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HOW DO CAMBODIAN ACADEMIC LEADERS DEFINE AND PERCEIVE HIGHER EDUCATION INTERNATIONALISATION?

Introduction

The intense process of globalisation and regional development since the early 1990s has resulted in a significant increase in international activities in higher education globally. The number of students going overseas for their higher education studies doubled between 2000 and 2013, reaching 4.1 million and accounting for 1.8 percent of total global higher education enrolments (UIS 2016). The United States topped the list as the most attractive destination country, absorbing 19 percent of internationally mobile students in 2013, followed by the United Kingdom (10 percent), Australia (6 percent), France (6 percent) and Germany (5 percent). In 2016, the top four countries with most students studying abroad were China (801,187), India (255,030), Germany (116,342) and South Korea (108,047) (UIS 2017). Other activities have seen a remarkable increase such as the development of foreign branch campuses, joint research collaborations and joint degree programs. Policy-wise, internationalisation has moved from the margin to the core of national and institutional policies in many countries.

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Internationalisation activities in higher education have increased and diversified in Cambodia, Institute of Technology of Cambodia (ITC), Phnom Penh, Feb 2017

In Cambodia, internationalisation activities in higher education have increased and diversified since the country began to be integrated into regional and international communities in the early 1990s. Those activities have included student and faculty mobility, joint research, and international partnerships. The number of students going overseas

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for their higher education in 2016 was 5,275, with an outbound mobility ratio of 2.4 percent (UIS 2017). The top five destination countries for Cambodian students were, in order of importance, Thailand, Australia, France, United States and Vietnam (Table 1). Several foreign providers are established in the country including Malaysia's Limkokwing University of Creative Technology and Australia's Raffles International College, as well as the satellite campus offices of two Japanese Universities – Nagoya and Hiroshima, respectively offering postgraduate studies in Development and Education.

Table 1: Top five destination countries for Cambodian students, 2016

Destination countries	Number of students
Thailand	1182
Australia	784
France	611
United States	527
Vietnam	381

Source: UNESCO Institute of Statistics 2017

Despite the increase in activities, there is a paucity of literature on higher education internationalisation in Cambodia, with the general public holding diverse understandings of it. Studies on Cambodian higher education in the 1990s and early 2000s mainly concentrated on the power dynamics, particularly the dominance of foreign governments and agencies in local higher education institutions (HEIs) through their education assistance (Pit and Ford 2004; Clayton 2006). Therefore, it is the purpose of this study to explore how Cambodian academic leaders have defined and perceived higher education internationalisation within the context of the country's growing regional and international engagement. The rest of the paper begins with the study's conceptual frameworks, followed by methodology, findings and discussion. The paper concludes with some recommendations.

Conceptual frameworks

This section examines first the definitions and then the diverse perceptions of internationalisation in order to provide conceptual frameworks for the study. Internationalisation of higher education has increasingly gained popularity over the past two decades; however, such terms as

international cooperation, international education and international relations have been used since the 1960s. Initially, the term was referred to as a set of activities related to international studies or programs, and language education (Knight 2008). The term has since evolved within the context of the changing global higher education landscape, and has been defined and perceived differently by different stakeholders. The oft-cited definition is by Knight (2008, 21), who describes internationalisation of higher education as “the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education”. Characteristic of this definition is its neutral meaning, suggesting the process can be positive, negative or both, depending on how people view it.

A study conducted in 2015 by the European Parliament argues that universities should also pay attention to the quality of their curricula and learning outcomes – something at home – rather than solely focusing on activities abroad. Extending Knight's working definition, they define internationalisation as “the *intentional* process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions and delivery of postsecondary education, *in order to enhance the quality of education and research for all students and staff and to make a meaningful contribution to society*” (de Wit et al. 2015). This definition is inclusive and based on the social equity point of view that internationalisation should be for everyone, rather than being limited to a small number of outgoing students and faculty.

Another critique of Knight's (2008) definition comes from Hawawini (2006), who argues in his study *The Internationalization of Higher Education and Business Schools* that internationalisation should not be narrowly limited to the process of integrating international dimensions into the existing institutional structure and pattern – a unidirectional rather than a two-way process. As such, he proposes a new definition of higher education internationalisation as “an ongoing process of change whose objective is to integrate the institution and its key stakeholders (its students and faculty) into the emerging global knowledge economy” (Hawawini 2016, 5). Similarly, but from a spatial analytical viewpoint, Larsen (2016, 10) defines internationalisation of higher education as

Table 2: Four rationales of higher education internationalisation

Social/cultural	National cultural identity Intercultural understanding Citizenship development Social and community development
Political	Foreign policy National security Technical assistance Peace and mutual understanding National identity Regional identity
Economic	Economic growth and competitiveness Labour market Financial incentives
Academic	Extension of academic horizon Institution building Profile and status Enhancement of quality International academic standards International dimension to research and teaching

Source: Knight 2004

“the expansion of the spatiality of the university beyond borders through mobilities of students, scholars, knowledge, programs and providers”. Despite their nuances, this study argues that those arguments share many core characteristics with Knight’s (2008) definition, which encompasses a range of dimensions, both “at home” and “abroad”. It therefore adopts Knight’s definition as the framework to examine how Cambodians define higher education internationalisation.

There are mixed views about the internationalisation process. On the one hand, many people viewed internationalisation as a chance to provide equal educational opportunity to all seeking education. This positive view is commonly reflected through four rationales for higher education internationalisation – social/cultural, political, economic and academic (Knight 2004; de Wit 2002), as indicated in Table 2. These rationales are not mutually exclusive, but may vary in importance over time and space.

As Knight (2008, 25) has pointed out, “rationales dictate the kind of benefits or expected outcomes those involved expect from internationalisation efforts”. However, while acknowledging such benefits, many have pointed out that the world has been shaped by inequality and that internationalisation in developing nations has taken place at a cost. According to Altbach and

Knight (2007) and Hoppers (2000), mainstream research and scholarship funds have largely focused on HEIs in such developed countries as the US, Canada and others in Europe, which have rich library/laboratory resources and qualified human capital. International fee-paying students are seen as cash cows, providing major sources of income for those countries. Some of those international students later become skilled immigrants to support the economic development of developed countries, which are perceived to have better working conditions. For instance, the proportion of highly educated emigrants from ASEAN countries to OECD nations dramatically increased around 66 percent in a 10-year period, from 1,679,453 in 2001 to 2,791,727 in 2011 (Batalova, Shymonyak and Sugiyarto 2017, 14). This issue of brain drain has a huge negative impact on the economic and social development of developing countries.

Furthermore, internationalisation as a means to promote English language and Western knowledge, culture and values comes at a cost to developing nations (Altbach and Knight 2007; Altbach 2013). A pertinent example is the recent emergence of massive open online courses (MOOCs). Although viewed as expanding access to higher education globally, MOOCs are very much western-oriented, with the majority of major providers located in the North (Altbach 2014). For these reasons, Altbach

(2014) and Hughes (2008) argue that in some instances internationalisation is simply a form of neo-colonialism. Similarly, Mazrui (1975) refers to the negative impact of the internationalisation of African higher education in the 1960s and 1970s as a form of cultural dependency, noting that African HEIs acted as foreign multinational corporations, serving the interests of Western nations rather than the African people. He offered three strategies to offset the negative impacts of cultural dependency. First is the strategy of domestication, relating the subjects within African universities' curricula to local culture and knowledge. He also suggested that a student's mastery of a local language, history, social and cultural anthropology should be part of the requirements for university admission. Second was the strategy of diversification, calling for the development of a curriculum with a truly global orientation. In this sense, he suggested that African universities should focus not only on Europe and Africa, but also on Indian, Chinese and Islamic civilisations. The last strategy is counter-penetration, creating a unique ethos of scholarship able to make its own impact on world academic centres.

Methodology

This study employed a qualitative research study design, which Creswell (2012, 16) argues is the

most appropriate methodology to explore issues that are new or have been less studied in a certain area. Over a period of six months (August 2016 – January 2017), the research team completed 14 in-depth interviews with respondents who were senior administrators at six Cambodian universities (three private and three public), located in both Phnom Penh and provinces. Those participants were selected purposefully, based on their experience and engagement in internationalisation activities at their respective institutions. Collected data was then analysed qualitatively to understand how each participant defined and viewed internationalisation in Cambodia. Pseudonyms in Table 3 are used in the analysis to ensure anonymity and confidentiality.

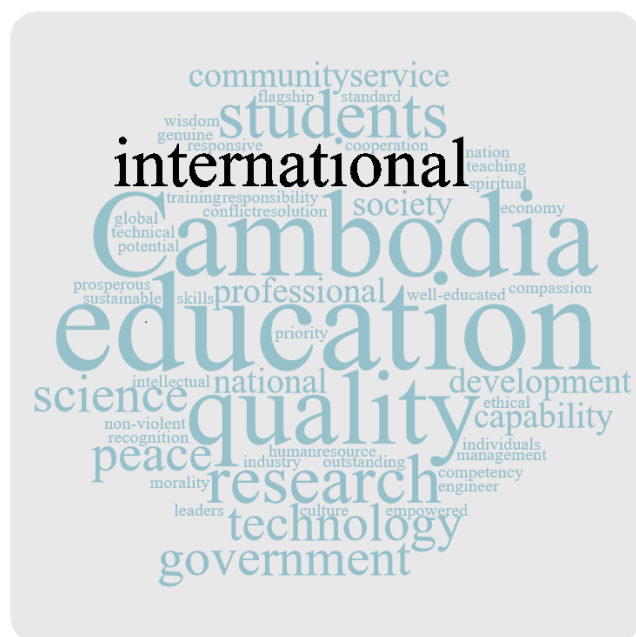
Findings and discussion

During interviews, participants provided various answers about internationalisation, referring to it as partnerships with foreign institutions or colleagues, overseas scholarships and exchange programs for students and staff, joint research collaborations, international curricula, and particularly the use of English as a/the medium of instruction. According to participant SI1, “internationalisation refers to the mobility of students and staff through scholarships and exchange programs. It implies no-border or cross-cultural interactions. It involves

Table 3: List of participants and their affiliations

Participant	Affiliation	Position
SI1	University A	Vice Rector for Academic Affairs
SI2	University B	Deputy Director for Cooperation and Research
SI3	University C	Head of International Relations Office
PI1	University D	Vice President for University Relations and Students Affairs
PI2	University D	Senior Vice President for Academic Affairs
PI3	University D	Director of International Studies Program
PI4	University D	Director (branch campus)
PI5	University D	Assistant Director (branch campus)
PI6	University D	Deputy Assistant Director (branch campus)
PI7	University E	International Affairs Coordinator
PI8	University E	Director of Research
PI9	University E	Lecturer
PI10	University E	Head of Nursing Department
PI11	University F	Vice Director (branch campus)

Figure 1: Word cloud of the vision of the six studied HEIs



Source: Authors

Words	Frequency
education	8
Cambodia	7
quality	6
international	4
research	4
students	4
technology	3
government	3
science	3
peace	3

engagement at the regional and global levels”. Important to note, however, when asked further, most participants seemed to limit their elaborations to outbound mobility and the adoption of English in the curriculum. Only a few of them who were working at one private university held a broader understanding of internationalisation, defining it as a wide range of international activities, both at home and abroad. As participant PI1 emphasised, “It does not mean that we only have to go out [of the country] to be engaged in internationalisation. We can also engage in it within Cambodia.”

