are four independent process proposing agendas for the future. Their recommendations are discussed here, which are then integrated into an Acceleration Framework. These are presented here, in sequence.



Children studying in a community primary school in Kratie province.

Global/Regional proposals: First, proposals have emanated from a high-level group set up by the Secretary General of the United Nations. In these, there is a near-complete agreement that the unfinished tasks in the MDGs needs to be taken forward. There is need to establish some common goals that countries could follow for the betterment of humankind such as good governance, peace and security. Poverty and inequality continue to be scourges and a fight against these is paramount in a sustainable development framework. Further empowerment of women, in all spheres of life (public and private), needs to be pursued. Climate change and the environment is a priority for saving our common heritage. The proposals are put forth in the form of 12 goals, which can be seen in Table 3.1.

Cambodian voices: The Cambodia UN Resident Coordinator's Office has conducted consultations with civil society, youth, climate-change actors and the urban and rural private sector through plenary discussions, focus group discussions, round table meetings and multi-media campaigns. The main messages obtained from more than 20,000 people and groups in terms of priority are to enhance education and employment, improve health, save the environment and raise economic growth. An encapsulated form of these too can be seen in Table 3.1.

Government policies: The government's main policies are mainly presented in the Rectangular Strategy, Phase III. The principal emphasis will continue to be on achieving economic growth targets (≥ 7 percent/year), reducing poverty (≥ 1 percent/year) and achieving other CMDGs, creating more jobs and strengthening institutional capacities. These too are placed in Table 3.1.

MOP-UNDP joint consultations: The MOP organised two meetings, one with senior government officials alone,

and the other included Development Partners along with senior government officials to discuss the above three recommendations (and more). The findings in brief are also presented in Table 3.1, which could be taken as a synthesis of the said three reports, as applicable in the Cambodian context.



Venerable Bun Saluth walking in his Monk Community Forest in Oddar Meanchey province.



Members of a coastal community planting mangroves in an effort to conserve the coastal forest in Koh Kong province.

Table 2.9: Key issues and proposals for the future, seen from four entry points

Post-2015 Goals (UN – global): The future that we want	UN Country office, Cambodia: National consultations
<p>G1: End poverty</p> <p>G2: Empower girls and women and achieve gender equality</p> <p>G3: Provide quality education and lifelong learning</p> <p>G4: Ensure healthy lives</p> <p>G5: Ensure food security and good nutrition</p> <p>G6: Achieve universal access to water and sanitation</p> <p>G7: Secure sustainable energy</p> <p>G8: Create jobs, sustainable livelihoods, and equitable growth</p> <p>G9: Manage natural resource assets sustainably</p> <p>G10: Ensure good governance and effective institutions</p> <p>G11: Ensure stable and peaceful societies</p> <p>G12: Create a global enabling environment and catalyse long-term finance</p>	<p>1. Youth wanted:</p> <p>Education; Employment; Economy; Environment; Health; Good governance; Social stability and security; Gender balance and participation; Access to internet/connectivity</p> <p>2. Climate change actors wanted:</p> <p>Access to knowledge; Information; Education; Capital; Water supply; Energy</p> <p>3. Rural-Urban Private Sector wanted:</p> <p>Working conditions; Employment; Good governance; Access to education, information, knowledge, technology; Finance; Stable energy supply; Good governance; Gender equality</p> <p>4. Civil Society wanted:</p> <p>Inclusive economic development; Governance and inclusive partnership; Action on climate change and environmental degradation; Human rights and development; Human development and social inclusion; Population dynamic</p> <p>Key: Education, Employment, Health, Environment, Economic Growth</p>
Cambodian government strategies	NSDP/CMDG 2013 recommendations
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Achieving economic growth ($\geq 7\%$/year), reducing poverty ($\geq 1\%$/year) and achieving other CMDGs, creating more jobs and strengthening institutional capacities. 2. Improving human resources through education and technology training and developing scientific and technological prowess, ensuring competitiveness for integrating into the regional labour market. 3. Investing in transport and other infrastructure and improving trade facilitation aimed at developing a vibrant logistics system to facilitate better connectivity and urbanisation. 4. Improving value added in agriculture (paddy, rubber, other crops) through crop modernisation/commercialisation, and crop-processing; promoting livestock production and aquaculture. 5. Strengthening institutional capacities and governance through continuing with legal and judicial reforms, continuing to promote decentralisation and de-concentration, continuing public financial management reform, and attracting domestic and foreign investments through a variety of means. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Poverty, inequality, child nutrition, food security 2. Inter-provincial variations on all indicators 3. Lower-secondary and higher level schooling 4. Human capital 5. Technology acquisition, technical training 6. Forestation, environment, natural resources 7. Water and sanitation 8. Demining 9. Rapid, inclusive and diversified growth 10. Promoting 'self-help' youth groups with international assistance for business initiatives in green energy, environmental protection, agriculture, health, others 11. Labour-intensive industrial development 12. Urbanisation and migration 13. Infrastructure 14. Better coordination between ministries and sub-national levels 15. Better M&E and data generation 16. Gender, indigenous people

KEY DRIVERS AND BOTTLENECKS

The principal common factors that emerge from the above, are that there is a need to pursue CMDGs to their logical conclusion and beyond, promote sustainable and inclusive growth, human capital (including health, education and social protection), employment, environment and natural resources, governance, poverty, inequality, nutrition, health, water and sanitation, and global partnerships. There are drivers and constraints in achieving these, which could be seen in Table 3.2.



