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NGO's Approach to Community Development in Rural Cambodia

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Abstract

Soon after the Khmer Rouge regime, the existence of international development partners both bilateral and multilateral on Cambodian soil has assisted the government on development and the war against poverty remarkably. In addition, in the year 2000, the eight Millennium Development Goals have been declared and require all developed and developing nations to cooperate and set target individually by 2015 for common enemy, the poverty. Regarding grassroots community development approach to tackle MDGs, some nongovernmental organizations have employed mainly empowerment approach to push the progress forward. One of them is Lutheran World Federation Cambodia (LWF-Cambodia), using its integrated rural development through empowerment project. Yet, there are not enough resources to cover on community development and there are partially less standard records on how effective and to what extent the NGO has contributed to the rural poor people. This research aims at grasping the perception of the people in Teuk Phos district and measure the level of empowerment that LWF promotes. This study also attempts to establish an empowerment model, which can be used in multiple contexts not only in Cambodia's rural areas.

The rationale of this study is to describe how the empowerment approach tackles the eight components vulnerable to the poor like basic health/HIV and AIDS, disaster preparedness, community development, human rights and advocacy, income generation, food security, environment, and education. These elements are assessed concerning the World Bank's four indicators: access to information, inclusion and participation, accountability, and local organizational capacity. Another insight is to disclose the opinion of the people toward the development status of Teuk Phos before and after LWF's existence. Although the finding in this research showed that all eight aspects are improving in terms of development, the people are not empowered in all eight. Exceptions are in basic health, disaster preparedness, and environment. The common misconduct is accountability from concerned parties. Overall, the people appreciate on LWF's services and perceive that the community is developing in positive direction. To improve the gaps above, it is recommended to strengthen on government's law enforcement and policy intervention. Corruption should be considered carefully while public services should be improved and standardized. The

community common interest should be prioritized as well. Finally the next leaps of development should be studied and further investigated. This thesis is a contribution of the first discovery to the knowledge on community development by empowerment approach in rural development of Cambodia.

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SECTION I

INTRODUCTION

Background

In order to achieve the Eight United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) – by the target time in 2015 – there has been a planned development agreement by all countries worldwide and the entire world’s leading development institutions (*What are the Millennium Development Goals*, 2008, para. 5). They have urged revolutionary attempts to meet the needs of the world’s poorest and to eliminate poverty. The Secretary-General of the United Nations (UN), Ban Ki-Moon stated in the MDG report (United Nations, 2008) that, “in adopting the Millennium Declaration in the year 2000, the international community pledged to spare no effort to free men, women and children from the abject and dehumanizing conditions of extreme poverty” (p. 3). It is now more than halfway towards the target date, 2015. They express the most important parts of the world as a whole in a short list consisting of eight major goals. The eight MDGs are: to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, to achieve universal primary education, to promote gender equality and empower women, to reduce child mortality, to improve maternal health, to combat HIV/AIDS and malaria and other diseases, to ensure environmental sustainability, and to develop a global partnership for development (United Nations, 2008).

But these are not the only development objectives; they encompass universally accepted human values and rights such as freedom from hunger, the right to basic education, the right to health and a responsibility to future generations. Cambodia has made important progress towards all eight goals, but is not on track to fulfill the commitments by itself. External assistance is required to fill out the tasks that remain. These tasks have now become more challenging because the largely benign development environment that has prevailed since the early years of this decade, and that has contributed to the successes to date, is now threatened. Everyone faces a global economic slowdown and a food security crisis, both of uncertain magnitude and duration. Global warming has become more apparent. These developments will directly affect the efforts to reduce poverty: the economic slowdown will diminish the incomes of the poor; the food crisis will raise the number of hungry people in rural areas and push more people into poverty; climate change will have a disproportionate impact on the poor. The need to address these concerns, pressing as they are, must not be allowed to detract from Cambodia’s long-term efforts to achieve the MDGs. On the contrary, existing and new strategies must keep the focus on the MDGs as they confront these new challenges.

Notably, the world is evolving and moving towards a global community coping with these problems; there is a need for all individual countries to act accordingly, especially least developed countries, that is, developing nations. For Cambodia, recovery after its long wars is also another main driving force. The poor continue to be challenged by the dangers of landmines, malaria, TB, HIV and AIDS, food shortages, lack of potable water, unemployment, human trafficking, land title issues, and lack of education, health and credit institutions. The return of Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) to their villages of origin has eased, but they remain vulnerable and in urgent need of periodic emergency relief in response to natural disasters, strategic de-

mining in resettlement areas, rehabilitation of basic infrastructure, sustainable management of natural resources, and community organization and development assistance.

Cambodia is in the need of urgent development and cooperation in order to push its status out of poverty and the issues that stem from it. In this regard, the Millennium Development Goals set targets for Cambodia to combat extreme poverty, hunger, disease, illiteracy, environmental degradation and gender discrimination and more. By 2015, Cambodia hopes to be systematically improving human resources, governance and reform, to reduce poverty and inequality, and the prevalence of HIV/AIDS, to enhance conservation of Cambodia's environmental heritage, and to develop a society without discrimination against women, where all girls and boys have better and equal access to education. To achieve these goals, Cambodia is transitioning its economy and politics from the past to the present in a period of about two decades. For example, within a year after establishing the new government in 1993, the Royal Government of Cambodia (RGC) launched "the National Programme to Rehabilitate and Develop Cambodia" (NPRD), the first full-scale and comprehensive national development programme. In 1996, "the first Socio-economic Development Plan 1996-2000" (SEDP), a five-year national plan, was established. The focus was on macro-economic growth, social development, and poverty alleviation. Throughout the early stage of the first two development efforts, Cambodia's ownership remained weak and the programmes could not attain their objectives. The development plans which deserved greater attention were "the second Socio-economic development plan 2000-2005" (SEDPII) and the "Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper" (PRSP). Then the RGC approved the Action Plan on Harmonization and Alignment 2004-2008 in 2004 and, following its spirit, has produced a single overarching policy document, called the National Strategic Development Plan (NSDP) 2006-2010, during the Forum on National Plans as Poverty Reduction Strategies in East Asia (Royal Government of Cambodia, 2006).

To take action, Cambodia has opened and supported cooperation internationally with many nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) ever since the genocide regime ended and their efforts have extended to the most vulnerable areas of resettlement. Local community development is the core concentration. To raise communities' strengths, an NGO by the name of Lutheran World Federation (LWF) came to Cambodia in 1979 on a mission: "To answer humanity's needs after Pol-Pot's Khmer Rouge (KR) regime" (LWF, 2005, p. 11). Its operating programmes have focused on structural competency development which, in terms of strategic strengths, is beneficial for the people, emphasizing rights-based participation and empowerment, and appear to fit the on-going development plans of the government. LWF-Cambodia provides direct services to communities and individuals. When the people can manage development process on their own with their trained abilities, it will withdraw gradually following evaluation and assessment of each individual community. LWF's projects have been evolving through time in stages of emergency needs after KR and development orientation. LWF transformed itself as the needs in vulnerable communities changed. It is also trying to transfer resources available from supporting national government and public institutions to focus on activities helping the basically isolated rural poor communities instead. This is the ultimate distinguish characteristic of LWF.

There has been awareness that NGOs are coming to Cambodia to support and provide

services by pursuing a development agenda and approaches based on grassroots participation and grants at local community level. They help assist the people in rural area as a single project carrier in capacity building for village leaders, sponsoring vocational training for youth to create opportunities in job-hunting, and disseminating information on human rights and health campaigns. Likewise, LWF-Cambodia has used the Integrated Rural Development through Empowerment Project as a tool to combine these components in order to promote rural development. It is expected to be effective in strengthening other qualities of leaders as well as socio-economic welfare of the people in the community. However, there are questions how LWF helps promote Teuk Phos development and what they have achieved so far. This study has a major research problem: “To what extent does the NGO approach empower local community?”

Objectives

The following are the objectives of the study:

1. To describe the empowerment approach and implementation of LWF project in the selected area.
2. To identify essential elements of empowerment in the project in terms of promoting local community development.
3. To describe the development status of the community.
4. To understand the community’s perception to LWF contributions.
5. To describe the roles of partners and the level of their participation in the project.
6. To recommend measures and model of empowerment to enhance the effectiveness of NGO in promoting local community development in rural Cambodia.

Significance

The research provides insights into important partnership issues between NGO and local community. It tries to measure levels of empowerment from various aspects of the project. (Information is especially needed regarding the appropriate approaches to community empowerment that will have policy implications. The research/study is useful for NGOs, government and communities in so far as promoting their partnership in community development as well as a model or benchmark study for individual and institutions regarding empowerment.)

The study attempts to develop empowerment models, strategies and tools for developing rural communities. The study also looks into the roles of NGOs, donor agencies, the local community and local authority in community development. All in all, it unlocks and makes way for effective poverty reduction strategies based on current perspectives which can be applied widely to handle MDGs and harmonize cooperation among the key actors: civil society, the governments, and people.

Scope and Limitations

This study was conducted in Teuk Phos District, Kampong Chhnang Province, Cambodia using the selected NGO, the Lutheran World Federation Cambodia. Lutheran World Federation Cambodia is a program of the Lutheran World

Federation/Department of World Services on humanitarian relief which has operated its evolving projects since post Pol Pot regime, 1979. This makes it one of the first and oldest international NGOs in Cambodia. Another reason is that LWF implements a distinguish and unique project called Integrated Rural Development through Empowerment Project that involves eight elements namely Basic health and HIV/AIDS, Disaster preparedness, Community development, Human rights and Advocacy, Environment, Income generation, Food security, and Education. These elements are concentrated in three bases of Integrated, Right based and Empowerment approaches. In this respect, it makes LWF the first and only NGO using integrated approach through empowerment whose implementation is community based.

The selected site is one of the most vulnerable zones to poverty in rural Cambodia, especially, requiring social, financial and human resources in order to strengthen self-reliance and control. The area is geographically poor and weak in terms of many aspects, i.e., human rights abuse, illiteracy, environmental degradation caused by humans, natural disasters and so on.

Since IRDEP is comprised of three different approaches—it is rights-based, empowerment-centered, and integrated. This study selects only the empowerment approach because it is the focus of the project and is a new mechanism evolving in the development program in Cambodia. There are many aspects to concentrate on but the study tends to program effectiveness from the viewpoint of degree of satisfaction, objective attainment, and perception and well being of the people in Teuk Phos.

SECTION II

Overview of Related Cases

The complex theoretical framework of this study is based on definitions and concepts of the dynamics of community and local development theory, rural development, empowerment theory, government and NGO partnership theory, NGOs in development theory, and local sustainability theory. The theories are discussed within regards to previous case studies and practices reported in discipline of empowerment. By putting together the essential elements of these theories and frameworks, the research advances to a convergence model of empowerment in IRDEP implemented by the LWF and how it reflects sustainable community development.

Development theory

Over time ‘development’ has carried very different meanings. The term ‘development’ in its present sense dates from the postwar era of modern development thinking. The lineages of development are quite mixed. It includes the application of science and technology to collective organization, but also managing the changes that rise from the application of technology. Development virtually from the outset has included an element of reflexivity. It ranges from infrastructure works (roads, railways, dams, canals, ports) to industrial policy, the welfare state, new economic policy, colonial economics and Keynesian demand management (Pieterse, 2001b, p. 5-7). An overview of meaning of development over time is presented in Table 2.1 (Pieterse, op cit., p. 7).

Period	Perspectives	Meanings of development
1870>	Latecomers	Industrialization, catching-up
1850>	Colonial economics	Resource management, trusteeship
1940>	Development economics	Economic (growth) – industrialization
1950>	Modernization theory	Growth, political & social modernization
1960>	Dependency theory	Accumulation – national, autocentric
1970>	Alternative development	Human flourishing
1980>	Human development	Capacitation, enlargement of people’s choices
1980>	Neoliberalism	Economic growth – structural reform, deregulation, liberalization, privatization
1990>	Post-development	Authoritarian engineering, disaster

Table 2.1 *Meanings of ‘development’ over time*

This table shows that ‘development’ as a whole has been changing through time and the context of human society. In the 1990s, development was considered to have reached a stage of ‘post-development or anti-development’, that is, there were supposed to be no negative substantial changes and disasters happening in the process of development. In contrast, another new concept of development emerged as a lasting tool and thrived to cure post-development thinking in order to maintain the world economically and environmentally during the late 1980s. Contemporarily it has affected many new development ideas and projects regionally and locally such as the concept of this particular research study in local community sustainability in rural development.

Rural Development theory

The concept of rural development has changed significantly during the last three decades. Until the 1970s, rural development was synonymous with agricultural development and, hence, focused on increasing agricultural production (Harris, 1982; Chambers, 1983; Asian Development Bank, 2000a). By the early 1980s, according to Harris (1982, p. 15), the World Bank defined it as "...a strategy designed to improve the economic and social life of a specific group of people – the rural poor." Four major factors appear to have influenced the change: increased concerns about the persistent and deepening of rural poverty, changing views on the meaning of the concept of development itself, emergence of a more diversified rural economy in which rural non-farm enterprises play an increasingly important role, and increased recognition of the importance of reducing the non-income dimensions of poverty to achieve sustainable improvements in the socio-economic well-being of the poor. Chino (2000, p. xiii) added that today's concept of rural development is fundamentally different from that used three or four decades ago. The concept now encompasses "concerns that go well beyond improvements in growth, income, and output. The concerns include an assessment of changes in the quality of life, broadly defined to include improvement in health and nutrition, education, environmentally safe living conditions, and reduction in gender and income inequalities." Fernando (2008) points to inclusive rural development which covers three different but interrelated dimensions (Figure 2.1): economic, social, and political.

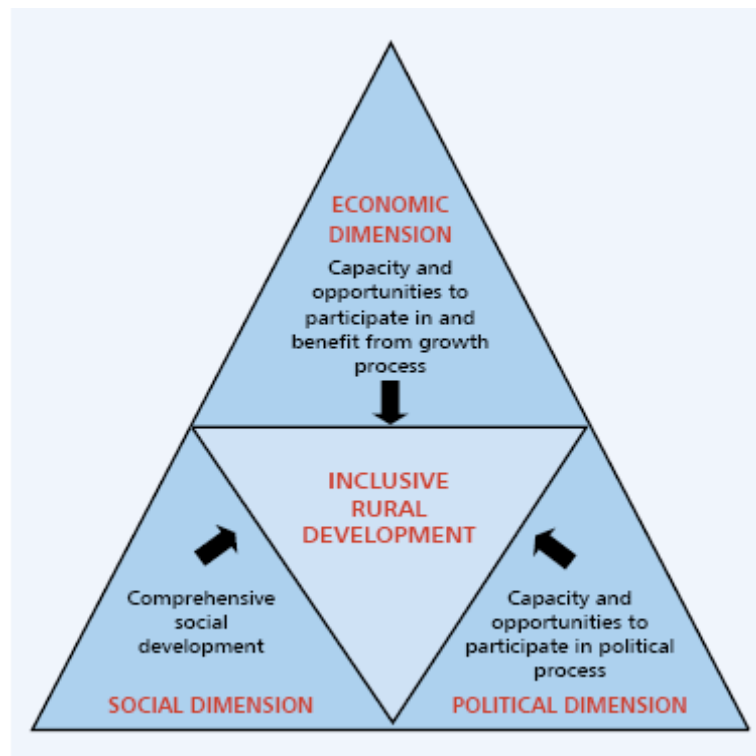


Figure 2.1. Three dimensions of inclusive rural development (Fernando, 2008)

This figure illustrates the elements necessary for empowerment programmes which engage in growth, capacity enhancement, competency improvement, and opportunities. It also distinguishes approaches from the developing world to promote rural development. China, for example, attempts to identify farmer innovation and

self-organization as an approach to sustainability (Wu, 2003, p. 7). It refers to sustainable rural livelihoods (SRL) precisely. According to Wu (2003), the term farmer innovation here is used to emphasize the nature of the farmer as the first actor of rural technological and social change. Bearing in mind the interrelationship between technical and institutional changes, farmer innovation is defined narrowly as a technological change selected and determined by farmers *per se* (p. 24). Wu asserted that the term *self-organization* is a concept that usually encompasses not only organizational forms dominated by farmers themselves, but also an organizational (or evolutionary) process from simple to complex, from informal to formal. Originating from Nobel Laureate Ilya Prigogine's work on thermodynamic system and complexity (Nicolis & Prigogine, 1977; Prigogine & Stengers, 1985), self-organization has been increasingly fashionable in systems research (Silverberg et al, 1988; Krugman, 1996). Defined as "the capability of some systems to reorder themselves into ever more complex structure" (Rycroft and Kash, 1999, p. 61), self-organization has been widely applied to interpreting the complexity related to information technology and the economy. Linking to Wu's strategy, Carney (1998) agrees that instead of a single dimension, what is needed is an integrated approach:

A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its assets and capabilities, whilst not undermining the natural resource base (p. 4).

It is widely recognized that livelihoods comprise five basic capital assets that serve different functions in satisfying basic needs (Carney, 1998; Pretty and Ward, 2001). They are:

- *Natural capital*: various natural resources or processes that can be used for food, wood, clean water, recreation and leisure.
- *Social capital*: trust, reciprocity and obligation, norms and sanctions that encourage people working together.
- *Human capital*: related to individual capability, health, nutrition, education, skills and knowledge.
- *Physical capital*: for example, local infrastructure, road and irrigation systems, farm machines.
- *Financial capital*: for example, savings, credit and subsidies.

Integrating the five capitals together, Pretty and Hine (2001) establish an asset based model for sustainable rural livelihood, showing that these five assets are transformed by policies, processes and institutions to give desirable outcomes such as food, job, welfare, economic growth, and a clean environment.

Regarding China's both technological applications and development potential in the rural Shaanxi area, the government has highlighted agricultural innovation as the core of its poverty-alleviation programme (Wu, 2003). Accordingly, Wu added the government innovation strategy contains many objectives related to grain and income growth and improvement of the ecological environment. It reveals a concentration on innovation strategy for farmer participation. In contrast to the traditional farmland-extensive agriculture (FEA) in the north, the rural innovation strategy comprises the following elements: infrastructure development, high-yield agriculture and pillar industry (Wu, 2003, p. 70). It is widely recognized that poor infrastructure is a

bottleneck against technological diffusion and applications. A good example is the construction of terraces, which has been listed as a main target of the poverty-alleviation programme. Associated with improvement of cropland quality, the transformation of the traditional farming system is equally important because the outputs and effect of high-quality land are largely dependent on the inputs of production elements. Instead of low labour and external element inputs in the traditional FEA, highly efficient agriculture (HEA) emphasizes intensive element inputs and cropping management through a package of wide-furrows, high-yield seeds, fertilizers, plastic sheet and subsidized credit. Finally, uneven development in rural Shaanxi seems to suggest the necessity of a broad institutional approach to address the urban economic and political institutions. In this respect, it requires focus on agricultural development strategy by farmers' participation and self-organization as initiatives to cope with rural development.

Similarly, this research uses integrated rural development concepts to examining methods to empower poor people along with the eight different economic, social and political elements. Furthermore, the study assumes the strategic importance of combining key development stakeholders, including NGOs and local authorities, to work together with a consensus on integration of components in the selected local communities by empowering them to be self-sustained. It creates another model of rural development towards approaching poverty-reduction in the 21st century.

Community/Local Development theory

In some situations development is used as a synonym for growth. When used without reference to quality or consequences, development may be good or bad. However, Cook (1994) argued that "in the context of community development, development is a concept associated with improvement and it is a certain type of change in a positive direction" (para. 2). Though, he said the consequences of efforts to bring about development might not be positive, the objective is always positive. He added that development's distinguishing characteristic is that it focuses on a unit called 'community' and induce non-reversible structural change. To stabilize preferred situation of structural change, he suggested of use of paid professionals/workers, initiation by groups, agencies or institutions external to the community unit, emphasize public participation, participation for the purpose of self-help, increasing dependence on participatory democracy as the mode for community (public) decision-making, and use a holistic approach.

As an emerging profession, community development is distinguished from social work and allied welfare professions through its commitment to collective ways of addressing problems (Gilchrist, 2004). That is, community development helps community members to identify unmet needs and to undertake research on the problem and present possible solutions. Initially this may be on a self-help basis (relating to one sense of empowerment), pioneering different ways of addressing a particular issue. As Gilchrist continued, if this is successful and demand grows, the community worker would assist group members to establish the initiative on a more secure footing, with a formal management committee, constitution, funding arrangements and paid staff (p. 21). It will involve direct support of individuals as well as help with managing group dynamics and developing appropriate organizational structures. Overall, community development is primarily concerned

with meeting the needs and aspirations of community members whose circumstances have left them poorly provided for, often without adequate services, with limited means to organize and exclusion from mainstream opportunities to participate in activities or decision making (Gilchrist, 2004, p.21). Community development seeks to build collective capacity by improving skills, confidence and knowledge for individuals and the community as a whole. It urges use of evolving approaches through time to deal with the needs of the community, sometimes by supporting informal networks as well as formal organizations.

In the UK, there are three different models of community development, each related to contrasting political analyses of society and the state (Gilchrist, 2004, p. 23). The first approach assumes that there is a broad *consensus* about social issues, how they can be tackled and how society in general should be organized. Within this model, state-sponsored community development projects have been devised to encourage local responsibility for self-help activities, to facilitate the delivery of welfare services particularly to marginalized section of the population, and to support community 'user' involvement in democratic processes or consultation and project management. Second, the *pluralist or liberal* model contains a stronger sense that society consists of different interest groups and that these compete to influence decision making. This approach acknowledges that some sections of the population are disadvantaged in this struggle and community development is seen as enhancing public decision making by enabling them to be heard. Lastly, the more *radical* version of community development explicitly identifies *conflicts of interest* within society and aligns itself with the poor and other oppressed groups (Baldock, 1977; Cooke & Shaw, 1996). It argues that the causes of poverty and disadvantage are to be found in the economic system and reflect historical patterns of exploitation embedded in social and political institutions.

In addition, the Federation of Community Work Training Groups (FCWTGs) based in the United Kingdom has been working for some years on the national occupational standard for community development work. Recently it identified the key purpose of community development work as "collectively to bring about social change and justice, by working with communities to:

- identify needs, opportunities, rights and responsibilities,
- plan, organize and take action,
- evaluate the effectiveness and impact of the action, all in ways that challenge oppression and tackle inequalities" (FCWTGs, 2002, p. 1)

What is more, Green and Haines (2002) refer community development as a planned effort to produce assets that increase the capacity of residents to improve their quality of life. They argue that there are five forms of community capital to focus on: human, social, physical, financial, and environmental capital. Their idea is to use this capital in the process of defined community development comprising of four stages: community organizing, visioning, planning, and implementation/evaluation. This approach is called 'asset building' for community development. Similar processes are concentrated on in the areas of this research. Community capital is being used in different aspects to improve each element accordingly.

However, the approach in practice has usually become less confrontational and more about compromise and negotiation, especially since the advent of partnership working

towards common interests, i.e., strategies for poverty alleviation. The political analyses from the above literature link the concept of community development to some extent with the involvement of outsiders. With the notions of structural change and positive growth inside the community, this study examines the impact of the entry of an external NGOs and their effect on empowering and promoting local development in developing countries.

Empowerment theory

This section, Parpart *et al* (2002) cited Amartya Sen's work (1995, 1990) on human capabilities, which stress empowerment as both a means and an end. It is a process of developing individual capacities through gaining education and skills in order to empower individuals to fight for a better quality of life. Sen sees poverty as an indication of the inability of people to meet their basic needs, whether physical or more intangible, through participation, empowerment and community life (Dreze and Sen, 1989). Writings on empowerment as an approach to development have continued to emerge in the alternative development literature, from the South. In 1994, Srilatha Batliwala warned that 'empowerment', which had virtually replaced terms such as poverty alleviation, welfare and community participation, was in danger of losing its transformative edge (p. 127). She called for a more precise understanding of both power and empowerment, one that sees power "as control over material assets, intellectual resources, and ideology" (p. 135). For Batliwala, empowerment is "the process of challenging existing power relations and of gaining greater control over the sources of power" (p. 138). This confronts the ideas of previous studies by Parpart *et al* in the understanding of empowerment.

Empowerment through NGOs

NGOs' ability to 'empower' individuals and communities has been an important part of the enthusiasm with which NGOs have been greeted (Willis, 2005, p. 102). Rowlands (1997, 1998) has highlighted, 'empowerment' as having become one of the key buzzwords in development policy since the early 1990s, but it is a term with diverse and contested meanings. At the heart of the concept is the idea of having greater power and therefore more control over one's own life, but as Rowlands stresses, this does not recognize the different ways in which 'power' can be defined.

Willis (2005) also mentioned that the kind of power that we often think about is the power to be able to get other people to do what we want, or the power that other people have to make us do something. This can be termed 'power over' and is often regarded as the most important form of power because it is associated with processes of marginalization and exclusion through which groups are portrayed as 'powerless'. However, there are other dimensions of power that can be identified and which should be considered as part of the development process. Rowlands (1997, 1998) terms these 'power to', 'power with' and 'power within' (Box 2.1). All of these forms of power are linked, but a recognition of the diversity of power beyond 'power over', helps in the construction of policies and programmes to assist the 'powerless'.

A key element of 'empowerment' as a development outcome is what forms of intervention can lead to 'empowerment'. It is often claimed that NGOs can 'empower' communities but in reality this is not the case. This is because empowerment is

something that comes from within (Townsend et al, 1999). While NGOs may be able to provide a context within which a process of empowerment is possible, it is only individuals who can choose to take those opportunities and to use them. For example, illiteracy is often regarded as an obstacle to participation in wage work and political life. NGOs may be able to provide facilities and teachers to help individuals develop their literacy skills, but individuals themselves have to want to participate and to use their newly-acquired skills. This does not mean that disadvantage and exclusion are the fault of individuals, there are clearly structural constraints, but it does mean that NGOs cannot be viewed as direct channels for empowerment; rather they can help set up conditions within which individuals and group can empower themselves.

Box 2.1

Dimensions of power

Power over The ability to dominate. This form of power is finite, so that if someone obtains more power then it automatically leads to someone else having less power.

Power to The ability to see possibilities for change.

Power with The power that comes from individuals working together collectively to achieve common goals.

Power within Feelings of self-worth and self-esteem that come from within individuals.

Source: adapted from Rowlands (1997, 1998)

Staudt *et al* (2002) conclude that the empowerment serves as a local grassroots catalyst creating dreams among poor people. In international organizations, “empowerment has become the new adjective that embellishes many education, income generation, and service projects” (p. 240). For this study, empowerment is measured using eight components and four World Bank’s indicators.

The World Bank’s practice

The World Bank is among the international organizations that have rather significantly altered their development strategies in response to the call for ‘grassroots empowerment’ (Stiles, 2000, p. 114). Relatively few efforts have been made to systematically measure and track empowerment at the local level. In particular, one attempt was to make headway on improving development processes and outcomes in a community-driven development (CDD) project. They used a mixed-methods approach to analyze local level conflict management spillovers from a CDD project in Indonesia (World Bank, 2006b, p. 172). The country case team chose to analyze empowerment through conflicts, as they represent one critical context in which power relations are played out. The study defined and tracked five basic types of conflict case studies: political office seeking, vigilantism, domestic violence, contested public resources, and publicly administered projects (p. 177). The effort to measure empowerment in Indonesia formed part of a larger piece of research which included an assessment of the impact of the Kecamatan Development Project on communities’ ability to manage local conflict. Similarly, research using community development through empowerment approaches by NGOs is similar to measuring impacts and to what extent the NGO is empowering and promoting the development of a rural

community. The analysis is based on four indicators of the World Bank (2002).
Empowerment Indicators by the World Bank (2002)

The World Development Report (World Bank, 2000b) and the Voices of the Poor study (World Bank, 2001b) establish that across very different social, cultural, economic, and political contexts, the common elements that underlie poor people's exclusion are voicelessness and powerlessness. Confronted with unequal power relations, poor people are unable to influence or negotiate better terms for themselves with traders, financiers, governments, and civil society. This severely constrains their capability to build their assets and rise out of poverty. Empowerment is the most appropriate strategy to cope with these issues.

The following section first sets forth a *definition of empowerment* and then identifies *four elements* (World Bank, 2002) that appear – singly or in combination – in most successful attempts to empower poor people (p. 10).

