



CAMBODIA DEVELOPMENT REVIEW

A publication of CDRI—
Cambodia's leading independent
development policy research institute

VOLUME 18, ISSUE 3

SEPTEMBER 2014

\$4.00

COMMUNITY FORESTRY FOR SUSTAINABLE FOREST MANAGEMENT AND LIVELIHOODS: A CASE STUDY OF OSOAM COMMUNITY FOREST USERS GROUP

Introduction

Forests make vital contributions to socio-economic development. The following facts explain just how critical forests are in satisfying the needs of the billions of people who rely on forest products and services for food, energy and shelter. At least 1.3 billion people, or 18 percent of the world's population, are living in homes constructed mainly from forest products. Around 13.2 million people are employed in the formal forest sector and at least 41 million in the informal sector. An estimated 2.4 billion people or 40 percent of the population of low-income countries cook with woodfuel, and around 764 million of them use wood to boil their water (FAO 2014).

In Cambodia, as in other developing countries at a similar stage of development, the forest sector remains a significant contributor to the economy. The sector produced an average of 8.4 percent of GDP from 1999 through 2008 (Koy and Sasaki 2013) and 3.2 percent in 2011, the highest contribution of forestry to GDP in Southeast Asia (FAO 2014). Forests continue to play an important role in rural



*Involvement in Osoam forest user group has improved members' standard of living.
Kampong Thom province, August 2014*

livelihoods as almost 80 percent of the 15-million-strong population and about 90 percent of the poor live in rural areas (NIS 2013). Moreover, about 2.2 million households (71 percent of the total), mostly living in upland watershed areas and in the Tonle Sap region, rely directly on forests for their livelihoods (NIS 2013).

In this Issue

Community Forestry for Sustainable Forest Management and Livelihoods: A Case Study of Osoam Community Forest Users Group.....	1
20 Years' Strengthening of Cambodian Civil Society: Time for Reflection.....	10
The Enduring Gap: Decentralisation Reform and Youth Participation in Local Rural Governance.....	14
Economy Watch – External Environment	19
– Domestic Performance	21
CDRI Update	28

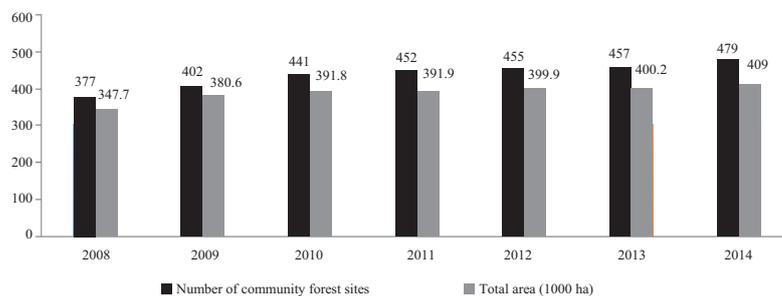
Prepared by Lonh Pichdara, Research Associate, Natural Resources and Environment Programme, CDRI; Chea Nareth, Deputy Chief, Office of Planning and Administration, Department of Forestry and Community Forestry; and Ma Vuthy, Deputy Chief, Forest Resource Assessment and Social Economic and Environment Impact Center, Forestry Administration. This article may be cited as: Lonh Pichdara, Chea Nareth and Ma Vuthy. 2014. "Community Forestry for Sustainable Forest Management and Livelihoods: A Case Study of Osoam Community Forest Users Group." *Cambodia Development Review* 18(3):1-9.

Forest decline clearly represents a direct threat to subsistence resources and income-generating activities central to forest-based local livelihoods. As a percentage of Cambodia’s total land area, forest cover has decreased from 73 percent in 1960 to 57.59 percent in 2010, equal to an annual deforestation rate of 0.5 percent (FA 2011). Considered management of the remaining forests is therefore critical to contain deforestation, maintain ecosystems services and the provision of livelihood resources. To ensure sustainable management of forests and enhance the future well-being and socio-economic conditions of forest communities, the Royal Government of Cambodia has integrated community-based forest management into policy and planning (RGC 2013). In the early 1990s, the government approved a community forestry approach to help reduce deforestation (FA 2013; Ty 2013). Under the National Forest Programme, the goal now is to allocate 2 million hectares for community forestry management by 2029 (FA 2013).

Despite wide recognition of the socio-economic and environmental benefits of community forestry in Cambodia, little is known about its achievements and shortcomings or the challenges that sustainability presents, especially after the stoppage of external support. Further, there does not appear to be a widely shared understanding of the concept of sustainable forest management.

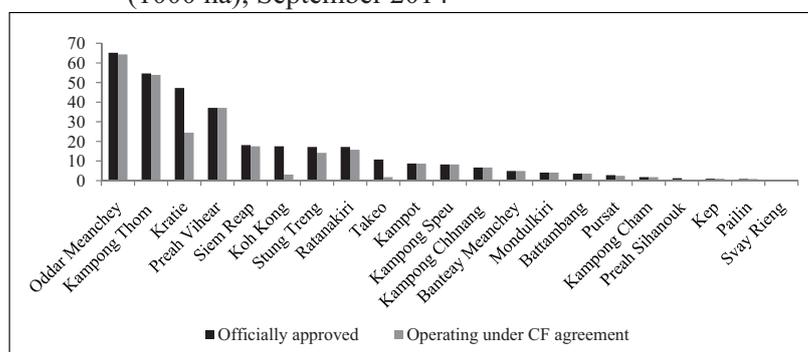
In examining these issues, this article considers three key questions: What is the status of community forestry in Cambodia? What are the contributions of community forestry to forest conservation and livelihood security outcomes? What are the main challenges that have to be addressed for community forestry to be self-sustaining? It begins with an overview of community forestry development in Cambodia, and then explores these questions using a case study and SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats) analysis of a community

Figure 1: Number and area (1000 ha) of community forestry sites, 2008-14



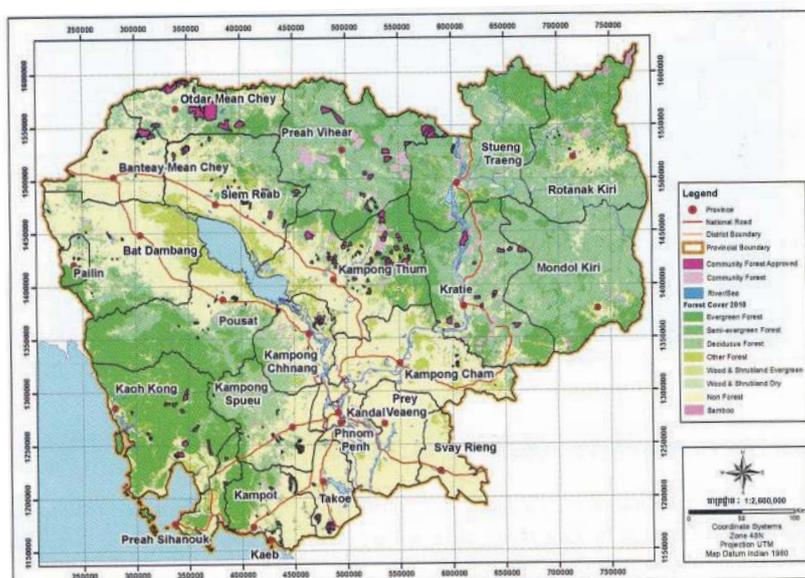
Source: MAFF 2014

Figure 2: Distribution of community forestry sites by province (1000 ha), September 2014



Source: FA 2013

Figure 3: Community forestry areas in Cambodia



Source: FA 2013

forestry project in Sala Visai village, Sala Visai commune, Prasat Balang district, Kampong Thom province.

Overview of community forestry in Cambodia

By 2014, 479 community forestry groups had been established in 21 provinces covering 409,239 hectares (Figure 1). Of these, 364 (329,587 ha) had

Table 1: Change in the percentage of land under forest cover between 2002 and 2010 in community forestry areas, forest buffer zones and protected areas

Location	Forest cover (%)			Change in forest cover (%)		
	2002	2006	2010	2002-06	2006-10	2002-10
Community forestry areas	89.22	88.15	87.13	-1.07	-1.02	-2.09
Forest buffer zones in a 3-km radius of community forest boundaries	64.70	61.23	58.13	-3.47	-3.10	-6.57
Forest within protected areas	81.99	80.47	78.72	-1.52	-1.75	-3.27

Source: Ty 2013

received official approval and 309 (275,634 ha) were operating under written Community Forestry Agreements between the Forestry Administration Cantonment of the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (MAFF) and the community forestry management committees concerned (FA 2013).

As Figures 2 and 3 show, Oddar Meanchey province has the largest area (65,168 ha) under community forestry management, followed by Kampong Thom (54,652 ha), Kratie (47,192 ha) and Preah Vihear (37,063 ha) (FA 2013). Boosted by the REDD¹ Community Forestry Carbon Project covering 67,853 hectares, Oddar Meanchey also has the largest area (64,318 ha) being managed as community forests under Community Forestry Agreements (Ty et al. 2011).

Contributions of community forestry to forest conservation and household income

Forest conservation

A recent study on forest cover change in Cambodia between 2002 and 2010 comparing community forestry areas with adjoining forestland and protected areas found that community forestry offers an effective means of conserving forest resources (Ty 2013). The results shown in Table 1 indicate that the percentage decrease in the land area under forest cover was the lowest in community forestry areas at around 2 percent, compared to almost 6.6

percent in buffer zones and around 3.5 percent in protected areas.

However, despite more than 20 years of decentralised community forest management, deforestation and forest degradation persist and poverty in forest communities endures. The level of forest dependency among people who rely on forest use or traditional farming systems remains high; they have few or no alternative sources of income. Most of the community forestry groups are in the early stages of restoring their forest areas and have yet to prepare their resource management plans (Ty 2013). The plan is necessary for comprehensive resource management and must be officially approved before a community can organise commercial use of its forest resources: commercial logging, for instance, is expected to increase household incomes.

Household income

There has been no assessment of the impact of community forestry on the socio-economic situation of participating households (Sunderlin 2006). That said, because only degraded forest areas with little timber value have been allocated for community forestry, local benefits are limited to collection of non-timber forest products (NTFP): the incomes achieved are barely enough to support let alone improve the livelihoods of local forest-dependent people. In stark contrast, state-owned forests have high economic value, i.e. rare tree species, high-value timber, rich biodiversity and more NTFP, and generate more forest income than private and community-owned forests both per household and per hectare (Jagger et al. 2014). Community forestry development clearly needs much more policy attention and continuous financial and technical support if it is to make any marked contribution to poverty reduction and biodiversity conservation (de Lopez 2004).

A study conducted in 2011 of three communities located next to forest areas in Kampot, Kampong

¹ United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) defines REDD+ as “Policy approaches and positive incentives on issues relating to reducing emissions from deforestation and forest degradation in developing countries; and the role of conservation, sustainable management of forests and enhancement of forest carbon stocks in developing countries” (Solution Exchange 2010, 1). Activities under REDD+ are reducing emissions from deforestation (“RED”); reducing emissions from forest degradation (the second “D”); conservation of forest carbon stocks, sustainable management of forests and enhancement of forest carbon stocks (the “+”) (Solution Exchange 2010, 1).

Thom and Kampong Speu provinces estimated that forest income contributed on average about 25 percent of total annual household income (both monetary and subsistence), in a range of USD74 to USD151, equal to 303,000 riels to 618,000 riels (\pm 18,000 to 22,000 riels) (Koy and Sasaki 2013). These estimates were much lower than those of an earlier study which found that the annual contribution of forest income to household income ranged from USD163 (668,000 riels) to USD414 (1,696,000 riels) (Kasper and Top 2006). These observed differences are largely attributable to the different methods used for assessing forest condition. Another study in 2007 to assess the contribution of NTFP to incomes of Phnom Kok (in Ratanakkiri province) community forestry members found that, on average, each collector made about USD79 annually (Kim, Sasaki and Koike 2008). Disaggregated by resource type, plant-based NTFP (food, fodder, medicine, cosmetics ingredients, construction materials and resin) produced average annual income of USD58.5 per collector in a range of USD5 to USD270, and animal-based NTFP (live animals, honey and beeswax, bushmeat, hides and skins, medicine, dye ingredients) about USD50 (Kim, Sasaki and Koike 2008).

Conservation and management of NTFP resources is considered a viable approach to improve the subsistence and cash economy of forest dependent communities (Hall and Bawa 1993). Moreover, this does not take into account a number of intangible monetary values such as stocks of forest resources that are not immediately productive and benefits such as aesthetic enjoyment, recreation, cultural and heritage values, which healthy forest resources and

services provide. For example, community-based ecotourism in Chambok, Kampong Speu province, provides alternative incomes and encourages the community to protect its natural areas. Because of the forested landscape, from 2002 through 2010, the community was able to make average annual income of USD10,000 from national and international visitors; in 2011 member households achieved monthly income of about USD10, mainly from ecotourism (Lonn et al. 2012).

Community forestry challenges: Drivers of deforestation and forest degradation

The rates of deforestation and forest degradation are an ongoing issue across Cambodia, even in community forests. Deforestation, defined as “forest changes to another land use, either through human-induced conversion (mainly to agriculture and settlements), or through natural disasters, such as volcanic eruptions, earthquakes or flooding” (FAO n.d., 1), has many negative consequences for the environment. Forest degradation refers to “changes within the forest which negatively affect the structure or function of the stand or site, and thereby lower the capacity to supply products and/or services” (FAO n.d., 2). Efforts to tackle deforestation and degradation require an understanding of the underlying causes as well as the obvious or proximate causes, as summarised Table 2.