In-depth interviews further suggested that the lack of understanding of internationalisation within Cambodian HEIs was mainly due to the lack of internationalisation strategies and policy at both institutional and national levels. This clearly points to the present local orientation of Cambodian higher education, although the term “international” appears in the vision of four of the six studied universities. Figure 1 shows that the international component is one of the important parts of the visions of those HEIs.

In terms of positive views on internationalisation, the academic rationale was widely discussed in the study. Participant PI1 pointed out that international activities could improve the quality of teaching and learning as well as build the image of his institution. He further suggested that his institution has adopted internationally recognised curricula and used English

as the medium of instruction to keep abreast of a rapidly changing world and globalisation. Another participant from a public university echoed the same view, adding that international partners can help build his institution’s infrastructure and facilities, including research laboratories, which would otherwise be too costly and beyond the reach of most Cambodian HEIs (SI1).

The academic rationale was followed by the sociocultural rationale as a number of participants mentioned opportunities for sharing culture, through such activities as student exchange programs. To quote from participant PI1, “bringing more international students to our campus will allow students to learn more about foreign cultures, while at the same time, share our culture and traditions with their foreign peers”. According to him, intercultural understanding is crucial to promoting mutual understanding and peace among different nationalities. This approach of bringing more international students and faculty to the campus was also less expensive than sending students abroad.

The other two rationales were barely elaborated during the study. Political rationale emerged only when the participants, especially those working in the public sector, discussed educational assistance programs funded by various government agencies with the purpose of improving country-to-country relations. Discussions about economic rationale centred on the ASEAN Economic Community

(AEC), which was launched in December 2015 to promote freer flow of labour, capital and goods among countries in the region. As such, Cambodia needs to work harder to produce qualified human resources that can promote Cambodia's competitiveness in the region and beyond. Other than that, little was discussed about Cambodian HEIs' strategies, for instance, to attract foreign students and scholars to increase their revenue. This is understandable given the poor quality and the dearth of resources of the majority of HEIs. Plus, relatively few of them offer programs in English – a barrier to Cambodian HEIs becoming more engaged with their foreign counterparts, in the opinion of many participants.

Despite the positive views indicated through the above rationales, some respondents expressed negative criticism of internationalisation. Participant SI1 said that his institution was not ready to join the regional and international academic communities due to limited budget and capacity, and had thus far limited its programs to local orientation. According to him, the AEC process was unavoidable, but without preparation and readiness, his institution was pressured to accept outside knowledge and ideologies. This was echoed by Participant PI1 who asserted that it was very common in Cambodia for people to simply copy and paste materials and contents from abroad to use in their teaching.

Moreover, some international programs are very much donor-driven, giving little space for local adaptation (Participant SI2). Some of the participants also raised concern about the growing use of English and other languages, including Chinese, Korean and Japanese at the cost of the local language, with negative implications for local culture, knowledge and values.

Recommendations

The discussions above suggest that internationalisation remains a relatively new concept in Cambodia, with many people still associating it with the traditional form of outbound mobility or foreign language as the medium of instruction. Also, while many positively view internationalisation as opportunity, concerns have also emerged surrounding such issues as the dominance of foreign culture, language, knowledge and ideologies. A number of recommendations are proposed below to move Cambodian higher education towards internationalisation:

First, since many people are still not aware of the concept of internationalisation of higher education and its importance, it is crucial that government provides overall supporting guidelines and strategies for the internationalisation of Cambodian HEIs. These should include a range of initiatives ranging from providing overseas scholarships to establishing programs to attract foreign talent and foreign-educated Cambodians to come to Cambodia to help rebuild the education system.

Second, it is clear that internationalising the curriculum has not been well understood and appropriately followed by many Cambodian HEIs. The fact that the majority of HEIs in Cambodia have adopted foreign curricula and teaching and learning materials with little local adaptation raises a serious question of relevance to the Cambodian education system – an issue of academic dominance or cultural dependency. To deal with such issues, Cambodia should adopt Mazrui's three strategies of domestication, diversification and counter-penetration. Cambodia needs to localise foreign knowledge by making it relevant to the Cambodian context. Each university student, regardless of specialisation, should be well versed in Cambodian culture, language and history. Cambodian HEIs should include in their curricula knowledge of other countries in the ASEAN region and beyond. And Cambodia should (re)build its own scholarship scheme, particularly through establishing and combining research rigour with indigenous knowledge in various disciplines, and promoting it along with Cambodian language and culture at the international level.

This paper has provided a bird's eye view of the definition and perceptions of Cambodian higher education internationalisation. Building on this basic understanding, future research can delve further into the meanings and rationales of internationalisation from the perspectives of other stakeholders. Other aspects of Cambodian internationalisation should also be explored in more depth, including outbound and inbound mobility, the adoption of foreign languages and international curricula, the establishment of branch campuses of foreign HEIs in Cambodia, and cross-border partnerships in teaching and research.

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The Effects of Residents' Participation on Their Perception of and Support for Community-based Ecotourism in Cambodia: A Structural Equation Modelling Approach

Introduction

Residents' attitudes towards and participation in tourism development have long been acknowledged by scholars and practitioners as two key factors that significantly influence its success and sustainability. In Cambodia, community-based ecotourism (CBET) has been initiated and implemented since the early 1990s in the form of integrated conservation and development projects to conserve natural resources and to generate additional income for local people. However, while many CBET projects are sustainable and successful, numerous others failed to survive. One of the determinants of this failure may be residents' low or non-participation and negative attitudes. Carter et al. (2015) found that 23 percent of the literature on sustainable tourism in Cambodia focused on ecotourism. However, residents' attitudes towards CBET and the relationship between residents' participation and their attitudes have been little studied in Cambodia. Therefore, to better understand the role of residents' participation in improving their attitudes towards CBET, this study attempts to determine the effects of residents' participation on their perceptions of and support for CBET.

Conceptual framework

Structural equation modelling was used to examine the relationships between the factors of interest depicted in Figure A1 in the appendix. At the outset,

a set of hypotheses was developed based on the literature or any substantial theory.

Remunerative participation

Remunerative participation (RPART) is usually used as an incentive to encourage residents to get involved in CBET, to take part in natural resource conservation, and to support the CBET project. RPART is similar to residents' economic dependence on tourism, an aspect that has been investigated by many studies. This is because the level of RPART may be equivalent to the degree of dependence on tourism. It is apparent that residents who are economically dependent on tourism may have a positive attitude towards tourism development. Studies by Pizam (1978) and Vesey and Dimanche (2000) support this premise. Based on those studies, four hypotheses are postulated:

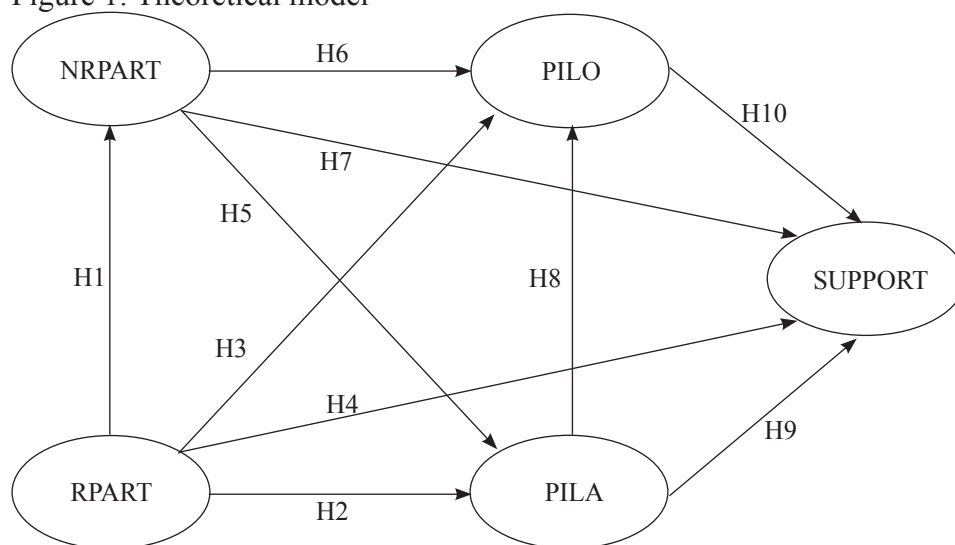
- H1. RPART directly and positively influences non-remunerative participation (NRPART).
- H2. RPART directly and positively influences perceived impacts of ecotourism on livelihood assets (PILA).
- H3. RPART directly and positively influences perceived impacts of ecotourism on livelihood outcome (PILO).
- H4. RPART directly and positively influences support for ecotourism (SUPPORT).