A Cambodian farmer driving a farm tractor in Battambang province.

Table 3.0: Drivers of Change and Bottlenecks: Factors influencing CMDGs

CMDG	Drivers/Constraint Factors
Common Factors	Peace & stability, sustainable rapid growth, climate change, human capital, governance, water and sanitation, gender
CMDG1	Irrigation, expenditure on health, human capital and vocational training, information, transport, market, infrastructure, access to affordable finance, investment in social security, public service delivery/accountability, land title, mine/ERW, external environment
CMDG2	CMDG1, MDG3, MDG7 (water and sanitation), number of schools and facilities, teaching quality, distances and transport, security and safety, informal expenses, child health and family planning, teacher capacity.
CMDG3	CMDG1, CMDG2, CMDG5, higher education, KAP, life-skills vocational training, capacities, dormitories in schools, legal provisions against violence, reservations at all levels in politics and administration for 15 years, promoting WDC and entrepreneurship.
CMDG4&5	CMDG1, CMDG7 ((water and sanitation), KAP, infrastructure and education, transport and communication, affordable health services, accessible secondary and tertiary health care, vaccination, ANC/PNC, family planning, health centres.
CMDG6	CMDG1, CMDG4 & 5, CMDG7 (water and sanitation) expanded equity fund, mosquito nets, safe sex promotion, human trafficking, access to information and education, follow-up for TB and Malaria, transport and communication, KAP, surveillance of pharmaceutical products.
CMDG7	CMDG1, education and awareness raising, modern renewable energy, government investment in water and sanitation including O&M, illegal logging, cadastral exercises, economic land concession, village location
CMDG8	Aid effectiveness, emerging DPs - China, Korea, etc., transparency and CSO participation, slow reform, DP priorities, global economic downturn
CMDG9	Skills and technologies, resources, DP priorities, education and awareness.

The CMDGs are intertwined: there is a great deal of dependence between one and another. Thus, if one set of activities is pushed forth, synergies are established to achieve other CMDGs. Unfortunately, the reverse also holds, therefore, it is critical not to neglect those CMDGs which have multiple links with others.

2. SUGGESTED FRAMEWORK FOR ACCELERATING CMDGS

The Framework being developed here, referred to as the Acceleration Framework (AF), puts forth recommendations in seven priority areas to accelerate the progress of the CMDGs and other human development goals. This is because the CMDGs are goals and not sectors, and it is the sectors and their respective ministries / departments that formulate and implement development programmes. In some cases, a single ministry implements more than one goal, while in others a single goal is the joint responsibility of more than one authority: for example, reproductive health (Goal 5), disease control (Goal 6) and child health (Goal 4) are to a large extent the responsibility of MOH, while Goal 1 is jointly carried out by MAFF, MOEYS, MLMUPC and MOH, among others. Keeping this in mind, a comprehensive, broad-based approach is put forth, aimed at addressing multiple issues. The AF explores such diverse approaches as building human capital, implementing conditional cash transfers, launching innovative employment schemes, and promoting public-private partnerships for infrastructure, social marketing and service delivery. There is also a strong focus on attending to some of the preconditions for development, such as reaching out in underserved locations with basic infrastructure, including (rural) roads and electrification. Finally, there is an emphasis on sustainability, and to this end, all the proposed approaches keep the budget and the Public Financial Management Reform in the foreground, in addition to people's participation and ownership.

The recommendations are in line with the effort of the RGC to move forward on implementing sector strategies and undertaking structural reforms to ease systemic constraints that hinder inclusive growth and CMDG achievement.

2.1. HUMAN DEVELOPMENT, INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT, AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT AND INFRASTRUCTURE FOR CMDG ACHIEVEMENT

Following from Chapter 2 the key findings regarding poverty and growth are:

- a) The Cambodian economy grew in double digits during 2004-2007 and there was a (lagged) trickle-down effect soon after, which triggered a reduction in poverty.
- b) The growth has helped reduce poverty via job-creation as it increased employment, for example, agriculture, garments, construction and tourism, are all labour-intensive. The rapid inter-sectoral transfer of workers in recent years supports this argument.
- c) In 2008, food prices rose globally, and as most Cambodian farmers are net food sellers, they gained by this price rise. There are very few net food-buying farmers. The gain was further enabled by improved infrastructure, and the so-called 'middlemen' who earlier benefitted most from such events have a diminished role now. Social land concessions have helped here.
- d) Out-migration from villages has risen in recent years. Young people are moving from low productivity regions and options to higher productivity ones and this shift in location/work is helping raise wages/earnings and reduce poverty.
- e) The falling trend in consumption inequality is an important reason for a reduction in the poverty rate.
- f) Gains in both education and health help to strengthen (a)-(e) above in addition to infrastructure development.

The following, therefore, emerge as possible key factors for sustaining job-creating growth:

- A. Developing human capital enhancement strategies;
- B. Finalising and implementing the Industrial Development Policy for promoting further employment generation in non-farm activities;
- C. Creating conditions for raising agricultural/rural productivity and rural dwellers' incomes;
- D. Creating capacity to generate sustainable grid-energy (where possible), constructing/repairing rural roads, and strengthening other infrastructure for rapid growth.