The Forestry Administration reported several constraints on sustainable forest management, mainly 1) lack of capable and motivated staff to work in remote provinces, 2) lack of budget and means to implement planned activities, 3) limited knowledge and commitment of staff, 4) weak capacity to control illegal extraction of timber, and

Table 2: Drivers of deforestation and forest degradation

Proximate	Underlying
Unsustainable and illegal logging	Population increase Migration into forest areas
Overexploitation for woodfuel	Social norms (claiming land through use)
Clearance for agriculture	Increasing accessibility of forest areas
Expansion of settlements	Regional demand for resources Weak forestland tenure Lack of a fair, transparent conflict resolution mechanism Insufficient land-use planning Low economic benefits provided by forests at the national level compared with alternatives Low environmental awareness about the roles of forests

Source: adopted from Ngoun 2014

5) lack of cooperation from local authorities and institutions (ACI 2014).

Given the constraints and pace of deforestation and forest degradation, Cambodia may not be able to achieve its Millennium Development Goal of keeping at least 60 percent of the total land area under forest cover in 2015 (FA 2011). In order to meet the target, half a million hectares of land need to be reforested and demarcated as protected areas, and forest communities' land rights consolidated (FA 2011; CDRI 2013).

Limiting the pace of deforestation but at the same time not denying the rural population, especially the poor and the near-poor, is a major challenge for government and society as a whole. Therefore, government and local communities should strive to promote the wise use of forest resources.

Case study of Osoam community forestry project

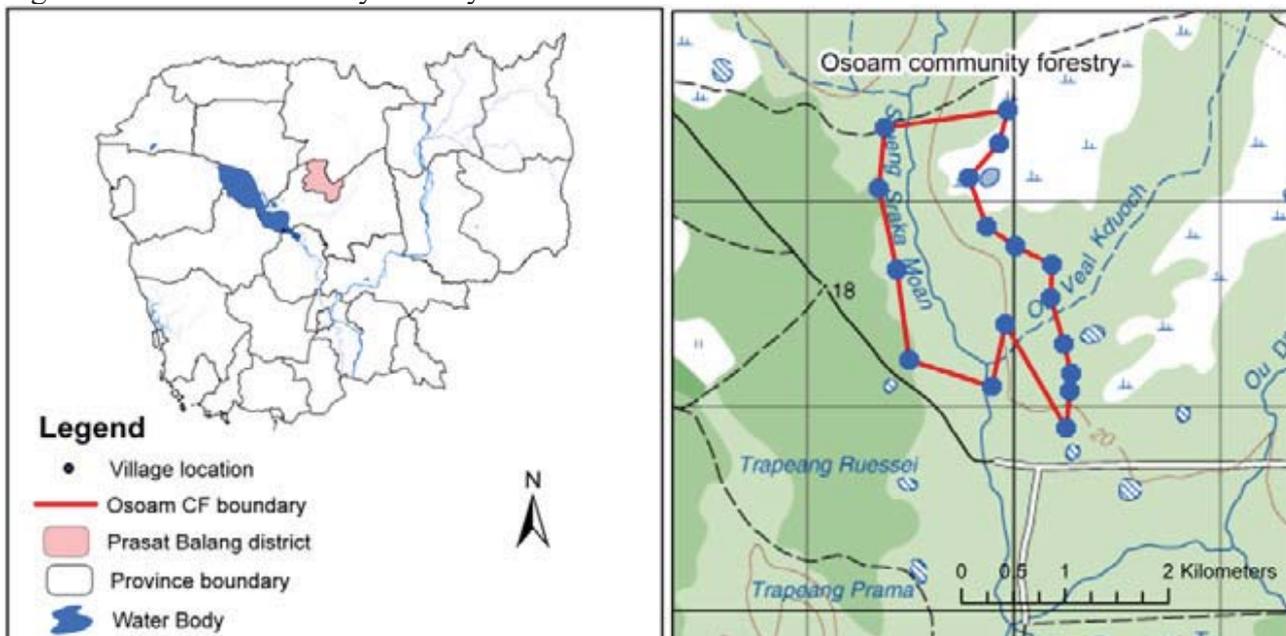
Osoam community forestry project in Kampong Thom province was selected for case study because it provides a good example of best practice in community forestry. It is funded under the project titled “Multi-Function, Forest Restoration and Management of Degraded Forest Areas”, developed and carried out by the Institute of Forest and Wildlife Research and Development of the Forestry Administration, with support from the Asia Pacific Network for Sustainable Forest Management and Rehabilitation (APFNet) until the end of 2014.

Primary data for the study was collected from informal interviews with Osoam community members in August 2014, and secondary data was gathered from a desk review of published literature, policy documents and research reports. The study applied a combined qualitative and quantitative approach, using Excel to calculate forest income and the SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats) framework to assess opportunities and challenges. Based on the findings, the study offers recommendations for way forward strategies.

Osoam community forestry group is located in Sala Visai village, Sala Visai commune, Prasat Balang district (Figure 4), about 37 km from Kampong Thom and 168 km from Phnom Penh (Ma 2014). Established in 2004 on 308 hectares, the main objective of this community forestry project is to encourage local people to conserve and protect the forest and to use forest resources sustainably.

In 2008, 354 households comprising 1818 people (918 females) were living in Sala Visai village (NIS 2010). At the time of study, 273 families were involved in the community forestry project; most of them belong to the Kuoy ethnic minority. Besides growing rice and other crops, they collect NTFP such as rattan, bamboo, honey, fruits, mushrooms and medicinal plants; some run small shops and others are labourers (Ma 2014). In principle, only community forestry members are allowed to collect resources from the community forest.

Figure 4: Osoam community forestry area



Source: FA 2014: Osoam Community Forestry boundary

Contributions of community forestry to forest conservation and household incomes

Effects of forest restoration and conservation activities

In 2014, as part of their forest management plan, Osoam forestry community planted 15 hectares set aside as a protected area with bamboo and 9810 trees of five varieties: *korki* (*Hopea odorata*), *thnong* (*Pterocarpus macrocarpus* Kurz), *korkoh* (*Sindora cochinchinensis* H. Baill), *pdau* (*Calamus* sp.) and *pring*. In addition, they planted restoration areas with 7810 trees including 2000 acacias (*Acacia auriculiformis* Muell). The Forestry Administration has helped to train the committee members in regeneration methods such as tending, thinning and harvesting regimes. But more technical training is needed to raise other members' awareness of best practice and ensure they have the skills to apply these techniques.

Illegal logging and poaching have been reduced to very low rates since community members started patrolling the forest to protect it from illegal clearing. Community forestry and Forestry Administration signs and logos located throughout the forest make it clear that Osoam community has ownership rights over the forest and the resources within it.

Project proponents believe that, along with forests in protected areas, community forests will be the last largely intact forests left standing in Cambodia, like islands amid a deforested landscape. Community members felt that outsiders would eventually invade

their forest, putting further pressure on the forest and the need to protect it.

Benefits derived from participating in community forestry

The direct tangible benefits to the households involved in Osoam community forestry project are access to and use of the forest to collect various NTFP, mainly fuelwood, mushrooms, fruits, rattan, honey, edible insects including spiders/tarantulas (*aping*) and fish, and a share of the takings from tree nursery sales and donations from visitors to Osoam Community Centre (Table 3).

The value of the annual cash NTFP income is substantial. In particular, the forest holds great potential for the production of natural honey. The community collects and supplies between 500 and 700 litres of pure forest honey a year for sale at USD5 per litre, worth up to USD3500. However, the honey is sold at a price set by intermediaries below the market price. Although community members recognise the problems and opportunities, they lack financial and technical support to develop their honey business.

Forest foods are another benefit and nutritionally important, providing a year-round source of food and fodder. Fish caught in the Osoam stream, which flows through the forest into Prey Pros River and finally the Tonle Sap Lake, is the main natural food source. The stream contains some big fish such as *trey chhdor* (*Channa micropeltes*)—the giant

Table 3: Resource collection in Osoam community forest, 2014

Resource type	Collection season	Beneficiary households	
		No.	% of total
<i>Income from NTFP</i>			
Fish	May to Jun, and Sep to Oct	273	100
Fuelwood collection	Daily	273	100
Fodder	End of Dec to Apr	190	70
Wild mushrooms	Mar and May, and Sep after heavy rains	191	70
Edible wild fruits (<i>phlaekuy</i>)	Mar and Apr	82	30
Rattan (for furniture making and basket weaving)	Jan, Feb and Sep	38	14
Honey	Apr to Sep	44	16
Spiders/tarantulas (<i>aping</i>)	Aug to Sep	10	3.7
<i>Revenue from the tree nursery and community fund</i>			
Selling tree seedlings	Occasionally throughout the year	Used to maintain and run the community forest	
Community fund	Small amounts of money from visitors throughout the year	Used to maintain and run the community forest	

Source: Interviews with members of Osoam Community Forestry group, August 2014

snakehead or mudfish, capable of growing to 1.3 m in length and 20 kg in weight.

Almost all of the community members fish occasionally during the fishing seasons in May to June and September to October. Besides home consumption, households can generate cash income of around 400,000 riels (USD100) per season from selling fish. The biggest difficulty with managing subsistence fishing, however, is that is difficult to monitor, yield is variable and overfishing a concern. Without the ability to estimate how many fish there are, it is almost impossible to determine how many can be caught while sustaining a viable fish population. The absence of scientific data or catch records to estimate the stock of different fish species stresses the need for strong science-based assessments to assure future sustainability. That said, if the forest disappears, the fish will disappear too.

Edible forest products such as mushrooms, fruits and insects are also significant sources of food and cash income. Wild mushrooms (mostly acacia and vine mushrooms) appear following heavy rains usually in March, May and September.

With support from the project fund, the tree nursery produces native trees and shrubs from local

seed and sells some of the seedlings, mainly to NGOs and the Forestry Administration. The nursery sold around 8000 seedlings in 2011, 5000 in 2012 and 2000 in 2014. The species grown are mostly *krayoung* (*Dalbergia cochinchinensis* Pierre) and beng (*Azelia xylocarpa* Kurz. Craib).

Outcomes of a SWOT analysis

Table 4 summarises the particular strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT) facing Osoam community forestry group. The options and problems identified by the SWOT analysis can be used to determine strategies for a way forward for Osoam forest users group. The following set of actions should be considered:

- Secure land tenure and rights
 - o Obtain official approval from MAFF.
 - o Secure willing cooperation through maintaining good communication and building strong working relationships with local authorities and Forestry Administration to keep the community safe.
- Secure financial support
 - o Build capacity for community-based NTFP enterprise (e.g. forest honey) including sustainable harvesting, processing, marketing,

Table 4: SWOT analysis of Osoam community forestry project

Strengths	Weaknesses
Community forest boundary is clearly demarcated (supported by APFnet) The community has its own rules and regulatory capacity, and official legal status Through training, knowledge is transmitted within the community on silviculture best practices: seed treatment, germination, soil blending and forest thinning Integration of local ecological knowledge and scientific research: monitoring and recording forest dynamics in a observation plot Routine forest patrols have almost eliminated illegal logging and poaching Tree nursery produces native trees and shrubs and sells seedlings to NGOs and the Forestry Administration Forest areas set aside for conservation and forest restoration Cooperative relationships and coordination between Forestry Administration and local community keep the community safe Community members keep NTFP use within the limits of forest regeneration and natural growth, and respect rules about not collecting wood in conservation areas	Official declaration/approval from MAFF lagging Financial constraints after the project ends Limited knowledge and expertise on sustainable forest management, particularly tree breeding and forest ecosystem restoration Inactive group leader Weak institutions affect the quality of governance Not all members participate fully in community forestry activities NTFP values are set by intermediaries below market prices No market chain for unique forest products
Opportunities	Threats
Forest foods, especially honey, fish, wild fruits and mushrooms, have great potential in niche markets and thus for more diverse sources of income. Revenues from tree nursery, ecotourism and study tours help to maintain the community forest	Insecure land tenure and rights Fear of “outsiders” encroaching on community forestland

product development and value-addition; revenues from selling honey and other forest products would help to support community activities.

- o Forestry Administration or other stakeholders should help the community to set up a website to market their products, raise public awareness and spread information about community forestry via social media.
- o Build the capacity of the group leader and committee members to fill the management vacuum in community forestry management, governance and fund raising.
- o Establish a community savings group by reinvesting revenues from the visitors centre, tree nursery and other income sources.
- Strengthen the community's capacity for sustainable forest management
 - o Train community members on keeping the forest inventory (systematic collection of data and forest information for assessment) so that they are able to continue the study themselves.
 - o Improve local capacity to run the tree nursery, particularly in breeding and propagating trees and bamboo to produce better quality tree seedlings and plants for retail and replanting in the community forest.
 - o Keep the management committee fresh, focussed and effective by holding regular elections.
 - o Provide government incentives to encourage graduate students and technical officials to help and work directly with the community in restoring and conserving their forest.