Non-remunerative participation

Numerous studies discovered that community participation in tourism development, management or decision making positively affects residents' perceptions of the impacts of tourism. Lankford (1994) proposed that if their opinions and participation are taken into account, residents are likely to support tourism development. This

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Figure 1: Theoretical model



Source: Authors' literature review

Note: H means hypothesis.

was supported by Lee (2013), who revealed that community involvement was positively associated with support for tourism development. Based on this literature, the following hypotheses are posited:

- H5. NRPART directly and positively influences PILA.
- H6. NRPART directly and positively influences PILO.
- H7. NRPART directly and positively influences SUPPORT.

Perceived impacts

Most past studies evaluated the perceived impacts of tourism in terms of its economic, social and environmental aspects. These indicators are suitable for mass tourism destinations. But the focus of this study is CBET, which is managed by local people often with support from a nongovernmental organisation. The goal of CBET is to improve local people's livelihoods and to conserve local natural resources. For this reason, this study used the perceived impacts of CBET on livelihood assets (PILA) and livelihood outcomes (PILO). Livelihood assets consist of five core asset categories upon which livelihoods are built. Livelihood outcomes are the achievements of livelihood activities. They are in the form of more income, increased well-being, reduced vulnerability, improved food security, and more sustainable use of the natural resource base (DFID 1999). As livelihood assets are the foundation for achieving livelihood outcomes,

PILO is likely to directly and positively influence PILO.

Social exchange theory (SET) has been widely used to study residents' attitudes towards tourism development. SET asserts that if residents perceive that tourism has positive impacts rather than unacceptable adverse impacts, they are likely to support it. Based on this assertion, many scholars found that perceived impacts are the antecedents of support for tourism development. The following hypotheses are therefore proposed:

- H8. PILA directly and positively influences PILO.
- H9. PILA directly and positively influences SUPPORT.
- H10. PILO directly and positively influences SUPPORT.

Hypotheses H1 and H7 state that RPART directly and positively influences NRPART, which, in turn directly and positively influences SUPPORT. Thus, RPART is likely to indirectly and positively influence SUPPORT with NRPART as a mediator (H11).¹ Similarly, according to other hypotheses, it is also likely that RPART and NRPART indirectly and positively influence SUPPORT with PILA or PILO as mediators (H12 and H13).

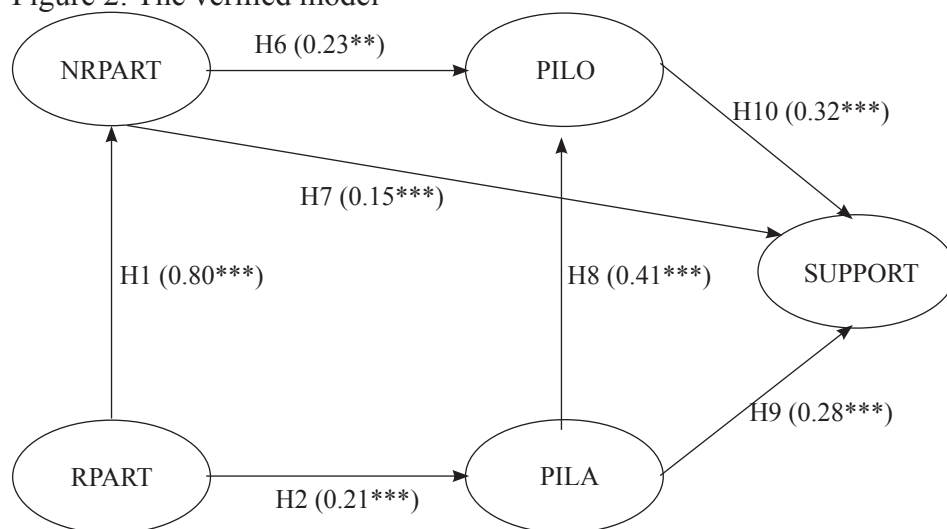
Study method

Study area

Chi Phat commune, where this study was conducted, is located in the Southern Cardamom Protected Forest, Koh Kong province. According to the commune database, there were about 549 households in this commune in 2010. Rice farming was the primary occupation of 69 percent of all households, cultivating crops and vegetables, fishing and raising livestock were the main occupations of 13 percent, and 4.1 percent of households collected non-timber

¹ The indirect effects (H11, H12, H13) cannot be illustrated in Figure 1 because their paths are hidden in those of the direct effects.

Figure 2: The verified model



Source: Result of authors' analysis, 2014.

Note: () denotes standardised coefficients; significant at p-value < 0.01*** and < 0.05 **.

forest products. Chi Phat CBET was established in 2007 and has been supported by Wildlife Alliance to protect local natural resources and improve local livelihoods. It had an elected management committee and 167 households as members who took it in turns to provide services to tourists such as homestay, guesthouse, guide, transport, meals, and so on.

Data collection

The sample data was collected from 200 residents of four villages in Chi Phat commune, including both members and non-members of Chi Phat CBET. The survey was carried out in May 2014 using a structured interview questionnaire. Proportionate sampling was used to obtain a diverse sample of respondents across the four villages.

Data analysis

Two-step structural equation modelling (SEM) was carried out to test the theoretical model depicted in Figure A1 in the appendix. The first step was the measurement model, which aims to verify whether the observed variables are proper measures for their latent variables. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was implemented to test the fitness of the measurement model in which all five latent variables (i.e., RPART, NRPART, PILA, PILO and SUPPORT) were specified to have correlations with each other. The reliability and validity of the latent variables were also

verified. The second step in SEM was to test the hypothesised structural relationships between the five latent variables. The structural model is equivalent to ordinary least squares regression. Non-significant relationships were deleted from the model, and the corresponding hypotheses rejected. The maximum likelihood with robust standard error (MLR) estimator of Mplus version 6.12 statistical software was used in both steps. MLR is robust to non-normality of the data and is also recommended for a small sample size.

Results and discussion

Effects of remunerative participation

The result of analysis shows that remunerative participation had a strong positive effect on non-remunerative participation as hypothesised. Obviously, the residents involved in remunerative participation were usually required to join in non-remunerative participation such as meetings, training and conservation activities. Hence, remunerative participation plays a significant role in motivating residents to take part in CBET development. As discussed earlier, remunerative participation is commonly used as an incentive for residents to support CBET projects.

Unfortunately, the result emphasises that remunerative participation made an insignificant contribution to enhancing residents' perceptions of positive impacts from and support for CBET. It suggests that all residents regardless of the level of remunerative participation tended to have similar levels of perceived impacts and support. This may imply that residents' perceived impacts and support for CBET are more likely to be influenced by other factors such as their desire for additional economic development (Campbell 1999; Lepp 2007). Another possible justification for residents who exhibit low remunerative participation to have a positive attitude and strong support for tourism development is that they may believe in

the so-called trickle-down effects of CBET. In other words, they may perceive that CBET directly improves the livelihoods of a group of residents. Eventually, one way or another, it will indirectly improve others' livelihoods as well.

Effects of non-remunerative participation

Similarly to the result for remunerative participation, non-remunerative participation did not have a significant role in stimulating positive perceptions of tourism development. This result is similar to that of Nicholas, Thapa and Ko (2009) which reported that community participation did not have a significant relationship with perceptions about sustainable tourism. Non-remunerative participation, however, had a direct positive relationship with support. Although this relationship was weak, it may support Lankford's (1994) assertion that if residents realise that their opinions or interests are taken into account, they are more likely to support tourism development. It is also consistent with the finding of Lee (2013). Based on the results, it can be inferred that residents who participate in CBET training programs or express ideas at CBET meetings are somewhat more supportive of CBET than those without non-remunerative participation. That may be because, through non-remunerative participation, residents may be well informed and become aware of the goodwill, real conditions and contributions of CBET ventures, which in turn can make them more tolerant and amenable to the CBET and its impacts.

The results also imply that residents who participate in both remunerative participation and non-remunerative participation are more likely to have slightly higher positive perceived impacts and stronger support for CBET than those who only participate in remunerative participation. It can therefore be concluded that remunerative participation in consort with non-remunerative participation is an effective approach to gain residents' support for CBET.

Finally, the results confirm the premise of social exchange theory and the findings of most previous studies. In other words, residents who believe that CBET contributes to improving livelihood assets and livelihood outcomes tend to support it.

Conclusion

The findings indicate that remunerative participation has a substantial role in encouraging residents to join non-remunerative CBET activities. However,

remunerative participation fails to play a vital role in improving residents' perception of impacts from and support for CBET. Likewise, non-remunerative participation in CBET does not have a substantial influence on perceived impacts. Fortunately, non-remunerative participation has a positive effect on residents' support for CBET. Additionally, remunerative participation has an indirect positive effect on support for CBET via non-remunerative participation. This suggests that remunerative participation, accompanied by non-remunerative participation, is an effective approach to gain residents' support for CBET. As hypothesised, residents' perceptions of the impacts of CBET are precedents of support.

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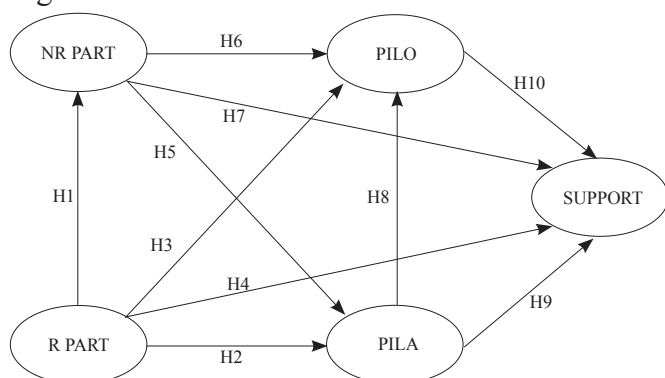
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Appendix: Structural Equation Modelling

Model specification

Structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to explain the structural relationships between the factors of interest. Figure A1 illustrates the structural paths based on the hypotheses posited in the section on structural framework.

