## Chapter 8

## CONCLUSIONS

### 8.1 Demographic Outcomes and Gender Assessment

This report has used the 2008 General Population Census to identify demographic outcomes and trends which are relevant both to understanding how gender relations are changing in the country on the one hand, and to designing policy interventions to improve gender equity on the other. Table 8.1 summarizes some of the key outcomes and the ways they are relevant.

Table 8.1 Summary gender assessment of key demographic outcomes, Cambodia 2008

| Demographic outcome | Gender assessment |
| :--- | :--- |
| Declining fertility | $\begin{array}{l}\text { On balance the decline in fertility is a positive } \\ \text { The 2008 Census confirms that fertility is } \\ \text { declining in Cambodia. The data suggest (using } \\ \text { indirect estimation techniques) that TFR is } \\ \text { around 3.1 live births per woman for the } \\ \text { country as a whole (down from about 5.3 ten } \\ \text { years earlier), and about 2.1 (i.e. around } \\ \text { empowerment: giving women control over their } \\ \text { replacement level) for urban areas (section } \\ \text { 3.4). }\end{array}$ |
| $\begin{array}{l}\text { wom fertility is empowering in itself, and it gives } \\ \text { women more time to pursue other opportunities } \\ \text { aside from reproduction and child-rearing } \\ \text { (including education and paid employment) if they } \\ \text { choose. Further policy analysis is needed to study } \\ \text { how low-parity women may be pursuing these }\end{array}$ |  |
| opportunities and whether further interventions are |  |
| needed to overcome any discriminatory barriers. |  |
| There is significant local variation in fertility |  |
| behavior and outcomes (section 3.7), which implies |  |
| a "one-size-fits-all" policy approach is not optimal. |  |$\}$


| Demographic outcome | Gender assessment |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | As the population age structure becomes more conducive to rapid economic growth it is important that policies be in place to take advantage of this "demographic dividend" and to ensure that opportunities are afforded equitably for both women and men. |
| Sex ratio closer to parity <br> The sex ratio in 2008 is 94.7 , compared to 93.0 in 1998 (section 2.3). | The sex ratio in the recent past was uncommonly low due to the effects of civil war. This probably contributed to the large imbalance, still seen in the 2008 data, between the numbers of males and females over 30 currently not married (section 3.2). The trend towards greater parity in the sex ratio is a positive outcome if it means older unmarried women (especially widows) have equal chances to remarry if they wish and are not barred from this choice by a marriage squeeze. |
| Increasing age at marriage <br> The singulate mean age at marriage in 2008 is 25.6 years for males and 23.3 years for females (section 3.2). The increase since 1998 is 1.4 years for males and 0.8 years for females. | The increase in SMAM is a positive outcome for gender equity since it is associated with more young women free to complete secondary school and a reduction in teenage pregnancies (with their accompanying health risks and opportunity costs). |
| Changes in household size and structure <br> Average household size in 2008 is down to 4.6 persons for rural areas and 4.9 for urban (section 3.5). 25.6 percent of regular households are headed by females, a figure virtually unchanged since the 1998 census. | Changing household size and structure, and how these changes relate to changes in family size and structure, need much more research. Evidence from other studies on the economic and social status of female-headed households is inconclusive and suggests a more detailed analysis distinguishing different subtypes of household structure is needed. The 2008 Census finding that the percent of households that are female-headed is unchanged since 1998 suggests there may be trends for different subtypes pointing in different directions. It is important that the implications of changes in household size, structure, and diversity for gender relations be uncovered in more detail. |
| Narrowing gender gap in literacy and educational attainment rates <br> Literacy rates and levels of educational attainment have increased impressively since 1998 for both sexes and the gender gap has narrowed (sections 5.2 and 5.3 ). This is mostly a cohort effect, i.e., the result of expanded educational services for the young. | These are obviously positive outcomes from the gender equity point of view. It will take several decades before the impacts reach all age groups in the population. For further advances in gender equity it is important to monitor the impacts for both women and men on their health and social status, and to make sure women are able to convert their educational qualifications into income from employment on an equal footing with men if they |


| Demographic outcome | Gender assessment |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | wish. <br> It is also important that the literacy and educational <br> attainment gaps between rural and urban <br> populations be lessened quickly. |
| Sex differentials in economic activity rates <br> Economic activity rates are high for both sexes <br> in rural areas, but they are about 15 percentage <br> points lower for the 15-65 age group in urban <br> areas, and in the latter areas the rate for females <br> is about 12 percentage points lower than for <br> males (section 6.2). | The association of a gender gap in economic <br> activity rates with urbanization needs further study: <br> it could reflect transitional issues associated with a <br> mobile population or it could reflect deeper <br> structural problems which require intervention. <br> Additional research is also needed to clarify <br> whether "economically inactive" often really means <br> in practice "unemployed," especially in the case of <br> females. |
| Sex differentials in migration <br> There are as many female internal migrants as <br> male but females are more likely to report <br> migrating because the family moved and males <br> are more likely to report migrating for work or <br> for marriage (section 7.2). Female migrants are <br> less likely to be employed than males and more <br> likely to be recorded as economically inactive <br> (section 7.3). | These outcomes need more analysis. Economic <br> development requires internal migration (especially <br> to urban areas) and it is important to monitor the <br> situation to ensure new bases of discrimination do <br> not emerge and become entrenched. |

### 8.2 Final Remarks

The 2008 General Population Census results are highly informative for the on-going discussion of gender issues in Cambodia. The outcomes listed in Table 8.1 are especially relevant for the first two of the Ministry of Women's Affairs' six priority areas, namely economic empowerment of women and enhancing women's and girls' education (see section 1.2). The results certainly confirm progress regarding female (and male) education. While there has also undoubtedly been impressive economic development during 1998-2008 as well, the full impact of this on gender roles and gender relations is more complex.

In summarizing how gender inequality operates in countries with high poverty rates Kabeer (1996: 19) wrote that women "are less able them men to translate labour into income, income into choice and choice into personal well-being" (cited in Ministry of Planning 2002: 26). The Census is an invaluable instrument for monitoring progress in overcoming these barriers to gender equity.