Translated to practice, (A)-(D) will look somewhat like in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1: Plans, Policies, Strategies and Accelerators: Inclusive and sustainable growth to reduce poverty (AF1)

Achieving CMDG1, CMDG2, CMDG3					
Targets	Increasing the number of job created	Adequate education and skills ensuring employability of people		Ensuring share of resources and access to key services toward more equity	
Accelerators	Investment in labour-intensive sectors (including trade)	Infrastructure development, including in remote rural areas (focus on energy, roads)	Literate, skilled and healthy workers	Good and predictable governance	Labour mobility and urbanisation
Policies	Raising public budget revenues and allocation to priority sectors and rationalised expenditures	Raising Human capital and skills development	Increasing public investment in infrastructure	Pro-growth policies & setting up growth centres; Urbanisation policies; Decentralisation and strengthening D&D process	Improving existing M&E national and sub national systems
Strategies	Expand lower secondary schools, higher education, TVE, target group programmes, WATSAN	Step-up electrification, communication, irrigation, rural roads, industrial development, finance, trade sector diversification and competitiveness	Accelerate functional assignment/ delegation of authority to sub-national governance institutions	Sp. Focus: Developing poverty/vulnerability sensitive strategies that are contextualised to geographic and territorial specificities	Strengthen database and social and economic data collection and interpretation, esp. at decentralised levels through D&D machinery



Cambodian farmer Lim Saveoun collecting paddy rice during the harvest in Takeo province.

2.2. SUSTAINABLE PRACTICES FOR IMPROVED FOOD SECURITY AND ENVIRONMENTAL SUSTAINABILITY

The vulnerable population is more than just the 19-20 percent enumerated under the poverty line. The distribution of MPCE suggests that at least 30 percent of households could face vulnerability to droughts, floods or other natural or human-made events. While essential, it is not sufficient to just promote growth-oriented strategies. Most attainments are standard of living/wealth-sensitive, be they in education, health, water and sanitation or others and there are wide inter-provincial variations as well. Each of these calls for more targeted approaches. This is typically reflected in Siem Reap and Battambang, among the more prosperous provinces, where there is relatively high poverty. It is necessary to make the poor and vulnerable direct partners in development so that they become partners in the distribution of gains as well, rather than recipients of largesse. Additionally, there is an issue of malnourished children and anaemic women.

There are two elements of policy here: to empower the poor to become equal partners in development, and to exercise resource transfers for improving children's and women's health status. These are translated into four broad policies here:

1. Providing productive resources to the rural poor through land distribution – social land concessions, especially in targeted provinces; improving and diversifying agricultural practices, especially crop-diversification (away from paddy), drought-resistant crops, fisheries (both inland and marine), livestock, again with emphasis on targeted provinces; promoting a 'farming-systems' approach;
2. Helping rural people initiate (home-based) non-farm activities in food/agro-processing;
3. Providing micro-nutrient inputs, especially to children and women, to minimise stunting and having underweight children, and reduce anaemia (children and women);
4. Extending safe water and sanitation to the poor and those in remote areas.

Translated to practice, (A)-(D) will look somewhat like in Figure 3.2.

Table 3.2: Policies, Strategies and Accelerators – Inclusive and sustainable growth to reduce poverty – Pro-Poor specific policy (AF2)

Goals served: CMDG1 and CMDG7						
Targets		Improving access and ownership of local resources by low income and poor so that poor can better participate to the development process			Poor receive fair share in the distribution of gains	
Accelerators	Social land concessions increase; More public resources allocated for pro-poor sectors, pro-poor outlook in policy	Farm extension services to improve yield rates; Options in off-season/ off-farm jobs; sustainable and safe cross provinces or cross country labour migration options Farming-systems approach developed for year-round activity			WATSAN development; Widespread access to Nutrition	Accurate information base on the geography of resources and human geography,
Policies	Step up cadastral exercises to determine how much surplus arable land (& other resources) exists		Enable provisioning of extension services to respond to current and future needs, incl. training of workers, provide O&M resources to farm extension centres		Location-specific activities in the off-farm sectors	Encourage investment in WATSAN and expenditure on nutrition
Strategies 1	Ensure secure land titling, distribute land and other assets to the target groups	Ensure provision of extension services, T&V-type demo, location-specific farming-systems approach, subsidised distribution of HYV seeds	Ensure loan access to farmers for farm inputs, simple equipment & private wells	Provide farmers' training in skills for farm and non-farm work	Promote food / agri-production options; develop business models for micro enterprises; initiate pilot schemes (channel programmes through the D&D machinery)	Invest in WATSAN in remote areas; provide micro-nutrition supplements through health centres and schools
Strategies 2	Special emphasis: Accommodate the location specificities e.g. Ethnic minorities, type of crops traditionally cultivated, mined areas etc.			Special emphasis: Target the poor and women/ women-headed households		

2.3. HUMAN CAPITAL FOR HUMAN DEVELOPMENT WITH GENDER EQUITY

A very large number of children discontinue education after completing primary schools. In the age group 6 to 17 years, about a fifth of children are out of school. Among the reasons are limited lower secondary schools, private costs associated with schooling, demand for child workers (owing to low living standards), and (perhaps) a perception of low returns to schooling beyond the primary school level. Additionally, the quality of education requires improvement at all levels.