Figure A1: Theoretical model



RPART, NRPART, PILA, PILO and SUPPORT are latent variables, which were measured with respective sets of observed variables. RPART and NRPART are the self-reported frequencies of residents' remunerative and non-remunerative participation in CBET. The observed variables

of PILA and PILO were created based on the Sustainable Livelihoods Guidance Sheet of the UK's Department for International Development (DFID 1999). Support for CBET was adopted from Woosnam's (2012) modified Tourism Impact Attitude Scale. The questions were rated on the seven-point Likert scale, where one designates never (for RPART and NRPART), extremely negative (for PILA and PILO) and strongly disagree (for SUPPORT), while seven represents extremely often (for RPART and NRPART), or extremely positive (for PILA and PILO) and strongly agree (for SUPPORT).

Model selection

Table A1 presents the model fit statistics for the measurement model, theoretical structural model and verified structural model.

Measurement model

Table A1 shows that the measurement model has a significant chi square ($\chi^2 = 202$, $df = 122$, $p\text{-value} < 0.001$), suggesting that it was a poor fit for the data. However, chi square is likely to be significant when the sample is large, so it is recommended that researchers use alternative fit indices in addition to chi square. One of them is the ratio of χ^2/df , for which the cut-off value for a good fit model is < 3 . The measurement model had a χ^2/df ratio of 1.65, indicating that the measurement model indeed had a good fit.

The comparative fit index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) were also used to examine the model fit. A model with CFI and TLI > 0.95

Table A1: Model fit statistics

Model Fit Index	Measurement Model	Structural Model	
		Theoretical	Verified
Absolute fit indices			
Chi square	201.64	201.64	204.42
df	122.00	122.00	125.00
P-Value	0.00	0.00	0.00
χ^2/df	1.65	1.65	1.64
CFA	0.95	0.95	0.95
TLI	0.94	0.94	0.94
SRMR	0.05	0.05	0.05
RMSEA	0.06	0.06	0.06
Relative fit indices			
Satarro-Bentler chi square difference test			
chi square difference (df=3)			1.229
p-value			0.746

Source: Result of the authors' analysis, 2014

has a good fit. The measurement model had an acceptable fit because its CFI was 0.95 and TLI was 0.94. Moreover, standardised root mean square residual (SRMR) and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) were used to measure the misfit of the target model. The recommended cut-off values of SRMR and RMSEA are <0.05 . The measurement model also had a good fit according to the misfit indices, with SRMR of 0.05 and RMSEA of 0.06. RMSEA was slightly higher than the cut-off value. Nonetheless, $RMSEA < 0.08$ is considered an acceptable fit.

The full CFA and measurement model results² cannot be shown here because of limited space. Based on the CFA results, all the latent variables had a high level of internal consistency because their composite reliability (CR) was greater than 0.70. They also had convergent validity because the standardised factor loadings of all the observed variables were statistically significant at the 1 percent level. Also, most standardised factor loadings were higher than 0.70, which is considered ideal. Only one standardised loading was less than 0.70 but higher than 0.50, and three of them were less than 0.50, but these observed variables were kept to retain the content validity of their latent variables.

Theoretical structural model

The theoretical structural model had the following fit indices: $\chi^2/df = 1.65$, CFI = 0.95, TLI = 0.94, SRMR = 0.05, RMSEA = 0.06. Hence, it had an acceptable fit, but several path coefficients were not statistically significant. The non-significant path

coefficients were deleted to seek a simple model that fits the data well.

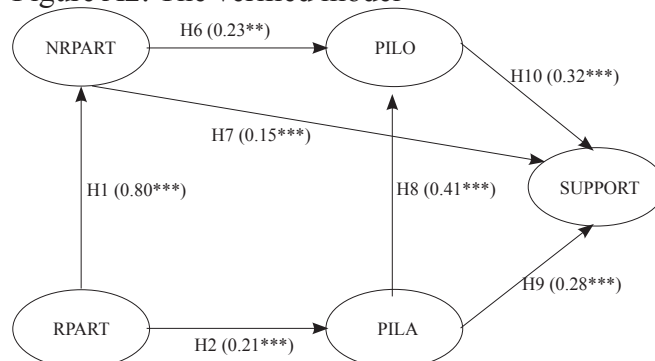
Verified structural model

The verified model also had a good fit ($\chi^2/df = 1.64$, CFI = 0.95, TLI = 0.94, SRMR = 0.05, RMSEA = 0.06). The Satorra-Bentler scaled chi square difference test was implemented to compare the theoretical model with the verified model. As presented in Table A1, Satarro-Bentler chi square difference was not significant, indicating that the verified model fits the sample data better than the theoretical model does. The verified model was selected as the final model.

The results of analysis

Figure A2 illustrates the structural paths of the verified model. The numbers in the parentheses are the statistically significant standardised coefficients of the direct effects. The statistically significant standardised coefficients of the indirect effects are shown in Table A2.

Figure A2: The verified model



Source: Result of the authors' analysis, 2014

Note: () denotes standardised coefficients; significant at p-value <0.01 *** and <0.05 **.

2 The full CFA and measurement model results can be found in Ven (2017).

Table A2: Significant indirect effects

H	Path			sc
	From	Via	To	
H11a	RPART	NRPART	PILO	0.18**
H11b	RPART	NRPART	SUPPORT	0.12**
H11c	RPART	NRPART PILO	SUPPORT	0.06**
H13a	NRPART	PILO	SUPPORT	0.07**
H13b	PILA	PILO	SUPPORT	0.13**

Source: Result of authors' analysis, 2014

Note: ** significant at p-value < 0.05 .

Economy Watch—External Environment

This section presents economic indicators of major world economies and economies in Southeast Asia during the fourth quarter of 2016.

Indonesia's real GDP growth was 4.9 percent year on year, only 0.1 percentage points lower than in the third quarter, while government expenditure decreased by 4.0 percent. Growth in Malaysia increased to 4.5 percent from 4.3 percent in the third quarter, driven by strong private consumption and fixed investment, which offset the decrease in government consumption. Singapore's growth rose to 2.9 percent year on year from 1.1 percent in the previous quarter, while the manufacturing sector expanded by 11.5 percent over the same quarter in the previous year. Thailand's economy expanded by 3.0 percent over the year, 0.2 percentage points lower than in the preceding quarter, as domestic demand accelerated and political uncertainty stabilised. Vietnam's growth was 6.7 percent, as the export sector was robust despite a global trade slowdown. Vietnam's manufacturing expanded by 13.6 percent in this quarter. Vietnam is becoming a hub for manufacturing electronic products.

China's economy expanded by 6.8 percent over the year, boosted by resilient private consumption, although private investment and global demand slowed down. The economy of China's Hong Kong SAR grew by 3.1 percent in the year to this quarter, higher than the preceding quarter's 1.3 percent. South Korea's growth remained modest at 2.3 percent, the same as a quarter earlier, as private consumption and exports contracted. GDP in Taiwan expanded by 2.9 percent over the year, which was the highest growth since the second quarter of 2015.

The eurozone's real growth was 1.7 percent for the year, the same as the previous quarter. Japan's economy expanded by 1.6 percent, the highest

growth since the second quarter of 2014, as private consumption slightly accelerated and investment expanded robustly. Growth in the United States was 1.9 percent year on year in this quarter, amid the expansion of fixed investment and consumer spending.

World inflation and exchange rates

All Asian and ASEAN countries had inflation, except for Singapore, where overall prices were unchanged. Inflation in Cambodia was 3.6 percent, in Indonesia 3.3 percent, in Malaysia 1.7 percent, in Thailand 0.7 percent, in Vietnam 4.4 percent. Inflation in China was 2.2 percent, in Hong Kong 1.2 percent, in South Korea 1.3 percent and in Taiwan 1.8 percent. Inflation in the eurozone was 0.7 percent, in Japan 0.3 percent and in the United States 1.9 percent.

In the fourth quarter, the USD-KHR exchange rate was KHR4,041.9/USD. The riel appreciated by 1.3 percent from a quarter earlier. The Thai baht depreciated by 1.7 percent from the preceding quarter to THB35.4/USD, and the Vietnamese dong by 0.9 percent to VND22,493.7/USD. The Chinese yuan depreciated by 1.9 percent to CYN6.8/USD, and the Japanese yen depreciated by 6.9 percent from the previous quarter to JPY109.5/USD.

Commodity prices in world markets

Prices of most major commodities in world markets rose in this quarter; only those of a few agricultural commodities, including rice, soybeans and maize, dropped. The price of rice decreased by 12.6 percent to USD376.0/tonne, soybeans by 1.2 percent to USD411.7/tonne, and maize 0.8 percent to USD152.2/tonne. The price of palm oil rose by 4.6 percent to USD753.0/tonne and of rubber by 27.2 percent to USD1,716.9/tonne. The price of crude oil increased by 10.7 percent to USD47.9/barrel, of gasoline by 4.6 percent to US cents 38.5/litre and of diesel by 10.8 percent to US cents 40.2/litre.

Ven Seyhah, research associate, and Pon Dorina, research assistant, Economics Unit, CDRI.