Defining empowerment

The World Bank tries to explain that an exploration of local terms associated with empowerment around the world always leads to lively discussion. These terms include self-strength, control, self-power, self-reliance, own choice, life of dignity in accordance with one's values, capable of fighting for one's rights, independence, own decision making, being free, awakening, and capability – to mention only a few. These definitions are embedded in local value and belief systems.

In its broadest sense, the WB indicates empowerment is the expansion of freedom of choice and action. It means increasing one's authority and control over the resources and decisions that affect one's life. As people exercise real choice, they gain increased control over their lives. Poor people's choices are extremely limited, both by their lack of assets and by their powerlessness to negotiate better terms for themselves with a range of institutions, both formal and informal. Since powerlessness is embedded in the nature of institutional relations, in the context of poverty reduction an institution definition of empowerment is appropriate.

“Empowerment is the expansion of assets and capabilities of poor people to participate in, negotiate with, influence, control, and hold accountable institutions that affect their lives” (World Bank, 2002, p. 11).

Poor people's assets and capabilities

The World Bank (2002) asserts that poor women and men need a range of assets and capabilities to increase their wellbeing and security, as well as their self-confidence, so they can negotiate with those more powerful. Because poverty is multidimensional, so are these assets and capabilities. “Assets” refers to material assets, both physical and financial. Such assets – including land, housing, livestock, savings, and jewelry – enable people to withstand shocks and expand their horizon of choices. The extreme limitation of poor people's physical and financial assets severely constrains their capacity to negotiate fair deals for themselves and increases their vulnerability. Capabilities, on the other hand, are inherent in people and enable them to use their assets in different ways to increase their wellbeing. Human capabilities

include good health, education, and production or other life-enhancing skills. Social capabilities include social belonging, leadership, relations of trust, a sense of identity, values that give meaning to life, and the capacity to organize. Political capability includes the capacity to represent oneself or others, access information, form associations, and participate in the political life of a community or country.

For poor people, the capacity to organize and mobilize to solve problems is a critical collective capability that helps them overcome problems of limited resources and marginalization in society. Social capital, the norms and networks that enable collective action, allows poor people to increase their access to resources and economic opportunities, obtain basic services, and participate in local governance. Poor people are often high in “bonding” social capital – close ties and high levels of trust with others like themselves. These close ties help them cope with their poverty. There are important gender differences in social capital (Narayan and Shah, 2000). Sometimes poor people’s groups establish ties with other group unlike themselves, creating “bridge” relations to new resources managed by other groups. Traditionally these ties have been unequal, as in patron-client relations. When poor people’s organizations link up or bridge with organizations of the state, civil society, or the private sector, they are able to access additional resources and participate more fully in society.

No single model of empowerment

Institutional strategies to empower poor people will necessarily vary. Stated by the World Bank (2002), “Strategies to enable poor women to inherit property will differ from strategies to make local schools accountable to parents or to have poor people’s concerns reflected in national budgets” (p. 14). Each of these in turn will vary depending on the political, institutional, cultural, and social context. Strategies also evolve and change over time in any given context. With time, there is generally a movement away from reliance on informal mechanisms toward formal mechanisms, and from direct and more time-intensive forms of participation towards indirect forms of participation. The latter include market mechanisms and paying fees for services rather than co-management.

The challenge, then, is to identify *key elements of empowerment* that recur consistently across social, institutional, and political contexts. Institutional design must then focus on incorporating these elements or principles of empowerment.

Four elements of empowerment (World Bank, 2002, p. 14)

According to the World Bank, there are thousands of examples of empowerment strategies that have been initiated by poor people themselves and by governments, civil society, and the private sector. Successful efforts to empower poor people, increasing their freedom of choice and action in different contexts, often share four elements:

- Access to information
- Inclusion and participation
- Accountability
- Local organizational capacity

While these four elements are discussed separately, they are closely intertwined and act in synergy (World Bank, 2001a). Thus although access to timely information about programs, or about government performance or corruption, is a necessary precondition for action, poor people or citizens more broadly may not take action because there are no institutional mechanisms that demand accountable performance or because the costs of individual action may be too high. Similarly, experience show that poor people do not participate in activities when they know their participation will make no difference to products being offered or decisions made because there are no mechanisms for holding providers accountable. Even where there are strong local organizations, they may still be disconnected from local governments and the private sector, and lack access to information.

Access to information

Information is power. Informed citizens are better equipped to take advantage of opportunities, access services, exercise their rights, negotiate effectively, and hold state and nonstate actors accountable. Without information that is relevant, timely, and presented in forms that can be understood, it is impossible for poor people to take effective action. Information dissemination does not stop with the written word, but also includes group discussions, poetry, storytelling, debates, street theater, and soap operas – among other culturally appropriate forms – and uses a variety of media including radio, television, and the Internet. Laws about rights to information and freedom of the press, particularly local press in local languages, provide the enabling environment for the emergence of informed citizen action. Timely access to information in local languages from independent sources at the local level is particularly important, as more and more countries devolve authority to local government. According to the World Bank (2001a), a study of decentralized governance in the Philippines and Uganda found that the absence of local media and press coverage of local government activities left citizens dependant on local leaders and officials for information. People had more independent information from the media about national government policies and activities than about their local governments. Uninformed people cannot hold governments accountable.

Inclusion and participation

The World Bank (2002) explains ‘inclusion’ focuses on the *who* question: Who is included? ‘Participation’ addresses the question of *how* they are included and the role they play once included. Inclusion of poor people and other traditionally excluded groups in priority setting and decision making is critical to ensure that limited public services build on local knowledge and priorities, and to build commitment to change. However, an effort to sustain inclusion and informed participation usually requires changing the rules so as to create space for people to debate issues and participate directly or indirectly in local and national priority setting, budget formation, and delivery of basic services. Participatory decision making is not always harmonious and priorities may be contested, so conflict resolution mechanisms need to be in place to manage disagreements.

Sustaining poor people’s participation in societies with deeply entrenched norms of exclusion or in multiethnic societies with a history of conflict is a complex

process that requires resources, facilitation, sustained vigilance, and experimentation. The tendency among most government agencies is to revert to centralized decision making, to hold endless public meetings without any impact on policy or resource decisions. Participation then becomes yet another cost imposed on poor people without any returns.

Participation can take different forms. At the local level, depending on the issue, participation may be:

- direct;
- representational, by selecting representatives from membership-based groups and associations;
- political, through elected representatives;
- information-based, with data aggregated and reported directly or through intermediaries to local and national decision makers.
- based on competitive market mechanisms, for example by removing restrictions and other barriers, increasing choice about what people can grow or to whom they can sell, or by payment for services selected and received.

Among the four elements of empowerment, participation of poor people is the most developed in Bank projects and increasingly also in preparation of Bank Country Assistance Strategies (CAS). In low-income countries, the process of preparing Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) has opened new opportunities for broad-based participation by poor people, citizens' groups, and private sector groups in national priority setting and policy making.

Accountability

Accountability refers to the ability to call public officials, private employers or service providers to account, requiring that they be answerable for their policies, actions and use of funds. Widespread corruption, defined as the abuse of public office for private gain, hurts poor people the most because they are the least likely to have direct access to officials and the least able to use connections to get services; they also have the fewest options to use private services as an alternative. Corruption is a regressive tax on the poor. A study in Ecuador found that as a proportion of their revenue, micro businesses paid four times as much in bribes as did large firms. The bribe cost to poor households was triple the cost to high-income households (Kaufmann *et al*, 2000).

There are three main types of accountability mechanisms: political, administrative and public. Political accountability of political parties and representatives is increasingly through elections. Administrative accountability of government agencies is through internal accountability mechanisms, both horizontal and vertical within and between agencies. Public or social accountability mechanisms hold government agencies accountable to citizens. Citizen action or social accountability can reinforce political and administrative accountability mechanisms.

A range of tools exists to ensure greater accounting to citizens for public actions and outcomes. Access to information by citizens builds pressure for improved governance and accountability, whether in setting priorities for national expenditure, providing access to quality schools, ensuring that roads once financed actually get

built, or seeing to it that medicines are actually delivered and available in clinics. Access to laws and impartial justice is also critical to protect the rights of poor people and pro-poor coalitions and to enable them to demand accountability, whether from their governments or from private sector institutions.

Accountability for public resources at all levels can also be ensured through transparent fiscal management and by offering users choice in services. At the community level, for example, this includes giving poor groups choice and the funds to purchase technical assistance from any provider rather than requiring them to accept technical assistance provided by government. Fiscal discipline can be imposed by setting limits and reducing subsidies over time. Contractor accountability is ensured when poor people decide whether the service was delivered as contracted and whether the contractor should be paid. When poor people can hold providers accountable, control and power shifts to them. For instance, an incentive analysis of strategies to combat corruption at the local level in the Kecamatan Development Project (KDP) in Indonesia concludes that effective incentives to curb corruption include easy public access to information, particularly financial information, use of local social norms and social institutions to stigmatize misuse and resolve conflicts, and socialization of communities and facilitators to understand their rights and become vigilant agents of anti-corruption. The KDP funds pass through fewer intermediaries with less red tape than elsewhere, and authority and control over resources is given to local communities rather than directly to contractors. On average projects cost 20-30% less than other projects (Woodhouse, 2002).

Local organizational capacity

Since time immemorial, groups and communities have organized to take care of themselves. Local organizational capacity refers to the ability of people to work together, organize themselves, and mobilize resources to solve problems of common interest. Often outside the reach of formal systems, poor people turn to each other for support and strength to solve their everyday problems. Poor people's organizations are often informal, as in the case of a group of women who lend each other money or rice. They may also be formal, with or without legal registration, as in the case of farmers' groups or neighborhood clubs. Around the world, including in war-torn societies, the capacity of communities to make rational decisions, manage funds, and solve problems is greater than generally assumed, for instance the case of in-depth study of 48 villages across Indonesia (Chandrakirana, 1999). Organized communities are more likely to have their voices heard and their demands met than communities with little organization. Poor people's membership-based organizations may be highly effective in meeting survival needs, but they are constrained by limited resources and technical knowledge. In addition, they often lack bridging and linking social capital, that is, they may not be connected to other groups unlike themselves or to the resources of civil society or the state. It is only when groups connect with each other across communities and form networks or associations – eventually becoming large federations with a regional or national presence – that they begin to influence government decision making and gain collective bargaining power with suppliers of raw materials, buyers, and financiers.

Local organizational capacity is key for development effectiveness. Krishna et al (1997) proofed a conclusion that a “critical success factor is creating organizational

capabilities at local levels that can mobilize and manage resources effectively for the benefit of the many rather than just the few". Poor people's organizations, associations, federations, networks, and social movements are key players in the institutional landscape.

Partnership (Government, NGO, donors) theory

According to Pieterse (2001a), after development thinking has been more or less successively, state-led, market-led and society-led, it is increasingly understood that development action needs all of these in new combinations. New perspectives and problems (such as complex emergencies, humanitarian action) increasingly involve cooperation among government, civic and international organizations, and market forces. Human development, social choice, public action, and urban/rural development all involve such intersectoral partnerships. For government at local and national levels, this increasingly involves a coordinating roles facilitator and enabler of intersectoral cooperation.

Much of the interest in partnership in development circles since the 1990s has been aimed at seeking to build links between the work of government agencies and NGOs in development projects (Farrington & Bebbington, 1993). Brown & Ashman (1996) also suggest that cooperation between government and NGOs needs to span gaps of culture, power, resources and perspective if they are to be successful. In broad terms, the creation of partnerships is seen as a way of making more efficient use of scarce resources, increasing institutional sustainability and improving beneficiary participation. Lewis (2007, p. 93) added that, at a more general level, creating links between government agencies and NGOs may have implications for strengthening transparency in administration and challenging prevailing top-down institutional culture, both of which may contribute to the strengthening of the wider 'civil society'. Both NGOs and government tend to cooperate and support each other in the context of local rural community projects, though there is a concept of *efficiency* which argues that NGOs provide services more effectively than government agencies can (Smith, 1987) and, *intensiveness*, that NGOs are able to generate self-sufficient, self-reliant and sustainable interventions for local communities. There are many arguments regarding the NGO-government partnership; in the case of this (proposed) study, local authority has been playing facilitating and supporting roles for the NGO projects in the community. The NGO is project-based, implementing interactions with the community without having to overcome positions or policies taken by the authority, thus helping to smooth the way for development.

NGOs in Development theory

This section focuses on what development NGOs actually do, and argues that what they do can be summarized broadly in terms of three main overlapping sets of roles: those of *implementers*, *catalysts* and *partners* (Lewis, 2007, p. 88). Kilby (2000) agrees NGOs pursue a wide range of objectives (relief, development, advocacy, empowerment) through a variety of methods (direct action, funding, lobbying, networking). Of course, each role is not confined to a single organization, since an NGO may engage in all three groups of activities at once, or it may shift its emphasis from one to the other over time or as contexts and opportunities change.

The *implementer* role is defined as the mobilization of resources to provide goods and services, either as part of the NGO's own project or programme or that of a government or donor agency (Carroll, 1992; Chambers, 1987; Bebbington, 1991; Kaimowitz, 1993). It covers many of the best known tasks carried out by NGOs and includes the programmes and projects which NGOs establish to provide services to people (such as healthcare, credit, agricultural extension, legal advice or emergency relief) and react quickly to local demand (Green and Matthias, 1995) as well as the growth of 'contracting', in which NGOs are engaged by government or donors to carry out specific tasks in return for payment. The role of *catalyst* is defined as an NGO's ability to inspire, facilitate or contribute towards developmental change among other actors at the organizational or the individual level. This includes grassroots organizing and group formation (and building 'social capital') (Thomas, 1992; Putnam, 1993), empowerment approaches to development (Rowlands, 1995; Friedmann, 1992), lobbying and advocacy work (Korten, 1990; Covey, 1995; Rooy, 1997), innovation in which NGOs seek to influence wider policy processes, and general campaigning work. The role of *partner* encompasses the growing trend for NGOs to work with government, donors and the private sector on joint activities (DFID, 1997; World Bank, 1996; Farrington & Bebbington, 1993), as well as the complex relationships which have emerged among NGOs, such as 'capacity building'. The new rhetoric of *partnership* now poses a challenge for NGOs to build meaningful partnership relationships and avoid dependency, co-optation and goal displacement. All in all, NGOs in rural communities operate with a distinguished (clear, focused) viewpoint. They study the areas, tradition, situation, and need of the people so that they can formulate goals which find a way out of poverty and offer lasting self-help approaches even without further assistance of NGOs in the future. Additionally, in reality, most governments of least developed countries seemed stuck in long-term power-holding relationships with dictators and corrupt officials. The rise of NGOs to help the people is a good start in development locally and in offering alternatives to unresponsive government.

Local Sustainability theory

Local sustainability is likely to follow the general perspectives of sustainable development as a core. Custance & Hillier (1998) agree that sustainability development lies at the heart of government's policies, meaning to achieve a balance between three broad objectives – maintenance of economic growth, protection of the environment and prudent use of natural resources, and social progress which recognizes the needs of everyone.

What is 'sustainable development'?

There are some aspirational statements on this theme, the most commonly quoted being Brundtland's: "development which meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (in Custance & Hillier, 1998, p. 281f).

Refining this notion of sustainability, Heal (1998, pp. 14) outlines what he considers to be the essence of sustainability: "We have now outlined earlier approaches to sustainability, their limitations, and the intuitions and concerns behind this concept. The time has come to build on this. I suggest here, and argue in detail

below, that the essence of sustainability lies in three axioms:

- A treatment of the present and the future that places a positive value on the very long run;
- Recognition of all the ways in which environmental assets contribute to economic well-being;
- Recognition of the constraints implied by the dynamics of environmental assets”.

Based on Custance & Hillier’s ideas, additionally, OECD’s (2000) sustainability consists of three dimensions which interact among each and with each dimension’s individual indicators, namely economic, social, and political dimensions. The following frameworks detail the relationship between this view of sustainability and implementation of the research itself, socially, politically, environmentally, and economically.

Theoretical Framework

By narrowing the concept of sustainable development in the international arena into local sustainability within the context of community development, the framework for this research moves from development theory *per se* to local community development theory: The roles implemented by NGOs with assistance of the local authority’s policies have the potential to elevate local sustainability for rural poor to the highest criterion for empowerment approach.

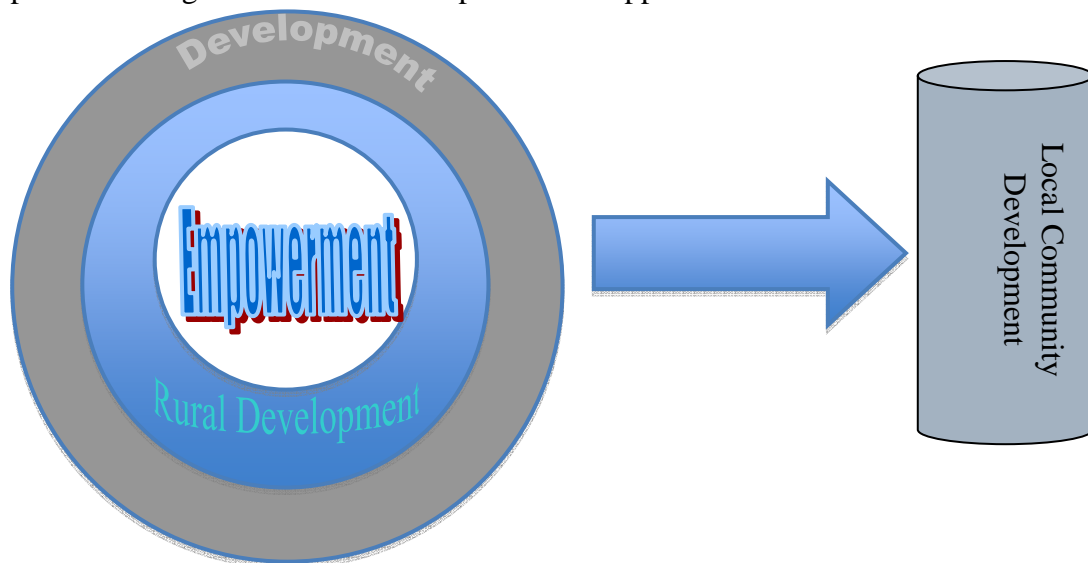


Figure 2.2. Theoretical framework for the study

Every element of theories embedded within this study connects within a chain framework for local community development. A representation of this framework, Figure 2.2, shows the relationship and interaction of theories which flow towards supporting one common end: effectiveness leads to sustainability in community development.

Conceptual Framework

Similarly, the following figure shows the directional conception of this study intended to answer the research questions, as well as achieve the objectives of the study.

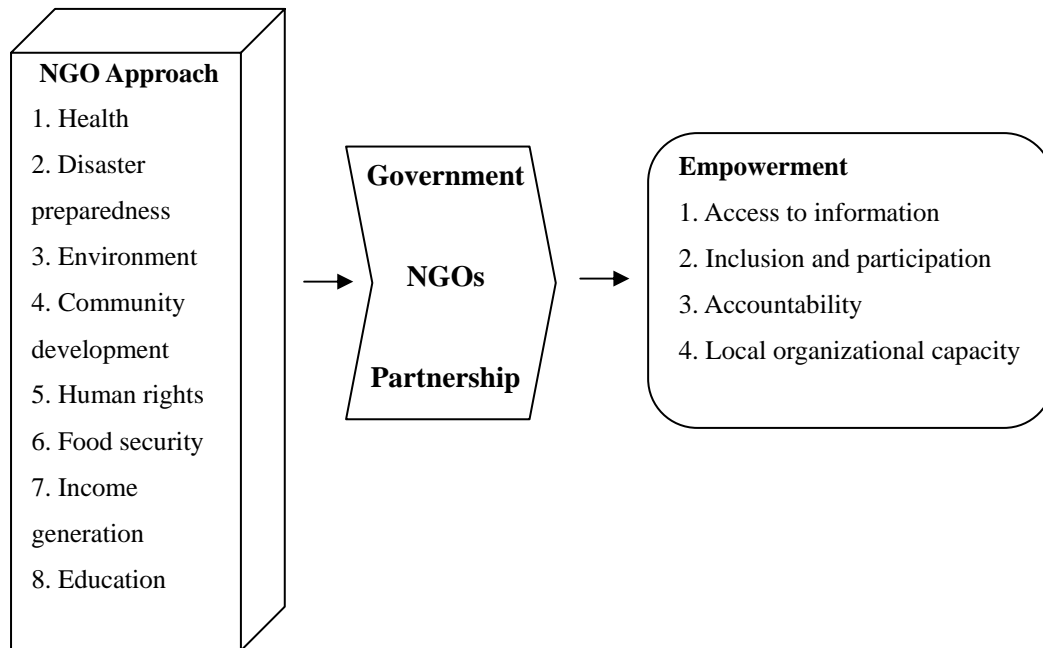


Figure 2.3. Conceptual framework of the study

Assumptions

The community is empowered if the following are perceived to exist in the community:

1. Level of Access to information is high,
2. Level of inclusion and participation is high,
3. People are able to hold concerned individual and organizations for accountability, and
4. Local organizational capacity is strong.

SECTION III

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

The research was an ex-post facto case study, hence there is need of using comparative data of pre-LWF and post-LWF project implementation. Thus, this study paid special attention to comparison between how the status of rural area prior to the entry of LWF and the situation after LWF's emergence, and the perception of the people towards each element of the project regarding level of empowerment in the community. To gather the needed data, fieldwork was conducted in the rural community, Teuk Phos District, using triangulation data collection technique. A *Questionnaire* was used to get perceptions and development status. *Observations* were conducted in order to double check the validity and confidence of the collected data. *Interviews* focusing on project implementation and the assessment of development were also employed. Ultimately, the data was analyzed as an empowerment assessment and presented in comparative format.

Methods of Data Gathering

Variables of the study

(a) *Independent variables* (LWF approach, Integrated Rural Development through Empowerment Project (IRDEP)): There were eight main components, such as community development, human rights, food security, income generation, health, education, environment, and disaster preparedness. Detail for each component is provided in Chapter 5 where IRDEP is examined in depth.

(b) *Dependent variables* (Local community development): In order to level the development status, empowerment indicators listed below measured the variable. Chapter 5 discusses local community development results in detail.

(c) *Intervening variables* (Government support and donor partnership): This relates the policies and cooperation of the central government and international organizations that intervene with the IRDEP and support its operations.

Empowerment Indicators

The indicators of empowerment used in this research are sourced from the World Bank's empowerment strategy (World Bank, 2002, p. 14), which was introduced in detail in Chapter 2. To measure the development of Teuk Phos community, the researcher is looking the following indicators:

- Access to the information
- Inclusion and participation
- Accountability; and
- Local organization capacity

The indicators will be discussed in Chapter 5 in regards to the approach's eight components.

Respondents of the study

153 People living in Teuk Phos were the main sources of information in this research and were drawn from six communes where the project was implemented. The 153 respondents were chosen from various backgrounds in order to get information and opinions from all levels of the people: heads of villages, committees, partner households, and simple families (Table 3.1). Usually level of education varied from high to low rank like so that heads of villages could read and write at a basic level while simple families could not. On the other hand, the living conditions of respondents were not widely different. They were farmers, raised animals, sold labour, and some families had their children go to Phnom Penh city as garment factory workers.

Table 3.1 also shows that 15 of LWF staff stationing in project site were interviewed along with local government officials and staffs of donors that have offices in the district. Most of them lived in Phnom Penh city and a few in other provinces, except the government officials and other NGOs staffs who were from Kampong Chhnang provincial town. Most of them were likely to have completed high school education before coming to work for the concerned organizations. Details of key informant are provided in the primary data section.

Table 3.1 *Description of respondents and key informants regarding gender, education,*

Variable	Category	Survey	Interview
Gender	Male	53	13
	Female	100	12
Education	Nonformal education	80	
	Primary school	41	
	Secondary school	25	
	High School	7	5
	University		20
Occupation	LWF's PM		1
	LWF's CEO		3
	LWF's CEF		11
	Other NGOs' staff		5
	Authorities		5
	VDC	15	
	Farmer	98	
	Self-employed	10	
	Seller	5	
	Teacher	7	
	Labour seller	13	
	Other	5	
	Total		153

and occupation through survey and interview

Note: PM – Project manager; CEO – Community empowerment officer; CEF – Community empowerment facilitator; VDC – Village development committee

Sampling Method

To obtain good quality data and ensure that there was no bias in the data collection, the researcher used a project site table (Appendix B) to apply a *simple random sampling* method in order to measure people's perception of their satisfaction over project implementation and current status. The table was prepared by LWF project's team stationed in Teuk Phos to classify the demographic status and types of families in the project area.

Sampling Size

Out of the six communes of Teuk Phos district, the researcher and assistants completed a questionnaire survey of 153 households. Therefore each commune provided at least 25 samples. Clear breakdown of samples according to areas is listed in Table 3.3. For validity of data, a sample of 153 informants and families were strategically selected to complete the survey in Akphivoadth, Cheib, Kbal Teuk, Krang Skear, Tang Krasang, and Toul Kpos commune. According to Table 3.1, key informants and families who were considered to be strategic representatives of each commune were selected and interviewed. They were Village Development Council, heads of village organizations, village development committees (VDCs), and partner households of LWF.

Several reasons guided selection of the households. First in order to know about the development status of the areas, persons in charge of the communes and villages were needed. Second, by approaching the households and simple families, perceptions of the people could be measured. Finally, it was considered important to observe the actual living standard of people in the whole area. This provided a better understanding of the reality rather than relying on reports of the project's staff.

The 15 LWF's staff, who were directly involve in the IRDEP implementation, monitoring and evaluation, as well as 5 government officials and 5 of other NGOs staffs were selected as key informants.

Data Collection

The research needs both primary and secondary data. The primary data was obtained using survey questionnaire, interview, and field observation from the people living in Teuk Phos and staff of LWF, other NGOs, and district officers. Secondary data was sourced from historical archives, annual reports, monitoring and planning documents of LWF about the statistical characteristics and baseline data of the project's site.

Primary Data

Triangulation data collection was used as a qualitative technique to get primary data for the research. It comprises three angles: Survey questionnaire, in-depth interview and field observation.

Survey of questionnaire (Appendix C) was created to measure project

components and empowerment indicators. It was designed to compare the past and present condition of the community and implementation of the project operation. It was designed to learn the perceptions of the people, how they view LWF, and their satisfaction and decision-making.

Questionnaires included three parts with 50 questions. The first part obtained general and basic information about respondents. The second (main) part included eight components of IRDEP in terms of access to information, participation, accountability, and organization capacity. The final part aimed to direct the respondent's perceptions about their overall view of LWF's project. The questionnaire was first designed in English with both open and closed options; it was translated into the Khmer language later on before distribution to respondents.

Before going to the field, 10 sets of pilot questionnaires were distributed to LWF's public relations coordinator to test whether they were suitable for the real actual survey and flexible enough to accept unexpected changes. The questionnaire was redesigned through comments from Project Manager (PM) of Teuk Phos making it more appropriate to the context of rural people.

Upon arrival in the field, the researcher contacted the LWF office in Teuk Phos for assisting the survey process. Advanced information was disseminated in order to decrease reluctance and be more confident in sharing information following of troubles created by political campaigns in the same area. However, after discussing the questionnaire and self-introduction from the staff, respondents were able to cooperate and gave permission to be interviewed. Mostly the survey was not completed by self-fillout because the respondent's literacy was not high enough to conduct the questionnaire in this way. A number of questions were simplified both in wording and answer choices. With this limitation in mind, the researcher interviewed the households following the questionnaire format. Because the survey was done by interviewing, the rate of return was high qualitatively and quantitatively. Through the experience in the field, the percentage of rate of return is estimated at least 90%.

Questionnaires were done within five working days because all assistants and staff needed to return to their homes most likely in Phnom Penh city after Friday afternoon. Likewise the researcher had some times to prepare interview sheets for the government officials and NGOs staff the following week after.