At a more general level, as Cambodia aims to graduate towards an industrial economy, one critical requirement is human capital. This implies going beyond primary or lower secondary levels toward technical skills – science, engineering, architecture, geology, others.

The government would contemplate following the policy options stated below:

- A. At a policy level, raising the proportion of state expenses on education beyond the present < 3 percent to higher levels.³⁹ This would provide some leverage to set priorities. In terms of priorities to expend these resources, many lower-secondary schools (and higher level schools) are required. Additionally, there is a need to enforce the government policy on providing free education to all at the basic education levels. Targeting lagging provinces and also giving out liberal scholarships to the deserving and needy are some options. Beyond primary/secondary levels, the need to strengthen higher and technical education for improving the quality of human capital is underscored.
- B. Improving quality and efficiency of education – educating teachers, improving mathematics and analytical methods, others. Among the options is also to initiate National Accreditation Examinations to enforce quality.
- C. Ensuring equal access of girls and women to all levels of education.

Translated to practice, (A)-(C) will look somewhat like in Figure 3.3.

Table 3.3: Policies, Strategies and Accelerators – Human capital for human development (AF3)

Goals served: CMDG1, CMDG2 and CMDG3					
Targets	More Cambodians (incl. women) are technically skilled and find remunerative jobs at higher levels		Technologies get indigenised and Cambodian workforce have the capacity to understand and to utilise them		
Accelerators	Larger public investment in human resources		A clear human-power/skill policy with public-private partnership	Increasing demand from households for education through implementing AF 1 & 2 and direct advocacy	
Policies	A clear human-power/skill policy based on an assessment of the exact demand and need by type & region		Improve education quality, expand technical education, set up education streams based on (future) needs	Set up joint planning forums between MoL, MoEYS, MIME, MoWA, and MoP for planning for HRD; Seek private sector participation	
Strategies 1	Assess human capital demand by type & region based on demography and establish public institutions for raising; Set up lower secondary institutions as per demand; Try cluster schools, multi-grade schools; Set up more technical institutions at higher levels; Popularise non-formal institutions for youth literacy; Promote science-learning societies	Enhance O&M expenses of schools for making schools 'complete' (including water & toilets), so that children incur no costs until Grade 9	Engage employers and DPs for drawing up a comprehensive S&T and HRD Plan; Set up Model Schools (of excellence) – one in each province on pilot basis; A technical university (with external assistance); Examine setting up an institute for educational planning	Liberal scholarships to deserving and needy; School-feeding programmes; Special focus on girls	Training teachers – skills in math, analytical methods; Provide incentives to teachers; Improve Courses; Assessment
Strategies 2	Special emphasis: Each location has its advantages and nuances – follow them		Special emphasis: Target the poor, women and vulnerable children		

³⁹ Both Korea and Malaysia spend over 5% of the GDP in education.

2.4. CONSERVING NATURAL RESOURCES FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT AND LIVELIHOODS

The country has faced deforestation in the recent past, resulting in periodic water shortages, floods and droughts. The government has begun addressing this problem, but the task is not easy. Among the issues: database on natural resources is not complete and a large number of people have stakes in the forest, both poor and non-poor. A multi-pronged approach requires being adopted to address the issue.

Some options:

- A. Mapping the forest and water resources on a real time basis at a disaggregated level; increasing vigilance of forests – develop a full M&E system for forest surveillance, including for flora and fauna; putting in place a strong M&E system on economic land concessions; and promoting bio-diversity in forestry.
- B. Seek options for improving skills and livelihoods of forest-dependent households in farming or non-farm activities.
- C. Promoting renewable fuels, especially bio-fuels through planting rapidly growing species, jatropha and others, establish micro-hydro plants (in remote areas).

Translated to practice, (A)-(C) will look somewhat like in Figure 3.4.

Table 3.4: Plans, Policies, Strategies and Initiatives – Conserving Natural Resources for Sustainable Development and Livelihoods (AF4)

Goals served: CMDG7 and CMDG1					
Targets	Policy makers and people see advantages of conservation rather than extraction/logging; Larger number of people get incomes from non-forest/non-land-based sources		People depend less on natural resources and more on value created		
Accelerators	Forest dwellers increasingly get alternative livelihoods	No more unauthorised logging; Rationalise economic concessions; Cancel non-functional economic concessions		Strong government commitment backed by resources	
Policies	Map the forest and water resources and develop systems to update data	Develop a strong forum to discuss livelihoods improvement for forest-dwellers and others in more sustainable and higher productivity options	Revisit land use policy and quicken cadastral exercises	Find alternative sources of fuel	
Strategies 1	Enter into long-term impartial and independent contracts with companies to map forest and natural resources (incl. water, flora, fauna) (PPP); Develop capacities to do so in government	Develop strong M&E system for tracking progress in forestry; Monitor existing economic concessions	Identify sites and options for people to live/work in higher productivity/income propositions; Impart training and resources; Separate M&E for this activity	Bring in laws to regulate economic concessions to get maximum benefits; Clamp down on logging and poaching	Grow renewable fuels; Grow jatropha; Look at micro-hydro options; Seek other non-grid options
Strategies 2	Special emphasis: Each location has its advantages and nuances – follow them				

2.5. WOMEN'S EQUAL PARTICIPATION AND EMPOWERMENT

There is higher gender equity in Cambodia compared to many other countries, but gaps remain. The gaps could be bridged without too many resources or institutional changes.

