

**The Impacts of Tourism Expenditure on the Society of
Srah Srang Cheung Village,
Angkor Park**

Davuth Eng

A thesis submitted to
Auckland University of Technology
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree
of
Master of Tourism Studies

2010

School of Hospitality and Tourism

Primary Supervisor: Dr Charles S. Johnston

Table of Contents

| | |
|---|------|
| List of Figures | v |
| List of Tables..... | vi |
| Attestation of Authorship | vii |
| Ethics Approval..... | vii |
| Acknowledgement | viii |
| Abstract..... | ix |
| CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION | 1 |
| 1.1 Introduction..... | 1 |
| 1.2 Research aim and objectives | 9 |
| 1.3 Methodology | 10 |
| 1.4 Structure of this thesis | 11 |
| CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW | 13 |
| 2.1 Economic impacts..... | 13 |
| 2.1.1 Employment..... | 15 |
| 2.1.2 Investment | 20 |
| 2.1.3 Regional development..... | 20 |
| 2.1.4 Tourism dependence | 22 |
| 2.1.5 Leakage and inflation..... | 23 |
| 2.2 Socio-economic impacts..... | 26 |
| 2.2.1 Child labour..... | 26 |
| 2.2.2 Migration | 30 |
| 2.3 Summary of literature review and conceptual framework of the research | 33 |
| CHAPTER 3 BACKGROUND | 35 |
| 3.1 Overview of Cambodia | 35 |
| 3.2 Siem Reap Angkor..... | 37 |
| 3.2.1 Park management history..... | 37 |

| | |
|---|----|
| 3.2.2 Local management institutions | 43 |
| 3.2.2.1 APSARA authority..... | 43 |
| 3.2.2.2 Cultural Heritage Police | 44 |
| 3.2.3 History of Angkor Park /city..... | 44 |
| 3.2.4 History of tourism | 46 |
| 3.2.5 Relationship between agriculture and employment in Angkorian time | 47 |
| 3.2.6 Tourism statistics in the Angkor Park | 50 |
| 3.2.7 Current tourism economy and employment..... | 52 |
| 3.2.7.1 Employment..... | 53 |
| 3.2.7.2 Entrance fee | 56 |
| 3.2.8 Relationship between education and employment | 57 |
| 3.2.9 Relationship between migration and employment..... | 58 |
| 3.3 Srah Srang Cheung village | 59 |
| 3.3.1 Geography and tourism | 59 |
| 3.3.2 General information on Srah Srang Cheung village..... | 62 |
| 3.4 Summary..... | 64 |
| CHAPTER 4 METHODOLOGY | 65 |
| 4.1 Introduction..... | 65 |
| 4.2 Theory of research methods | 65 |
| 4.2.1 Quantitative | 65 |
| 4.2.2 Qualitative..... | 69 |
| 4.2.3 Observation..... | 72 |
| 4.2.4 Mixed method | 73 |
| 4.3 Research methods in practice | 76 |
| 4.3.1 Quantitative method (Survey)..... | 76 |
| 4.3.1.1 Pre-field research | 76 |
| 4.3.1.2 In-field survey..... | 79 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| 4.3.1.3 Analysis..... | 80 |
| 4.3.2 Qualitative methods | 81 |
| 4.3.2.1 Pre-field research | 81 |
| 4.3.2.2 Focus group..... | 82 |
| 4.3.2.3 In-depth interview..... | 84 |
| 4.3.2.4 Analysis..... | 85 |
| 4.3.3 Observation..... | 86 |
| 4.4 Summary..... | 87 |
| CHAPTER 5 FINDINGS | 88 |
| 5.1 Introduction..... | 88 |
| 5.2 Result from the survey | 88 |
| 5.2.1 Demography | 88 |
| 5.2.2 The changes from traditional jobs to tourism jobs | 89 |
| 5.2.3 Child labour in tourism and children’s education | 101 |
| 5.2.4 Summation..... | 105 |
| 5.3 Result of the focus group and interviews..... | 106 |
| 5.3.1 The changes from traditional to tourism jobs..... | 106 |
| 5.3.2 Child labour in tourism and children’s education | 113 |
| 5.3.3 Summation..... | 119 |
| 5.4 Observation | 120 |
| 5.4.1 Employment..... | 121 |
| 5.4.2 Changes of living standard..... | 123 |
| 5.4.3 Child labour in tourism and children’s education | 123 |
| 5.4.4 Summation..... | 124 |
| CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSION | 127 |
| 6.1 Introduction..... | 127 |
| 6.2 Change from traditional to tourism jobs..... | 127 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| 6.3 Child labour in tourism and children’s education | 136 |
| 6.4 Evaluation of the impacts | 143 |
| CHAPTER 7 CONCLUSION | 146 |
| 7.1 Methodological reflection | 147 |
| 7.2 Summary of key findings | 148 |
| 7.3 Implications of research | 150 |
| References..... | 153 |
| Appendices..... | 166 |
| Appendix 1..... | 166 |
| Appendix 2..... | 167 |
| Appendix 3..... | 169 |
| Appendix 4..... | 170 |

List of Figures

| | |
|---|-----|
| 1. 1 Map of Angkor Park and Srah Srang Cheung village | 3 |
| 2. 1 Why do children work in tourism industry?..... | 28 |
| 2. 2 Conceptual framework..... | 34 |
| 3. 1 Map of protected zones in Angkor | 41 |
| 3. 2 War between Cambodia and Champa on the wall of Bayon temple | 45 |
| 3. 3 Daily lives in the 13th century on Bayon temples..... | 49 |
| 3. 4 Fishing in the 13th century on Bayon temple | 49 |
| 3. 5 Graph of monthly tourism statistics from 2003 to 2007 | 51 |
| 3. 6 Srah Srang Cheung village’s map from satellite | 61 |
| 4. 1 The conceptual framework | 75 |
| 5. 1 Employments in 2009..... | 91 |
| 5. 2 Jobs in 1999 and 2009 | 91 |
| 5. 3 Reasons for changing jobs..... | 92 |
| 5. 4 Villager’s opinion over tourism development..... | 95 |
| 5. 5 Changes in number of wells, toilets, house renovation (1999-2009)..... | 97 |
| 5. 6 Changes in number of vehicles (1999-2009)..... | 98 |
| 5. 7 Changes in saving (1999-2009) | 100 |
| 5. 8 The only primary school in the village | 116 |
| 5. 9 Tourist buses and tourists in front of restaurants in the village..... | 120 |
| 5. 10 Local market of Srah Srang Cheung | 121 |
| 5. 11 Palm leaf and wooden souvenirs | 122 |
| 5. 12 Children selling souvenirs to tourists | 124 |

List of Tables

| | |
|---|-----|
| 2. 1 The 20 fastest growing developing countries in terms of visitor arrivals..... | 14 |
| 2. 2 Gendered employment in the hospitality sector in Europe in 1997 | 19 |
| 3. 1 Kingdom of Cambodia international visitor arrivals 1994-1998..... | 47 |
| 3. 2 Tourism statistics in the Angkor Park from 2003 to 2008 | 51 |
| 3. 3 Share of tourists visiting the Angkor Park by countries from 2004 to 2007..... | 52 |
| 3. 4 Direct tourism employment..... | 53 |
| 3. 5 Estimated revenues from the Angkor Park entrance ticket sales..... | 56 |
| 3. 6 Demographic statistics 1996 | 62 |
| 3. 7 Demographic statistics 2008 | 62 |
| 5. 1 Number of female, male, and working members..... | 89 |
| 5. 2 Types of employment vs. importance of tourism | 94 |
| 5. 3 Types of employment by villagers' opinion | 96 |
| 5. 4 Types of employment vs. number of vehicles in 2009 | 99 |
| 5. 5 Types of employment in 2009 vs. saving | 100 |
| 5. 6 The number of children at school age, studying, and dropping out..... | 101 |
| 5. 7 Types of employment vs. children studying, and dropping out | 102 |
| 5. 8 Types of employment vs. villagers' opinion of higher education | 104 |
| 5. 9 Types of employment vs. reasons for support tourism | 105 |

Attestation of Authorship

“I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person (except where explicitly defined in the acknowledgements) nor material which to a substantial extent has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of higher learning.”

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'Davuth Eng', with a long horizontal flourish extending to the right.

Davuth Eng

Ethics Approval

Surveys and interviews that included human participants were utilised in this thesis. This required ethics approval from AUT Ethics Committee (AUTEK). The approval was received on July 19, 2009 with Ethics Application Number 09/101.

Acknowledgement

Writing this thesis has been a challenge for me. However, financial and emotional support and encouragement from various people have made it possible. I would like to acknowledge those who assisted me during the period of my research and my two-year Master of Tourism Studies.

Initially, I must thank the citizens and Government of New Zealand who funded my scholarship award through New Zealand's International Aid and Development (NZAID). I would have struggled financially to complete my thesis without this fund.

I would like to extend my deepest gratitude to my supervisor, Dr. Charles S. Johnston, who has provided me with great advice, guidance and especially encouragement through the journey of completing my thesis. Thank you for making your time available for critical discussion and constructive criticism whenever it was needed.

My thanks to Dr. Ken Hyde who provided me a practical lecture on SPSS software. I would also like to acknowledge the support from friends. Evangeline Singh and Ulrike Sassenberg, you are great friends who academically and emotionally helped me. You provided a studying environment and provoked good research discussion when I was deadlocked. Thank you Kevin, you have patiently proof-read my thesis and taught me writing tricks.

To my director, Ms Kerya Chao Sun, thank you for your assistance during my field research and for introducing me to tourism consultants who work closely in the area of my research. To my friends: Theara Seng, Virak Sam, and Samnang Chan, thank you for your kind help while I was conducting my data collection in Siem Reap City. To my friends in Auckland, you all know who you are, thank for your company, sharing and encouragement when I felt down.

Lastly but the most importantly, I would like to express my warmest gratitude to my family, who always pushed me for higher education, and who trust and love me from the bottom of their hearts. Without them, I would not have been able to come to this far.

Abstract

With rapid growth of tourism development globally, tourism impacts have been given great attention. Due to its positive economic impacts which are usually cited by many scholars, developing countries focus on tourism as a main strategy to develop their countries. However, socio-economic impacts are usually cited negatively. The relationship between economic and socio-economic impacts is substantial. This research investigated the impacts of tourism expenditure on the society of Srah Srang Cheung village in the Angkor Park, Cambodia. Specifically, the impacts of tourism revenue on traditional farming and on education in the village were examined.

A mixed-method approach has been utilised to research impacts of tourism expenditure on the village from different perspectives. Field research started with a survey of 60 questionnaires completed by residents in Srah Srang village to identify positive and negative impacts of tourism, which were then thoroughly studied using qualitative methods. Specifically, a focus group session was held with 15 villagers, followed by 18 in-depth interviews with management levels of local authority, a head tourism office, education (teachers, a school principle, and a chief of Siem Reap education office), an APSARA Authority staff, and in-migrants and observation to obtain high validity of results.

The research shows tourism has benefited Srah Srang Cheung village economically and socio-economically. Some traditional employment has changed to tourism employment. However, most villagers have “mixed tourism and non-tourism” jobs. Tourism provides part-time jobs and improves living standards. Tourism employment also helps empower women in the society and promotes local crafts. Tourism also attracts outside workers. In-migration issues do not negatively impact the village, as in-migrants run businesses which provide job opportunities for villagers. In addition, tourism jobs do not hinder children from going to school but the industry offers economic resource to support their education. However, the growth of tourism has resulted in increased cost of living, a negative aspect found to be responsible from tourism as a result of inflation.

This research also suggests that there is a need to improve the link between tourism and agriculture and educational strategies for education in the village. In linkages Khmer history, farming was used as a strategy to develop Cambodia's economy. Thus, traditional farming should be shown to tourists visiting the Angkor Park as well as the village due to the fact that these tourists are interested in culture. In addition, building a middle/intermediate school is necessary to encourage higher educational levels among residents and the adoption of existing policies of the Ministry of Education Youths and Sports.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Looking back through history, Cambodia has had both prosperous and destructive periods. In Angkorean time, around ten centuries ago, it was known as The Khmer Empire which was Southeast Asia's greatest kingdom, covering many parts of current Thailand, Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia (Winter, 2004b). The empire reached the height of its power and influence in the 13th century during the reign of Jayavaraman VII and then declined gradually (UNESCO, 1996). The Angkorean kings left the Cambodian people with many impressive temples which were considered sacred places in Buddhism and Hinduism (Wager, 1995). The temples survived the wars of the last few decades and were included in the UNESCO list of World Heritage Sites in December 1992.

With the political situation stabilising after the United Nations-supervised elections in 1993, and recognising the potential of heritage tourism in the country, Cambodia began opening itself to the world of tourism (Wager, 1995). In order to attract tourism to the country, the Cambodia government adopted a series of strategies.

Firstly, "The Open Sky Policy" provided opportunities for direct international flights from neighbouring countries to Siem Reap province — Siem Reap being the modern name of 12th century Angkor (Ministry of Tourism, 2008). As a result of the policy, about 135 direct flights per week from Japan, Laos, Thailand, Vietnam, Singapore, and China, landed in Siem Reap international airport in 2005. This makes Siem Reap one of the main gateways for tourism in Cambodia; it hosts more than half the visitors for the whole country (Ballard, 2005).

Secondly, under the auspices of the Asian Development Bank in the hope of improving regional and individual economies, six entities along the Mekong River (Vietnam, Cambodia, Laos, Thailand, Burma and Yunnan Province (a part of China)) worked together to form the Greater Mekong Subregion (GMS). The primary strategy for economic development is to build infrastructure in order to encourage flows of investment and to link tourism destinations in the region. In addition, the GMS is

taking a closer look at a one-visa policy for the six areas. The purpose of this policy is to distribute tourists to the entire GMS and keep them staying longer and injecting more money into the regional economy (ADB, 2009). As a member of the GMS, Cambodia has opportunities to increase its tourism (Ministry of Tourism, 2008). As well as the increase in international visitors, domestic tourists in Siem Reap have climbed dramatically from 109,186 in 2003 to 297,348 in 2004, an increase of 172.3 %. A key reason for this increase is the improvement of local infrastructure, specifically, National Road 6 from Phnom Penh to Siem Reap (Ballard, 2005).

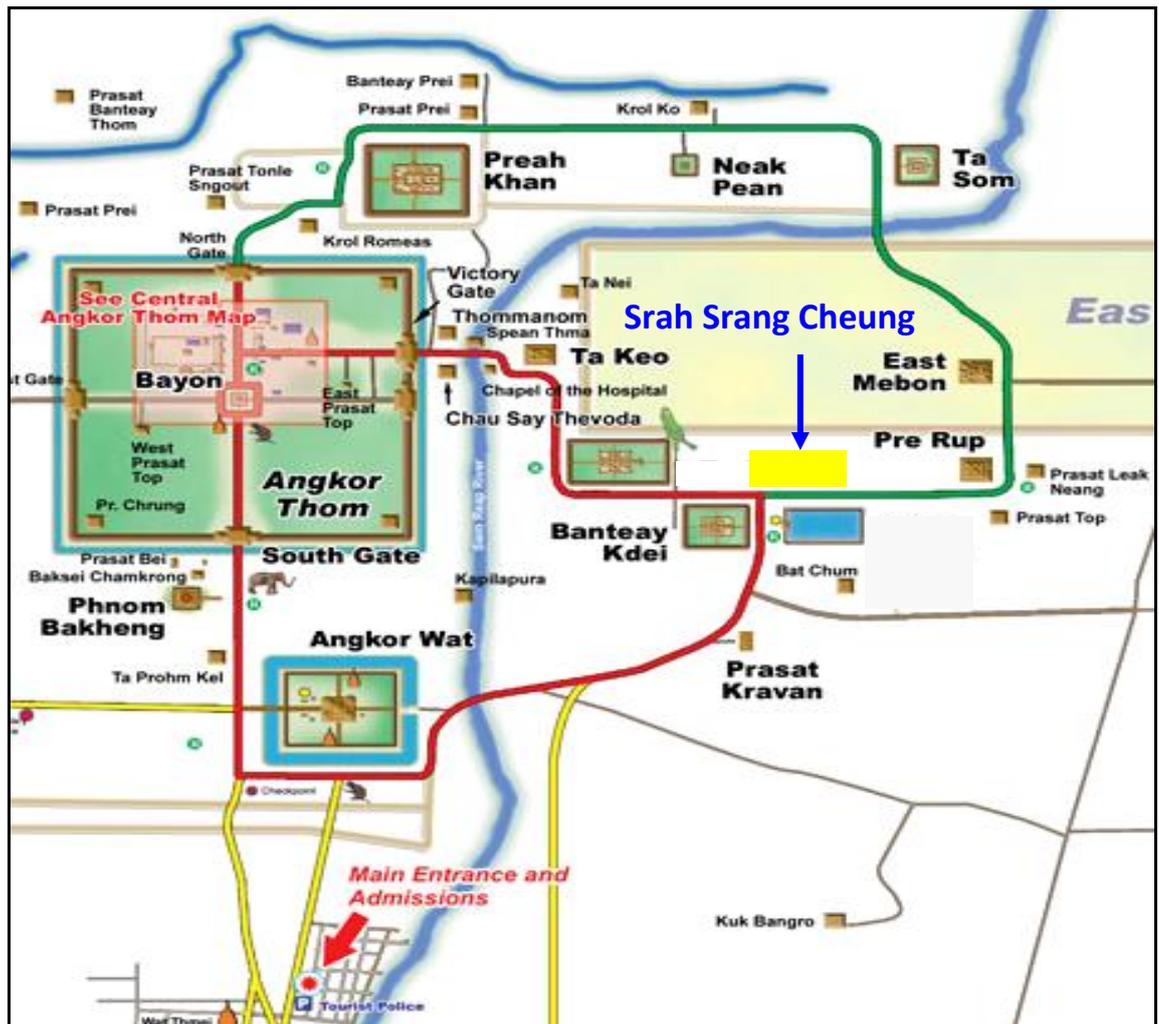
While the trend in global tourism has increased gradually, numbers of tourist arrivals in Cambodia, a new destination in Asia, shows a sharp increase (from 118,183 in 1993 to 2,125,465 in 2008). The amount of tourism receipts from visitation also increased from USD 578 million in 2004 to USD 1,400 million in 2007. This figure amounts to 15% of the Cambodian GDP. The World Heritage Site of Angkor, the major tourist destination in Cambodia, hosted 1,059,870 tourists in 2008 (Ministry of Tourism, 2009).

Tourists visiting the World Heritage Site of Angkor have the opportunity to experience the landscape through four environments — forest, land for rice cultivation, rural villages, and the architectural legacy of the Angkorian era — in an area of around 400 square kilometres in the Northwest of Cambodia (Winter, 2004b). At the local level, Angkor is more than a tourism destination; it is the place where thousands of villagers live with the temples. In other words, Angkor is not only the park but it is also a living landscape (Durand, 2002) where villagers keep their way of living that connects them to the people who created the temples around a thousand years ago (Taylor & Altenburg, 2006). Thus, in order to manage the site, Authority for the Protection and Management of Angkor and the Region of Siem Reap (APSARA Authority) has categorized Angkor region into five zones. Vann (2002, p. 111) identified the zones as:

- *Zone 1: Monumental sites, the zone with the highest level of protection.*
- *Zone 2: Protected archaeological reserves, the buffer zones surrounding the monuments.*
- *Zone 3: Protected cultural landscapes.*
- *Zone 4: Sites of archaeological, anthropological or historic interest.*
- *Zone 5: Social-economic and cultural development zone of the Siem Reap /Angkor region, territory of Siem Reap province.*

Tourists visit the main attractions of Angkor Park in two ways: by mini-tour or grand-tour. Srah Srang Cheung is a village along the grand-tour route in the core of the protected zone. It is about 15 km north of Siem Reap town (Ballard, 2005). It is believed that the root of the village's name comes from its location which is situated north of an Ankorlean Royal Pool adjacent to the 12th century temple of Banteaykdey. The words "Srah Srang Cheung" are Khmer words which mean "North Royal Pool".

Figure 1. 1 Map of Angkor Park and Srah Srang Cheung village



(Canby Publications, 2009)

Historically, most dwellers in Angkor, including villagers in Srash Srang Cheung, earned their living by farming, as Angkor used to be a great "hydraulic" city in which the king used farming as an economic strategy to drive the country's economy due to availability of land (UNESCO, 1996). Some Angkorian kings even linked agriculture with their Hindu religious beliefs. In Hinduism, people believed in "lingar" and "yoni". Lingar is a symbol of the male reproductive organ and yoni is the female symbol.

Architecturally, the yoni is the base on which the lingar stands. In religious ceremonies, by pouring water over the lingar, the water becomes holy. People use this holy water to wash their faces in the hope of obtaining prosperity and happiness. From this linkage of agriculture and religion, thousands of lingars were built in the bottom of the river on Koulen mountain in order to obtain holy water — which still flows across Siem Reap to Tonlesap and is stored in West Baray (water reservoirs) to be used for agriculture in the dry season (Evans et al., 2007). The consumption of holy water in agriculture is believed to result in better harvests (UNESCO, 1996).

The lives of Srah Srang Cheung villagers have changed noticeably since the development of tourism and the presence of the APSARA authority, which takes action on zoning policy. This has put pressure on traditional jobs such as rice farming, chamka farming (vegetable and fruit plantations), fishing, sugar palm production, firewood taking, and resin tapping from trees. For instance, villagers are not permitted to cut trees to use as firewood to sell or to use for cooking in daily life. Sugar palm producers are also severely impacted by the restriction of access to firewood as they mainly use firewood in the process of producing sugar. Fishermen have had to abandon their jobs due to the fact that fishing in the historical royal pool and in moats surrounding temples is no longer permitted. More seriously, traditional farming land is limited, in sites such as temples' moats and temples area, used by villagers.

These pressures have led to a change from traditional jobs (which have become restricted) to tourism jobs. The situation leads to the question “what impacts have the changes made?” The literature of tourism impacts suggests tourism jobs are far more “positive” than traditional jobs. Many authors identify the positive advantages of tourism in term of economics, specifically employment.

However, the villagers in Angkor are still living in poverty, especially those in rural Siem Reap province (Winter, 2008). Villagers in Srah Srang Cheung face many challenges from tourism-related jobs. Firstly, tourism is seasonal. They are able to do business or work with tourists only in the peak season (November to March). However, they have to pay for the heritage police every month. Secondly, many imported souvenirs are sold in and around their village. This means the demand for the local crafts has dropped as the prices of substitute imported products are cheaper due to their mass

production. With the restriction of zoning and development of tourism, Srah Srang Cheung's dwellers depend largely on tourism-related jobs and business. Tourism is a fragile, sensitive industry which has been shown to fluctuate over time. For example, the number of tourists dropped in 1997 as the result of political instability and the Asian financial crisis and in 2003 because of the SARS epidemic in Asia (Ministry of Tourism, 2009). Such situations lead to difficulties. Some local people needed to borrow money from banks and other credit agencies to meet the demands of their everyday lives. Some other villagers who borrowed money to start small businesses in tourism had an even harder time as the businesses did not run well due to lack of tourists.

In addition, tourism jobs encourage child labour at the site. Many children end up selling souvenirs, postcards, guidebooks, working in restaurants, and helping the parents to souvenirs. Such jobs have an impact on the children's education. School attendance drops sharply in peak season. Some children drop out of school permanently to work to earn money for the family. Some parents even make their children stop going to school to do business with tourists instead.

Besides the educational challenges, tourism jobs have also brought migrants to the village. Migrants usually have higher-skill levels. They come to a place for various reasons. The migrants move to the village for employment and to run businesses. Many souvenir sellers who own souvenir stalls and restaurants were found to be outsiders who live in Siem Reap, not Srah Srang Cheung (ADI Team & Ballard, 2002).

From this discussion, it can be seen that tourism development has dramatically changed the lives of the Srah Srang Cheung villagers both economically and socio-economically. Impacts from tourism need to be identified and evaluated as to whether they are good or bad. Economic and socio-economic impacts in tourism are of significant interest to many academic researchers around the world (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997) because tourism is currently considered as the main source of national income, especially in developing countries (Chok, Macbeth, & Warren, 2007). It is no wonder that these countries have strived to promote and develop their tourism sites in order to host international tourists who bring money to spend in the destinations (Boyd, 2002). The impacts of their money on communities lead to both positive and

negative changes in the local society. This relationship between tourists and their spending and host communities has become a challenge for the destinations themselves and for destination planners.

Many authors mention that developing countries use tourism as a strategy to improve the countries' economies, while socio-economic impacts are often mentioned as having a negative impact. The World Tourism Organization (2008) states that tourism in developing countries is growing dramatically. This growth is the reason that these countries depend largely on tourism as an economic development strategy (Harrison, 2008; Hitchcock, 1997; Page, 2003). Mena (2008) and Hampton (2005) state that tourism is an important tool for economic growth.

Generally, discussion on tourism has been economic in nature, focusing on key points such as employment, tax collection and fees, foreign currency earning, and investment (Godfrey & Clarke, 2000). The focus on employment tends to raise interesting issues for discussion. Arguments are still to be clarified as some authors believe in the benefit of tourism jobs while others state them to be negative issues and the root cause of problems in the local destinations.

According to Mihalic (2002), tourism is one of the world's largest sources of employment representing 11% of world's jobs. Timothy and Boyd (2003) also stress that heritage tourism injects billions of dollars into the world economy every year and employs millions of people directly and indirectly. A case study in cultural tourism in Chaing Mai, Thailand, shows that tourism has contributed to the creation of over 8,000 firms and employment of over 52,000 workers (Kaosa-ard, 2005). Tourism plays a pivotal role in generating employment in Laos (Harrison & Schipani, 2007). Tourism does not only provide direct jobs to local villagers, but it also gives opportunities to local people to work in sectors supporting tourism such as farming (Vogt, Kah, Huh, & Leonard, 2004).

However, Horner and Swarbrooke (2004) stress some negative aspects of employment in the tourism sector. They state that tourism jobs are usually unsecured jobs influenced by many factors. Basically, many tourism jobs are seasonal, part-time or casual and do not pay enough to be the main source of income. Tourism can be easily

influenced by external factors (such as politics) which are beyond the control of the destination. In addition, employment in tourism can cause socio-economic challenges.

Many developing countries develop their economies by depending on tourism. The development of tourism leads to changes of employment from traditional to tourism-related employment (Godfrey & Clarke, 2000). Without any controls, almost all of the local people switch to tourism employment and are likely to ignore other employment such as farming. This forces the area to depend excessively on tourism.

However, overdependence on tourism results in a locally vulnerable economy (Lea, 2001). Although the trend of global tourism tends to increase gradually, tourism is susceptible to changes from external and uncontrollable impacts such as deadly diseases, unstable politics and economic crises (Espejo, 2009; Mathieson & Wall, 1982). The negative events discourage the arrival of tourists who are the source of local economic revenues.

Mass tourism development usually generates enough opportunities for employment to attract migrants who seek better living standards (Williams & Hall, 2000b). Many authors discuss the impacts of migrants on local communities. They suggest that migration has both positive and negative effects on local areas. Positively, migrants move to an area to fill gaps in the labour market due to the new introduction of tourism development (Gössling & Schulz, 2005; Williams & Hall, 2000b). Negatively migrants also create businesses, taking employment away from local people (Williams & Hall, 2002). In addition, they are likely to take the better jobs such as managerial positions while local people tend to do basic labour work (Gössling & Schulz, 2005). One researcher in Siem Reap suggests that migration into the province is caused by the rapid growth of its tourism industry (Ballard, 2005). The study stated that the Siem Reap district in Siem Reap province showed a high increase of population, from 117,500 in 2001 to 126,600 in 2004. Most of the migrants came to the village seeking employment (JICA, 2005a, as cited in Ballard, 2005).

Besides the relationship between traditional job change, which leads to overdependence on tourism and in-migration, there are some other socio-economic issues usually noticed in socio-economic studies, such as inflation. Tourism is usually

responsible for the increase in the price of commodities (Figgis & Bushell, 2007; Lea, 2001; Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Whittaker, 1997). Lea (2001) stresses that in some cases the price of local commodities can rise from 20% to 100% with tourism development.

The International Labour Organization (2000) illustrated that tourism is considered to be one of the primary sectors which employs many children. The exact figures of child labour in tourism are hard to estimate as child labor is usually invisible (Bliss, n.d.). Child labour's role in tourism comes from the nature of tourism itself in which employment is usually seasonal. Unlike adult employees, children do not argue for their rights as they usually do not comprehend these rights. They do not demand fixed hours of work, secure salaries and specifically assigned tasks. In other words, children are a more flexible work force compared to adults. The ILO (2000) has also stated that:

“Child labour is a basic human rights violation. It suppresses the right to childhood and hinders the child’s right to education. The obligation to work may affect the mental and physical development of a child.”
(p. 1)

Bliss (n.d.) published research on child labour in tourism in developing countries between 1998 and 2005, stating that: “Children were prevented from going to school, worked long hours for little or no pay, performed dangerous work, denied vocational training, and their employment was unstable” (p. 6).

However, a survey of child labour in tourism in the coastal area of Kenya revealed that nearly 25% of interviewed children stated that the reason for working is to pay for school (ILO, 2000). A study of child labour in Siem Reap, conducted by the ILO showed that child labour in handicrafts and tourism-related jobs accounted for 2,100 children in Siem Reap and Bantey Srey districts (where the Angkor park is located) (ILO, 2008). Further, cases of child labour in tourism were identified in recent research in different villages in the park. Due to tourism development, 19.77 % of tourism jobs in Norkor Kroav, a village in Zone One of the park, employed children (Ang, n.d.). Some authors listed specific jobs such as souvenir makers and street vendors in three different villages in the park namely Pradak, Trapeing Sesh and Nokor Kroav (Ang, 2003; Ung, 2003). The studies in the park showed only the involvement of children in tourism, but

they did not illustrate the consequences of such involvement, specifically the relationship between tourism jobs and the education of children.

According to the literature, the questions of whether tourism jobs make children go to school or drop out of school is still to be answered, especially for the early stage of development of tourism in Angkor Park. From the discussion, it is generally seen that tourism employment provides both benefits and disadvantages for a destination. On the positive side, it is responsible for villagers earning better wages in less manual jobs than traditional jobs. From the negative perspective, it encourages child labour, causes many changes in traditional jobs making a destination overdependent on tourism, attracts more migrants into a village and causes other social problems. Such challenges of socio-economic impacts need to be addressed to find a solution before the development jeopardizes the village. Such development has destructive potential, especially for developing countries which focus on short-term benefits rather than long-term impacts. Much research has been done on economic impacts. However, less has been done for a study on the relationship between economic (especially employment) and socio-economic problems mentioned (which are inevitable for a development of an area, especially a newly grown tourism destination like Srah Srang Cheung village, Angkor Park). There is no easy response to this challenge.

1.2 Research aim and objectives

The study intends to evaluate whether tourism development has positively or negatively impacted on Srah Srang Cheung village in Cambodia. Specifically, the research will identify the relationship between tourism employment and socio-economic challenges: the changes from traditional jobs (farming) to tourism jobs and the consequences of the changes, and the relationship between tourism and children's education. This research will identify the negative and positive economic and socio-economic impacts which stem from job opportunities and will also suggest some solutions to change from a negative to a positive economic development perspective.

To achieve the goal, some questions need to be considered: What and how are the changes from traditional jobs to tourism jobs? How do these changes occur? Does tourism employment make the village depend too much on tourism and if so, what is

the result? Does tourism employment attract migrants from other areas? Does the migration bring positive or adverse affects? Does tourism employment lead to child labour and what are the consequences? Does tourism employment positively or negatively impact children's education? The study will focus in depth on the following key points:

- To identify the changes from traditional farming to tourism jobs and the consequences of this shift (inflation, economic overdependence on tourism and to the attraction of migrants to work in the village).
- To examine the relationship between child labour in tourism and education– the numbers of children working in tourism, the reasons they work and the impacts of work on their education.

This research will contribute to an understanding of the relationship between economic and socio-economic impacts, specifically, how tourism jobs change a destination. Hopefully, these theories will draw the attention of tourism management authorities to critically consider the long-term adverse socio-economic impacts as well as the short-term positive economic benefits in a sustainable tourism management plan of the park.

1.3 Methodology

To achieve the aim, the study employed a mixed-method approach. The field research was conducted in three stages. In the first stage, the researcher surveyed villagers to collect data to identify impacts from tourism. The survey was conducted under a systematic sampling approach with a sample size of 60 families or about 30% of households. The researcher surveyed every third house along the roads inside the village. After data was collected, the researcher analyzed these using Statistical Packages for Social Sciences software (SPSS).

In the second stage, after the data from the survey was collected and analyzed, the results were used as a guideline to do more in-depth research by employing a qualitative methodology with a grounded theory approach. This started with a focus group of 15 villagers who were able to provide data regarding changes of employment, the relationship of tourism to their children's education, and other socio-economic

impacts such as in-migration, house limitation (restriction on new house construction), and inflation in the village. Managerial level local authorities in related fields (namely, an APSARA Authority staff member, a village headman, a commune chief, two teachers, a primary school principal, the chief of the Siem Reap education office, and a deputy chief of Siem Reap tourism office) were interviewed after the results from focus group were summarized. After these interviews, the results were compared with data from the focus group to see the different perspectives of villagers and local authorities.

To confirm the validity of results, observation was additionally done as a third step. The observation helped verify the results from the interviews. Without contacting villagers directly, the researcher had a chance to see villagers' activities, which might not be revealed during the interview or survey. The results from this observation were analysed then compared and contrasted with the interviews and the focus group results so that the final result was eventually produced.