Table 1: Real GDP growth of selected trading partners, 2011–16 (percentage increase over previous year)

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015				2016			
					Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
Selected ASEAN countries												
Cambodia	7.1	7.3	7.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Indonesia	6.5	6.3	5.8	5.2	4.7	4.7	4.7	5.0	4.9	5.2	5.0	4.9
Malaysia	4.9	5.4	4.6	6.0	5.6	4.9	4.7	4.5	4.2	4.0	4.3	4.5
Singapore	4.7	1.3	3.8	3.0	2.6	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.8	2.1	1.1	2.9
Thailand	0.0	6.7	2.8	1.6	3.3	2.2	2.9	2.8	3.2	3.5	3.2	3.0
Vietnam	6.2	5.2	5.4	5.9	6.1	6.5	6.8	7.0	5.5	3.5	6.4	6.7

Selected other Asian countries												
China	9.3	7.7	7.7	7.3	7.1	7.0	6.9	6.8	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.8
Hong Kong	4.9	2.9	3.0	2.3	2.1	2.8	2.3	1.9	0.8	1.7	1.3	3.1
South Korea	3.6	2.1	2.8	3.4	2.4	2.2	2.7	3.0	2.7	3.2	2.3	2.3
Taiwan	4.2	1.2	2.2	3.5	3.4	0.5	-1.0	-0.5	-0.8	0.7	2.0	2.9
Selected industrial countries												
Euro-12	1.6	-0.5	0.1	0.7	1.0	1.2	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.7
Japan	-0.8	1.7	1.7	0.6	-0.9	0.7	1.0	0.5	0.2	0.8	1.1	1.6
United States	1.8	2.1	1.8	2.4	2.7	2.3	2.2	1.8	2.1	1.2	1.3	1.9

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

Table 2: Inflation rate of selected trading partners, 2011–16 (percentage price increase over previous year—period averages)

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015				2016			
					Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
Selected ASEAN countries												
Cambodia	5.5	3.0	3.0	3.9	1.0	1.0	0.8	2.0	2.4	3.1	3.0	3.6
Indonesia	5.4	4.3	7.0	6.4	6.6	7.1	7.1	4.8	4.3	3.5	3.0	3.3
Malaysia	3.2	1.7	2.1	3.2	0.7	2.1	3.0	2.6	3.4	1.9	1.4	1.7
Singapore	5.2	4.6	2.3	1.0	-0.3	-0.4	-0.6	-0.7	-0.8	-0.9	-1.5	0.0
Thailand	3.8	3.0	2.2	1.9	-0.5	-1.1	-1.1	-0.9	-0.5	0.3	0.3	0.7
Vietnam	18.6	9.3	6.6	4.8	0.7	1.0	0.5	0.3	1.3	2.2	2.8	4.4
Selected other Asian countries												
China	5.4	2.7	2.6	2.0	1.2	1.4	1.7	1.5	2.1	2.1	1.7	2.2
Hong Kong	5.3	4.1	4.0	4.4	4.4	3.1	2.3	2.4	2.9	2.6	3.1	1.2
South Korea	4.4	2.1	1.1	1.3	0.6	0.5	0.6	1.1	0.2	0.9	0.8	1.3
Taiwan	1.4	1.9	0.8	1.5	2.9	-0.7	0.0	0.3	1.7	1.3	0.7	1.8
Selected industrial countries												
Euro-12	2.7	2.5	1.4	0.4	-0.3	0.2	0.0	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.7
Japan	0.1	-0.03	0.4	2.8	2.3	0.5	0.2	0.7	0.2	-0.4	-0.5	0.3
United States	3.2	2.1	1.5	1.6	-0.4	0.0	0.1	0.4	1.1	0.7	1.1	1.9

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

Table 3: Exchange rates against US dollar of selected trading partners, 2011–16 (period averages)

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015				2016			
					Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
Selected ASEAN countries												
Cambodia (riel)	4063.6	4037.8	4027.2	4037.6	4042.2	4056.7	4091.8	4050.9	4022.4	4056.3	4094.1	4041.9
Indonesia (rupiah)	8748.0	9363.0	10419.2	11850.2	12809.9	13125.2	13858.0	13786.3	13627.3	13324.1	13136.6	13265.3
Malaysia (ringgit)	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.3	3.6	3.7	4.1	4.3	4.2	4.0	4.0	4.3
Singapore (S\$)	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4
Thailand (baht)	30.5	31.1	30.7	32.5	32.6	33.2	35.2	35.8	35.6	35.3	34.8	35.4
Vietnam (dong)	20574.3	20856.9	20990.3	21138.2	21372.9	21712.7	22164.6	22420.7	22929.4	22314.5	22292.2	22493.7
Selected other Asian countries												
China (yuan)	6.5	6.3	6.1	6.2	6.2	6.2	6.3	6.4	6.5	6.5	6.7	6.8
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)	1108.6	1126.6	1095.0	1053.6	1101.7	1097.4	1170.0	1158.3	1200.8	1163.4	1120.9	1159.0
Taiwan (NT\$)	29.4	29.6	29.7	30.3	31.6	30.8	32.0	32.6	33.1	32.4	31.7	31.8
Selected industrial countries												
Euro-12 (euro)	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9
Japan (yen)	79.9	79.8	97.6	105.9	119.2	121.4	122.2	121.4	115.3	107.9	102.4	109.5

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

Table 4: Selected commodity prices on world market, 2011–16 (period averages)

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015				2016			
					Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
Maize (US No. 2)–USA (USD/tonne)	291.7	298.4	259.4	192.9	174.2	168.4	169.5	167.1	160.0	171.1	153.5	152.2
Palm oil–north-west Europe (USD/tonne)	1125.4	999.3	856.9	821.4	627.9	664.0	514.6	518.0	586.9	647.8	714.7	753.0
Rubber SMR 5 (USD/tonne)	4630.6	3200.7	2575.3	1755.6	1450.2	1525.9	1365.5	1229.1	1190.0	1408.1	1349.4	1716.9
Rice (Thai 100% B)–Bangkok (USD/tonne)	558.5	594.8	533.8	434.9	426.0	396.3	383.3	376.3	385.3	465.0	430.3	376.0
Soybeans (US No.1)–USA (USD/tonne)	540.7	591.4	538.4	491.8	363.9	393.7	347.6	358.0	328.0	418.7	416.7	411.7
Crude oil–OPEC spot (USD/barrel)	106.2	109.5	105.9	96.2	50.9	60.5	48.2	38.0	31.2	44.7	43.3	47.9
Gasoline–US Gulf Coast (cents/litre)	71.9	74.6	71.2	65.6	40.1	49.0	42.2	32.9	27.9	37.5	36.8	38.5
Diesel (low sulphur No.2)–US Gulf Coast (cents/litre)	75.7	80.7	78.4	71.5	44.6	48.4	39.9	34.0	27.2	35.6	36.3	40.2

Sources: Food and Agriculture Organisation and US Energy Information Administration

Economy Watch—Domestic Performance

Main economic activities

In the fourth quarter of 2016, total fixed asset investment approvals contracted by 46.9 percent to USD507.4 m, from USD955.5 m in the previous quarter. Year on year, they expanded by 0.8 percent. Agricultural investment rose by 206.5 percent to USD82.1 m from the same quarter last year. Total industrial investment approvals were USD320.8 m, 20.5 percent higher than in the previous quarter. Investments in garments were USD19.0 m, only 5.9 percent of the total industrial investment. Investment approvals in services were USD104.6 m, 84.7 percent lower than the previous quarter. Hotel and tourism investment was USD56.3 m, a 91.7 percent decrease from the previous quarter.

Total international tourist arrivals increased to around 1.5 m persons, a 47.6 percent rise compared to the previous quarter and a 5.2 percent increase year on year. Compared to the same quarter last year, arrivals by air increased by 17.0 percent to about 797,000 persons, while arrivals by land and water decreased by 5.5 percent to approximately 705,000.

In this quarter, total exports were USD2,454.0 m, a decrease of 12.9 percent from the previous quarter. Year on year, they increased 6.3 percent. Garment exports declined by 15.2 percent to USD1,758.2 m from the previous quarter but rose 4.6 percent year on year. Garment exports to the US were USD413.5 m, to the EU USD629.2 m, to ASEAN countries USD25.7 m, to Japan USD141.0 m and to the rest of the world USD549.0 m. Agricultural exports rose by 52.0 percent to USD179.5 m from the previous quarter, and by 12.4 percent from the same quarter last year. Exports of rubber amounted to USD59.6 m, wood USD18.3 m, fish USD0.2 m, rice USD99.9 m and other agricultural products USD1.6 m.

Total imports in this quarter expanded by 2.1 percent from a quarter earlier, and 4.5 percent from the previous year, to USD3,080.8 m. Imports of gasoline were valued at USD97.1 m, diesel fuel USD178.0 m, construction materials USD57.4 m and other imports USD2,748.4 m.

Public finance

Total government revenue in the quarter was KHR3,405.0 bn, 0.3 percent less than a quarter earlier, but 18.8 percent higher than the same quarter last year. Current revenue was KHR3,361.7 bn, 0.4 percent less than in the last quarter. Tax revenue was KHR2,722.4 bn, 4.5 percent less than the previous quarter, while non-tax revenue was KHR639.4 bn, 21.7 percent more than the preceding quarter. Capital revenue was KHR43.3 bn.

Total expenditure was KHR4,509.2 bn, 29.0 percent more than a quarter earlier, but 12.0 less than the same quarter last year. Capital expenditure was KHR1,225.6 bn, 44.8 percent more than the previous quarter. Current expenditure was KHR3,283.6 bn, 24.0 percent higher than a quarter earlier.

Inflation and foreign exchange rates

The overall consumer price index in the last quarter of 2016 was 3.9 percent, 0.9 percentage points higher than in the previous quarter. The prices of food and non-alcoholic beverages increased by 6.0 percent but that of transport declined 3.4 percent.

Compared to the previous quarter, the riel appreciated by 1.3 percent against the dollar, to KHR4,041.9, by 2.7 percent against the Thai baht to KHR114.9 and by 2.0 percent against the Vietnamese dong to KHR18.1 per 100 Vietnamese dong.

The price of gold dropped 5.6 percent to USD148.3/chi. The price of diesel fuel increased 2.6 percent to KHR3,129.3, while the gasoline price rose by 4.7 percent to KHR3,437.1 from the previous quarter.

Poverty situation

In February 2017, average real daily earnings of cyclo drivers, small vegetable sellers, rice-field workers and motorcycle taxi drivers decreased year on year, while those of porters, scavengers, waitresses/waiters, garment workers and skilled and unskilled construction workers increased.

Rice-field workers' earnings decreased to KHR8,332 per day, a 1.8 percent decrease year on year. Sixty-seven percent of those interviewed were the main income earners for their families. Their income had decreased compared to the previous quarter, 47.5 percent said. The majority stated that their income during February could support their families only partially. Forty-seven percent were in debt, and the average interest rate on their borrowing was around 3.2 percent per month.