Some options:

- A. Promoting/maintaining equity in education at all levels – especially secondary and higher levels.
- B. Promoting/maintaining gender equality in employment – especially wage employment (and reduce female 'unpaid family workers'). This can best be achieved through public awareness and capacity building.

- C. Inducting more women in high quality self-employment
- D. Ensuring appropriate representation of women in government and public offices – this can best be achieved through administrative action.
- E. Reducing/minimising domestic violence.

Translated to practice, (A)-(E) will look somewhat like Figure in 3.5.

Table 3.5: Plans, Policies, Strategies and Initiatives – Women's Equal Participation and Empowerment (AF5)

Goals served: CMDG3, CMDG2, CMDG1, CMDG5				
Targets	Laws and people's attitudes enable gender equity		More women in the labour force holding decent jobs	
Accelerators	Education	Work		Opportunity
Policies	Ensuring greater participation of girls & women in education above primary education and in technical education	Labour policy is gender sensitive and promotes quality participation of women in labour force; Improve quality of self-employment for women	Policy to strive for greater women's participation in public life	Gender violence is outlawed in practice and minimised
Strategies 1	Construct separate toilets for girls in school; Have separate counselling facilities; Hire more female teachers; Try other enabling approaches	Make women technically trained for jobs; Make rules at work places 'women-friendly'; Further promote WDCs	Experiment with using a quota system for women in certain positions, both in politics and administration	Make laws more stringent and have better compliance; Raise awareness on CEDAW; Have more regular M&E
Strategies 2	Special emphasis: Each location has its advantages and nuances – follow them		Special emphasis: Target poor girls, poor women and vulnerable children	

2.6. IMPROVING THE REACH AND RAISING QUALITY OF MATERNAL AND CHILD HEALTH AND DISEASE CONTROL

Analysis from Chapter 2 suggests that many health indicators are linked to standards of living. If effective progress is made on AFs 1&2, many of the health-related factors could be addressed. With health services being both highly specialised and expensive, state intervention is imperative. The current state expense on health is significantly less than 2 percent of GDP, while the 'out-of-pocket' expense is much higher. There is thus a case for raising the proportion of state resources for health, to at least 2 percent, in a phased manner. At the same time, a regional spread of the services would help. Some proposals:

- A. Improving and making more accessible, state/state-supported health services at a relatively small price (or for free);
- B. Bringing MNCH services closer to people in more remote areas (and vulnerable groups);
- C. Establishing micro-nutrient supplementing programmes for women and children;
- D. Effectively control at least three diseases: HIV/AIDS, malaria and tuberculosis.

Translated to practice, (A)-(D) will look somewhat like Figure 3.6.

Table 3.6: Plans, Policies, Strategies and Initiatives – Improvement in MNCH and Disease Control (AF6)

Goals served: CMDG4, CMDG5 and CMDG6, CMDG1				
Targets	State expenditures for health exceed 2% of GDP		People's knowledge, attitudes and practices change towards a 'scientific temper'	People increasingly use/can use institutional health services when needed
Accelerators	Inexpensive health services in maximum locales		Access roads, transport & communication, improved livelihoods	Health education; General education; Improved incomes
Policies	Endow health centres with more equipment and better trained personnel; Expand secondary and tertiary health services; Provide more funds for Health Equity Fund	Intensify incentives for MNCH and family planning; Improve regulatory systems for pharmaceutical products and private health providers; Promote sexual & reproductive health	Train people to become health personnel & offer mid-career training; Conduct studies on KAP (in health)	Dovetail health programmes with others in education; Strengthen ID-Poor and vocational training
Strategies 1	Improve health provisioning infrastructure; Improve / expand Integrated Management of Child Illness; Improve outreach services for delivery of MNCH services; Increase the availability of secondary midwifery; Improve coverage and consistency of infant and young child feeding, maternal counselling for health and physical provision of nutrients; Improve surveillance and treatment for HIV, Malaria, TB;		Expand medical education; Improve village health worker skills; Carry out information campaigns on better health – food, anti-tobacco; Promote clean water use	Improve food storage and WATSAN; Expand coverage of distributing micronutrient and protein supplements; Expand pro-poor health insurance type services and coverage of Equity Fund; Provide conditional cash and food transfers linked to MNCH
Strategies 2	Special emphasis: Each location has its advantages and nuances – follow them		Special emphasis: Target the poor, women, vulnerable children and indigenous peoples	

2.7. SAFE WATER SUPPLY AND IMPROVED SANITATION FOR RURAL AREAS

Safe water and sanitation (WATSAN) can help solve problems in livelihoods, health, education and other areas. Chapter 2 suggests that on aggregate, the proportion of the population accessing WATSAN is low; these services reach >80 percent population in urban areas, but in rural areas the proportions are <50 percent. There is a strong association between access to safe WATSAN and standards of living (as well as locales). A

stronger intervention could ensure success. The large inter-provincial variations also need bridging. Some proposals:

- A. Increase investment in physical infrastructure for water and sanitation;
- B. Promote WASH⁴⁰ practices at household level, especially inexpensive options; promoting community-based water supply and sanitation initiatives in rural areas; promoting community-led total sanitation (CLTS); and providing training and awareness-raising campaigns for hygiene and WATSAN to all sections of society.