1.4 Structure of this thesis

The thesis consists of seven chapters. In this chapter (Chapter 1), the research topic was introduced followed by the aim and objectives. Chapter 2 is the literature review. The purpose of reviewing the literature is to describe previous research on economic, and socio-economic impacts and their relationships in order to form a theory which focuses specifically on the relationship between tourism employment and socio-economic challenges such as change of traditional jobs, child labour, migration, and inflation. Ultimately, gaps in earlier research are illustrated to create the research question for investigation.

Chapter 3, the background chapter, introduces readers to the location of the study, and gives details (historical and tourism management background) of the Angkor Park where the village is located. The chapter also introduces the overall situation of tourism impacts in the area on education, traditional jobs and some other social issues.

Chapter 4 discusses research methodologies employed in the study. To obtain various data from different angles, the study employed a mixed-method approach (survey, a focus group, interview and observation) to enhance the validity of the results. This

chapter introduces literature on research methodologies to assist in describing and explaining the research strategy in Srah Srang Cheung village.

The results chapter (Chapter 5) follows the methodology chapter (Chapter 4). Key findings are presented with graphs and tables from the survey results, some quotes from interviewees and the focus group, and photos from the direct observation of the researcher in the field. Results from the different types of methodologies are introduced.

These results are combined to compare and to contrast in the next chapter of discussion (Chapter 6). In addition, this chapter reflects back to the background and literature review chapter to explain and draw conclusions. Finally, Chapter 7, the conclusion is presented in order to provide recommendations for the development of tourism in Srah Srang Cheung village.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

For many tourists, being away from home and finding pleasure and satisfaction in traveling creates positive memories. Reisinger and Turner (2003) imply that culture is used to bond people together and to differentiate them according to their unique social practises. This uniqueness is the “product” for visitors. Cultural and heritage tourism claims 40% of the global tourism market (Timothy & Boyd, 2003). Cambodia, in which the number of tourists increased 19% in 2007 is mainly focused on cultural heritage tourism (World Tourism Organization, 2008).

Regarding the impacts of tourism, most literature describes economic impacts as positive and socio-economic impacts as negative (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997; Narayan, 2004; Page, 2007; Timothy & Boyd, 2003; Tsartas, 1992). The description suggests that tourists bring money to spend on a destination and their expenditure has positive and negative influences on the society.

This chapter discusses economic and socio-economic of the global tourism industry to provide a context for the research in Angkor Park. Initially, economic impacts are discussed with the respect to employment, investment, regional development, leakage, and inflation. Subsequently, socio-economic impacts are presented with the focus on child labour, and migration.

2.1 Economic impacts

It is generally accepted that tourism has a great influence on the economics of a destination area (Mathieson & Wall, 1982). To be more specific, tourism is an important tool for economic growth, job creation, investment and regional development (Hampton, 2005; Harrison & Schipani, 2007). In addition, Mena (2008) states that tourism has the potential to generate foreign exchange, and revenues, and to link to other industries.

In the last decade, the arrival of international tourists in developing countries has increased from 28.6% to 40.3 % of the global tourism market. Furthermore, international tourist arrivals in some poor countries in South East Asia (such as Cambodia and Laos) increased by about 2000% from 1990 to 2000, while the number

of tourists in many other Third World countries shows increases in the hundreds of percentage points (see Table 2.1). This potential encourages many developing countries to adopt tourism as an economic development strategy (Espejo, 2009; Harrison, 2008; Page, 2007). For instance, China has increasingly depended on tourism as a part of its economic development strategy since 1978 (Tisdell & Wen, 2001).

Table 2. 1 The 20 fastest growing developing countries in terms of visitor arrivals

| position | Country | Arrivals in 1990 (in'000) | Arrivals in 2000 (in'000) | Growth in 1990- 2000 (%) |
|-----------------|---------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|---|
| 1 | Cambodia | 17 | 466 | 2,641.18 |
| 2 | Lao PDR | 14 | 300 | 2,042.86 |
| 3 | Iran | 154 | 1,700 | 1,003.90 |
| 4 | Myanmar | 21 | 208 | 890.48 |
| 5 | Vietnam | 250 | 2,140 | 756.00 |
| 6 | Cape Verde | 24 | 143 | 495.83 |
| 7 | South Africa | 1,029 | 6,001 | 483.19 |
| 8 | Cuba | 327 | 1,700 | 419.88 |
| 9 | Chad | 9 | 44 | 388.89 |
| 10 | Brazil | 1,091 | 5,313 | 386.98 |
| 11 | Nicaragua | 106 | 486 | 358.49 |
| 12 | Nigeria | 190 | 813 | 327.89 |
| 13 | Micronesia Fed.Sts. | 8 | 33 | 312.50 |
| 14 | El Salvador | 194 | 795 | 309.79 |
| 15 | Zambia | 141 | 574 | 307.09 |
| 16 | Bhutan | 2 | 7 | 250.00 |
| 17 | Oman | 149 | 502 | 236.91 |
| 18 | Tanzania | 153 | 501 | 227.45 |
| 19 | Peru | 317 | 1,027 | 223.97 |
| 20 | Zimbabwe | 605 | 1,868 | 208.76 |

(WTO/MOT, 2001 as cited in Mena, 2008)

However, there is a need to achieve a balance between the benefits and the associated with the rapid growth of tourism and its impacts (Godfrey & Clarke, 2000). With a good tourism development policy, tourism tends to provide local areas with more advantages regarding employment; income, such as tax revenue and entrance fees; investment; and regional development. With this positive perspective, Cross and Ringbeck (2009) describe tourism as “the backbone of globalization” and explain that it promotes economic growth, encourages trading activities, and increases disposable income. These factors would offer little benefit to local residents if government tries to

maximize revenue by overusing tourism resources and does not have a good management strategy in place (Mason, 2008).

2.1.1 Employment

Many studies about economic impacts provide quite positive results claiming that tourism development is responsible for employment opportunities for people in a destination (Boyd, 2002; Butler, 2001; Chambers, 1997; Doswell, 1997; Hampton, 2005). According to Mihalic (2002), tourism is one of the world's largest sources of employment representing 11% of the world's jobs. Timothy and Boyd (2003) also stress that heritage tourism has injected billions of dollars into the world economy every year and employed millions of people directly and indirectly.

Researchers also present positive tourism development impacts regarding job creation. For example, 1,028,000 jobs (12.4% of total employment) in Australia were estimated to be created by tourism in 1996 (Weaver & Oppermann, 2000). Tourism in Thailand, a developing country in which tourism is the largest export industry, claimed 3 million jobs or 10% of all employment (Wattanakuljarus & Coxhead, 2008). A case study in cultural tourism in Chaing Mai, Thailand showed that tourism created over 8,000 firms and directly employs over 52,000 workers (Kaosa-ard, 2005). Tourism also plays a pivotal role in generating employment in Laos (Harrison & Schipani, 2007).

In Vietnam, tourism employment opportunities are considered high paying job compared to traditional farming jobs. Working one day as a XE LAI rider (a bicycle for hire), XE OM driver (motorbike taxi), or horse or elephant riders offers as much as a week or possibly a month of work in farming (Thai, 2002). Research in Samos, Greece, summarizing the perception of local people regarding tourism's impacts (with 48 questions and sample size of 20% of the population) showed that the majority (71 %) of respondents were involved in tourism jobs. Even more positively, 69% of all respondents had an annual income of approximately USD 10,775. Results showed that almost 100% respondents had positive perceptions of tourism jobs and would like to work in tourism (Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996). In Antalya, a survey with similar methods to Haralambopoulos and Pizam (1996) also showed similar results — that 98% of respondents agreed that tourism provides job opportunities. 92% acknowledged that tourism offers high incomes in the village through employment

(Korça, 1996). In Scotland, the Scottish Tourism Board presented evidence that 70% of people in a community near the Monadhliath and Cairngorm mountains worked in tourism jobs, especially in the accommodation service (Slee, Farr & Snowdon, 1997).

Tourism does not only provide direct jobs to local villagers, but it also fosters more opportunities for local people to work in indirect tourism jobs (Vogt et al., 2004). Sessa (1983), as cited in Williams and Shaw (2002), lists some principal tourism-related jobs which are both direct and indirect, including the construction of infrastructure (roads, airports, sewage systems) and tourism superstructure and their maintenance, transportation, commercial services (banks and insurances), public services, and agricultural production. The list excludes jobs which are created by the capital of tourism employees.

A World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) report in 1998 showed a high employment rate provided by tourism in South Africa, with 170,000 new direct jobs and 516,000 new indirect jobs (Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004). Travel and tourism represented 2.4% of total direct employment and 7% of total indirect employment, lowering the unemployment rate of 40% in the region. The increase in indirect tourism jobs are the result of tourism investment, in accommodation and food services which are markets for farmers and the poor to supply their products such as vegetables and fruits (Ashley, Boyd, & Goodwin, 2000). In Vietnam, indirect tourism jobs are shown to be even more numerous than direct jobs. Indirect jobs include positions in construction, food supply and suppliers of crafts and souvenirs (Thai, 2002).

Positively, some scholars suggest that tourism job are beneficial to communities by bringing additional jobs for people finishing their farming-related work. A study with a sample of 290, completed in Baan Tawai in Thailand using a quantitative methodology, showed that almost 100% of respondents agreed that tourism development provided additional job opportunities, especially to women (Huttasin, 2008). A survey in Plai Pong Pang village, Samutsongkram province, Thailand, suggested that income from tourism jobs accounts for about 50% of total income. This extra income is generated from part time work or in free time from agriculture work (Kantamaturapoj, 2005). Interestingly, some of those farming jobs such as palm sugar producing link firmly with tourism because the palm sugar products are sold to tourists. The same survey

revealed that the majority of tourists visited the site of palm sugar production to witness the traditional process and as much as 80% of visitors bought the products. Some of these secondary jobs provide local people with more economic benefit and require less manual work.

Tourism employment is categorized as formal and informal (Wall, 1997 as cited in Mason, 2003). Most of the numbers listed by governments and employment-control-related agencies are usually formal due to the fact that informal jobs are hard to identify. However, informal jobs are described as fully-beneficial jobs for local residents and the poor. People usually sell souvenirs, postcards and guidebooks, produce food for tourists, and offer cultural performances. Research on street employment of a heritage site in Yogyakarta, Indonesia, revealed that informal employment in tourism is important to bring tourists' money to local people's pockets. The informal employment includes hawkers (informal sellers in public places) of souvenirs, postcards, cold drinks, cigarettes and confectionery. Seven hundred and 1000 hawkers are employed in low and high seasons, respectively. Among these hawkers, more than 75% are local residents (Nuryanti 1996 as cited in Hampton, 2005).

However, Horner and Swarbrooke (2004) criticised aspects of tourism employment. They stated that tourism jobs are difficult as a career due to the fact that they are usually short-term jobs. Basically, many tourism jobs are seasonal, part-time or casual and they do not pay enough to be the main source of income. The seasonality of tourism jobs is accepted by many authors (Butler, 2001; Godfrey & Clarke, 2000; Horner & Swarbrooke, 2004).

Butler (2001) highlights that seasonality in tourism, generally, has two basic dimensions: 'natural' and 'institutionalized'. He states that the natural one refers to regular variations of climate phenomena such as differences in temperature, rainfall and snowfall, sunlight, and daylight. Seasonality happens because of the tourist-receiving countries' climate. The weather is not good for a few months, which is not convenient for tourists to enjoy the sunlight, the views and travelling. For instance, the rainy season prevents Cambodia from hosting more tourists than the dry season, as tourists find it difficult to travel and to take photos due to the heavy tropical rainfall.

“Institutional seasonality” is caused by people and policies (Butler, 2001). Normally, it is the result of religious, cultural, ethnic and social factors and it also links to natural factors (Osborn, 1992 as cited in Butler, 2001). The typical form of institutional seasonality that affects tourism is public holidays. Traditionally, public holidays may be religious holy days or special events. Traditionally, school holidays usually take place in summer because that is the time that children can help with harvest (Netherlands, 1991 as cited in Butler, 2001). Even though, this concept no longer applies in many countries, school holidays still continue to happen in summer and it affects travelling patterns. For instance, a family with children at school can only travel during school holidays if they want to involve them.

Tosun (2002) discusses the seasonality of tourism and refers to an example in Urganis, Turkey where local residents work from three to five months a year only, and are laid off for the majority of the year. In addition to the seasonality, villagers in the Okavango Delta in north-western Botswana are usually employed in the tourism sector in unskilled and low salaries. They mainly work in manual jobs such as drivers, house cleaners, cooks, gardeners, and guards. The majority (62%) of junior workers were found to be involved in tourism with the range of salaries from USD 60 to USD 165 per month in 2001. This range of salaries is even below the poverty line of the countries involved (Mbaiwa, 2003, 2005). Research involving two Ghanaian towns showed a similar result to the one done by Mbaiwa (2003, 2005) with the most popular tourism jobs in the community related to hotels, restaurants and bars. This employment provides monthly wages of about USD 30 to USD 45 with 12 hours of working time 6 days a week (Teye, Sirakaya, & Sönmez, 2002).

In line with the argument, tourism enterprises do not offer enough training, which may lead to promotion. As a result, tourism organizations tend to have a flat hierarchy which offers very few chances for good staff to be promoted (Espejo, 2009; Horner & Swarbrooke, 2004). Crick (1989) also criticised tourism jobs as unskilled and called tourism training as “flunkey training” which referred to a servant level of employment rather than a management one.

Table 2. 2 Gendered employment in the hospitality sector in Europe in 1997

| | France | Spain | Italy | UK |
|--|------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--|--|
| Women's share (%) of hospitality jobs | 50 | 41 | 46 | 63 |
| Women as % of all employment in: | | | | |
| a/ Housekeeping | 97 | 99 | 74 | 92 |
| b/ Kitchen work | 11 | 50 | 33 | 13 |
| c/ Management/ supervision | 39 | 37 | 24 | 54 |
| Training for women compared to men | Some disadvantages | Neutral | Neutral | Neutral |
| Maternity legislation | 6 weeks paid+ up to 3 years unpaid | 16 weeks paid+ up to 3 years unpaid | 20 weeks paid, and 6 months on min. of 30% | 90% for 6 weeks and reduced rate for 12 weeks is common, followed by 22 weeks unpaid |
| % employees with reasonable knowledge of employment law | 33 | 29 | 37 | 37 |

(Burrell et al., 1997 as cited in Williams & Shaw, 2002)

In the tourism labour market, it is observed that women are more likely than men to obtain part-time and low-skilled jobs and to receive low wages (Bagguley, 1990 as cited in Williams & Shaw, 2002). A study of gendered employment in the hospitality sector in four countries (France, Spain, Italy and UK) find that majorities of women in the four countries work in housekeeping department, while only about one third of women from France, Spain and Italy are in management levels. Only in UK, about half of women work in management.

Williams and Shaw (2002) explain that women seem to work as servers, working in kitchens and making beds, which are traditionally considered as reflecting the household division of labour. Women tend to work as part-time and low-skilled employees due to their traditional roles in society. To be specific, women are supposed to be responsible for taking care of children and elder relatives, which means that they may be unavailable for full-time work.

2.1.2 Investment

Relating to employment opportunities, tourism attracts international and local investors to run tourism-related businesses such as accommodation, transportation, food and beverage, and travel agency and tour operations. These businesses are the source of job opportunities. A study in South Africa suggests that tourism is a tool for economic development in rural areas. It also shows that tourism attracts 11.4% of total investment in the country (Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004). Similarly, tourism investment in Thailand accounts for 12% of all investment (Wattanakuljarus & Coxhead, 2008). Tourism facilities such as camps, lodges, transport, wholesale and retail industries have resulted in an increased number of tourists in Okavango Delta, North-western Botswana (Mbaiwa, 2003).

Small-scale investments have also been shown to contribute directly to the local economics of tourism destinations (Ashley, 2000; Brohman, 1996; Dahles, 1998, 2001; Richards & Wilson, 2004). Hampton (2005) indicates that small-scale businesses are significantly important for tourism in Borobudur in Indonesia as tourism encourages more local investors and local employment because small-scale businesses do not require high entry capital. Local people can find the capital from their savings or procure loans from close relatives. Linkages between small-scale hotels, restaurants, local agriculture, and fisheries have also resulted in improvements of the local economy. Furthermore, tourism in Borobudur creates small souvenir shops that sell local products (such as batik, jewellery, carvings) which creates handicraft jobs.

2.1.3 Regional development

Tourism usually links to other sectors such as agriculture and commercial fisheries, transportation, entertainment, construction and manufacturing (Weaver & Oppermann, 2000). In Bigodi village in Uganda, a majority (58%) of survey respondents agreed that tourism has a strong link with agriculture as it is the market for farming products that local people produce. The Australian Department of Tourism (1992 as cited in Leiper (1995)) has conducted a tourism survey in Australia and found that every industry contributing to the economy is influenced by tourism in different proportions. Thus, tourism does not exist on its own but linked to other sectors.

Many researchers illustrate that governments usually develop the infrastructure, such as roads, and airports to facilitate and attract tourists (Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996; Leiper, 1995; Lepp, 2007; Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997; Lim, 1990; Mason, 2008; Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Mihalic, 2002; Murphy & Murphy, 2004). For instance, many roads were built in order to link one destination to another in order to distribute tourists to different parts of Northwestern Botswana. The 505 km road which links Francistown and Kasan was constructed due to the development of tourism in the 1990s. This road is important in distributing tourists from Chobe National Park to the Victoria Falls of Zimbabwe (Mbaiwa, 2005). In addition to the construction of road networks, tourism in Botswana encouraged the development of Maun International Airport extending runways and resulting in the construction of international terminals. The improvement in air transportation system provides international flights from Maun to Johannesburg, Windhoek, Harare, Victoria Falls and Gaborone (Mbaiwa, 2005).

Research undertaken in Antalya, Turkey and the town of Pythagorion, Samos, Greece show that the majority of respondents agree that tourism maintains roads and other public facilities better (Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996; Korça, 1996), while in the Turkish town of Urgup, only 45% agree that tourism contributes to the improvement of the town (Tosun, 2002). Mena (2008) highlights that tourism development money also needs to be invested in infrastructure (for instance, water and sewage systems, airports, roads, railways, ports, telecommunications, and other public facilities) and superstructure (for example, accommodation facilities, food and beverage services, and tourism attractions), which are not only used to serve tourists but it also improve the quality of the life of local host community.

As a result of the development of the tourism sector in Cambodia, specifically Siem Reap Angkor, which is the main tourist attraction in the country, the Asian Development Bank has provided a USD\$ 15 million loan to the Cambodia government to improve Siem Reap airport (Asian Development Bank, 2006). This project is an example of the development that is needed to be invested for tourism, but it also benefits local people as they can travel by air easily both domestically and internationally from Siem Reap international airport.

It is interesting to note that development can have both positive and negative impacts for tourism and the local community (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003). On one hand, if the development links to the concept of sustainability, obviously, it is a good result as it provides greater access for visitors and residents. On the other hand, some developments disturb the quality of life of local people and may spoil the uniqueness of the sites. Development is not always positive. Some development forces local people to leave the area in order to create tourism-related services. For example, in a town in the Dominican Republic, up to 100,000 poor people were forced to leave their residence in Santo Domingo where a lighthouse and a museum was built (Ferguson, 1992 as cited in Freitag, 1994). In other cases, when tourism is introduced, some of the buildings of local people are changed into tourism-related services (Murphy & Murphy, 2004). Changes from warehouses to souvenir shops, from churches to hotels, and so on result in problems if tourists are not interested in the site and tend to look for a new destination. The villagers cannot operate their traditional ways of making business due to the lost of skills and facilities such as buildings of warehouse. Besides these changes, tourism also increases traffic congestion and crowding in public areas and in local shops and facilities (Godfrey & Clarke, 2000).

2.1.4 Tourism dependence

With opportunities for employment and small-scale investments, some community residents turn to work in tourism rather than maintaining their traditional farming jobs. Espejo (2009) raises examples of the Gambia where 30% of the workforce depend on tourism directly and indirectly. According to Espejo (2009), the percentage of employment dependence on tourism ranges from 83% in the Maldives, 34% in Jamaica, to 21 % in the Seychelles. However, this change can be both positive and negative. Positively, many researchers have focused on the importance of tourism in providing individual income through wages and salaries from employment in communities (Ballard, 2005; Hall & Page, 2000; Horner & Swarbrooke, 2004; Kantamaturapoj, 2005; Mathieson & Wall, 1982). With national revenues through tax collection and fees from tourism, some countries depend largely on tourism and make policies focusing on tourism development regardless of other sectors such as agriculture (Godfrey & Clarke, 2000; Lea, 2001). Development, which is shaped by those policies, contributes to shifts by local people from agriculture to tourism jobs. A

study of local perception in Baan Tawai, Thailand shows that 90% of respondents agreed with the statement that the negative impacts of tourism–tourism development changed their village’s vocations from farming to tourism (Huttasin, 2008). Hall (1994) as cited in Khan (1997) stress that tourism shifts employment away from agricultural production.

However, tourism careers do not always bring more advantages or help strengthen the local economy. The change towards tourism employment makes local economies overdependent on tourism (Lea, 2001). This overdependence leads to a locally vulnerable economy due to the fact that tourism is susceptible to changes from external and uncontrollable impacts such as deadly epidemic diseases, unstable politics and economic crises; even though the trend in global tourism is to grow gradually (Espejo, 2009). For example, Bali, a popular tourism destination that has generated a high proportion of employment and businesses; was dramatically impacted in October 2002 through a terrorist bombing. This bomb explosion raised concern over the tourists’ safety. The concern made some countries warn their civilians off visiting the area (Mason, 2003). As a result, the number of tourists dropped almost 40% in the subsequent year. Consequently, the economy of Bali suffered as tourism is responsible for the majority of employment and investments (Espejo, 2009).

2.1.5 Leakage and inflation

Gu (2000) suggests that tourism leakage occurs in the process of tourism development. Firstly, financing refers to the money which is made by foreign investors. These investors do not inject the money into the local economy but transfer it to their own countries (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997). Beside foreign investors, it is common to have foreign personnel (expatriate) who have particular knowledge, skills and experience to work in the tourism firms, especially the global businesses (Doswell, 1997). Wages and salaries for those personnel are likely to leak out of the destination country. For instance, the government uses the private sector as tourism facilities providers, experts and marketers in Botswana. As a result, foreign investors are the owners of 79% of the tourism businesses (Mbaiwa, 2005). He stresses that it seems that tourism businesses in developing countries such as Turkey are dominated by foreign investors. This example does not only show the leakage but this is a loss of local autonomy which

may also lead to long-term negative impacts (Glasson et al, 1995 as cited in Mbaiwa, 2005).

Bushell (2001) agrees with Gu (2000) and states that employees and investors in tourism are often not local; goods and services are often imported. He adds that these pressures are the loss of control and loss of place of the host community which does not obtain the benefits. In addition, he highlights that these negative impacts usually occur in developing countries. Jenner and Smith (1992) state that the rate of leakage in developing countries is estimated at 55% of gross tourism revenue and some cases has reached 90%. Tourism in Botswana does not contribute to the national revenue as it is expected to because the linkages between tourism and other economic development sectors such as agriculture, mining, construction, and manufacturing are weak (Mbaiwa, 2005). He states that only 0.5% of tourism contributes to agriculture. When the agricultural production is low, food is imported. This leads to leakage for the economy. He suggests that tourism can be a catalyst to agricultural development if the linkage between tourism and agriculture of this country is strengthened.

Secondly, the funds which are used to buy the items which are imported to support tourism are also considered as leakage for the national economy. Doswell (1997) categorises imported items in tourism industry into four sections. The first group is construction equipment, which is used to construct new hotels and tourism installations. The second section refers to construction materials similarly used. The third category is furniture, fixtures, and equipment, which are used for these new buildings. The fourth one is operating supplies such as paper supplies, food and beverages, spare parts and other engineering supplies and so on. According to the survey by the Department of Tourism in Male, Maldives, the expenditure of tourist per night has been USD38.5; this expenditure contributes to USD 21.5 or 55.8% of local components, the rest USD 17 or 44.2% of foreign components (Sathiendrakumar & Tisdell, 1989). He adds that imported food and beverage take the highest proportion (38.2%), while imported oil products, general supplies, sport and souvenirs account for 23.5%, 23.5% and 14.8% respectively. This shows extreme economic leakage.

Tourism is a service industry and tourists expect high standards. To meet these needs, some products are imported. Very few countries have enough resources for tourists

without imports (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997). A case study in Botswana shows that tourists, even though they pay high costs for tourism products, the money does not get injected into the economy of the country—it is spent on imported food and drinks and other equipment (Mbaiwa, 2005).

Doswell (1997) states that the term 'leakage' comes from the root word 'leak'; so it is necessary to find the leak and fix it. However, he suggests that it cannot be fixed, but it is possible to reduce it. In order to minimize leakage, he offers some examples. Firstly, local construction methods are encouraged to be used with local materials in order to reduce capital costs. Once the construction costs are decreased, local investments tend to increase. Secondly, furniture, fittings, and operating equipment should be made locally. In addition, local products should be substituted for imported food, drinks and other supplies. Foreign experts or consultants and personnel should be substituted with local human resources. In short, local resources should be used as much as possible and only the necessary imported products need to be bought from overseas (Doswell, 1997). Domestic products do not only avoid leakages but also generate more employment for local people through indirect tourism jobs. Many hotel and restaurant owners in Cambodia are international investors and they send the money out of the country. In addition, US currency is often used instead (Winter, 2007).

In addition to leakages, tourism development is a root cause of increases in food and commodities prices (Figgis & Bushell, 2007; Lea, 2001; Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Whittaker, 1997). The escalation can be from 20% to even 100%. In addition to food prices, tourism development also causes the inflation of real estate prices which can be doubled or tripled. In a community in Komodo National Park in Indonesia 50% of respondents think that tourism is the cause of increased prices for commodities and transportation that they need to consume regularly (Walpole & Goodwin, 2002). Research by Fortin and Gagnon (2002) suggests that tourism development is blamed for the increase of the cost of living in Tadoussac, located by the Saguenay River, Canada. Furthermore, research on local residents' perception of tourism development in three communities in Cyprus confirmed that the majority of respondents agree with

the statement “prices are increasing because of tourism” (Akis, Peristianis, & Warner, 1996).

2.2 Socio-economic impacts

Along with the positive and negative sides of economic impacts, socio-economic impacts are also discussed with both benefits and costs. However, the economic impacts of tourism are mostly described as positive, while socio-economic impacts are mainly a negative consequence, which raises concerns for tourism policy makers (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997; Narayan, 2004; Timothy & Boyd, 2003; Tsartas, 1992). In some conferences, the phrase “killing the golden goose” is used to describe problems of a community which are spoilt by the negative socio-economic impacts of tourism (Figgis & Bushell, 2007).

2.2.1 Child labour

Espejo (2009) mentions that the tourism development strategies of many countries involve spending a great amount of money on maintaining costly infrastructure in order to support tourism which can decrease the amount of funding left to develop and ensure the quality of education in destination countries. This implies that tourism results in a great cost for a country and even impacts on the education of children. Investing less on education by directing funds to tourism development is a negative impact. In addition, employment of children in the tourism sector is another situation in tourism sites of concern.

According to the ILO (2000), tourism is considered as one of the primary sectors, employing many children. The exact figures for child labour in tourism are hard to estimate as child labour is usually invisible (Bliss, n.d.). Child labour in tourism comes from the nature of tourism itself in which employment is usually seasonal. Unlike adult employees, children do not argue for their rights as they usually do not comprehend these rights. They do not demand fixed hours of work, secure salaries and specifically assigned tasks. Children are a more flexible work force compared to adults (ILO, 2000).

About 19 million children under 18 years old work in the tourism industries of developing and developed countries. This amount accounts for about 15% of total

employment. Many boys in Colombia from the age of 7 years old of age work in indirect tourism jobs such as bricklayers in tourist resorts and at 10 years work in restaurants up to 15 hours (Bliss, n.d.). However, Black (1995) argues that this number is not exactly true as child labour is usually hidden; children usually work in informal sectors which the ILO did not include in the report.

Children work in a variety of jobs in tourism. Prostitution is generally considered as an extreme case, which is identified by many tourism researchers. Sex is one tourism product for the global tourism market. American tourists account for 25% of the child sex tourism market in the world (Bliss, n.d.), while sex tourism in Cambodia is growing. It is estimated that about 20,000 children are working as sex workers in Cambodia. According to the *Melbourne Age*, several hundred Australian tourists have sex with girls as young as from 9 years old in a suburb of Svay Pak where the number of brothels doubled in the last five years (Crouse & Stove, 2009).

Besides working as sex labourers, children do many other jobs to provide service to tourists. In Appendix 1, Bliss (n.d.) mentions the involvement of children in carpet factories (tourists are the customers), clothing factories, production of luxury hammocks, maids to clean hotel rooms and to do cooking and to wash clothes and linen, street peddlers (shoeshine boys), beggars, plantation and agriculture (the products such as cocoa, chocolate and coffee, are sold to tourists), transportation, mining (to search for coal to use as energy supply to large hotels, and to find precious stones), prostitution, dancing and entertainment. He stresses the young ages of the children who work long hours with high danger levels in some of the jobs and they obtain little benefit.

A study of child labour in Siem Reap conducted by ILO showed that child labour in handicrafts and tourism-related jobs accounted for 2,100 children in Siem Reap and Banteay Srey districts (where the Angkor Park is located) (ILO, 2008). Further cases of child labour in tourism were identified in recent research in different villages in the park. Due to tourism development, 19.77% tourism jobs in Norkor Kroav, a village in zone one of the park, employed children (Ang, n.d.). Some authors listed some specific jobs such as souvenir makers and street vendors in three different villages in the park namely Pradak, Trapeing Sesh and Nokor Kroav (Ang, 2003; Ung, 2003).

Behind the cases of child labour in tourism, there are a variety of reasons that make children go to work in tourism (Figure 2.1) Bliss (n.d.). He puts the blame on some issues such as the nature of tourism employment, poverty that forces children to work for food and to support their family, and the policy of governments relating to education and employment policies. For example, in the Maldives, more than 30% of children under the age of 5 years old become sick and died because of a lack of food, while tourists eat fresh food and vegetables.

Figure 2. 1 Why do children work in tourism industry?



(Bliss, n.d.)

In Kenya, a study by the ILO (2000), investigating child labour in tourism jobs, presents the most popular jobs, with the number of children in each job. Selling crafts, food and other items are responsible for the majority of jobs (39%), while children working on different sorts of entertainment represents approximately 21%. This is followed by working at the beach (approximately 13%). The other jobs, such as attending boats, working on streets in prostitution, working in hotels, working in food and beverage industry, assisting in carpentry and construction, represent about 7% respectively.

In some developing countries such as Indonesia and Central America, begging becomes almost an industry, which is the result of tourism development. This industry involves

the use of children to make tourists feel pity and donate money. Similarly, in Antananarivo, Madagascar, street children are on the streets expecting donations from tourists. The donation ranges from money to clothes and school equipment such as pencils. Despite the donation, the survey reveals that begging children are forced to work by their parents who themselves live in poverty (Gossling, Schumacher, Morelle, Berger, & Heck, 2004).

Furthermore, child labour in tourism also has an effect on education. Bliss (n.d.) supported ILO (2000) research and published his research of child labour in tourism in developing countries between 1998 and 2005. He stresses, "Children were prevented from going to school, worked long hours for little or no pay, performed dangerous work, denied vocational training and their employment was unstable" (p. 6).

The ILO (2008) suggests that only half of children between 5 and 17 years old go to school full-time in Siem Reap province. About 26.5% of children in this region stop schooling while 12.4% never go to school. More than half of respondents blame poverty as the barrier to their children's education (ILO, 2008). The main reason claimed by more than half of the respondents, is poverty, which leads them to work to support family (25%), while being lazy and failing exams is responsible for the rest. Similarly, research in a village of the protected zone of Angkor Park, Trapeing Sesh indicates that some children (involved in tourism services such as selling souvenirs, postcards, guidebooks, food and drinks) do not go to school. He uses a strong negative phrase to describe the relationship between tourism and education "tourism development is the **education murder** to Trapeing Sesh villages' children" (Ung, 2003, p. 34).

Another study in Siem Reap with the focus on villages in the Angkor Park blames souvenir and handicraft sellers for the negative result on education of local children. In Pradak village, situated on the way to Bantey Srei temple, around 50 children dropped out of school for the past two years in order to sell souvenirs to tourists in the temple area near the village. In Nokor Krauv, a village in the north part of the park, around 5% of the children in the village stopped studying to be involved in tourism employment. However, the same research argues that tourism jobs are not the only reason for children leaving school. A lack of schools, the long distance from home to school, and

poverty also share the responsibility. For instance, Rohal, the village along the grand tour of the park shows few children dropping school although they work in tourism jobs, but only after classes (ADI Team & Ballard, 2002).

This finding suggests that child labour in tourism is positive. Instead of distracting children away from school, tourism helps with providing income to children to go to school and encourage higher education. Along with the research in the park, research in Kenya by the ILO shows three reasons that children work in tourism. First, they work to support their family due to poverty. Secondly, they want to take the chance to earn their own money. Last but not least, paying for school is presented as one of the reasons which accounts for 25% of the survey (ILO, 2000). The survey also quotes a few sentences from a boy to support the finding.