Discussion and conclusion

Community forestry sites occur in specific settings in the landscape and support specific plant and wildlife communities, with successes and failures largely determined by local ecological, social and economic conditions. Even so, three crucial factors stand out for their roles in successful community forestry: well-defined property rights, effective institutional arrangements, and community interests and incentives (Pagdee, Kim and Daugherty 2006). Without these elements, it will be very difficult to secure the survival of natural forests and the well-being of forest-dependent communities.

In Cambodia, weak institutions and poor governance are at the root of widespread land disputes. Even land allocated for community forestry

is not safe from land-grabbing and commercial exploitation. Ineffective law enforcement makes it almost impossible for community forestry groups to assert their rights of ownership especially against powerful, self-interested adversaries. This emphasises the need to support sustainable forest management through instituting clearly defined property rights and building the capacity of local institutions (Clements et al. 2010). In addition, monitoring and evaluation of community forestry activities is required to find out what has worked and what has not (Sokh and Iida 2001)

Community forestry is increasingly being recognised for its social, economic and ecological importance, and more community forestry groups are being set up. However, as the case study of Osoam community forestry reveals, the critical issues of insecure land tenure, disorganised local institutions and insufficient technical and financial support risk undermining the overall aim of achieving sustainable forest management and poverty reduction.

Challenges aside, community forestry development in Cambodia offers a sustainable and viable approach to the protection, management and use of natural resources in forests that occur outside protected areas. If well executed, community forestry can play an important part in conserving ecosystems and biodiversity, meeting food security and livelihood needs and improving the welfare of local communities. Cultural, aesthetic, educational and scientific considerations also provide sound reasons for scaling up support to communities interested in owning and managing forestland.

In short, greater attention paid to community forestry invests in environmental capital in a way that is consistent with future as well as present needs. To fully realise that potential, and key to the goal of self-sustaining forest management, close collaboration between national forestry institutions, local government authorities and forest communities should be encouraged, especially in defining a clear land tenure system, building strong and stable institutions, and securing continuous financial and technical support.

References

- ACI, Agrifood Consulting International. 2014. "Diagnostic Study Cambodia Agriculture in Transition." Draft Final Report. Kensington, MA: ACI.

- CDRI, Cambodia Development Resource Institute. 2013. *Cambodia Development Dynamics: Past Performance and Emerging Priorities*. Phnom Penh: CDRI.
- Clements, T., Ashish John, Karen Nielsen, Dan An, Setha Tan and E.J. Milner-Gulland. 2010. "Payments for Biodiversity Conservation in the Context of Weak Institutions: Comparison of Three Programs from Cambodia." *Ecological Economics* 69(6): 1283-1291.
- FA, Forestry Administration. 2011. *Forest Cover Assessment 2010*.
- Forestry Administration. 2013. *Community Forestry Statistics in Cambodia 2013*.
- Forestry Administration. 2014. *Community Forestry Statistics Report 2014*.
- FAO, Food and Agriculture Organization. undated. "Reducing Emissions from Deforestation in Developing Countries." Accessed 20 Oct 2014, www.fao.org/forestry/11262-0c118e3a425bb480af3f7512bc83695ce.pdf.
- Food and Agriculture Organization. 2014. *State of the World's Forests: Enhancing the Socioeconomic Benefits from Forests*. Rome: FAO
- Hall, P., and K.S. Bawa. 1993. "Methods to Assess the Impact of Extraction of Non-Timber Tropical Forest Products on Plant Population." *Economic Botany* 47:234-237.
- Jagger, P., J.F. Lund, A.E. Duchelle, M.M.K. Luckert and W.D. Sunderlin. 2014. "Tenure and Forest Income: Observations from a Global Study on Forests and Poverty." *World Development*. DOI: 10.1016/j.worlddev.2014.03.004.
- Kasper, K.H. and N. Top. 2006. *Natural Forest Benefit and Economic Analysis of Natural Forest Conversion in Cambodia*. Working Paper 33. Phnom Penh: CDRI.
- Kim S., N. Sasaki and M. Koike. 2008. "Assessment of Non-Timber Forest Products in Phnom Kok Community Forest, Cambodia." *Asia Europe Journal* 6(2): 345-354.
- Koy R., and N. Sasaki. 2013. "Assessment of Local Livelihood of Forest-Dependent Communities in Cambodia." *International Journal of Environmental and Rural Development* 4-1:63-68.
- Lonn P., M. Nobuya, K. Tsuyoshi and Y. Shigejiro. 2012. "Effectiveness of Community-Based Ecotourism in Forest Conservation and Livelihood Improvement: A Case Study in Chambok Community-Based Ecotourism, Cambodia." Master's thesis, Kyushu University, Japan.
- de Lopez, T.T. 2004. "Resource Degradation, Property Rights, Social Capital and Community Forestry in Cambodia." In *Policy Trend Report 2004*, 35-44. Tokyo: Institute for Environmental Strategies.
- Ma Vuthy. 2014. "Participation in Forest Restoration of Osoam Community Forestry Members." Leaflet. Phnom Penh: Forestry Administration.
- MAFF, Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry, and Fisheries. 2014. *Cambodia Agriculture Review 2014*.
- Nguon Pheakkdey. 2014. "Sustainable Forest Governance in the Asia-Pacific Region: Has REDD+ Adequately Addressed Drivers of Deforestation and Forest Degradation?" DRF Policy Brief No. 6. Phnom Penh: CDRI.
- NIS, National Institute of Statistics. 2010. *2008 General Population Census of Cambodia: Map Layers and Databases*.
- National Institute of Statistics. 2013. *Supplementary Notes, Commenting the Results of the Cambodia Socio-Economic Survey, CSES 2012*.
- Pagdee, Adcharaporn, Kim Yeon-Su and P.J. Daugherty. 2006. "What Makes Community Forest Management Successful: A Meta-Study from Community Forests Throughout the World." *Society and Natural Resources* 19:33-52.
- RGC, Royal Government of Cambodia. 2013. *Rectangular Strategy for Growth, Employment, Equity and Efficiency Phase III*.
- Solution Exchange. 2010. "Cambodia REDD+ Roadmap". Accessed 13 Nov 2014, www.solex-un.net/repository/kh/cc/cr5-res2-en.pdf.
- Sokh H. and S. Iida. 200. "Community Forestry Models in Southeast Asia and Cambodia: A Comparative Study." *Journal of the Faculty of Agriculture, Kyushu University* 46(1): 113-121.
- Sunderlin, W.D. 2006. "Poverty Alleviation through Community Forestry in Cambodia, Laos, and Vietnam: An Assessment of the Potential." *Forest Policy and Economics* 8:386-396.
- Ty Sokun. 2013. "Evaluation of Community Forestry in Cambodia." Presentation at Asia Forest Workshop, Phnom Penh, 3-4 Dec.
- Ty S., N. Sasaki, A.H. Ahmad and A.Z. Zainal. 2011. "REDD Development in Cambodia—Potential Carbon Emission Reductions in a REDD Project." *Formath* 10:1-23.
- World Bank. 2013. *Poverty Monitoring and Analysis: Where Have All the Poor Gone?* Phnom Penh: World Bank.

20 Years' Strengthening of Cambodian Civil Society: Time for Reflection

Introduction

After more than 20 years of international efforts to enhance the progressive realisation of economic, social and cultural rights, the important question naturally arises whether a strong, unifying civil society has been achieved. Careful consideration of this question stimulates thoughtful discussion, and the answer is a mixed one at best. Civil society at the national level remains weak, while a more vigorous civil society appears to be emerging from the grassroots.

The discussion first clarifies a key point of contention about whether non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and civil society are implicitly the same, and then examines the concept of Cambodian organic civil society. An overview of the NGO phenomenon follows, identifying participatory NGOs, who supports them and why. Lastly, we look at the evolution of NGOs over the last two decades, with a focus on whether they constitute and to what extent they have improved civil society, and the impacts of recent movements to fan out NGOs to almost every corner of the country on grassroots civil society.

Are NGOs and civil society implicitly the same?

Despite wide use of the term civil society, its definition remains unclear. Commentators conclude that the concept itself is vague and therefore often empirically elusive. A widely quoted liberal definition promoted by the donor community in Cambodia and elsewhere refers to civil society as "... an intermediate associational realm between state and family populated by organizations which are separate from the state, enjoy autonomy in relation to the state and are formed voluntarily by members of society to protect or extend their interests or values" (White 1994, 337-338). This definition

accentuates several crucial points. First, civil society is the aggregate of organisations within the realm of autonomous, voluntary associations. Second, the domain protects organisations' collective interests. Third, it represents organic and voluntary actions as self-expression flourishes and more people pull together to achieve certain objectives, particularly in making demands on the state to respond to those objectives. A point worth emphasising is that the definition reflects the general structure and common characteristics of a Western civil society.

Does Cambodia possess its own form of civil society? Civil society does exist in the country but it is distinct from the Western form. Even before war erupted, May Ebihara (1968) argued that Cambodian civil society did not constitute organisational bodies that connected them and the state, but was manifested in various forms of social exchange, or reciprocity, influenced and supported by institutions of kinship and familiarity. If one looks closely, Cambodian civil society centres on pagodas and associated groups largely performing religious, social and developmental roles, rather than on collective (political) representation or social movements and interest groups' articulation of their views to the state to resolve matters of their concern.

In efforts to empower Cambodian civil society, Western donor circles since the early 1990s have supported local NGOs. At the time it was envisioned that civil society in Cambodia could be strengthened beyond traditional indigenous social relations to play a more crucial political role in shifting the balance of power. Ideally, this would ultimately underpin good governance. Another vital role of NGOs was to provide the basic social services not being assured by the public sector due to the weak capacity of the state.

Similar to the notion of civil society, the term NGO is also subject to some ambiguity. Clarke (1998, 2-3) defined NGOs as "... private, non-profit, professional organizations with a distinctive legal character, concerned with public welfare goals." NGOs represent professional organisations and

Prepared by Ou Sivhuoch, Research Fellow, Democratic Governance and Public Sector Reform, CDRI. This article draws on Ou and Kim (2013). It may be cited as Ou Sivhuoch and Kim Sedara. 2014. "20 Years' Strengthening of Cambodian Civil Society: Time for Reflection." *Cambodia Development Review* 18(3):10-13.

primarily exist as a “means” or “agent” intending to achieve public goals and empower civil society in developing countries (Clarke 1998). In this sense, their role as the means of achieving others’ ends implies that NGOs have already deviated from the general definition of civil society because civil society activities and organisations are formed for the benefit of their members. NGOs’ lack of grassroots connection or popular support base and their upward accountability to donors further indicate that they do not constitute civil society.

The latest census puts the number of operating civil society organisations (referred to here as NGOs) in 2012 at 1315, of which 1130 (86 percent) had funding (CCC 2013, 7). Another recent phenomenon in Cambodia is hybrid civil society, referring to subnational NGOs and community-based organisations (CBOs), which number around 25,000. They are classified as hybrid because of the coexistence of local, state and foreign interests embedded in them. These civil society bodies are often formed out of the interests of the local people, but usually gain support from NGOs.

To what extent have NGOs strengthened civil society?

At national level, especially in the 1990s, donors have generally funded a specific group of NGOs, especially large organisations with strong potential and a good track record rather than broader civil society groups such as trade unions, to ensure that expected outcomes are measurable and justify their support. Some scholars go as far as arguing that collective action for social betterment has been badly served by donors’ funding decisions, a phenomenon Hughes (2009) calls the “atomizing strategies” of aid donors. That “...the promotion of civil society has, in policy terms, continued to focus on the creation of NGOs rather than broader forms of associations” is echoed by Christie (2013, 91), while an empirical study by the Cooperation Committee for Cambodia has identified NGOs’ upward accountability as a key issue: “Most accountability practices are predominantly upward ... As most NGOs are donor dependent, their decision making, not unexpectedly,

[is] influenced greatly by their donors/development partners. In defining strategic focus or directions ... the priority concerns or issues of communities become secondary to donor priorities and agenda” (CCC 2010, 31-32).

Donors’ results-driven aid portfolios mostly prioritise completion of projects and focus less on their impact (R.F. Catalla and T. Catalla 2001) let alone on strengthening civil society in general. Consequently, NGOs barely connect with the grassroots or a popular base, leaving the locals disorganised and even less empowered. NGOs, overall, provide high-paying jobs to an educated urban elite who spend more time working in the capital and major cities than on connecting with local people. Some NGOs are affected by endemic corruption and others lack good governance and transparency. Also, it is not uncommon for NGOs

“ *It is not uncommon for NGOs to be established with the principal objective of making profit: 'Some NGOs were still being set up for employment purposes rather than assisting the poor.'* ”

to be established with the principal objective of making profit: “Some NGOs were still being set up for employment purposes rather than assisting the poor” (Nowaczyk 2009, 25). The inadequacy of organisations’ democratic principles undermines

their credibility and effectiveness in promoting broader civil society organisations and movements.

In spite of the early concentration of NGOs in the capital and major cities, the persistence of that trend and the undeniable constraints on their operations, a new phenomenon has gradually emerged. At the local level, from the mid-2000s onwards, NGOs have fanned out to the countryside and CBOs, often with support from NGOs, have established a presence in almost every village; commentators refer to this as a hybrid phenomenon (see, for example, Öjendal 2014). On the one hand, this CBO phenomenon has occurred with such problems as elite capture and uncertain sustainability due to financial dependence on NGOs and donors. On the other, some positives that have not been present before are slowly unfolding: the Cambodianisation of civil society (i.e. the shifting of interests from the internationals to the locals), and the emergence of intermediary institutions. These recent developments have led to the strong emergence of certain groups, notably thousands of savings groups: CEDAC alone has

reportedly set up 3000 successful savings groups. These and other groups have sprung up around the country, a phenomenon unprecedented in the shaping of Cambodia's modern civil society.