The interview gave awareness of how project carriers and facilitators view themselves in the roles of helping to better the lives of poor people and their own future vision of the project results when LWF withdraws. To fill out the blank regarding conditions of the community, 15 LWF's staff as well as five government officials and five NGOs staff were interviewed. Among the 15 staff were 11 Community Empowerment Facilitators (CEFs) who were responsible and involved with each village of the six communes. They were the ones who reported to the office and coordinated trainings. Any information regarding development of each commune was reported by CEFs. The management level interviews took place in the office of LWF in Teuk Phos community where three other Community Empowerment Officers (CEOs) gave their opinion and progress about the progress and nature of IRDEP and development. An in-depth interview pattern was conducted. CEOs were those who supervised CEFs and reported to PM. One PM was interviewed also and he was the

last one to provide information and offer secondary data for the researcher, including annual reports and evaluation documents. Furthermore, during the beginning of field research, the PM tried to manage assistants and staff and provide the researcher as much information as possible, including, for example, a Teuk Phos map (Appendix A), project site map, lists of households in each commune, tables of communes showing current status and more. Because of time availability, he could not provide a detailed and long interview with the researcher but he could overview the current condition as a part of the whole of project and cooperation between provincial government offices and other donors. The provision of such information has led to deeper understanding and insights about how strong and friendly partnerships overlap to support project or programme. This also made the operation of LWF in Teuk Phos much more genuinely interesting.

Five local government officials from the provincial department of education, department of environment, department of health, department of rural development, and one administrative police officer could provide related information to double check with LWF responses. The researcher noticed that local level government staffs tended to cooperate much more than expected given the ignorance from the ministries based in Phnom Penh city; moreover, local staff were helpful in providing district history and national development plan. Similarly, five other NGO staff working in Teuk Phos from AZEECON, Oxfam, LICADHO, Mlub Baitong, and ADHOC were additionally interviewed. Information regarding cooperation and partnership and how overlapping their programmes with IRDEP was given and checked for validity. This revealed as did LWF staffs describe.

Field observation by the researcher was able to double check the accuracy and validity of information about living conditions and development. This helped validate and ensure that the data was gathered correctly and effectively. During the field survey, the researcher observed the way people lived and shared information and experiences so that answers from questionnaires and interview could be verified. Field observations were used to assess the accuracy and reliability of data obtained from people about their ideas of sharing, their awareness of rights, level of expression, education level, infrastructure inside each commune, health services, public services, economic conditions, capacity building, and community organizations. These reflected the level of certainty and reliability of data. Likewise, 95% out of the 153 samples was eager to help while the other 5% was short of time and cooperation to share due to a common thought that there would be no use for them to response to the researcher. It was just wasting of time; they would have done other useful things to earn more rather than just staying home. The researcher observed that when talking about LWF's help, the 95% was having good condition in health, welfare, and education especially with their smile on the face. Regarding 15 staffs of LWF, they were cooperative and satisfied with their activities to assist because of the people's appreciation and gratefulness. The researcher could see warm greeting and well treat from the people in each village wherever had CEFs accompanied. As well as the other 5 officers from governmental agencies and 5 staffs of other NGOs, the same reaction was noticed because they replied with a pleasant remark that without LWF's initiative and partnership this community would be worse than before.

Secondary Data

The secondary data was considered necessary in backing up the primary data. Available studies and information included LWF annual reports, the current monitoring report and implementation progress reports, community and district archives, and LWF's head office database. Below (Table 3.2) is summary of data collection methods specified by objectives of the research.

	Respondent	Methods	Source	Information
Objective 1	LWF staff	Interview & document	Primary+Secondary data	Nature of the approach
Objective 2	LWF staff	Interview	Primary+Secondary data	IRDEP elements
Objective 3	-LWF Staff -NGOs -Gov't	Survey & interview	Primary data	Current status
Objective 4	People	Survey & Observation	Primary data	Perception
Objective 5	-LWF Staff -NGOs -Gov't	Interview	Primary data	Partnership
Objective 6				

Table 3.2 *Objective-oriented data collection methods*

Note: LWF-Lutheran World Federation Cambodia; NGOs-Nongovernmental organizations; Gov't-the Royal Government of Cambodia.

Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Distribution by Sampling area

As noted in methodology, the data was collected using simple random sampling in six communes accounted for 153 samples/respondents. Below are sample shares in each commune.

Location of sample	Number of sample collected	Percentage of total
Akphivoadth	25	16.3
Cheib	26	16.9
Kbal Teuk	27	17.6
Krang Skear	24	15.6
Tang Krasang	28	18.3
Toul Kpos	23	15.3
Total	153	100

es by sampling area

As shown in Table 3.3, there were 153 respondents selected from six communes of project area. Each location generated at least 23 samples and maximum of 28 samples.

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Distribution by Age and Sex

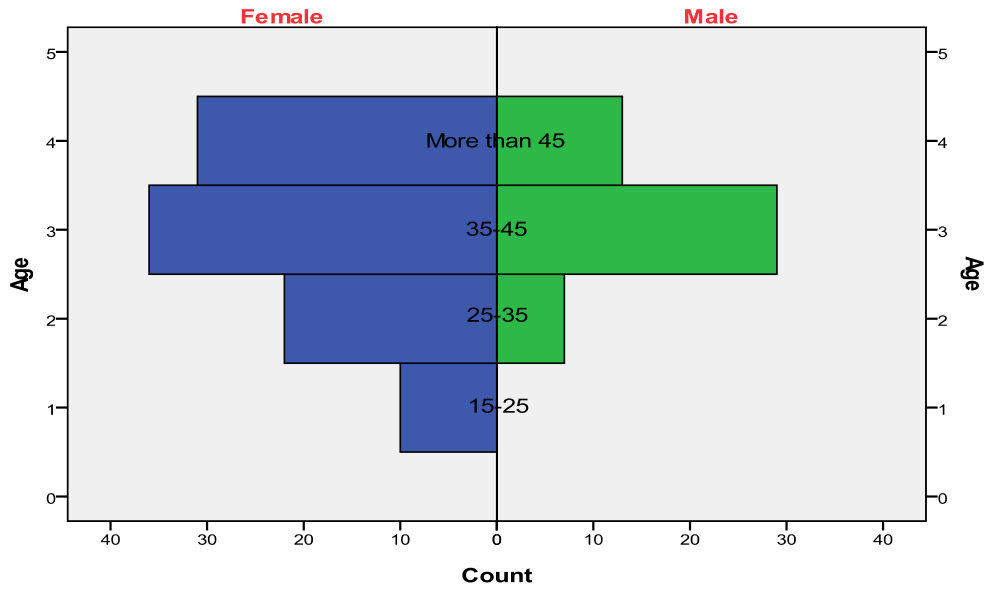


Figure 3.1. Distribution by age and sex

This figure shows the distribution of the 153 samples with 100 of women (67.1%) and 53 of men (32.9%). It is categorized into 4 age groups. The largest group are 35-45 years old and more than 45 age groups ranking 66 (43.4%) and 46 (30.3%) samples respectively, this means that the majority of samples is more than 35 years old and is likely to be heads of families. 26.3% of respondents are under 25 years old and the oldest age of all respondents is 59 years old.

Distribution by Marital Status

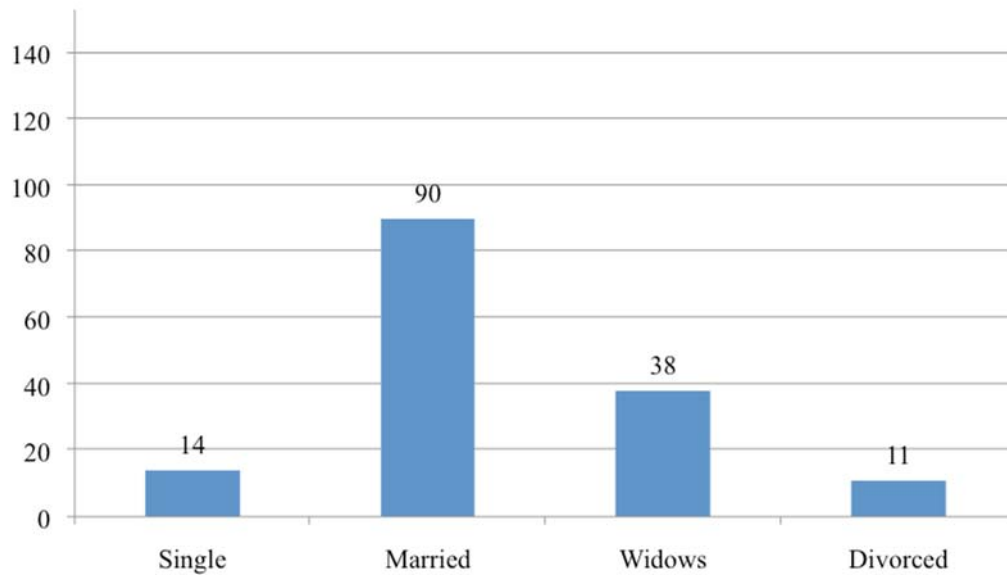


Figure 3.2. Distribution by marital status

The above figure shows that the majority of the respondents are married. They account for about 60% of the total samples. About 25% are widows and the rest are single or divorced.

In brief the main demographical profile of respondents is married and mature females who are more than 35 years old.

Data Analysis Technique/ Tools

In this research, there are two major types of analysis. The first type of analysis is the analysis tool is the descriptive analysis. The findings were analyzed using frequencies, tables, percentages, pie charts, bar charts, and histograms to describe, and explain people's perceptions and empowerment level in regard to the World Bank's indicators and IRDEP's elements. The second type of the analysis was comparative analysis that was used to compare the development status and conditions in the community before and after LWF existence. Moreover, in order to address the other research questions, the relationships between independent, dependent and intervening variables were discussed.

Survey data was encoded with SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) software. In all 153 cases were encoded Yes=1, No=0, and Missing data=999, except gender (Female=1, Male=2) and age (15-25=1, 25-35=2, 35-45=3, More than 45=4) variables.

SECTION IV

DEVELOPMENT TRENDS IN CAMBODIA: A BRIEF HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Cambodia Country Profile

Brief History

The Kingdom of Cambodia is the formal name of Kampuchea nation. The majority of Khmer ethnicity is descendant of the Angkor Empire that extended over much of Southeast Asia and reached its zenith between the 10th and 13th centuries. Attacks by the Siam and Cham (from present-day Vietnam) weakened the empire, ushering in a long period of decline. The king placed the country under French protection in 1863 and it became part of French Indochina in 1887. Following Japanese occupation in World War II, Cambodia gained full independence from France in 1953. In April 1975, after a five-year struggle, Communist Khmer Rouge forces captured Phnom Penh and evacuated all cities and towns. At least 1.5 million Cambodians died from execution, forced labour, or starvation during the Khmer Rouge regime under Pol Pot. A December 1978 Vietnamese invasion drove the Khmer Rouge into the countryside, began a 10-year Vietnamese occupation, and touched off almost 13 years of civil war.

The 1991 Paris Peace Accords mandated democratic elections and a ceasefire, which was not fully respected by the Khmer Rouge. United Nations (UN)-sponsored elections in 1993 helped restore some semblance of normalcy under a coalition government. Factional fighting in 1997 ended the first coalition government, but a second round of national elections in 1998 led to the formation of another coalition

government and renewed political stability. The remaining elements of the Khmer Rouge surrendered in early 1999. The ranking 5 of the surviving Khmer Rouge leaders are currently awaiting trial by a UN-sponsored tribunal for crimes against humanity. Brown (2000) argued that, “conflict and insecurity which were legacy of war, had allowed successive Cambodian regimes to justify an extremely high proportion of spending on arms [over 50% of the budget in July 1998] in place of much-needed investment in social services” (p. 12). This shortfall in funds for health care and education had to be made up by contributions from the public. Consequently tuberculosis and malaria were and are endemic among the poor; HIV/AIDS is spreading; and literacy rates were the lowest in South-east Asia. Elections in July 2003 were relatively peaceful, but it took a year of negotiations between contending political parties before a coalition government was formed. In October 2004, King Norodom Sihanouk abdicated the throne and his son, Prince Norodom Sihamoni, was selected to succeed him. Local elections were held in Cambodia in April 2007, and there was little in the way of pre-election violence that preceded prior elections. Following, National elections in July 2008 were relatively peaceful.

Socio-economic Profile of Cambodia

Cambodia is located in Southeast Asia bordered by Thailand to the west, Laos to the north, and Vietnam to the east and the Gulf of Siam to the southwest. It has an area of 181,035 km² and has a population of about 14 million and the average annual population growth rate 1.81% from 1998-2004 (National Institute of Statistic of Cambodia, 2005). According to the UNDP Human Development Report (UNDP, 2007), Cambodia ranks 131st out of 177 countries on the Human Development Index, life expectancy is 58 years and adult literacy rates of 73.6% are among the lowest in the region. At the end of 2006, Cambodian Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita reached to 2,105,000 riel (about US\$513 at Exchange rate 4103.3 riel per US\$) (Asian Development Bank, 2008a).

The average GDP growth rate for the last ten years has been approximately about 9%. The recent economic progress in Cambodia during the last decade has been a remarkable point in Cambodian history. The noticeable growth rate has significantly changed the Cambodian living conditions both in rural and urban areas. For instance, the World Bank (2007) indicated, “growth continues to be driven by garment exports, tourism, construction, and agricultural expansion” (p. 1). The garment sector, it began employing 10% of the total labour force and accounting for 14% of GDP, expanded with exports rising by 20% in 2006 (p. 1). This made the garment industry the leading sector among all others which generated more income for rural population especially women and increased GDP for the whole economy. Agriculture provides 85% of total employment and accounts for 47% of the GDP. The farming system in most parts of the country is based on rain-fed lowland rice. Moreover, apart from the newly emerged garment industry, virtually all of Cambodia’s exports are agricultural products, including rubber, maize, soya and forestry products. Although agriculture has much potential, it is limited by a tradition of rice monoculture, lack of irrigation and poor soils in most parts of the country. Additionally, the recent deforestation and

changing global weather pattern have made the region more prone to flood and drought.

Education

The level of education in Cambodia is generally very low. The system of education was destroyed under the KR regime. One common example was that they killed all educated scholars both from inside and outside the country making post-Pol Pot regime human resources scared of. This not only resulted in educated people escaping to the United States, Australia, France and Japan, but also illiteracy spread in the countryside. As the 12-year educational system was introduced from Japan in the middle of 1990s, the average number of schooling in rural area is 3.2 years compared to 6.4 years in Phnom Penh (World Bank, 2006a, p. 99). In average 75% of rural residents could not complete primary school. The quality of education in Cambodia is still a question. According to the World Bank (2006a), “a father wondered about his sixth grade’s son because still he could not read his own name” (p. 101).

Health

In the 2007/2008 Human Development Report, Cambodia was ranked 137th among 177 countries. Access to health care is still very limited especially in the rural areas. The poor received less significant care than the rich. This is again another social issue regarding the extensive gap between rich and the poor in terms of equality and welfare. Access to health care for poor people is about 60% in total, whilst the rich is 75%. This difference is increased in Phnom Penh (UNDP, 2007, p. 121-123). Since the middle of 1990s, because of external assistance, several health care centers, known as “Mundol Sokkhapheap”, and public health campaigns for TB, vaccination, malaria, dengue fever, and diarrhea have been introduced. However, health problems such as high blood pressure, mental illness, stomach ulcers have increased. In addition, cost of health care has also been increasing in terms of average incomes (World Bank, 2006a, p. 111).

Gender disparity

Gender issues are controversial for socio-economic development in Cambodia. Traditionally women have played a minor role in development and are still discriminated against. After numerous efforts in promoting women’s rights and participation, they are still in the position below men. Females accounted for 51.5% of the population while males accounted for only 48.5%, however, the unemployment rate of females to males is 147%. It means that for the unemployment 247 persons there are 100 males and females 147. There is also a big disparity among gender regarding education. Females received less education than males. The current literacy rate of women is 20%, compared to 80% of men. This means that females, particularly in rural areas, have less opportunity than males in terms of socio-economic factors.

Employment

Regarding employment, Cambodia has very high unemployment rates that accounted for 61.6% unemployment of the total population that is 24 years old or

younger as of 2004 (NIS, 2005). Taking into consideration, the worry about labour issue is so strong at the moment since the collapse of global economy and financial crisis in 2008 has caused hundreds of garment factories to close and lay off many younger Cambodians.

Physical infrastructure

Public transportation uses roads and rivers primarily. The national road condition is improving lately but there is significant room for improvement especially for provincial roads. Very remote areas are almost inaccessible due to bad road condition. Occasionally traveling by boats is convenient to access certain regions. Private buses are the only available means of transport for long distance from one province to another and railway is only used to transport goods between certain areas. Most of the population relies on private motorbikes and cars. For rural residents, some of them can afford to buy used motorbikes and bicycles.

Energy

Cambodia's power supply facilities were heavily damaged by war. Cambodia has started its process of rehabilitation under support from the World Bank, ADB, Japan, USA and European Countries. At present, the electricity supply in Cambodia is fragmented into 24 isolated power systems centered in provincial towns and cities. All are fully reliant on diesel power stations. Per capita consumption is only about 48 kWh / year and less than 15% of households have access to electricity (urban 53.6%, rural 8.6%) and the amount of electricity consumption is as follows: Private sector 0.5%, Service sector 40%, Industrial sector 14% (UN, 2005). Not only has renewal energy been introduced in recent years, oil/gas discoveries and hydropower are potential for Cambodia's economic development and play a significant role in the long-term energy development.

Telecommunication facilities and infrastructure

Communications in Cambodia, specifically the postal, telegraph and telegram services under the Ministry of Communications, Transport and Posts were restored throughout most of the country in the early 1980s during the People's Republic of Kampuchea regime after being disrupted under the Khmer Rouge. Although telecommunications services were initially limited to the government, these advances in communications helped break down the country's isolation, both internally and internationally. Recently there are 2,500,000 mobile cellular users as of 2008 (Wikipedia, 2009). Mobile networks are competitive ranking from Cam GSM, Hello GSM, Cadcoms, Mfone, Excell, Sta-cell, etc. Regarding broadcast stations in Cambodia, there are many radio broadcasts using FM signals. Some of them are pro-government and a few only are against.

They are National Radio Kampuchea, Women's Media Center, Voice of America Khmer, Radio Free Asia Khmer, Apsara Radio, and Phnom Penh Radio. All are based in Phnom Penh. Moreover, there are more than 10 television stations which similarly are pro-government rather than opposition. Internet usage in Cambodia is broad and the awareness is becoming well known to Cambodian especially in Phnom Penh. However, there are still limitations and difficulties for most provinces to get

online. Internet service providers in Cambodia include: Camintel, Telecom Cambodia's Camnet, Camshin.net, Citylink, Everyday, Online, TeleSURF, AngkorNet, PPCTV Broadband Internet Service, iS1 Internet Service, and DTV STAR.

Cambodia's Political Transition

Cambodia's many political commentators readily concede that liberal democracy cannot be easily transplanted or otherwise grafted to a country lacking any real democratic tradition (Curtis, 1998, p. 152). At the same time, there has been a tendency to expect too much – and too soon – of Cambodia's transition to liberal, multiparty democracy. That the United Nations Transitional Authority in Cambodia (UNTAC) promised more than it could deliver and raised the expectations of the Cambodian people and the international community. Curtis also asserted that Cambodia's new democracy was not created in a vacuum; rather, it had to adapt to Cambodian political and social realities that in turn conditioned or otherwise intruded on the establishment of liberal democracy. As noted by Heder (1995), “the Paris Agreements did not, in fact, place a high priority on the consolidation of liberal democracy in Cambodia” (p. 19). Rather, the so-called ‘peace process’ was directed to the achievement of a new and internationally acceptable political arrangement in Cambodia through a free and fair electoral process. It was feared that Cambodia would enter into another Dark Age similar to the previous genocidal regime. Also absolute monarchy will not work as history reveals. By observing the 2003 and 2008 election process, the political situation in Cambodia seemed to be dominant by and controversial for power claim from political parties and disagreement of election results. In this regard, it became ever more apparent that an electoral process, no matter how regularly or frequently practiced, is neither an adequate measure of Western-style democracy nor a guarantee of democratic practice. According to Curtis (1998), “the Cambodian experience provided ample evidence that peace cannot be ordained by a simple agreement or proclamation. Nor can democracy be achieved only by the ballot box alone” (p. 156).

Cambodia's Economic Transition

In early 1996, Keat Chhon, Minister of Finance and Senior Minister in charge of Rehabilitation and Development, provided a progress report on Cambodia's experience giving an optimistic summary of post-UNTAC achievements such as rising GDP, security improvement, public administration reform and increased investment. According to the World Bank economist, Michael Ward, the increase in Cambodia's GDP per capita averaged 4% in 1994 and 7.6% in 1995 (Ward, 1994, p. 6). Ward also warned that Cambodia's growth remains superficial and unbalanced, benefits are not being spread evenly throughout the different aspects of the economy and levels of society. Much of it continues to be focused on Phnom Penh and other urban areas (10 to 15% only of the total population). He further pointed out that although the government of Cambodia, with foreign technical assistance, had established overall plans for the difficult task of economic renewal, a coherent overall strategy was lacking and that effective implementation of the government's economic vision would depend on Cambodia's ability to establish more evident aspects of good governance, including improved institutional capacity, an enhanced ability to deliver social and commercial services with a just legal framework, and much strengthened ability to implement public investment projects.

Afterwards, Lenaghan & Watkin of *Phnom Penh Post* newspaper (1997) said: The July 1997 coup de force had a severe negative impact on Cambodia's economic growth prospects. In response to the coup several of Cambodia's largest donors suspended or cut back their aid programmes...the coup also had a negative impact on foreign investment and the country's tourism industry. (p. 1)

In October 1997 the *Phnom Penh Post* suggested, "Cambodia's economy faced a very real prospect of disaster, pressed by a serious budgetary shortfall and a massive downturn in foreign aid and investment" (p. 1). Investor confidence faltered in the wake of the July fighting, with estimates of Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) – originally pegged at up to US\$300 million for 1997 – slashed by one-third (Curtis, 1998, p. 59).

Curtis (1998) agreed on what was called "the cessation of humanitarian assistance" (p. 57). The economic fall-out from the coup, in investor confidence led to severe cutbacks in donor assistance. In the wake of the coup, according to Curtis, the United States terminated support to the Cambodian Assistance to Primary Education (CAPE) project, a US\$26 million and a US\$10 million on village roads project in the northwest and more, while the German government similarly suspended more than 31 million deutsche marks (some US\$18 million at that time) in aid activities including a credit scheme, procurement of medical drugs, and technical assistance projects (p. 58).

Current Development Trends and Issues

Political Developments

At the time the Cambodia Strategy and Programme (CSP) 2005–2009 was being formulated, the political scene was characterized by uncertainty reflected in the protracted negotiations between the Cambodian People's Party (CPP) and the royalist FUNCINPEC over the forming of a national coalition government in 2004 (ADB, 2005). This also raised another bargaining power struggle by both parties in Cambodia. However, there was a consensus agreement to share the power in the National assembly. Since then there has been increasing political consolidation and stability, with the CPP emerging as the dominant senior coalition partner and receiving an overwhelming mandate in the 2007 commune-district council elections. Following an amendment to the Constitution to allow a simple majority of members of the Assembly to form a new government, a delay in the formation of the government following the 2008 national elections was not possible. In the 2008's national election, CPP had a tremendous winning more than two third support against its opposing counterparts, Samrangsy party and FUNCINPEC plus another party led by former head of FUNCINPEC, Prince Norodom Rannaridh. Later on, the international relation with Thailand triggered another conflict when Cambodian 1000's years old Hindu temple, Preah Vihear temple was inaugurated into World Heritage in July 2008 creating a few gunshots and ambushes periodically between the two parties. Even now the tension still remains conflicted making inconvenient relation along the border once again.

Social Developments

As political parties geared up for the elections in July 2008 (the fourth national election since the Paris Peace Accord of 1991), they faced new realities. About one fourth of voters had been born after the Khmer Rouge period of the 1970s. Notwithstanding, the International Republican Institute's survey review (2007) showed, "increased migration from rural to urban areas, rural unemployment may be an emerging issue since the 300,000 young Cambodians who join the rural labour force every year face industrial and rural economies that are not growing quickly enough to create jobs for them" (p. 4). Survey results suggest that, for the remainder of the CSP period, voters judged political parties on their ability to deliver concrete results, such as improvements to infrastructure and improved living conditions in villages.

Economic Developments

During 2005-2006, the performance of the economy has been impressive. In 2005 and 2006, GDP growth surpassed the government's own forecasts. According to ADB (2007) in 2005, the economy grew by 13.5% (against the government's forecast of 7.0%) and in 2006 by 10.8% (against the forecast of 6%). ADB added growth during 2005-2006 was much faster and more broadly based than during the 1996–2004 period, when it averaged 7.8% annually. The reason is that economic growth in 2006 was reinforced by a strong expansion in agriculture, robust growth in services based on a solid increase in tourist arrivals, and sustained growth in industrial output driven by continued strong growth in clothing exports. The growth helped employ several rural teenagers throughout Cambodia, creating jobs and increasing income.

GDP growth increased in 2007 and 2008, propelled by a continued expansion of agricultural output and sustained activity in garment exports, tourism, construction, transport and communications, and real estate. The projected strong growth was based on some key factors: maintenance of macroeconomic management and fiscal discipline; close and effective supervision of banks by the monetary authorities to ensure sound banking practices as domestic credit rises rapidly; implementation of structural reforms designed to increase business confidence and raise investment; and continued inflows of concessional loans and grants reinforced by Foreign Direct Investment (FDI). ADB (2008b) stressed that risks include competition in the garment sector from the People's Republic of China (PRC), the lifting of safeguard measures by the European Union (EU) and the United States (US) against PRC garment exports, and from Viet Nam, following its accession to the World Trade Organization; possible adverse weather conditions that could affect agriculture; and potential disasters such as avian influenza that could affect poultry production and tourism. However, in October by Radio Free Asia in Khmer reported (2008), the World Bank liaison office in Cambodia assessed during the first quarter of 2009 that, because of the affect from the world financial crisis, Cambodia would not enjoy double digits GDP growth any longer. It estimated that it would drop to 6-7%. The Cambodia-Thai border conflict concerning the ancient Hindu Preah Vihear temple has triggered a downturn of tourists entering from the Thai borders. In 2009 garment and tourism industries have decreased employment and resulting in insecurity throughout rural communities.

Hopefully, recent oil and gas discoveries will change drastically the course of Cambodia's growth trajectory and improve the people's welfare acting as powerful and new charisma to reboot the prosperity of the economy. However, given the

uncertainty surrounding the timing and size of usable oil and gas deposits, it would be prudent to assume that oil and gas production would only have an impact from 2011 at the earliest. Implementation of the government's plan of diversifying the economy, without relying on oil and gas, is key for the country's economic outlook. Not to be neglected, the Royal Government of Cambodia also needs to view and prepare how to equitably distribute the benefits directly or indirectly to citizens in terms of employment, income generation, trades and taxation. Otherwise the black gold (oil) would lead Cambodia into resource curses currently occurring in Nigeria.

International Assistance in Cambodia from 1980s until Present

From the collapse of the Pol Pot regime in 1979 through 1982, international assistance to Cambodia was provided with an emphasis on emergency supplies and refugee support. With the UN's declaration of the end of the emergency in 1982, international aid agencies and western countries suspended such assistance. Vietnam and the former USSR then started to support Cambodia. During the period that western allies ceased provision of assistance, Nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) continued their humanitarian support. Among them, the Cooperation Committee for Cambodia (CCC), the NGO Forum on Cambodia, and MediCam played a major role in coordinating the activities of NGOs. The Japan International Volunteer Center (JVC) has supported Cambodian refugees since February 1980 (Japan International Cooperation Agency, 2002).

After the conclusion of the Paris Peace Agreements in October 1991, international assistance was fully resumed. According to JICA (2002), the International Committee on the Reconstruction of Cambodia (ICORC) had been convened annually since 1993. The Consultative Group Meeting for Cambodia (CG) replaced the ICORC in 1996, and its fourth meeting was held in Paris in May 2000 (MediCam *et al.*, 2000). Remarkably, Japan has led international assistance to Cambodia as the largest donor, and has hosted CG meetings alternately with France (JICA, 2000). Seventeen nations, including Japan, seven multilateral donors, and representatives of NGOs and the private sector participated in the 4th meeting, and pledged support for macro-economic reform programmes, governance issues, and social sector issues.

The reconstruction and development of Cambodia depends heavily on international assistance. As shown in Table 4.1, the average amount of Official Development Assistance (ODA) receipts is around US\$337 million, which is 1.38 times the net revenue of US\$245 million in the same year (OECD, 2000a). In 1998, OECD calculated the ratio of the net sum ODA to Gross National Product (GNP) reached 11.9%. It is much lower than the 23.0% of Laos, but much higher than the 4.3% of Vietnam. In this section, trends in assistance by each multilateral donors, bilateral donors, and NGO are also reviewed.