Garment workers' daily wages increased by 0.01 percent from a year earlier, to KHR14,889. Sixty-one percent of them were married. Their average level of education was sixth grade. On average, they had worked in the factory for four years. Sixty-one percent of them gained their skills from training in the factory and 11.6 percent from training at home, while the other 26.6 percent had no skills. On average, they worked 53.8 hours per week and saved 51.3 percent of their wages. Ninety-three percent of them sent savings to their families, which could partially support them. About 34.1 percent did not want to change their jobs, 29.1 percent did, and 36.6 percent were not sure. Fifty percent were optimistic that their factories would continue their operations.

Earnings of small vegetable vendors declined to KHR18,411 per day, 9.5 percent lower year on year. Vegetable vendors came from Kandal (30.0 percent), Svay Rieng (22.5 percent), Prey Veng (17.5 percent), Kompong Speu (15.0 percent), Takeo (10.0 percent) and Phnom Penh (5.0 percent). Eighty percent of them had 0.2 to 2.0 hectares of agricultural land, while 20 percent did not own any. All of the respondents were the main income earners in their families. Fifty-two percent indicated that their capital was not enough for their business.

Scavengers' earnings increased by 2.9 percent from a year earlier to KHR11,478 per day. Compared to the previous three months, the number of scavengers rose, but the source of rubbish and its price dropped, the majority of them said. Ninety-two percent of the scavengers interviewed were their family breadwinners. On average, scavengers needed to work around 11.2 hours per day. They spent mainly on food (71.6 percent of their total spending), rent (15.7 percent), health care (2.5 percent) and other expenses (10.1 percent).

Daily earnings of unskilled construction workers increased by 3.1 percent from a year earlier to KHR16,664. Compared to the previous three months, the number of unskilled construction workers and construction activities increased. Eighty-five percent of these workers migrated alone to Phnom Penh or Siem Reap for work. They worked 9.3 hours per day on average. They spent 74.0 percent of their total spending on food, 13.4 percent on rent, 0.2 on health care, and 12.5 percent on other things. Their income could only partially support their families.

Compared to the same month last year, porters' earnings rose by 1.9 percent to KHR15,171 per day. Eighty-five percent of these workers migrated alone to Phnom Penh or Siem Reap for work. Their income was spent on food (76.1 percent of the total), rent (15.8 percent), health care (1.2 percent) and other expenses (6.8 percent). Since they started as porters, their families were better off, 60.0 percent reported, while 37.5 percent said that their families' livelihoods remained the same, and 2.5 percent said their families were worse off.

The daily earnings of waiters/waitresses decreased by 0.6 percent compared to the same month last year, to KHR7,905. All waiters/waitresses interviewed were provided accommodation by their employers. They had been working in this occupation for about three years and worked on average 11.4 hours per day. They spent 77.2 percent of their total spending on food, 5.4 percent on health care and 17.4 percent on other spending.

Economy Watch—Economic Indicators

Table 1: Private investment projects approved, 2011–2016*

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015				2016			
					Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
		Fixed assets (USD m)										
Agriculture	725.0	531.6	930.5	56.5	25.8	38.1	79.1	26.8	27.6	0.0	7.4	82.1
Industry	2860.1	829.3	3257.0	1002.5	342.8	130.9	130.6	410.4	252.4	597.0	266.1	320.8
. <i>Garments</i>	393.9	497.0	324.1	393.5	63.9	42.4	63.7	55.2	70.8	239.9	51.1	19.0
Services	3425.4	916.6	140.7	622.6	2504.6	85.6	69.7	74.5	643.6	234.1	681.9	104.6
. <i>Hotels and tourism</i>	2850.9	691.5	106.0	446.9	60.6	0.0	0.0	38.0	611.1	19.8	679.8	56.3
Total	7010.4	2278.0	4328.0	1583.9	2873.2	254.6	279.4	511.7	923.7	831.2	955.5	507.4
	Percentage change from previous quarter											
Total	-	-	-	-	1816.8	-91.1	9.7	83.1	80.5	-10.0	15.0	-46.9
	Percentage change from previous year											
Total	209.0	-67.5	90.1	63.4	573.0	-33.2	-55.3	241.4	-67.9	226.4	242.0	-0.8

* Including expansion project approvals.

Source: Cambodian Investment Board

Table 2: Value of construction project approvals in Phnom Penh, 2009–15

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014				2015		
						Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3
	USD m											
Villas, houses and flats	213.9	220.1	405.1	547.3	658.9	133.6	84.0	33.1	20.4	122.3	-	637.6
Other	187.8	217.8	199.9	463.6	859.6	190.0	141.7	105.6	11.7	49.8	-	252.6
Total	441.2	489.8	605.0	1010.9	1518.5	323.6	225.7	138.7	32.1	172.0	-	897.4
	Percentage change from previous quarter											
Total	-	-	-	-	-	34.3	-30.2	-38.5	-77.8	437.3	-	-
	Percentage change from previous year											
Total	-60.5	11.0	23.5	67.1	28.1	8.0	-9.2	-64.2	-86.7	-46.8	-	-

Source: Department of Cadastre and Geography of Phnom Penh municipality

Table 3: Foreign visitor arrivals, 2011–2016

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015				2016			
					Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
	Thousands											
By air	1480.4	1722.1	2017.7	2273.5	725.1	497.4	563.8	681.3	785.0	593.5	602.2	797.4
By land or water	1401.4	1862.2	2192.5	2229.3	647.6	496.7	481.1	747.0	557.4	522,7	545,3	705.9
Total	2881.8	3584.3	4210.2	4502.8	1372.6	994.2	1044.9	1428.4	1342.5	1116.2	1147.5	1503.3
	Percentage change from previous quarter											
Total	-	-	-	-	5.4	-27.6	5.1	36.7	-0.6	-16.9	2.8	47.6
	Percentage change from previous year											
Total	20.1	24.4	17.5	7.0	8.3	6.5	4.6	9.6	-2.4	12.3	9.8	5.2

Source: Ministry of Tourism

Table 4: Exports and imports, 2011–2016*

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015				2016			
					Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
		USD m										
Total exports	4929.5	6106.4	6982.4	8106.0	2170.1	2182.0	2595.0	2309.3	2388.3	2383.4	2817.7	2454.0
Of which: Garments	4259.6	5015.4	5386.1	5960.5	1548.8	1601.7	1995.3	1681.2	1759.4	1717.8	2072.5	1758.2
<i>To US</i>	2055.3	2143.3	2075.2	1963.6	491.1	494.3	585.3	438.8	423.1	440.4	554.5	413.5
<i>To EU</i>	1322.2	1716.9	1969.6	2403.7	617.3	685.9	844.1	756.6	789.6	776.6	733.4	629.2
<i>To ASEAN</i>	17.6	39.4	60.2	83.3	24.8	24.6	26.4	27.5	25.6	25.7	21.4	25.7
<i>To Japan</i>	147.0	188.6	278.7	383.1	121.4	93.6	170.8	138.4	176.0	122.5	216.0	140.9
<i>To rest of the world</i>	717.5	927.2	1002.9	1126.8	294.2	303.4	368.8	319.9	345.2	352.7	547.1	548.9
Agriculture	362.1	376.7	554.5	624.4	150.3	127.3	111.4	159.7	137.5	98.9	118.1	179.5
<i>Rubber</i>	197.6	176.6	175.2	153.9	41.7	40.9	42.1	40.7	30.7	26.8	48.3	59.6
<i>Wood</i>	48.8	36.8	73.6	132.0	13.9	9.8	7.3	15.3	4.9	12.4	11.6	18.3
<i>Fish</i>	3.1	2.0	1.2	0.8	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2
<i>Rice</i>	106.6	146.4	262.3	248.5	89.5	72.4	54.7	98.8	91.4	56.1	53.4	99.9
<i>Other</i>	6.0	14.9	42.4	89.1	5.2	4.0	7.2	4.9	10.3	3.6	4.6	1.6
Others	307.9	714.4	1088.2	1520.1	471.0	452.9	488.0	468.4	491.3	566.6	627.1	516.2
Total imports	6375.9	8593.3	8639.4	10295.4	2717.3	2920.3	2907.9	2949.1	2784.7	6136.6	3017.0	3080.8
Of which: Gasoline	294.4	308.0	306.4	334.7	34.5	92.2	96.5	65.1	95.4	99.2	93.3	97.1
Diesel	447.0	559.5	569.1	602.3	45.1	152.7	139.6	150.0	163.1	194.6	173.7	178.0
Construction materials	48.1	66.1	80.8	117.6	12.4	42.0	45.9	42.1	50.8	62.1	83.1	57.4
Other	5586.4	7659.1	7682.6	9240.7	835.2	2633.0	2626.0	2691.9	2475.0	5780.8	2667.0	2748.4
Trade balance	-1446.4	-1341.6	-1610.9	-2184.3	-547.2	-738.3	-312.9	-639.7	-390.7	-3753.3	-199.4	-626.8
	Percentage change from previous quarter											
Total garment exports	-	-	-	-	3.8	3.4	24.6	-15.7	4.7	-2.4	20.6	-15.2
Total exports	-	-	-	-	1.5	0.5	18.9	-11.0	3.4	-0.2	18.2	-12.9
Total imports	-	-	-	-	-3.2	7.5	-0.4	1.4	-5.6	120.8	-50.8	2.1
	Percentage change from previous year											
Total garment exports	32.1	17.7	7.4	10.7	5.8	16.1	22.8	12.6	13.6	7.2	3.9	4.6
Total exports	35.8	23.9	14.3	16.1	9.8	17.3	21.7	8.1	10.1	9.2	8.6	6.3
Total imports	22.8	16.8	15.4	19.7	21.4	19.2	4.0	5.0	2.5	110.1	110.1	3.8

* Including tax-exempt imports.