“...I left school because of financial problems. My parents were very poor that they could not manage to pay for school fees, so I found it very difficult to continue. I had to go to school without taking breakfast. In the afternoon when I come back for lunch I find nothing, so I thought of getting a small business to help my parents and my small sister and brother.” (p. 4)

Therefore, tourism employment has both positive and negative impacts with educating local children. Positively, tourism employment brings children part-time jobs to make their living and to encourage children into higher education by paying for school fees and some necessary demands for schooling such as books, pens, and uniforms. Negatively, tourism jobs are also the factors that make children leave schools as they are forced to work to help support their families.

2.2.2 Migration

The mobility of people takes different forms (Gössling & Schulz, 2005). One of the reasons is that people migrate from one area to a new location with the expectation of better social services such as education (good colleges, and universities), and good health care. In Thailand, many young adults move from the countryside to cities for educational purposes. Another reason, which plays quite a substantial role of migration, is an economic purpose. Firstly, migrants move to a destination where jobs are available. Secondly, with the same economic purpose, they come to do business in the area (Adepoju, 1995).

It is generally understood that tourism and migration are well connected (Hall, 2005). The relationship between tourism and migration in the literature is focused on specific links such as tourism and labour migration, tourism and entrepreneurial migration, tourism and return migration, and tourism and retirement migration. However, there is not much research to show the relationship between migration and the economic impacts of tourism.

Usually, mass tourism development generates an influx of tourism services which range from tourism labour to tourism entrepreneurs (Williams & Hall, 2000a). Employment opportunities attract in-migration to work. In Indonesia, the promotional slogan “visit Bali is a must” attracted hundreds of thousands of Indonesians from outside Bali to work in Bali (Timothy & Wall, 1997; Turker, 2007). Research by Virak (n.d.) in Cambodia shows that the migration rate increases when the employment rate increases in the majority of districts. Similarly, a study in Siem Reap suggests that migration into the province is caused by the rapid growth of its tourism industry (Ballard, 2005). The study stated that Siem Reap district in Siem Reap province showed a high increase of population, from 117,500 in 2001 to 126,600 in 2004. Most of the migrants came to the area seeking employment (JICA, 2005a as cited in Ballard, 2005).

In addition to employment, business is another factor that provides chances for migrants to search for better income (Illes & Michalko, 2008; Williams & Hall, 2000b). In Bali, most migrants move there to create informal tourism businesses such as trading of small handicrafts (Turker, 2007). A study undertaken in Zanzibar, Tanzania agrees with Turker (2007) and shows that the majority of migrants (up to 70%) work as souvenir traders, while only 15% work in restaurants and bars and the rest are involved in painting and construction. The research shows no local people work as souvenir sellers (Gössling & Schulz, 2005). An Israeli study confirms the statement. Almost of half of respondents mentioned that migrants come to the area for business, especially people at young ages (25-34). These examples are convincing proof that the chance of doing business in tourism sectors is often taken by migrants as the income from the businesses is quite high and improves the living standard of new settlers.

However, migration issues are discussed from both positive and negative perspectives. From a positive side, migrants move to a tourism development area to fill gaps in the

services and labour market which local people cannot do (Gossling & Schulz, 2005; Williams & Hall, 2000b). In the Asia Pacific region, tourism sectors meet the shortage of skilled tourism labour (Hitchcock, King, & Parnwell, 1993). They noted that the Indonesian government does not consider carefully the relationship between tourism and its education needs. The local people do not have good training to meet the required standard for international services. This issue leads to an insufficient human resource for its growing tourism sector. Esichaikul and Baum (1998) show a similar difficulty that tourism in Thailand has relating to the low quality of human resource due to inappropriate training and education.

From a negative perspective, migrants take chances of employment and business from local people (Williams & Hall, 2002). Evidence from Swedish mountain municipalities illustrates the involvement of migrants in tourism. Specifically, the research specifies the change of jobs from the previous settlement of migrants (no involvement in tourism jobs before and after move; involvement in tourism jobs before but change to different jobs after; no involvement in tourism jobs before but involvement after move; and involvement in tourism jobs before and after move). Interestingly, around 3000 in-migrants move to the community every year, about 200 to 300 people did not have tourism jobs before, but they move in to obtain a tourism job which would be a potential opportunity for local people (Lundmark, 2006).

The hierarchy of tourism jobs for migrants is identified by three categories: managers, tour guides or travel agents and unskilled labourers. Firstly, it is the managerial positions usually in international standard hotels and leading airlines' branches in the area (Gössling & Schulz, 2005). Secondly, language is responsible for one of the priorities that make people move in to the destination. With their lack of local language skills, migrants come to work as tour guides and travel agent representatives. Finally, yet importantly, the third rank is the common unskilled labourer who takes labour jobs like most local people.

Among the three levels, the first and second tourism-related jobs of expatriates are usually highly paid, while the third level usually provides a low salary and wage (King, 1995 as cited in Williams & Hall, 2000b). In Zanzibar, Tanzania, more than 85% of local people earn less than USD\$ 20 a day, while only one third of migrants earn that little;

the other two-thirds make income in the range of USD\$ 21 to USD\$ 100 (Gössling & Schulz, 2005). A study on local perspectives over tourism development in Paralimni, Kyrenia and Ayia Napa in Cyprus shows that most of respondents agree with the statement that tourism creates more jobs for foreigners than for local people (Akis et al., 1996). Similarly, in the Komodo National Park of Indonesia, almost one-third of respondents believe that tourism only benefits outsiders (Walpole & Goodwin, 2002).

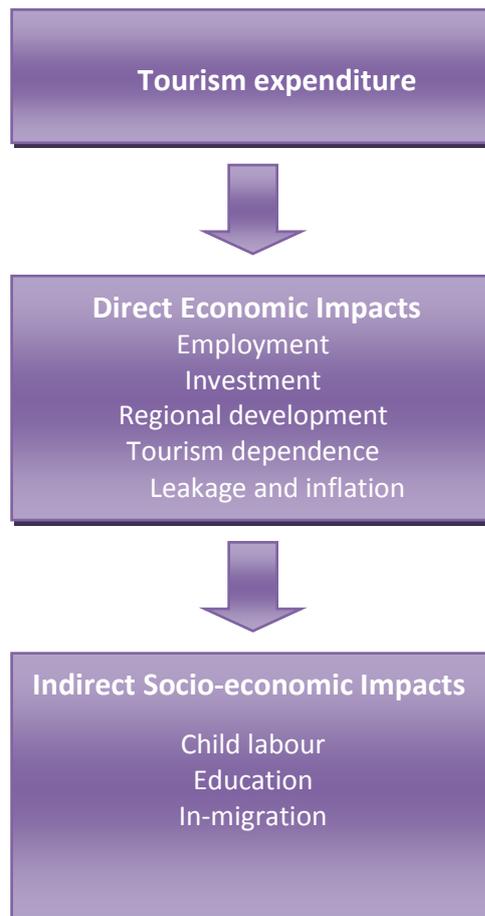
From the discussion, the negative side of migration usually outweighs the positive side as the model for tourism development is to maximize local employment rather than providing opportunities for outsiders to move in and make use of the area. In contrast, if the development attracts too many migrants and neglects opportunities for local people to work towards better living standards, it would be unfair for local dwellers and they would not be able to develop sustainably.

2.3 Summary of literature review and conceptual framework of the research

From the literature review, tourism expenditure influences the economic and socio-economic impacts. At tourism sites these impacts are presented as a conceptual framework of this research in Figure 2.2.

This conceptual framework suggests a process of impacts. Tourism expenditures first impact economic issues (such as employment, investment, regional development, tourism dependence, leakage and inflation) which subsequently lead to socio-economic challenges in the area of education and in-migration. Note that the more development, the higher impacts will occur and these impacts can be positive and negative. Extensive research has been done on economic impacts. However, there is still room for understanding the relationships between the direct economic impacts of tourism development and the indirect socio-economic impacts linked to education and migration (which result from development of a tourism destination like Srah Srang Cheung village, Angkor Park). This conceptual model is used to apply and to compare the results of the field research in Srah Srang Cheung village. To identify the challenges and to provide a framework for minimizing negative impacts.

Figure 2. 2 Conceptual framework



CHAPTER 3 BACKGROUND

3.1 Overview of Cambodia

Cambodia is small country located on the mainland of South East Asia. It consists of 20 provinces and four cities. The capital has changed many times in Cambodia's rich history. Phnom Penh is the current capital city. The 24 provinces and cities share a total area of 181,035 square kilometres (CIA, 2009).

Cambodia shares its borders with Thailand, Vietnam, and Laos. The frontiers with Thailand are clearly separated by the mountain ranges of Dangrek in the northwest and the Cardamom Mountains and the Elephant Range in the southwest. The mountain ranges and high land at the borders form a saucer-shaped piece of land. The heart of the country, surrounded by high land and the mountain ranges, is flat and low which is favourable for agriculture (The Columbia Electronic Encyclopedia, 2000-2007).

Currently, the area under cultivation accounts for about 36,000 square kilometres, which is around 20% of the total land of the whole country (Keosothea, 2005). Agriculture is responsible for 30% of GDP. Main agricultural products such as rice, soybeans, rubber, sugar cane, and banana are popular among Cambodian farmers. Rice and rubber play a vital role in exports to neighbouring countries.

In addition to agriculture, tourism is a new industry which contributes a vital share to the country's GDP. It not only provides job opportunities but it also brings a great amount of benefits from entrance fees (payments to visit parks) and taxes. After many years of wars, Cambodia is in process of developing all sectors, including tourism. Infrastructure is a main constraint for tourism development in Cambodia (Leung, Lam, & Wong, 1996). Roads in Cambodia are not reliable enough for tourism. There are many infrastructure projects in progress. Recently, Cambodia was granted a loan of USD 15.6 million to upgrade tourism infrastructure from the Asian Development Bank (Ministry of Tourism, 2008). Despite the poor roads, around 30% of tourists travel by land from neighbouring countries. Railways, which were established in the French colonial period to link Cambodia to other countries with Indochina in the late 19th century, were destroyed by war (Leung et al., 1996). However, they are still used by local people for loading cargo. In addition, waterways are also another choice for

travelling to Cambodia, which owns a part of the Gulf of Thailand. A stretch of the Mekong River flows across the country from the border of Cambodia–Laos to the border of Cambodia–Vietnam. From the capital city to the tourism city of Siem Reap, the Tonlesap River (The Great Lake) is crucial for waterway transportation.

Air transportation dominates travel to Cambodia. According to the Ministry of Tourism (2008), Phnom Penh and Siem Reap international airports host the majority of tourists, with shares of more than 20% and 30%, respectively, in 2006 and 2007. Siem Reap International airport hosts around 10% more tourists than the capital city of Phnom Penh International airport in 2006 and 2007. Waterways are the least popular way of traveling for tourists in Cambodia. It represents only a small percentage of transportation in the country (see Table 3.1).

Table 3. 1 Visitor arrivals to Cambodia by different means from 2006 - 2007

| Visitor arrivals | Number | | Share (%) | |
|---------------------------|------------------|------------------|------------|------------|
| | 2006 | 2007 | 2006 | 2007 |
| Air | 1,027,064 | 1,296,513 | 60.41 | 64.34 |
| Phnom Penh Int'l Airport | 427,389 | 535,262 | 25.14 | 26.56 |
| Siem Reap Int'l Airport | 599,675 | 761,251 | 35.27 | 37.78 |
| Land and Waterways | 564,286 | 576,054 | 33.19 | 28.59 |
| Land | 524,501 | 532,366 | 30.85 | 26.42 |
| Boat | 39,785 | 43,688 | 2.34 | 2.17 |
| Sub-total | 1,591,350 | 1,872,567 | 93.61 | 92.93 |
| Same-day visitors | 108,691 | 142,561 | 6.39 | 7.07 |
| Total | 1,700,041 | 2,015,128 | 100 | 100 |

(Ministry of Tourism, 2008)

Table 3. 2 Number of accommodations from 1998 to 2006

| Year | Hotels | | Guesthouses | |
|------|--------|--------|-------------|-------|
| | Number | Rooms | Number | Room |
| 1998 | 216 | 8,247 | 147 | 1,510 |
| 1999 | 221 | 9,115 | 186 | 1,897 |
| 2000 | 240 | 9,673 | 292 | 3,233 |
| 2001 | 247 | 10,804 | 370 | 3,899 |
| 2002 | 267 | 11,426 | 509 | 6,109 |
| 2003 | 292 | 13,201 | 549 | 6,497 |
| 2004 | 299 | 14,271 | 615 | 7,684 |
| 2005 | 351 | 15,465 | 684 | 9,000 |
| 2006 | 351 | 17,914 | 742 | 9,166 |

(Ministry of Tourism, 2008)

Table 3. 3 Number of travel agency and tour operator from 2001 to 2006

| Travel Agencies and Tour Operators | | | |
|---|---------------------|-----------------------|--------------|
| Year | Head Offices | Branch Offices | Total |
| 2001 | 166 | 70 | 236 |
| 2002 | 186 | 73 | 259 |
| 2003 | 186 | 84 | 270 |
| 2004 | 208 | 94 | 302 |
| 2005 | 237 | 99 | 336 |
| 2006 | 277 | 105 | 382 |

(Ministry of Tourism, 2008)

For the last decade, tourism facilities have improved gradually. The number of hotels grew from 216 with 8,247 rooms in 1998 to 351 with 17,914 rooms in 2006 (see Table 3.2). Small accommodation businesses, such as guesthouses, have also increased sharply, from 147 with 1,510 available rooms in 1998, to 742 with 9,166 rooms in 2006. In addition to accommodation facilities, tour operators and travel agencies are also increasing. The number of tour operators and travel agencies has increased from 236 in 2001 to 382 in 2006 (see Table 3.3).

Many tourists come to Cambodia because of the fame of Angkor. The number of tourists coming to Angkor is increasing every year. In 2008, the number of tourists in Siem Reap reached more than a million (see Table 3.5). The increase in number, as well as the development, results in both positive and negative impacts on the local community and the park.

3.2 Siem Reap Angkor

3.2.1 Park management history

During the period of colonization (1861-1953), the French established a research institute (L'Ecole Francaise d'Exterme Orient (EFEO) which focuses on conserving and restoring ruined Khmer temples in Cambodia and Laos. During this period, many ancient Khmer statues were taken to Paris, France, where the national museum (the Musee National des Arts Asiatiques-Guimet) was established in 1899 (Stark & Griffin, 2004).

Angkor was established as the first Archaeological Park in South East Asia in 1925 (Gillespie, 2009). After independence, the French colonial institutions still ran the heritage management in Angkor. After a period of peaceful politics of around 20 years, Cambodia succumbed to civil war and was under the control of the Pol Pot regime from 1975 to 1979. During this time, Angkor was completely abandoned again (Howse et al., 2007).

Before the establishment of the APSARA, Angkor was controlled by the Angkor Conservation Department under the umbrella of The Ministry of Culture and Fine Arts (De Lopez, 2007). In 1989, His Majesty Norodom Sihanouk requested UNESCO to assist with the protection of the Angkor temples (Howse et al., 2007). As a result, a year before the first election in Cambodia in 1993, the Angkor complex was placed on the list of World Heritage Sites in Danger in December 1992. Because of this, the World Heritage Committee needed the Cambodian government to take firm action in terms of protection and management of the site. Responding to the request from His Majesty Norodom Sihanouk, the World Heritage committee said:

In order to deal with the urgent problems of conservation quickly and effectively, the committee has inscribed the site of Angkor on the List of World Heritage Site in Danger, and has requested, on the recommendation of ICOMOS, that the authorities concerned take the necessary steps to meet the following conditions:

- (a) Enact adequate protective legislation;*
- (b) Establish an adequately staffed national protection agency;*
- (c) Establish permanent boundaries based on the UNDP project;*
- (d) Define meaningful buffer zone;*
- (e) Establish monitoring and coordination of the international conservation effort. (Gillespie, 2009, p. 6)*

After three years of Government progress, the Angkor complex was finally removed from the list of endangered World Heritage Sites. One of the Government responsibilities was to create a special national authority, the APSARA Authority, to manage the site (Gillespie, 2009; Howse et al., 2007; Stark & Griffin, 2004; UNESCO, 1996; Winter, 2008).

The wars left Cambodia with a lack of expertise in park management—such as in community development, urban planning, forestry, tourism and archaeology. Due to this shortage of expertise, the International Coordinating Committee for the

Safeguarding and Development of Angkor (ICC) was created by UNESCO in order to monitor, protect and considerately manage this World Heritage Site. The ICC was composed of many international experts in conservation and restoration of temples (Winter, 2004b).

With its worldwide prestige, Angkor has been offered global assistance of billions of dollars to restore, repair and to safeguard the ruins in the park. So far, there are more than 20 countries involved, including France, Germany, Italy, America, China, Japan, India and Australia. These international teams work under the control of the ICC (Winter, 2008). Every six months, an international conference is held with the presence of the APSARA Authority and the Cambodian government, UNESCO, the ICC and other international assistance teams. The purpose of the conference is to safeguard Angkor Park. Specifically, the conference discusses efforts made by the APSARA Authority and international teams and suggests new tasks in order to assure the sustainable development of the park and Siem Reap area (Winter, 2008).

Along with the efforts of the APSARA Authority, UNESCO and ICC, the Royal Government of Cambodia has approved some laws relating to The Angkor Park management (see Appendix 2). Zoning is one of the laws which is enforced under the Royal Decree for Protected Cultural Zone in the Siem Reap/ Angkor region and Guidelines for their Management, which was established in 1994. Zone One (Monumental Sites) covers areas of significant archaeological sites which require high levels of protection. Zone Two (Protected Archaeological Reserves) covers areas which are rich in archaeological remains located around temples. This zone needs protection from damage arising from inappropriate development. The Angkor Monument Site and Archaeological Reserve cover an area of 350 square kilometres. Zone Three (Protected Cultural Landscapes) covers areas with distinctive landscapes where the ICC strongly recommends preservation of traditional features, land use practices, varied habitats, and historic buildings. Zone Four (Site of Archaeological or Historic Interest) includes all the other crucial archaeological sites but they are less important than Monumental Sites. These sites are protected for research, education, and tourist interest. Lastly, Zone Five is the Socio-economic and Cultural Development Zone of the Siem Reap region. Comprising the whole of Siem Reap Province, Zone Five is the

largest zone to which protective policies apply. This zone covers an area of 10,000 square kilometers and includes Phnom Koulen, the shores of the Tonlesap, and the Angkor Plain (Gillespie, 2009; Howse et al., 2007; Wager, 1995).

Due to the development of tourism in the area, the government released a sub-decree in October 1995 to create a hotel zone which is situated northeast of Angkor Wat temple. This zone covers an area of 560 hectares between Siem Reap city and mini-tour of Angkor complex. This zone was created to concentrate hotel development in one location. This concept makes it more convenient to control and minimize the impact of the hotel on the historical and archaeological park of the Angkor complex. In addition, it also helps to prevent the negative development of local buildings which tends to occur in the crowded town of Siem Reap. The establishment of hotels will create job opportunities and it is likely that local people will prefer to live near their place of work rather than in remote areas (APSARA Authority, 2005b).

Angkor Park

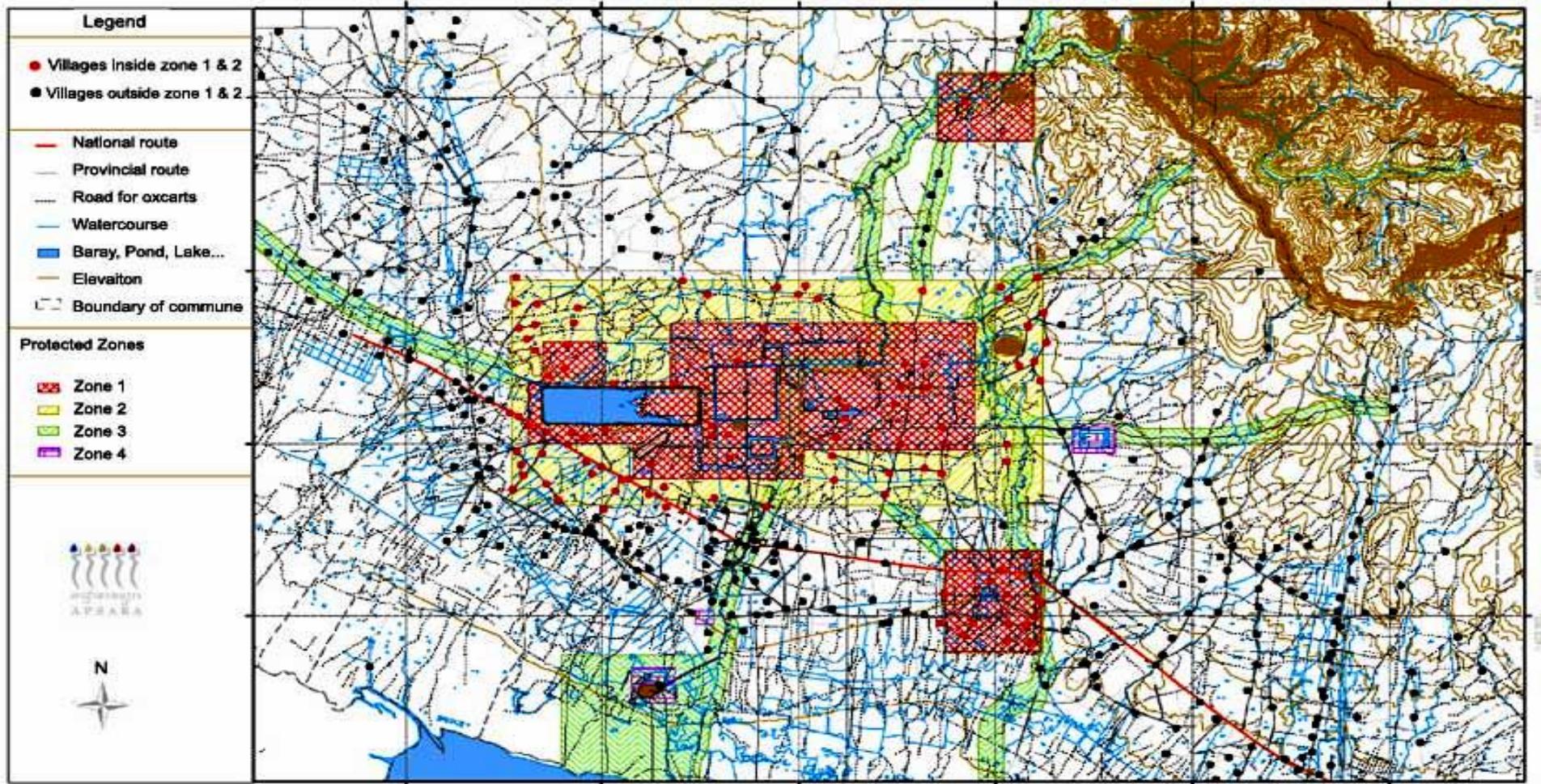


Figure 3. 1 Map of protected zones in Angkor

(APSARA Authority, 2005b)

Even though the Angkor Park is managed and guided by a powerful organization — UNESCO — together with many local and international experts, politics is still a major problem. For example, the Siem Reap international airport is in Zone One (which is the main protected zone with full of temples and archaeological sites). The ICC noticed that the aircraft on landing produce huge amounts of disturbing noise which vibrates temple buildings. This vibration leads to the destruction of temples. UNESCO and ICC suggested relocating the existing airport. However, it is likely that the relocation will not be done due to the fact that some top politicians have their hotels built on National Road Number 6 (from the airport to Siem Reap town). By changing the location of the airport, they would lose a chance of taking profit from their businesses. Currently, the existing airport has been enlarged, with a loan from the Asian Development Bank (ADB), to provide a new international terminal to host the international visitors. In this instance, politics overrides the guidelines from the ICC (Winter, 2007). The same source also stressed the impotence of the APSARA Authority, UNESCO and ICC and raised an example of a huge hotel building on the historical Angkorean canal network.

In addition to political issues, it is believed that the development of tourism has caused some conflicts between local people and the authorities, especially the APSARA Authority and Cultural Heritage Police. In the last several years, Siem Reap has grown quickly in terms of infrastructure and superstructure to meet the demands of tourists. This growth has resulted in a high price for land in the area as many business people buy the land and expect to gain rapid benefits. From this situation, local people, specifically those living in the core zones of the park (Zones 1 and 2) expect to sell their land at the market price unaware that those lands are in protected zones (Ballard, 2005; Rowena, n.d.). When the APSARA Authority started to limit the zoning border (according to the Royal Decree of The Government of Cambodia regarding zoning issues number 70/SSR approved by September 15, 2004 (Howse et al., 2007)), they realized that those lands were not able to be sold or bought. Apparently, this caused conflicts between local people in the park and the APSARA authority with many instances of destruction of zoning information boards (which are built to introduce regulations and rules regarding protected zones) with axes, and different colour spray paint.

Furthermore, pressure from the cultural heritage police is also concerned for villagers' daily lives. Some villagers have complained that corruption occurs when starting small scale businesses in the park. For those who are relatives of the police, they are able to build stalls for businesses without any disturbance from local authorities, especially the police. Those people not related to the police have to pay some amount of fee, plus a monthly fee to the police for some services offered for protection and security (ADI Team & Ballard, 2002).

3.2.2 Local management institutions

3.2.2.1 APSARA authority

APSARA was created to meet the requirements of the World Heritage Committee to list the Angkor complex as a World Heritage Site. In December 1995, the government established APSARA, the Authority for the Protection and Management of Angkor and the Region of Siem Reap, which is responsible for research, protection, conservation, and urban and tourist development. As the result, APSARA has created its internal organization chart which consists of the Department of Demography and Development, Department of Monuments and Archaeology, Department of Angkor Tourism Development, Department of Urbanization and Development in Siem Reap Angkor region, and the Department of Water and Forests (Howse et al., 2007).

The previous King of Cambodia, His Majesty Norodom Sihanouk, has stated the goal of the APSARA Authority. He said:

“APSARA, if it is strong-willed and single-minded, will put the management, the promotion and the exploration of the Khmer cultural heritage into Khmer hands, even while it is a world heritage, into the same hands that sculpted it, that caressed it and protected it for so many centuries. And it will do this in the only way possible: by helping to form a new generation of qualified, caring Khmer specialists - technicians - intellectuals - thinkers and doers, who will be capable, on this international stage, of standing in the present with an arm around the past and eyes on the future.”

(APSARA Authority, 2005a, p. 1).

The website continues by noting that the Department of Angkor tourism development is in charge of promoting quality tourism, which is designed to attract international tourists who are interested in Angkor heritage with the aims of improving awareness of the site and of increasing national revenue. Specifically, this department has been

given the responsibility of managing commercial activities in the Angkor Park, preparing and introducing the codes of conduct and rules to manage visitors, controlling visitor flows, controlling and managing the use of the park in film shooting and special events, and developing facilities for visitors. To ensure a smooth flow of work, the Department of Tourism Development of Angkor also cooperates with other public and private sectors to improve tourism quality (APSARA Authority, 2005a).

3.2.2.2 Cultural Heritage Police

Even though Siem Reap province has its own provincial police, the Special Police Corps or The Cultural Heritage Police was created by sub-decree, as a consequence of Angkor being listed as a World Heritage Site. Technically, it was created in 1994 but was not active until 1997 (APSARA Authority, 2005c). Under the authority of the Ministry of Interior, The Special Police Corps for the Protection of Cultural Heritage has some key obligations (Appendix 3). Primarily, this police group is responsible for the security and public order in the Angkor region and takes action against illegal acts including destruction, robbery, and trading cultural heritage. Regarding these illegal acts, this police force collaborates with other related organizations such as provincial police, military, provincial tourism office to fight against them.

3.2.3 History of Angkor Park /city

Angkor is a uniquely tangible and intangible part of cultural heritage, a living heritage, and the identity of the nation (Wright, 1991). The Angkor temple is seen on the flag of the country; it is the symbol and the soul of Cambodia. It also lends its name to the prosperous civilization of Khmer ancestors. It is also known as the historical period from 802 AD to 1218 AD. In addition, Angkor is also the name to the city which is the first mega-city in the world (Marks, 2007).

In the historical year of 802, the King Jayavaraman II celebrated a ceremony on Koulen Mountain — a mountain in the park — to declare the country of Kampuchea (Cambodia today) was no longer dependent upon Java. He was the first king to use his royal power to unite the country. He was the founder of the Khmer Empire. During his reign, he built Damrei Krab temple on Koulen Mountain (APSARA Authority, 2004a).

Soryavaraman II (1113-1150), built a significant Hindu temple, Angkor Wat. It is a mountain temple surrounded by a moat. The concept of building a mountain temple in the middle of water has two basic aspects: religious and architectural. In Hinduism, temples are the gods' home which is believed to be situated on the highest mountain of Meru surrounded by the ocean. So, the mountain temple represents the mountain and the moat is the ocean. Architecturally, the water surrounding the temple helps balance the extremely heavy weight of the temple's sandstone structure; the foundation of the temple is made of sand (UNESCO, 1996).

The peaceful kingdom was interrupted by Champa (now central Vietnam to the east) in 1177. Champa controlled and destroyed the city over four years. In 1181, the King Jayavaraman IIV won a war which took place mainly on Tonlesap Lake. This war was depicted on the wall of the Bayon temple (see Figure 3.2). Jayavaraman IIV was a great and powerful king. Besides building temples such as Bayon, Taprom and Pheh Khan, he built infrastructure and hospitals. He was also the king who constructed the nine-square-kilometre city of Angkor Thom which is surrounded by a moat and stone walls with five amazing gates (Ministry of Culture and Fine Arts, 2008).

Figure 3. 2 War between Cambodia and Champa on the wall of Bayon temple



(Photo by author)

The Angkorian era came to an end in the first quarter of the 14th century. After this period, the power of Khmer Empire collapsed. It is believed that the reason for the decline was due to the introduction of Theravada Buddhism and of the first Thai kingdom, Sokhothai. Hinduism was the main religion in the Khmer Empire. With the changes from Hinduism to Theravata Buddhism, Angkor city had become religiously unimportant for people. In addition to this religious aspect, the Siamese (Thai) started to invade the Khmer Empire in 1431 and came to dominate in the region (Winter, 2008). This invasion is believed to be one of the reasons that the capital city moved to Phnom Penh at this time. The New World Encyclopedia (2009) confirms the reasons stated by Winter (2008) and adds that due to the scarce resources of the city in the war, public facilities were not renovated. Specifically, irrigation systems were not maintained and upgraded. Thus, Angkor city had a shortage of water for agriculture. A change of climate also affected the pattern of the monsoon. This new pattern has provided less amount of rainfall which has contributed to lack of water.

3.2.4 History of tourism

Cambodia was known as the Khmer Empire around 10 centuries ago. In ancient times, people traveled to Cambodia for various purposes. The bas-relief of Bayon temple depicts the everyday life of Chinese families (APSARA Authority, 2004a). A Chinese traveller Chou Ta-Kuan arrived Cambodia in the 13th century (Dagens, 1995). These provide proof of international travel from China to Cambodia in the late 12th and early 13th centuries. Interestingly, Japanese travelers have visited Angkor Wat since the 16th century and left inscriptions on the sand stone pillars of Angkor Wat temple. In Japanese language, they described that they came to Angkor Wat because of its famous religious aspects (UNESCO, 1996).

After the end of the Angkorian period, Cambodia experienced many wars—wars with neighbouring countries and civil wars. During the late 19th and early 20th centuries when Cambodia was in the control of French colony, a French explorer, Henri Mouhot, saw Angkor and started to spread the news of its magnificent beauty to catch the attention of western people (Edwards, 2007). Even though some Spanish, Portuguese and Asian travellers visited the area before, as shown in Hanri Mouhot’s travelling diary, this French traveller, in 1860, described Angkor as his “discovery” and also

depicted it as a “lost”, and even “dead” civilization (Norindr, 1996; Winter, 2008). However, Father Charles-Bouillevaux, who was a missionary to Cambodia before the presence of Henri Mouhot, declared Angkor had never been lost or forgotten (Norindr, 1996).

After gaining independence from France in 1953, King Norodom Sihanouk was on the throne in Sangkomreasiyom regime (Khmer Socialist Republic). During this time tourism had started to grow rapidly. As the result of political stability, Cambodia in the 1960s was one of the most popular destinations in South East Asia with 50,000 to 70,000 tourists a year. Unfortunately, this regime did not last long. Around three decades (1970s to 1990s), of civil wars completely destroyed the country (Hubbell, 2006; Leung et al., 1996).

Due to the unstable politics in the 1990s, it was noted that tourism was likely to remain unchanged for a decade (see Table 3.4) (Hall & Page, 2000). However, another key barrier to this growth was the absence of direct international flights; 13 airports in Cambodia were unusable. After the government adopted the “open sky policy” that allowed international airlines from neighboring countries to fly directly to Siem Reap Angkor, the tourism sector started to grow gradually (Ministry of Tourism, 2008).

Table 3. 1 Kingdom of Cambodia international visitor arrivals 1994-1998

| Year | Number of international visitor arrivals |
|-------------|---|
| 1994 | 176,617 |
| 1995 | 219,680 |
| 1996 | 260,489 |
| 1997 | 218,843 |
| 1998 | 177,500 (estimated) |

(Hall, 1997 as cited in Hall & Page, 2000)

3.2.5 Relationship between agriculture and employment in Angkorian time

Angkor used to be a great water-intensive city in which the king believed in farming due to the spacious and rich soil, farming favourable tropical weather, and the sources of water (UNESCO, 1996). The Angkor is located north of the Tonle Sap Lake which is also known as The Great Lake) and south of the Koulén Mountain region. Between Koulén Mountain and Tonle Sap Lake, the plain land has an average slope of 0.1%.