Table 4.1 *Net ODA receipts by Cambodia*

(Unit: million \$)

Donor	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1994-98
<DAC Countries>						
Australia	14.3	25.8	28.2	24.0	21.9	114.2
France	28.4	53.4	52.1	27.1	21.4	182.4
Germany	12.2	19.6	14.2	17.0	17.9	80.9
Japan	64.5	152.0	71.3	61.6	81.4	430.8
Netherlands	11.0	11.8	8.4	11.5	9.3	52.0
Sweden	10.1	10.9	16.0	23.0	14.3	74.3
GB	7.0	10.7	12.3	7.4	9.9	47.3
United States	16.0	33.0	28.0	30.0	32.5	139.5
Others	17.5	24.0	22.0	26.8	22.0	112.3
Subtotal	181.0	341.2	252.5	228.4	230.6	1,233.7
<Multinational Donors>						
AsDB	16.4	45.4	32.1	10.7	29.3	133.9
EC	11.4	33.0	52.6	32.9	32.9	162.8
IDA	38.2	24.6	45.6	30.4	19.2	158.0
IMF	20.0	42.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	62.5
UNDP	17.8	19.1	18.1	17.5	9.8	82.3
Others	39.6	50.2	20.6	13.6	15.3	139.3
Subtotal	143.4	214.8	169.0	105.1	106.5	738.8
Arab Countries	2.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.2
Total	326.6	556.0	421.5	333.5	337.1	1,974.7

Source: OECD (2000a)

Multilateral Donors

The major multilateral donors involved with assistance to Cambodia include the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the World Bank, the Asian Development Bank and UN groups. Each of the donors recognizes “alleviation of poverty” as the first priority agenda for Cambodia, and provides support to strengthen governance, reform the economic structure, enhance social development, establish social capital, build up human resources, and promote the private sector development. Their contributions are described in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 *Major contributions by multilateral donors to Cambodia*

Multilateral donors	Contribution
IMF – International Monetary Funds (IMF, 2000)	<p>It has provided aid since 1994 focusing on reform of the economic structure and state-owned corporations through the Enhanced Structural Adjustment Facility and Poverty Reduction and Growth Facility, in order to achieve:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • economic growth, • a rise in per capita income, • the reduction of poverty
The World Bank (World Bank, 2000a)	<p>The WB has exercised overall leadership through activities such as chairmanship of the CG meetings. According to the Country Assistance Strategy (CAS) 2000-2003, the World Bank provided US\$270 million for four-year time on the condition that the Cambodian government tackled priority agenda such as management of the macro-economy, public sector reforms, and demobilization.</p>
Asian Development Bank (ADB, 1999 & 2000)	<p>ADB has supported:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the development of the Socioeconomic Development Plan (SEDP) • the Mid-term Public Investment Program (PIP) in cooperation with its counterpart, the Ministry of Planning, • restoration projects for national roads together with Japan and the World Bank. • technical support in various fields such as forest restoration, drafting of land laws and support for good governance, • efforts to promote Sectorwide Approach (SWAP) in education in cooperation with the World Bank.
UN Group	<p>Cambodia started its postwar rehabilitation under the supervision of UNTAC and other UN agencies, one of which is the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)</p>

	playing a major role in development assistance. The UNDP's principles for assistance to Cambodia are shown in its Country Cooperation Framework (CCF) 2001-2005 (UNDP, 2000).	Bil ate ral Do nor Co
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ountries

As shown in Table 4.1, while the amount of aid to Cambodia from major multilateral donors and donor countries was at the level of US\$100 million from 1994 through 1998, OECD data in 2000 shows that Japan was largest donor, providing US\$430 million, followed by France, the US, and Australia.

France is a major ODA donor along with the US and Australia. France regards Cambodia as a special partner due to its former colonial status, and focuses on support for rural development, establishment of a judicial system, and healthcare. It puts weight on cultural support such as the restoration of Angkor Wat. Also The US considers the democratization of Cambodia as the most important policy issue. Since it does not regard the present government as democratic due to the coup d'état in July 1997, it provides humanitarian assistance not through intergovernmental cooperation, but through NGOs. The US intends to develop a collaborative agenda in healthcare, such as for HIV/AIDS, as a part of the Japan-US common agenda (OECD, 2000b). Australia contributed to the Paris Peace negotiations, and has provided assistance focusing on agriculture, healthcare, support for students studying overseas, and removal of land mines, as well as policy proposals in military affairs.

Japan, as a donor, acknowledges that Cambodia's stability is vital for peace stability and development in the Asia-Pacific (JICA, 2002). Based on the recognition that a stable government is essential for Cambodia's postwar rehabilitation, reconstruction and democratization, Japan has supported Cambodia's efforts as the largest donor. Japan has provided grant aid and technical cooperation through the systematic coordination of various aid schemes. In 1998, according to JICA (2000), "the total of Japanese assistance to Cambodia reached 9.67 billion-yen (7.82 billion yen for grant aid, 1.85 billion yen for technical cooperation)." Although loan aid had not been provided since 1968 as Cambodia was under the category of an LLDC and politically unstable, it was resumed in 1999 on the basis of a solid trend towards political stability and economic reconstruction by the new government. Grant aid has been provided for transportation infrastructure (roads and bridges), social infrastructure (water supplies and electricity), agriculture, and election support. "Technical cooperation has been provided for maternal and child healthcare, tuberculosis control measures, legal reform, de-mining, resettlement of refugees, and rural development" (JICA, 2000, p. 114).

Nongovernmental Organizations

Since the early 1980s, when the relationship between Cambodia and western countries was broken and political and security conditions were unstable, NGOs have provided direct assistance focusing on humanitarian support. The Cambodian government therefore appreciates the role of NGOs, and has given them favorable

treatment similar to those accorded to big international agencies. Coordination by the Cooperation Committee for Cambodia (CCC) and other organizations to promote communication among NGOs has successfully led to the publication of periodicals and holdings of meetings for exchange of opinion. The number of international and domestic NGOs working in Cambodia was between 400 and 600 in 2002 (JICA, 2002). Additionally, representatives of NGO groups officially participate in CG meetings and local donor meetings through coordinating agencies.

According to JICA Planning and Evaluation Department (2000), “NGOs have been actively involved in assistance to Cambodia not only in fields where NGOs have traditionally played major roles such as local healthcare, education and water supplies, but also in highly political fields such as de-mining (e.g. mapping, removal, education for avoidance, and support for the victims), and good governance (e.g. election monitoring, reviewing various draft laws, corruption countermeasures, and monitoring of illegal logging).” The NGO statement for the CG meeting in 2000 identified the priority issues to be addressed by the NGOs as agriculture, child’s rights, commune administration and decentralization, commune elections, disability and rehabilitation, education, fishery, forestry reform, gender and development, good governance, health, HIV/AIDS, human rights, land mines, land reform, microfinance and weapons reduction.

A Japanese NGO group, “People’s Forum on Cambodia, Japan” also recognizes good governance, human resource development, support for the rural poor as priority areas of assistance to Cambodia (JICA, 2002, p. 16). Moreover, JICA (2002) reported that Japanese NGOs have involved in activities in various fields including education and healthcare, and have recently started activities in cooperation with ODA through “Grant Assistance for Grassroots Projects”, “Community Empowerment Programmes” and the “JICA Partnership Programme for NGOs, Local Governments and Institutes”. Cooperation between NGOs and ODA will be increasingly necessary in fields related to land mines and poverty. However, generally speaking, NGOs face the following issues: i) the localization of NGOs has been limited by restraints in human resources; ii) the financial base is too weak for NGOs to sustain projects; iii) they are short of human resources. These issues should be surmounted to make their activities more effective (JICA, 2002, p. 16).

National Strategic Development Plan 2006-2010

Before National Strategic Development Plan

Cambodia has made great strides since 1991, when more than two decades of isolation and conflict ended. It tries to ensure peace and security, rebuild institutions, establish a stable economic environment, and put in place a liberal investment regime. GDP growth has been robust at nearly 9% over the last 10 years (ADB, 2008b). Nonetheless, ADB also believes much more remains to be done, with poverty incidence is still high at 34.7%. Recent economic growth, centered on garments and tourism, are urban-focused with limited linkage to the rural economy, where approximately 91% of the poor live (ADB, 2008b, p. 1). This has led to a rapid increase in inequality over the past decade. Therefore, there is a pressing need to

diversify the economy to enable the rural poor to contribute to and benefit from economic growth.

The NSDP is the successor to previous exercises in medium-term (3-5 year) government strategies designed to coordinate government policies and spending towards overall development goals. These previous strategy documents include the Socio-economic Rehabilitation and Development Programmes (SRDPs), 1986-1990 and 1991-1995; the Socio-economic Development Plans (SEDPs), 1996-2000 and 2001-2005; and the National Poverty Reduction Strategy (NPRS) 2003-2005.

Specifically, following the destruction of the civil wars and Khmer Rouge regime during the 1970s, the Cambodian government assigned the Ministry of Planning (MoP) to prepare the first (1986-1990) and second (1991-1995) five year Socio-economic Rehabilitation and Development Programmes (SRDP) (Ministry of Planning, 2006b). These were designed to guide a centrally planned economy. The information used to prepare the SRDPs, and subsequently to monitor and evaluate their implementation (through quarterly and annual reports) was almost entirely derived from administrative information systems. Furthermore, under the Royal government of Cambodia, a new constitution was established following the elections in 1993, the first (1996-2000) and second (2001-2005) five-year Socio-economic Development Plans (SEDP I and SEDP II) took medium-term, cross-government planning an important step further. Building on earlier work, SEDP I presented for the first time an integrated medium-term program of national development within the context of a market economy. The ministry prepared both plans with technical and financial support from the Asian Development Bank. However, neither plan incorporated monitoring and evaluation mechanisms to track implementation. The ministry (2006a) added, “both rounds of SEDP had as their primary vision the goal of poverty reduction achieved through promotion of sustainable economic growth at 6-7% per year and better governance.” The government recognized the important role of the private sector in development and employment generation.

To be specific, the Ministry of Planning has the task of preparing a National Poverty Reduction Strategy in order to qualify for Poverty Reduction Credits from the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank (MoP, 2006d). The NPRS laid out the key priorities for Cambodia to meet the poverty reduction goals of the Royal Government of Cambodia. The NPRS adopted a comprehensive approach, outlining pro-poor programmes to improve rural livelihoods, promote job opportunities, ensure better health, nutrition and education outcomes, and reduce vulnerability. The government of Cambodia has drawn up a comprehensive reform agenda aimed at achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), which are embedded in its ongoing development paper. It created a better operational document planning for guideline until 2010, the National Strategic Development Plan.

About National Strategic Development Plan

Prepared in 2005, through extensive and inclusive multi-layered consultations with all stakeholders, Cambodia’s NSDP was promulgated by a Royal decree at the conclusion of different levels of scrutiny within the RGC, the National assembly, and the Senate (RGC, 2008, p. 11). It represents a broad consensus on Cambodia’s future development path. Given that NSDP are dynamic, live and practical documents, their

implementation and progress are meant to be regularly assessed and monitored so that appropriate corrections could be made and goals, targets, and plans could be adjusted to conform to emerging new data and other changing realities.

As noted, the Ministry of Planning (2006a) clarified in the National Strategic Development Plan paper that “the NSDP has been formulated as a document using the comprehensive Rectangular Strategy (RS), a holistic and integrated document proclaimed by RGC during the early part of its third mandate in 2004, and by synthesizing and prioritizing various policy documents (SEDP, CMDGs, NPRS, the Governance Action Plan – including the Public Administration Reform (PAR), the Public Financial Management Reforms (PFMR) and other sector policies and strategies, notably in the Ministries of Health (MOH) and Education, Youth and Sports (MOEYS)” (para. 4). The goals and target for 2010 that are laid out in the NSDP are derived in large part from the Cambodian Millennium Development Goals. Besides its intention to align sector strategies and planning cycles to overall long term vision, as well as to guide external development partners (EDPs) to align and harmonize their efforts towards better aid-effectiveness and higher net-resources transfer than hitherto. Below are major goals and indicators among the 43 indicators of NSDP operating and evaluating annually (RGC, 2006; MoP, 2006d):

- | | | |
|--|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • eradicate poverty and hunger, • develop the agriculture sector and enhance agricultural production and productivity, • implement the Education Sector Strategic Plan, • implement the Health Sector Strategic Plan, • implement population policies. • further advance rural development, • ensure environmental sustainability, • promote gender equity, • implement good governance reforms, | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • sustain high macroeconomic growth, • improve budget performance, • accelerate industrial growth, • further develop the private sector, • increase trade (i.e. export), • develop tourism, • make progress in de-mining & provide victim assistance, • rehabilitate the physical infrastructure, • further develop the energy sector. | <p>T
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to be pursuing with renewed vigor and determination of pro-poor, pro-rural priority already enunciated in the NSDP, viz., agricultural and rural development. Only can this priority provide immediate and long-term benefits as well as a quick safety net for the poor, predominantly in the rural areas in Cambodia, increase their purchasing power and well-being, and diversify and strengthen the overall economy on a sustainable basis. While pursuing all other goals and targets outlined in the NSDP for speedy poverty reduction especially in remote rural areas, RGC intends to pay more attention and attach high priority to meet the challenges which from the foregoing analysis as well as new ones on the horizon (RGC, 2008, pp. 13 & 14). In this regard, full cooperation from all external development partners is expected wherever needed in pursuing them. The midterm review of NSDP also claimed, “taking all factors into

consideration the overall total outlay for public sector investments during 2006-2010 has been increased by 20% from US\$3,500 million to US\$4,200 million” (p. 14).

The progress of NSDP is being annually reviewed and monitored. The NSDP Monitoring Framework was formulated in close consultation with Ministry of Economy and Finance (MEF), Supreme National Economic Council (SNEC), Cambodian Rehabilitation and Development Board (CRDB)/Council for the Development of Cambodia (CDC) and other ministries. It mandates the monitoring and reporting of the progress of NSDP implementation especially of the 43 NSDP indicators. This requires timely and reliable official statistics to be provided by NIS and line ministries.

In the first half of each forthcoming year, an NSDP-Annual Progress Report is prepared and submitted to the Council of Ministers for endorsement. The NSDP-APR is the tool to readjust or redirect the NSDP for effective implementation. The NSDP-APR will also help monitor resource alignment both of government and EDP resources and give policy recommendations on how to achieve further progress in these different regards. This means the government is trying to decentralize its power and to local authorities to carry out and ensure the effectiveness and efficiency of the NSDP in provincial and district levels in terms of facilitating development and partnership with NGOs stationing in the areas to achieve NSDP.

Implementing National Strategic Development Plan

The Ministry of Planning (2006c) has been granted lead responsibility for coordinating the implementation of the NSDP, which constitutes the primary objective of the General Directorate of Planning, as laid out in the MoP Strategic Plan (MPSP). To this end, the MoP chairs the NSDP Secretariat, which is an inter-ministerial body with the responsibility for coordinating the implementation and monitoring of the NSDP (MoP, 2006c).

The MPSP lays out four key objectives, all focusing on NSDP implementation and monitoring. Each of these four has its own specific targets and activities. The first objective relates specifically to MoP’s role in ensuring implementation of the NSDP and progress towards the CMDGs. Noted in the ministry’s electronic source (2006c), five subsidiary targets are listed under this objective.

Target 1: Disseminate NSDP and develop MoP information and communication resources

Target 2: Strengthen alignment of sector strategies, sub-national plans and cross-sectoral policies and plans with NSDP priorities

Target 3: Ensure consistency of resource allocation processes (annual budget, medium-term budget frameworks, the three-year rolling Public Investment Programme (PIP), and ODA harmonization and alignment) with NSDP priorities (joint working and shared responsibility with MEF, National Assembly and CDC)

Target 4: Target poor areas and poor households to ensure resources used for

maximum effectiveness and efficiency

Target 5: Develop MoP capacities to prioritize and mainstream gender issues in planning and gender equity in NSDP implementation

Rural Development

Rural development, as a vital ingredient and catalyst for enhancement of agriculture and poverty reduction, is cross-sectoral and should ideally be decentralized. Since 2006, it has been a priority sector among other 6 priority sectors of the RGC under Public Finance Management Reform Programme (PFMRP) for budget allocations and timely disbursements (RGC, 2008, p. 34). Capacity development, establishment of Village Development Committees (VDCs), provision and enhancement of rural infrastructure (rural roads, small bridges, canals, schools, health centers, access to improved sources of drinking water, sanitation), enhancement of health and hygiene in rural areas, and development of the rural economy, which are the main activities in this sector and have undergone remarkable progress, and will hopefully continue on the road to development ahead.

Role of International Partners in Development

Indeed, it requires strong and long lasting cooperation from international players, especially grassroots NGOs, to facilitate rural development. Their roles are assisting development projects and improving people's livelihood in rural areas. The aim is to help Cambodia catch up developmentally with the globalized community. Three angles of partnership between the RGC and other development partners comprise relations with i) civil society; ii) private sector; and iii) external development partners (RGC, 2008, p. 25). In regard to the first two, active efforts continue to involve and associate all sections of the civil society in all appropriate aspects of RGC's planning and decision-making processes for taking Cambodia forward. Civil society is an important partner and many NGOs, both national and international, play an active and vigilant role in social and economic development efforts. These localized NGOs try to contribute their assistance and consultation at high cooperation like CIDA, LWF, DANIDA, and more. As stated by the RGC (2008), "law on NGOs will be passed after wide consultation with all stakeholders" (p. 25). In addition, the paper (2008) continues that in the RGC's development strategy, the private sector that mainly uses FDI as the primary force for investment and economic growth. Therefore, several mechanisms have been set up to facilitate and assist private sector development and orderly progress. Already, the cooperation efforts such as through the government private sector forum are much appreciated by private enterprises and are bearing fruit as manifest in the robust growth of private sector investments, based on strict adherence to the laws and regulations and focused on development priorities.

Relations with External Development Partners

Generous financial and technical assistance from EDPs has greatly helped Cambodia to achieve impressive progress so far. The cooperative relationship between EDPs and RGC has increased in time, has deepened over the years and is becoming healthy based on appreciation of mutual needs and roles. For example, because of the

understanding of need of development fund, Cambodia is expected to receive more grants and loan than in the previous year in order to push the development progress to desired levels. As an example, the ODA provided by OECD/DAC to Cambodia in 2007 was relatively higher than that in the year 1998. Net ODA in 1998 totalled USD 337.1 million (OECD, 2000a) while in 2007 it doubled to USD 672 million (OECD, 2008). These do not include yet unreported World Bank's grant agreements signed in the early 2009.

SECTION V

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Lutheran World Federation Cambodia's Perspectives on Community Development

Lutheran World Federation Cambodia Programme

The Lutheran World Federation, which is a global communion of Christian churches in the Lutheran tradition, established its representative office and commenced operations to respond to the devastation from the KR regime in

Cambodia in 1979, known as The Lutheran World Federation – Cambodia Programme (LWF-Cambodia). LWF-Cambodia is one of 22 field service programmes of the Lutheran World Federation/Department for World Service (LWF/DWS), based in Geneva, Switzerland. The LWF/DWS and its field programmes concentrate their efforts on reducing the disaster and poverty-related vulnerability of displaced and marginalized people through emergency relief, rehabilitation and disaster preparedness activities. These elements are integrated into sustainable development work. In addition, it is committed to advocate for human rights, peace building and reconciliation at local, national and international levels.

The LWF Cambodia Programme shares these priorities and strives to uphold the principle of providing high quality services in a compassionate and professional manner. LWF-Cambodia actively contributed to the rehabilitation of war-ravaged Cambodia after the collapse of the KR regime in close cooperation with concerned government agencies. Being aware of the government's NSDP, LWF-Cambodia is attempting to cooperate as well as to contribute to the common objectives with RGC and as part of an NGO consortium in the nation. Since then LWF-Cambodia has adapted its strategies to meet local needs within the context of:

- 1979-1995 – Emergency relief and support to government
- 1996-1998 – De-mining, resettlement, and rehabilitation
- 1999-2002 – integrated rural development
- 2003-2008 – Participatory, rights-based empowerment

Initially working in close collaboration with the government ministries, LWF-Cambodia programme launched its own direct implementation of resettlement and longer-term community-based sustainable development activities from 1995, but continued to support the Government Vocational Training Center until 2004. In the subsequent years, the program has refocused its infrastructure development focus in favor of more human-centered, rights based, participatory, empowerment-based approaches. LWF-C foresees a continuing role for demining, and disaster response on an as needed basis, but will gradually withdraw from direct service delivery as focus communities and individuals gain capacity to manage their own development processes. Once focus communities reach mutually agreed to capacity benchmarks, LWF-Cambodia's resources are shifted to new underserved and needy rural communities.

By 2010, LWF-Cambodia will be localized, transforming from an international field service programme to an autonomous Cambodian NGO in association with LWF/DWS.

Vision

LWF envisions people of the world living in just societies in peace and dignity, united in diversity, and empowered to achieve their universal rights, to meet basic needs and quality of life.

Mission

Inspired by God's love for humanity, LWF responds to and challenges the

causes and consequences of human suffering and poverty.

Goal

- Empowered rural communities and partner households;
- Manage development processes by themselves;
- Know and advocate for their rights, and;
- Obtain improved and sustainable livelihoods,

Objectives

1. Empowered communities manage their own development process.
2. Empowered communities know their rights, solve conflicts within their communities, and advocate for their rights with duty-bearers inside and outside their communities.
3. Empowered communities obtain sustainable and improved livelihoods.
4. Strengthened organization with improved effectiveness and efficiency implements a sustainable program.

Measurable Outcome:

Based on own criteria, communities and partner households in the target annually assess their capacity to:

- manage development processes by themselves;
- understand their rights, and solve conflicts rooted in rights abuses either locally or through advocacy to duty bearers;
- improve of economic and social livelihood options;
- conserve the environment and sustainable use natural resources; and
- undertake disaster risk management/mitigation.

The strengthened organization is measured by:

- the competence of staff in the implementation the LWF-Cambodia programme;
- the effectiveness of the organizational structure meeting the needs of LWF-Cambodia;
- the effectiveness of systems, policies, guidelines applied by all staffs;
- the effective implementation of LWF-Cambodia localization plan; and
- the effective implementation of the financial sustainability strategy.

The goal and strategy of the LWF-Cambodia are in line with the Cambodian Millennium Development Goals, the Poverty Reduction Strategic paper and Rectangular Strategy of the RGC and contribute to their achievement in terms of cooperation and partnership. The LWF-Cambodia is contributing to the achievement of CMDGs:

- (Goal 1) Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger
- (Goal 2) Achieve universal nine-year basic education
- (Goal 3) Gender equality and empowerment
- (Goal 4) Reduce child mortality

- (Goal 5) Improve maternal health
- (Goal 6) Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases
- (Goal 7) Ensure environmental sustainability
- (Goal 8) Partnership and assistance with other international organizations
- De-mining, finding UXO (Unexploded Ordnance) and victim assistance

The LWF-Cambodia is also in line with PRSP and the new Rectangle Policy of NSDP of the RGC:

- Strategy of good governance, focused on good governance including anti-corruption and legal and judicial reforms
- Enhancement of agricultural sector, private sector and employment generation, continued rehabilitation and construction of physical infrastructure and capacity building and human resource development including enhanced quality of education, improvement of health services, fostering gender equality and implementation of population policy.

LWF's Operations in Cambodia

Emergency relief 1979-1995

During the 1980s, a period of international isolation was imposed on Cambodia by Western countries meant that only a few NGOs and some of the former socialist countries contributed to the massive reconstruction and rehabilitation needs of Cambodia. During this time, LWF/DWS worked primarily in the agriculture and water supply sectors, while contributing towards reconstruction needs. In 1993 the political situation in Cambodia changed following UN-sponsored national elections. The end of international isolation permitted contributions from multi- and bilateral agencies and organizations as well as increased private investment. A 1994 external evaluation and strategic planning mission by LWF/DWS Cambodia recommended shifting the focus of its activities away from support for central government and public institutions to community-based activities. After this change, LWF/DWS changed its programme during 1995 by phasing out some of its activities working through at central-level government agencies – animal breeding and health programmes, meteorology, and hydrology.

Integrated Rural Development 1996-2002

Other activities involving draught animals, rural water supply, and other rural-targeted small projects were transformed into four geographically based Integrated Rural Development Projects (IRDPs). In 1996 the implementation of the four IRDPs began on village and commune level in cooperation and participation with the target groups, the rural poor. In the beginning, emphasis was given to capacity building of staff and Community Based Organizations (CBOs) in villages, to develop relationships with target groups and gather more specific data about their problems and needs. The overall goal of the IRDPs was to improve the standard of living of the rural population, particularly the most vulnerable groups, i.e. households led by women, returnees, internally displaced persons (IDPs) and the disabled. Major project

components included community development and human rights, water and sanitation, food security, income generation, health, education, environment and disaster preparedness. Building on growing staff capacity all Project Coordinator positions were localized by 2001 (Kampong Chhnang 1997, Kampong Speu and Takeo/Kandal 2000, and Battambang 2001). In late 2002, the Kandal/Takeo IRDP was phased out after a successful commencement of all target villages. However, the programme continued to provide post-graduated capacity building to VDCs and VBs, as required, and supported the monitoring and evaluation activities of this project.

Integrated Rural Development with an Emphasis on Participatory, Rights-Based Empowerment 2003-2008

From 2003-2005 LWF-Cambodia shifted its focus towards empowerment and right-based approaches. This was reflected in the change of the names of IRDPs to IRDEPs (the E stands for Empowerment). Infrastructure support was reduced and the formerly independent Rural Water Supply Project was phased out with its empowerment activities were integrated into the IRDEPs. The project offices were moved from provincial to district levels in order to get closer to the target groups. IRDP-Kampong Chhnang was expanded and split into two district-level projects, IRDEP-Teuk Phos and Samaki Meanchey and a new IRDEP was started in Thpong district of Kampong Speu province following a needs assessment and invitation from the district and provincial authorities. In 2004 the support of the Vocational Training Center (VTC) in Battambang was phased out and the VTC was handed back to the government to take over full responsibility for its operation. From 2006 to 2008 the LWF-Cambodia continued the existing IRDEPs focusing on the empowerment and the rights of poor communities, their CBOs and poor partner households (the poorest). Free capacities from graduated communities are used for intensification of the work in the communities and for the funding of the IRDEP Thpong I as well as for the extension of new communities in Battambang and Teuk Phos. A new IRDEP is starting in Thpong II using the EU financing.

Partnership

In order to accomplish the goals and objectives of the programme, LWF-Cambodia needs cooperation and assistance from other actors. It works closely with other NGO projects and government agencies in coordinating policy matters, training activities, logistics and exchanging technical advice. LWF-Cambodia acts on formal requests for assistance made by provincial governments, local authorities and institutions respectively. Various formal agreements are made on a provincial level with provincial departments of Rural Development, Education, Health, Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, Works, Water Supply and Irrigation regarding cooperation. On the community level, LWF has agreements with VDCs, school committees, and other CBOs concerning cooperation by providing capacity building and regular assessments. The programme also participates in national and international advocacy campaigns that are linked to the programme's goals and clientele's most important issues. Ultimately it means the 8 elements of IRDEP are facilitated by consensus and supports to secure the empowerment-based approach to rural communities.

LWF-Cambodia's official church partner is the Kampuchea Christian Council (KCC). LWF serves on the KCC advisory board, provides organizational capacity

building and coordinates with them per mutual agreements. LWF-Cambodia also coordinates with the LWF/DMD, Christian Conference of Asia, World Council of Churches and others on an adhoc basis. Cooperation is sought with the Buddhist Sangha and Buddhist NGOs at commune and village level regarding all components of the project by providing mental health services, aspirational and financial supports.