Translated to practice, (A)-(B) will look somewhat like in Figure 3.7.

Table 3.7: Plans, Policies, Strategies and Initiatives – Safe Water and Improved Sanitation, Especially in Rural Areas (AF7)

Goals served: CMDG7, CMDG1, CMDG4, CMDG5, CHDG6				
Targets	Larger resources allocated towards WATSAN		People better educated and informed on WATSAN	There is greater afford ability for WATSAN
Accelerators	Electricity, infrastructure; Improved livelihoods		Maps of terrain to identify undulations and their directions; Groundwater surveys	People's KAP is based on scientific principles
Policies	Making a national roadmap for WATSAN by location – costs, technology, tariffs	Community education for village people on use and repairs of WATSAN facilities	Seek alternatives for remote locales and hilly terrain	Dovetail WATSAN with AFs 1, 2 & 6 programmes
Strategies 1	Increase spread of safe drinking water through piped water, stand posts; Construct simple sewage treatment plants especially for village clusters and large villages; Provide improved sanitation facilities in localised environments; Use cheaper and simpler ways to purify water – e.g. SODIS; Initiate technologies for improved sanitation in rural areas including locally designed latrines		Develop an M&E Framework to inform on activities of government agencies, DP & private provisioning; Seek PPP for WATSAN services	Launch pilot projects promoting community-based WATSAN initiatives; Promote WASH-Education in schools; Mobilisation, education and social marketing for CLTS; Awareness raising on links between sanitation, hygiene and health; Training households on water treatment and storage; waste disposal
Strategies 2	Special emphasis: Each location has its advantages and nuances – follow them			

40 WASH refers to water, sanitation and hygiene.

3. NEED FOR ACTION AT LOCALISED LEVELS AND ENSURING COORDINATION

Making comprehensive progress across the seven priority areas calls for an intensive effort to invigorate activities at both national and sub-national levels: provinces, districts, communes and villages. Experiences from earlier initiatives (in formulating plans and implementing them to meet CMDG and sectoral targets) at the local level within the D&D programme could be studied more carefully for scaling up successful initiatives. In this regard, building capacities at local levels (particularly the province, as lower levels would be unrealistic in the short/medium term, say five to seven years) is central to success. The hinterland areas could benefit from innovative, low-cost investment initiatives in health, food-production, education, access to clean water and essential infrastructure, and help in escaping poverty.

Implementation of the AFs could be coordinated and monitored through the existing coordination structures set up at the level of the centre, provincial governors, and district governors, with backstopping jointly done by the MOI and MOP. The M&E system (within the NSDP) could provide the necessary inputs with a shared intent of achieving targets, identifying financial gaps, and delineating specific responsibilities. The present M&E system of the NSDP will require restructuring by introducing a strong 'process-oriented' M&E system in addition to the outcome oriented one. The MOP plans to develop it in strategic partnership with the concerned ministries and the D&D Programme (located at MOI).

4. FINANCING AND RESOURCE MOBILISATION

The quest to achieve the CMDGs and other goals in human development by 2015 and beyond will require special efforts to mobilise funds, as many donors might 'switch-off' on MDGs once the year 2015 is reached. As for the quantity of funds required, a CMDG Costing Exercise has not been carried out in Cambodia. However, the MOP and other line ministries have a

fairly good idea on how much these initiatives would cost since they have done such exercises for the NSDP. Public Investment Programmes already provide project-specific numbers on what it will take to meet these expenses. If there is a resource-constrained environment, prioritisation must be made, with weight given to low cost/high impact interventions.

5. SUMMING UP

There are many challenges and options for the period beyond 2015. The first task, however, is to complete all the incomplete targets of 2015 in a defined time horizon. At the same time, following cues from the international and national concerns discussed in the text, a set of new targets is required.

The most pressing problem is to tackle poverty and inequity. For this, some important measures are, strengthening human development (i.e. education, health, social protection) and human capital (skills), establishing good governance (and rule of law), setting up appropriate infrastructure, promoting value-added agriculture, and establishing conditions for the private sector to grow to the mutual advantage of all in the society – i.e. roll-out inclusive growth. Additionally, three other priorities are to combat climate change, to manage common resources (e.g. natural resources, water) and to further gender equality. The government aims to address the said concerns in the five-year plans, with details of programmes, finances and M&E structures. Effort will also be made to strengthen the database of the Cambodian economy and society.



People voting for development project in their community in Koh Kong province.

Chapter 4

CONCLUSION

This report—the fourth in the current series on annual CMDG reporting—initially briefly examines the progress made on key macroeconomic indicators and then makes an assessment of the progress made on Cambodia’s Millennium Development Goals. It presents progress at both national and sub-national levels and also examines the extent to which inequality mars progress in attaining human development goals. Finally, it presents the results of a ‘group-work’ exercise, which lays the foundation for evolving a (synoptic) Acceleration Framework for the CMDGs.



Right, and Bun Sreypai, 3, left, reading a book in Koh Kong province.