A detailed ethnographic case study (Hiwasa 2014) argues that donors' efforts to establish savings groups in rural Cambodia have paid off, resulting in many functioning groups that have economically and socially empowered the local people, especially women. Before the arrival of these informal savings groups, the situation of women could be likened to that of "frogs in a well". Today, women's collective action realised through their engagement in savings groups has helped them attain the capacity to participate directly in the public realm and civil society. Further, women's savings groups have become a breeding ground for building social and group networks, reaching out to the district and even national levels and providing a platform for woman to voice their concerns (Hiwasa 2014). Another study on microfinance (Jørgensen 2009) confirms that despite failures, donors' efforts to promote local savings groups have produced successful groups that have generated increased social capital and other positive empowerment effects.

An evaluation of a CEDAC-supported farmer livelihood project points out the rapid spread and vigour of farmer, producer and savings groups: "An often quoted study of Cambodian rural life is titled 'When Every Household Is an Island'. The farmers in Tram Kok are showing how rapidly this title may become history" (Johnsen and Prom 2005, 2).

The positive effects of the international community's efforts to build a grassroots civil society in Cambodia are acknowledged in that it "... has succeeded in triggering local capacity and a will to organize ... permeating a fair share of the civil society realm", and it has in a sense created a space for "an intermediate associational realm" (Öjenda 2014, 35). Despite their predominantly economic objectives, CBOs have collective political power (Feuer 2014). Recent analysis of CEDAC's community development strategies through the formation of

farmer associations reveals that at the local level, a producer group as small as 10 households could be sufficient to mobilise local action in response to threats, whether environmental (e.g. floods, epidemics) or political (e.g. land grabbing, predatory traders or even corruption) (Feuer 2014, 246). At the local level, the empowerment of rural groups (such as the Cambodian Farmer Association Federation of Agricultural Producers), through increased capacity for collective action, provides important leverage over the government's use of co-optation and threats: "While the Farmers' Association has maintained very amicable relationships with the government ... the existence of large rural organisations is already an initial challenge to the monopoly of state authority in the countryside" (Feuer 2014, 246). Further, the proliferation of local women's savings groups and networks may well have contributed from a long-

term perspective to the groundswell of grassroots movements that Feuer has pointed out.

A unique case is that of the Khmer Community for Agricultural Development (KCAD), a provincial NGO established 20 years ago in Kampot.¹ KCAD represents a genuine civil society organisation that could not have emerged without donor support. In

the critical early stages, KCAD relied on external support but later generated its own income, albeit sporadic, through organising equipment operator training courses. What makes KCAD fit the definition of civil society is that its autonomy has allowed the organisation to carve its own space and fulfill its goals in the civil society sphere. Now well established, KCAD continues to operate independently of government; the director earns his living from other means but satisfies his philanthropic interests through part-time involvement in the organisation's activities. On another front, NGOs such as Hagar and Friends International have transformed themselves into social businesses, allowing them to generate sustainable income and generally stick to their agenda in helping marginalised groups such as poor

“ *Before the arrival of these informal savings groups, the situation of women could be likened to that of 'frogs in a well'. Today, women's collective action realised through their engagement in savings groups has helped them attain the capacity to participate directly in the public realm and civil society.* ”

¹ Other cases may exist elsewhere but lie beyond the study's scope of investigation.

students and orphans. It is clear, however, that the transformation from NGO to social business (again, a hybrid form of civil society) could not happen without initial support from external interveners.

Conclusion

Donors' efforts to strengthen civil society in Cambodia have produced mixed outcomes. At the national level, NGOs, especially in the early days, have barely empowered civil society. Two key challenges stand out. First, the demands of external donors for not only upward but also a specific type of accountability concentrate funding on a small group of select NGOs, creating a disconnect between the NGOs and the prioritisation of the local beneficiaries they are supposed to serve. Second, problems within the NGOs themselves undermine their credibility and effectiveness. Although these constraints will not melt away easily given NGOs' considerable dependence on external support, their work has increasingly reached out to the rural areas, gradually moving towards connection with the grassroots. Since the mid-2000s, more NGOs have extended their project activities to the countryside, establishing in the process hundreds of thousands of hybrid civil society groups especially savings groups. These encouraging trends lend hope to the idea that civil society at the lowest level has the potential to grow and to have distinct political relevance.

References

- Catalla, R.F., and T. Catalla 2001. *Cambodia: A Situation Analysis*. Bangkok: Action Aid-Asia.
- CCC, Cooperation Committee for Cambodia. 2010. *Reflections, Challenges, and Choices: 2010 Review of NGO Sector in Cambodia*. Phnom Penh: CCC.
- CCC. 2013. *CSO Contributions to the Development of Cambodia 2012: Opportunities and Challenges*. Phnom Penh: CCC.
- Christie, R. 2013. *Peacebuilding and NGOs: State-Civil Society Interactions*. London: Routledge.
- Clarke, G. 1998. *The Politics of NGOs in South-East Asia: Participation and Protest in the Philippines*. London: Routledge.
- Ebihara, M. 1968. "Svay, a Khmer Village in Cambodia." PhD dissertation, Columbia University.
- Feuer, H. 2014. "Competitive Discourses in Civil Society: Pluralism in Cambodia's Agricultural Development Platform." In *Southeast Asia and the Civil Society Gaze: Scoping a Contested Concept in Cambodia and Vietnam*, edited by G. Waibel, J. Ehlert and H.N. Feuer. London: Routledge.
- Hiwasa, A. 2014. "Changing Gendered Boundaries in Rural Cambodia." In *Southeast Asia and the Civil Society Gaze: Scoping a Contested Concept in Cambodia and Vietnam*, edited by G. Waibel, J. Ehlert and H.N. Feuer. London: Routledge.
- Hughes, C. 2009. *Dependent Communities: Aid and Politics in Cambodia and East Timor*. New York: Cornell Southeast Asia Program.
- Johnsen, S., and T. Prom. 2005. *Evaluation, ILFARM (Improving Livelihoods of Subsistence Farmers) Project, Tram Kok District, Takeo Province, Cambodia*. Phnom Penh: JICA.
- Jørgensen, J.N.I. 2009. "Revisiting Social Capital in Development: Can Group-Based Microfinance Reproduce Social Capital? A Case Study in Rural Cambodia." Master's thesis, Lund University.
- Nowaczyk, M. 2009. "Between a Rock and a Hard Place: Organizations and Institutionalized Corruption in Cambodia." MSc Thesis, University of Birmingham.
- Öjendal, J. 2014. "In Search of a Civil Society: Re-negotiating State-Society Relations in Cambodia." In *Southeast Asia and the Civil Society Gaze: Scoping a Contested Concept in Cambodia and Vietnam*, edited by G. Waibel, J. Ehlert and H.N. Feuer. London: Routledge.
- Öjendal, J., and Kim S. 2013. "Reconstruction and Local Democratization in Cambodia? An Empirical Review of the Potential of a Decentralization Reform." In *The Imperative of Good Local Governance: State of the Art of Local Governance and the Challenges for the Next Decade*, edited by J. Öjendal and A. Dellnäs. Tokyo: United Nations University Press.
- Ou Sivhuoch and Kim Sedara. 2013. *20 Years' Strengthening of Cambodian Civil Society: Time for Reflection*. Working Paper Series No. 85. Phnom Penh: CDRI.
- White, G. 1994. "Civil Society, Democratization and Development (I): Clearing the Analytical Ground." *Democratization* 1(3): 375-390.

The Enduring Gap: Decentralisation Reform and Youth Participation in Local Rural Governance

Introduction

Cambodia's democratic decentralisation programme is now more than a decade old. The country's record in achieving the major objectives of the decentralisation programme has been somewhat mixed (see, for example, Öjendal and Kim 2006; Kim and Öjendal 2009; Kim 2012; Heng, Kim and So 2011; Heng and So 2012; Malena and Chhim 2009; EIC 2010; CDRI 2013). Decentralisation reforms have contributed to political pluralism, thus laying the groundwork for local democracy. Citizens are now allowed to choose local leaders and participate and communicate their preferences and needs for local community development through participatory local governance. However, the level of actual citizen participation in local development is low, hampered by the inability of councils to meet local needs, preoccupation with daily living, historical reluctance, invitation formalities, and so on. Also, participation is passive and often driven by self-interest for reasons of immediate benefit.

Although many research studies have looked at the contribution of decentralisation to general citizen participation in local politics and development, there has been no systematic assessment with youth participation as a focus.¹ This study attempts to fill that gap in the literature by addressing the research question: How have youth used the space opened by the decentralisation reform? The study findings provide critical insights to enable a discussion on whether decentralisation is unfolding as a means for promoting youth participation in local rural governance.

Prepared by Heng Seiha and Vong Mun, Research Associates, Democratic Governance and Public Sector Reform, CDRI. This article is extracted from Heng, Vong and Chheat (2014). This publication may be cited as Heng Seiha and Vong Mun. 2014. "The Enduring Gap: Decentralisation Reform and Youth Participation in Local Rural Governance." *Cambodia Development Review* 18(3):14-18.

¹ This study adopts the definition of youth as those between the ages of 18 and 30.

Assessing youth participation

The study assessed youth participation in local rural governance under the framework of three broad indicators proposed by the Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement (CIRCLE 2002), namely civic, political and electoral. Each indicator comprises a number of activities. The civic indicator consists of volunteering for non-electoral organisations, active membership of groups or organisations, fund-raising for charities, and community problem-solving. The political indicator includes contacting officials, sending or signing email and written petitions, contacting print and broadcast media, protesting, boycotting and canvassing. The electoral indicator covers voting regularly, persuading others, contributing to political parties and assisting candidates with campaigns. (For a more detailed discussion of the indicators, see Heng, Vong and Chheat 2014.)

To keep the study within manageable limits, two activities from each indicator were selected to give a snapshot of Cambodian youth participation in local rural governance: volunteering for non-electoral organisations and active membership of groups or organisations for the civic indicator; contacting officials and signing written petitions for the political indicator; and voting regularly and assisting with campaigns for the electoral indicator.

Radical or unconventional forms of participation such as protests or demonstrations are not covered by the study because they are not applicable to the hybrid polity of Cambodia. Scholars (including Chandler 1996, 2000; Martin 1994; Hughes 2009) suggest that cultural and social movements, which have been of historical importance in bringing about social mobilisation, are uncommon in Cambodian society. Especially in the Khmer Rouge era, traditional associations and forms of collective action were atomised. Moreover, during the 1990s and 2000s, there

has been documented evidence of government suppression and violent crackdown on peaceful social and political movements (Hughes 2009).

Methodology

Fieldwork was carried out from September 2013 to February 2014 in four communes in three provinces: Prey Veng, Kampong Cham and Battambang. The study sites were selected based on loose criteria of broad geographical variation, presence of local youth associations and existing rapport with local officials. Selection of the sites was aimed at highlighting key thematic issues of local youth participation rather than producing comparative case studies.

The study adopted a qualitative approach, and information was collected through focus group discussions (FGDs) and semi-structured interviews. To explore the perspectives of young people with varying degrees of social experience, two FGDs were conducted in each commune, one with youth organisation volunteers and the other with youth not involved in youth-led networks; four to six young people, evenly divided by gender, participated in each discussion. Interviews were conducted with commune chiefs and councillors, village chiefs, young people and local youth organisation representatives, as well as with national youth organisation leaders and official government agencies on youth. In total, 33 individual interviews were held.

An extensive review of the literature, including books, journal articles, reports and research studies, provided an overview of theoretical and empirical perspectives on political participation and youth dynamics. A number of surveys supply important data on youth participation in Cambodia, and this study aims to build on those datasets to provide a more detailed description.

The study, while exploratory in nature, attempts to highlight key thematic issues to serve as a

foundation for further research and to contribute to debates on youth development in Cambodia. Due to the data collection methods and the small number of informants interviewed, the main limitation of the study was the inability to disaggregate data (for instance, by gender, economic status, education, political affiliation and geographical location).

Key findings

The findings suggest that youth participation in local rural governance in general and development planning in particular has been limited. When young people do engage, the activities are often triggered or facilitated by intermediaries such as youth associations, commune councillors and village chiefs. Given this reliance, it can be argued that without the role of intermediaries, youth still lack courage and remain passive.

“ Barriers to promoting youth civic participation are compounded by a lack of enthusiasm and restrictions from parents, while a lack of supporting mechanisms is an obstacle for those who want to be more civically engaged but are not sure of how to start. ”

Civic participation

Youth have limited knowledge of community-based organisations (CBOs) or local associations, and loose engagement with these organisations. However, volunteering attracts more youth involvement. Given the general passivity of CBOs, village chiefs play a prominent role in mobilising youth

volunteers (for the communal good and/or partisan interest). Economic, cultural and personal reasons underlie a lack of broad youth engagement in associations and volunteering. The need for higher income has driven many young people to become increasingly mobile and work outside their communities. Barriers to promoting youth civic participation are compounded by a lack of enthusiasm and restrictions from parents, while a lack of supporting mechanisms is an obstacle for those who want to be more civically engaged but are not sure of how to start. Youth organisations were identified as important catalysts for young people's participation in society. Such peer groups have helped to develop young people's understanding

of the political culture and provide opportunities for socialisation,² which are likely factors distinguishing the more active from the less active. Good relationships with commune authorities are crucial for this process.