The LWF-Cambodia Programme networks with other NGOs through the Cooperation Committee for Cambodia (CCC) working in various project areas: Human rights awareness (LICADHO, ADHOC, Vigilance, Legal Aid of Cambodia, Oxfam, CLEC, NGO Forum for human rights awareness, facilitating training courses and advocacy network alliances), Credit/saving schemes (ACLEDA for exchange of information, Community finance association network for networking of VBs), Basic health care (Catholic Relief Service), Malaria prevention (CESVI for malaria prevention), HIV/AIDS (local NGOs and Buddhist projects in Battambang), Animal and vegetable production (Action Nord-Sud, CEDAC and other organizations for information and experience exchange), Skill training to disable people (Maryknoll, DAC), Reforestation and community forestry (ALWS-AZEECON, Conservation International, InWent, Ministry of Environment and Ministry of Agriculture for environment awareness and community based natural resource management, MCC, Concern Worldwide, FFI, Mlup Baitong, CCBEN), Disable people (DPI, DAC). For UN/International agencies: UNHCR (information exchange), UNDP/CAREERE (information exchange), UNICEF/WHO/UNFPA (adult education, mother and childcare, acquire teaching material, family planning, health), ILO (technical advice on food-for-work projects), WFP (food-for-work activities, mother child health project), EU (ECHO) (bridging development gaps of IDPs and other vulnerable groups), EU (DIPECHO) (disaster/risk mitigation management). LWF-Cambodia's main implementing and coordinating partners also are National Committee for Disaster Management (NCDM) and the Cambodian Red Cross (CRC) for food distribution to the poor and marginalized and victims of natural disasters. LWF continue to work with FCA, the Finnish Government and the Mines Advisory Group (MAG) and Cambodian Mine Action Center (CMAC) for mine awareness and demining; EED, DCA and National AIDS Authority for HIV/AIDS awareness. Funding partners are ACT, ALWS, CCA, CIDA, CoS, DCA, DIPECHO of EU, EC, ECHO, EED, ELCA, ELCJ, FCA, GNC, ICCO, InWent, JELA, JELC, NCA, WAKACHIAI and the World Bank (JSDF). They also support programme monitoring and evaluation and staff development.

Integrated Rural Development through Empowerment Project

The LWF-Cambodia Programme consists of seven Integrated Rural Development through Empowerment Projects (IRDEPs) operating in the provinces of Kampong Speu, Kampong Chhnang, and Battambang in the following districts:

IRDEP-Battambang operates in the districts of Bavel, Kamrieng, Phnom Prek, Thmar Korl, in Battambang Province

IRDEP-Teuk Phos operates in Teuk Phos district, Kampong Chhnang province

IRDEP-Samaki Meanchey operates in Samaki Meanchey district, Kampong Chhnang province

IRDEP-Phnom Srouch operates in Phnom Srouch district, Kampong Speu province

IRDEP-Oral operates in Oral district, Kampong Speu province
IRDEP-Thpong I and II operate in Thpong district, Kampong Speu province

These seven projects have the same goal as the LWF-Cambodia Programme and apply the same approaches to sustainable development.

Approaches

LWF-Cambodia's IRDEP applies three approaches in their day-to-day work with Cambodians.

- **Integrated approach** considers that various lines of action interlink with and affect other areas. Environmental issues, HIV and AIDS, gender and many other thematic areas are integral parts of all lines of action taken in any given sector. As a result, VDCs tailor initiatives for positive impact on multiple aspects of community life. LWF-Cambodia emphasizes that emergency relief, rehabilitation, development, and disaster preparedness efforts are linked. Bridging the gap between emergency response and development is one of key competences.
- **Rights-based approach** primarily involves building up rights awareness on all levels, both among the powerless and the powerful. Development objectives are also human rights objectives. An emphasis on human rights in the development context helps focus attention on structural inequities that cause and maintain poverty and exclusion.
- **Empowerment approach** builds capacity and competence by trainings and practices in both individuals and communities to achieve results for the villagers. Equipping people and groups with knowledge, skills, and attitudes builds confidence and empowers villagers to take control of their lives like allowing local leadership to take control and guide their future in the development of a community water system and VDCs involve the full participation of their membership in both training for decision-making and determining community plan. Likewise CEFs motivate villagers to contribute as much and in as many ways as possible—ideas and leadership, time, labour, materials, and money. For instance, CEFs set up meetings periodically after harvest season in order to encourage the people to take part and contribute opinion and suggestion in development planning. Actively involved in all aspects of their development, villagers assess their needs and then develop, implement, monitor, and evaluate village plans.

In this research, the approach the researcher used is the Empowerment approach, which is the core of the IRDEP. The project is also integrated within eight major development's components: health, disaster preparedness, environment, community development, food security, income generation, human rights and education. The integrated components are connected to and dependent on each other. For example, the condition of health and education reflect the state of human rights/advocacy and disaster planning. Without a single component of development the other elements are ineffective.

IRDEPs Main activities

- Community organization and infrastructure

- Human rights and advocacy
- Food security and nutrition
- Income generation
- Preventive health, including primary health care, HIV and AIDS, water and sanitation
- Primary education for children and non-formal education for adults
- Community-based natural resources management
- Disaster risk reduction
- Humanitarian mine action

Training Services Provided to the Communities by LWF

Capacity building for the staff is essential for any organization. LWF-Cambodia boasts an in-house Training Unit. With more than ten years of experience, the unit now extends its service to other organizations (Refer to APPENDIX D).

Target Groups

LWF-Cambodia works with vulnerable people in remote and isolated areas such as poor farmers, female-headed households, landless families, people living with and affected by HIV & AIDS, and illiterate adults.

Impact

IRDEP builds on the expressed needs of vulnerable people in a holistic approach to economic, socio-cultural, political-institutional, and agro-environmental aspects of their lives. Motivated and encouraged to participate in all stages of the projects, target groups gain the skills to achieve their own long-term sustainable development. They benefit primarily from capacity-building in empowerment, human rights, advocacy, active non-violence, and self-reliance to construct sustainable livelihoods.

Project Components

The projects are carried out and evolving through time and development. LWF-Cambodia staffs facilitate and train the people in rights advocacy, income generation, gender equality, household planning, and more. Eight self-identified development priorities provide entry points through communities organize, plan, and develop over time via a facilitated empowerment process. They become the eight main elements of IRDEP as described below:

Basic health and HIV and AIDS

The AIDS epidemic poses a serious threat to the rural population of Cambodia in particular. LWF-Cambodia works on HIV and AIDS prevention and awareness and also trains local volunteers to provide home-based care of the people living with the disease. Patients receive medicine, income support, and training in income generation, and their children get school grants.

Disaster preparedness

Natural disasters, such as the flooding and drought, are commonplace in

Cambodia's rural areas and can ruin livelihoods of entire villages. LWF-Cambodia trains communities in at-risk areas on disaster preparedness and risk reduction and forms a community disaster management committee that will make a disaster plan for the village. The goal is to reduce the effects of calamities by up to 50%.

Environment

The preservation of Cambodia's natural environment often suffers in favor of the livelihoods of the poorest, who may exhaust the natural resources by cutting trees and hunting animals for their basic needs. LWF-Cambodia trains communities and partner households in environmentally friendly practices in farming by utilizing organic fertilizer and, further, the community forms an environment committee to spread environmental awareness and increase activities such as communal forestry (plants supplied by Agricultural and Forestry Department), eco-tourism (touristic sites with water falls/forest/wildlife for trekking), or use of fuel-conserving stoves (Solar and biomass fuel).

Community development

The organization of civil society is weak throughout Cambodia. LWF-Cambodia focuses on community development to raise the capability of citizens to handle their own development. Communities learn to manage their own cultural, economic, and social development. LWF-Cambodia assists in electing, establishing and training a VDC in organization, management, and leadership for the whole community. The Committee prepares development plans for their villages and mobilizes villagers to fulfill them. Also, the Committee has the responsibility to monitor and evaluate the development process and suggest improvement and changes.

Human rights awareness and Advocacy

Many people in Cambodia are unaware of their human rights, which raise the risk of exploitation and conflict. LWF-Cambodia organizes training for the communities and village councils in democratic concepts, human rights, and active nonviolent conflict resolution. The poor people also learn how to advocate for their rights with authorities and duty-bearers in Cambodian society such as filing document arrangement and lawsuit.

Food security

For poor farmers in rural Cambodia, food insecurity is high. LWF-Cambodia trains villager through its Farmer Field Schools (FFS) where they can learn from each other how to apply new methods and systems in order to increase their food security. The farmers learn about growing alternate crops, raising chickens and pigs, digging and maintaining fishing ponds, thus integrating agricultural training with broader concerns like nutrition, income generation, and disaster preparedness. LWF-Cambodia provides the training and start-up help such as seeds, tools, and ongoing advice and support.

Income Generation

For the rural poor, income from their land is rarely enough to sustain their families. LWF-Cambodia supports jobless and labour-sale households to start micro-enterprises. The people get training in weaving, mechanics, or other skills, are taught business planning and management, and receive start-up credit. LWF-Cambodia also encourages communities to engage in regular savings, learn to use micro-credit, and organize their own village banks to enable monitoring and examining their developing projects monthly.

Primary education and Nonformal education (NFE)

Illiteracy rates are as high as 60% in the rural areas and many farmers have never had any form of education, formal or nonformal. LWF-Cambodia supports the communities to network for and build their own primary school in order that the children get a better education. LWF-Cambodia provides scholarships for the children of the poorest families. Village councils can also negotiate for informal teachers for illiterate adults in the communities, particularly women because they are the most vulnerable groups (mostly without support from men) and they should be more active in terms of gender, education and participation in the community.

Management Capability

Programme management

The LWF-Cambodia programme is under the authority of the LWF Constitution and its governing bodies. Its work is guided by DWS Terms of Reference, Global Strategic Plan and its various policies and guidelines. In terms of management, inclusive and participatory management styles are promoted throughout the organization. Management is guided by strategic plans and written policies not personalities. The overall responsibility of the LWF-Cambodia however lies with the LWF/DWS Representative of the LWF-Cambodia, who is supervised by the LWS Programme Coordinator of LWF/DWS head office in Geneva. Eventual localization of the LWF-Cambodia programme into a Cambodian NGO with associate LWF/DWS programme status by 2010 is the goal fully. For this reason management capacity building will be given great importance and reinforces the need for applying participatory management methods.

Under the direction of the Representative, the LWF-Cambodia programme has a Programme Department headed by the Programme Manager, a Human Resource Department headed by the Human Resource Manager and a Finance and Administration Department, headed by the Finance and Administration Manager, (See Figure 5.1. Organizational chart). The Representative and the three Department Managers make up the Executive Management Team which meets on an as needed basis to make interim management decision between the monthly Management Team Meetings. A Programme Management Team meets monthly and consisting of the members of the Executive Management Team, Assistant Programme Manager, Project Managers, Training Coordinator and Finance Coordinator assist the Executive Management Committee in policy and programme development matters and adds a

senior staff and field perspective. A set of bylaws guide the proceedings of the Programme Management Team and chairmanship of the meetings is rotated in between. Similarly a Project Management Team meets at least monthly and is made up of the Project Manager, Community Empowerment Officers, Finance and Administration Officer to help guide project level management. Coordination and information sharing at the programme level take place during monthly Senior Staff meetings. The Senior Staff consist of the programme management team plus the community Empowerment Officers from all the projects. Minutes from the monthly Management Team and Senior Staff meetings are translated to Khmer and posted in all offices. Adhoc working groups and committees may be formed to attend to specific and time-bound tasks at the discretion of the Management Teams. These may be for programmatic, HRM, administrative or financial purposes.

Furthermore, each office (central and project offices) has a Staff Association with bylaws and elected officials and to serve the interests of the staff and to represent staff concerns to the management. Likewise committees and working groups may be formed take up personnel, policy or resource management matters as seen fit, (e.g. All Staff Retreat Committee, Provident Fund Committee, Awards Committee, Discipline Committee, Trust Fund Committee, Procurement Committee, and various Technical Working Groups).

The Programme Department, led by the Programme Manager, consists of a Programme Support Unit headed by the Assistant Programme Manager and staffed by various Programme Support Coordinators. This Unit provides programme support to IRDEPs operating in the field. It is guided in its work by various LWF global and country specific programme guidelines and approved project documents.

Each IRDEP is led by a Project Manager (PM) who is responsible for the programmatic, administrative and financial and the human resource affairs of their respective IRDEPs under the supervision of LWF-Cambodia Programme Manager in Phnom Penh.

Project activities are implemented at village level by Community Empowerment Facilitators (CEFs), who each are responsible for one to three villages and report to their Community Empowerment Officers (CEOs). They are based in their villages and supported by the project support unit based at the IRDEPs (HRD Officer, Income Generation Officer, two Food Security Officers, and Health Officer). The CEFs are also trained as generalists but may complement each other with their different professional backgrounds, i.e. teachers, nurses, agriculturists, and social workers. It is the goals of LWF to gradually reduce its technical support capacity as the government and private sector become more capable in their respective technical fields. Facilitation of linkages between communities and the technical resources they need is a high priority for CEFs. If, however, technical advice is not available locally or within an IRDEP, the IRDEP will ask for assistance from other IRDEPs or the LWF-Cambodia programme support unit, which in turn may hire external consultants from other NGOs or the provincial or national government if required.

IRDEP Officers are located at the district or community level. A Finance and Administration Officer, Personnel and Administration Assistant and Logistics Assistant provide financial and administrative support to the IRDEPs. Senior project

staffs are required to stay in available dormitories in the project office compound during the week, while CEFs stay in the communities to which they are assigned.

Project implementation is closely monitored and coordinated through weekly staff meetings between the Project Management and staff, in which past achievements and a working plan/budget for each staff/the project for the next week/month are discussed and approved.

The PM prepares an annual work plan consisting of a result-based activity schedule with a time frame and a result-based resource schedule including a budget plan, which is developed on the basis of the Planning and Monitoring Document (PMD) for implementation. These plans are monitored monthly and regularly revised, with approval of the Programme Manager. The PMD targets and budgets are reviewed and revised with approval of Programme Manager. The PMD targets and budgets are reviewed and revised quarterly and annually to adjust to changing conditions and the annual needs and commitment statements from the local development committees and donor partners respectively. The review process is coordinated through the Planning and Monitoring System (PMS) Coordinator and documented in Project Monitoring Reports. Project monitoring reports come to the Representative, Programme Manager and Assistant Programme Manager for comments, advice and adjustment, and then are compiled and reported at programme level by the Assistant Programme Manager. Close collaboration between Human Resource, Programme and Finance departments and the IRDEPs ensures smooth and complementary programme and financial management. Management and Coordination meetings are scheduled monthly. Programme and budget reviews are undertaken quarterly.

Regular two-way communication between the head office in Phnom Penh and the project officers are maintained by phone, radio system and frequent site visits by the Programme Manager, Assistant Programme Manager, Programme Support Coordinators, PMS Coordinator, Human Resource Management and Development Staff and Administration and Finance staff. Likewise Project Managers and their staff come to Phnom Penh as necessary for management and coordination meeting. Communications between departments and units follow the chain of command to ensure clear lines of supervision and responsibility.

The Human Resource Management Department (HRMD) is led by the Human Resource Manager and consists of two units: the Training Unit and the Personnel Administration Unit. The Training Unit coordinates staff development, community capacity building and the sale of training services to the development community for income generation. Annual needs assessments are conducted and an annual staff development plan is made in coordination with the other departments. The training unit is guided by HRMD policies approved by the Management Team. The Personnel Administration Unit takes care of personnel matters, including job announcements, recruitment, personnel orientation, personnel policy administration and the keeping of confidential personnel records. This unit is guided by an Operations Manual containing administrative and personnel policies that are based on LWF guidelines and policies.

The Finance and Administration Department is led by the Finance and Administration Manager who oversees internal and external audits, the Finance Unit,

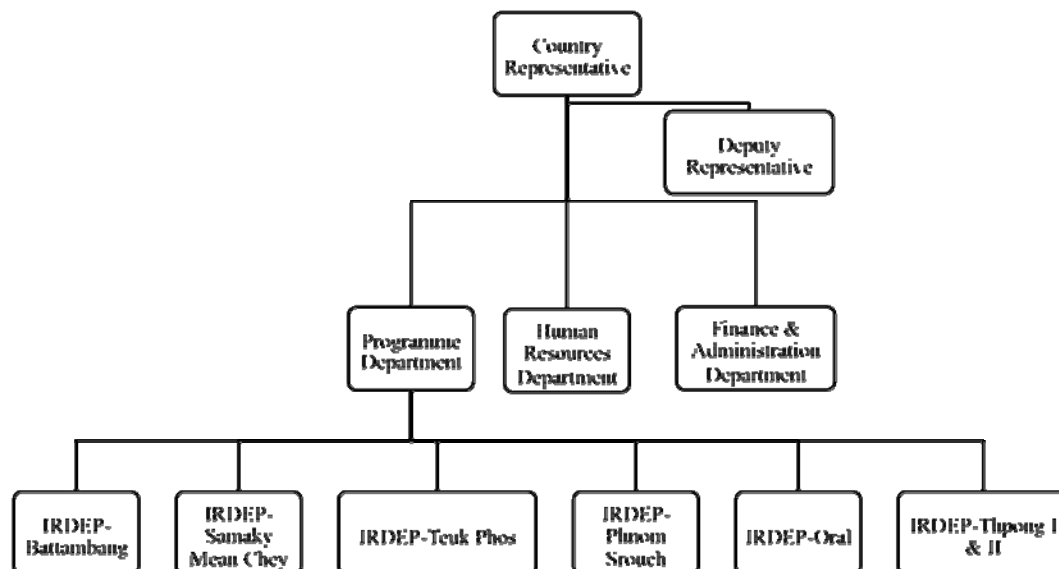
Administrative Unit and the General Services Unit. This department works in close collaboration with the other departments and the field projects providing financial and logistical support. It is guided by the LWF Finance Manual and LWF Cambodia Operations Manual. This unit plays an important financial support function including the strict and transparent monitoring, and control of accounting, procurement, petty cash management, payroll, and all financial planning, budgeting, reporting and auditing oversight. It is also in charge of office facilities, equipment, and vehicles security, up-deep and general maintenance.

Staffing and organization

Staffing of IRDEPs at community level consists of Project manager, CEOs, CEFs, Health officer, Rights-based approach and advocacy officer, HRD officer, Finance and Administrative officer, Personnel and Administrative assistant, and Logistics assistant.

General Staffing Principles:

- Target ratio of 1 CEO for 8 CEFs to emphasize supervisory support.
- Target ratio of 1 CEF to one village increasing coverage to two or a maximum of three villages depending on the strength of the CEF and the size and graduation status of the village.
- Programme and project support coordinators and offices will be contract-based; that is they will be hired only for the duration of the funding proposal that supports the position. Core functions covered by IRDEP core funding are exempt, but priority goes to Advocacy and Empowerment facilitation position as opposed to technical expertise which can be hired on an as need basis.
- Project manager and finance assistant are included in any substantial project funding proposals (i.e. EU, Asia Foundation, or other supplemental project).



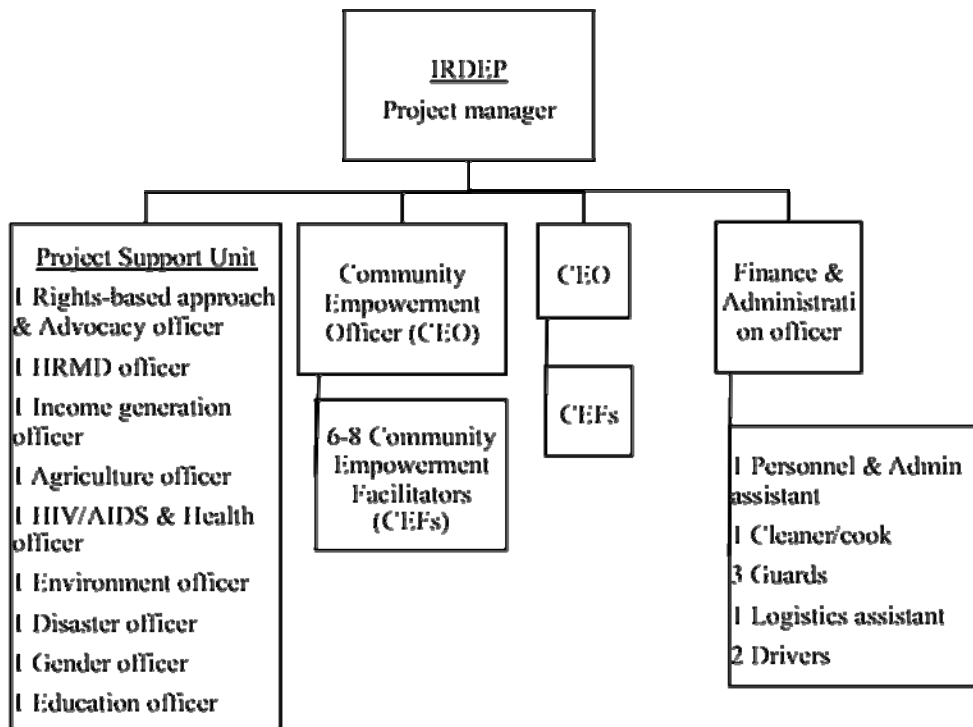


Figure 5.1. LWF Cambodia Programme Organizational chart (LWF, 2005)

Financing

LWF is financed by various sources as shown in Table 5.1 (LWF, 2008, op cit., p. 29). The majority of funding is from donor partners ranking from DanChurchAid/Danida, the largest contributor, with 23.39% of total investments followed by EED accounted for 20.67%. It is also sponsored from the World Bank/JSDF which accounts for 2.8% in addition with small-scale income from local donors of about 1%. This shows that LWF-Cambodia programme is being supported widely from abroad especially European partners.

Table 5.1 Programme resources 2008

Donor partners	Amount (USD)	Percentage of Total Aid
Australian Lutheran World Service/AusAid	728,900.07	13.62
Church of Sweden	136,704.17	2.55
DanChurchAid/Danida	1,251,656.39	23.39
DanChurchAid/ECHO DipECHO	256,011.76	4.78
Evangelical Lutheran Church in America	180,000.00	3.36
Evangelischer Entwicklungsdienst (EED)	1,105,902.00	20.67
FinnChurchAid	1,089,009.52	20.35
GNC-HA/Deutsches Hauptausschuss	29,485.98	0.55
FinnChurchAid/European Union	370,298.36	6.9
Women of the ELCA (WELCA) Faith Lutheran Church Bismarck	1,185.00	0.02
World Bank/JSDF	150,000.00	2.8
Other local income (individual)	190.00	0.003
Local income exchange gain	10,537.29	0.19
Local interest income	4,253.03	0.08
Local income sale of old asset	2,994.92	0.06
Local income sale of LWF services	32,283.47	0.6
Total income	5,349,411.96	100

Below in Table 5.2 (LWF, 2008, op cit., p. 30) is the breakdown of income and expenditures of each project and components used.

Table 5.2 *Income and expenditures 2008*

Project title/Description	Income (USD)	Expenditures (USD)
Programme operations	21,415.17	21,415.17
IRDEP-Battambang	535,625.38	535,625.38
IRDEP-Teuk Phos	469,774.47	469,774.47
IRDEP-Samaky Meanchey	471,998.55	471,998.55
IRDEP-Oral	704,486.56	704,486.56
IRDEP-Phnom Srouch	476,108.83	476,108.83
IRDEP-Thpong	430,999.64	430,999.64
Bavel Demining	373,653.33	373,653.33
AZEECON	47,449.46	47,449.46
CBE HIV/AIDS awareness, prevention, care and support	238,407.37	238,407.37
FCA/EU Thpong 2	246,308.90	246,308.90
DCA/ECHO disaster preparedness mitigation 2007-2008	200,613.57	200,613.57
FCA staff capacity building	34,852.85	34,852.85
DCA drinking water project 2007	19,075.19	19,075.19
FCA women focused income generation	70,349.81	70,349.81
Programme development Burma/Laos/Indonesia	18,390.56	18,390.56
FCA school construction 2008	41,978.71	41,978.71
DCA drinking water project 2008	56,606.11	56,606.11
WB community empowerment through access to land	18,355.63	18,355.63
FCA adaptation to climate change in Cambodia	11,424.62	11,424.62
FCA localization support project 2008-2010	16,633.81	16,633.81
DCA/ECHO disaster preparedness mitigation 2008-2009	77,894.31	77,894.31
Scholarship fund WELCA	1,185.00	1,185.00
Micro credit for women 2008-2009	4,433.52	4,433.52
Total	4,595,511.55	4,595,511.55

Project Location Profile

Kampong Chhnang province

Kampong Chhnang is located in the central part of the country. The province can be reached by national Highway 5 and by boat on the Tonle Sap River. It is 92 km from Phnom Penh through Kandal and Kampong Speu provinces. Kampong Chhnang's rural economy is almost entirely dependent on agriculture. Agricultural production is highly dependent on the annual inundation and recession of the Tonle Sap Lake, which occurs during the wet (May to November) and dry (December to April) seasons respectively. Villages are less prosperous the further they are located from the river. The average rice yield, 1 ton per hectare, is very low. This, combined

with small farm sizes, means often there is not enough rice produced to feed the household. However, raising livestock, fishing, sugar palm cultivation, logging, charcoal making and pottery production complement crop production.

Project: IRDEP-Teuk Phos

IRDEP-Teuk Phos operates in 52 of 70 villages in Teuk Phos district located in the far western part of Kampong Chhnang province (Appendix A: Map of Teuk Phos). According to LWF (2005), “all targeted villages are situated in the district of Teuk Phos, covering an area of 1,752.3 Km² with population density of 26.2 per Km²” (p. 10). The project targets a total population of 33,789 with 7,117 families (LWF, 2005). Most villages can be reached by road, some only with extreme difficulty in the rainy season.

According to Table 5.3, baseline data of Teuk Phos (LWF, 2005, op cit., p. 24-25) describes the average family size is 4.7 persons; women head 7.6% of families. Ex-Khmer Rouge families are a part of the population in the target areas. Most of the population has access to safe drinking water from boreholes. 134 primary school classrooms exist in the project area (1 for 60 school children), 432 persons have disabilities, 30.6% are considered the poorest and most marginalized families in the community, 34.8% and 4.7% are respectively poor and landless families.

Baseline data of Teuk Phos								
Commune	Ha. Land/Village			Rice Y. t./ha	Water sources			Classrooms
	Rice	Others	Mines		Deep	Shall	Pond	
TangKrasang	843.5	250.5	0	1	52	34	3	34
Akphivoadth	1,879	133.2	0	1	60	81	28	34
Kbal Teuk	1,074	136	0	0.9	40	44	26	15
Toul Kpos	2,941	633	0	0.8	29	62	15	13
Cheib	1,128	171.5	0	1	40	36	12	21
KrangSkear	1,238	157.4	0	0.9	28	82	1	17
Total	9,102.9	1481.6	0	0.9	249	339	85	134

Table 5.3 *Baseline data of Teuk Phos District*

The following Table 5.4 (LWF, 2005, op cit., p. 24) shows the whole population of Teuk Phos district consisting of poorest 2,180 families, 1,257 family heads are widows, 432 are disabled, and 337 are landless families. These people are primary beneficiaries of the project.

Table 5.4 *Project site of Teuk Phos District*

Project site of Teuk Phos								
Commune	Population	Types of families				Family head widow	Disabled	Landless families
		Poorest	Poor	Medium	Total			
TangKrasang	5,295	156	356	625	1,137	153	47	24
Akphivoadth	8,475	377	755	578	1,710	307	93	56
Kbal Teuk	4,091	377	307	237	921	222	53	26
Toul Kpos	3,807	375	269	182	826	148	31	67
Cheib	6,106	476	476	278	1,230	210	114	45
KrangSkear	6,015	419	318	556	1,293	217	94	119
Total	33,789	2,180	2,481	2,456	7,117	1,257	432	337

Level of Empowerment and Status of Development

The level of empowerment is going to be discussed according to the IRDEP's components based on empowerment indicators using collected data. This is to measure the perception of people toward LWF's contributions. Also the comparison between pre-LWF and post-LWF existence will be discussed as well in order to reflect the people's perception on the NGO and their community.

Perception toward Basic health and HIV and AIDS

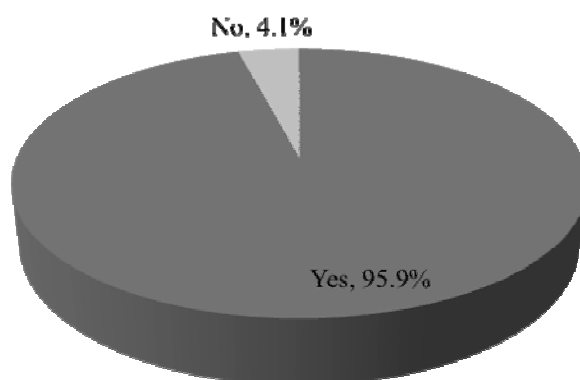


Figure 5.2. Awareness of health campaigns

According to Figure 5.2 and Table 5.6, the awareness, which measures *access*

to information, was highly accepted among respondents regarding health. Almost 96% of respondents said that they could get access to health information and participate in the campaigns. In this regard, many activities and group education about health have been undertaken to share information, it also plays important role changing from the use of traditional treatment like superstitious ways to scientifically medical treatment. Example, people use medicine and vaccination for prevention from diseases and use condom to prevent HIV/AIDS.