Angkorian kings even linked agriculture with aspects of religion. In Hinduism, there is a belief in lingar and yoni (usually stone-made as a symbol of a Hindu god). Architecturally, yoni plays a role as the base of lingar to make it stand. In religious ceremony, water is poured on the lingar to become holy water for people to wash their faces in the hope of prosperity and happiness. From this notion, a thousand lingars were built in the bottom of the river on Koulen Mountain in order to obtain holy water which finally flows across Siem Reap to Tonlesap and is stored in West Baray or Baray Teuk Tla (as it is called by local people) (water reservoir) measuring eight kilometres by 2.1 kilometres. This water container is used for agriculture in dry season (Evans et al., 2007). The consumption of holy water in agriculture is believed to bring a better harvest (UNESCO, 1996).

Actually, there is not only one West Baray. In Angkor city, there are three other Barays—Indratataka (Baray of Lorley), Yasotataka (East Baray, which has East Mebon temple in the middle), and Jayatataka (North Baray with Neak Poin temple in the middle). These Barays were possibly used for the same purpose as the West Baray. This innovation illustrates the concept of water storage for use in agriculture in the dry season. Chou Ta-Kuan described in his diary that Cambodia could cultivate rice a few times a year (Dagens, 1995). This is proof that the main jobs were farming related.

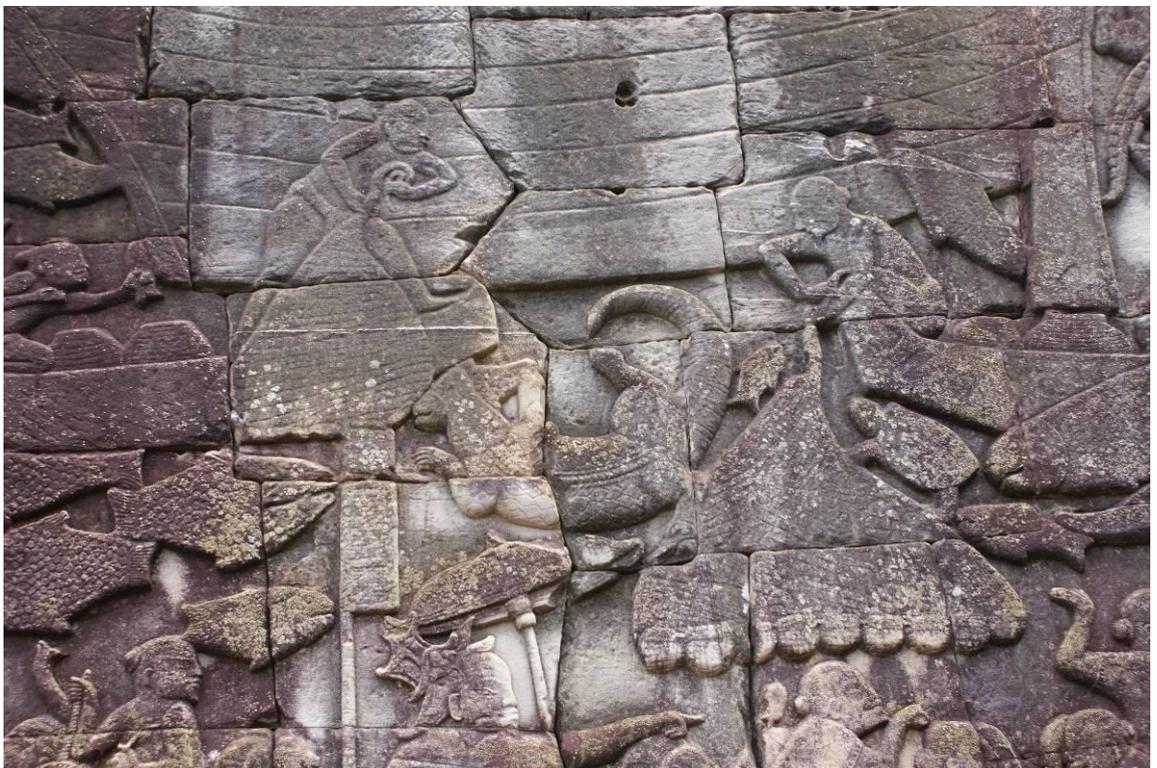
The hydraulic system contributed to the rapid growth of the Empire which covered the most of current Vietnam, Thailand, Laos, and Cambodia (Winter, 2004b). Besides farming, the fishery was the second important industry. The Tonle Sap, which is the biggest fresh water lake in Southeast Asia, provided tons of fishes for Angkor dwellers (Kummu, 2005). On Bayon temple's bas-relief, there are some scenes depicting daily lives in the 13th century (see Figure 3.3). Fishing with fishing net is clearly presented, with a variety of fishes (see Figure 3.4). The bas-relief also shows lots of fishes and people cooking and eating fish. Chou Ta-Kuan noted that there were many types of fishes which were cooked and kept in variety of ways (Im, 1995).

Figure 3. 3 Daily lives in the 13th century on Bayon temples



(Photo by author)

Figure 3. 4 Fishing in the 13th century on Bayon temple



(Photo by author)

3.2.6 Tourism statistics in the Angkor Park

The Department of Tourism of APSARA Authority has collected data on tourist numbers based on the number of sold tickets. This number does not represent the totality of visitors as the tickets are not sold to all visitors to the park. Only foreign visitors are required to pay an entrance fee (USD 20 a day, USD 40 for 3 days and USD 60 for a week pass), while local tourists, researchers and foreign staff who work in the park are allowed to enter without any payment according to the sub-decree Concerning Free Entrance to Angkor (Keat & Sok, 2001) .

According to Table 3.5, the number of tourists increased almost every year from 2003 to 2008, except from 2007 to 2008. Two years after 2003, the statistics show nearly 100% increase, while only around 50% of tourists visited the park in the two subsequent years. In 2008, the number decreased by 5%. It is possible that the drop in number of tourists was the result of the negative influence of the world crisis and border issues between Cambodia and Thailand. The issue related to the registration of Phreh Vihear temples (Angkorian Temples on the Cambodia and Thailand current border) as World Heritage belonging to Cambodia. Thailand claims that this temple belongs to Thailand even though Khmer temples were built by Angkorian kings and are located in the territory of Cambodia. The conflict has had an impact on the tourists' decision-making to choose Cambodia as a destination.

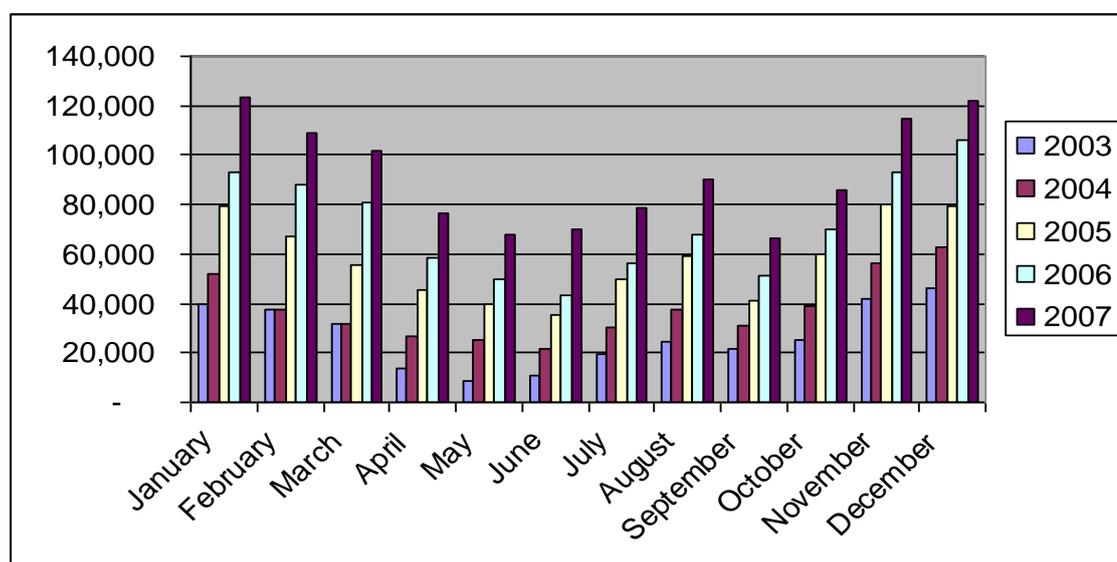
Noticeably, tourism in the park consists of two seasons: high and low. The low season lasts for seven months, starting from April and going through to October, while the high season runs from November and ends in March (see Figure 3.4). However, these seasons only reflect international tourism as the data was collected based on ticket sales to international tourists. It is arguable that April is not a low season in the park. As a result of infrastructure development, especially The National Road number 6, from the capital city of Phnom Penh to Siem Reap, many local tourists visit the Angkor Park (Ballard, 2005). During the Khmer New Year falling in mid April, the number of local tourists increases sharply in this month of the year. The number of local tourists ranged from 100,000 to 250,000 in the New Year period (Veng, 2000 as cited in Winter, 2004a).

Table 3. 2 Tourism statistics in the Angkor Park from 2003 to 2008

| Month/Year | 2003 | 2004 | 2005 | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 |
|-----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|------------------|------------------|
| January | 39,809 | 51,875 | 79,398 | 92,976 | 123,570 | N/A |
| February | 37,414 | 37,342 | 67,386 | 87,740 | 109,312 | N/A |
| March | 31,673 | 31,660 | 55,598 | 81,074 | 101,894 | N/A |
| April | 13,529 | 26,830 | 45,131 | 58,791 | 76,370 | N/A |
| May | 8,795 | 25,474 | 39,588 | 49,625 | 67,729 | N/A |
| June | 10,547 | 21,632 | 35,013 | 43,213 | 70,079 | N/A |
| July | 19,512 | 29,954 | 49,495 | 56,170 | 78,579 | N/A |
| August | 24,777 | 37,229 | 59,478 | 67,628 | 90,481 | N/A |
| September | 21,681 | 30,735 | 40,992 | 51,339 | 66,121 | N/A |
| October | 25,546 | 39,193 | 59,543 | 70,295 | 85,989 | N/A |
| November | 42,204 | 56,130 | 79,910 | 92,929 | 114,930 | N/A |
| December | 46,070 | 62,992 | 79,455 | 106,042 | 121,836 | N/A |
| Total | 321,557 | 451,046 | 690,987 | 857,822 | 1,106,890 | 1,056,773 |
| | | 2003-04 | 2004-05 | 2005-06 | 2006-07 | 2007-08 |
| Increase | | 40% | 53% | 24% | 29% | -5% |

(Department of Tourism, 2009)

Figure 3. 5 Graph of monthly tourism statistics from 2003 to 2007



(Department of Tourism, 2009)

In the last several years, the number of ASEAN tourists has stood in the first tier of the top ten nationalities who visit Cambodia. In 2004, Japanese shared the biggest market share of 25% of all tourists who visited the park, while Korean stayed in second place with a share of almost 20%, followed by Chinese tourists. In 2005, 2006, and 2007,

Koreans replaced the first position of Japanese tourists with a constant percentage of around 35%. Japanese and Chinese are still the second and third top visitors respectively (see Table 3.6).

Table 3. 3 Share of tourists visiting the Angkor Park by countries from 2004 to 2007

| | 2004 | | 2005 | | 2006 | | 2007 | |
|-----------|--------------|------------|--------------|------------|--------------|------------|--------------|------------|
| | Countries | Share | Countries | Share | Countries | Share | Countries | Share |
| 1 | Japan | 25% | Korea | 35% | Korea | 38% | Korea | 34% |
| 2 | Korea | 19% | Japan | 21% | Japan | 17% | Japan | 15% |
| 3 | China | 16% | China | 12% | China | 11% | China | 13% |
| 4 | France | 6% | France | 6% | Taiwan | 5% | Taiwan | 7% |
| 5 | Thailand | 6% | Thailand | 4% | Thailand | 5% | France | 5% |
| 6 | USA | 5% | USA | 4% | USA | 4% | Thailand | 4% |
| 7 | Germany | 4% | Germany | 3% | France | 4% | USA | 4% |
| 8 | UK | 3% | UK | 2% | Germany | 2% | Germany | 3% |
| 9 | Taiwan | 3% | Spain | 2% | UK | 2% | UK | 2% |
| 10 | Australia | 2% | Taiwan | 2% | Spain | 2% | Vietnam | 2% |

(Department of Tourism, 2009)

3.2.7 Current tourism economy and employment

The war-torn country of Cambodia has faced fluctuating economic situations over various periods of time. From being a prosperous economic Khmer empire in the Angkor era, Cambodia experienced the horrific time of the Pol Pot regime in which more than one million people were killed from 1975 to 1979. The country did not even have its own currency during this regime. The social structure and the economy of the country were almost completely destroyed after decades of civil war. The Paris Peace Agreement in 1991 resulted in the first free election under the supervision of the United Nations. This offered room for Cambodia's economy to grow (Chheang, 2008).

Currently, tourism is the second main contributor to the country's economy, after the garment industry. In 2006, around USD 1, 594 billion was injected into the country's economy from tourism. This also provided about 250,000 job opportunities for Cambodian people (Chheang, 2008). In 2008, Siem Reap, the hot spot of tourism in Cambodia, hosts more than a million tourists who are the key source to the development of the province's economy (Ministry of Tourism, 2009).

Tourism in Siem Reap Angkor does not only provide benefit from entrance fees paid to see ancient temples and landscapes in the park, but it also attracts many tourism businesses to service tourists' demand. These businesses are the source of employment for local people and other economic benefits for the government (Howse et al., 2007).

3.2.7.1 Employment

The Siem Reap Tourism Department has recorded some key tourism businesses and employment opportunities for local residents. Table 3.7 summarises some main direct tourism employment in Siem Reap. Employment in accommodation such as hotels and guesthouses provides 6,675 jobs and 964 jobs respectively. The number excludes the expected hotel jobs from 13 hotels under construction. Employment in accommodation is followed by tour guides (who have been trained in 11 government-run courses) with 3,447 participants. However, only 2,589 of them have used the knowledge to pursue tour guide careers. Thirdly, Siem Reap has more than 100 restaurants which provide almost 20,000 job opportunities. Other tourism businesses such as travel agencies, massage parlours, karaoke, and taxi boats employ around 400 people per business. This does not count other transportation facilities and other tourism-related businesses (Ngov, 2009).

Table 3. 4 Direct tourism employment

| Direct Tourism Employment | Number | Number of employees | | Total |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|--------|---------------|
| | | Male | Female | |
| Hotel | 117 (8, 675 rooms) | 3,955 | 2,720 | 6,675 |
| Hotel (under construction) | 13 (1,237 rooms) | NA | NA | NA |
| Guesthouse | 212 (2,746 rooms) | 342 | 622 | 964 |
| Restaurant | 114 | 702 | 1,123 | 1,825 |
| Travel Agency | 140 | NA | NA | 406 |
| Massage Parlour | 33 | 79 | 387 | 466 |
| Karaoke | 15 | 90 | 367 | 457 |
| Taxi Boat | 217 | | | 434 |
| Tour Guide | NA | NA | NA | 2,589 |
| Total Employees | | | | 13,816 |

(Ngov, 2009)

These businesses are not all owned by Cambodian investors. Around 20 hotels, 30 guest houses, and more than 50 restaurants have expatriate investment (Ngov, 2009). Due to the leading number of ASEAN tourists, ASEAN expatriates from Japan, China, Taiwan, and South Korea have run their own businesses ranging from small massage parlours to big restaurants and standard hotels. These businesses create almost complete business links for ASEAN tourists (Winter, 2007). The question is how much tourist money will go to Cambodian pockets? For instance, Korean tourists come with a Korean travel agency, stay in Korean hotels, eat in Korean restaurants, buy souvenirs in Korean souvenir shops, massage in Korean massage parlours, go to Korean clubs and visit temples with Korean tour guides. Furthermore, the lack of tourism labour skills provides chances for these foreigners to work in the region with local unemployment rates like Siem Reap (Winter, 2007).

However, the good news is that almost all small-scale businesses in the park belong to local people. The number of stalls in the park is 428. The number of vendors fluctuates according to the seasonal. In high tourist seasons, some family members of a vendor assist to satisfy the demand of the busy time of their businesses. In contrast, they disappear in the low tourist season. Each stall has to pay concession fees to the APSARA Authority, police and commune authorities. Vendors have to sell in the stalls' limited lines which are marked out by rope. The business operations outside the limited areas result in warnings or fines by the cultural heritage police. This limitation hinders vendors' ability to attract tourists to buy displayed products. The total population of vendors is approximately 2000 people (ADI Team & Ballard, 2002). The same report showed that drinks are the most popular product with the percentage of 72% of vendors. T-shirts and khmer scarves account for around 45%. The percentage of sellers who provide meal services in the temple zone and of those who sell postcards, books, and handicrafts account for similar percentages of around 25%. The percentages mentioned are more than 100%. This happens because some vendors sell mixture of products. These vendors are mostly from villages in the park while some of them are from Siem Reap town.

APSARA Authority staff and construction workers are two other types of core employment for local people in the park as well as some villages around Siem Reap

town. Firstly, the authority has employed hundreds of the park dwellers to be temple guards and temple cleaners. Secondly, due to the increase in tourist numbers in the region, the demand for tourism superstructure (especially hotel rooms) has grown exponentially. This provides local people with opportunities to work as construction workers (Howse et al., 2007). For instance, a village in the park, close to the royal pool known as Kravan village, consists of around 30-40 people working in construction labour in Siem Reap and as temple guards. In Kok Thnaot, which is not far from Angkor Thom, around 150 young people work in construction and as park guards; the number increases every year. About 80% of households in Nokor Krauv, a village north of Angkor Thom, have their family members working in construction in Siem Reap, while the number of households working in the park is around 30% (ADI Team & Ballard, 2002). In Sret village in Prasat Bakong, 70% of households have at least one family member working in construction in Siem Reap town. This makes the number of total workers in the village to be about 100 (Ballard, 2005). The same source mentioned that the majority of these families worked in farming until about three years ago when the agriculture production decreased dramatically due to the lack of water supply for agriculture and the development of construction labour demand in Siem Reap town.

Even though tourism offers jobs to dwellers in Siem Reap, the monetary gap between jobs is large. For a small number of jobs, such as tour guides, hotel management staffs and chefs, the monthly salary exceeds USD 1,000 (Winter, 2008), while some manual labourers and vendors were estimated to earn a net average income of USD 664 a year or about USD 55 a month. In low season, these vendors make around only USD 1 daily (De Lopez, 2007). The wage for construction workers is not very different from the average net income of vendors in the park. For unskilled labour such as digging, carrying sand, bricks and cement, the daily wage is from 4,000 Riel to 5,000 Riel (about USD 1). For skilled labour such as carpentry, the wage is between 10,000 Riel (USD 2.5) and 12,000 Riel (USD 3) a day (Ballard, 2005).

Despite hosting millions of tourists annually and with the development rate of providing service to tourism demand gradually improving, Siem Reap province still remains the third poorest province in Cambodia (Winter, 2008). The gap between the poor and the rich is unexpectedly large. Those who live close to the town seem to

obtain some benefit from tourism and its development. Conversely, people who live in the remote areas of the province tend to obtain nothing from the tourism sector, and also suffer restricted access to natural resources, which traditionally they had used for many generations (Ballard, 2005).

It is also noticed that, in different villages in the park, people have different work skills. In some villages, such as Sras Srang Cheung, Sras Srang Tbong and Rohal village, most people work in the tourism sector producing souvenirs and selling directly to tourists in the park. In some other villages, besides working as farmers, people produce home-made rice wine, look for resin from trees and collect creepers, or work as construction workers (Choulean & Thompson, 2001).

3.2.7.2 Entrance fee

Every foreign visitor to the Angkor Park has to buy tickets which are divided into three kinds of passes – one day, three days and one week, priced at USD 20, USD 40, and USD 60 respectively, whereas local tourists have to pay nothing. Researchers have free entry upon requesting free passes from the APSARA Authority (APSARA Authority, 2005b; Howse et al., 2007). The Cambodian government obtains millions of dollars from entrance fees alone. Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) Master Plan shows the estimated revenue for the park from 2003 to 2010 in Table 3.8 below.

Table 3. 5 Estimated revenues from the Angkor Park entrance ticket sales

| Year | Ticket Sales in USD |
|-------------|----------------------------|
| 2003 | 9,491,732 |
| 2004 | 19,503,100 |
| 2005 | 21,813,207 |
| 2006 | 24,750,452 |
| 2007 | 30,109,858 |
| 2008 | 36,616,979 |
| 2009 | 44,518,524 |
| 2010 | 54,116,043 |

(Howse et al., 2007)

In contrast to what people think, the APSARA Authority is not responsible for collecting entrance fees, but is a private company; Sokha Hotel Corporation was awarded this concession in 1999 (De Lopez, 2007). Hagemann (2005) as cited in De Lopez, (2005)

implied that the International Monetary Fund is not satisfied with the concession agreement which was not competitively bid for and stressed that it is not known whether the government obtained the best deal. The park management Authority, APSARA, receives only between 5% and 15% of the total revenue which is paid to the government (Ministry of Economy and Finance). The revenue collected by the concession-awarded company goes to the Ministry of Economy and Finance which is responsible for transferring the small share to the APSARA authority. Unlike the practice in other countries, the share for the APSARA authority is less than the cost of park maintenance (Howse et al., 2007).

3.2.8 Relationship between education and employment

Cambodia has a 12-year schooling system (De Lopez, 2007). The literacy rate of Cambodia is 75% among adults. In rural areas, the rate at 72% is lower (National Institute of Statistics, 2009). In Angkor Park, the report by Howse et al. (2007) showed that 68 % of adults are literate while a significant proportion (32 %) of the park population are illiterate. Less than seven percent have finished secondary education. Women tend to have a higher rate of illiteracy than men.

To some extent, tourism-related employment is responsible for the school drop-out rate in the Angkor Park. A study by ADI Team & Ballard (2002) reported some examples of the drop-out rate from school in some villages in the park. Firstly, in one village with small-scale tourism-related businesses, Pradak village, as many as 50 children abandoned school in the last couple of years in order mainly to sell souvenir and handicrafts to tourists. In this village, the number of children working in indirect tourism jobs stood at 57.1%, while direct tourism jobs and non-tourism jobs represented the same amount—21.4 % (Ang, 2003). The school drop-out rate is also affected by the lack of higher education facilities in the village. This village has a primary school only. To go to the secondary level, they would have to study in the town (around 40 minutes away) by bike. The long distance of any secondary school from the village and the expense of education are believed to be the reasons for the school drop-out levels in this village (ADI Team & Ballard, 2002).

Secondly, Norkor Krauv village, located north of the Angkor Thom complex, has around a five percent drop-out rate for children. However, this rate is affected not only by

tourist-related activities such as selling souvenirs, craft and postcards but also from non-tourist related activities such as selling charcoal, selling firewood, and rice farming. Even though the village is in a tourism area, the school drop-out rate is not necessarily affected by tourism businesses. Of those children who drop out of school, more are involved in direct and indirect tourism jobs than in non-tourism work. Among the total child workforce of about 800, 54 children or seven percent are involved in direct tourism jobs, while more than 100 or around 13% are working in indirect tourism jobs (Ang, n.d.).

According to a national survey, there are a variety of reasons for dropping out school across the whole country. Some important reasons are the fact that children need to help their parents doing household chores, to work for household income, or they stop because of a lack of motivation, or the closest school requires them to travel a long distance (National Institute of Statistics, 2009). Thus, tourism is not the only reason for children dropping out of school. In this respect, there are very few children who drop out of school in Rohal which is one of the main tourist villages in the park (ADI Team & Ballard, 2002).

3.2.9 Relationship between migration and employment

A study by Virak (n.d.) about the effects of socio-economic development on the in-migration rate in Cambodia claimed that most districts in Cambodia, including Siem Reap Angkor, have high a in-migration rate which is the result of the development of industries such as the service industry of tourism. Most of the migrants moved to tourism destinations for employment. Due to tourism development in Siem Reap, many people from other provinces have moved to Siem Reap town, and the Angkor Park for employment and business (De Lopez, 2007). Ballard (2005) raised some examples regarding the demand for construction workers in Siem Reap. Workers are not from the town, but from other villages and possibly from other provinces in Cambodia. De Lopez (2007) illustrated that 26% of vendors in the Angkor Park are not from the park itself and stressed that they moved to Siem Reap as a consequence of the rapid growth of tourism which began around a decade ago.

A finding of research on the park confirmed that in-migration in some villages in the park is for tourism-related employment. Tek Sean village had the extremely high

number of 70 families moving from some other villages in Siem Reap and other provinces. They have settled along some roads of the village. The main attraction for the in-migrants is to search for tourism-related jobs, especially the hotel construction industry. The-same-purpose-but-smaller scale in-migration is found in some other villages such as Kravan and Nokor Krauv. They are originally from Siem Reap (other villages), Kampong Cham (about 230 km away from the village) and Phnom Penh (the capital city). Villagers raised some concerns that migrants brought some health and security problems to the village in addition to taking the villagers' opportunities for employment (ADI Team & Ballard, 2002).

3.3 Srah Srang Cheung village

3.3.1 Geography and tourism

The Angkor Park consists of more than a hundred villages including Srah Srang Cheung (Howse et al., 2007). This village is along the grand tour route in the core of the protected zone. It is a neighbor of Rohal village, about 15 km north of Siem Reap town (Ballard, 2005). On the border of the village and its neighbouring village, Rohal, there is a local market (see Figure 5.4) where local food and products are sold mainly for local villagers. It is believed that the root of the village's name possibly comes from its location which is situated north of an Ankoran Royal Pool. The words "Srah Srang Cheung" are Khmer words which mean North Royal Pool.

For the villages in the Angkor Park, the tourism resources of the park are also the tourism attraction of the village for both international and local tourists. By using aerial photographs, satellite imagery and high-resolution ground-sensing radar, 74 remaining temples which were built between the 8th and 14th centuries have been found in the park. These temples are divided into smaller groups. The most popular groups are those in the mini-tour (e.g. Angkor Wat, Bayon, Bapoun, Top, Prasat Keov, Taprom, Banteay Kdey, Krorvan) and the grand tour (Phreh Khan, Neakpoin, Tasom, Preroup, East Mebon) (Marks, 2007).

Besides these temples, there are some temples which are built on the top of hills such as Phnom Krom, Bakheng, Phnom Bok; these temples are popular for tourists to watch the sunsets. Bakheng is the most popular temple on the hill which is situated very close

to Angkor Wat temple. The temples not only show tourists the magnificent architecture of ancient Khmer, but they also educate tourists with thousands of bas-reliefs depicting Khmer mythology, ancient daily life, history and arts. For instance, Bayon temple, built by Jayavaraman VII in the 12th century, consists of 54 towers with four gods' faces in each direction of every tower. In addition, the mythology, war history and daily life activities were carved on each part of the wall (APSARA Authority, 2004a).

Some temples, like Ta Prom temple, (usually known as Jungle temple) offer special views of wild temples with huge trees on the roofs. This unique scenery is a special spot for tourists to take photos. In addition to the attractiveness of the physical appearances, temples are also the source of education. More than 1,000 stone inscriptions have been found, some of them are on the walls or columns of the temples, while some others have been found on separate pieces of stones (APSARA Authority, 2004b).

Moreover, the park contains huge Barays (water reservoirs), pools, ponds and moats around the temples. The water in these moats and surrounding environment often provide unique views of the temples for taking photos. Koulen Mountain and Kbal Spean have natural, cultural and heritage values. Besides temples on the top, they possess waterfalls and statues on the bottom of the rivers. These are the statues of linga and gods in Hinduism as these places were built to be the source of holy water which flows from waterfalls through the Siem Reap River to West Baray where the water is kept for agriculture. It is believed that the holy water will help to bring more productive crops (UNESCO, 1996).

Srah Srang Cheung village provides a range of tourism facilities. On main road, along the Royal Pool, there are seven restaurants where tourists stop for lunch or for some drinks (see Figure 5.4). According to the headman, four of these restaurants are owned by local villagers, while the remaining three are run by outsiders from the Siem Reap City. Opposite the local market and in front of the pool, there are 15 souvenir stalls, selling both locally made souvenirs and imported souvenirs (see Figure 5.4). Tourists visiting the Royal Pool need to walk past all these stalls before they can see the Royal Pool.

Figure 3. 6 Srah Srang Cheung village's map from satellite



(Google, 2009)

3.3.2 General information on Srah Srang Cheung village

According to a survey in 1996, 125 households lived in Srah Srang Cheung with a total population of 711 people. It is noticeable that the number of females is slightly higher than males (see Table 3.6).

Table 3. 6 Demographic statistics 1996

| Age groups | 1-3 | 4-15 | 16-18 | 19-25 | 26-41 | Older than 42 | Total |
|------------|-----|------|-------|-------|-------|---------------|-------|
| Male | 31 | 135 | 18 | 27 | 64 | 43 | 318 |
| Female | 42 | 135 | 32 | 34 | 87 | 63 | 393 |
| Total | 73 | 270 | 50 | 61 | 151 | 106 | 711 |
| Families | | | | | | | 125 |

(Prack, Ream, & Dom, 1996)

Twelve years later, the number of households increased by 63 families and the total number of 188 families now contains almost a thousand people. Females still outnumber males. The number of children younger than 18 years old is 446-out-of-999 total populations (44.6%). The number of children of schooling age was 282 (see Table 3.7).

Table 3. 7 Demographic statistics 2008

| Sex/Age | Below 6 | 6-11 | 12-17 | 18-35 | 36-45 | 46-60 | Older than 60 | Total |
|---------------------------|---------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|---------------|-------|
| Male | 77 | 64 | 77 | 171 | 39 | 44 | 12 | 484 |
| Female | 87 | 51 | 90 | 151 | 46 | 66 | 24 | 515 |
| Total | 164 | 115 | 167 | 322 | 85 | 110 | 36 | 999 |
| Families | | | | | | | | 188 |
| Children of schooling age | | 282 | | | | | | |

(Sok, 2009)

Corresponding to the increase in the number of families, the number and features of houses also change. The dwellers in the park rarely rent accommodation. More than 90% of the families own their own houses which are usually small (less than 100 sq m) (Howse et al., 2007). The majority of houses use wood and palm leaves for walls, and palm leaves or tiles for roofing.

According to a survey in 1996, houses were categorized into four groups, namely brick-tiled houses, zinc houses, thatched houses, and a mixture of zinc and thatched houses. Thatched houses accounted for around 70% of the whole village, while the mixture of zinc and thatched houses showed the least with the a few percent. Zinc houses were in second with about 20%. Brick houses owned by the rich families accounted for less than 10% (Prack et al., 1996).

Along with the dramatic increase of the number of tourists, the development of the village in terms of shelter has been noticed. The number of houses has grown from 125 in 1996 to 182 houses in 2008. The number of brick-tiled houses increased from less than 10% to around 13%, while zinc houses still remain the usual house style in the village (Sok, 2009).

All houses consume the total area of 55,969 m² out of 641,959 m² of total size of the village. The remaining land is divided into two categories—upper and lower lands. Upper land covers 114,640 m². It is not available for farming as it is suspected that the area may be a good place for archaeological research, while the lower with an area of 471,350 sq m is used mostly for farming.

Up to 60% of people settling in the park, including Srah Srang Cheung village, still live under the poverty line although there are some improvements in the feature of houses. A report by Howse et al. (2007) showed that, on the average, they earn between USD 24 to USD 30 per person per month. These people make their living by a great diversity of jobs. Some still count on agriculture while some others depend on service jobs, especially tourism jobs (Choulean & Thompson, 2001).

Education is another challenge for the village. There is only one primary school in the village (see Figure 5.4). According to Prack et al. (1996), only around 40% of children attended school, while the majority of children did not go to school in 1996. To go to middle intermediate and secondary school, students need to travel around 40 minutes by bike from the village to Siem Reap town. So far, public transportation does not yet exist for this village. Thus, walking and cycling are the only two options for children from most of the families. It may be possible that the lack of schools and public

transportation has resulted in the great number of children who did not attend school and consequently, levels of illiteracy.

3.4 Summary

From history, it is apparent Angkor has changed overtime. Cambodia used to be a powerful Khmer Empire with spacious land. It is now a small country due to the invasion of neighbouring countries. Cambodia changed its religion from Hinduism in Angkorian time to Theravada Buddhism. The religious changes are a main factor for the fact that sand stone temples, usually used to dedicate to Hindu gods, were not been built after the collapse of Angkorian time.

However, great Khmer kings constructed numbers of temples with legends and histories depicted on the walls. These legends, histories, and architectures which show the culture and society of the powerful ancient past of Cambodia have fascinated tourists from around the world. The number of tourists is increasing in Cambodia. The development of tourism has encouraged the Cambodian government to shape policies to boost tourism in the hope of generating income and alleviating poverty that exists in the country. The government has specifically focused its tourism policy on the World Heritage Park of Angkor.

The Park has attracted millions of tourists recently. The development of tourism has changed people in the region as well as in Srah Srang Cheung village. Villagers used to depend largely on irrigation systems to farm historically, seem to be changing to work in tourism. The natural resources, which used to be accessible by villagers are prohibited. Children, who used to work in farming, also changing to work in tourism. The changes are having impacts on their economic and socio-economic lives. To identify these impacts, chapter IV outlines the research process while chapter V presents the research findings which are discussed in chapter VI to understand whether adverse or positive impacts from tourism dominate the society of Srah Srang Cheung village.

CHAPTER 4 METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, details of the methods used in the process of doing research are presented along with the explanation for reasons the methods were chosen. To ensure the validity of results, the research employs the mixed-method approach that combines qualitative and quantitative research strategies.