At the macroeconomic level, while the economy has achieved a 7+% growth rate in GDP in the last decade or more, economic activities are concentrated in a narrow band: garment manufacture, construction, tourism and agriculture. Here too, the activity level is ‘shallow’, resulting in small unit value addition. Much of the growth has emerged from a lateral expansion of activities. In the years to come, as Cambodia integrates into ASEAN, human capital, industrial development, infrastructure, private sector investment and such issues will come to assume increased importance. As most CMDG targets require the government to expend more resources on sectors and ministries that concern human development, economic growth and efficient management of public finances, rapid augmentation of public resources is pivotal to success.



Members of Boeung Kachhang community patrolling the Peam Krasop Wildlife Sanctuary to prevent illegal logging of the mangroves and harvesting of protected species of shells.

A report card on CMDGs is summed up in following table:

<p>CMDG1: ERADICATING EXTREME POVERTY AND HUNGER</p> <p>Significant progress made in reducing consumption poverty and food poverty to the extent that the targets have been met. However, spatial disparities remain. There is also slow progress in improving child nutrition levels. Child labour is higher than stated in the target.</p>
<p>CMDG2: ACHIEVING UNIVERSAL LITERACY AND BASIC EDUCATION</p> <p>There is good progress in primary school and the target is most likely to be met. The challenge lies beyond this level to secondary levels and beyond.</p>
<p>CMDG3: PROMOTE GENDER EQUALITY AND EMPOWER WOMEN</p> <p>While a lot has been achieved in gender parity and most targets are likely to be met, there are gaps in public representation.</p>
<p>CMDG4: REDUCING CHILD MORTALITY</p> <p>IMR and U5MR reduced significantly and target met. Spatial and income-specific gaps remain.</p>
<p>CMDG5: IMPROVING MATERNAL HEALTH</p> <p>MMR has reduced significantly and the target has been met. Antenatal care etc. has spread widely and the targets have been met. Spatial and income-specific gaps remain on some indicators.</p>
<p>CMDG6: COMBATING HIV/AIDS, MALARIA AND OTHER DISEASES</p> <p>Identified communicable diseases along with HIV/AIDS are mostly under control and targets are likely to be met.</p>
<p>CMDG7: ENSURING ENVIRONMENTAL SUSTAINABILITY</p> <p>Environmental protection targets have been met or are on the way to be met by 2015. There is need sustain this progress for which a strong monitoring and evaluation system would help.</p>
<p>CMDG8: FORGING A GLOBAL PARTNERSHIP FOR DEVELOPMENT</p> <p>The government has been maintaining healthy partnerships. This momentum must be kept up, given that there will be fewer concessional in-flows in the form of grants and more as loans in the times to come. There is uncertainty due to the continued global crisis.</p>
<p>CMDG9: DE-MINING, REMOVING EXPLOSIVE REMNANTS OF WAR, AND VICTIM ASSISTANCE</p> <p>Large areas have been cleared of mines and ERWs, but people are still dying due to mine explosions. Resource shortage is an impediment.</p>

There are many challenges in the period beyond 2015. The first task is to complete all the incomplete targets of 2015 in a defined time horizon. At the same time, following cues from the international and national concerns discussed in the text, a vision for the future needs to be established. Given the shift in global economic balance in favour of Asia, Cambodia needs to realign its external sectors to match the changes.

The central issue is to sustain growth with reduction in poverty and inequity. For this, some important measures

are, strengthening human development (education, health, nutrition, social protection, WATSAN) and human capital (skills), establishing good governance (and rule of law), setting up appropriate infrastructure, promoting value-added agriculture and establishing conditions for the private sector to grow to the mutual advantage of all in the society – roll-out inclusive growth. Three other priorities are combating climate change, managing common resources (natural resources, water) and furthering gender equality.

APPENDIX 1

PROGRESS ON CAMBODIA MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS (CMDG)