Political engagement

Apathy, deference, distance and fear are recurring features of Cambodia's social hierarchies and continue to pervade relationships between the government and the governed. For some youth, however, the feeling towards local officials is more of respect rather than of fear in that commune authorities are now vulnerable to being voted out. The formal political space opened through decentralisation means that youth can influence local decision-making through public (commune council and village) meetings and informal contacts with local officials. But the use of these rights has been limited, mostly to NGO-affiliated youths. Although there were no reported rejections of attendance requests, the formally public monthly commune council meeting is an "invited space". Further, when young people attend village meetings, they do so as representatives of their parents. Youth's peripheral role means that participatory planning activities essentially remain the domain of older people. There are divergent views on the suitability of young people joining village meetings. In spite of the differences, positive cases exist of commune councils integrating youth ideas and activities into commune plans. Informal contacts with local officials and written petitions, on the other hand, are rare.

Electoral participation

Recent fieldwork noted that young people are generally enthusiastic about voting, seeing it as a right and a responsibility to choose good leaders and spur more development in their communities. It was also observed that voting is showing signs of becoming a norm, a result of conforming to

social trends. However, even as the number of young people registered to vote has increased significantly, high proportions of youth did not vote in the last two commune council elections. Yet the proportion of young commune councillors has risen from 1 percent in 2007 to 5 percent in 2012, a positive development welcomed by the public. In deciding which political party to vote for, young people look to demonstrated progress in local development, political party platforms and leadership, and candidates' ability to fulfil their election promises to the public. Such information reaches the public primarily through broadcast media and electoral campaigns. However, young people require more information about political parties to make better decisions. While voting is a popular democratic exercise, joining electoral campaigns can be a sensitive issue, particularly for youth organisation volunteers, who are obliged to follow the non-partisan status of their affiliated organisations and are unwilling to jeopardise their working relationships with local officials.

Discussion and conclusion

Despite the implementation of decentralisation for more than a decade, citizen participation in general remains low. Our recent fieldwork suggests that there is also a low level of participation among the younger generation. Low youth participation is a problem that requires serious attention. The study indicates that the decentralisation objective of bringing about meaningful civic engagement in local governance has often come up against political, economic, cultural and personal barriers. Politically, commune councils' limited activities to promote youth participation mean that they remain secondary to non-governmental intermediaries. For instance, none of the communes we visited had a plan to make their agenda more attractive to young people and engage them in local rural governance. Effective implementation of the National Policy on Youth Development may improve the status quo. But as of now, the role of youth associations remains vitally important.

In spite of the problems besetting youth participation in local rural governance, empirical evidence shows that some steady, albeit uneven, progress is being made. Without downplaying the changing local political landscape, the study draws the following conclusions about the contribution of

2 "Socialization is largely a one-way process through which young people gain an understanding of the political world through their interaction with adults and the media. Political socialization is a process through which people develop the attitudes, values, beliefs and opinions conducive to becoming good citizens in their country ... is a particular type of political learning whereby people develop the attitudes, values, beliefs, opinions, and behaviors that are conducive to becoming good citizens in their country" (Anon. 2012).

decentralisation to youth participation in local rural governance.

First, the contribution of the decentralisation reform has been most discernible in the electoral process. That is, commune council elections provide capable youth the opportunity to become local representatives. Moreover, youth voice is and will continue to be significant in determining local political power structures because young people make up the largest share of the electorate, with 3.53 million or 37 percent of the 9.67 million registered voters in 2012 (NEC 2012).

Second, the reform has improved commune councils' working relationships with youth organisations and other non-governmental intermediaries, creating a more embracing local political environment conducive to nurturing a culture of participation. This study acknowledges the role of youth associations in helping not only to promote youth participation in local communities, but also to improve young people's civic and political knowledge and socialisation experiences through volunteer activities and training. Since the opening of Cambodia's political system in 1993, the number of NGOs and civil society organisations has increased significantly, and they are operating throughout the country to promote development and democracy. Following implementation of the decentralisation reform in 2002, a number of NGOs and civil society organisations have been engaged in activities to empower citizens to benefit from democratisation and the reform. Concurrently, a number of youth associations have been working locally to instil a sense of responsibility in young people with the aim of helping them to create a better future for themselves and their communities.

Lastly, decentralisation has necessitated a gradual shift of relations between commune councils and youth characterised by more respect and less fear. The change stems from facilitation and mediation from intermediaries (i.e. village chiefs, youth association leaders) and increased familiarity with the assigned roles and duties of commune councils, which entail representing the interests and fulfilling the needs of the people. Such knowledge creates performance expectations that might put social pressure on representatives to deliver satisfactory outcomes.

With insights from the empirical study, we conclude that the challenge of decentralisation is

to deepen youth participation in civic and political space. Processes at all levels must emphasise the roles of both locally elected representatives and civil society which, we argue, can accelerate the impact of decentralisation by overcoming some of the cultural and personal barriers to participation. This responsibility will fall mainly on the shoulders of political leaders, policymakers and civil society leaders, who can help shape the younger generations into Cambodia's greatest resource for the future. It will not be easy, but the following recommendations could help young people realise their individual potentials and thus actively engage in society.

Policy suggestions

Measures that could encourage more youth participation in local governance are many but three key areas deserve special mention. First, further studies should be done by government agencies, political parties or NGOs to understand the relevance of local government to the issues that concern young people and to tackle the local problems affecting them. Following are some suggested topics for research:

- meeting the challenges and needs of youth, and defining the institutions that could meet them;
- commune councils' capacity to address the problems and concerns young people face;
- the capabilities necessary for commune councils to function as the link between upper levels of government and youth in providing information on how to seek study and employment opportunities;
- whether commune council agendas are substantial enough and relevant to young people's circumstances;
- youth perceptions of, and attitudes towards, commune council plans and political party platforms;
- the effect of formal and informal citizenship education on youth participation; and
- a more systematic study of the impact of gender, economic status, geographical location, education, political affiliation and family background on youth participation.

Second, the government should speed up implementation of the National Policy on Youth

Development adopted in 2011.³ Without doubt, effective implementation of this policy not only provides youth a platform where their roles are recognised and they can formally participate in local development and decision-making, but also helps address the challenges (such as inadequate education, poor training and unemployment) hindering youth participation.

Third, the role of youth in decentralisation should be specially set out in the Law on Communes/*Sangkats* Administration and Management (2001) and the Law on Administrative Management of Capital, Provinces, Municipalities, Districts and *Khans* (2009). Since Cambodian youth have become politically, economically and socially important in the country, trying to engage them formally as much as possible in decentralisation would be advantageous to the community and society as a whole.

References

- Anon. 2012. "Political Culture and Socialization." In *21st Century American Government and Politics*, Section 6.2. Accessed 6 Oct 2014. www.2012books.lardbucket.org/books/21st-century-american-government-and-politics/s10-02-political-socialization.html.
- CDRI. 2013. *Cambodia's Development Dynamics: Past Performance and Emerging Priorities*. Phnom Penh: CDRI.
- Chandler, David. 1996. *Facing the Cambodian Past*. Bangkok: Silkworm.
- Chandler, David. 2000. *A History of Cambodia*. Chiang Mai: Westview Press.
- CIRCLE, Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement. 2002. "Civic Engagement Indicators." Accessed 25 Sep 2013. www.civicyouth.org/practitioners/Core_Indicators_Page.htm.
- EIC, Economic Institute of Cambodia. 2010. *Report of the Second Citizen Satisfaction Survey in Target Communes of the LAAR Project*. Phnom Penh: EIC.
- Heng Seiha, Kim Sedara and So Sokbunthoeun. 2011. *Decentralised Governance in Hybrid Polity: Localisation of D&D Reform in Cambodia*. Working Paper Series No. 63. Phnom Penh: CDRI.
- Heng Seiha and So Sokbunthoeun. 2012. "Citizens' Perceptions of Their Responsibilities: Preliminary Analysis of D&D's Contribution to Reciprocal State-Society Relations in Battambang Province." *Annual Development Review 2012-13*:8-21. Phnom Penh: CDRI.
- Heng Seiha, Vong Mun and Chheat Sreang. 2014. *The Enduring Gap: Decentralisation Reform and Youth Participation in Local Rural Governance*. CDRI Working Paper Series No. 94. Phnom Penh: CDRI.
- Hughes, Caroline. 2009. *Dependent Communities: Aid and Politics in Cambodia and East Timor*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell Southeast Asia Program.
- Kim Sedara. 2012. "Democracy in Action: Decentralization in Post-Conflict Cambodia." PhD dissertation, University of Gothenburg.
- Kim Sedara and Joakim Öjendal. 2009. "Decentralization as a Strategy for State Reconstruction in Cambodia." In *Beyond Democracy in Cambodia: Political Reconstruction in a Post-Conflict Society*, edited by J. Öjendal and M. Lilja, 101-135. Copenhagen: NIAS Press.
- Malena, Carmen, and Kristina Chhim. 2009. *Linking Citizens and the State: An Assessment of Civil Society Contributions to Good Governance in Cambodia*. Phnom Penh: World Bank Cambodia Country Office.
- Martin, Marie Alexandrine. 1994. *Cambodia: A Shattered Society*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- MOEYS, Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport. 2011. *National Policy on Cambodia Youth Development*. Phnom Penh: MOEYS.
- NEC, National Election Committee. 2012. "Report on Registered Voters in 2012." Phnom Penh: NEC.
- Öjendal, Joakim, and Kim Sedara. 2006. "Korob, Kaud, Klach': In Search of Agency in Rural Cambodia." *Journal of Southeast Asia Studies* 37(3): 507-526.

³ The objective of the policy is to "[d]evelop Cambodian youth in terms of physical strength, intellectual, consciousness, ethics, value, and skills so they will become a good citizen [sic] of broader society." One of the strategies of the policy is to promote youth participation in local communities, agencies and civil society organisations through formal mechanisms, for example, by having youth representatives on national and subnational committees and councils (MOEYS 2011, 2-5).

Economy Watch—External Environment

This section describes economic indicators of major world economies and economies in Southeast Asia.

Economic growth in some Asian economies was disappointing in the second quarter. Singapore's GDP grew by 2.4 percent compared to 3.7 percent a year earlier, while annual growth in Thailand was only 0.3 percent due to political tension among ruling elites. Hong Kong also experienced slow growth: 1.8 percent compared to 3.3 percent a year earlier. The pro-democracy movement that has blocked roads and financial districts has affected economic activity. Analysts have warned that more damage will be inflicted on the economy if the protest continues. China continues to perform relatively well, growing by 7.5 percent in the year to the second quarter, followed by Indonesia at 6.4 percent.

Growth in industrialised economies was also not promising, reflecting the uncertainties and complex structural adjustments to be corrected. Economies in the eurozone rose 0.7 percent over the 12 months, while Japan's economy contracted by 0.1 percent. The Bank of Japan has announced a quantitative easing plan to supply ¥80 trillion (USD712 billion) a year as part of the Abenomic "three-arrow" initiative to revitalise the economy and escape deflation. Whether this bold plan will deliver the expected outcomes remains to be seen. The US outperformed its rich counterparts, growing by an annual 2.6 percent, compared to 1.4 percent a quarter earlier. According to the US Bureau of Labor Statistics, an additional 248,000 jobs were created in September, keeping the unemployment rate at 5.9 percent—a 1.3 percentage point drop from a year earlier. Both expansionary fiscal and monetary policies have been used to revamp the economy, which has been suffering the worst recession since the Great Depression.

World inflation and exchange rates

Inflation rates in the second quarter in all economies were low and manageable. Prices in Cambodia rose 4.9 percent from a year earlier. Inflation in Vietnam was 4.7 percent: the rate reached a high of 23.3 percent in 2008, when the country was implementing stimulus packages to deal with the global financial crisis. Inflation in the eurozone was low at 0.6 percent, while Japan escaped deflation with a rate of 3.6 percent: the quantitative easing by the Bank of Japan aims to maintain inflation at 2 percent a year. US inflation was 2.1 percent, the level set by the Federal Reserve Board in its inflation targeting policy.

In the second quarter, the riel appreciated 0.1 percent from a year earlier against the dollar and the South Korean won appreciated 8.4 percent. The Japanese yen depreciated 3.3 percent against the dollar, giving more competitive advantage to Japanese products on world markets.

Commodity prices in world markets

In the second quarter, prices of maize declined 26.3 percent from a year earlier to USD214.7/tonne, of rubber 28.8 percent to USD1778/tonne and of rice 27.8 percent to USD411.7/tonne. The price of rubber has been trending downward since the first quarter of last year. The prices of palm oil rose 4.4 percent to USD887.3/tonne and of crude oil 5.0 percent to USD105.9/barrel. The general pattern is that prices of major agricultural commodities have been declining steadily since last year.