Creswell and Clark (2007) criticise that quantitative research is not a good method to seek contextual or detailed data, while qualitative research seems to be deficient as researchers tend to influence the research by their personal interpretation. In addition, the results from this qualitative research are difficult to generalise for the whole population due to the small number of participants. Because of these weaknesses, this research adopts a mixed method approach which provides strengths to balance the weakness found in both qualitative and quantitative research methods that are employed alone.

In this chapter, the literature of qualitative and quantitative approaches is discussed; then the advantages and disadvantages of the approaches are identified. In the next step, the process of conducting a mixed method study is described under three main categories (quantitative, qualitative and observation) which form the framework of this research. According to the framework, each categories show the detailed process starting from pre-field, to in-field, through to after-field research.

The mixed method approach is employed to collect data relating to economic and socio-economic issues with the focus on: (1) the changes from traditional to tourism employment and its consequences, and (2) the relationship between child labour in tourism and children's education.

4.2 Theory of research methods

4.2.1 Quantitative

According to Buckingham and Saunders (2004, p. 13), a social survey is defined as "a technique for gathering statistical information about the attributes, attitudes or actions or a population by administering standardized questions to some or all of its

members". The survey is designed to obtain statistical data from which is usually possible to generalise to the whole population (Lyberg & Biemer, 2008). Usually, the survey method is used to produce a hypothesis, to show how the hypothesis will be tested and to identify the result under the basis of positive or negative confirmation of the test (Lyberg & Biemer, 2008; Punch, 2003).

To have a successful survey, the phases and steps in the process need to be understood. A survey is more than the designing of a questionnaire and entering the field to collect data (Gray, 2004). Czaja and Blair (1996) suggest a five-stage process for surveys: (1) design and preliminary planning, (2) pre-testing, (3) final survey design and planning, (4) data collection, and (5) data coding, analysing and reporting.

In the initial stages, which Czaja and Blair (1996) called "survey design and preliminary planning", it is vital for students and researchers to consult books and journals. These sources provide ideas, theories and models, which can help in the research process. Usually journals have discussed what has been done in the field technically by experts. Thus, they identify the gaps in the literature and shape and target the direction of the research topic. With the topic set, additional literature needs to be researched and read to understand the topic in the case of this thesis, the nature of tourism impacts. This is done to shape the goals and objectives of the study and to allow the researcher to select appropriate methods to conduct field research (Davies, 2007).

Based on the review of secondary literature, the questionnaire is designed. This is a very important stage as the quality of the results will depend on the quality of the questionnaire. If it is designed inappropriately, researchers will generate useful results. Poor questionnaires are those which are produced with an unsuitable purpose or struggle to give meaningful answers (results are produced but useless). They also can be badly structured. A poor structure leads to failure in that participants cannot answer the question or questions are misinterpreted (Buckingham & Saunders, 2004; Cook, 1995).

Czaja and Blair (2005) suggest a number of questionnaire development steps such as:

- (a) List the research questions*
- (b) Under each research question list the survey question topics*
- (c) List all required ancillary information (background variables, etc.)*

- (d) Do a web and literature search for questions from other surveys*
- (e) Assess the variable list against the general plans for data analysis*
- (f) Draft the survey introduction (or cover letter)*
- (g) Draft new questions*
- (h) Propose a question order*
- (i) Revise “found” questions if necessary*
- (j) Try out the draft instrument on a colleague*
- (k) Begin revisions*
- (l) Periodically “test” revisions on colleagues (p. 60)*

Punch (2003) agrees with Czaja and Blair (2005) and mentions that research questions should be utilised to lead to the design of the questionnaire. Neuman (2003) suggests that one of the most important aspects to consider is language in the questionnaire. Researchers need to understand and adjust the level of language use to the level of knowledge of participants. In addition, it is important to try to keep the language as simple as possible to avoid language misunderstanding. In addition, it is stressed that good questionnaires require researchers to avoid sensitive questions and to utilise more open-ended questions rather than closed questions which provide limited responses. However, the limited responses are, sometimes, important for some types of data such as demographics.

To minimize problems in the survey, a pilot test is necessary to check for errors. Pilot tests usually use small-scale samples. The result and experiences of the pilot test allow the researcher to change unsuitable questions and methods to adjust the situation of the field research (Blaxter, Hughes, & Tight, 1996; Bloor & Wood, 2006).

Before the field research can be conducted, sample size and methods are the other two main issues in the research process. Punch (2003) suggests that “sample itself is a technical term in research. It means a smaller subset drawn from some larger group. The technical term for that larger group is population” (p. 36). In this respect, a sample needs to be carefully chosen to provide a representative sample for the whole population.

According to Buckingham and Saunders (2004), using or employing a “systematic random” approach is a convenient way of selecting a sample from the whole population. This approach is appropriate when researchers have clear knowledge of the population. For instance, researchers have the name of the population in a list.

Using this approach, researchers can choose every third number to participate in the survey. Working this way, it creates a clear system with no bias because researchers did not choose participants with pressure from their feelings or first impression on participants.

Czaja and Blair (2005) identify four types of survey methods (mailed questionnaires, internet, telephone and face-to-face (in home) surveys). These methods have both advantages and disadvantages. However, researchers need to consider three factors in order to choose an appropriate method (resources (budget), questionnaires and data qualities).

A face-to-face survey provides a number of advantages. The first advantage is usually a high response rate. This method encourages respondents to participate more than the other methods. Respondents are likely to answer the questions more than mailed questionnaires, or internet surveys. This method requires researchers meet respondents face to face. This face-to-face meeting allows researchers to convince participants to involve in the survey. Secondly, this method also allows researchers to ask more complicated questions with full understanding of the meanings as researchers can explain or use visual aids. However, they also justify the argument by raising disadvantages. The most noticeable drawbacks are money and time. Researchers need to spend a huge amount of time and budget to travel to the location and conduct the research.

Although face-to-face survey can generate more detail data than mailed and internet surveys, Groves et al., (2004) argue that a survey is usually identified as a method with the limitation of understanding detailed information from respondents; it, basically, answers the questions starting with “how many” rather than “how, and why”. With numbers and scales, it is hard to exactly interpret the meaning from data. Participants may not fully understand the questions; this leads to uncertain data which would then be used to interpret wrongly what the participants intend to express (Buckingham & Saunders, 2004). These are the reasons that some researches use both quantitative survey and qualitative interview methods to obtain responses to research goals and objectives. In this thesis, a mixed method with survey, interview, and observation is applied. The face-to-face survey is administered to identify problems which are

impacted by tourism in the Srah Srang Cheung village. The results from this survey with closed and opened questions are to identify economic and socio-economic impacts that will be researched further through in-depth interviews to obtain more detailed results.

4.2.2 Qualitative

Snape and Spencer (2003) simply describe qualitative research as research which includes:

- *Aims which are directed at providing in-depth and interpreted understanding of the social world of research participants by learning about their social and material circumstances, their experiences, perspectives and histories.*
- *Samples that are small in scale and purposively selected on the basis of salient criteria*
- *Data collection methods which usually involve close contact between the researcher and the research participants, which are intensive and developmental and allow for emergent issues to be explored*
- *Data which are very detailed, information rich and extensive*
- *Analysis which is open to emergent concepts and ideas and which may produce detailed description and classification, identify patterns of association, or develop typologies and explanations*
- *Outputs which tend to focus on the interpretation of social meaning through mapping and 're-presenting' the social world of research participants. (Snape & Spencer, 2003, p. 3)*

Most qualitative research tends to have tentative concepts of what the research problems will be (Gray, 2004). Davies (2007) confirms that having a research question in mind is a potential for the process of the research. Thus, the research questions are used to design draft questions to which will be added more detailed questions in the interview process. The process of data collecting allows researchers to understand additional issues. Davis (2007) suggests that the sample of qualitative research can be from a wide range of individuals or groups.

To form the research question, a review of literatures is required to understand the background of the area and the situation in related field research. Furthermore, researchers should consult with people who know the area (Gillham, 2005). In qualitative research, Phillips and Stawarski (2008) suggest that there are several types

of methods to collect data including interview and focus group. Regarding the interview, Gillham (2005) identifies a wide range of techniques for interviewing. The unstructured or in-depth interview is one of the interview techniques providing data in details.

Legard, Keegan, and Ward (2003) identify four key characteristics of the in-depth interview. Firstly, this type of interview allows researchers to ask flexible questions. They argue that even though in-depth interviews are usually known as unstructured interviews. However, some main questions or themes of the study are already in place before interview is conducted to guide discussion and data collection. Secondly, the nature of interview is interactive. The interviewer will ask a first broad question to encourage the interviewee to talk freely. And the next question will be determined by the answer provided. Thirdly, interviewers usually use probes to explore or to ask for more explanation. The fourth feature of the in-depth interview is the fact that new knowledge is created. It is important to direct the flow of the talk to provide ideas or suggestion for the issue studying.

Grounded theory is defined by Bloor and Wood (2006, p. 96) as “an approach to analysis, which may use specific techniques in flexible and different ways, with the aim of generating theoretical insights from qualitative data”. Grounded theory is a popular theory in qualitative research. The theory tends to avoid questions starting with “how many” but tends to elicit answers with broader questions with more detailed information such as the reasons for things happening (Wilson, 1995).

This theory provides more focus on the topic more than others. Researchers refine data until the required data are found during the data collection process. These data are used to compare and look for saturation of the results before they complete the field research. This method provides researchers with more sense of data as it allows researchers to open their minds to look for what it is necessary to find (Davies, 2007; Flick, 2002; Neuman, 2003). In other words, it allows the participants to express detailed ideas and provides leads to other participants to obtain more certain ideas that the first participants were not able to answer (Charmaz, 2006).

Grounded theory suggests that researchers need to interview the first interviewee and to ask for the next interviewee who qualifies to provide answers that the first interviewee does not have knowledge of. The results from each interview are required to analyse to look for saturation of the results which suggest that researchers do not need to find the next interviewee (Flick, 2002; Neuman, 2003). To obtain reliable and rich results in an interview, interviewers need to manage and to create a friendly environment. With this friendly environment, it is believed that interviewees feel relaxed and tend to provide more information (Legard et al., 2003). In addition to this, the use of language is also an issue to consider in the process of the interview (Gray, 2004). Interviewers need to pay attention to the language use as it may be interpreted differently from one level of society to another or may tend to confuse people.

Besides the interview, the focus group is another method in qualitative research. Moore (2000) mentions that the in-depth interview provides chances for people to talk in detail about their feelings and beliefs, while the focus group enables people to think and discuss how they feel about issues. One of the characteristics of focus groups is to identify problems as focus group is a group interview which interviewers have chance to discuss with participants even when the interviewers have only little knowledge about the topic (Morgan, 1998).

In the process of collecting data, researcher administers focus group using topic guide. The topic guide is used due to some advantages (Krueger, 1998b). Firstly, it provides room for conversational discussion. With this discussion, rich results will be formed. Secondly, the topic guide technique involves spontaneity. It allows interviewers to use the comments from participants to generate the next question to explore and to shape the goal as the event goes on.

Focus groups provide a chance for participants to think and possibly to change their answers if they realise from the discussion that the answers they gave were inappropriate. It is a complex process which requires encouragement for discussion and which demands careful analysis (Krueger, 1998a; Wilkinson, 2004). In addition to this advantage, Phillips and Stawarski (2008) claim that a focus group does not require high expenses and is a quick way to collect data.

The number of participants in a focus group affects the quality of data. The result would not be able to consider as sufficient if the member of the group is less than five because the view from the discussion is limited. However, too many members, for example 30 participants, would be difficult to manage. The poor management makes participants feel that they do not have opportunities to share their views in the discussion (Moore, 2000).

Referring to techniques for capturing data, note taking and audio recording are the most two popular methods for qualitative research. These two methods have both advantages and disadvantages. Davies (2007) claims that using voice or audio recorders is a good strategy as it does not interrupt the conversation when researchers need to take notes. Gray (2004) supports advantages of using an audio recorder but also justifies that this method makes interviewees feel uncomfortable speaking and provides limited data, especially in the work place. He suggests that note taking is a simple method which can help create prompt questions. Moore (2000) adds that note taking is the cheapest method, while voice recording demands expensive electronic devices. However, it is a slow process demanding hard work and forces interviewers to pay attention to too many things.

4.2.3 Observation

Observation allows researchers to witness the activities of people's lives without interacting with the people in the society (Weinberg, 2002). Observation is suitable for exploring the social life of a community. Observation has advantages. The primary strength of the observation is to allow researchers to explore answers to research questions beyond the availability of exploration from interview as the interview cannot collect data which interviewees are unwilling to talk about. With observation, researchers can see the routine of daily activities. This is believed to obtain real data over the type of data that interview can generate (Patton, 2002).

Phillips and Stawarski (2008) suggest five methods of observation such as: a behaviour checklist; delayed report; video recording; audio monitoring; computer monitoring. One of these, the behaviour checklist, is suitable to check presence, absence, frequency, and the behaviour of participants. The checklist considers logically the consequences of events happening. They also suggest some key points to ensure the

quality of observation. One of the points is that researchers need to observe without the knowledge of the participants in the case of watching their behaviours and need to think about the useful and useless time of the observation. With different times, observers would gain different data, good or useless because some events are not relating to research topic. In addition to this, researchers should be knowledgeable as observation demands them to have a judgment decision. They should be able to analyse, to summarise and to interpret or report behaviours of the participants being seen.

For many qualitative methods of research, Moore (2000) claims that the analysing process is sophisticated and demands effort. He also suggests some principles of the process. Among these principles, he suggests researchers make a systematic analysis, produce analytical notes in the process of collecting data, categorise data but keep the category flexible, and compare results. Systematic coding is an important step for analysis. In order to code data into themes, it is necessary to learn to see and to recognize the themes in data (Neuman, 2003). To see the themes, this author supports Moore (2000) and raises four similar abilities (identifying the patterns of data, taking into account systems and concepts, having deep background knowledge, and possessing relating information).

Reflecting these principles in practice, researchers first require an identifying theme. Then, it is necessary to check the theme with the aim and objectives of the research and refer to the experience that the researcher gained from the field before the order of data can be imposed. In the next step, researchers can group data into similar relevant data (Moore, 2000).

Even though qualitative research seems to have a number of positive and reliable results, some disadvantages also exist. It can answer the questions starting with “why, what and how” but it cannot answer questions starting with “how many” (Gordon, 1999). For example, qualitative research is never used to generate demographic data.

4.2.4 Mixed method

Recognizing the advantages and disadvantages of qualitative and quantitative research methods, a mixed method is presented, and used to maximize the validity of result and

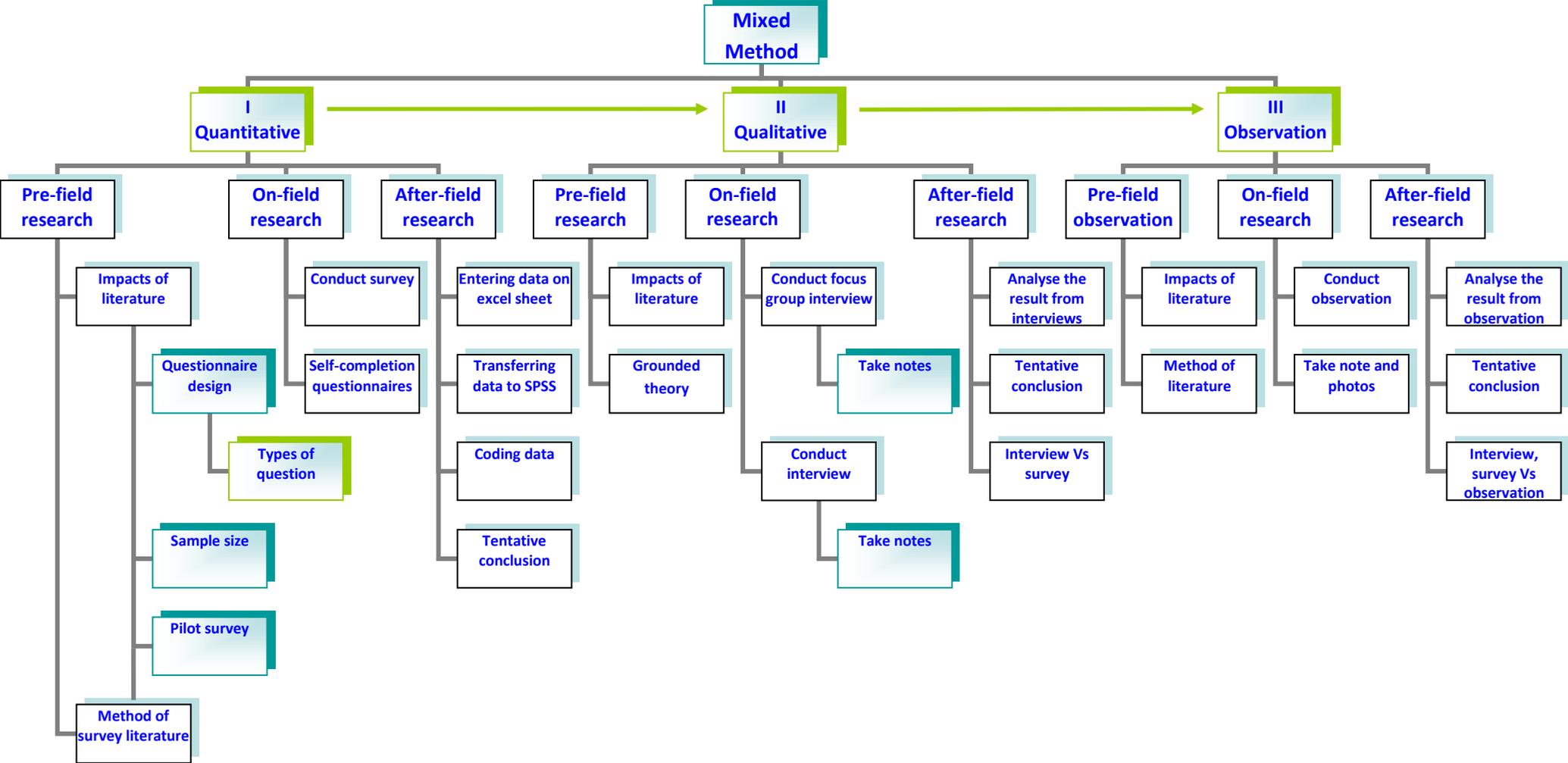
minimize the error of both methods. Currently, the use of mixed method is growing exponentially. The term “mixed” method combines both qualitative and quantitative methods (Bergman, 2008; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2006).

There are two main ways of combining qualitative and quantitative methods. Qualitative methods are used as a basis to identify a particular topic, which is then used to set up the quantitative method. In contrast quantitative methods are used to create a broad understanding of the field; then the qualitative method is used to discover the key focus issues (Silverman, 2006).

Even though time consuming and encountering more difficulties than a single method, the mixed method provides more comprehensive, sensible and logical results than using either qualitative or quantitative method alone. It constructs a mixture of these two methods. Researchers have the chance to gain the advantages and to avoid the disadvantages of the two methods (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2006).

The study of the impacts of tourism on the society of Srah Srang Cheung village utilizes a mixed method approach. The mixed method approach is employed in this research which the quantitative is used to understand the broad idea of the field before the qualitative method is utilized to focus on more detail in the results.

Figure 4. 1 The conceptual framework



(Designed by author)

4.3 Research methods in practice

4.3.1 Quantitative method (Survey)

4.3.1.1 Pre-field research

After a secondary literature review, “the impacts of tourism expenditure on the society of Srah Srang Cheung village in The Angkor Park, Cambodia” was chosen as the topic of this research. A few reasons are now revealed for this decision. Initially, economic and socio-cultural impacts, which are usually cited positively and negatively respectively, are the personal interest of the researcher. Subsequently, being a Cambodian myself, and specifically experiencing the village through work and seeing the poverty local people face even with the development of tourism in the area, I realize that there is a need for research to be done in the village to understand, in depth, the positive and negative of tourism impacts. This, with the aim in mind, suggests some aspects to be changed for more positive benefit for the local people, rather than the negative drawbacks as a result of the visitation of tourists. Even though it is unlikely that such research of such a distant village from Auckland (the location of researcher), it was made possible (even given the high cost involvement) by the research being sponsored by the New Zealand Development Scholarship (NZDS) which encourages students to conduct research in the developing countries, especially the original countries of students.

With the development of the topic, a literature search was conducted to understand the nature of tourism impacts relating to economic and socio-economic issues. This was done to provide a context for the study and to allow the researcher to select appropriate methods to conduct field research (Davies, 2007). In addition to a review of secondary sources (books and journals), a web search was also used to gather background information and to understand better the village and the park.

To put this research onto a more practical footing, the researcher informally consulted with some friends who work for the APSARA Authority in the park, some villagers and some souvenir sellers. After the consultation, problems such as traditional job changes, child labour, in-migration, and other socio-economic impacts were finally identified to develop the goal and objectives for the study.

After identifying these impacts from tourism, specific government reports outlining tourist statistics, tourism facilities statistic and tourism income report were collected from Siem Reap tourism office to understand the situation of tourism in the park as well as in the village. To understand the pressures of the rules and regulations of park management on the village, the zoning rules and regulations were obtained from APSARA Authority. In addition, the consensus survey results were collected from the Norkortom Commune office (Srah Srang Cheung is one of the villages in Norkortom Commune). With all these secondary data and personal experience from the work of the researcher, a clearer picture of the case study and the gaps in research were identified to develop the survey instruments.

In addition, the researcher conducted a review of secondary literature again to find similar studies and case studies from other areas. This review was intended to understand the methods used in impact studies. The knowledge gaining from the literatures encourages the researcher to start the research by having informal conversations with experts and villagers to have a general idea of problems existing in the village. Then, quantitative survey is employed to identify specific problems relating to tourism impacts in the village.

To generate high validity of results, the survey, in the early stage (before field survey), depends largely on the techniques that surveys require such as appropriate questionnaire design, right sample size, a suitable method of survey. To avoid the mistake of producing invalid results, before developing the questionnaire for this research, the researcher had informal chats with two friends who work in the area. These two friends were chosen because they have tourism background. In addition, the researcher also talked to three villagers by chance. The conversation with friends and villagers is to identify the problem which was used to create objectives for the survey and this was followed by the research question. The research question was utilized to lead to the design of a questionnaire. Thus, the questionnaire was created from the research question.

During the process of creating the survey instrument, questionnaires which were already used for field research were compared to find errors or false structures, for example inappropriate question order, which would fail to produce good data. The

result from the comparison offered ideas to improve the questionnaire for this research. The researcher kept in mind that the questionnaire will be used to obtain data from Srah Srang Cheung villagers whose illiteracy rate is high. The researcher constructed the questionnaire in everyday Khmer language (Cambodian language) of the local people. This is one of the strengths of the questionnaire and the survey process as the researcher is Cambodian for whom Khmer is the mother tongue.

The type and organization of questions are carefully managed to ensure the flow and relation of questions. Broad questions are usually asked and narrowed to find the focus to avoid the answer “I don’t know” or “no idea”. The researcher also avoided some sensitive questions, such as specific amount of income, which may make respondents feel uncomfortable. For example, to understand the differences of income between before 1999 and in 1999, the researcher did not ask “how much money did you earn before 1999 and in 1999?” The researcher changed the question to “did you save some money before 1999?” followed by three closed answers (see appendix 4).

There are three types of questions which are chosen in this survey such as closed questions, open-ended questions and scale-rating questions. The three types of questions are used because the closed questions provide limited answers, while open-ended questions provide room for the respondent to inform with more details. In addition the scale-rating questions are used to measure the opinion of local people on the level of satisfaction or agreement with the statements. These questions are added in the questionnaire with the consideration of the analysis of the result in mind (see Appendix 4).

There are different methods of doing surveys, such as mail and self-administered questionnaires, telephone or face-to-face survey completion (Czaja & Blair, 2005). The researcher chose the face-to-face survey method as it ensures the highest response rates and it is possible to ask open-ended questions. The researcher can ask questions flexibly to obtain detailed data. In addition, this method is suitable for the village because local people do not have access to high technology such as telephone or internet.

Sample size is one of the important issues in the survey. To provide more reliable data, the sample needs to be carefully chosen to provide a representative sample for the whole population. The researcher chose 60 households of 188 families or about 30 % of the whole family numbers to do face-to-face survey completion by using systematic random samples. The systematic random method was used to conduct this survey as researcher had knowledge about the population. The researcher chose every third household which is usually represented by “N” to do the survey.

$N = \text{population/sample}$

$N = 188/60 = 3.13 (\approx 3)$

This means that the researcher needed to interview every third household along the streets of the village.

Before conducting the final survey, a pilot survey was launched to find errors or problems such as misunderstanding and organization of questions. The purpose of doing this is to improve the survey's clarity. Ten questionnaires were filled out by participants from the nearby village of Krorvan. During this pilot survey, respondents were invited to comment on the questions and their organisations. It was found that some questions regarding personal income and expenditure were not appropriate for them to provide answers. Some respondents suggested that it was difficult to give such information. Thus, the researcher decided to change the income and expenditure question to the scale-rating questions with the focus on “saving”. The researcher assumes that “saving” means the remaining income after expenditure. The reason for using the scale-rating question was because villagers do not know exactly how much they earn or spend, but they are able to provide a rough idea of what scale it is (some saving, neutral, and no saving). In addition, the order of some questions was pin pointed and changed to maximize the flow of the questions. After the changes to the survey, the final questionnaire was proof-read by the researcher who is the questionnaire designer of the Department of Tourism Development of Angkor, APSARA Authority.

4.3.1.2 In-field survey

Before conducting the survey, the headman (someone who is elected to lead the village) was informed and asked for permission to interview the villagers. With the

permission and knowledge of the layout of the location of the village from the headman, the survey was conducted in every third house of the population. The researcher conducted the survey from the houses along the street which is the border between Srah Srang Cheung and Rorhal village. Heads of households were chosen to complete the survey to compare changes over the 10-year period, from 1999-2009. Note that the respondents do not provide data only regarding themselves but also their family members. During the field survey, by using the systematic random method, some target households (3rd houses) were absent. In this circumstance, the researcher chose the next household which is the neighbour of the third household to fill out the survey instead.

The face-to-face survey was suitable for the village due to the fact that a high illiteracy rate exists in the village. In this survey, the researcher asks and notes the answer while the interviewees only answer the questions. Before starting to ask the question, the invitation for the survey (written on the first page of the questionnaires) is read and explained to provide the general idea or purpose of the survey. This is done in a friendly way. The researcher also clarifies the questions in case misunderstanding of the meaning exists.

The researcher spent 11 days in the field for the survey. Seven days were for the survey; the remaining four days it was not possible due to the unfavourable weather conditions. On average, around eight questionnaires were completed daily. It takes approximately 25 minutes to complete a questionnaire. The small number of questionnaires completed is a result of the fact that the researcher had to wait for respondents to finish their housework such as cooking and washing dishes. The survey was conducted between 8 am to 10 am and 2 pm to 5 pm. The period of four hours (from 10 am to 2 pm) was not available as it is the cooking time for lunch, and for relaxing time. At 10, villagers usually start cooking their food and subsequently have lunch. At noon time, the weather is too hot and villagers need to relax after lunch. Thus, only 5 hours a day were available for the field survey.

4.3.1.3 Analysis

In this process, the collected results from the village are coded and entered on an electronic Microsoft Excel file. This file was used to provide the source for the SPSS

program which was really the main software employed for the analysis of results. After the process of entering data was finished, SPSS was used to check for errors. Specifying the location of the error, the researcher returned to the file and corrected errors. After the data was corrected and finalized, SPSS was used to generate means and frequencies. With the resulting means and frequencies, Microsoft Excel was used to create graphs and tables as the researcher's experience is that Microsoft Excel has more potential to design the graphs and tables due to the fact that this program provides more options for the generating graphs and tables.

From literatures, results from the survey normally answer the questions which start with "how many" (Groves et al., 2004). This survey is no exception. Thus the results in the form of percentages and frequencies are collected to illustrate tourism impacts on Srah Srang Cheung village. In addition, cross tabulation was utilised to compare between data to help identify themes for more in-depth research. These results enable the researcher to provide a tentative conclusion, which will be examined in more detail as part of the qualitative analysis.

To better understand the impacts of tourism, specifically economic and socio-economic impacts, it is necessary to employ qualitative methods which are able to explore more details. For instance, to understand the relationship between employment and the education of children, the study needs to obtain more detailed data from other educational officers because the results of the survey from villagers provided limited understanding of the issue. Hence, qualitative research using focus groups and grounded theory was used to generate a better understanding of the impacts from tourism in the village.

4.3.2 Qualitative methods

4.3.2.1 Pre-field research

As a result of the gaps from the survey results, the researcher reviewed additional secondary literature to have an idea about similar situations studied in other areas. The researcher also consulted literature on how to do qualitative research. From this literature, specific questions were generated for the in-depth interview. The main questions are remembered and possibly recalled by the researcher at the time of

interview. This helps to alert the interviewer of what to ask next and to stick with the topic.

With different aspects of relationships between the economic and socio-economic issues of tourism, different groups were selected as the sample for the study. Firstly, the relationship between employment and education (a part of economic and social) demanded that the study mainly selected people from the educational sector such as two teachers, a school principal and the Siem Reap education officer. Secondly, regarding changes from traditional employment to tourism employment, the deputy chief of Siem Reap tourism, an APSARA authority staff, the commune chief, the headman and ten in-migrants were chosen to be interviewed.

Thirdly, a focus group of 15 villagers was also conducted. Villagers were also the key informants selected to be interviewed with questions relating to all aspects mentioned in the village. In order to choose informants from the village to interview, the headman was requested to help with the process. He suggested that the researcher should do a focus group as he can tell key informants to come all at once. With this suggestion, the researcher recognizes that doing a focus group is more time-efficient as it will take only two hours for the whole group (15 people), whereas this group would take 30 hours to interview individually. Fifteen villagers were chosen for the focus group because the researcher tried to avoid too many participants which are difficult to control and too small numbers of participants which would not generate a good discussion.

Using grounded theory, the researcher looked for saturation of results from interviews. This means that the saturation of the results was found after interviewing 18 participants and a focus group of 15 villagers.

4.3.2.2 Focus group

One of the characteristics of focus a group is to identify problems as focus group is a group interview in which interviewers have a chance to discuss issues with participants when even the interviewers have only little knowledge about the topic. With this potential, the focus group was done initially to identify real problems adding to the

result from the survey. It was realized that a focus group interview was a suitable method to carry out the study at this stage.

Before conducting this focus group, the researcher identified topic guides to generate and direct discussion. There are advantages to the topic guide being used in focus groups. The topic guide provided room for conversational discussion. With this discussion, rich results were elicited. Furthermore, the topic guide technique involves spontaneity. It allows interviewers to use the comments from participants to generate the next question to explore and to shape towards the goal (Krueger, 1998b).

To facilitate the focus group interview, the researcher used three topic guides relating to: the impacts of tourism employment on education, the changes from traditional jobs to tourism jobs and the impacts of tourism on the village's society. With helps from the headman, the researcher invites villagers personally to participate in the focus group interview. The focus group was done in the village hall (a building which was built for meeting local people for discussion or for other local ceremonies). To start, the researcher explained the purpose of the study which meant finding both positive and negative impacts of tourism on the society of the village. Additionally, it was explained that the results of the study, hopefully, would identify the problems and use the problems to find solutions. With this introduction, villagers were inspired to participate in the discussion for their own community.

Subsequently, the three topic guides were written on the top of large spacious white pages (one topic, one paper). These papers were used to take notes and to show participants the topics and their ideas. Some questions were asked to explore more details and to generate discussion. This focus group was done in an informal way.

To help with analysis, after the answers were received from individuals and from the discussion, the researcher summarized the points they made and asked for agreement from all participants at the focus group. To do this summary, the researcher, who has knowledge from literature regarding the guiding topics, critically thought about the points that individuals made to compare whether they meant the same or different things. The comparison was made due to the fact that two people provided different words in the answers but intended to make the same point. When the summary was

completed, the participants were requested to raise their hands to vote for agreement or disagreement. These results were analysed after the focus group interview finished. Individual answers were also compared to find similarities and differences to confirm the summary result. The result from the focus group's analysis resulted in the researcher interviewing experts and management from different fields such as educational experts (teachers, a school principal, a chief of Siem Reap education office), local authorities (commune chief and headman), a deputy chief of the tourism office and APSARA authority staff (who were involved in some research in the village).

4.3.2.3 In-depth interview

In this study, 18 interviews were conducted. The first interview was done with teachers and the school principal of Srah Srang primary school which is the only school in the village. All students at primary level class in the village study in this school. The researcher went to the school office to request and to make an appointment with the school principal for an interview as well as to ask for permission and suggestions for finding teachers who have taught in the village about ten years for interviewing. An effort was made to find teachers with 10 years' experience as the research intended to compare the difference between ten years ago (before tourism development) and today (after tourism development). The teachers and the school principal were introduced to the topic before the interview. After the interview with teachers and the school principal, the chief of education office was interviewed to address education management and policy.

Moving to the next research question relating to land use and resource limitation, the commune chief, the headman, an APSARA staff member, and a deputy chief of tourism office were identified as interviewees. They were contacted by telephone. For one of the social issues, migration, it was suggested to interview in-migrants in the village. The headman gave the location of the only 10 families of in-migrants. At this stage, the researcher headed to their houses directly.

All of these interviews were conducted after participants signed the consent form. The in-migrants did not sign the form and some of them argued that they could not read it as they are illiterate. So it was dangerous for them to sign without knowledge of the text. Even though some explanation was given, they were not convinced to sign due to

the fact that there are problems regarding land titles and other paperwork in the village such as fake land titles. Such bad experiences make them avoid paperwork as much as possible. However, the researcher asked for verbal agreements before conducting interviews. To obtain reliable and rich results in an interview, the interview in this research was conducted in a friendly and informal way. The conversations lasted for about one hour for each interview.