Regarding health campaign organizers (Table 5.5), the respondents ranked LWF as the leading sponsor, accounting for 92.4% for campaigning followed by other NGOs of the same discipline at 38.9%. This suggests that LWF is actively involved in and helps advocate health sector for a better health environment.

Organizer	% of respondents
LWF	92.4
NGOs	38.9
Local authority	7.6
Partnership of all 3	4.2

Table 5.5 *Health campaign organizers*

Among many basic health campaigns, respondents were aware of and well informed by LWF. As Table 5.6 shows, the levels of awareness of vaccination for children under one year old (98.7%), malaria and dengue fever (97.3%), safe delivery and health center (88.7%), and tuberculosis (87.4%) were high. Fundamentally the children are now better protected against number one killing diseases (malaria and dengue fever) using vaccination. But the people still do not have sufficient nutrition (52.3%) and enough knowledge about family planning (47.7%). Basic health is very important especially for rural women and children under five years old and LWF has done a very good job in delivering access to information to the people.

Health campaign	% of respondents
Malaria and dengue fever	97.3
Nutrition	52.3
Family planning	47.7
Vaccination for children	98.7
Safe delivery	88.7
Health center/health post	88.7
Tuberculosis	87.4

Table 5.6 *LWF's health campaigns that respondents have participated*

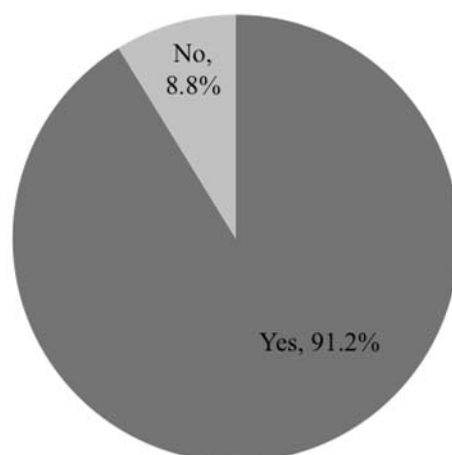


Figure 5.3. HIV and AIDS training participation by respondents

Inclusion and Participation in health training and services is another measurement of awareness. This Figure 5.3 shows the number of respondents who participated in HIV/AIDS training and awareness. Impressively 91.2% of respondents participated in the training. They were well aware of the issue and willing to participate for their own good and their community. Table 5.7 and 5.8 reveals how the people participated in HIV/AIDS education and who provided the information. Dramas, health outreach teams, health education group to houses, village health volunteer (VHV) and peer education groups were initiated by LWF. They stand for the largest networking groups in disseminating training and health education. The majority of respondents participated in them. It is a good learning by direct involvement in the activities at sites so people benefit comprehensively. The Provincial AIDS Office (PAO) and District AIDS Committee (DAC) of government bodies were similarly active in encouraging participation of the community to HIV/AIDS issues. PAO and DAC's HIV/AIDS disseminating activities accounted for 50% (Table 5.7) of involvement from respondents. However, this figure represents moderate *accountability* for public health services to the community to the extent that only half of the respondents held the government health department accountable while the remained claimed that when they had health problems, they could not ask PAO/DAC to serve their needs on time nor to get satisfactory answers about failures in health quality and services. The poor's perception towards proper health services and education regarding government bodies' was not good. As a result, in Table 5.8, only 5.8% of respondents mentioned that PAO/DAC undertook health meetings.

Participation	% of respondents
Dramas	51.4
Health outreach teams	31.9
District of AIDS Committee	50
Provincial AIDS Office	3.6
World AIDS Days	0
Health education group	30.4
Other	15.9

Table 5.7 How people participate

Provider	% of respondents
VHV	78.4
Peer education group	11.5
Outreach team	14.4
DAC/PAO meeting	5.8
Health center	52.5
Media	50.4
Other	22.3

Table 5.8 Basic health and HIV/AIDS education providers

Local organizational capacity in the health sector is strong because different group frequently organized well inside Teuk Phos. For instance, the samples showed 78.4% of VHV activities (Table 5.8). The health education group accounted for 30.4% and health outreach team by 31.9% results in Table 5.7 indicates several small organizations strengthening their network and organizing and mobilizing themselves to help each other. Mostly they work on house-to-house basis.

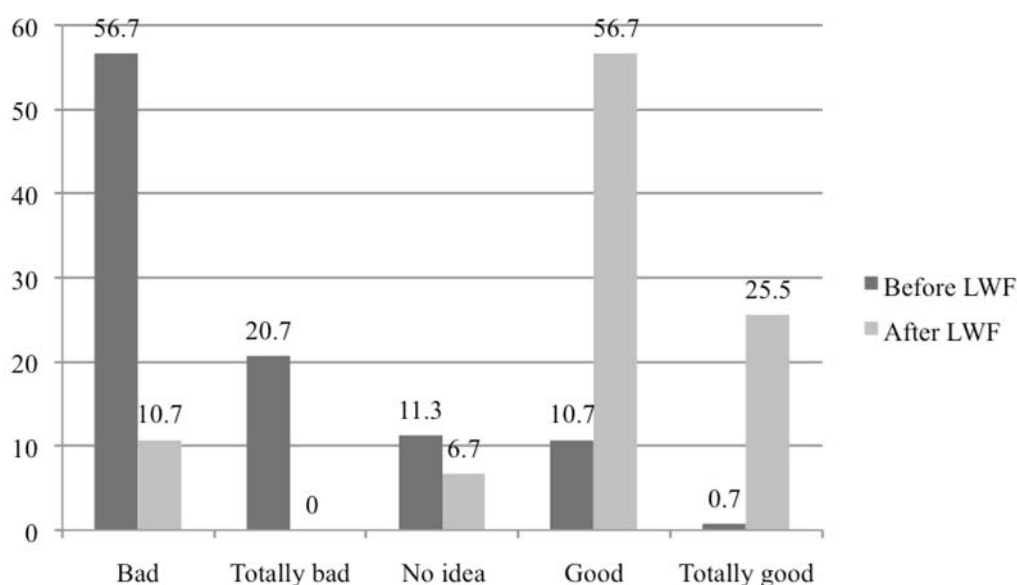


Figure 5.4. Perception toward basic health and HIV/AIDS

As illustrated in Figure 5.4, 77.3% of the respondents complained that they were not satisfied with the health services before LWF. They also mentioned about the lack of resources and training for health. Only some 10% said it was good. However, after LWF began its activities, 82% of the sample viewed health services as improving. This finding suggests that 82% of respondent were satisfied with LWF’s health care activities and that health component project is good for the development in Teuk Phos. Health sector is improved by LWF from their active networking inside the community on grassroots perspective.

Perception toward Disaster Preparedness

According to respondents, there are many types of disasters attacking the community. 96.5% of them agreed that preparations and planning were needed

because disasters worsened the level of their poverty. Half of the respondents (50%) did not know what to do about disasters before they occurred and another 36% tended to wait and suffer from disasters (Table 5.9). Previously before LWF's existence, the only disaster aid was from the government in terms of emergency needs. There was no training or preparation mechanisms for the people.

Activities	% of respondents
Waited and suffered	36
Did not know what to do	50
Did nothing	8.8
Other	6.6

Table 5.9 *Activities undertaken before disasters hit*

According to Table 5.10, the most likely disasters expected to happen are drought accounted for 86.2%, storm with 32.9%, famine for 23.6% of respondents, and sometimes, house burning for 20% of the respondents (Other). Because the area is isolated and vulnerable so the need of external aid is essential to help ease their lives.

Disaster	% of respondents
Flood	8.6
Drought	86.2
Famine	23.6
Storm	32.9
All of them	0.7
Other	20

Table 5.10 *Expecting disasters*

The people inside Teuk Phos tried to seek information regarding solutions and training for disaster preparedness once the Village Disaster Preparedness Management Committee (VDPMC) was established by LWF initiative with awareness and support from the community for the purpose of *access to information* and updates. It also provides training to the people for disaster preparedness. To measure level of access to information, awareness of VDPMC's activities is the main category of analysis.

Training	% of respondents
Disaster preparation	61.9
Disaster planning	30.3
Recovery plan	14.3
Other	21

Table 5.11 *Activities/Trainings provided by VDPMC*

Table 5.11 shows 61.9% participation in disaster preparation and 30.3% of disaster planning. Moreover, the awareness of the recovery plan reaches 14.3%. This data tells the level of *inclusion and participation* either before or after disasters hit. So, it can be assessed that more than half of the respondents participated in preparation

for a disaster in order to increase their knowledge and skills on disaster risk management and mitigation. All of the participants described one small scheme for irrigation to cope with droughts and to mitigate impacts of droughts in order to improve the use of their land. Although more than half of the samples joined the preparation, some respondents did not intend to participate in the planning and recovery plan, leading them to decrease of participation level.

In terms of *accountability*, VDPMC has the largest share of responsibility to the people such as updating training courses, disaster news, emergency aid, reconstructing unit, and requesting for aid from external partners. According to LWF staff, the local meteorology authority also played an important role in cooperating with VDPMC. Some of former authority staff are now working in VDPMC for better and effective information sharing and training.

VDPMC formed a community-based disaster management committee (CBDMC) for the purpose of preparing annual disaster risk management plans and implementing disaster mitigation projects. The *local organizational capacity* of both VDPMC and CBDMC were viewed as moderately successful by the respondents because of their limited technical and human resources in this field. However, the evaluation of disseminating of information and training by VDPMC is as high as 95% rated by respondents. Almost all trainers at VDPMC were trained by LWF with special training for disaster trainer and the people.

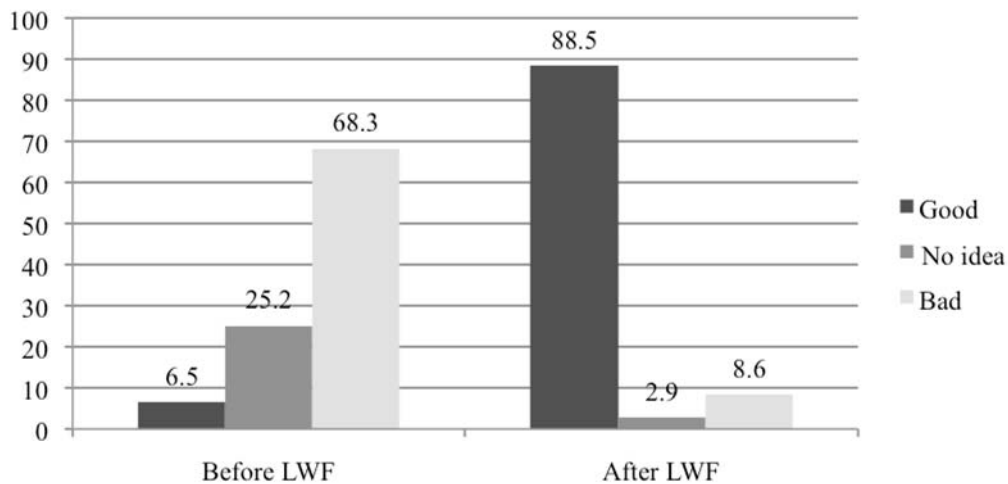


Figure 5.5. Situation after disasters hit

As displayed in Figure 5.5, before LWF disaster preparedness, the perception of respondents was bad, accounting for 68.3% of the sample, compared with a better evaluation after LWF existence, totaling 88.5%. This means that LWF's initiative and effort in enhancing disaster preparedness offered a better sense of preparedness at the community level in Teuk Phos than before LWF began its activities. Therefore, in this sense the community is better prepared to cope with disasters effectively. However the level of empowerment can be assessed at a lower level of satisfaction than what was expected.

Perception toward Environment

Table 5.12 Available natural resources

Natural resources	% of respondents
Forest	96.4
Mountains	80.6
Lakes	22.3
Streams	53.2
Wildlife	79.1
Other	10.1

The above table shows the natural resources existing in the community. As illustrated, the area is mountainous and full of forest and wild habitats. It is also one of the endangered areas in Cambodia and in need of protection from human-made threats. Table 5.13 shows the threats and problems currently in the area. As displayed, there are four main threats and problems perceived by the respondents: Illegal logging (84.1%), forest fire (83.3%), wildlife hunt (47.8%), and investment concession (36.2%).

Threat	% of respondents
Investment concession	36.2
Water pollution	5.8
Air pollution	0.7
Illegal logging	84.1
Forest fire	83.3
Wildlife hunt	47.8
Other	12.3

Table 5.13 *Current threats and problems endangering natural resources*

Figure 5.6 below shows that 83% of respondents agreed on high *access to information* and they welcomed the creation of a community-based natural resource management committee (CBNRMC). Regarding status and updates on natural resources, 55.8% of respondents had received information regularly while the rest said they had not (Figure 5.7). This means that level of access to information regarding environment is not especially good, with just 55.8% of respondents having received important environmental updates. This resulted in irresponsible environment authority for the environment such as corruption and illegal permission to cut the community forest and hunt wildlife.

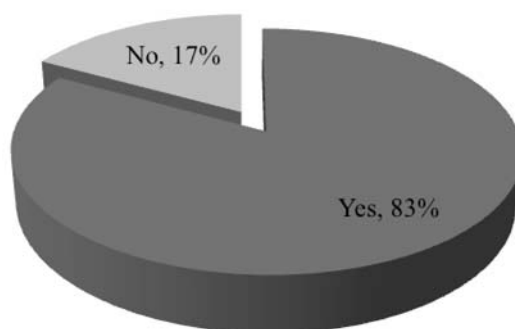


Figure 5.6. Awareness of CBNRMC

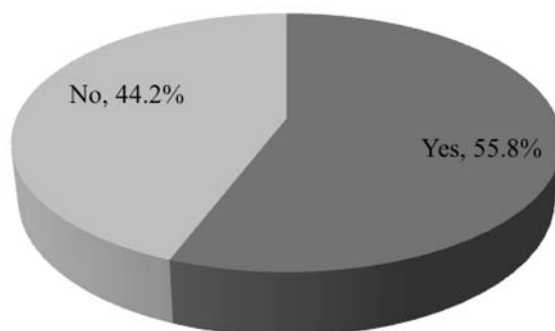


Figure 5.7. Environmental information update and dissemination

Table 5.14 introduces the *participation level* of the community directly and by using the community's power to establish the CBNRMC. This table shows a strong connection and network of triangulated efforts from LWF (66.4%), NGOs (21.6%) and the community (12.7%) to protect the natural resources. Given full support by the people, LWF initiated the CBNRMC which was created in the image of the community's common interest: halting the environmental degradation.

Involvement	% of respondents
LWF	66.4
NGOs	21.6
Community's authorities	12.7
Other	12.7

Table 5.14 CBNRMC's establishment

Table 5.15 shows the *accountability* of organizations for problems happening in the community perceived by the people. 61.8% of respondents viewed CBNRMC as a priority to answer to the problems and solutions of the community while 41.2% demonstrated their demand to hold local authority accountable. Usually the government is responsible for addressing problems when the forest is massively destroyed by accidents and human activity. The two organizations thus bear most of the responsibility for accountability to the community. In this regards, the environment was not properly preserved because the authorities did not play their parts to enforce law and accuse criminals, which involved some private companies.

Table 5.15 Accountable institutions

Institution	% of respondents
CBNRMC	61.8
Local authority	41.2
Private companies	0
No one	1.5
Other	9.2

Figure 5.8 below shows the level of *local organizational capacity* of CBNRMC, the only formal local organization involved in environmental issues. Both accountability level and activities indicate enough capacity (62.6% of respondents) to protect the resources mentioned. However, caution over hot issues such as illegal logging, community forest land grabbing and law enforcement must be maintained.

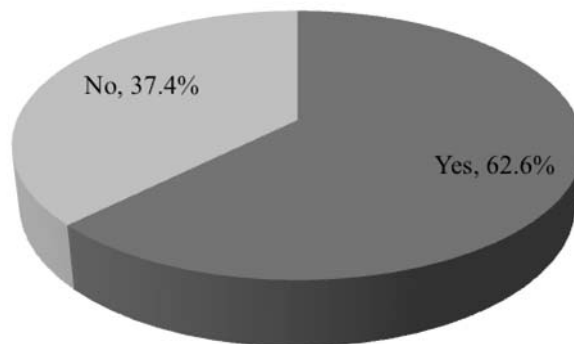


Figure 5.8. Satisfaction regarding CBNRMC's activities

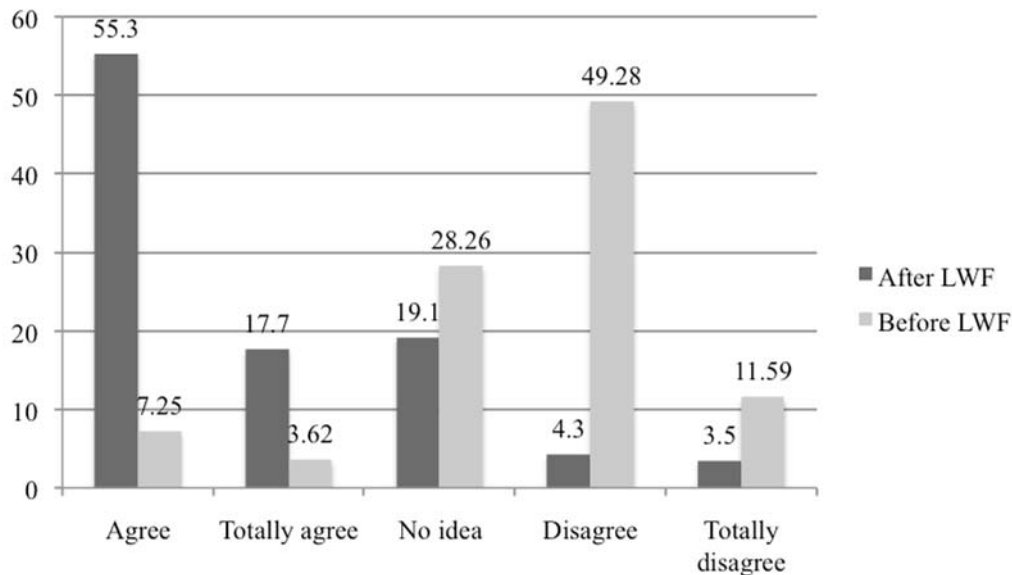


Figure 5.9. Perception toward environment aspect and natural resources

The figure above shows perception of the respondents towards the environment. 60.87% of them disagreed that the community's natural resource management was good before LWF entered the scene. After LWF's arrival, 73% of

respondents agreed that the community is better organized to manage and protect the natural resources and the environment. However, the empowerment level in this area remains vulnerable because the accountability degree is only perceived 61.8% from CBMRNC and 41.2% from concerned authority, plus the degree of access to information is just 55.8% of respondents. This results in regular complaints from the people about their forestland's exploitation and gradual loss of natural resources in the forest.

Perception toward Community Development

Local organization	% of respondents
VDC	96.7
Water use	6.6
Health volunteer	84.9
Farmer Field School	44.1
Other	5.3

Table 5.16 *Awareness of Community development*

Table 5.16 shows the level of awareness established by LWF's efforts such as creating and supporting VDC, water use programmes, health volunteers, farmer field school and other community based organizations in order to raise development. According to this table, the level of *access to information* about community development is dramatically increasing – VDC at 96.7% means that almost everyone knew about the programme and its role, with awareness of health volunteers rose to 84.9%, and the field school 44.1%. The key aspect here is VDC awareness because its role is to manage, organize, and support the people in Teuk Phos, according to their needs.

Inclusion and participation is high at 94%, according to Figure 5.10. This means people joined and actively participated in this aspect of development. As surveyed, they could take part in the election process of VDC and community-based organizations such as the village bank and rice bank. Moreover, the poor could also join in providing opinions about ways to avoid conflict and improve decision making by having access to follow up information and updates about their community development.

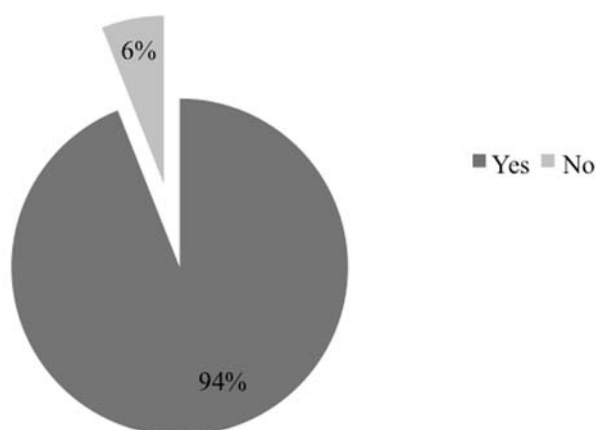


Figure 5.10. Level of participation in Community development

VDC is the main actor for *accountability* to the people. Sometimes local authorities play specific roles in community work, as they are communal authorities. Decentralization of power vertically and horizontally is working as well in Teuk Phos, as Table 5.17 shows only 48.7% of the samples agreed that authorities are accountable to the community, meaning that the rest of the power was shifted from authorities in terms of community development works to VDC. As a result, 64.7% said they could hold VDC accountable for some of the work they have done. It also means that, aside from local authority, people could use their power to ask VDC for direct services in the community because VDC is headed people who oversee and set up plans for the community's common interests and development. It makes the finding (64.7% of respondents toward VDC) significant enough to show that the people are empowered along with authorities (48.7% of respondents), and the observant, LWF (18% of respondents).

Institution	% of respondents
VDC	64.7
Local authorities	48.7
LWF	18
Other	0

Table 5.17 Accountability to Community

Local organizational capacity of VDC is mainly one of the criteria for empowering people. Even though VDC had only 64.7% of accountability trust from the people, LWF tried to equip VDC with much capacity building in order to release it from the exercise of public/political influence and into the role of community level servant. The 64.7% "vote" for VDC indicates that respondents were proud of the daily activities and responsibilities of VDC because of its normal functions of organizing, monitoring, managing, and serving the community's needs.

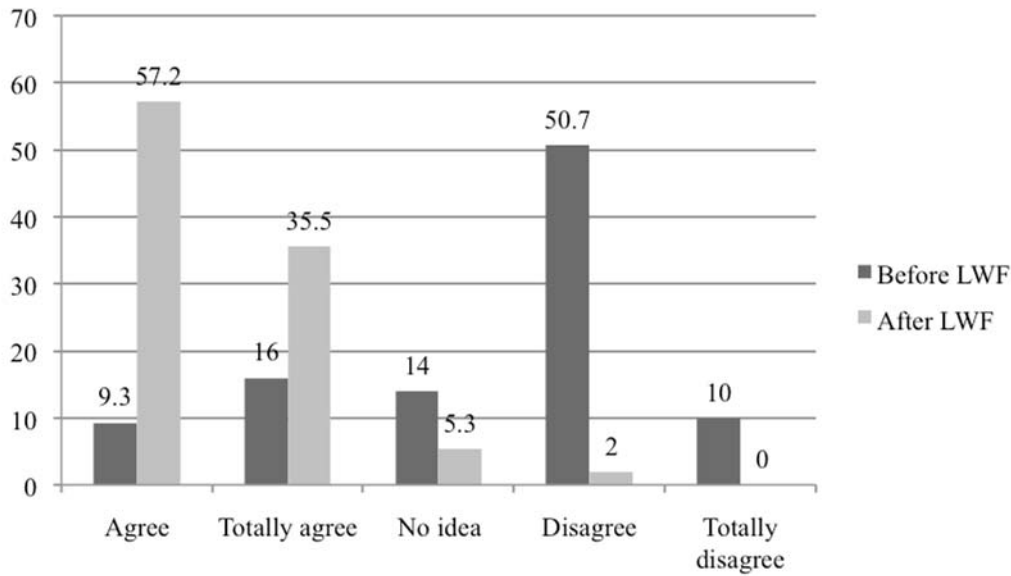


Figure 5.11. The community is well developed

Before the time LWF came in, 60.7% of respondents disagreed with the assumption that the community was well developed and headed in the right direction because of few community organizations with insufficient leadership and organizational capacity. On the other hand, 92.7% agreed that the community developed through empowering people and self-help after LWF started operating in the community. This difference shows that the level of empowerment in the community development is increasing and high at the moment and that it is expected to lead to full promotion of the community when the whole community is aware of, participates in and uses their privilege of control and management. In fact, at the moment the people are aware of and are empowered to manage development process by themselves. More emphasis is placed on women and youth in decision-making. It can be seen the horizontal relationship building, organization, networking, learning, exchange is being used to broaden the resource and leadership base for community development and to build solidarity for empowerment and advocacy process. This is where the advocacy element was integrated into community development as a foundation.

Perception toward Human rights and Advocacy

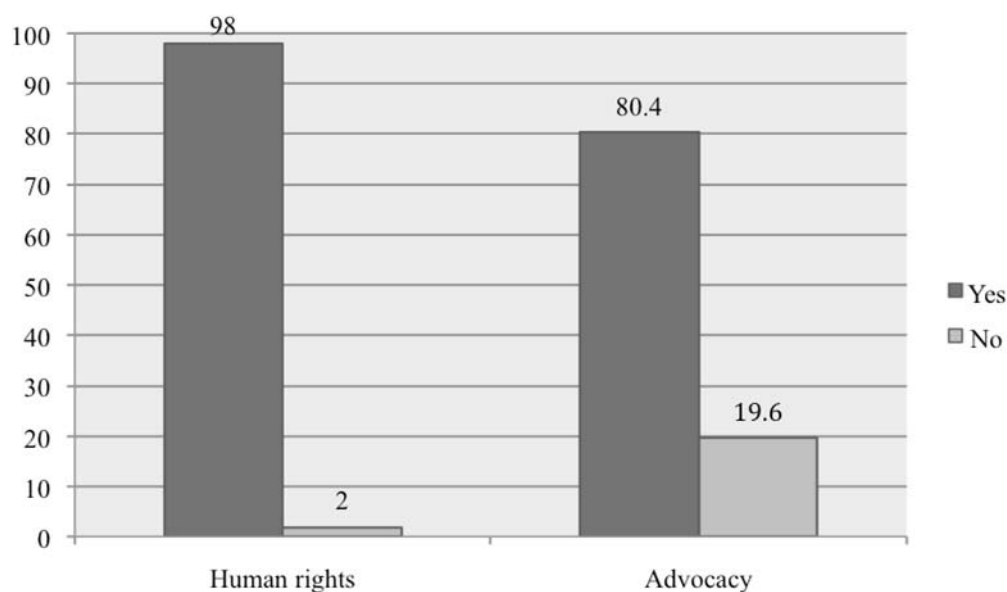


Figure 5.12. Human rights awareness and Advocacy level

This figure shows that level of *access to information* of human rights and advocacy are remarkably high, especially when compared to the pre-LWF period. It can be assumed that 98% and 80.4% of respondents could acquire knowledge and awareness regarding human rights/advocacy news and training. As displayed in Table 5.18, major human rights perceived by respondents such as the right to life (71.7%), right to expression (48.3%), and equality before law (43.4%) are among the increased rights level in the community and group meetings. People can live freely, express their opinion and ideas, and do not frighten like before from high class people grabbing their community’s land.

Rights	% of respondents
Freedom	71.7
Expression	48.3
Equality before law	43.4
Culture	30.3
Food	29
Employment	29
Other	11

Table 5.18 Level of Rights

With rights abuses by local authorities and private companies in the past, the community’s perception of abuses of the rights to expression (50%) and information access (46.4%) were particularly strong, followed by rights to participation in politics at 25%. Abuse and threats making life in the community fearful were perhaps supported by illiteracy and lack of community members’ knowledge about their rights and advocacy.