Sources: Department of Trade Preference Systems, MOC and Customs and Excise Department, MEF (website)

Table 5: National budget operations on cash basis, 2011–16 (billion riels)

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015				2016			
					Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
Total revenue	6251.4	7691.9	8255.2	10,543.4	2647.8	3301.6	3063.8	2867.3	3533.1	3849.7	3413.7	3405.0
Current revenue	6179.3	7443.8	8233.2	10,359.4	2638.0	3274.5	3028.7	2818.2	3514.7	3836.3	3375.9	3361.7
Tax revenue	5277.5	6334.8	7198.1	8995.2	2430.6	3006.1	2656.2	2409.7	3255.5	3368.1	2850.5	2722.4
Domestic tax	4071.6	5002.8	5728.1	7226.5	2012.6	2481.6	2153.9	1943.6	2715.3	2854.5	2378.5	2237.4
Taxes on international trade	1205.9	1331.7	1470.0	1822.7	418.0	524.5	502.3	466.1	540.1	513.6	472.0	485.0
Non-tax revenue	901.8	1118.2	1035.2	1310.3	207.4	268.5	372.5	408.5	259.3	468.2	525.4	639.4
Property income	63.8	143.0	84.0	88.5	3.0	16.7	35.9	21.7	8.1	26.1	43.2	38.5
Sale of goods and services	588.7	667.4	750.3	871.2	189.6	219.2	304.6	333.9	198.5	315.3	294.9	439.5
Other non-tax revenue	249.3	298.8	200.8	350.5	14.8	32.6	31.8	53.0	52.7	126.8	187.3	161.3
Capital revenue	72.1	247.9	73.4	184.0	9.8	27.1	35.0	49.1	18.3	13.4	38.4	43.3
Total expenditure	9032.4	9660.9	12535.7	13306.5	2093.3	1964.8	3337.5	5121.3	2364.3	3405.3	3460.8	4509.2
Capital expenditure	3546.9	3628.3	5567.5	5590.7	654.4	584.7	649.9	2083.4	620.9	1091.1	811.3	1225.6
Current expenditure	5341.2	6188.4	6968.3	7715.8	1438.9	1380.1	2687.7	3038.0	1743.4	2314.2	2649.1	3283.6
Wages	2170.6	2486.6	2997.3	3755.5	945.3	959.1	1281.2	1086.3	1133.1	1418.3	1403.6	1426.7
Subsidies and social assistance	1518.8	1586.8	1563.0	1627.0	194.3	207.1	544.0	797.1	259.1	439.7	447.5	628.7
Other current expenditure	1651.8	2115.1	2408.0	2333.4	299.3	213.9	862.4	1154.6	351.2	456.2	798.1	1228.2
Overall balance	-1271.4	-1969.0	-4280.6	-2763.1	554.5	1336.8	-273.8	-2254.0	1168.8	444.4	-47.0	-1104.2
Foreign financing	-2781.0	2457.8	4326.2	3972.1	368.9	330.1	297.6	1414.8	266.4	775.6	141.0	661.9
Domestic financing	2379.2	-332.9	824.4	-1428.7	-2464.8	-793.3	-259.1	-109.4	-1631.4	-488.5	37.5	342.7

Source: MEF website

Table 6: Consumer price index, exchange rates and gold prices (period averages), 2011–16

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015				2016			
					Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
	Consumer price index (percentage change from previous year)											
Phnom Penh - All Items	5.4	2.3	3.0	3.9	1.0	1.0	0.8	2.0	2.5	3.0	3.0	3.9
- Food & non-alcoholic bev.	6.5	2.5	3.9	4.9	4.2	3.9	3.3	4.7	4.7	6.2	5.5	6.0
- Transportation	6.9	3.3	-0.6	-1.0	-10.9	-7.9	-9.1	-8.9	-6.5	-9.9	-7.9	-3.4
Exchange rates, gold and oil prices (Phnom Penh market rates)												
Riels per US dollar	4063.6	4039.2	4036.2	4060.4	4042.2	4056.7	4091.8	4050.9	4022.4	4056.3	4094.1	4041.9
Riels per Thai baht	133.2	130.0	124.9	119.4	124.4	122.6	116.8	113.6	113.4	115.7	118.1	114.9
Riels per 100 Vietnamese dong	19.7	19.4	19.1	18.7	19.0	18.8	18.6	18.2	18.1	18.3	18.5	18.1
Gold (US dollars per chi)	184.5	200.9	175.9	152.3	150.9	144.4	136.0	130.9	151.2	151.2	157.1	148.3
Diesel (riels/litre)	4761.2	4941.2	4852.1	4934.1	3823.4	4032.0	3840.2	3389.4	2903.8	2932.8	3050.2	3129.3
Gasoline (riels/litre)	5044.5	5312.7	5083.3	5155.7	3986.2	4189.0	4048.9	3582.5	3310.6	3318.2	3281.4	3437.1

Sources: NIS, NBC and CDRI

Table 7: Monetary survey, 2011–16 (end of period)

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015				2016			
					Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
	Billion riels											
Net foreign assets	17893.9	18154.5	21260.1	26699.7	26823.0	27975.3	26359.2	26665.5	29247.8	30138.5	32188.4	32814.5
Net domestic assets	5760.8	10437.4	11508.3	15859.8	16863.2	18178.3	20600.9	22157.6	21643.0	24399.1	24939.2	25802.3
Net claims on government	-2123.1	-2486.4	-2794.9	-4359.1	-5064.0	-5666.1	-5933.1	-6428.8	-7621.2	-7977.4	-7916.6	-8148.5
Credit to private sector	17552.8	23536.6	27608.8	36244.6	37759.4	40995.0	43807.1	46071.0	47627.0	52528.6	54551.1	56458.8
Total liquidity	23654.7	28591.9	32768.4	42559.5	43685.2	46153.7	46960.1	48823.1	50890.9	54537.6	57127.5	57616.8
Money	3956.2	4045.7	4878.2	6308.4	6628.0	6293.1	6287.5	6741.4	6717.8	6872.0	7460.9	7273.0
Quasi-money	-	-	-	-	37058.2	39860.6	40672.6	42081.7	44173.1	47665.6	49666.6	-
	Percentage change from previous year											
Total liquidity	17.8	20.9	14.6	29.9	24.2	20.6	15.2	14.7	16.5	18.2	21.7	18.0
Money	16.9	2.3	20.6	29.3	23.3	20.3	12.6	6.9	1.4	9.2	18.7	7.9
Quasi-money	17.9	44.6	13.6	30.0	24.4	20.7	15.6	16.1	19.2	19.6	22.1	19.6

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			
	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016				2017	2016		
					Feb	May	Aug	Nov**	Feb	Aug	Nov	Feb
Cyclo drivers	10303	10438	10774	12405	11880	11898	11302	10985	11092	1.9	-44	-6.6
Porters	12143	13247	13580	15631	14888	11774	14094	13514	15171	4.7	-4.7	1.9
Small vegetable sellers	10771	11366	14751	15867	20337	18979	11903	17488	18411	-5.7	6.1	-9.5
Scavengers	8680	9819	9173	12344	11159	8737	9953	11347	11478	-13.5	0.1	2.9
Waitresses/waiters*	6111	6697	7789	8436	7860	8187	7895	8015	7905	3.6	3.6	0.6
Rice-field workers	6151	6599	7514	8745	8484	7916	7722	8229	8332	-16.8	-7.5	-1.8
Garment workers	8932	10161	11178	-	14937	13828	12900	13136	14889	-11.6	-10.9	0.01
Motorcycle taxi drivers	12930	13450	13386	14455	15526	15425	13653	13434	14770	2.8	-6.7	-4.9
Unskilled construction workers	11078	13184	13336	15349	16164	20227	13894	19174	16664	6.2	31.1	3.1
Skilled construction workers	13743	15442	17420	18624	18853	21150	19184	20287	21716	7.9	13.8	15.2

* 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. **November 2015 data are not available, so percentage changes in November 2016 were estimated.

Source: CDRI

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22 February 2017, Phnom Penh

Televised panel discussion highlights Cambodia Outlook 2017. The ED and Dr Leonie Lethbridge, CEO of ANZ Royal, joined a panel discussion on

“Cambodia and Global Value Chain” hosted by Dr Sok Siphana, Chairman of CDRI’s Board of Directors, and broadcast by SEA TV.

2 March 2017, Phnom Penh

The 11th Cambodia Outlook Conference on ‘Moving Up Value Chains for Industrialisation, Digitisation, Growth and Development.’ This annual high-profile conference is a partnership of CDRI and ANZ Royal. The opening keynote address to 400 participants was once again presented by Prime Minister Hun Sen. The three panel presentations focused on successful regional experiences, matching policies with firms’ activities and needs, and building human capital for value chain upgrading. Conference materials and the Outlook Brief are available on CDRI’s website.

3 March 2017, Phnom Penh

CDRI board meeting, achievement awards 2016 and Women’s Day celebration. HE Sok Siphana, Chair of CDRI’s Board of Directors, praised and congratulated the ED and senior managers for their strong and effective leadership and thanked all staff for their hard work. Five awards for outstanding achievement were presented to individuals and groups at the staff/board lunch, which also marked Women’s Day.

15 March 2017, Phnom Penh

CDRI and SDC sign agreement. The Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation signed an agreement with CDRI for an additional USD500,000.00 to fund a 3.5-year “Research and Policy Dialogue on TVET”.

24 March 2017, Phnom Penh

Science, technology and innovation. The ED participated in a consultative meeting, organised by the National Council on Science and Technology of the Ministry of Planning, on the draft Science, Technology and Innovation Framework.

20-22 March 2017, Shenzhen, China

CDRI and Southern University of Sciences and Technology (SUSTech) sign MOU. The ED and three education researchers visited SUSTech in Shenzhen to sign a memorandum of understanding with the International Centre for Higher Education Innovation (a category 2 UNESCO centre). Several future collaborative research projects on the Belt and Road initiative were identified. The delegates also visited Shenzhen Polytechnic to seek collaboration in TVET research. The Polytechnic invited CDRI to participate in a Global TVET Forum in June 2017. The ED invited a professor to serve on the scientific committee of the Comparative Education Society of Asia Conference to be held in Siem Reap in May 2018.

28 March 2017, Phnom Penh

CDRI and the School for International Development and Cooperation (IDEC), Hiroshima University, sign MOU. The MOU is composed of three aspects: research collaboration on higher education policy, scholar exchange, and joint regional and international conferences.