Notetaking was used as a technique to record the results. Initially, a voice recorder was used to record the results of the interview. However, the researcher decided to stop using it and change to notetaking due to the fact that interviewees did not feel comfortable with the recording and provide limited answers. The researcher also informed the interviewees that their names will be kept confidential and encourage them to talk freely without any pressure. Notetaking was decided upon as the researcher and interviewees have the same mother tongue. Thus, the language gap of understanding of language did not exist. The excellent understanding of language in the interview was also a factor for generating in-depth results because the interviewer could reflect spontaneously and ask probing questions to gather more detailed data.

4.3.2.4 Analysis

The researcher analysed the results by using thematic coding. The collected data from interview was coded by finding the similar patterns and group themes. Subsequently, the researcher compared and contrasted the grouped patterns based on the knowledge from the literature review and background of the village, plus the experience which the researcher had from family working with the Department of Tourism of APSARA Authority. The process of coding was done on spreadsheet by highlighting the same colours for the same themes. Then, the researcher compares those themes to find the contradicting ideas which were placed in a table with two columns. The themes in the first column are contrasting those in the second column.

This analysis was done after each interview to see the information gap which is used to find interviewees for the next interview. Keeping in mind the grounded theory, this process was followed until the researcher believed that no new results were found from the interview. In other words, the interview process proceeded until the saturation of results was finally found.

The results of the interviews were compared and contrasted with the survey results to understand the similarities, differences and additional data such as in-migration. From this comparison, more detailed data was explored and some contrasting results were also found. For example, a survey result shows that number of wells has increased. This allowed the researcher assumes that the villagers have money to build wells. However, an interview result shows that these wells were built with funds from donators. Thus, the researcher needed to do observations to confirm and clarify the data.

4.3.3 Observation

The analysis of survey and interview results helps the researcher to identify three aspects to do observation. The aspects were, firstly, the impacts of tourism on the changes of local employment, secondly, changes of living standard, and thirdly, the relationship between tourism and child labour. With these specific topics, the researcher observed the village for six days. The observation started from 6 am and went to 6 pm. These hours were necessary because the observer intended to see the activities of children going to school and to work, the locations the business people came from (from the village or from somewhere else) and the daily activities of local people.

The researcher conducted observation from three main places. Two days were spent in each place. Thus, the observation lasted for six days. Every second day is spent to observe for new data. However, new data was not found on the second day of each place. This means that the researcher did not need to spend more than two days to collect data answering the topic questions. On the first and second days, the researcher observed from the main street where children go to school and go to work in some large-scale restaurants. On the third and fourth days, the researcher observed the area with tourism business activities. This area consists of souvenir stalls close to the village between the Royal Pool and Banteaykdey temple. This area allowed the researcher to see the business activities not only in the formal souvenir stalls but also the informal tourism activities of children and local people who sell close to temples. On the last two days, the researcher walked across the village to see the local people's daily life with the focus on traditional and tourism employment.

During the observation, the researcher took note respecting daily purposes. In addition, the researcher also took photos. Varieties of data were noted as detailed as possible. These data were grouped with the same themes and patterns. In the next step, these grouped data is used to compare and contrast with the results from the interviews and surveys to identify the similarities and differences to support or reject the result. From this analysis and comparison the final conclusions were produced.

4.4 Summary

Overall, this chapter has presented the ways to do research in theory and in practice. Three main stages (pre-field, on-field, and after-field research) are identified. This research employed mixed methods combining quantitative, qualitative, and observation techniques.

The mixed method approach employed in this research was applied as part of the data gathering process. Firstly, the researcher started with a survey. Secondly, the results from survey were used to compare and contrast data from focus groups and interviews. In the next step, data collected from observation were compared and contrasted with the results from the quantitative and qualitative sections. This allowed the researcher to obtain data to evaluate and then to make a final decision whether tourism positively or negatively impacts the village.

CHAPTER 5 FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

The findings chapter is the combination of four stages of results (survey, focus groups interviews, and observations). The findings from the survey are the initial data to which more details are added from the interviews. Because of differences of results between the survey and interviews, observation results are used to judge the validity of the survey and interview results and to confirm the final results of the research.

The study is intended to examine the impacts of tourism expenditure on economic and socio-economic aspects which are specifically focused on two relationships (from p. 9): (1) the changes from traditional jobs to tourism jobs, and (2) the relationship between child labour in tourism and children's education.

5.2 Result from the survey

5.2.1 Demography

Sixty households out of 180 families in the village (from 30 to 81 years old) provided the data for the survey. The older people of families were selected for the surveys. The elders are able to inform the changes from 1999 to 2009. Thus, the ages of respondents show a minimum of 30 years old. The number of female respondents (38) was almost double the number of male respondents (22). The survey was conducted at respondents' residences. In Cambodia, females, culturally, tend to stay at home and do housework while males are the breadwinners; hence the dominance of female respondents.

According to Table 5.1 the majority number of males and females in each family is relatively similar, between two and four. This indicates the total of most families is between five and seven members.

Table 5. 1 Number of female, male, and working members

| Family member | Female | | Male | | Total family members | | Working members | |
|---------------|--------|------|------|-------|----------------------|------|-----------------|------|
| | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % |
| 0 | 2 | 3.3 | 2 | 3.3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 3 | 5.0 | 9 | 15.0 | 0 | 0 | 17 | 28.3 |
| 2 | 18 | 30.0 | 13 | 21.7 | 2 | 3.3 | 18 | 30.0 |
| 3 | 16 | 26.7 | 15 | 25.0 | 4 | 6.7 | 11 | 18.3 |
| 4 | 15 | 25.0 | 11 | 18.3 | 6 | 10.0 | 5 | 8.3 |
| 5 | 4 | 6.7 | 5 | 8.3 | 11 | 18.3 | 6 | 10.0 |
| 6 | 2 | 3.3 | 5 | 8.3 | 14 | 23.3 | 1 | 1.7 |
| 7 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 13 | 21.7 | 2 | 3.3 |
| 8 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 8.3 | 0 | 0 |
| 9 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 3.3 | 0 | 0 |
| 10 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 5.0 | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 60 | 100 | 60 | 99.9* | 60 | 100 | 60 | 100 |

**does not total 100% due to rounding*

5.2.2 The changes from traditional jobs to tourism jobs

The objective seeks to understand the changes from non-tourism jobs (such as traditional jobs depending on natural resources and farming) to tourism jobs. Table 5.1 shows the current number of people working in each family. All 60 households have at least one working member. Among the 60 families, most families have either one (17 families or 28.3%), two (18 or 30%), or three people working (11 families or 18.3%), with the remaining 14 families (23.3%) having between four and seven working members. This means while most families have between five and seven members, in the majority of cases, only one-to-three of these members (half the family) are working. This work force includes children and adults. The jobs in the village can be placed into three categories:

Non-tourism jobs: These jobs are not related to tourism activities. The category of jobs refers to civil servants (such as headman, chief of commune, police officer, and teacher), subsistence farmers and vegetable planters who do not sell their products to any tourism-related businesses (hotels and restaurants), but who farm for their own food.

Tourism jobs: these types of jobs work very closely with tourists and tourism activities.

Tourism jobs include:

- Direct tourism jobs: souvenir producers and sellers, taxi drivers, restaurant owners and tour guides.
- Indirect tourism jobs: these jobs do not have direct involvement, but indirectly link to tourism. For instance, restaurant and hotel staff, tourism-superstructure construction workers, park cleaners (people who are employed to look after temples, to cut grass in temple compound and small trees on temples, and to collect rubbish), temple guards (whose responsibilities are to help protect temples and provide some basic information to tourists).
- Induced tourism jobs: villagers working in induced tourism jobs obtain benefit from villagers earning money from indirect tourism jobs. These jobs include sellers (who sell food and drinks in local market for villagers, indirectly benefiting from tourism).

Mixed tourism and non-tourism jobs (hereafter “mixed”): these jobs are a combination of tourism jobs and non-tourism. Note a family may have more than one person working. Thus, they may work in non-tourism, while other members work in tourism. This means the family holds “mixed”.

Figure 5.1 shows employment in 2009. Due to the fact that some families hold more than one job, the total employment equals 164 people among the 60 families. Souvenir businesses and subsistence farmers dominate with 47 and 42 jobs, respectively. The second important type is market sellers (21 jobs), who run their own business with villagers either in the local market or at home. This is followed by hotel and restaurant staff (14 jobs), temple guards (13 jobs), construction workers (11 jobs), and civil servants (8 jobs). The remaining jobs are taxi drivers (4 jobs), park cleaners (3 jobs) and a tour guide. These employments are grouped into the three main categories (non-tourism, mixed, and tourism) in Figure 5.2.

Figure 5. 1 Employments in 2009 (N=164)

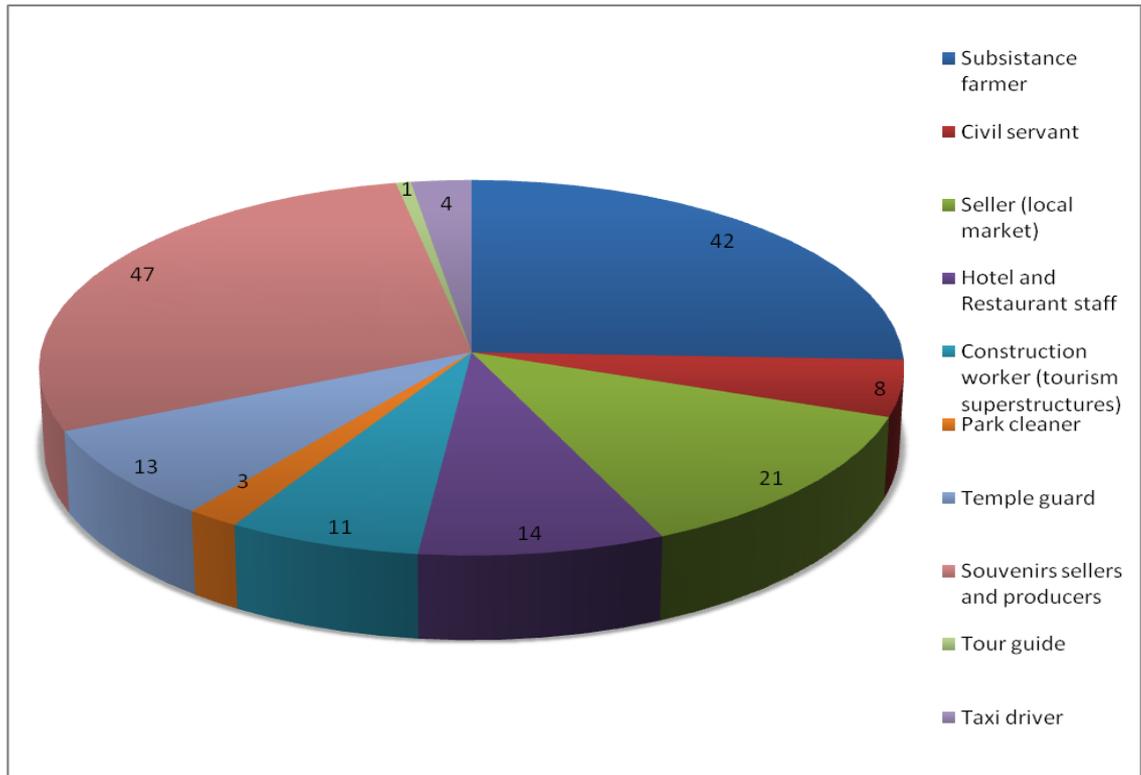
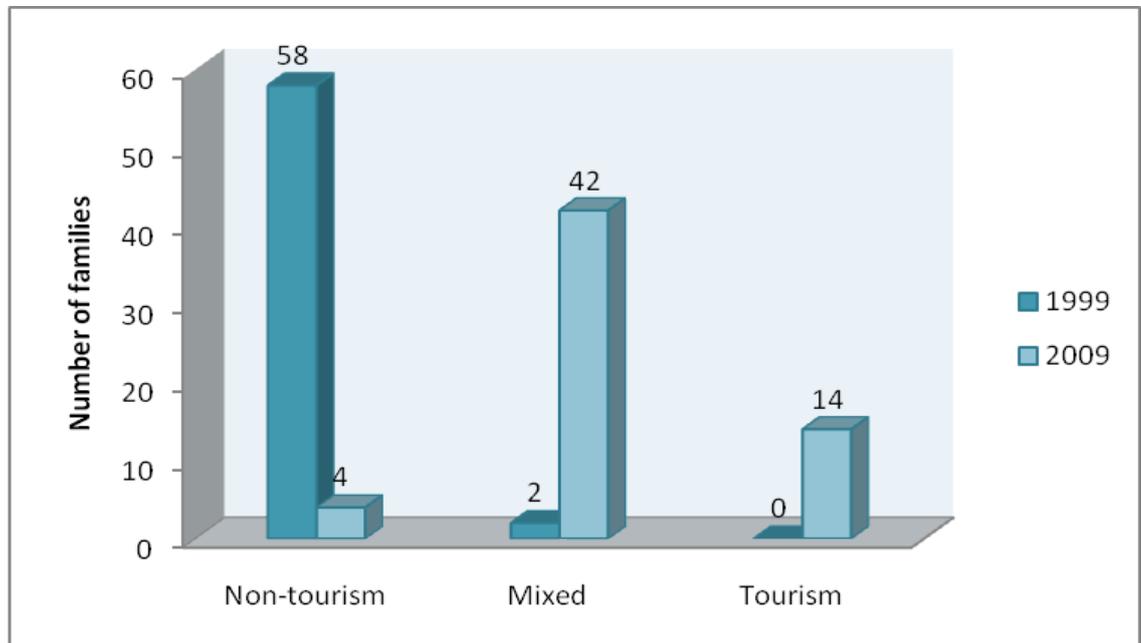


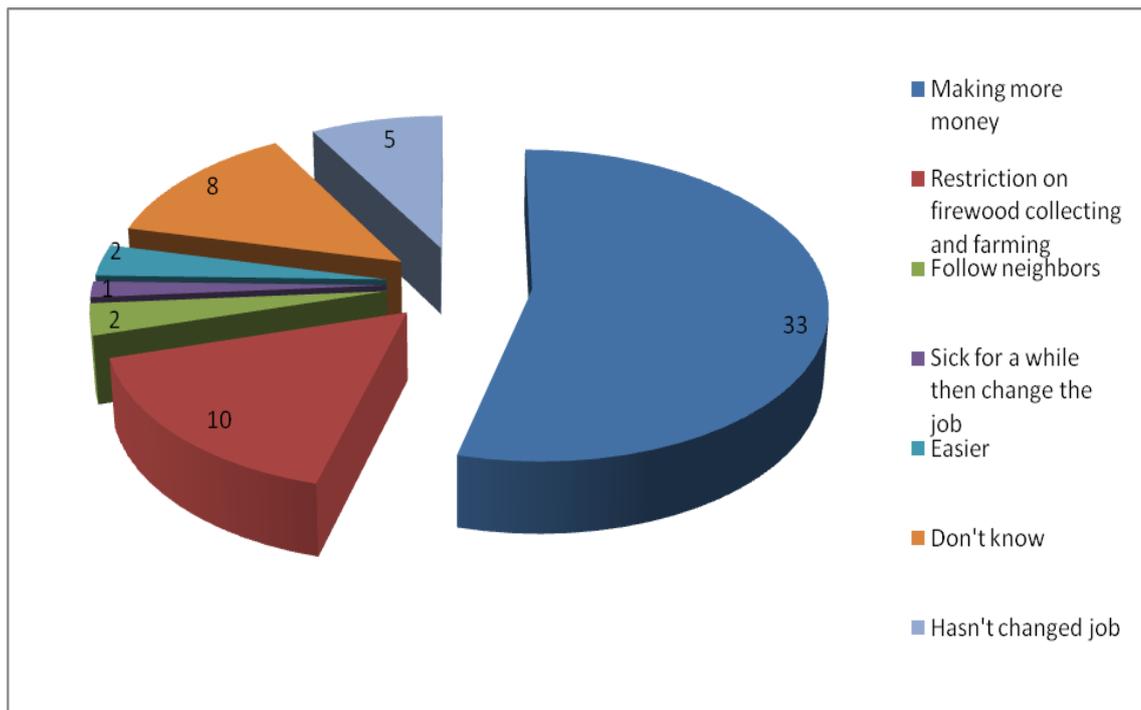
Figure 5. 2 Jobs in 1999 and 2009



Addressing the first objective, Figure 5.2 shows the changes of employment over a period of ten years (1999-2009) with respect to three types of jobs. In 1999, 58-out-of-60 families (96.7 %) worked in non-tourism jobs and only two families (3.3%) had more than one type of job–mixed. No families relied totally on tourism. The trend has

changed tremendously in the last ten years (2009). Only four-out-of-60 families now work entirely in non-tourism jobs (pure farming), while the mixed category is the most typical, with 42 families. The remaining 14 families have changed completely from non-tourism to pure tourism jobs. Hence, 56-out-of-60 families were involved in tourism employment in 2009. This suggests that tourism development in the village provides high job opportunities for Srah Srang Cheung villagers.

Figure 5. 3 Reasons for changing jobs



The survey data shows a number of reasons for changing employment (see Figure 5.3). First, better income is the most significant reason for villagers. Thirty-three-out-of-60 families claimed that working in tourism makes more money than traditional farming jobs. Secondly, 10-out-of-60 families stated that they changed from non-tourism jobs (traditional jobs) to tourism jobs because there was some restriction placed on natural resources (firewood collecting and farming) from which they used to earn money. It is possible to interpret that these ten families did not voluntarily change their jobs to tourism, but they did not have any other option. The remaining reasons were because they were influenced by their neighbors (two families), tourism jobs are less labour intensive (two families) and villagers were not able to do their previous job due to illness (one family). These factors meant that they had to change their non-tourism jobs to tourism jobs.

The trend from non-tourism jobs to tourism jobs has impacted the economy of the village. To understand these impacts — whether tourism employments offer negative or positive impacts — it was necessary to understand the economy of the village. Therefore, it was vital to collect data about the changes in the quality of life of villagers. Specifically, data was collected to measure villager’s opinions about the importance of tourism, job opportunities, standard of living, and development of facilities in the village. More precisely, data were collected on changes of number of wells, toilets, house renovation, vehicles and savings.

A cross tabulation analysis (not shown) between types of employment and opinions of villagers regarding importance or unimportance of tourism indicated that 58-out-of-60 families (96.7%) believe that tourism is important for their village, while only a single family (1.7%) does not support tourism and another family (1.7%) does not have any opinion over the issue. Forty-one-out-of-42 families (97.6%) working in the mixed category, and the 14 families working in pure tourism jobs support tourism. In addition, three-out-of-four families (75%) working in non-tourism jobs, expressed that tourism was also vital for them. This means that tourism is seen as very crucial for the villagers regardless of the types of job they have and that the economy of the village depends significantly on tourism. It is notable that the closer involvement in tourism, the more support (from non-tourism (75%) to mixed tourism and non-tourism (96.7%), and to tourism-only (100%)).

To understand the reasons for supporting tourism, an open-ended question — “why is tourism important or unimportant?” — was asked. The responses were thematically grouped. Table 5.2 shows the cross tabulation between types of employment and the relative importance of tourism. Almost all families think tourism supports their economy directly and indirectly. All people working in tourism (14-out-of-14 families) and most of the mixed families (31-out-of-42 families) indicate that tourism had directly benefited them. These families own restaurants, souvenir stalls, and also produce local souvenirs to sell directly to tourists visiting temples close to the village. These businesses and jobs substantially depend on the arrival of tourists who buy their products.

Table 5. 2 Types of employment vs. importance of tourism

| Types of employment | Why important | | | | | Why unimportant | Total |
|---------------------|-------------------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|------------|-----------------|-------|
| | More tourists, more profit (direct) | Job opportunities (direct) | Indirectly support the business | Improve the village's economy | Don't know | | |
| Non-tourism | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 4 |
| Mixed | 29 | 2 | 6 | 3 | 2 | 0 | 42 |
| Tourism | 13 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 14 |
| | 42 | 3 | 6 | 5 | 3 | 1 | 60 |

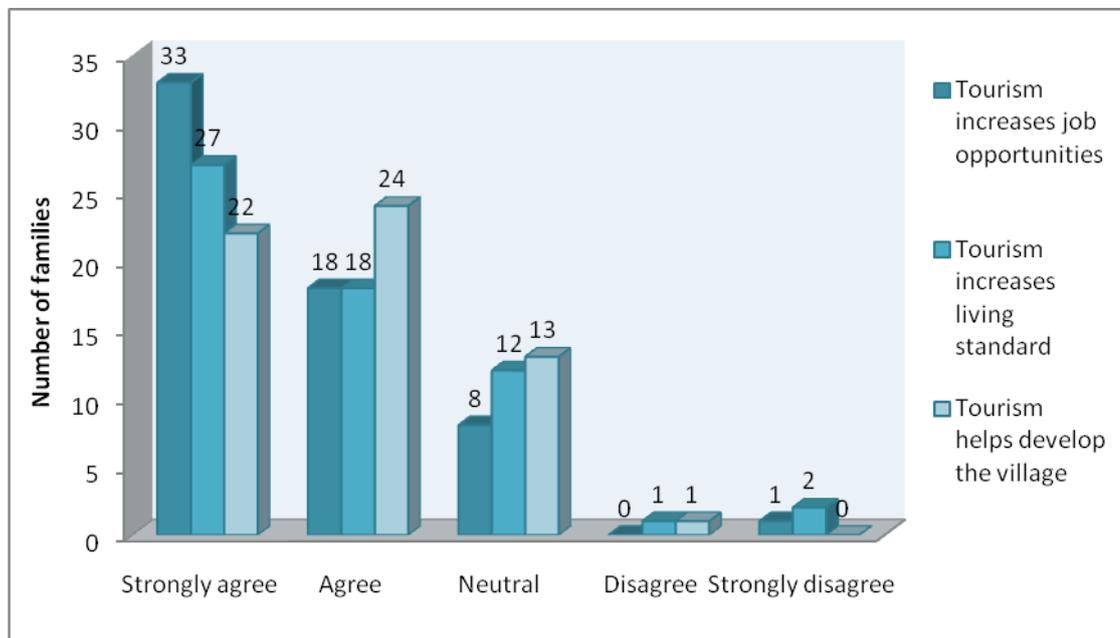
However, the tourism and mixed groups are interested more in cash rather than job opportunities. Twenty-nine-out-of-42 mixed, and 13-out-of-14 tourism families stated that tourism brought profit while only two-out-of-42 mixed and one-out-of-14 tourism families claimed tourism was crucial for them because of the increase in job opportunities. Only a small number of mixed (6-out-of-42 families) thought their businesses were indirectly supported by tourism. In addition, two-out-of-four non-tourism families and three-out-of-42 mixed families stated that tourism improved the village economy.

Overall, families who were more involved in tourism claimed that tourism directly supported them, while those with less involvement believed that tourism benefited them indirectly. Similarly, the more involved a family is in tourism, the stronger their positive opinion about tourism (one-out-of-four families working in non-tourism and two-out-of-42 mixed families and none of families working in tourism stated that they did not know how important tourism is). Furthermore, only one-out-of-four families working in non-tourism employment thought that tourism was not necessary as they did not obtain any benefit from it.

To be more precise, three Likert-scale questions were asked regarding opinion on tourism development. Shown in Figure 5.5, the three statements were: (1) tourism increases job opportunities, (2) tourism increases living standards, and (3) tourism helps develop the village. Firstly, with the statement that tourism increases job opportunities, more than half (55% or 33 families) strongly agreed and 30% (18 families) of respondents agreed, while 13.3% (8 families) were neutral. Thus, a total of

51-out-of-60 families (85%) believed that tourism provided more chances of employment in the village, while only one family (1.7%) strongly disagreed with the statement. Secondly, 27-out-of-60 families (45%) strongly agreed and 18-out-of-60 families (30%) agreed that tourism improved living standards, while 12-out-of-60 families (20%) chose the neutral response to the statement. Only three families (5%) strongly disagreed or disagreed with the statement. Thirdly, 46-out-of-60 families (76.7%—strongly agree (22) and agree (24)), thought that tourism helped develop the village, while only one family disagreed and 13-out-of-60 families showed neutral responses.

Figure 5. 4 Villager’s opinion over tourism development



Overall, Figure 5.4 suggests the question about job opportunities (51 families) received the strongest support, while improvement of living standards (45 families) and development of the village (46 families) were rated almost identical. However, the response about job opportunities and improvement in living standards was different from the question about the importance of tourism in the discussion above, which showed that job opportunities are less supported than increase in living standard (“more profit”—see Table 5.2).

All-in-all, the three Likert-scale questions were “agreed” to by around three-out-of-four households, while disagreed to by very few. The remaining (roughly) ten

households showed neutral opinions on the issues. It is thus possible that tourism is seen as important to provide more job opportunities. Salary, wages and other profits from job opportunities may lead to the improvement of living standard, and of the village. Thus, tourism is believed to play a pivotal role in improving the economic quality of lives of Srah Srang Cheung villagers according to Table 5.2 and Figure 5.4.

Table 5.3 shows the cross tabulation between types of employment and villager’s opinion over the three Likert-scale questions. None of the villagers who worked in tourism disagreed with the three economic statements and none of families working in non-tourism disagreed with two statements: (1) “Tourism provides job opportunities”, and (2) “Tourism improves living standard”. Only a few mixed families disagreed with these. The third statement “tourism helps develop the village” was disagreed with by only one family working in farming only.

Hence, almost all families, regardless of any type of employment they hold, agreed with the three statements. Even though families working in non-tourism jobs have no relationship with tourism, the majority of them support tourism. Table 5.3 confirms the perception of the importance of tourism established in Table 5.2 and suggests that tourism is very important to the village as a whole.

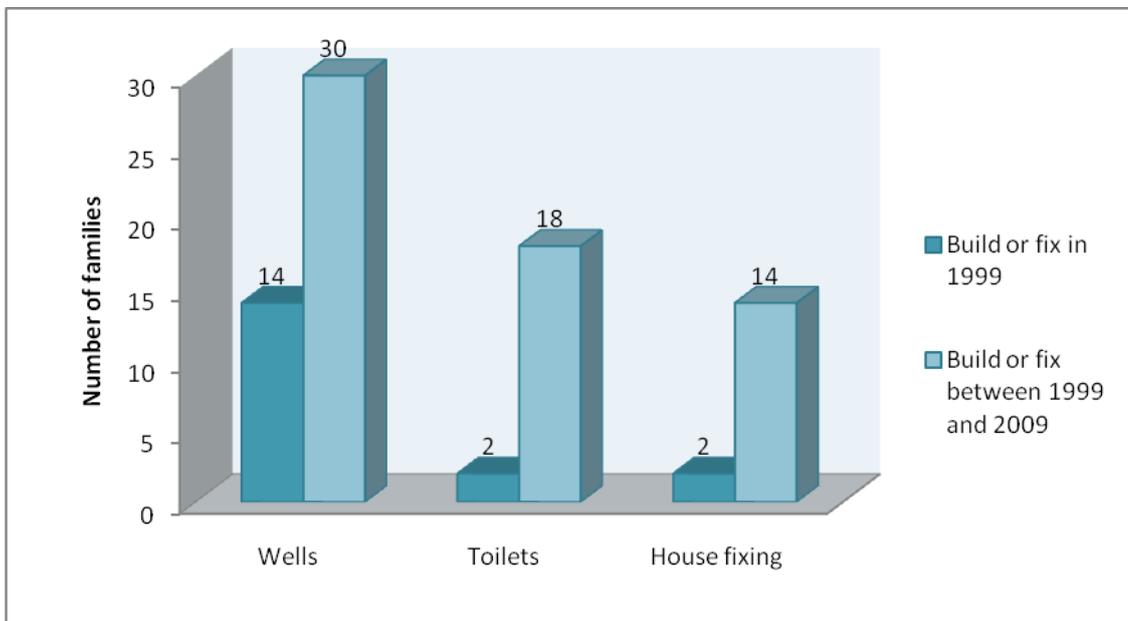
Table 5. 3 Types of employment by villagers’ opinion

| Types of employment | Job opportunities | | | | | Living standard improvement | | | | | Village development | | | | |
|---------------------|---|---|---|----|----|-----------------------------|---|----|----|----|---------------------|---|----|----|----|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | <i>1: Strongly disagree, 2: Disagree, 3. Neutral, 4. Agree, 5. Strongly agree</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Non-tourism | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| Mixed | 1 | 0 | 6 | 12 | 23 | 2 | 1 | 7 | 11 | 21 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 17 | 15 |
| Tourism | 0 | 0 | 1 | 6 | 7 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 6 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 7 | 4 |
| Total | 1 | 0 | 8 | 18 | 33 | 2 | 1 | 12 | 18 | 27 | 0 | 1 | 13 | 24 | 22 |

In addition, data regarding specific living standards in relation to peoples’ property were collected. Figure 5.5 shows the changes in number of toilets, wells, and house renovation which reflects actual improvement in standard of living of villagers. Only 14-out-of-60 families had wells in 1999, while the number increased to 30-out-of-60 families by 2009. It shows the increase is about double. Regarding toilets, the number changed tremendously from two (1999) to 18-out-of-60 families (2009). Similarly, only

two-out-of-60 families had renovated their houses by 1999, while 14 out of 60 families had done so by 2009.

Figure 5. 5 Changes in number of wells, toilets, house renovation (1999-2009)

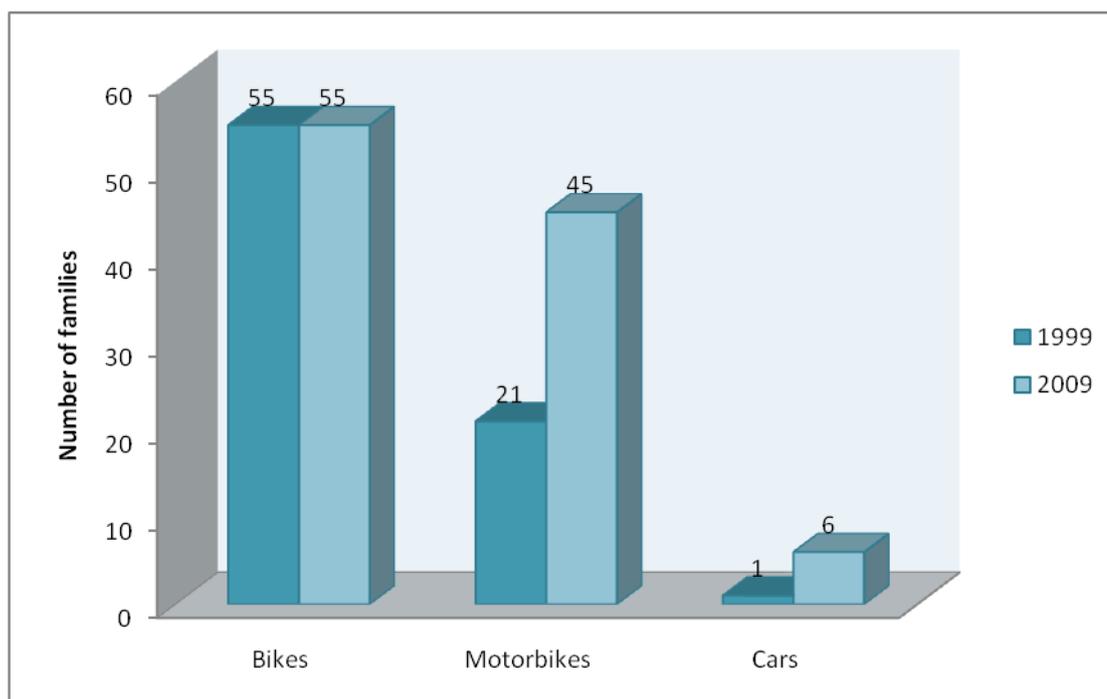


The cross tabulation between types of employment and house renovation shows that none of the people working in non-tourism jobs had renovated their houses, while 10-out-of-42 mixed families (24%), and four-out-of-14 families working in tourism (29%) had renovated their houses. This suggests that villagers working closer to tourism are able to afford to renovate their houses.

Two of the 14 families fixing up their houses encountered difficulties in the process of house renovation. They stated that APSARA Authorities made it hard for them in terms of paper work before they could start repairing their houses. This implies that the limitation, imposed by the government on the house construction, has discouraged villagers to renovate and prevented new building construction. Thus, the number of house renovations would have increased for more than 14-out-of-60 families if the house renovation and construction had not been limited. Therefore, the increase in number of toilets, wells, and house renovation shows that most of the villagers' living standards have improved with the development of tourism in the park as well as in the village.

Besides the change in number of toilets, wells and house renovation, the research also collected data on vehicle ownership, which also reflects improvement of quality of life. Figure 5.6 shows the changes in ownership of three types of vehicle. Note that each family may own more than one type of vehicle. The possession of motorbikes represents a middle class living standard, while car owners are considered to be rich by village standards.

Figure 5. 6 Changes in number of vehicles (1999-2009)



According to the figure, there were significant increases in motorbikes and cars by 2009, while bikes remain unchanged (55-out-of-60 families). The number of motorbikes doubled from 21 in 1999 to 45 families in 2009, while the number of cars increased around six fold from one in 1999 to six families in 2009.