Rights abuse	% of respondents
Politics	25
Expression	50
Employment	3.6
Information access	46.4
Other	3.6

Table 5.19 *Rights abuse and advocacy before LWF existence*

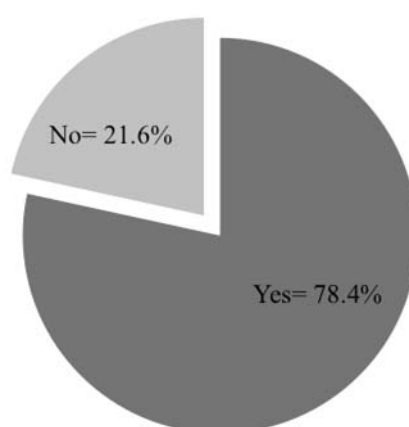


Figure 5.13. Participation in Human rights trainings

Figure 5.13 represents the four-fifths of respondents who *participated* in human rights training, meaning access to information led them to participate actively in human rights because they wanted to know more about their rights and what they could do to better promote them in their community. Simultaneously, advocacy also takes place. In Table 5.20, participation in advocacy was supported through community meetings by 88.4% of respondents and group advocacy by 19.8%.

Means of participation	% of respondents
Community meeting	88.4
Human rights campaign	3.3
Group advocacy	19.8
VDC	6.6
Other	0.8

Table 5.20 *Advocacy participation*

Table 5.21 also demonstrates the *local organizational capacity* for human rights and advocacy. With 88.4% and 19.8% in support of community meetings and group advocacy, respectively, the respondents recognized the benefits brought to them

by the strong activities of formal and informal groups. 3.3% for human rights campaign and 6.6% for VDC are other examples of supplementary networking.

Training tool	% of respondents
LWF training	94.5
NGOs training	43.4
Local authorities	13.7
Media	58.9
Political parties	4.8
Other	7.5

Table 5.21 *How people get human rights trainings*

Training organizer	% of respondents
LWF	91.8
NGOs	40.5
Political parties	1.8
Other	3.6

Table 5.22 *Training organizers*

The above two tables show that LWF training for the people accounted for 91.8% of all training, followed by other NGO training at 40.5%. This tells us that LWF provided almost all the human rights and advocacy related training to the people and that they did it better than other NGOs and government rights agencies. Moreover, 94.5% of respondents tended to join training organized by LWF but only 3.7% by government agencies. This shows a wide disparity between LWF and the government's will and commitment to promote human rights.

Institutions	% of respondents
VDC	61.5
NGOs	12.8
Local authorities	81.8
Other	5.4

Table 5.23 *Accountability concerning conflicts and abuses*

The respondents believed that local authority was the biggest source of conflict and abuses occurring in the community. Likewise, 81.8% of respondents said they sought answers and solutions from the concerned authorities for human rights because most likely it was local authorities who were responsible for evictions and violence toward the people. 81.8% of respondents mentioned local authorities and 61.5% VDC. These numbers are high enough to suggest that people knew who to ask when conflicts and abuses happened.

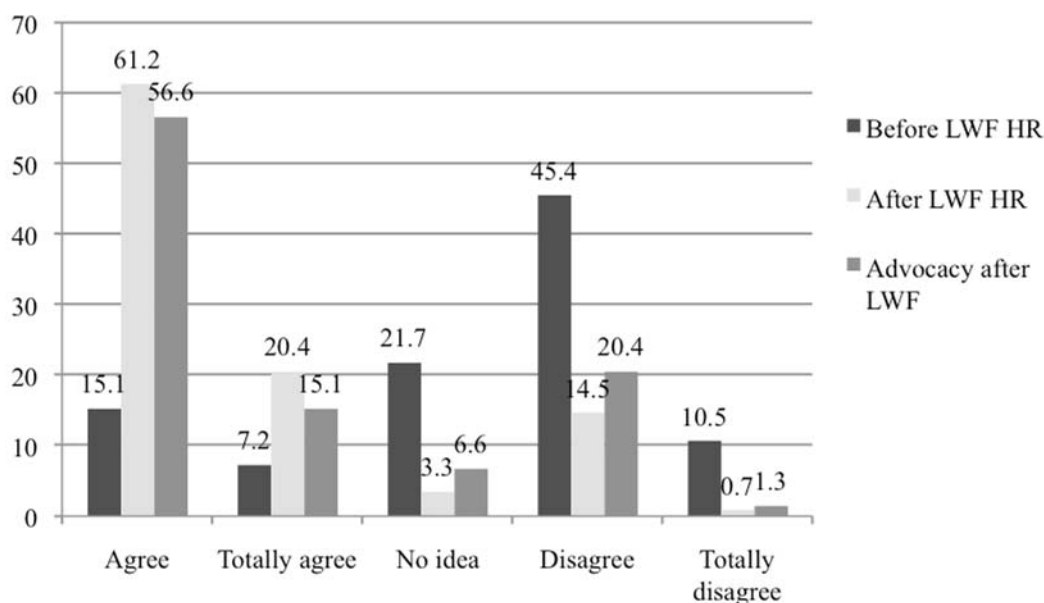


Figure 5.14. Perception about their Human rights and advocacy knowledge

Figure 5.14 demonstrates perception of respondents about their human rights and advocacy knowledge. Before LWF existence, 55.9% of respondents observed that they did not know about their rights. However, after LWF arrived, 81.6% agreed with LWF's in its human rights activity and 71.7% agreed with LWF in advocacy practices. It can be assumed that after LWF arrived, respondents' knowledge of human rights was increasing, they were actively involved in advocacy, and abuse as well as violence also decreased gradually. Even the abuses happened before LWF were not so bad, though the operation on human rights and advocacy of LWF also promoted higher level of rights and democracy.

Perception toward Food Security

Usually poor families lack of ideas about obtaining food so their food security is insufficient. Daily food security for Teuk Phos community before LWF came involved raising animals (50% of respondents) and farming (38.5% of respondents). There were neither activities nor training to secure food and living.

Activities	% of respondents
Livestock	50
Farming	38.5
Other	18.2

Table 5.24 Activities undertaken when food was insufficient

To empower people in this area, *access to information* in food security programmes is crucial. In Figure 5.15 below, 95.9% of respondents said they were aware of LWF's food security programmes. This information regarding the programmes was well distributed and people tended to seek benefit from this programme because they knew it could increase their welfare and income in case they wanted to create a small business.

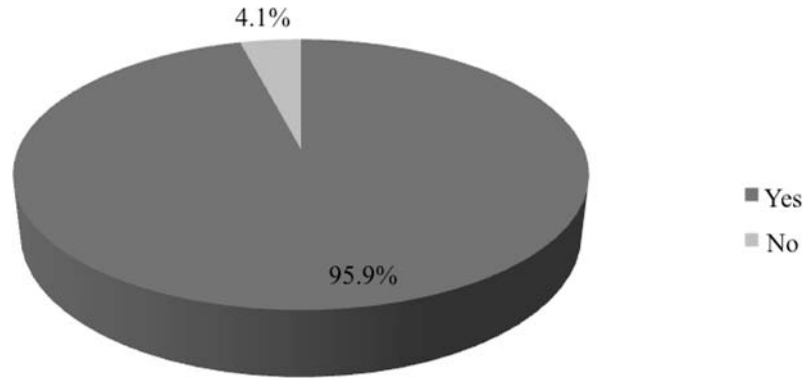


Figure 5.15. Awareness of Food security programmes

The *inclusion and participation* of respondents in the food security programme is well understood. As below table illustrates, LWF's livestock services reached 83% among respondents because a majority of them raised animals for their living and had to feed their families. By observing the livestock condition, the researcher could understand how valuable livestock was to the people. At least there were two different kinds of animals raised per household. These areas of awareness were followed by irrigation schemes (52.4% of respondents) and integrated farming management (30.6% of respondents) since these programmes could benefit the respondents' farming techniques and irrigation projects for water storage and management. All of these benefited agricultural food security. Land entitlement was the least well understood at about 15% of respondents. This figure means that a part of the population of Teuk Phos in particular, among the poorest and most displaced among refugees of the war, and with a number of KR households, had the availabilities participating in land entitlement programmes. After the national integration of the coalition government in 1998, KR households had been encouraged to become ordinary citizens even though they had become refugees and displaced people nationwide. In Teuk Phos, land entitlement programme targeted these groups by promoting land for housing and farming. Certain numbers were provided both land and domestic animals to raise for their primary stage of resettlement. LWF tried to work with all actors: individuals, local and international networks, NGOs, UN bodies and local authorities and the government for fair and equitable access to farm and forest land for sustainable and dignified livelihoods for the refugees.

Programs	% of respondents
Irrigation scheme	52.4
Integrated farming management	30.6
Livestock services	83
Land entitlement to the poor	15
Other	23.8

Table 5.25 Participation in food security programmes

The accountable organizations for food security programmes would be the project's carrier (LWF) and local authority (District office of agriculture). LWF played a vital

role in *accountability* to the people such as providing services and training as well as skills and techniques to advance the quality of farming and agricultural land use.

The level of *local organizational capacity* is high in terms of services and training for the purpose of sustained and improved livelihood. Indigenous knowledge, skills and practices including soil conservation, intercropping, integrated framing systems, integrated pest management, crop diversification, improved animal husbandry practices, food processing and agriculture marketing, were to move the community toward food self-sufficiency and beyond to a sustainable market economy. Farmer Field School (FFS) was created to share knowledge about existing innovative IFM systems in Teuk Phos based on indigenous knowledge and use of common study plots to learn about new, appropriate agricultural techniques.

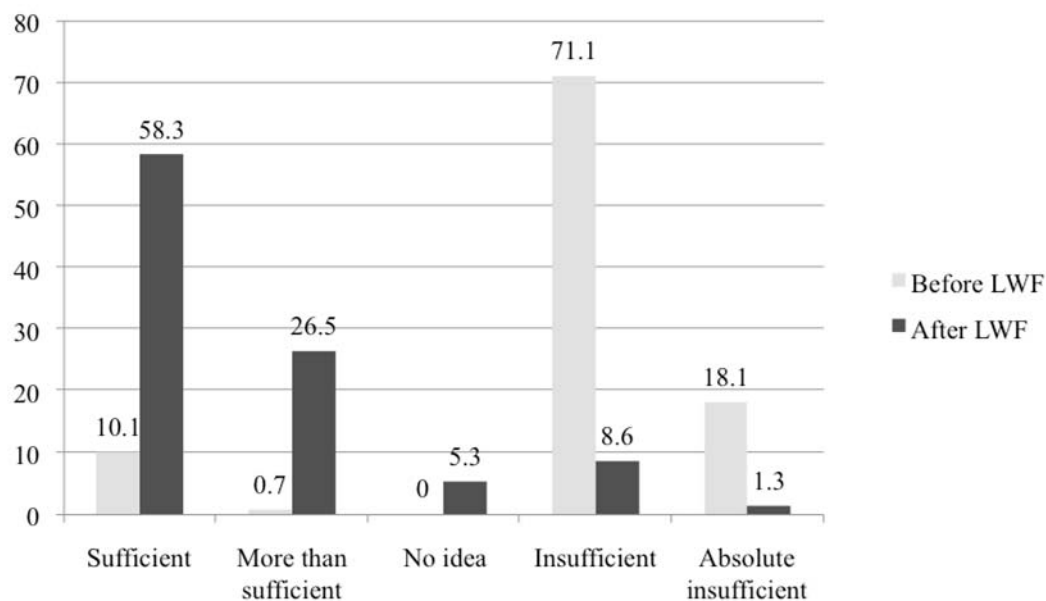


Figure 5.16. Perception toward Food security

According to the above figure, 89.2% of respondents said their food was insecure and insufficient before LWF arrived, although after LWF arrived, 84.8% of them accepted that the food supply was secure and adequate in terms of integrating technical management and choice, i.e. enough irrigation system, grain research, fertilizer utility, veterinarian services, pest and animal disease control.

Perception toward Income Generation

Activities	% of respondents
Farming	61.1
Livestock	30.9
Labour sale	30.2
Logging	18.1
Other	11.4

Table 5.26 *Income generating activities before LWF arrived*

As illustrated in the above table, before LWF appeared, 61.1% of the people

were engaged in farming, 30.9% raising animals, 30.2% and 18.1% labour sale and logging respectively. Sometimes they cut woods to make charcoal which both destroyed the forest and polluted the air. The main income generating activity was based on agriculture. Even though trying as much as they could, the people could not satisfy with the income they earned. Example, for year round farming, one household could eat the harvest only for 8-month time. After LWF helped them, the poor could generate ideas for saving, doing business and using microcredit in many different ways. Table 5.27 shows the remarkable extent to which people started to use microcredit and save. Small businesses were created in the forms of home-based grocery stores, battery charging, brick making and community investment.

Usage of money	% of respondents
Saving account	64.4
Personal business	59.6
Microcredit	79.7

Table 5.27 Saving, Personal business, and Microcredit status

Ideas and initiatives were communicated to the people in order for them to take part in and benefit from since income generation could increase their living standard and change their habit of dependency from basic agriculture to small and medium entrepreneurship. This is good for future planning and development. This encouraged farmers to *access to information* and improve their wellbeing.

The *accountability* indicator in business lies within financial institutions, i.e., VBs, microfinancing and commercial banks inside Teuk Phos. If there is exploitation regarding credit, LWF always has lawyers and advocates ready to sue in certain cases. This shows that LWF's ability to help generate income empowered the community.

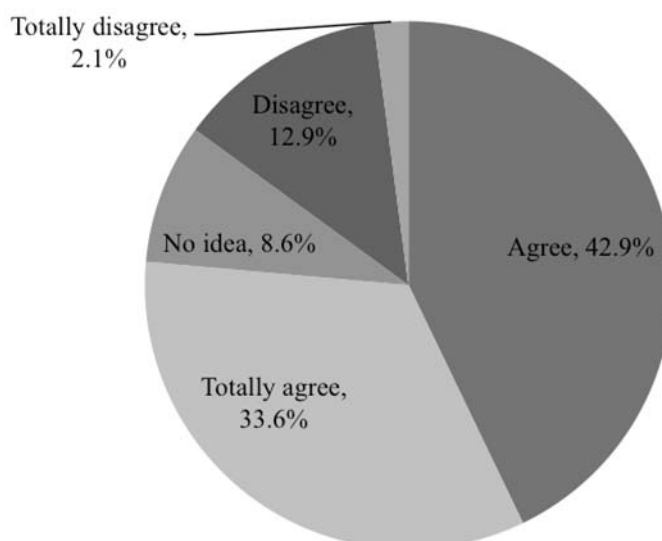


Figure 5.17. Perception toward Village bank's effective management and independency

People got involved in the village bank (VB) and rice bank in order for individual to benefit from profitable services. This shows good *local organizational capacity* in with regard to income generation. The flow of credit use shows how

strong the organizational capacity is. That is why 76.5% of respondents in Figure 5.17 marked the village bank as an independent and good microcredit institution for them. In support of this, Table 5.28 shows the VB as the main source of financing with 68.4%. LWF also lent some amount of money for entrepreneurial activities requested by the people. As observed, a group of respondents tended to use traditional habit of borrowing money from neighbors, relatives, or grocery sellers (6.1%). They need more knowledge about microfinancing system in order to substitute for old ones.

Sources	% of respondents
Village banks	68.4
LWF	29.8
Microfinancing institutes	7.9
NGOs	0.9
Other	6.1

Table 5.28 Sources of financing

Participation	% of respondents
Small industry	8.1
Service business	14.1
Vocational training	74.1
Other	0.4

Table 5.29 Participation in LWF's income generation

The poor *participated* in LWF initiatives for income generation activities remarkably. As Table 5.29 indicates 74.1% of respondents participated in vocational training and another 14.1% started to join service business as well as 8.1% of them involved small business with LWF's support.

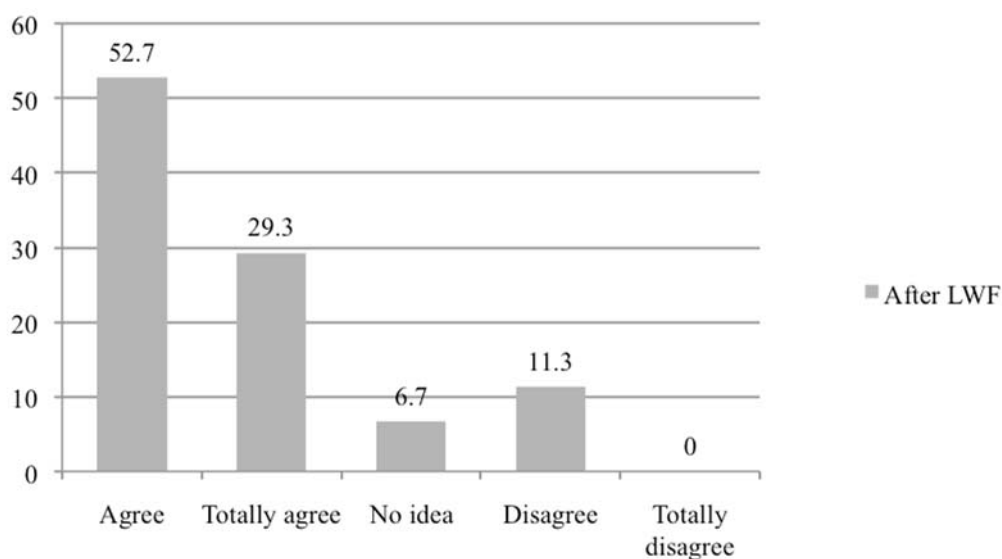


Figure 5.18. Perception toward Income generating which increases earnings

Figure 5.18 shows that 82% of respondents agreed that LWF's income

generation activities increased their earnings and welfares. They considered more about preserving the resources, reducing charcoal making, and use efficient and effective labour sale within the skills they learned. Moreover, banking knowledge and use would be of essence to them in the near future as they expand their minds and ideas.

Perception toward Primary education and Nonformal education

96% of respondents said that they sent their children to primary school mostly at the age of 5-8 years old (Figure 5.19 and 5.20) because it is an appropriate age group to start primary education. The finding can be interpreted to show that most children are six years old.

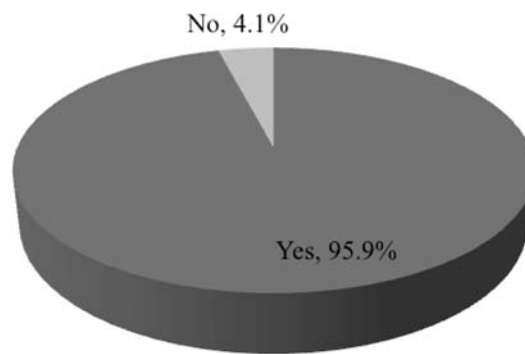


Figure 5.19. Children’s enrollment to Primary school

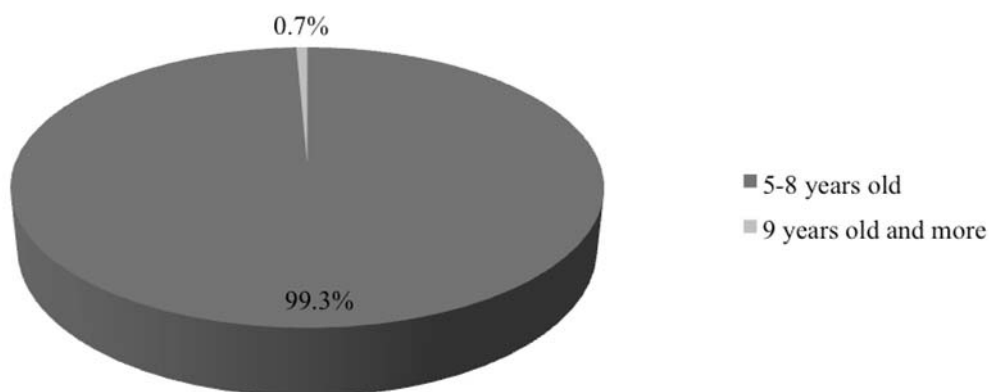


Figure 5.20. Enrollment age of Children to Primary education

Large numbers of enrolled children demonstrates *access to information*. It also highlights the fact that the government’s role has been vital in the education sector since the government prioritized education as one of urgent sectors to develop Cambodia. Being assisted by the government, LWF could play its role according the needs of schools for materials and facilities. Table 5.30 shows the school’s facilities for primary education in Teuk Phos. More than 60% of respondents were satisfied with LWF’s supplement of facilities to primary schools. Namely, tables, desks, writing

boards, stationery, classrooms, and libraries were provided and built under LWF's fund for primary education program.

96% supported respondents' rating of school for *inclusion and participation* because they valued education as priceless wealth for their children and the next generation to come.

Facility	% of respondents
Enough	63.6
Not enough	7.9
Do not know	28.5

Table 5.30 Adequacy of School Facilities

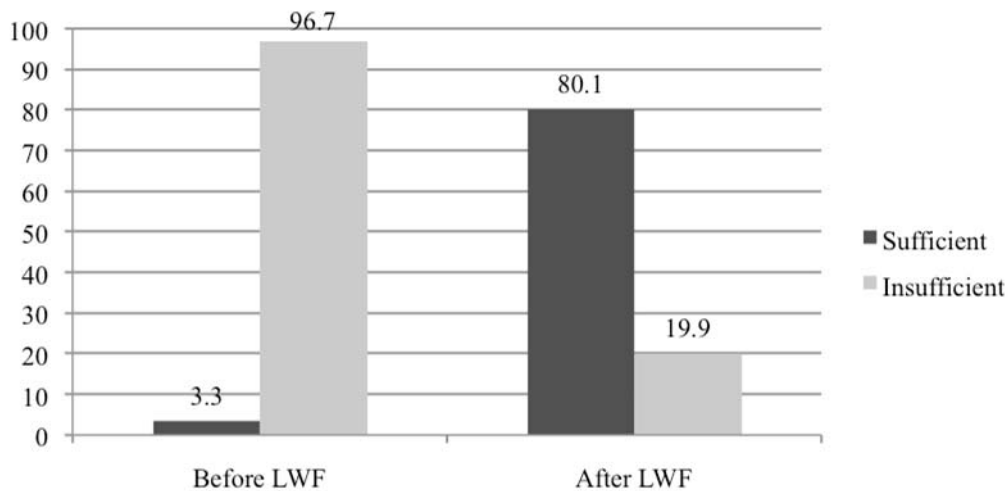


Figure 5.21. Classrooms for Children

Figure 5.21 displays the number of classrooms for children before and after LWF's time. 96.7% of respondents viewed it was insufficient in the past; however, 80% of respondents were satisfied with sufficient supports from LWF. When fewer classes were available, fewer educational opportunities were provided. Clearly, more classes encouraged more intentions to study.

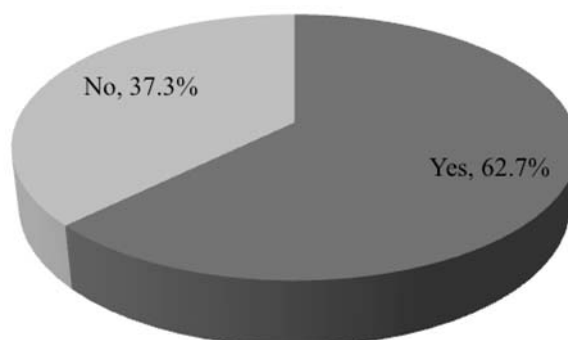


Figure 5.22. Adult literacy rates before LWF

Even if 62.7% of respondents said they had basic education, they wanted to improve their literacy to a higher and more useful level. Figure 5.23, below, shows another 67.9% of them participated in LWF's NFE training. The level of *participation* in NFE is sufficient to empower people through education because as a first step more than half of the people have already shown willingness to participate in further literacy training. The other 32.1% said they could not join the NFE as they were busy with farming and earning income to support their families. In fact, most of them were eager to participate but because of daily life support, they needed to fulfill their basic needs first.

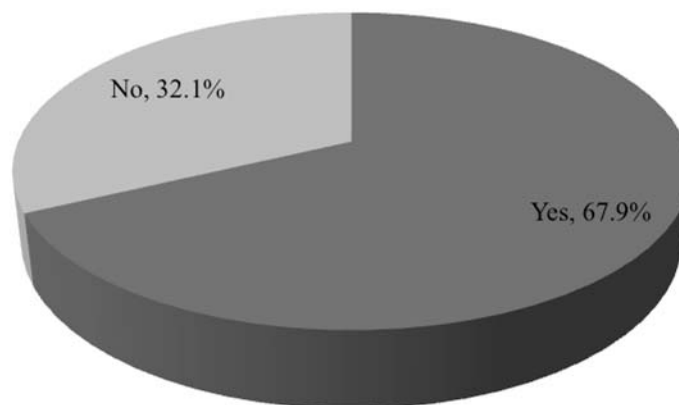


Figure 5.23. LWF's NFE participation

Accountability level is reflected within LWF services and their educational training. Regular adult literacy training and the increased use of reading shelters show that networking in NFE raised the level of *local organizational capacity*. As Figure 5.24 shows, 79% of respondents participate in a reading shelter created by LWF to enhance the capacity of local organization in NFE. It is strongly agreed that these activities and group work have done a good job in teaching and improving people's perception that learning how to read and write inspires self-dignity and prosperity.

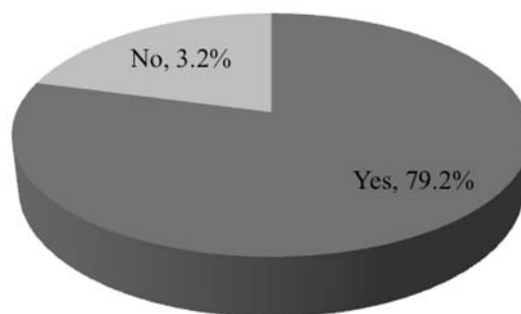


Figure 5.24. Reading shelter usage

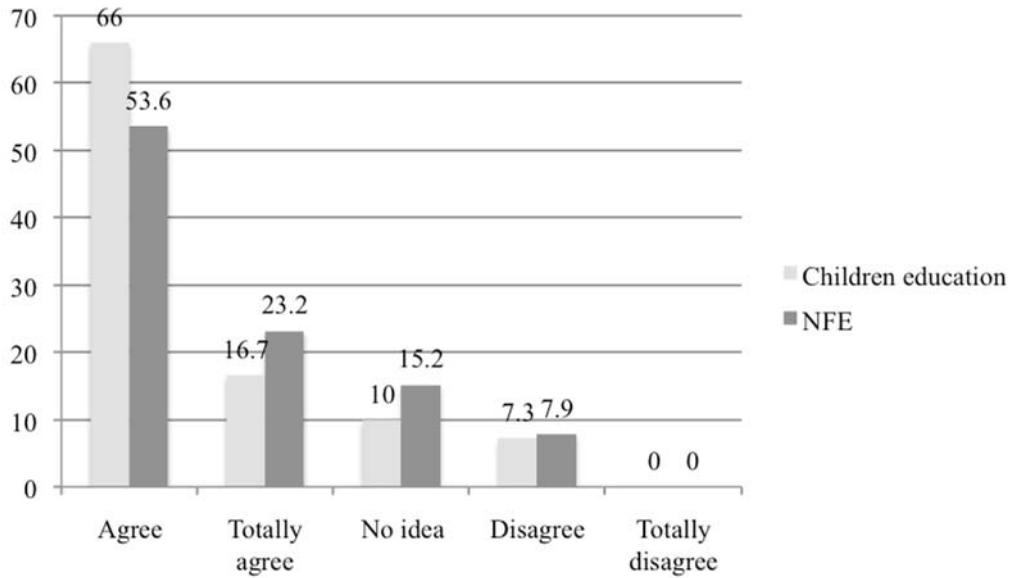


Figure 5.25. Perception toward Primary education and NFE

Notably, Figure 5.25 shows the perception of respondents over primary education and NFE during before-after existence of LWF. There are absolute agreements on the improvement of children education accounting for 82.7% (agree and totally agree) and of NFE by 76.8%. This finding reveals that the status of education both for children and adults after involvement of LWF in Teuk Phos has been improved and has contributed to increased knowledge and skills in many other ways. Improvements in education for children and adults also benefit them in seven ways described above (basic health, disaster preparedness, environment, community development, human rights, food security, and income generation) because education is a foundation for the poverty reduction strategy.