RESEARCH

Agriculture

The team is implementing five projects. Report writing for the project *Impact of Rice Export Promotion Policy and Food Security* is going smoothly. Comments on the final report for *Irrigated Agriculture in Cambodia*, a study backed by the Australian National University (ANU), were received and are being addressed, while finished parts are being edited. The team is preparing to collect endline data for the project *Testing Innovative Models of Extension in Cambodia’s PADEE Programme*, which receives funding from the International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI). The draft final report of the study *Rice Policy Analysis*, funded under the Lower Mekong Public Policy Initiative (LMPPI), has been submitted to LMPPI for comment. The final project is *Agricultural Commodity Exports to the Mekong Region – Thailand, Vietnam and China*, conducted under CDRI-Sida partnership 2016-21. Having reviewed the literature, the team is now preparing the concept note for an upcoming consultative workshop.

Economics

The study *Interrelations between Partner Countries' Public Policies, Migration and Development: Case Studies and Policy Recommendations* was successfully completed. CDRI and OECD in close collaboration with the Ministry of Interior will organise the book launch event on 27 April 2017 in Phnom Penh. Also nearing completion is the project on *Exploring Non-Tariff Measures on Cambodia's Fisheries Exports*. The team submitted the draft report and will present the preliminary findings at the ARTNeT Dialogue on *Analyzing Non-tariff measures: Collating Evidence and Setting Research Agenda* on 26–27 April 2017 in Bangkok, Thailand.

Making good progress is the three-year program on *Improving Job Prospects for the Young: Labour Markets, Skill Development and Private Sector Development in the Greater Mekong* under the Greater Mekong Subregion Research Network (GMS-Net), a regional research consortium coordinated by CDRI and which receives funding from Canada's International Development Resource Centre (IDRC). Each individual country research team is expected to submit their final report in May and present their research findings at the regional technical workshop to be held in due course.

Also making good progress are three other projects. The first is *Vocational Training and Labour Market Transitions: A Randomised Experiment among Cambodian Young Adults*, which receives funding under GMS-Net. The team completed the baseline and follow-up surveys and is now preparing the final report to be submitted in May. The second is the project on *Mapping Cambodia's Participation in Global Value Chains (GVCs)*, a research study under the Sida-funded five-year program on *Industrial Development, Human Capital and SME Development in Cambodia*. The team finalised the literature review and is now examining the GVC database before fieldwork starts. The project on *Enhancing China-Mekong Research and Policy Dialogue*, funded by China's Ministry of Foreign Affairs under the Lancang-Mekong River Dialogue and Cooperation framework, is making slow progress. The Kick-Off Workshop has been delayed until further notice.

Work has begun on *Cambodia's Industrial Development Policy and One Belt One Road—The Development of Sihanoukville Province as a Multipurpose Special Economic Zone and Utilisation*

of OBOR Initiative, funded by the Cambodia 21st Century Maritime Silk Road Research Center. The team is reviewing the literature and plans to conduct fieldwork in June.

Education

Data collection for the projects *STEM Studies for Labour Market* and *Internationalisation of Higher Education and Research* is progressing well, with the survey for the first project completed. The research team is supporting higher education institutions in developing a draft proposal for academic career promotion in Cambodia, and also supporting individual institutions to promote research interests and stimulate research capacity building among their faculty members and students. For instance, in March, the team visited Chea Sim University of Kamchaymear, Prey Veng. To ensure that their research and policy recommendations remain relevant, they plan to visit higher education institutions, particularly outside of the capital city, regularly.

A study report commissioned by the Japanese International Cooperation Agency on the *Current Status and Industrial Needs of Electrical Technicians* among over 57 companies and three TVET providers in Phnom Penh was completed and disseminated at a workshop at the Royal University of Phnom Penh. The findings were well supported and in alignment with the outcomes of the panel discussions, which were participated in by private sector representatives, policymakers, and leaders and teachers from the three TVET providers.

In March, a delegation of three education researchers joined the executive director to represent CDRI at the signing of a memorandum of understanding (MOU) between CDRI and the UNESCO International Centre for Higher Education Innovation at the Southern University of Science and Technology in Shenzhen, China. The delegates also visited Shenzhen Polytechnic to seek collaboration in TVET policy research.

The unit was instrumental in setting up two further MOUs, one with the Graduate School for International Development and Cooperation, Hiroshima University, Japan; and the other with Charles Darwin University, Australia. Both partnerships involve collaborative research projects and grants, exchange of academic materials and scholars, and research seminars and conferences.

Environment

The final report and a policy brief for *Gender in Environmental Impact Assessment in Cambodia*, a project funded by USAID under the Mekong Partnership for the Environment, were completed. Also released was a synthesis study on *Climate Change Adaptation, Livelihoods and Inclusive Growth*. In addition, the team engaged in two cross-unit research activities with researchers from the Governance Unit. The first involved the *MK20 Project: A Space for Dialogue*, focusing on *Gender and Resettlement Process and Multi-stakeholder Platform at Lower Sesan 2*; this project is expected to finish by the end of 2017. The second project, the *Political Economy of Civil Society*, funded by USAID, is at the conceptualisation and planning stage, with field investigations scheduled for June. The unit also joined with the Stockholm Environment Institute to organise and co-host a national-level meeting on “Arsenic Uptake in Rice in Cambodia” in Phnom Penh on 23 February 2017.

Several research proposals were developed and submitted to potential partners for funding, two of which are being reviewed and pending final approval from Forum Syd and the UN Democracy Fund. In addition, a concept note for a proposed project on *Application of Solar Energy System for Improving Water Management in Rice Farming* is being considered by the Lancang-Mekong Cooperation Special Fund. The aim is to pilot a solar powered agricultural water pumping system, including canals and water storage, to irrigate at least 300 ha of rice fields, and ultimately to lift energy and water constraints on agricultural productivity.

Governance

The governance team is working on several studies under Sida’s *New Generation* and WLE’s *Mekong Water Governance* projects. The edited book on Cambodia’s New Generation is making good progress; drafts of various chapters have been completed and reviewed by the editors. The manuscript has been accepted for publication by NIAS Press, based at the Nordic Institute of Asian Studies, University of Copenhagen, Denmark. A state-of-the-art literature review of Cambodian youth, to be published as a CDRI working paper, and the design of a survey on Cambodian youth are

also well underway and should be completed by next quarter.

As a member of the Working Group on Partnership for Decentralisation, Dr Eng Netra made a presentation on “Major Findings from CDRI Research on Decentralisation and Local Governance Reform in Cambodia” at the quarterly members meeting in Phnom Penh on 24 February. She also delivered a paper at a panel on “Trends in Southeast Asian Politics” at the Association of Asian Studies Annual Conference in Toronto on 16–19 March.

The team for the *Mekong Water Governance* project is working on two major studies which examine perceptions and experiences of key actors engaged in the multi-stakeholder platform, and gender impacts from resettlement planning and commercial operations of Lower Sesan 2 dam. Data collection with fieldwork visits to the site in Stung Treng province took place in February and March for both studies. In collaboration with the NGO Forum on Cambodia, a documentary video on “Benefits and Social, Ecological Impacts of Hydropower Development” is being produced. Chhom Theavy and Hav Gechhong participated in various workshops and consultation meetings on hydro dam development. For instance, they attended the Regional Stakeholder Forum on Council Study and the Pak Beng Hydropower Project in Luang Prabang, Laos, on 22–23 February, and then a follow-up national workshop in Siem Reap on the same topic.

Health

The Health team is working on a research project that explores *Medical Professionalism in Cambodia: Issues and Ways Forward*. The project is funded by GlaxoSmithCline (GSK) and entails a collaborative partnership with the University of Health Sciences (UHS). The objective of this research is twofold: to draw public attention to pressing medical issues in the country, and to remind medical students and health practitioners of their obligation to safeguard the health of the population. A draft concept note and proposal were then developed and an extensive literature review undertaken. The team is now preparing to conduct action research on the attributes of good doctors.

CDRI Update

MAJOR EVENTS

12 January 2017, Phnom Penh

CDRI delegation pays a courtesy visit to the new Chinese Ambassador to Cambodia. A delegation of CDRI researchers (Mr Chhim Chhun, Mr Keo Borin, Mr Hing Vutha and Dr Khieng Sothy) led by the executive director (ED), Dr Chhem Rethy, and the acting director of research, Dr Chem Phalla, paid a courtesy visit to the new Chinese Ambassador to Cambodia, HE Xiong Bo. The delegation briefed the Ambassador about CDRI's policy research activities, especially projects related to China's "Belt and Road" initiative. At CDRI's request, the Chinese Embassy agreed in principle to fund the creation of a China Resource Centre within CDRI.

26 January 2017, Phnom Penh

Regional workshop on 'Maritime Security in the Asia Pacific Region: History, Challenges and Solutions'. Hosted by the Cambodian Institute for Strategic Studies, this high profile and timely event provided a platform for enhancing intraregional cooperation on Asia-Pacific maritime security issues. Nontraditional security threats (environmental degradation, pandemics, irregular migration) were also discussed. The ED served as a session moderator.

16 February 2017, Phnom Penh

The Neeson Cripps Academy (NCA) opens, bringing world-class technical education to Stung Meanchey. The NCA is a new state-of-the-art education and training facility built for the Cambodian Children Fund (CCF). With its international standard science laboratories and teacher training hub, the NCA brings a new level of STEM (science, technology, engineering, mathematics) education to Cambodia. The official gathering was an excellent opportunity for the ED to interact with TVET policymakers, development partners, teachers, and youth from Stung Meanchey.

20 February 2017, Phnom Penh

Telemedicine for developing countries. The ED participated in a seminar on telemedicine (the delivery of healthcare services to patients in remote areas using telecommunications technology) where he interacted with policymakers from the Ministry of Health and representatives from various medical schools and Chinese telemedicine companies. Organised by the Council of Ministers, the aim of the seminar was to raise awareness about the value of telemedicine in developing countries.

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