No	Indicators	Unit	2005	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Target 2015	Data sources
Goal 1: Eradicate - Poverty & Hunger												
1.1	Reduce the proportion of people living in poverty	%	-	47.8	29.9	22.9	21.1	19.8	-	-	≤19.5	CSES
1.2	Reduce the proportion of people living in hunger	%	-	18.7	7.7	4.3	4.1	2.7	-	-	≤10	CSES
1.3	Raise the share in consumption of the poorest 20 % of the population	%	-	6.85	7.46	8.00	8.34	8.98	-	-	≥11	CSES
1.4	Reduce prevalence of underweight children (<5 years)	%	28	-	-	28	-	-	-	-	≤ 19	CSES
1.5	Reduce prevalence of stunted children	%	43	-	-	40	-	-	-	-	≤25	CDHS
1.6	Reduce prevalence of wasted children	%	8	-	-	11	-	-	-	-	≤65	CDHS
1.7	Reduce prevalence of anaemia among children aged 6-59 months	%	62	-	-	55	-	-	-	-	42	CDHS
1.8	Reduce prevalence of anaemia among women aged 15-49	%	47	-	-	44	-	-	-	-	42	CDHS
1.9	Increase the proportion of households using iodized salt	%	73	-	-	83	-	-	-	-	90	CDHS
1.10	Reduce prevalence of working children (≤ 17 years) of the total children in this age-group.	%	-	-	-	20.4	16.8	13.8	-	-	≤8	CSES
Goal 2: Achieve universal literacy and basic education												
2.1	Achieve universal literacy in the population aged 15-24 years	%	80.4	88.5	89.4	87.4	89.1	92.1	91.5	92.5	94.5	MoEYS
2.2	Achieve a net enrolment rate at primary school level	%	-	-	-	94.4	94.8	95.2	96.4	97	99	MoEYS
2.3	Achieve gross enrolment rate at lower-secondary school level	%	-	-	-	61.6	58.1	58.5	55	53.6	74	MoEYS
2.4	Achieve primary completion rate	%	-	-	-	85.6	83.2	85.3	89.7	87.4	100	MoEYS
2.5	Achieve lower-secondary school completion rate	%	-	-	-	49.1	48.7	44.4	42.1	40.6	57	MoEYS
2.6	Achieve gender parity in education at the primary	Index	-	-	-	0.99	1	0.99	0.99	1	-	MoEYS
2.7	Achieve gender parity in education at the lower secondary levels	Index	-	-	-	0.92	0.97	0.98	1	1.02	-	MoEYS
CMDG 3: Promote Gender Equity and Empower Women												
3.1	Reduce significantly, gender disparities in upper secondary	%	-	-	69.4	72.9	77.1	81.7	84.3	87.3	100	MoEYS
3.2	Reduce significantly, gender disparities in tertiary education	%	74.2	-	-	86.7	-	-	-	-	100	CSES
3.3	Eliminate gender disparities in wage employment in all sectors	%	-	-	-	45	42.2	45.8	-	-	50	CSES
3.4	Eliminate gender disparities in public institutions	%	-	32	-	-	-	-	35	-	50	MoWA
3.5	Reduce significantly, all forms of violence against women and children.	%	-	-	-	23.9	-	-	-	-	-	MoWA
CMDG 4: Reduce Child Mortality												
4.1	Reducing infant mortality rate (IMR) to 50 by 2015	%	95	65	-	-	45	-	-	-	50	CDHS
4.2	Reducing 'under 5-year' child mortality rate (USMR)	%	124	83	-	-	54	-	-	-	65	CDHS
4.3	More than 90% children are vaccinated	%	-	67	-	-	79	-	-	-	>90	CDHS
4.4	Up to 70% infants ≤ 6 months are exclusively breast-fed	%	-	65	-	-	74	-	-	-	70	CDHS

CMDG 5: Improve maternal health												
5.1	Maternal mortality ratio (mortality per 100,000 live births)		437	472	-	-	206	-	-	-	250	CDHS
5.2	Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel	%	-	-	58	-	-	-	75	-	87	MoH
5.3	Total fertility rate	-	4	3.4	-	-	3	-	-	-	3	CDHS
5.4	Proportion of married women using modern contraceptive methods	%	19	27.2	-	-	35	-	-	-	60	CDHS
5.5	Proportion of pregnant women with ≥2 ANC with skilled health personnel	%	-	-	-	83	-	-	87	-	90	CDHS
5.6	Proportion of pregnant women delivering by Caesarean Section	%	-	-	0.77	-	-	-	2.83	-	4	CDHS
CMDG 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and other diseases												
6.1	HIV prevalence (% Adults 15-49)	%	-	-	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	-	-	0.4	MoH
6.2	Malaria mortality (Per 100,000 population)	-	-	-	1.5	2.0	0.98	0.65	0.29	-	0.8	MoH
6.3	Prevalence of all forms of TB	No	-	-	-	-	-	-	764	-	653	MoH
CMDG 7: Ensure environmental sustainability												
7.1	Reverse the loss of environmental resources	%	-	-	-	55.99	57.59	58.39	-	59.19 (est.,)	60	NSDP/MTR 2009-2013
7.2	Increase the proportion of people who have access to potable water.											
	a) Rural areas	%	-	-	-	42	40.5	42.7	-	-	50	CSES
	b) Urban areas	%	-	-	-	78.5	80.5	81.1	-	-	80	CSES
7.3	Increase the proportion of people who have access to sanitation											
	a) Rural areas	%	-	-	-	22.9	28.7	33.4	-	-	33	CSES
	b) Urban areas	%	-	-	-	85	86.6	87.8	-	-	74	CSES
7.4	Reduce dependence on firewood for cooking	%	-	84	-	-	79.5	-	-	-	52	CDHS
7.5	Increase the proportion of people with secure land tenure	%	-	-	-	22	24	28	-	-	45	MLMUC
CMDG 9: Demining, removing Explosive Remnants of War (ERW) and Victim Assistance												
9.1	Number of casualties caused by landmines and ERW (killed and injured)		Target			244*	240*	220*	200*	-	-	CMAA
			Result			244	286	211	186	-	-	CMAA
9.2	Landmine and ERW contaminated land cleared/released		Target			5,268*	5,374*	5,481*	5,591*	-	-	CMAA
			Result			6,136	11,950	14,150	8,293	-	-	CMAA

APPENDIX 2

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48	Cambodian farmer Lim Saveoun collecting paddy rice during the harvest in Takeo province.
55	UNDP Cambodia/ឈ្មោះ សុវណ្ណ
56	Right, and Bun Sreyapai, 3, left, reading a book in Koh Kong province.
56	Members of Boeung Kachhang community patrolling the Peam Krasop Wildlife Sanctuary to prevent illegal logging of the mangroves and harvesting of protected species of shells.



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