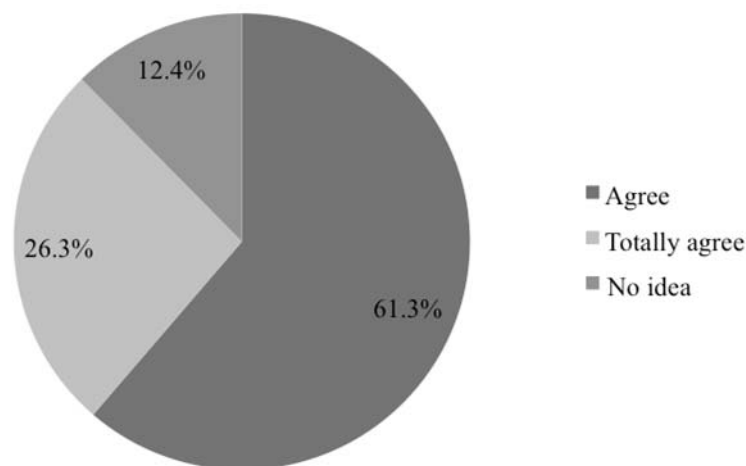


Figure 5.26. Overall Perception toward LWF's IRDEP project in terms of Empowerment and Teuk Phos development

This figure shows that there were 61.3% of respondents agreed on the empowerment approach undertaken by LWF in developing the community, and with 26.3% more totally agreed in the light of their benefited from IRDEP's activities in many ways. However, 12.4% of the sample commented they had no idea or no

response which disagreed with LWF's operation and assistance. As an NGO, LWF's project to serve and promote rural communities in Cambodia and to help villagers stand up for themselves has been approved by most of the respondents.

Eventually, this section has also found that aside from its integrated approach, the IRDEP's components empowered people and developed the community within an early development stage. The components showed:

Basic health and HIV/AIDS awareness have been improved. Empowerment levels were strong except for the weak accountability indicator, and sometimes the poor could not fully hold local authorities accountable for what went wrong. Improvement of health services and training were indicated by more than an 80% level of satisfaction.

Disaster preparedness has been also under control but the level of empowerment in this sector was not appreciated, perhaps because ordinary people believed that they could not insist on accountability from CBDMC, a relatively young organization. Occasionally they do not know who has to take responsibility when disasters hit. However, they are enjoying the status of preparedness and planning brought about by LWF.

The empowerment level regarding the environment was not completely clear yet. Although participation, accountability, and organizational capacity were more than 60%, access to updated information was limited. The gaps in information updates and accountability from the local authorities and timber merchants still exist, indicating that even if the people value the natural resources around them and know who to hold accountable, there is no specific action taken to address their issues. The people understand that LWF is making positive progress in protecting the natural resources and solutions are on the way.

The community development component also shows empowerment. People are happy to see the organizations created by them serve them and be controlled by them. VDC is the main empowerment body for community development and the status of development is perceived better because of this.

With their power in the community, people could claim human rights and advocacy opportunities for themselves. Accordingly, they reported empowerment in terms of utilizing their rights and advocacy opportunities. They learned more about their rights and privileges when LWF arrived.

In food security, the empowerment levels were remarkably high. All indicators were fulfilled with satisfaction. Most of the people responded they were secure in terms of food supply and demand.

With regards to LWF supports, the empowerment towards support of income generation has been making good progress. The people felt empowered and there were more activities for them to raise their income using their training, skills and ideas.

For education, most of the children and adults received LWF supports in many areas although they were empowered by the time they could access education and greater socialization in the community. Education generally has been an improved for the community.

The overall perception of the respondents shows that LWF's IRDEP directly empowers and develops the Teuk Phos community.

SECTION VI

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary of Findings

Nature of Empowerment approach

The first objective was to describe the empowerment approach and implementation of the LWF project in the selected area, the Teuk Phos district. The findings described the empowerment approach in Chapter 5 and later on viewed the perceptions of the people. The data showed that people are vastly empowered in the eight elements of IRDEP except basic health, environment, and disaster preparedness because of LWF. They could access to information, participate in and be included in many kinds of trainings and programs, hold accountabilities from authorities, and finally strengthen their network capacity and communication in a remarkable level. Despite the negative effects of Cambodia's recent historical background, the people perceive the recent development of their community brought by LWF as an important steppingstone to a more sustainable future, even in the short term.

Elements of Empowerment

The second objective was to identify essential elements of empowerment in the project in terms of promoting local community development. To achieve this objective, the eight components of the IRDEP project were studied in detail. They were discussed to assess in the context of the level of empowerment based on World Bank's four indicators (Access to information, Inclusion and Participation, Accountability and Local organizational capacity) (World Bank, 2002, p. 14). The eight elements are:

- Basic health and HIV/AIDS
- Disaster preparedness
- Environment
- Community development
- Human rights and advocacy
- Food security
- Income generation
- Education

Development Status of Community after LWF

Next, the third objective described the development status of the community. The results are summarized as follows:

77.3% of the respondents complained that they were not satisfied with the quality of *basic health* in the past. They also mentioned lack of resources and training for basic health. Only some 10% said the standard of basic health was adequate. However, after LWF became involved, 82% of the sample viewed health services as improving. In the same way, basic health and HIV/AIDS awareness have been improved. Improvement of health services and training were indicated by more than 80% satisfaction among respondents.

Mostly people saw themselves vulnerable to disasters because large percentages showed that they did not know what to do and waited to suffer before

they received LWF's assistance. Despite this, *disaster preparedness* was thought to be improved after LWF operated its project.

The *environment* was seriously endangered, facing deforestation and wildlife extinction before LWF took action. But for now, the environment is inspected as more organized and protected to some extent. Managerially people know who is accountable and they value their natural resources around them.

Regarding development status, 60.7% of respondents disagreed with the fact that the *community* was well developed and was headed in the right direction before LWF. On the other hand, 92.7% agreed that the community has developed through empowering people since recently the villagers have had control over not only development plans but also management decision making along with VDC as well. It means VDCs serve the community vis-à-vis the people's needs.

Earlier, 55.9% of respondents said that they did not know about their rights. However, after LWF arrived, awareness of human rights and advocacy reached 81.6% and 71.7%, respectively, that is, strong agreement about LWF's good practices in its human rights component. Clearly, they know more about their rightful privileges when LWF came in.

As an example, 89.2% of respondents said their *food* was insecure and insufficient before LWF arrived because they lacked of techniques and care services, while 84.8% of them agreed that the food supply was secure and adequate afterwards. Small business or exchange of interests is among the options when their food is surplus.

After LWF, *income generation* training and programmes like creation of village banks, saving, personal business entrepreneurship, microcredit use have been useful among poor people in Teuk Phos compared to before situation as people had done only traditional occupations and outlaw activities to earn incomes. They also felt appreciative to LWF's works for these achievements. Because of that, they lived better than previous time.

The *education* has been improved for the community both children and adult after LWF arrived. To show this, there are absolute agreements on the improvement of children education accounted for 82.7% and of NFE by 76.8% of satisfied response accompanied by adequate school's facilities. For some poorest families, LWF provides scholarships and opportunity cost to substitute their work time in the families in order to encourage children to come to school.

Therefore, the community is developing using LWF's empowerment approach in the perspectives of mixture development concepts: modernization, alternative development, human development, and neoliberalism.

Community's Perception about LWF Contributions

Fourth objective is to understand the community's perception to LWF contributions. The answers are:

It can be implied that 82% of respondents were satisfied with LWF's health care activities and that the project on *basic health* was good for the development of Teuk Phos. The people also perceived that they were yet to be empowered in health sector because the accountability indicator showed weakness; the poor cannot fully hold local authorities accountable for what went wrong.

The level of empowerment in *disaster preparedness* sector is not high. People noted that this was due to the fact that they could not hold accountable the recently organized CBDMC, i.e., they did not know who to hold responsible for relief when disasters occasionally occur. Nonetheless, 88.5% of the sample said they have better prepared with LWF's support.

By looking at *environment*, the empowerment level is not being ensured. The gaps in information updates and accountabilities from the local authorities and timber merchants still exist. In other words, even if the people value the natural resources around them and know who to hold accountable, there has been no specific action being taken to protect or answer their issues. In any case, the degree of satisfaction on environment protection from the people shows that LWF is making a positive progress in protecting natural resources.

Community development is significant enough for the empowerment of the people and they are happy to see the organizations created by them serve them and under their control. The responsible body is VDC, whose role is known by 96.7% among respondents.

With their power in the community, 98% of the sample firmly expressed adequate awareness and could claim *human rights and advocacy* for themselves. Likewise they are empowered within their rights and advocacy opportunities when abuses and conflicts occur. They could express their opinions, receive information, and join in activities socially or politically. Moreover, numerous numbers of the people liked to participate in activities, forum, advocacy campaign led by LWF in order to know more about their rights level before law and democracy.

In the *food security*, people were empowered to address their needs in supply and food security. All indicators were also fulfilled with satisfaction. Most in the sample perceived they were more secure in terms of food supply and demand than in the past, before LWF. Their habit of raising animals became professional and standardized along with regular services provided such as veterinary nursing and animal husbandry. Trainings for better rice farming and farmer field school helped the people get more practical techniques.

With regards to LWF supports, the *income generation* component is making a good progress towards empowerment. The people are empowered with better awareness of the importance and use of saving, personal business and microcredit. Furthermore there are now more activities for them to raise their incomes using their skills gained from LWF's help. One example of LWF's contribution is the village banks which save and lend money to the people inside villages to generate more income.

In the *education* sector, most children and adults were receiving many forms of LWF support. They are empowered with knowledge on how to access education opportunities and are more socialized. They stated the usage of reading shelter and nonformal education for adult. Moreover, two primary schools of 12 classrooms have been built by LWF's school project with lots of facilities such as books, white boards, puzzle game, libraries, and offices.

Thus, the overall perception of the respondents shows that LWF's IRDEP directly empowers and develops the Teuk Phos community through the eight integrated elements.

Participation and Roles of Partners in Community Development

The fifth objective was to describe the roles of partners and the level of their participation in the project. To fulfill this objective, the role of partners such as local and international donors as well as local and national government bodies is described in Chapter Five. The level of their participation in the project is high and active in regards to both financing and coordinating roles. Some operations of other NGOs in Teuk Phos also overlap with LWF's IRDEP but they have prevented conflicts and/or transformed them into cooperation and technical assistance for each other. They also came up with solutions for exchanging staff to facilitate and fill gaps in staff development training in order to serve the community together synergically.

To conclude the study, this research discovers that LWF has promoted the community development to an extent which covers eight modules. LWF has helped the community by empowering them to a degree of satisfactory development perceived by the people *per se*. Overall, the people think that LWF plays a very important role in enhancing their livelihood and social welfare, if compared to the past. Community is being organized and decentralized, human rights is respected, food is secure, more jobs and income are being generated, natural resources are preserved, education is improved, health conditions and services are strengthened, and the people are better prepared for catastrophe. Next, local authorities and other NGO partners also play vital roles as catalysts in cooperation and facilitation in LWF's operation in the community. Last but not least, empowerment has well promoted local community development by adequate responds in terms of empowerment's indicators: access to information, inclusion and participation in activities, accountability, and local organizational capacity in the project's elements. Even the people consider themselves empowered and self-controlled, though they could not hold concerned authorities accountabilities on a few aspects. Nevertheless, they think the authorities would in the near future be reformed and decentralized making their desires to be answered accountably. The on-going threats and problems would be tackled in just a matter of time.

Recommendations

In the context of the Teuk Phos community, even though the approach is promoting community development, there are some gaps within IRDEP's coverage. They are at the level of accountability in basic health and disaster preparedness sectors, and of updates to information and accountability from actors in the environment sector. This is for completing full version of empowerment model that

this research attempts to generate and can be applicable as good lesson.

Taking into consideration the findings of this research and to cope with gaps revealed following the survey, these recommendations are offered in order to concentrate the governments' communal and provincial policies:

1. The government should enact and apply strict protection laws for natural resources, and encourage environmentally friendly policies.
2. The government should punish the individuals (persons or enterprises) for illegal behaviors against the environment laws of Cambodia.
3. The government of Cambodia should effect the law against corruption as soon as possible in order to deal with corrupted government officials.
4. Local bodies should strengthen their public services more and should bear proper, timely and effective accountability to the community in terms of basic health and disaster preparedness.
5. The local bodies should show their caring interest in the poor by providing help to the poor as soon as they require it.
6. The local authorities should regularly check the status of deforestation and illegal hunting of wild habitats even if it has been managed by the community because they were elected and entrusted with making decisions on behalf of the community.
7. The local authorities should work closely with VDC for periodic surveys on perception towards public services and civil servants' attitude because the authorities are the ones who day-to-day responsible in Teuk Phos.
8. The local authorities should do regular self-assessment and evaluation.

After they have been developed, the researcher is confident that these practices will be useful for other NGOs working in rural development and for rural communities inside and outside Cambodia seeking empowerment and development at the same time. Before putting these kinds of policies into practice, unique and potential aspects of local communities will always need to be studied in-depth to fit with their environmental and needs in the future. Also, NGO's project and management capacity are crucial to carrying out such an approach. Continuous staff development and consensus with other NGOs in the same region have to be worked out. This approach is not to be implemented alone without external consultation. Consequently the most important experience from Teuk Phos is that people should have both the commitment and will to promote a self-sustaining community through the principles of self-help, self-control, self-organization.

Further Research

The contribution of this research is important for further studies in Teuk Phos community as well as research within similar discipline of development studies. This research has introduced a new type of empowerment approach carried out by an NGO by using empowerment indicators from the World Bank. The elements of the approach include basic health and HIV/AIDS, disaster preparedness, environment, community development, human rights and advocacy, food security, income generation, and education. The indicators are access to information, inclusion and participation, accountability, and local organizational capacity.

The findings showed only 53 men/husbands participated in the research among 153 samples. This encourages a further study on men/husbands in Teuk Phos community to fulfill the same objectives of this research in terms of balance in the households. Moreover, the research did not cover other specific mechanisms to cope with rural development. Therefore, further research could be focused on other mechanisms using other indicators intended to understand the value of other possible strategies to fight poverty in rural communities.

Finally, it will be necessary to distinguish among community development methods in order to compare the results and to create an evolving development blueprint for combating poverty in rural areas. A comparative approach could highlight good and useful practices from diverse contexts and regions.

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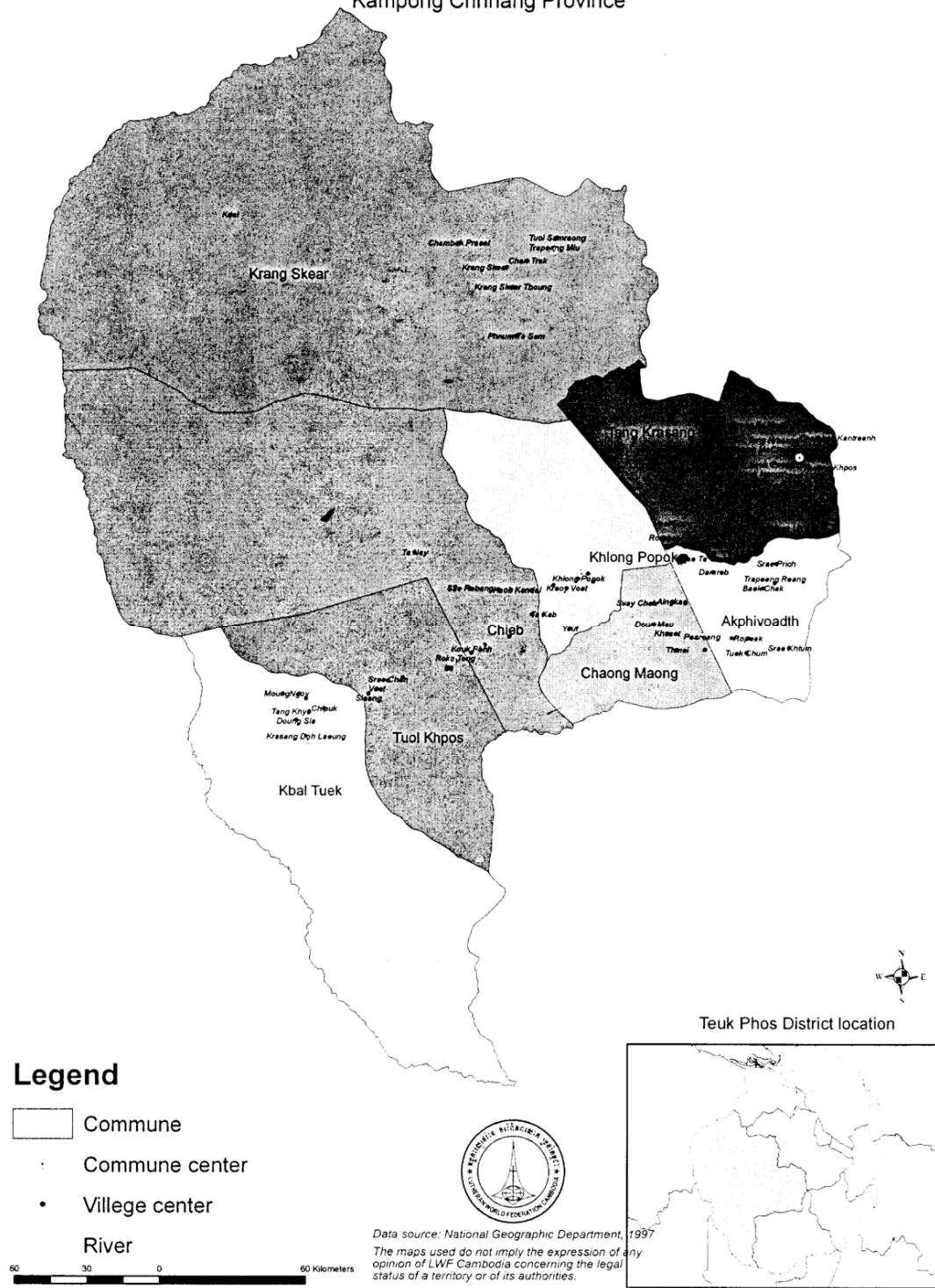
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APPENDIX A

Teuk Phos District Kampong Chhnang Province



APPENDIX C
Staffing of IRDEPs

Positions	Battambang			S. M. Chey			Teuk Phos			P Srouch			Oral			Thpong I			Thpong II		
	2006	2007	2008	2006	2007	2008	2006	2007	2008	2006	2007	2008	2006	2007	2008	2006	2007	2008			
PM	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1			
CEO	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	2	2	2			
CEF	27	27	27	21	18	16	19	21	21	25	25	25	28	24	20	20	20	18			
Health Officer	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0			
Rights-based approach and advocacy officer	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0			
HRMD Officer	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1			
Finance and Admin officer	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1			
Personnel and Admin assistant	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1			
Logistic assistant	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0			
Driver	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2			
Guard	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3			
Cleaner	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1			
Total	46	46	46	40	37	35	39	40	40	44	44	44	48	44	39	39	39	33			

APPENDIX C

Survey Questionnaire Form

My name is CHEAM PHAN VIRIYA and I am a graduate student at Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, Japan, in the field of International Cooperation Policy. I am doing this survey to get data for the completion of my Master's degree. I would like to ensure to all respondents completing this survey questionnaire that all of your answer will be kept in confidentiality for academic purpose use only. Thank you for your cooperation.



Date: _____

Village: _____

Commune: _____

Teuk Phos District, Kampong Chhnang Province

Sex:

Male, Female

Age:

15-25, 25-35, 35-45, More than 45

Marital status:

Single, Married, Widow(er), Divorced

Occupation:

Farmer, Self-employed,
 Seller, Teacher,
 VDC, Village head/authority,
 Labour seller, Other _____

Education:

Nonformal education, Primary school, Secondary school,
 High school, Other _____

Members in the family?.....people

Community Development

1. Before LWF arrived, your village was developing well.

Agree Strongly agree No idea Disagree

Strongly disagree

2. In the following, which ones are you aware of? (Multiple choice)

VDC, Water use group, VHV,
 Farmer Field School, Other _____

3. Have you participated in the above activities?

Yes, No

4. In case there are problems in the development process, who are accountable and answer to the people?

VDC, Local authorities, LWF, Other _____

5. What are capacity building trainings for VDC?

Human Rights

6. There were threats or forces for you to do/not to do something before LWF came.

Agree Strongly agree No idea Disagree

Strongly disagree

7. What were they? (Multiple answer)

Right to politics, Right to expression, Right to work

- Right to information, Other _____
8. Do you know your rights?
 Yes , No
- Example: (Please check any or all of the following whichever is true)
- Right to life and liberty, Freedom of expression,
 Equality before the law, Rights to culture,
 Right to food, Right to work,
 Other _____
9. How do you come to know about this/these right(s)? (Multiple answer)
- LWF training, Other NGO training, Government/authorities
 TV/Radio, Political parties, other _____
10. Do you attend any training related to human rights?
 Yes , No, reason(s): _____
- If yes, please indicate which organization sponsored the training:
- LWF, Other NGOs,
 Political parties, Other _____
11. Have you joined any activities that promote/advocate against human rights abuse?
 Yes , No
- If yes, how did you participate?
- Community meeting, Human rights campaign,
 Group advocacy, Village committee (VDC)
 Other _____
- If no, please give reason(s) _____
12. When conflicts, abuses or exploitation occur, who are accountable for these actions? (Multiple answer)
- Village committee, NGOs,
 Government/authorities, Other _____

Food Security

13. How did you rate your family food condition before LWF came?
 Sufficient Very sufficient No idea Insufficient
 Very insufficient
14. How much percent of your family income do you spend to buy food from market in a month?
 Less than 25%, 25-75%, More than 75%
15. If food for your family is not enough, what do you do?
 Raise livestock, Farming, Other _____
16. Do you know/aware of LWF program and activities for food sufficiency?
 Yes , No
17. In which of the following activities do you participate? (Multiple answer)
- Irrigation scheme, Integrated Farming Management
 Livestock care service, Land entitlement
 Other _____

Income generation

18. What kinds of jobs/income generating activities did you engage in before the coming of LWF?
 Farming, Raise livestock, Labour sale,
 Logging, Other _____
19. Do you save/earn enough to support your family?
 Yes , No
20. Do you have your own business?

- Yes , No
 If yes, how did you begin?
 LWF support, Yourself, Friend,
 NGOs, Other _____
21. Do you avail of loan/microcredit?
 Yes , No
 If yes, from where?
 Village Bank, LWF, Microfinance institutions,
 NGOs, other _____
22. What kinds of LWF income generating and training do you participate in?
 (Multiple answer)
 Small scale industries, Service business,
 Vocational and technical training, None of all above
 Other _____
23. Village bank is independently managed and well functioning:
 Agree Strongly agree No idea Disagree
 Strongly disagree

Health

24. How did you rate health services at that time before LWF?
 Poor Very poor Neutral Good
 Very good
25. Where did you use to go whenever you were sick? (Multiple answer)
 Public health center, Private clinic, Stay home,
 Traditional doctor, Other _____
26. Do you know about health education campaigns?
 Yes , No
 If yes, who provides?
 LWF, NGOs,
 Government/authorities, Partnership of all
27. Please circle the following. Are you aware of the basic health services?
- | | | |
|--|-----|----|
| Malaria and dengue fever | Yes | No |
| Nutrition | Yes | No |
| Family Planning | Yes | No |
| Vaccination to children less than one year | Yes | No |
| Safe delivery | Yes | No |
| Health center/health post | Yes | No |
| Tuberculosis | Yes | No |
28. Do you participate in HIV/AIDS education?
 Yes , No
 If yes, how do you participate? (Multiple answer)
 Dramas, Outreach team, District of AIDS committee
 Provincial AIDS Office, World AIDS days, Education group,
 Other _____
- If no, please give reason(s) _____
29. From whom do you learn about basic health and HIV/AIDS education? (Multiple answer)
 Village health volunteer, Peer education group,
 Outreach team, DAC/PAO meeting,
 Health center/health post, TV/Radio (NGOs and Government)
 Other _____

Education

Formal Education

30. Did children go to school?

Yes , No

If not, why? _____

31. Classroom and primary school for children:

	Enough	Not enough
Before LWF	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
After LWF	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

32. How are school's facilities now?

Adequate, Not adequate, Don't know

33. At what age do children start going to school?

5-6, 7-8,
 9-10, More than 10

For those who started school at the age of 10 or above, please give the reason _____

Non-formal Education

34. Before LWF came, could you read and write?

Yes , if yes, please provide grade equivalent _____

No , if no, have you participated in LWF's non-formal education?

Yes , No

35. Do you use reading shelter?

Yes , No

Environment

36. The management of natural resources at the time before LWF was effectively organized.

Agree Strongly agree No idea Disagree
 Strongly disagree

37. What are natural resources in the community? (Multiple answer)

Forest, Mountains, Lakes, Streams,
 Wildlife, other _____

38. What are the current threats and problems? (Multiple answer)

Investment concession, Water pollution, Air pollution
 Illegal logging, Forest fire, Wildlife hunt,
 Other _____

39. Are you aware of Community-Based Natural Resource Management Committee (CBNRMC)?

Yes , No, if no please give reason _____

40. How was it established?

LWF, Other NGOs,
 People in the community, Other _____

41. Are you informed of the status of natural resources regularly?

Yes , No

42. In case there are problems regarding natural resources, who are accountable to answer and solve them? (Multiple answer)

CBNRM Committee, Local authorities,
 Private companies, No one,
 Other _____

43. Do you think activities undertaken by CBNRM Committee are enough to protect the resources?

Yes , No
 If no, what else should be done?

Disaster Preparedness

44. Were there disasters in the past when LWF have not arrived?
 Yes , No
45. Before it happened, what did you do?
 Waited and suffered from it, Didn't know what to do,
 Did nothing, Other _____
46. What kinds of disasters do you expect to occur? (Multiple answer)
 Flood, Drought, Famine,
 Storm, All of above, Other _____
47. Who created Village Disaster Preparedness Management Committee (VDPMC)?
 LWF, Local authorities, Other NGOs,
 Community, Other _____
48. What activities/trainings does VDPMC provide to the community to prepare for disasters?
 Disaster preparation, Disaster planning,
 Recovery plan, Other _____
49. Situation after disasters hit in the community:
- | | Good | No idea | Bad |
|------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Before LWF | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| After LWF | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Perception Section

50. With LWF's approach and contribution: (Please check appropriate answer)
- (a) I know more about my human rights.
 Agree Strongly agree Neutral Disagree
 Strongly disagree
- (b) I am actively involving in human rights advocacy/campaigns.
 Agree Strongly agree Neutral Disagree
 Strongly disagree
- (c) Food supply is more secure and adequate.
 Agree Strongly agree Neutral Disagree
 Strongly disagree
- (d) Income generating activities increases earnings.
 Agree Strongly agree Neutral Disagree
 Strongly disagree
- (e) Health condition is improving.
 Agree Strongly agree Neutral Disagree
 Strongly disagree
- (f) The literacy rate among children is improving.
 Agree Strongly agree Neutral Disagree
 Strongly disagree
- (g) Adult education contributes to increased knowledge and skills of the community.
 Agree Strongly agree Neutral Disagree
 Strongly disagree
- (h) The community is better organized to manage and protect the natural resources and the environment.
 Agree Strongly agree Neutral Disagree
 Strongly disagree

(i) The community is better prepared to cope with disasters.

- Agree Strongly agree Neutral Disagree
 Strongly disagree

(j) Overall, the LWF's IRDEP project empowers and enhances the community development.

- Agree Strongly agree Neutral Disagree
 Strongly disagree

Please give reason for your answer _____

Thank you for your cooperation.

APPENDIX D

Training Services Provided to the Communities

1. Empowerment

- Development concepts
- Exchange visits
- Facilitation skills
- Management and leadership
- Participatory rural leadership
- Partner household (PH) development planning
- Project monitoring and evaluation
- Proposal writing
- Village development council and Commune council (CC) annual workshops

3. Livelihood development

- Animal vaccination awareness
- Business project documentation
- Economic development
- Farmer Field School (FFS)
- FFS exchange visit
- Fish raising
- Food processing
- Integrated farming management
- IFM exchange visits
- Integrated pest management
- Livestock production
- Mushroom planting
- Rice production
- Start and improve your business (SIYB)
- System of rice intensification
- Village Bank
- VB awareness
- VB exchange visits
- Vegetable planting
- Village livestock agents

2. Human rights and advocacy

- Active non-violence and community peace building
- Exchange visits
- Grassroots rights-based advocacy
- Human rights awareness and celebrations
- Land law
- Rights-based approach

4. Social development

- Community based disaster management
- Community based natural resource management
- Community organizing for Village Development Volunteers
- Disaster preparedness
- Environment
- Environment day
- Family planning
- First aid
- Hand pump caretaker
- HIV and AIDS awareness
- Home-based care
- Nonformal education (NFE)
- Peer educator
- Primary health care awareness
- Safe efficient stoves
- Traditional birth attendants
- Tree nursery
- Village Health Volunteers
- Water and sanitation awareness