Economy Watch—External Environment

Table 1: Real GDP growth of selected trading partners, 2007–14 (percentage increase over previous year)

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013				2014	
							Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2
Selected ASEAN countries												
Cambodia	10.2	6.8	0.1	6.0	6.1	6.2	-	-	-	-	-	-
Indonesia	6.3	6.1	4.2	6.2	6.5	6.3	6.0	5.8	5.6	5.7	5.2	5.1
Malaysia	6.3	4.6	-2.4	9.0	4.9	5.4	4.1	4.3	5.0	5.1	6.2	6.4
Singapore	7.7	1.1	-4.5	14.7	4.7	1.3	0.2	3.7	5.8	5.5	5.1	2.4
Thailand	4.9	2.6	3.3	7.9	0.0	6.8	5.4	2.6	2.6	0.4	3.1	0.3
Vietnam	8.5	6.2	4.7	6.7	6.1	5.0	-	-	-	-	-	-
Selected other Asian countries												
China	11.9	9.0	8.2	10.4	9.3	7.8	7.7	7.5	7.8	7.7	7.1	7.5
Hong Kong	6.4	2.4	-3.2	6.9	4.9	2.9	2.8	3.3	2.9	3.0	2.5	1.8
South Korea	4.9	2.2	-1.0	6.1	3.6	2.1	1.5	2.3	3.3	4.0	4.1	3.5
Taiwan	5.2	0.1	-3.6	11.1	4.2	1.2	1.7	2.3	1.7	2.9	3.1	3.7
Selected industrial countries												
Euro-12	2.9	0.9	-3.8	1.6	1.6	-0.5	1.1	-0.7	-0.4	0.5	0.9	0.7
Japan	2.0	-0.7	-5.4	4.1	-0.8	1.7	0.4	0.9	2.7	2.6	3.1	-0.1
United States	2.2	1.1	-2.5	2.7	1.8	2.1	1.8	1.4	1.6	2.5	2.3	2.6

Sources: International Monetary Fund, Economist and countries' statistics offices

Table 2: Inflation rates of selected trading partners, 2007–14 (percentage price increase over previous year—period averages)

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013				2014	
							Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2
Selected ASEAN countries												
Cambodia	10.5	19.7	-0.5	4.1	5.5	3.0	1.5	2.2	3.8	4.3	4.5	4.9
Indonesia	6.4	10.1	4.7	5.1	5.4	4.3	5.3	5.7	8.6	8.4	7.7	7.1
Malaysia	2.0	5.3	0.4	1.7	3.2	1.7	1.4	1.8	2.2	3.0	3.5	3.3
Singapore	2.1	6.5	0.5	2.9	5.2	4.6	3.6	1.6	1.8	2.0	1.0	2.3
Thailand	2.2	5.5	-0.9	3.1	3.8	3.0	3.1	2.3	1.7	1.7	2.0	2.5
Vietnam	8.3	23.3	7.3	9.0	18.6	9.3	6.9	6.6	7.0	5.9	4.8	4.7
Selected other Asian countries												
China	4.8	5.9	-0.8	3.2	5.4	2.7	2.4	2.4	2.8	2.9	2.1	2.2
Hong Kong	2.0	4.3	-0.3	2.4	5.3	4.1	2.2	4.0	5.3	4.3	4.1	3.6
South Korea	2.5	4.6	2.8	3.0	4.4	2.1	1.4	1.1	1.2	0.9	1.1	1.6
Taiwan	1.8	3.2	-1.1	1.0	1.4	1.9	1.8	0.8	0.0	0.5	1.1	1.6
Selected industrial countries												
Euro-12	2.1	3.3	0.4	1.6	2.7	2.5	1.8	1.5	1.3	0.6	0.6	0.6
Japan	0.1	1.4	-1.3	-0.7	0.1	-0.03	-0.3	-0.3	0.9	1.4	1.5	3.6
United States	2.9	3.8	-0.4	1.7	3.2	2.1	1.7	1.4	1.6	1.2	1.4	2.1

Sources: International Monetary Fund, Economist and National Institute of Statistics

Table 3: Exchange rates against US dollar of selected trading partners, 2007–14 (period averages)

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013				2014	
							Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2
Selected ASEAN countries												
Cambodia (riel)	4062.7	4054.2	4140.5	4187.1	4063.6	4037.8	3995.0	4032.9	4062.0	4018.9	3993.8	4026.9
Indonesia (rupiah)	9419.0	9699.0	10,413.8	9089.9	8764.4	9363.0	9681.9	9783.6	10,666.0	11,545.1	11,765.8	11,615.3
Malaysia (ringgit)	3.3	3.3	3.5	3.2	1.5	3.1	3.1	3.0	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.2
Singapore (S\$)	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3
Thailand (baht)	32.2	33.4	34.3	31.7	30.5	31.1	29.8	29.9	31.4	31.7	32.6	32.4
Vietnam (dong)	16,030.0	16,382.0	17,725.2	19,200.8	20,574.3	20,856.9	20,829.6	20,828.0	20,908.7	21,036.0	21,036.0	21,036.0
Selected other Asian countries												
China (yuan)	8.0	6.9	6.8	6.8	3.3	6.3	6.2	6.2	6.1	6.1	6.1	6.2
Hong Kong (HK\$)	7.8	7.8	7.8	7.8	7.8	7.8	7.8	7.8	7.8	7.8	7.8	7.8
South Korea (won)	929.0	1137.2	1277.8	1156.3	1108.6	1126.6	1085.9	1123.4	1108.8	1062.0	1069.7	1028.9
Taiwan (NT\$)	32.9	31.5	33.0	31.3	29.4	29.6	29.5	29.9	29.9	29.6	30.3	30.1
Selected industrial countries												
Euro-12 (euro)	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7
Japan (yen)	117.8	102.5	93.6	87.8	79.9	79.8	92.3	98.8	98.9	100.5	102.8	102.1

Sources: International Monetary Fund, Economist and National Bank of Cambodia

Table 4: Selected commodity prices on world market, 2007–14 (period averages)

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013				2014	
							Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2
Maize (USNo.2)—USA (USD/tonne)	149.1	218.2	167.3	167.3	291.4	296.5	305.2	291.4	246.2	199.3	209.6	214.7
Palm oil—north-west Europe (USD/tonne)	707.7	912.2	686.8	834.7	1125.4	999.3	852.7	850.3	827.3	897.3	911.3	887.3
Rubber SMR 5 (USD/tonne)	2202.3	2586.3	1884.8	3152.2	4630.6	3200.7	3029.5	2497.2	2394.6	2380.0	2034.7	1777.6
Rice (Thai 100% B)—Bangkok (USD/tonne)	305.4	615.3	524.5	456.2	558.5	594.8	607.0	570.0	502.3	455.7	450.7	411.7
Soybeans (US No.1)—USA (USD/tonne)	294.6	460.4	414.0	375.4	507.9	566.1	558.4	569.8	545.1	514.9	533.0	565.7
Crude oil—OPEC spot (USD/barrel)	69.3	95.4	60.5	71.6	106.2	109.5	109.5	100.9	106.9	106.4	104.7	105.9
Gasoline—US Gulf Coast (cents/litre)	53.6	62.2	42.9	49.8	71.9	74.6	74.8	71.2	73.3	65.7	70.1	74.1
Diesel (low sulphur No.2)— US Gulf Coast (cents/litre)	55.5	51.6	75.7	83.8	77.8	80.7	80.3	81.5	75.6	79.6	77.5	77.1

Sources: Food and Agriculture Organisation and US Energy Information Administration

Economy Watch—Domestic Performance

Main economic activities

Cambodia's growth is projected to remain strong this year at 7.0 percent. The World Bank and Asian Development Bank provide similar estimates. Nonetheless, there are complex structural adjustments to be made, mainly in education and linking skills to market demand.

Fixed asset investment was disappointing in the second quarter, approvals declining 85.5 percent from a year earlier to USD302.2 m. Industry dropped 87.6 percent to USD239.3 m. Investment in garments remained strong and accounted for 72 percent of the total investment in industry. Services continued to perform relatively well, investment in which grew 7.9 percent from the previous year. Investment in tourism, hospitality and hotels was down 85.5 percent to USD15.4 m.

Arrivals of foreign visitors increased by only 1.4 percent year on year, to 933,000. The Ministry of Tourism, however, is optimistic that Cambodia will welcome around 4 m tourists this year; it attracted 2.2 m foreign tourists in the first half. Arrivals by air increased 10.1 percent from the preceding year, while those by land or water dropped 5.2 percent.

Exports in the second quarter grew by 14.8 percent from a year earlier. Accounting for 74.2 percent of total export value, garment exports rose 9.5 percent year on year. Major markets included the EU and US, which accounted for 40.5 and 32.8 percent, respectively, of the total garment export value. Recovery in the US market could be promising for garment exports. However, exports to the US market dropped 4.7 percent from a year earlier. Market diversification is recommended to absorb unexpected shocks in the main export destinations. Exports of agricultural commodities were up 22.0 percent from a year earlier. Rubber exports rose 3.4 percent even though there has been a continued drop in the rubber price. In the same quarter, total

imports increased 10.8 percent from the previous year to USD2.4 bn. Imports of gasoline rose 7.8 percent, of diesel 3.7 percent and of construction materials 64 percent. The trade deficit decreased 43.4 percent year on year to USD334.7 m.

Public finance

One of the recommendations made by development partners (e.g., the World Bank) to the government is to implement serious and thorough reforms in public financial management. A goal is to strengthen revenue collection and cut wasteful spending. The government has reiterated its commitment and introduced step-by-step reforms on the issue. In the first quarter, total government revenue increased 22.0 percent from the preceding year to KHR2220.5 bn. Revenue from taxes rose 26.1 percent, while that from non-tax sources declined 26.4 percent. In the same quarter, total expenditure went down 22.3 percent to KHR1642.4 bn, but current expenditure increased 42.5 percent. Expenditure on wages rose 70.2 percent from a year earlier, while that on subsidies and social assistance dropped 15.4 percent. Increases in civil servant wages (e.g., teachers) explain increased wage expenditure.

Inflation and monetary survey

Inflation in the second quarter rose to 4.8 percent. Prices of food and non-alcoholic beverages rose 5.3 percent. Inflation has been trending upward since 2013, increasing the cost of living.

The riel in the year to the second quarter appreciated 0.2 percent against the dollar and 8.1 percent against the Thai baht. The price of gold dropped 10.1 percent from a year earlier to USD155.9/chi. The gasoline price decreased 1.4 percent to KHR5200/litre, while that of diesel fuel increased 0.3 percent to KHR5006.7/litre. The domestic prices of diesel fuel and gasoline seem to be rigid even though the world price of crude oil has been trending downward.

In the second quarter, total liquidity rose 20.8 percent from a year earlier. Net foreign and domestic assets were up 20.5 and 21.6 percent, respectively.

Prepared by Roth Vathana, Research Associate, and Pon Dorina, Research Assistant, Economics, Trade and Regional Cooperation Programme, CDRI.

Money increased 14.1 percent from the preceding year and quasi-money rose 22.0 percent. Increased total liquidity is good news for a booming economy. However, the National Bank needs to monitor credit closely so that it is directed to productive sectors. In addition, money and quasi-money growth need to be monitored together with the inflation rate.

Poverty situation

In August, real daily earnings of cyclo drivers, porters, scavengers and motor-taxi drivers declined from a year earlier. From May, the earnings of garment workers shrank, while that of porters increased.

Real daily earnings of rice field workers surged by 45 percent compared with the previous survey to KHR8495, due mainly to fewer workers, which caused wages to increase in Kompong Speu and Kandal. Sixty-seven percent of these workers also work their own agricultural land of between 0.1 and 1.5 hectares, which could supplement their income from selling labour. Landless farmers support their families from common resources, raising poultry and loans. Rice field workers spent 29 percent of their earnings on food. They worked 24 days per month on average.

Earnings of vegetable traders rose by 13 percent to KHR 15,372/day. Fifty-three percent of them were from Kandal province, meaning they could commute home every day. Of the total interviewees, 54 percent rented a house or lived with relatives or in a pagoda. They spent only 39 percent of their daily earnings. However, they could not support their families sufficiently from this small earning. They wished to expand their businesses to earn more but they did not have the ability, according to 75 percent.

The incomes of waitresses/waiters increased by 13 percent from May, to KHR 7565/day. All the workers surveyed were from the provinces, 38 percent of them from Prey Veng. In addition to wages, they were given food and shelter, but supporting their families in the provinces made it hard for them to save money.

Scavengers' real earnings dropped by 9.5 percent from the previous survey to KHR 8337/day. Among 40 interviewees, 55 percent were from Prey Veng province, followed by Kandal. Thirty-five percent of them came with their whole family. All the scavengers lived in rented lodging, together with an average of four other people. They did not have any other occupation, and their earnings could support only some of their needs. Seventy-five percent of them therefore borrowed.

Ninety-seven percent of cyclo drivers were from the provinces, especially Prey Veng and Kompong Speu (23 percent each). They earned KHR9867/day, a decrease of 8.3 percent from May; 97.5 percent of drivers were the main earners of their families. Their wages were not sufficient to cover all the family's expenses, so 65 percent raised livestock or poultry in addition. Eighty-eight percent of interviewees moved to Phnom Penh alone and stayed in rented lodgings together with an average of three other people. Their spending took 56 percent of their income, and food took 94 percent of their total expenditure.

Earnings of motor taxi-drivers fell by 5.6 percent from May to KHR12,656/day. The number of drivers increased, while the number of customer remained the same, according to 90 percent of interviewees. Twenty percent were able to depend on this income to support their families, while 80 percent needed to rely on other sources, especially raising poultry at home. Drivers spent an average 41 percent of their earnings. Of that, food took 94 percent. None of the interviewees could save.