To understand more specifically, Table 5.4 shows a cross tabulation between types of employment and types of vehicle in 2009. Among five families who do not possess bikes, three families work in “tourism only”. These families, instead of owning bikes, possess motorbikes. Another family among those five (who do not have bikes) is “mix”. Instead of having a bike, this family possesses a car. Thus, having no bikes does not mean that a family is poor, but means that their living standard is high enough to afford a motorbike or a car.

Table 5. 4 Types of employment vs. number of vehicles in 2009

| Types of employment | Bikes | | Motorbikes | | Cars | | Total families |
|---------------------|-----------|-------------|------------|-------------|----------|------------|----------------|
| | N | % | N | % | N | % | N |
| Non-tourism | 4 | 100 | 3 | 75.0 | 0 | 0 | 4 |
| Mixed | 40 | 95.2 | 30 | 71.4 | 5 | 11.9 | 42 |
| Tourism | 11 | 78.6 | 12 | 85.7 | 1 | 7.1 | 14 |

From Table 5.4, it is noticeable that the more involved a family is in tourism, the fewer bikes owned (from non-tourism (100%), to mixed (95.2%) and tourism only (78.6%)). Conversely, the closer the link with tourism, the more motorbikes and cars owned (from non-tourism (75 % of motorbikes and cars) to mixed (83.3% motorbikes and cars) and tourism only (92.8% of motorbikes and cars). None of the villagers working in non-tourism have cars. All cars owners either work in tourism, or are in a mixed family. Specifically, four-out-of-the six car owners have at least a family member who works in the souvenir business while the other two families have at least one family member involved in indirect tourism jobs such as selling in the local market. Similar to the house renovation result, the data shows is that the more involvement in tourism, the better the living standard.

Saving is another aspect of living standard. Data collected on household savings also illustrates economic changes. Figure 5.8 shows the changes of saving between 1999 and 2009. There is, relatively, no difference or improvement in term of saving in the village between 1999 and 2009. About half the households (31 and 36 out-of-60 households in 1999 and 2009 respectively) have just enough for living, while several households (seven and five households in 1999 and 2009 respectively) save some, and the remaining households (22-and-19-out-of-60 households in 1999 and 2009 respectively) do not have enough money to spend for their daily lives.

It is noticed that the number of families who have “more than enough” has decreased from seven to five. Inspection of survey data indicated that the two families used to save some for the future use but have bought new transportation. One of the families possesses four motorbikes and a car, while another owns a motorbike. The remaining five families, having “more than enough” also own new motorbikes.

Figure 5. 7 Changes in saving (1999-2009)

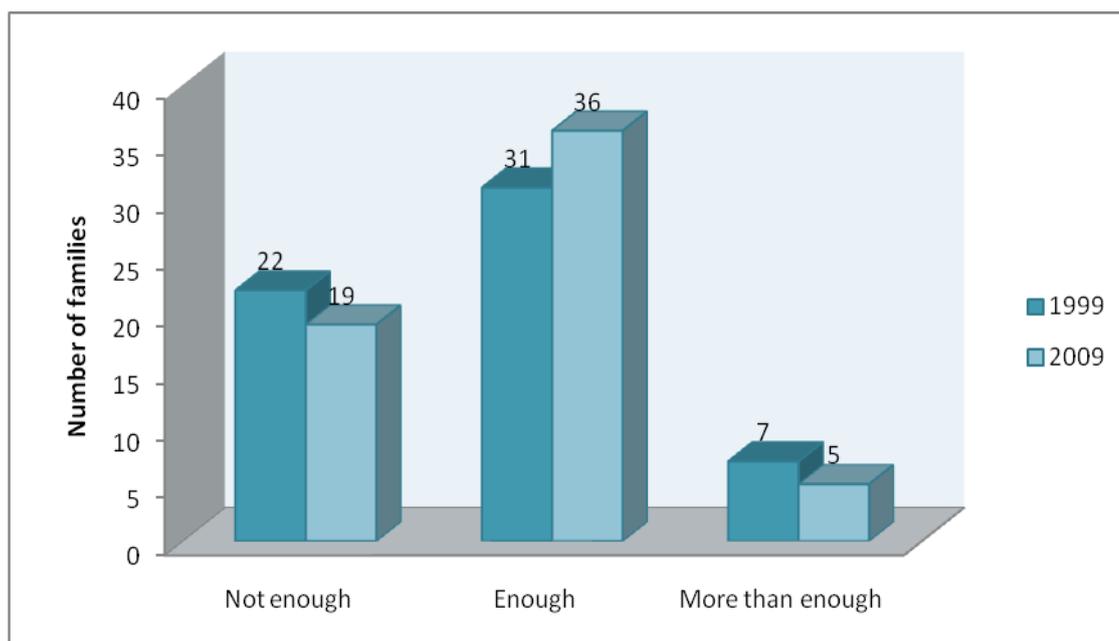


Table 5. 5 Types of employment in 2009 vs. saving

| Types of employment | Not enough (N) | Just enough (N) | More than enough (N) | Not enough (%) | Mixed enough and more than enough (%) | Total families (N) |
|---------------------|----------------|-----------------|----------------------|----------------|---------------------------------------|--------------------|
| Non-tourism | 2 | 2 | 0 | 50.0 | 50.0 | 4 |
| Mixed | 14 | 25 | 3 | 33.3 | 66.7 | 42 |
| Tourism | 3 | 9 | 2 | 21.4 | 78.6 | 14 |

From the cross tabulation in Table 5.5, half of the non-tourism group (2 out of 4 households) do not have “enough” money to support their daily expenses, while the other half have “just enough”. None of them has “more than enough”. All households, having “more than enough” belong to the mixed category (3 households) and tourism (2 households). According to the cross tabulation there is a trend evident. The less involvement in tourism, the higher rate of “not enough”—from 50% of “non-tourism” families to 33.3% of “mixed” families and to 21.4% of “tourism” families. The combination of “enough” and “more than enough” shows that the more involvement in tourism, the higher rate of “mixed enough and more than enough”—from 50% of “non-tourism” to 66.7% of “mixed tourism and non-tourism” and to 78.6% of “tourism”.

Hence, it is possible to conclude that living standard of villagers had improved and that tourism contributed to this improvement in 2009. The unchanged aspect of saving is because villagers have spent money on transportation, and possibly on other household equipment. In addition to more spending, a small sample of the survey also contributed to the unclear result of saving. So, I discussed it with the commune chief and the deputy chief of tourism office and observed household equipments (see interview and observation sections).

5.2.3 Child labour in tourism and children’s education

This section is directed towards identifying the relationship between tourism and education. It is specifically intended to illustrate the impacts of tourism employment on the education of children in the village.

Table 5. 6 The number of children at school age, studying, and dropping out

| Number of children | Children at school age | | Studying children | | Dropout children | |
|--------------------|------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| | Number of families | Number of children | Number of families | Number of children | Number of families | Number of children |
| 1 | 11 | 11 | 10 | 10 | 14 | 14 |
| 2 | 13 | 26 | 15 | 30 | 2 | 4 |
| 3 | 12 | 36 | 9 | 27 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 | 4 | 16 | 1 | 4 | 0 | 0 |
| 5 | 3 | 15 | 3 | 15 | 0 | 0 |
| 6 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 43 | 104 | 38 | 86 | 16 | 18 |

Table 5.6 shows the total number of children of school age (from 6 years old to 18 years old), the number of children studying, and the number who have dropped out of school. Forty-three-out-of-60 families have children of school age. Most families have one-to-three children in school (one child: 11 families; two children: 13 families; three children: 12 families). These 43 families consist of 104 children. Note that not all families have children at school age. Seventeen-out-of-60 families do not have children at this age group. It is possible that they have children less than 6 years old or more than 18 years old.

Note that not all children between six and 18 years old go to school and that the number of families whose children are of school age does not equal the combination of number of families, whose children studying, and dropping out. This means that some families have children “studying **and** dropping out” as the families have more than one child. Further, this means that only 43 families (104 children) have children of school age but 38 families (86 children) have children studying, while 16 families (18 children) have children dropping out.

The 86 children who are studying fall into different levels of education. Education in Cambodia is a twelve-year system, which is divided into three main levels namely primary, middle/intermediate, and secondary. The twelve-year education is a prerequisite to university level. Table 5.7 presents the cross tabulation between types of employment and number of children who are studying versus dropped out of school, in these educational levels.

Primary school represents the biggest share of the total children (55-out-of-86 children), followed by middle/intermediate (21-out-of-86 children). Secondary school has the smallest amount of 10-out-of-86 children. For those who drop out of school (18 children), it is noticed that none drop out during primary school. Only two-out-of-18 children drop out when they are at middle/intermediate, while the remaining 16-out-of-18 children stop at secondary level.

Table 5. 7 Types of employment vs. children studying, and dropping out

| Types of employment | Studying children | | | Total % studying | Dropout children | | | Total % dropout | Total children at school age |
|---------------------|-------------------|-----|-----|------------------|------------------|-----|-----|-----------------|------------------------------|
| | PR* | MI* | SE* | | PR* | MI* | SE* | | |
| Non-tourism | 1 | 1 | 0 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| Mixed | 40 | 15 | 7 | 83.8 | 0 | 2 | 10 | 16.2 | 74 |
| Tourism | 14 | 5 | 3 | 78.6 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 21.4 | 28 |
| Total | 55 | 21 | 10 | | | 2 | 16 | | 104 |

* PR: Primary, MI: Middle/Intermediate, and SE: Secondary

Note that households working in non-tourism have a total of eight children. However, only two of them are of school age. The remaining six children are older than school age. Table 5.7 indicates that the higher the level of education is, the lower the number

of children from the village studying, and the higher the number of children who dropout.

In Table 5.7, the columns “total % studying”, and “total % drop out” show trends. Specifically, the more involved in tourism the families are, the lower rate of children studying (from 100% of non-tourism jobs to 83.8% of mixed jobs, and to 78.6% of tourism), and the higher rate of drop out (from 0% of non-tourism jobs to 16.2% of mixed jobs, and to 21.4% of tourism). However, these trends do not reflect the focus on higher levels of education (middle intermediate, and secondary). No household working in non-tourism has children studying in secondary school, while the two other groups (mixed and tourism) do. With respect to middle/intermediate school, households working in tourism have a higher rate of children studying (five-out-of-five children (the combination of children who study and drop out at middle/intermediate school)) than those, working in the mixed group (15-out-of-17 children (the combination of children who study and drop out at middle/intermediate school)). However, this is different for the level of secondary school. Mixed households have a better rate of children at secondary school (seven-out-of-17 children (the combination of children who study and drop out at secondary school)) than those working in tourism (three-out-of-nine children (the combination of children who study and drop out at secondary school)).

Regarding the dropout rate, none of the families working in non-tourism have their children drop out, while looking closely between mixed and tourism, the drop out rates of children from the two categories of families are not significantly different. From the discussion, the relationship between rates of children studying and dropping out, and employment does not show clear trends. This unclear data may result from the sample size problem (this will be explained better in interview results).

Reasons for children not studying are answered by the question of “why did your children dropout of school?” The question was asked to only families whose children dropped out of school. The question allows the 16 families (whose children dropped out) to provide more than one answer. Totally, 43 responses were collected. According to the survey, “poverty” and “working in souvenirs” were the top two main factors responsible for dropout. “Poverty” and “working in souvenirs” account for 19 and 9

out of 43 responses respectively. Due to the demand for money to support families, children go to work rather than go to school for education. Thus, “poverty” is strongly related to “working in souvenirs”. The third most important reason (also nine responses out of 43) is the fact that middle/intermediate and secondary schools are too far from the village (only one primary school exists in the village). The distance is a challenge for children to go for higher education.

The other two less important reasons are laziness and being of the female gender. Laziness claimed two responses. The remaining four-out-of-43 responses show that their children stop going to school because they are female. This indicates the pressure of culture in which the female should stay at home to look after children and cook meals rather than go to school for high education. However, this pressure seems small.

Table 5.8 shows the cross tabulation between types of employment and opinions about whether tourism makes or does not make children go for higher education. The table suggests that 33-out-of-43 families (whose children are at school age) agree tourism allows their children attempt higher education, while 10-out-of-43 families do not have any opinions and none of families disagreed with the stated opinion. The closer the relation to tourism, the higher tendency of agreeing with the statement exists (from 50% of non-tourism to 72.4% of mixed tourism and non-tourism and 91.7% of tourism).

Table 5. 8 Types of employment vs. villagers’ opinion of higher education

| Types of employment | Tourism makes children's education higher | | | | | | Total families (whose children are at school age) |
|---------------------|---|------|----|---|------------|------|---|
| | Yes | % | No | % | Don't know | % | |
| Non-tourism | 1 | 50 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 50 | 2 |
| Mixed | 21 | 72.4 | 0 | 0 | 8 | 27.6 | 29 |
| Tourism | 11 | 91.7 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 8.3 | 12 |
| Total | 33 | | | | 10 | | 43 |

Table 5.9 shows reasons to support tourism in the village. The results suggest trends. One of the trends is that the more involved in tourism, the more support for tourism due to economic benefit —from none of families working in non-tourism to 34.5% of the mixed families and to 75% of families working in tourism and having children of

school age. This means that tourism helps their children go for higher education because they benefit economically. However, it is shown differently with other reasons for support that tourism makes their children’s education higher. With respect to the answer “children try to study to get a good job”, the rate of support from families working in tourism (16.7%) is slightly lower than for mixed families (20.7%) while non-tourism category shows none. This indicates that children studied harder when they saw the job opportunities in tourism. It is noticeable that the two reasons mentioned were supported by only households involved in tourism. These two reasons also indicate direct benefit from tourism on education.

Table 5. 9 Types of employment vs. reasons for support tourism

| Types of employment | Make money from tourism | | Tourism indirect support businesses | | Children try to study for a good job | | Don't know | | Total families | |
|---------------------|-------------------------|------|-------------------------------------|------|--------------------------------------|------|------------|-----|----------------|-------------------------------|
| | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % | Answer "yes" | Having children of school age |
| Non-tourism | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 1 | 50 | 1 | 2 |
| Mixed | 10 | 34.5 | 3 | 10.3 | 6 | 20.7 | 2 | 6.9 | 21 | 29 |
| Tourism | 9 | 75.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 2 | 16.7 | 0 | 0.0 | 11 | 12 |
| Total | 19 | | 3 | | 8 | | 3 | | 33 | 43 |

The remaining reason is “tourism indirectly supports businesses”. This was only answered by 10.3% of families working in mixed tourism and non-tourism. These results suggest that tourism indirectly supports their businesses so that they could afford to send their children to higher education.

Another trend is noticed in the column “don’t know” (see Table 5.9). The less involved in tourism, the higher rate of the response “don’t know”—from 50% of families working in non-tourism to 6.9 % of mixed families and to none of families working in tourism. This indicates that households who are not involved in tourism feel that tourism is less important than those who are close to tourism.

5.2.4 Summation

The survey results have shown that tourism has had a significant effect on villagers in Srah Srang Cheung village. Economically speaking, tourism offers job opportunities to

villagers. Employment in the Srah Srang Cheung village has changed from non-tourism jobs (especially farming and natural resources collectors) to tourism-related jobs (such as souvenirs producing and selling). In addition, the majority of villagers have more than one job (mixed). This leads to the improvement of their living standards. Overall, tourism has economically benefited villagers. It not only provides job opportunities to villagers, working in tourism, but it also indirectly supports business of villagers working indirectly with tourism (see Table 5.2).

Regarding education, the number of children studying decreases from primary to middle intermediate and secondary, while the number of dropout increases. There are a few main reasons for dropping out—poverty, working in souvenirs, and lack of access to school. The more involvement of families in tourism, the lower rate of children studying, and the higher percentage of drop out occurs (see Table 5.7). However, from a closer examination, the relationship between rates of children studying and dropping out, and employment is unclear.

Confirming the unclear result above, the data on opinion on whether “tourism makes children go for higher education” suggests that the more families involved in tourism, the more they feel that tourism helps send their children for higher education (see Table 5.8). Families working in “tourism” think that tourism economically supports them so that they can afford to send them to higher level of education. Indirect support of tourism (tourism makes their children try to study for a good tourism job) is expressed by families working in “non-tourism” jobs. However, the issue will be explained more detail in the interview results.

5.3 Result of the focus group and interviews

5.3.1 The changes from traditional to tourism jobs

To obtain a better understanding on change of jobs, the survey data have been used to inform the focus group and interviews. An interview with a focus group of 15 villagers was conducted to obtain data relating to impacts of tourism in the village. In addition, the researcher interviewed a headman, a commune chief, and an APSARA staff to assess the situation at the local level. A deputy chief of the tourism office was also asked his/her understanding of the situation in regards to tourism management. The

focus group and interviews provide more details and suggest some new results that can be added to survey results. Responding to the first objective, the section addresses changes in employment patterns over the past ten years which have led to quality of life changes for residents.

Fourteen out of 15 focus group participants stated that the villagers worked in agriculture and used the natural resources as part of their lifestyle. Rice cultivation was the main job followed by vegetable and fruit growing. Besides agricultural jobs, they also did some animal husbandry raising (pigs, chickens, ducks and cows). Some others utilised natural resources directly to make their living, including resin and creeper collectors and sellers, firewood collectors, and palm sugar producers. The remainder worked in fishing, local food vending, construction, and vehicle repairs. A villager said:

“Almost everyone worked as farmers and firewood seekers and collectors (before). Very few people worked in other jobs. Some people had two jobs. Farming jobs only needed to work in very specific seasons, so they do some extra jobs such as fishing or firewood seeking and selling. It is different now. Almost everyone works in tourism such as producing and selling souvenirs.”

The commune chief claimed villagers who used to work in non-tourism areas such as farming, have changed or added tourism jobs to make their living. A villager stated that “in the rainy season, people work in the rice field. As soon as this work finished, they move into tourism jobs to get sufficient income for their expenses.” Another villager gave an example of tourism jobs:

“Within tourism, some produce souvenirs, while some others sell locally made and imported products*. They also sell fruits, cakes, desert, and other food and cold drinks. A few people work as temple guards, and park cleaners*. Very few people are employed as motodop*, motor trail drivers, taxi drivers, tour guide, restaurant and hotel staff. In addition to these, some own their own stores and restaurants.”*

***Souvenirs:** flute and flute case, tror (a traditional Cambodia musical instrument with strings similar to guitar), kouch (a musical instrument made from bamboo), drums, souvenir ox carts, wooden stick carving with pictures, wooden statues, wooden bird, cases made from palm leaf and palm leaf fish and star used for key chain.

***Imported products:** postcards, films, and guide books, silk scarves, sun hats, sarong.

***Park cleaner:** people who cut small trees growing on temples and tree branches that may destroy temples or cause danger to tourists, who cut grass, manage the rubbish.

***Motodop:** motor taxi drivers.

The deputy chief of Siem Reap Tourism Office stated that many tourism facilities were created with the development of tourism in the park and in the city of Siem Reap. Hotels and restaurants have opened to meet the demand of tourists. These hotels and restaurants provide jobs to Srah Srang Cheung villagers as construction workers. This is quite a popular job in the village, providing direct tourism employment. One informant of the focus group claimed that:

“Very few people now work in rice field without secondary jobs such as selling or making souvenirs. They cannot survive with only one job. Most of us do farming in rainy season then make souvenirs at home in our free time for children to go to sell at temples close to the village or in some local restaurants in the village. Some people, who have more money, own their own store selling items from small souvenir stuff to more expensive ones (musical instruments and silk scarves).”

People have changed their jobs from traditional to tourism-related jobs for a variety of reasons. Eight-out-of-15 informants from the focus group believed that tourism jobs provided more money than traditional jobs. Tourism jobs are also seen as less labour intensive. A man pointed out that:

“My family were farmers since my grandfather’s generation. We worked really hard on the field without shelter; it was hot, raining, and dirty. Sometimes the harvest was very small. We still lived in poverty. That’s why I decided to make a new business making and selling crafts to tourists. Some tourists were kind; they even gave me more than the price I requested. I don’t work as hard as farming jobs now and get more money.”

The tourism office agreed with the reason raised above and commented that:

“Most local villagers have now changed from farming jobs to tourism jobs because mainly they think that tourism jobs make more profit, and they do. Before they earned less than a dollar a day but now they do business with tourists who have a lot of dollars. They make from a few dollars to hundreds of dollars—depending on season and how good their jobs and businesses are.”

Five-out-of-15 informants from the focus group also agreed that restrictions on local resources and land use are a second crucial reason for changing to tourism jobs. Villagers have been banned from using forest resources. Three-out-of-fifteen villagers from the focus group also complained that they are not allowed to farm on some areas

that they used to work on for generations, as they are claimed to be archaeological sites. A few informants from the focus group complained about the poor quality of the soil and the insufficient irrigation system (depending only on rainwater). These made income from the land insufficient to survive on. This encourages them to look for additional jobs in tourism or to change jobs. An APSARA Authority staff explained that:

“Since Angkor was listed as a World Heritage Site, the APSARA authority has divided the park into five zones. Srah Srang Cheung is located in the core zone which is highly protected in some criteria such as land use and natural resources. The village is in the archaeological zone. That’s the reason they are not allowed to use some land for farming even though it was traditional farming land. Talking about the forest, it is completely banned to keep the park green.”

An informant from focus group raised a point that:

“I used to grow rice on a moat around a temple and a rice field near my house over there. There is some water there. It is good for rice plantation. But now APSARA does not allow me to grow rice in the moat any more. So, only my small rice field is left. Small land, no reliable source of water and poor soil, how can I depend on this? I have more children, but the soil for growing rice is smaller. This has made me do flute cases. Then I buy some flutes and put it in the cases for my children to sell to tourists to get extra money to buy food.”

Collectively, the villagers thought that tourism has changed the village positively and negatively. On the positive side, nearly all informants of the focus group suggested that tourism has developed the village in the right direction. They stressed that tourism provided new jobs, new businesses, and brought better living standards for many people in the village (big houses, new motorbikes). The villagers have learned new skills, such as how to do business with tourists and foreign languages. The commune chief stated that:

“Tourism development helps the government’s poverty alleviation strategy. The village has better beauty in terms of environment. More wells and toilets make people healthier. Even though tourism cannot make all villagers rich, many of them have much better quality of lives.”

Conversely, the deputy chief of Siem Reap tourism office argued that the village is not ready for tourism. He thought villagers obtained little benefit from tourists. In his opinion, tourism provides benefit to only these villagers having tourism businesses. For the poor, they are still poor as they do not have any skills to work in tourism.

In addition to this unequal benefit distribution, six-out-of-15 informants from the focus group expressed concern that:

“Almost all of us depend on tourists. But they do not come to the park every day, only in high season between October and February. In low tourist season, we work on our farms. When there are national problems (eg: election time in 2008, current border problems with Thailand), tourism numbers drop significantly and village income drops accordingly.”

The result from survey shows that many toilets and wells were built (see Figure 5.5). This resulted in economically benefit from tourism. However, the villagers from the focus group stated that these toilets and wells were actually built by a non-governmental organization for them for free. It is not the result of the profit from tourism jobs. However, the headman argued that tourism played a vital role in promoting the village to the world. While visiting the Angkor Park, and seeing the basic needs of the village, donors from a non-governmental organization provided funding to help build toilets and wells for the village.

Five of the focus group members expressed concern that some of them bought motorbike, renovated houses and run small souvenir business with loans from micro finance organisation, banks and relatives. An informant from the focus group provided his experience that: “My neighbour borrowed money from the ACLEDA bank to make business. Now, the number of tourists declines. So, he doesn’t have money to pay to the mortgage.”

Moreover, villagers admit that while they earned more money from tourism jobs, they also needed to spend more. The price of local products has increased significantly. They blamed this price increase on tourism. In addition, the free firewood they used in the village to cook food has been lost due to the restriction on the use of forest. They need to buy firewood or gas for cooking from other villages or Siem Reap town. This cost is extremely expensive for them. They raised the point that they want to plant some trees to use as energy source too, but there is no space to do that. There is a non-governmental organization helping find a solution for that by designing a new cooker that can use rice hay or other small pieces of wood but so far it has not been successful.

One villager said that:

“Before we had more land to produce rice, we didn’t earn much money but the prices of local products such as vegetables, meats and fruits were cheap. Now we have less land to produce rice. We need to buy rice from market to fill the need. Vegetables, meats, fruits ... are expensive because these are used to cook for tourists. For instance, a pine apple which used to cost 500 Reil (USD 0.14) now costs 2000 Riel (USD 0.5). Sometimes we can’t even find pineapples for ourselves in the local market as tourists like them. Look, we need to spend lots more money.”

The survey data showed tourism had good and bad impacts. I wanted to know what the headman thought. I asked a general question about his opinion. The headman told me that in-migration for employment had taken some of the main opportunities of employment and businesses away from the local people. The headman suggested that in-migrant families move to the village in the hope of obtaining better jobs and lifestyles. These migrants were interviewed separately to gain further insight into the relationship between tourism employment and migration.

Because of the increase in tourism, there are around ten families who moved to live permanently in the village. They came from Kampongcham province (nearly 300 kilometers away from the village, a province famous for agricultural products), and Banteaymeanchey (a neighbouring province which shares its border with Thailand).

The result from the interviews shows that the families moved to the village in the period of tourism development. Most of them moved to the village in the early 2000s. The APSARA Authority staff stressed that they were able to move to the village during that time because the law on the protected zones in early 2000s was not fully enforced. She added that the last few years it was impossible for them to do that as the law is implemented thoroughly. The law does not allow local people to sell their properties to outsiders.

The results from the interview with these in-migrants show that they worked as farmers, tailors, rice sellers, barber, hairdressers, and doctors. Farmers accounted for the majority of the employment. They moved to the village because they expected that this village would offer better jobs with more money (in the tourism sector). These migrants changed their jobs to tourism-related jobs such as souvenir producers

and sellers, and construction workers. Some others still work in their former occupations, such as barbers, hairdressers and family doctors, because they found that the village needs these skills which previously did not exist. Although they are not tourism jobs, they believe that their jobs are impacted by tourism.

Farmers and skilled migrants work differently when they moved into the village. For those who worked as farmers, they changed their jobs to tourism jobs after moving to Srah Srang Cheung village. The headman stressed that these migrants cannot do farming any more due to the fact that do not have any entitlement to farming land in the area and that they intended to work in tourism. He suggested that these migrants do not bring any skills or knowledge to contribute to the village, but they take job opportunities from local people.

For skilled migrants, they maintained their previous occupations. They claim that the reason for moving to the village was because they saw the gaps where local people do not have their skills. The migrants, who work as barbers, suggest that barbers did not exist in the village before they started this profession. Similarly, the migrant who worked as a family doctor illustrates that there was no doctor in the village before. When health problems occurred, people used traditional treatments which were dangerous in some cases. In more serious cases, sick people were brought to hospitals in the city. Because of this inconvenience and gap for this profession, he moved to the village to start the career. This suggests that these skilled migrants are necessary to fill the gap of employment areas which local people are not able to work in. However, they admit that they are attracted by tourism development. They expected that the development of tourism in the area will lead to better living conditions of local people who will use their services. Thus, tourism is expected to provide an indirect benefit for them.

Besides in-migrants who come from other provinces to live in the village, there are some others who do not live permanently in the village but they come from Siem Reap city, which is around 15 kilometres away from Srah Srang Cheung. They own some souvenir stores and restaurants. Some in-migrants expressed their concerns that some local villagers are not happy when they make more money than the locals. However, most of them said that they never have any problems with local people.

The headman stated that there are seven large restaurants on the main street of the village. Four of them are run by local villagers, while the other three are operated by temporary migrants (people from the city who travel to work in the village everyday). He added that there are 34 stalls — two food stalls and 32 souvenir stalls — located between the Srah Srang pool and Banteay Kdey temple. These stalls are run by only 28 owners. This means that some owners have more than one stall. These small-scale business people are from Srah Srang Cheung village (7 people) and Srah Srang Tbong village (20 people) (a neighbouring village of Srah Srang Cheung). The remaining one owner is an in-migrant. The commune chief suggested that these temporary migrants usually make more money from tourism in the village. These migrants are the types of business people who bring with large amount of money to invest. Therefore, it is hard for local people who have little capital to compete. Furthermore, the profit these in-migrants makes leak out of the village, as they do not have any expenditure in the village, but in the Siem Reap city.

The headman expresses his concern that:

“Many people from the Siem Reap city come to work and to run businesses in tourism in the village. These people earn more money than local people because they have more money to invest (bigger stalls and restaurants). So, it is hard for local people to compete due to the lack of capital. In addition, these investors do not spend their money in the village. They take all of the profit to Siem Reap city. However, every restaurant employs around ten villagers.”

5.3.2 Child labour in tourism and children’s education

To respond to the issue, both educational and tourism management of the village and the province were interviewed. The local and provincial levels of educational institute consist of two teachers, a principle of Srah Srang primary school, and a chief of Siem Reap education office. In addition, the deputy chief of the tourism office and a staff of APSARA Authority were also asked to comment on the relationship between tourism and education in the village. According to the teachers, the number of absent students increases when tourism develops. Previously, the absentee rate was low as children did not have many jobs opportunities. Before tourism development, children had some basic jobs such as cattle farming, helping the family to do agriculture work, finding firewood, and fishing.

A teacher mentioned that:

“Previously teenage students needed to go to school or faced military duty. But since our country has become peaceful and with the advent of tourism, they work for money to survive, they go to sell souvenirs and forget school.”

The highest school absentee rate used to be during farming season, but now occurs during high tourist season. This means children previously disappeared from school in farming seasons (which specifically falls into two particular times namely, rice growing (May-July) and rice harvesting (November- February)). In the early stage of rainfall (May) in Cambodia, children start to avoid school in order to help with rice growing of their parents. In rice harvesting time, they leave school again to provide labour for rice harvesting. With tourism development, the peak season occurs from November to March (see Table 3.5). Thus, the rice harvesting time and peak tourism relatively fall into the same months. A teacher commented that: “The school is so quiet when many of tourists come to visit the park. It is very different from ten years ago when children did not come to school in rainy season and harvesting period.”

Twelve informants claim that children currently work as souvenir sellers and helping the family to produce handicrafts, such as the flute cases. Besides being souvenir sellers and producers, they also sell postcards, guidebooks, and food and drinks. Interviewees agree that most of children now are not involved in farming work anymore but in tourism. For example:

“Most of children work in tourism now. It is rare to see children working as cattleman as it is hot and they don't make any money. Probably, only one in ten still works in farming jobs. Even small children are taken by their parents to the temples in the morning and picked up in the evenings so that they can sell souvenirs, postcards and guide books there. Some children guide tourists around the temples expecting some tips. Some others help produce souvenirs at home such as flute case.”

A teacher explained that tourism employment contributes to school dropout rates. Some students enjoy making money from tourism and choose to forget school, while some others are “forced” by parents to go to work in other to earn some money for their living. Some interviewees claim that they stop studying to help family with

business because they understand the situation of the family who needs help from them in peak season. A teacher said that:

“In high season, some parents come to me and ask for permission for their kids to go to temples to sell souvenirs, postcards and guidebooks for a few days because they don’t have money even to buy rice to cook for daily life.”

A villager from the focus group stated that “I produce souvenirs at home. I cannot sell it to tourists because I don’t speak English. I depend on my children to sell these products.” In addition to this gentle pressure on children, some parents threaten physical abuse in order to force their children to make money. Without money to return home in the evening, they would be hurt physically. An APSARA staff illustrated that: “I saw a mother bringing a few of her kids to temples to sell souvenirs and picking them up in the evening. When someone didn’t make any profit, she hurt him or her with a wooden stick sometimes.”

Note that 60% of villagers in the Angkor Park live under the poverty line (see Section 3.3.2). This high rate of poverty exists because Cambodia was a war-torn country until the first election was held in 1990s (see Section 3.2.1). This poverty links closely with education. Thirteen focus group participants agree that poverty is the main reason for preventing children from going to school. This poverty plays a significant role as the root cause of child labor in tourism sector. With hunger, survival rather than education is the key focus.

In addition to tourism and poverty, the long distance from school is responsible for a proportion of the dropout rate. Ten informants say that there is only one primary school (see Figure 5.8) in the village and children drop out of schools because they cannot afford to go to nearest secondary school (located in the city of Siem Reap, 40 minutes away by bikes). The long distance from school is seen as one of the main barriers to access higher education.

However, the education office claimed that the dropout rate has declined gradually over time. In the hope of enhancing educational quality and quantity, there are some strategies that the education office as well as the local school is trying to adopt. The education office claimed that the office is building more schools to avoid illiteracy. For

instance: “...before, children walked a long distance to schools, but now we are bringing schools to the students...”

Figure 5. 8 The only primary school in the village



(Photo by author)

Besides school construction, there is another strategy called “Komarmetrey”—in Khmer language which literally means “adorable schools for children”. It is believed that a more friendly school environment will attract children to study and to spend time at school to do some sports or to play in playgrounds with friends. In addition, some slogans are written to remind parents about the importance of education. For instance: “Sending children to school is to save money for them in the early age.” And “Education is the key to career success in the future.”

Practically, teachers and schools try to be flexible with time for students. Students can change time from morning to afternoon classes and vice versa in case they are busy with helping housework or jobs. Some children, who stop studying for a while, can be accepted to resume their education. A teacher said that: “Some students stop for a semester or a year, and then come back to school. This is possible because the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports of Cambodia encourage students who still want to study.”

These educational strategies are effective in combating the dropout rate. Even though it is not totally effective, significant changes are noticeable. Teachers suggested that without these policies, the rate of dropout would be much higher. However, the lack of middle school in the village still causes children to drop out.