No interviewed garment workers had finished primary school. They were paid KHR11,388/day, a drop of 0.2 percent from the previous survey. Only 11 percent of them received private training before being employed. They had worked in their factory for more than two years on average. Their work was sewing and in other basic positions that did not provide them skills for career improvement. However, 52 percent did not want to change jobs. They did not know what else they could do, according to 44 percent.

Economy Watch—Domestic Performance

Table 1: Private investment projects approved, 2007–14

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013					2014	
								Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2
	Fixed assets (USD m)												
Agriculture	135.6	92.0	615.0	530.7	725.0	531.6	2.3	57.8	133.1	738.3	28.9	27.6	
Industry	709.1	724.9	818.5	403.7	2860.1	829.3	195.4	1928.3	119.5	1014.1	179.0	239.3	
<i>. Garments</i>	170.7	142.8	90.1	122.8	393.9	497.0	109.5	76.4	65.15	73.1	109.3	172.4	
Services	1742.5	10,003.2	4432.0	1337.3	3425.4	916.6	21.2	106.0	5.3	8.3	219.1	114.4	
<i>. Hotels and tourism</i>	1048.3	8758.1	3980.1	1105.1	2850.9	691.5	0.0	106.0	0.0	0.0	163.3	15.4	
Total	2587.2	10,570.9	5865.5	2271.7	7010.4	2278.0	218.9	2091.1	257.9	1760.7	426.9	302.2	
	Percentage change from previous quarter												
Total	-	-	-	-	-	-	-81.1	855.5	-87.7	582.8	-75.8	-29.2	
	Percentage change from previous year												
Total	-32.0	308.6	-44.5	-61.3	209	-67.5	-47.5	666.0	-39.9	52.2	95.1	-85.5	

Including expansion project approvals. Source: Cambodian Investment Board

Table 2: Value of construction project approvals in Phnom Penh, 2007–14

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013					2014	
								Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2
	USD m												
Villas and houses	79.1	154.7	64.3	36.2	185.5	175.2	145.2	10.3	51.6	110.2	27.1	8.8	
Flats	297.2	221.6	149.6	183.8	219.6	372.1	114.1	33.0	62.7	131.9	106.5	75.2	
Other	259.6	740.9	227.3	269.7	199.9	463.6	154.4	238.3	336.0	130.8	190.0	141.7	
Total	635.8	1117.0	441.2	489.8	605.0	1010.9	443.7	281.6	450.3	372.9	323.6	225.7	
	Percentage change from previous quarter												
Total	-	-	-	-	-	-	590.9	-36.5	59.9	-17.2	-13.2	-30.2	
	Percentage change from previous year												
Total	96.7	75.7	-60.5	11.0	23.5	67.1	28.1	-15.6	157.5	107.6	-21.8	-19.8	

Source: Department of Cadastre and Geography of Phnom Penh municipality

Table 3: Foreign visitor arrivals, 2007–14

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013					2014	
								Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2
	Thousands												
By air	1280.2	1239.4	1111.7	1304.3	1480.4	1722.1	611.2	398.1	428.0	580.4	699.0	438.2	
By land or water	740.5	881.9	999.7	1094.6	1401.4	1862.2	560.9	522.5	536.6	572.5	569.0	495.2	
Total	2020.7	2121.3	2111.5	2398.9	2881.8	3584.3	1172.1	920.5	964.6	1153.0	1268.0	933.4	
	Percentage change from previous quarter												
Total	-	-	-	-	-	-	16.4	-21.5	4.8	19.5	10.0	-26.4	
	Percentage change from previous year												
Total	18.9	5.3	0.5	13.6	20.1	24.4	17.8	20.9	17.5	14.5	8.0	1.4	

Source: Ministry of Tourism

Table 4: Exports and imports, 2007–14*

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013					2014	
							Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	
	USD m												
Total exports	3050.3	3097.8	2901.6	3630.2	4929.5	6106.4	1576.9	1620.1	1969.9	1815.4	1976.5	1859.8	
Garments	2938.9	2986.2	2565.3	3223.4	4259.6	5015.4	1225.2	1259.0	1568.5	1333.4	1464.0	1379.2	
. To US	1956.5	1908.3	1512.6	1853.9	2055.3	2143.3	526.8	474.6	597.9	476.0	531.1	452.5	
. To EU	654.3	689.0	644.7	809.5	1322.2	1716.9	397.5	477.5	572.8	521.9	532.7	558.5	
. To ASEAN	3.2	10.76	6.9	9.9	17.6	39.4	13.0	12.7	17.4	17.2	21.9	19.3	
. To Japan	28.5	25.2	44.5	86.5	147.0	188.6	57.6	51.4	98.1	71.6	101.4	74.9	
. To rest of the world	296.4	352.9	356.5	463.6	717.5	927.2	230.3	242.8	282.4	247.4	277.0	273.9	
Agriculture	55.7	44.5	73.1	164.9	362.1	376.7	123.8	128.9	362.4	173.0	167.0	157.3	
. Rubber	41.0	35.8	51.6	89.1	197.6	176.6	36.6	38.7	282.4	51.1	31.7	40.0	
. Wood	8.7	3.4	3.5	34.1	48.8	36.8	14.5	8.9	16.9	33.3	55.9	48.4	
. Fish	3.2	2.3	3.9	2.8	3.1	2.0	0.3	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	
. Rice	1.5	2.6	10.9	34.7	106.6	146.4	65.8	56.5	57.3	82.7	57.9	52.8	
. Other agriculture	1.2	0.5	3.0	4.1	6.0	14.9	6.6	24.4	5.7	5.7	21.2	16.0	
Others	55.8	67.1	263.2	242.0	307.9	714.4	274.9	232.2	272.6	308.5	345.5	323.3	
Total imports	3770	4272.5	4331.5	5190.6	6375.9	8593.3	2192.1	2211.4	2059.7	2130.1	2238.2	2449.3	
Gasoline	73.65	84.8	91.13	108.6	294.4	308.0	1225.2	77.2	71.3	80.5	77.4	83.2	
Diesel	133.7	19.5	180.7	203.8	447.0	559.5	526.8	137.4	150.9	132.2	148.5	142.5	
Construction materials	44.31	56.3	49.7	57.6	48.1	66.1	397.5	17.8	18.0	17.2	27.8	29.2	
Other	3519.0	4011.8	4010.0	4820.6	5586.4	7659.1	13.0	1979.0	1819.4	1899.6	1984.5	2194.5	
Trade balance	-719.9	-1174.7	-1429.9	-1560.5	-1446.4	-1341.6	-615.2	-591.2	-89.8	-314.7	-261.7	-334.7	
	Percentage change from previous quarter												
Total garment exports	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.4	2.8	24.6	-15.0	9.8	-5.8	
Total exports	-	-	-	-	-	-	8.4	2.7	21.6	-7.8	8.9	-5.9	
Total imports	-	-	-	-	-	-	13.1	0.9	-6.9	3.4	5.1	9.4	
	Percentage change from previous year												
Total garment exports	8.9	1.6	-14.1	25.7	32.1	17.7	14.4	-14.6	18.0	16.9	19.5	9.6	
Total exports	8.5	1.6	-6.3	25.1	35.8	23.9	23.2	-8.8	23.4	24.8	25.3	14.8	
Total imports	23.7	13.3	1.4	19.8	22.8	16.8	36.2	17.3	2.2	9.9	2.1	10.8	

* Import data include tax-exempt imports. Sources: Department of Trade Preference Systems, MOC and Customs and Excise Department, MEF (web site)

Table 5: National budget operations on cash basis, 2006–14 (billion riels)

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013					2014
								Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	
Total revenue	3259.2	1146.1	5290.0	4885.2	5989.0	6251.4	7691.9	1820.2	2204.8	1868.9	2361.2	2220.5	
Current revenue	2881.8	1141.6	5210.7	4855.9	5859.1	6179.3	7443.8	1817.4	2241.3	1858.1	2316.3	2219.2	
Tax revenue	2270.9	965.2	4409.9	4268.0	4693.0	5277.5	6334.8	1577.7	2024.0	1646.0	1950.4	1988.7	
Domestic tax	-	661.8	3248.4	3088.6	3533.6	4071.6	5002.8	1254.5	1652.9	1300.6	1520.1	1593.6	
Taxes on international trade	-	303.5	1161.5	1064.7	1159.4	1205.9	1331.7	323.1	371.1	345.4	430.3	449.0	
Non-tax revenue	610.9	176.4	800.8	702.1	1166.1	901.8	1118.2	239.8	217.4	212.2	365.9	176.6	
Property income	-	13.6	78.0	64.6	291.1	63.8	143.0	8.4	18.1	24.3	33.2	11.1	
Sale of goods and services	-	124.3	424.7	408.0	460.1	588.7	667.4	153.3	173.3	178.8	245.0	160.3	
Other non-tax revenue	-	38.5	298.2	228.2	408.9	249.3	298.8	78.1	25.9	9.0	87.7	5.2	
Capital revenue	377.4	4.5	79.3	29.3	129.9	72.1	247.9	6.2	11.5	10.7	45.0	1.3	
Total expenditure	4174.7	1689.7	6297.8	7383.5	8784.6	9032.4	9660.9	2114.8	3181.6	3093.0	4146.4	1642.4	
Capital expenditure	1638.1	807.4	2574.4	2694.9	2853.2	3546.9	3628.3	1108.4	1273.7	1350.6	1834.8	208.5	
Current expenditure	2536.8	882.3	3809.0	4440.0	4773.1	5341.2	6188.4	1006.4	1907.8	1742.4	2311.6	1433.8	
Wages	822.0	362.6	1397.0	2012.0	2048.8	2170.6	2486.6	505.0	757.0	827.3	908.0	859.6	
Subsidies and social assistance	-	194.2	927.1	871.4	1099.4	1518.8	1586.8	252.0	652.5	285.0	373.4	213.1	
Other current expenditure	-	325.5	1384.9	1556.6	1624.8	1651.8	2115.1	249.4	498.3	630.1	1030.2	361.1	
Overall balance	-915.5	-543.6	-1007.8	-2498.3	-2795.7	-1271.4	-1969.0	-294.6	-976.7	-1224.1	-1785.2	578.1	
Foreign financing	-445.1	741.5	2055.10	1746.1	1845.2	-2781.0	2457.8	906.0	1150.6	1032.2	1237.4	-14.4	
Domestic financing	-	-185.8	-127.00	474.9	938.6	2379.2	-332.9	-470.6	270.3	113.0	65.8	-14.4	

Source: MEF web site

Table 6: Consumer price index, exchange rates and gold prices (period averages), 2007–14

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013			2014		
							Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2
(October-December 2006:100)	Consumer price index (percentage change over previous year)											
Phnom Penh - All Items	5.8	19.7	-0.7	4.1	5.4	2.3	1.5	2.3	3.7	4.7	4.6	4.8
- Food and non-alcoholic bev.	9.9	33.1	-0.3	4.4	6.5	2.5	1.6	3.3	4.8	5.8	5.7	5.3
- Transport	5.8	19.4	-10.7	7.0	6.9	3.3	-0.7	-1.0	-0.1	-0.4	-1.1	0.5
	Exchange rates, gold and oil prices (Phnom Penh market rates)											
Riels per US dollar	4062.7	4058.2	4140.5	4187.1	4063.6	4039.2	3995	4033.1	4062.0	4059.0	3993.8	4026.9
Riels per Thai baht	122.8	123.5	121.1	133.1	133.2	130.0	134.7	135.74	131.4	130.7	123.0	124.8
Riels per 100 Vietnamese dong	25.0	24.8	23.4	21.7	19.7	19.4	19.3	19.3	19.3	19.4	19.1	19.2
Gold (US dollars per chi)	83.2	105.9	113.1	147.5	184.5	200.9	197.3	173.4	161.1	171.8	156.6	155.9
Diesel (riels/litre)	3262.3	4555.2	3170.9	3859.3	4761.2	4941.2	5134.4	4992.0	5022.5	4927.0	4971.2	5006.7
Gasoline (riels/litre)	4005.0	4750.8	3593.1	4368.1	5044.5	5312.7	5410.5	5274.5	5245.2	5126.7	5171.5	5200.0

Sources: NIS, NBC and CDRI

Table 7: Monetary survey, 2007–14 (end of period)

	2007	2009	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013			2014		
							Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1
	Billion riels											
Net foreign assets	10,735.0	10,345.0	14,655.0	16,697.9	17,893.9	18,154.5	19,976.7	21,772.9	18,720.7	21,260.1	23,344.4	26,235.8
Net domestic assets	576.0	1513.3	1573.0	2778.9	5760.8	10,437.4	10,504.1	9886.1	10,634.8	11,508.3	11,817.4	12,024.4
Net claims on government	-1816.0	-2987.0	-2252.0	-2126.6	-2123.1	-2486.4	-2991.6	-3012.6	-2804.4	-2794.9	-3349.3	-3747.3
Credit to private sector	6386.0	9894.0	10,532.0	13,331.2	17,552.8	23,536.6	24,820.2	25,146.0	26,445.3	27,608.8	28,584.5	30,621.3
Total liquidity	11,311.0	11,858.0	16,228.0	19,476.8	23,654.7	28,591.9	30,480.8	31,659.1	29,355.5	32,768.4	35,161.8	38,259.9
Money	2052.0	2399.0	3120.0	3220.9	3956.2	4045.7	4500.6	4585.9	4720.8	4878.2	5376.2	5231.3
Quasi-money	9259.0	9459.0	13,108.0	16,255.9	19,698.5	24,546.2	25,980.2	27,073.2	24,634.8	27,890.2	29,785.7	33,028.5
	Percentage change from previous year											
Total liquidity	62.9	4.8	36.9	20.0	17.8	20.9	22.6	18.8	9.3	14.6	15.4	20.8
Money	23.8	16.9	30.1	3.2	16.9	2.3	12.9	18.4	23.6	20.6	19.5	14.1
Quasi-money	75.2	2.2	38.6	24.0	17.9	44.6	24.4	18.8	6.9	13.6	14.6	22.0

Source: National Bank of Cambodia

Table 8: Real average daily earnings of vulnerable workers (base November 2000)

	Daily earnings (riels)									Percentage change from previous year		
	2011			2012			2013			2014		
	Feb	May	Aug	Feb	May	Aug	Nov	Feb	May	Aug	Feb	May
Cyclo drivers	9532	10,303	9592	10,681	10,636	10,842	10,832	10,764	9867	12.9	0.8	-7.2
Porters	10,785	12,143	12,749	12,823	14,157	13,260	12,141	12,568	13,399	-4.8	-2.0	-5.4
Small vegetable sellers	8337	10,771	9953	11,571	11,490	12,449	12,294	13,581	15,372	23.5	17.4	33.8
Scavengers	8388	8680	9487	10,440	9620	9732	9593	9214	8337	1.1	-11.7	-13.3
Waitresses/waiters*	5986	6111	6529	6744	6791	6723	7449	6696	7565	14.1	-0.7	11.4
Rice field workers	5695	6151	5811	6427	7771	6388	8932	5836	8795	53.7	-9.2	13.2
Garment workers	8409	8932	10,004	9776	10,420	10,442	9548	11,412	11,388	-4.6	16.7	9.3
Motorcycle-taxi drivers	11,568	12,930	14,433	12,522	13,656	13,189	13,227	13,401	12,656	-8.4	7.0	-7.3
Unskilled construction workers	10,307	11,078	12,554	13,728	13,023	13,431	15,162	15,316	15,401	20.8	11.6	18.3
Skilled construction workers	13,159	13,743	15,162	14,136	15,822	16,647	15,163	15,765	20,420	0.0	11.5	29.1

* Waitresses/waiters' earnings do not include meals and accommodation provided by shop owners. Surveys on the revenue of waitresses, rice field workers, garment workers, motorcycle taxi drivers and construction workers began in February 2000. Source: CDRI

Continued from page 28 **CDRI UPDATE**

between CDRI and the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida), CDRI's long-term resource partner. The Board particularly noted the observation that CDRI has managed "a careful balance between engagement and independence". The Board welcomed the incoming Executive Director, and expressed their profound thanks to the outgoing Executive Director for his impressive achievements and contributions to the development of CDRI, in bringing it to a high professional standard, for taking the vision forward and making it even greater, for his unwavering commitment to the professional development of staff and to the Cambodianisation of the Institute, for putting Cambodians' research needs first, for earning a respected voice for CDRI within regional and international research communities, and for safeguarding CDRI's most cherished values—excellence and independence.

RESEARCH**Democratic Governance and Public Sector Reform**

Four studies were completed, with the submission of reports on *Political Settlement and Inclusive Growth in Cambodia* and *Political Settlement and Health in Cambodia*, and the publication of working papers on *Youth Political Participation at Commune Level* and *The Cambodian State: How is It Developmental? A third working paper on Rights-Based Approach in Action* is being prepared for publication.

Four projects are ongoing. For the study on *Social Accountability Practices in Cambodia*, the team carried out stakeholder consultation and the first round of data collection and key informant interviews. An article for the study on *New Information Flows and Local Governance* is being drafted. Fieldwork is underway for the study on *Decentralisation in Social Services: A Case Study of the Health Sector*. Also completed was the first stage of the fieldwork and draft report for the collaborative project *Decision-making and Capacity Development for Water Resources and Climate Change Adaptation in Cambodia*.

A female researcher represented Cambodia as a Youth Ambassador, and gave a presentation, at the 2014 Youth for Peace Training Workshop in Bangkok in September. The workshop brought together young

leaders from 15 countries, embracing multi-ethnic and multicultural societies, to articulate their vision for peace and justice and deepen their understanding of the region's unique realities and challenges.

Poverty, Agriculture and Rural Development

Ten projects are in progress, four of which are cross-programme collaborations. The second draft report on the *Impact of Contract Farming on Smallholder Livelihoods*, a Sida-funded project, was finalised. Data collection was completed and empirical analysis started for the *Design of Evaluative Framework and Oversee a Baseline and Endline Survey for Productive Assets and Livelihood Support (PALS)*, financed by the World Food Programme (WFP). The final report on *Horizontal Replication Survey for Horticulture, Rice and Aquaculture*, a USAID/Fintrac-supported project, was submitted and the findings presented to the USAID/Fintrac team at the US Embassy in September. Also completed was the data collection for the Sida-supported study on the *Impact of Rice Export Promotion Policy and Food Security*. Project reports are in hand for the *Study on Farm Mechanisation and Agricultural Labour Market Trends*, funded by Sida, and the two case studies on *Livestock* and *Extension* under phase two of the ACIAR-supported project *Agricultural Policies for Rice-Based Farming Systems in the Middle Mekong*.

Economy, Trade and Regional Cooperation

Two reports titled *Economic Growth, Inequality and Poverty Reduction* and *Assessing the Pro-pooriness of Fiscal Policy*, under the Sida-supported five-year project on *Inclusive Growth*, are being finalised for publishing as working papers. To provide further insight on inclusive growth, three new research projects, based on a five-round panel dataset for 793 households, with a focus on poverty, labour markets and microfinance are being designed; the study team has already calculated some preliminary estimates of chronic and transient poverty. The preliminary findings from the in-depth review of the *Policy Guide on Private Sector Development and Chronic Poverty*, funded by the Overseas Development Institute (ODI), were presented at a consultative workshop on Private Sector Development and Chronic Poverty in South East Asia in early August;

the report is being finalised. Following the household survey, key informant interviews for *Interrelations between Public Policies, Migration and Development of Partner Countries: Case Studies and Policy Recommendations*, funded by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), were completed and transcription is underway. The draft report on *Strategic Review of WFP Middle Income Country Pilot-Cambodia*, supported by the WFP, has been completed and submitted for review. A newly commissioned project, funded by the Asian Development Bank (ADB), is the *Regional Study on Special Economic Zones*.

The Greater Mekong Subregion Development Analysis Network (GMS-DAN) Consultative Meeting was held on 10 September to discuss the concept note on *Labour Markets, Skills Gaps and Private Sector and Enterprise Development in the GMS: National and Regional Dimensions*, as well as potential partnerships for the next stage of GMS-DAN. As part of its activities to achieve a GMS-wide partnership and to support the growth of high-quality development policy research and regional integration in the GMS, CDRI hosted two researchers from the Myanmar Development Resource Institute-Centre for Economic and Social Development (MDRI-CESD).

Natural Resources and the Environment

The report on *Agricultural Technology: Practice and Gaps for Climate Change Adaptation*, a Sida-funded study, is being drafted as a working paper to be published at the end of 2014. For the project *China Goes Global*, supported by the Economic and Social Research Council, field material and interviews were transcribed, translated and coded for data analysis.

Recently released, Working Paper No. 97 on *Methods and Tools Applied for Climate Change Vulnerability and Adaptation Assessment in Cambodia's Tone Sap Basin* is the first in a series of research outputs expected under the IDRC-funded project on *Climate Change and Water Governance in Cambodia*. Follow up studies including a *Hydrological Study and Vulnerability Assessment* are in progress. Towards building local capacity, an important project component, 18 young Cambodians have been granted scholarships to study for undergraduate and postgraduate degrees at

the Royal University of Agriculture (RUA) and the Institute of Technology of Cambodia (ITC). Work began on the follow up study on the *2011 Nationwide Knowledge, Attitude and Practice Study on Climate Change in Cambodia*, a new project funded by the Cambodia Climate Change Alliance (CCCA) of the Ministry of Environment.

Submitted to various donors and pending approval are proposals on Empowerment to Improve Livelihoods of all Stakeholders in the Informal Charcoal Value Chain in Cambodia (to EU Aid); Hydropower in the Lower Mekong Basin (to GIZ); Sustainability of Hydropower Development on the Cambodian Mekong River and Tributaries (to the Lower Mekong Public Policy Initiative [LMPPI]); and Transboundary Water Sharing in the Sre Pok River Sub-basin of the Mekong River Basin (to Water, Land and Ecosystems [WLE]).

Social Development

Three major projects are in progress. Draft reports on *Health Financing* and *Health Contracting*, components of the DFID-funded *ReBUILD* project, were completed. The research team for the *Child Labour Study*, based upon comments from external peer reviewers, revised the reports on *Child Domestic Work* and *The Impact of Adult Migration on Child Labour*. They also carried out fieldwork for a third subproject on *Landlessness and Child Labour*. The Child Labour Consultation Workshop, held on 30 September, brought together researchers, project partners, development experts, government representatives and staff of various international agencies (e.g. ILO), stimulated lively debate on how to regulate child labour. The Child Labour Study is part of the Cambodian-EXCEL project of World Vision Cambodia and is funded by the United States Department of Labor (USDOL) for four years, ending in 2016. The study team for *ReBUILD II* finished coding data and began data analysis for the pilot study. The report is in hand for a collaborative project on *Securing Secondary Education*.

Two proposals were submitted, one to the World Bank to conduct a Health Equity Funds Utilisation Survey, and the other to the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) to conduct Operational Research on Consumers' Perceptions towards Implants as a Long-term Family Planning Method.

CDRI UPDATE

MAJOR EVENTS

On 1 September, Mr Larry Strange, after more than 10 years service as Executive Director of CDRI, stepped down from the position and was succeeded by Dr Chhem Rethy. Dr Rethy, a former senior UN diplomat, joins CDRI from his post as a director at the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA). Mr Larry Strange will continue in the role of a senior advisor to CDRI.

At a dinner party organised in his honour, CDRI staff paid tribute to Mr Larry Strange and acknowledged his exemplary contributions and commitment to CDRI. A reception to recognise formally the contribution of the outgoing Executive Director and to introduce the incoming Executive Director to CDRI's development partners was attended by CDRI Board members and former Board members, ministers and senior government officials, as well as representatives of development agencies, non-governmental and private sector organisations, and national research and academic institutions. Subsequently, CDRI's new Executive Director paid courtesy calls to Prime Minister Hun Sen, HE Dr Chea Chanto, Honorary Chair of CDRI Board of Directors, and senior representatives of various partner institutions.

In July, CDRI's Director of Research participated in the East Asian Development Network (EADN) 2013-14 forum in Makati City, Philippines. In

August, CDRI organised a policy roundtable on the theme *Towards Better Management of Migration in Cambodia: Issues, Lessons Learnt and Policy Priorities*. The roundtable brought together senior policymakers from the Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training and representatives from the International Labour Organization and non-governmental organisations to discuss the policy implications of the repatriation of around 300,000 undocumented Cambodian migrant workers from Thailand earlier this year.

In early September, members of the Greater Mekong Subregion Development Analysis Network (GMS-DAN) met in Phnom Penh to finalise the study on the *Role of Policies and Institutions in Health and Education in GMS Countries*, and to explore the next steps for the continuation of the Network's research agenda. Held on 11-12 September in Phnom Penh, the theme of the seventh annual symposium of the Cambodia Development Research Forum (DRF) was *Getting Education Right for Cambodia's Changing Labour Market Needs*. Over 300 participants drawn from policymakers, researchers, academics and development partners attended the three-day event.

CDRI's Board of Directors held their mid-year meeting on 1 September. The Board congratulated the staff and management on the positive outcomes of the Mid-Term Review of the 2011-15 partnership

Continued on page 26



CAMBODIA DEVELOPMENT REVIEW
A Publication of CDRI -
Cambodia's leading independent
development policy research institute

Volume 18, Issue 3 (September 2014)

Cambodia Development Review is published four times a year in simultaneous English and Khmer language editions by the Cambodia Development Resource Institute in Phnom Penh.

Cambodia Development Review provides a forum for the discussion of development issues affecting Cambodia. Economy Watch offers an independent assessment of Cambodia's economic performance.

Cambodia Development Review welcomes correspondence and submissions. Letters must be signed and verifiable and must include a return address and telephone number. Prospective authors are advised to contact CDRI before submitting articles, though unsolicited material will be considered. All submissions are subject to editing. CDRI reserves the right to refuse publication without explanation.

CDRI's Contact Details

56, Street 315, PO Box 622, Phnom Penh, Cambodia
☎ (855 23) 881701/881384; ☎ (855 23) 880734
e-mail: cdri@cdri.org.kh / pubs@cdri.org.kh
website: www.cdri.org.kh



Publisher: CDRI
Managing Editor: YOU Sethirith,
Production Editor: OUM Chantha
Cover Photograph: CDRI's staff courtesy

Printing: Don Bosco Technical School, Phnom Penh

© 2014 CDRI. All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording, or otherwise, without written permission from CDRI.

ISSN 1560-7607 / ISBN 978-99950-52-05-8