Furthermore, corruption is suggested to be another barrier preventing children from going to school. It is advised that corruption is linked strongly with poverty. Eight focus group members complained that corruption occurred in class. Children need to pay teachers for extra classes every day. Even though it is not compulsory, teachers make it hard for students who do not pay for the extra class. A villager commented that:

“We are poor; we don’t even have enough money for food; where can we get money for children to go to school. Although the government claims that education is free for everybody, but children still need to pay for teacher every day. My son stopped going to school because I don’t have money for his extra class.”

Regarding the dropout from corruption, two informants from the focus group explained the process leading to drop out. They said that teachers usually add an additional hour or 30 minutes of extra class on the normal school hours. This additional class sounds positive but students need to pay. It is not the policy of education, but it is widespread in lower education. Even though the extra class is not compulsory, teachers make it hard for students who do not attend the class.

First, the additional class creates gaps between students who attend and those who cannot afford to attend as the tutoring class teaches what is not taught in the mainstream class. This brings difficulties to the mainstream teachers requiring them to slow down or to spend more time explaining the points to consolidate the poor students in the class or to satisfy the more outstanding students. It is more likely that the poor students will be left behind in the class without any care whether or not they are able to learn anything from the class they are attending. It can be inferred that students who do not attend the tutoring class will never be able to catch up with the class. As a result, this discourages students in coming to school which later will result in more dropouts.

Secondly, some teachers persuade children to ask for money from their parent to pay for the class. Without money for the class, they are treated unfairly. Teachers provide

more opportunities to those who pay for the class by offering good marks and no punishment. The poor students are treated in the opposite way. They do not obtain good mark even though they do good work in the exam. This is another discouragement of coming to school. Finally, this discouragement results in dropouts.

Tourism, education and child labour in the park have a strong tie. Tourism brings both positive and adverse impacts to children's education. From the positive point of view, the deputy chief of Siem Reap tourism office illustrated that children can resume their education after they can afford to pay for their own school fee. They can go to private school to study skills or languages (English, Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and French). They can also practice foreign languages with native speakers. This enables them to learn languages quickly. Many students can manage to work and study. Money from work is used for educational purposes, specifically for paying extra classes and buying uniforms, textbooks and notebooks, and other materials for students. Due to better living standard of some families, they can afford to buy motorbikes for their children to go to school. Skilled tourism jobs also encourage students to study hard in the hope of obtaining a good tourism job in the future. Supporting the opinion of the deputy chief of Siem Reap tourism office, an informant from the focus group stated that:

“My son speaks a few languages now, English, Japanese and Chinese. He learns it from selling postcards to tourist. With money from this, now he goes to private school to study more. Without tourism, he would not be able to obtain this education because we are really poor. We cannot afford to go to higher education.”

Besides these direct influences on tourism employment, the chief of the Siem Reap Education Office claimed that tourism promotes the park as well as the village to tourists and the world. This promotion leads to direct help from tourists and international organizations to individual poor students and schools in the form of human resource training (scholarship awards), sanitation (e.g. training for children to wash hands) and school buildings. A teacher said that: “A Korean group is helping to build a new building of a few classrooms and they are offering lunch to around 50 poor students every day.”

From a negative angle, a teacher claimed that tourism contributes to low class attendance, which leads to low quality of education and eventually to dropping out.

Many children are interested in short-term money. Instead of going to school, they go to work. Some of them enjoy making money, and too much social life, which results in low class attendance. This is the cause of low quality of education. As soon as the children feel they cannot follow other students, they decide to stop permanently.

Furthermore, seven-out-of-15 informants from the focus group agreed that tourism jobs do not always offer profit to children who directly work on the site. They need to pay some fee to access to the place where business activities with tourists happen. The access fee is too expensive. In low season, children cannot sell their products. Some children cannot make money because they do not speak foreign languages. One villager of the focus group raised the point that:

“Policemen take too much money. Sometimes my children don’t even make enough money to pay for them. They take USD 30 monthly. Some days, not many tourists come to visit. So, my children cannot make enough money to pay for the fee. Some other days, my children don’t even make a single cent. We work hard, but they get money easily.”

5.3.3 Summation

The interview results confirm that villagers have become involved significantly in tourism jobs to improve their income. Interviewees suggested that tourism jobs provide higher income and are less labour intensive. Tourism is even claimed (by the commune chief) to help with the government’s poverty alleviation strategies.

Some challenges were found—inflation, seasonality and in-migrants. However, inflation is the only negative impacts. Most of villagers have two jobs (mixed). They can work in farming in low season. This helps alleviate difficulties they face in low season. Regarding in-migrants, although some in-migrants take job opportunities from villagers, but some others run their own businesses which provides jobs to villagers.

The focus group and interview results show more weight on the positive relationships between tourism and education rather than negative. The main root cause of children dropout is poverty, which encourages children to go to work rather than to school. Without tourism jobs, these children are believed to work in other sectors which are far more hazardous.

However, it is necessary to conduct observation to confirm the improvement of living standards and child labour. A result from survey shows that villagers have not yet save money although other economic impacts are positive. Thus, the researcher conducted observations on the changes in household equipment and house renovation to compare results from the surveys and interviews and also researched differences between child labour in tourism and children’s education.

5.4 Observation

Figure 5. 9 Tourist buses and tourists in front of restaurants in the village



(Photos by author)

Observation was conducted to clarify the results from the surveys and the interviews. This observation covers three issues—employment, changes in living standard, and the relationship between tourism employment and children’s education. The data from this observation will be compared with the researcher’s knowledge of the village from the first visit ten years ago.

The main road of Srah Srang Cheung village runs along the ancient pool “Srah Srang”. The view of the pool has led to the creation of restaurants, which mainly focus on tourists. During lunch time, tourists seek a restaurant after visiting temples close to the

village. Furthermore, tour guides and bus drivers also bring tourists who have visited other temples to have their lunch along this street (see Figure 5.9).

5.4.1 Employment

Confirming the survey data (see Figure 5.1), the observation data shows that traditional jobs, such as sugar palm producing, chamka farming (vegetable and fruits), rice farming, and livestock farming, are still practiced by local people. Villagers continue to use the traditional way of rice cultivation and vegetable and fruit growing such as ground plough by using animals and manual farming. These manual jobs are labour intensive.

Figure 5. 10 Local market of Srah Srang Cheung



(Photos by author)

There is a small local market in the border of Srah Srang Cheung village and Rohal village (see Figure 5.10). The market provides a venue to buy and sell necessary goods for daily life. It is where jobs are available for local people, especially woman to sell vegetables, fruit, meat, and drinks. However, the majority of people are involved in tourism jobs such as producing souvenirs at home and selling souvenirs at nearby temples (both locally made and imported), food and drinks, and working as drivers (see Figure 5.1).

Figure 5. 11 Palm leaf and wooden souvenirs



(Photos by author)

There are three main locations for tourism jobs. Firstly, villagers produce souvenirs such as wood carving, flute, and palm leaf souvenirs made at home in the village (see Figure 5.11). Most the women produce palm leaf souvenirs while cooking. Secondly, several large restaurants are found on the main road in along the Srah Srang pool (see Figure 5.9). Thirdly, some souvenir and food stalls exist between Banteay Kdey temple and Srah Srang pool. The first group employs only local dwellers, while the second and third are mixed (migrants or outsiders and local people). In the morning, some of stall owners come to the stalls by motorbikes and go back in the evening. This means that they are not staying in the village but they may come from somewhere not very far because they return home every day.

The result from this observation is different from what was seen in my first visit of village ten years ago. In the first visit, very few villagers were seen producing souvenirs in their houses. Most of them worked in rice farming, collecting firewood, taking resin.

Women were seen doing housework, especially cooking and washing clothes. Restaurants on the main street did not exist before due to the number of tourists being very few. Similarly, souvenir stalls between the pool and Banteay Kdey temple did not exist.

5.4.2 Changes of living standard

Walking through the village again during the field research, the researcher noticed a number of differences from ten years ago. One of the obvious aspects is houses. About half of total houses in the village have changed in structure. They have been renovated from wooden houses with only columns down to the ground floors, to mixed-brick-and-wood houses (see Figure 5.5). I noticed that bricks are added later to make rooms on the ground floor. These brick rooms are used to keep things which are too heavy to bring to the first floor.

In addition, villagers use batteries as energy for electronic products such as lights, radio, and television. Many batteries were seen in the battery recharge centre in the village. About half of houses in the village have TV aerials. This suggests that about half of villagers have television. It was also seen that a few houses have replaced batteries with generators. These were other changes. The village used to use only oil or resin to light up houses. Very few television aerials were seen. A battery recharge centre did not exist. The differences between the first and the last observation show the improvement of living standards in the village. With tourism development, the lives of villagers have changed significantly.

5.4.3 Child labour in tourism and children's education

Visiting the village, I observed that children worked in direct tourism jobs. They made and sold souvenirs, such as small fish for key chains and flute packages which were made from palm leaves (Figure 5.12), while adults and old people worked on flutes and wood carvings. This is different from ten years ago. Children used to help families do housework and livestock farming.

Along the main road where restaurants exist, some children look for tourists who intend to find a place for meals (see Figure 5.12). The ages of both girls and boys range from around 3 to 13 years old. Some small children do not even dress in any clothes,

but hold some souvenirs such as post cards, palm leaf fish, or flutes. Children usually approach tourists and ask if tourists want to buy some souvenirs by insisting that they need money to go to school or to feed their family.

Figure 5. 12 Children selling souvenirs to tourists



(Photos by author)

Besides working near the restaurants, children usually head for temples where the main attractions of tourists are located. They sell souvenirs with the addition of cold drinks to tourists as the result of warm climate. Those who sell these things in the temples are usually around 10 to 17 years of age. They can go far from their houses using different means of transportation. Some of them come with friends by bikes, while some walk. Others are dropped there by their parents who will come to pick them up in the evening. It was noticed that a group of children went to the field to work with student uniform (see Figure 5.12). This is a result of two assumptions. Firstly, they might come to work after school or go to school after work. Secondly, they might take the study time to work for money.

5.4.4 Summation

The observation confirmed that tourism has improved life significantly in Srah Srang Cheung village. The village hosts a number of tourists who provide income for villagers through jobs and investments. Souvenir stalls and restaurants are run by a mix of villagers and outsiders who permanently live in the Siem Reap city. These two types of businesses are the most popular and beneficial as a significant number of tourists buy souvenirs and have a meal in the restaurants. Even though some villagers still practice

traditional farming jobs, villagers count significantly on tourism as the main source of income.

The quality of life of villagers has changed in the last ten years. Villagers have upgraded their houses by putting more bricks to build rooms on the ground floor, which used to be outdoor living spaces. The villagers have changed from using oil and resin to light their houses to batteries. A few villagers have also bought their own generators to use as energy. The batteries and generators enable villagers to use more electronic products such as televisions. This was evident by all the aerials are on the roofs of the houses. Economically speaking, these results demonstrate the improvement of the villagers living standards.

Regarding the relationship between tourism employment and children's education, the observations confirm that children are working in the tourism sector. They interact directly with tourists on the main street of the village in front of the restaurants. They urge tourists to buy their products by claiming that they need money to go to school. Some children are seen working in tourism with their school uniforms. This suggests that they may come to work before or after the school hours or may not go to school but come to work for money.

Overall, although some adverse impacts from tourism occur in the Srah Srang Cheung village, results from the surveys, interviews, and observations shows that tourism's positive impacts are far more significant, specifically (1) supporting changes of employment from traditional to tourism-related jobs and (2) supporting children's education. Firstly, villagers who used to work in farming are now involved more in tourism. This involvement allows most of them to have two jobs which improves their living standards— through more comfortable transportation, toilets, wells, house renovation and other household appliances such as televisions, and batteries and generators to light houses. Seasonality and migration issues, which are usually cited negatively, are not the issue in this village. Seasonality does not significantly impact the village due to the fact that the majority of people have two jobs (mixed). Half of in-migrants take job opportunities but other in-migrants create more job opportunities than the villagers lose through investment on restaurants.

In terms of the negative impacts of tourism on children's education, it is evident that the sector contributes to the low rate of children studying and the high rate of children dropping out from school. However, upon a closer look, tourism does not make children drop out of school, but encourages them to go for higher education and skill training. Poverty is the key reason to send children to work in tourism. In addition to poverty, lack of a middle/intermediate school is also another reason responsible for children dropping out. Conversely, tourism helps support education (in the form of repairing the primary school building, and providing food to poor students) through donation from tourists visiting the Angkor Park. With money from tourism jobs, children can further their education in the city in addition to learning languages from tourists that they can use in their jobs.

In general tourism has economically and socio-economically benefited the village. These positive impacts will be compared and contrasted with literature in the next chapter (Discussion Chapter) to provide a better understanding of tourism's impacts on Sras Srang Cheung village.

CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSION

6.1 Introduction

Chapter 6 discusses theoretical and previous research contexts relating to the changes of traditional jobs to tourism jobs, and the relationship between child labour in tourism and children's education. The chapter also summarizes the methodological approach conducted to meet the objectives. The previous research contexts and methodological approaches from Chapter 2 allow the researcher to discuss, to compare and to contrast with Chapters 4 and 5. After comparing and contrasting, this chapter will evaluate whether the impacts of tourism are positive or negative for the village.

6.2 Change from traditional to tourism jobs

The survey and interview results showed most of the Sras Srang Cheung villagers were involved in tourism jobs (see Figure 5.2). Villagers considered tourism jobs as the main source to provide income. Similarly, Godfrey and Clarke (2000) also claim that tourism development results in changes from traditional to tourism jobs due to the attraction of better income.

Ung (2003) suggests that tourism development in the Angkor Park has changed employment of Trapeing Sesh villagers from rice farming, to tourism related jobs. In addition, Ung (2003) also identified that tourism created employment opportunities which was considered to be a negative social impact, such as begging and prostitution (in the form of Karaoke girl). These negative types of employment were not observed in Srah Srang Cheung village.

This result of changing employment was confirmed by observation as it was seen that many villagers currently work in tourism. This suggests that tourism development has provided job opportunities to the village of Srah Srang Cheung. This result is supported by research from other cases that found that job opportunities are often provided by tourism development for local people (Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996; Harrison & Schipani, 2007; Kaosa-ard, 2005; Wattanakuljarus & Coxhead, 2008).

Like tourism development in the Nacula Tikina in Fiji (Kerstetter & Bricker, 2009), this result also showed that tourism played an important role in promoting local crafts,

ranging from palm leave weaving to wood carving. From observation results, many villagers made crafts at home throughout the entire village (see Figure 5.11) to meet the demand of tourists. Crafts are souvenirs that tourists buy for friends and families. Although imported souvenirs were seen during the observation stage, they are different from the crafts villagers produce. Imported souvenirs are mass production. Machines are used to replace manual work. These souvenirs are mostly made by garment such as scarves, clothes, and handbags. Differently, villagers produce handmade souvenirs such as wood carvings and palm leave birds for keychain (see Figure 5.11). Thus, there is no substantial competition.

Contrastingly, Mbaiwa (2003) argued that tourism development in Okavango Delta, Northwestern Botswana, did not encourage local crafts and stressed that most of the tourism products including souvenirs were imported from South Africa or Zimbabwe. Upchurch and Teivane (2000) argued that tourism brought negative impacts on crafts of the local people in Riga, Latvia as it made the price of local crafts decline. Thus, craft making provides good job opportunities to villagers if the imported souvenirs are thoroughly controlled.

Similar to the research in Plai Pong Pang village, Samutsongkram province, Thailand by Kantamaturapoj (2005), this research found that more than half of the villagers had tourism jobs that added to the existing farming jobs. The survey and interview results suggested that tourism provided additional chances for them to make more money after the farming season was over. Research in Kedewatan Village Indonesia, also showed that tourism did not only create additional jobs, but also encouraged villagers to reshape the goals of existing businesses to include tourists as their target market (Cukier, Norris, & Wall, 1996).

In addition, tourism not only created direct tourism jobs but also established indirect tourism jobs (such as construction workers for hotels in the region), and informal jobs (such as hawkers who sell souvenirs, crafts, t-shirt, flute and palm leave weaving) (see Figure 5.1). Likewise, research from South Africa showed that tourism provided 516,000 new indirect jobs in 1998 (Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004). Secondly, the informal jobs found in the research were supported by another survey in Indonesia

which showed that almost several hundred hawkers were employed in informal tourism jobs (Nuryanti, 1996 as cited in Hampton, 2005).

Research in Vietnam by Thai (2002) illustrated that tourism in Vietnam provided villagers with an opportunity to have their own shops selling as tea or coffee, and stalls selling cold drinks. Similarly, tourism development in Srah Srang Cheung village also encourages chances of self-employment. Villagers run their small investments such as souvenir stalls, food stalls in local markets, and restaurants. This context is also supported by Cukier et al. (1996), who showed that people in Bali, Indonesia, operated small family businesses that included a small art shop, souvenir and silver shops. They also showed that those self-employed people were usually female and that the businesses tended to be in front of their houses. In this situation, women were able to combine housework, such as childcare, with business. The result from this research suggested different ways of organizing self-employed business. People tended to produce crafts at home or in souvenir stalls, which were not in the village but near temples and along the main road as tourists did not go into the village. Although they had different ways of doing business from villagers in Bali, the majority of businesses were run by women as found in Bali.

A number of important reasons exist regarding the changes from traditional jobs to tourism jobs. One of the most significant reasons is that villagers believe tourism jobs make more money compared to farming. This was voted by 33-out-of-60 respondents (see Figure 5.3). Supporting the idea of tourism making more money, the interview with tourism office suggested that villagers earned double or more in tourism. Ninety-six percent of people in Samos, one of the largest Greek islands, desired tourism jobs as it improved their personal income and living standards (Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996). This research also explained that this strong support took place because most of respondents worked in tourism.

Adding to income from tourism, the interviewees suggested that tourism employment demanded less intensive labour. Unlike traditional farming jobs, villagers needed to use physical power to do rice cultivation. Farming in Srah Srang Cheung village is not as handy as farming jobs in developed countries in which machines are mainly used instead of manpower. Conversely, local people still use traditional ways of doing

farming such as using animals to plough the ground and cultivate rice manually. This farming style involves a long process and is labour intensive compared to modern methods. Tourism employment is a services based industry requiring more skills rather than manpower. Through contact with tourists, villagers learn languages, which are useful for communicating with tourists. Besides languages, tourism also improves craft making skills for local people. Therefore, tourism is not only an income provider but also assists in skills training.

It is important to note that not all people were attracted by tourism but changed their jobs due to political pressure. Ten-out-of-60 households mentioned that they had no choice as it was pressure from government, specifically from APSARA Authority, who put limits on some traditional jobs such as firewood collection and farming in specific areas (archaeological sites) (see Figure 5.3). The interviewees mentioned that the irrigation system was not developed to transport water to their fields. Villagers depended largely on rainwater. With such pressure, they needed to change or find additional jobs as they could not feed their family from the poor irrigation system and very limited area for farming. With the shortage of farming land, limitation of natural resources, poor irrigation system, and poor soil, villagers had no option but to find new jobs in the tourism sector. The researcher has not found any studies suggesting that the limitation of agricultural employment and of using natural resources as careers was the reason for changing from traditional jobs to tourism jobs.

Despite the decrease in traditional jobs, 46-out-of-60 households are still working in farming, while 58-out-of-60 households have tourism jobs. This means 42 out of 60 households have mixed tourism and farming jobs (see Figure 5.2). However, the focus group realized that farming jobs did not represent the main jobs in the village any more. They still worked in farming but they did not earn enough from farming to support the family due to the small space of farming land, poor irrigation, and poor soil. Poor irrigation suggested that the government was not supporting agriculture anymore and was more interested in tourism to improve the village.

Due to the development of tourism, some countries have shaped their policies to favor tourism and ignore other sectors, including agriculture (Ashley, Boyd, & Goodwin, 2000; Godfrey & Clarke, 2000; Lea, 2001). The policies affect employment tendencies

which lead to the changes from agriculture to tourism. In Baab Tawai, Thailand, 90% of respondents agreed that tourism made them change from agriculture to tourism jobs and suggested that it was a negative impact for the village (Huttasin, 2008).

Although it was shown that traditional employment was still practiced in the village, some specific traditional jobs had disappeared due to the pressure from APSARA Authority to limit the use of natural resources such as firewood collecting, creeper seeking and resin taking. Therefore, tourism employment became the main focus in the village for the local economy.

To evaluate the changes of jobs in Sras Srang Cheung, the researcher also conducted an opinion survey regarding tourism support and level of satisfaction of job opportunities, living standard, and development of facilities in the village. Almost all villagers supported tourism and suggested that tourism brought more job opportunities, higher living standard, and better development of the village (see Figure 5.4). The majority of villagers supported tourism, as they believed that tourism provided them direct and indirect financial support for their lives. In Komodo National Park, Indonesia, 92.7 % of respondents also indicated their strong support for tourism and stated that they were happy to see more tourists as they provided opportunities for their children to work (Walpole & Goodwin, 2002).

A pilot project administered by the Arizona Department of Commerce on several communities in Arizona supported these result and suggested that all communities' residents thought tourism positively influenced community development and quality of life (Andereck & Vogt, 2000). In addition Andereck and Vogt (2000) also stressed that most of villagers disagreed that tourism had negative consequences on the communities. Likewise, a study of three areas in Cyprus showed similar results in which almost all respondents identified that tourism attracted more investment and spending and made living standard of local people increase considerably (Akis et al., 1996). In case of Urgup in Turkey, research showed that about half of respondents lent their support for tourism development and reported that tourism improved their quality of life and image of the area (Tosun, 2002).

Besides analyzing the opinions of local residents about tourism, the measurement of physical benefits from tourism was also by inventorying changes in local people's

properties such as toilets, wells, house renovation, and vehicles. In rural Cambodia, the status of the rich and the poor can be identified by the facilities in their houses (such as toilets and source of water such as wells) and vehicles. This means that if they have a motorbike, they live in middle class society while those who own cars are considered wealthy. Specifically, the survey showed that over ten years (1999-2009), the number of toilets, wells and house renovation increased dramatically in the village (see Figure 5.5). Similarly, the number of vehicles, especially motorbike and cars also showed significant increase (see Figure 5.6).

These results supported the opinions of local people in the village who mentioned that tourism provided income for local people through employment and business. It was assumed that this income provided money to build toilets, wells, to repair houses and buy vehicles. Thus, it is possible that tourism provides better quality of lives of villagers.

The interview revealed that not all of income from tourism employment and businesses was responsible for the better quality of life. The interviewees claimed that the increase in number of wells and toilets did not relate to tourism employment at all. The infrastructure and facilities for the villagers were built under projects funded by foreign donors. However, the headman argued that tourism still played a role in this development as it promoted the village to the world and allowed the world to see that there was a need for the improvement in the village.

In addition, bank loans were identified as supporting the increase in number of house renovation, and vehicles. Interviewees reported that some villagers could not afford to pay all for their house renovation by money from tourism. They borrowed money from some micro-finances (AMRIT), banks (ACLIDA Bank) and relatives. Similarly, the increase in number of motorbikes and cars were also a result of loans. From the interview results, loans not only were used to repair houses and buy vehicles, but also provided the capital for small-scale investment such as souvenir stalls. The loans resulted in the improvements of the village. Similarly, in Borobudur heritage site in Indonesia, Hampton (2005) illustrated that capital for small scale businesses was lent to entrepreneurs by close relatives who saved money by selling vegetables.

Tourism is a seasonal industry (Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Butler, 2001; Godfrey & Clarke, 2000; Horner & Swarbrooke, 2004). The local people meet difficulties, as soon as tourists do not come to the area, for whatever reason (Lea, 2001). Espejo (2009) and Mathieson and Wall (1982) argued that there are rapid changes in tourism. Even though tourism was growing dramatically as a global trend, it changes unpredictably from external factors including fatal diseases, unstable politic situations, and economic crises.

In Angkor Park as well as Srah Srang Cheung village, the peak tourist season is only from November to March (see Table 3.5). The focus group and interviews with tourism office and the APSARA Authority staff suggested that tourism is a seasonal industry. Local people face difficulties in low season. External factors, such as unstable politics (Cambodian-Thai border conflict, and election), disease and economic crisis, discourage tourists from traveling. The impacts from globalisation of tourism make it economically hard for villagers in their small-scale tourism businesses, especially for those who borrowed money from banks.

Tosun (2002) showed negative impacts from the seasonality of tourism in Urgup and argued that villagers were employed to work in most tourism related businesses such as hotels from three to five months only. After this period, they were laid off for the other months. However, villagers from focus groups of this research said that they worked in the rice fields in the low season. Discussed earlier, 42-out-of-60 households had two jobs (mixed). This suggested that seasonality of tourism did not affect the villages tremendously.

In-migration is another issue necessary to take into account. Results from interviews suggested that tourism development, which provided opportunities of employment, has attracted people to migrate into the village. This result was supported by research in Bali by Turker (2007) who suggested that after tourism industry grew under the slogan "Visit Bali is a must", a hundred thousand Indonesians moved from other parts of the county to work in Bali and the majority of them established informal businesses relating to handicrafts.

Slightly different from Srah Srang Cheung village, Gössling and Schulz (2005) stated that a small numbers of local people worked as crafts sellers in Zanzibari, while those

jobs employed up to 70% of migrants who moved to the village. The interviews suggested that the impacts of in-migrants are not as important as issue as zoning regulations which has imposed a strict ban on in-migrants to the village. Positively, some in-migrants brought their skills, which helped improve the village due to the skill shortages.

Similar to the results of this research, migrants fill gaps in village services, which are not provided by local residents (Gossling & Schulz, 2005; Williams & Hall, 200b). Hitchcock et al. (1993) found that the tourism sector skilled labour shortages in tourism in the Asia-Pacific. Specifically, the Indonesian government was blamed for the lack of local human resources which led to a need for skilled migrants from other areas. Local residents did not provide an international standard of training to meet the need for international services required by tourists. Research by Esichaikul and Baum (1998) also showed that Thailand had a lack of human resources due to poor training. These studies illustrate how migrants were needed necessary to fill employment opportunities in the tourism sector.

Evidence from Cambodia by Virak (n.d.) showed that the majority of districts that have had an increased rate of employment also had an increased rate of in-migration. Specifically, in the tourist province of Siem Reap, Cambodia, many migrants moved into the province to work in both direct tourism jobs (staffs in hotels and restaurants) and indirect tourism jobs (hotel construction laborers) (Ballard, 2005). The research also identified that construction labourers were usually from villages nearby. However, these jobs were low status jobs.

The headman stated that three restaurants and a souvenir stall were run by in-migrants. On one hand, these in-migrants spend the money out of the village. This is a form of economic leakage as money leaves the local economy. If the money was spent locally, the money would have a multiplier effect on local economy. Local restaurants do employ a number of local villagers providing a small multiplier effect.

Botswana provides a good example of leakage. Mbaiwa (2005) claims that the private sector provides the majority of tourism facilities. These private investments attract up to 79% of foreign investors. The foreign investors illustrate the economic leakage but also the loss of local control resulting in adverse impacts on the communities in the

future. Sathiendrakumar and Tisdell (1989) explained that in Malé, Maldives, about half of the tourist expenditure leaked out of the county. The money was spent on imported food, drinks, oil products, sport and souvenirs and general supplies. Mbaiwa, (2005) summarized that tourists paid a high cost for tourism products, but this expenditure was not injected into the country's economy. In Fenghuang County, China, research conducted by Feng, (2008) showed that tourism generated job opportunities, yet there was very little profitability for local people. Most of the profit went to outside investors. The flow of money away from the village made this village dependent on outside capital.

From the discussion, it is inferred that the situation of in-migrants in Srah Srang Cheung village is not as bad in comparison to the literature discussed above. The number of in-migrants are still small in number. Villagers do not feel that these in-migrants create any problems for them but provide employment opportunities.

Interviewees claimed that tourism was a root cause for the increase in the price of commodities, which were demanded by both tourists and local people. The focus group admitted earning more money compared to past traditional jobs, but the prices of commodities also increased remarkably. The price increase was caused by tourism development in the village. Commodities which were used by local people were also used by and for tourists. Due to the high demand of tourists, these commodities increased in price.

Research on local attitudes towards tourism in the protected area around Komodo National Park, Indonesia by Walpole and Goodwin (2002) confirmed that inflation had resulted from tourism development. Half of the respondents complained that tourism had caused the prices of goods and transport services to increase. Similarly, Tadoussac, situated near Saguenay River, Canada, had experienced an increase in cost of living once the development of tourism started in 1991 (Fortin & Gagnon, 2002). Research comparing three communities in Cyprus provided stronger evidence of inflation in the three tourism areas studied. The statement "prices are increasing because of tourism" was agreed to by 73.5%, 90.5%, and 92% of residents from Kyrenia, Paralimni, and Ayia Napa in Cyprus respectively (Akis et al., 1996). The research also added that around 50% of respondents from each community indicated that tourism provided benefits to

only a small group of people. In contrast, Upchurch and Teivane (2000) found that tourism development in Latvia, Riga contributed to the decline of price of goods and services in the community.

Saving rates of villagers is an area which had not yet shown improvement in Srah Srang Cheung village. However, as shown earlier, villagers have spent more on vehicles, house renovation and other equipment such as television, batteries, and generators (see Section 5.4.2). This lack of savings does not reflect the increase in their living standards.

Overall, inflation was an area which was found to be negative. However, villagers still strongly believe that tourism has brought an improvement in their living standards (see Table 5.3). In addition, they indicated that tourists provide them with economical benefits (see Table 5.2). Research in seven communities in United States found that local people were aware of the negative impacts from tourism, but they still supported tourism development (Andreck & Vogt, 2000). In a similar manner, the villagers in Srah Srang Cheung village indicated that tourism benefits them more than the negative impacts of the sector in the village.

6.3 Child labour in tourism and children's education

According to the survey results, villagers involved in tourism have more children studying in higher levels of education (middle/intermediate and secondary). The number of children from families working in non-tourism jobs was very few (four children). None of the children from non-tourism families dropped out of school. Villagers involved in tourism however have the most number of children dropping out. Due to the small sample size, it is hard to prove that tourism has caused problems for children's educational opportunities.

Similar to the results from the survey, interviews with villagers and the focus group revealed that there are many factors hindering children from going to school. According to the survey, there are several reasons that are responsible for the dropout of children. Poverty and tourism employment were found to be the two main reasons. Poverty was the key reason for 19-out-of-43 responses necessitated children seeking

work. In addition, souvenir-related employments were indicated by 9-out-of-43 responses.

Regarding the first two key reasons, the research suggests that instead of going to school, poverty resulted in children going to temples and restaurants nearby the village to make money. Research by the ILO (2008) in Siem Reap region, Cambodia, supported the result of this study and showed higher numbers of dropouts. Only half of children of schooling age (between 5 and 17 years old) attended schools. Around twenty-six percent of them dropped out, while the rest never went to school. The study also emphasized that more than half of the sample size blamed poverty for the barrier hindering their children from going to school. This study showed slightly different results from the research in Srah Srang Cheung village. Although poverty was the root cause of dropout, most of those children were involved in agricultural work rather than in tourism. The ILO (2000) found similar results by reporting that the low rate of school attendance went along with the high dropout rate in Kenya. Only about 20% of children went to school while only about 10% of those attended school regularly. ILO (2000) also reported that the average age that children dropped out of school was 11 years old. The reasons of dropping out of school in Kenya were poverty and tourism jobs. Supporting the results of the research in Srah Srang Cheung village, this study also showed a strong relationship between tourism jobs and poverty. This suggested that children stopped studying because their families are poor. This poverty encouraged them to work in tourism.

Research done in the other villages in the Angkor Archaeological Park showed similar results. ADI Team and Ballard (2002) found that in Norkor Kroav village, located in Zone One of the park, five percent of children were found to drop out of school to work in tourism. The study in this village argued that tourism jobs were not the only reason to drop out of school. There were some other reasons such as lack of a middle school facilities and poverty. Research done in the same village (Norkor Kroav village) by Ang (n.d.) indicated that 20% of tourism employment was responsible for child labour. In Trapeing Sesh village in front of Angkor Wat temple located in the heart of the Angkor National Park, a survey by Ung (2003) suggested that children did not attend class because of going to work in tourism. He showed very negative impacts as a result of tourism jobs on education.

Relating to child labour in tourism, an investigation of child labour in Kenya by the ILO (2000) showed different types of tourism job for children. A noticeable proportion of 39% were those who sold crafts, food and other items for tourists such as postcards, and films, while 21 % of them worked in tourism entertainment services. The others worked on beaches or boats, as prostitutes, in hotels, in the food and beverage industries, and in carpentry and construction (ILO, 2000). Bliss, (n.d.) summarised research on child labour in many developing countries (Appendix 1). He included different types of tourism employment children participated in different countries. In Indonesia, children worked as artisans to produce pottery, batik materials, paintings, and woodcarvings. In Vietnam, they sold tourist cards, artifacts, bottled water, cakes, fruit and confectionary. In Thailand, they wrapped lollies for the tourist market.

However, in this research, a majority of participants in the focus group mentioned that the real reason for the dropout rate was not tourism jobs but poverty. Children stopped schooling because they were interested in working for money. A proportion of children were attracted by the chance for tourism employment to make money. Another proportion of children worked in tourism to support their families while others were involved in tourism because they were forced by parents.

The money from these direct tourism jobs resulted in a high rate of absence from school, especially in the peak season when the demand for tourism increases. Teachers confirmed that in the high tourist season, the absence rate increased rapidly. They stated that the school was very quiet. The absence resulted in a low quality of education. When frequently absent, students did not attend the lessons and they did not feel interested in studying any more. This led to dropouts.

The ILO (2000) indicated that child labor in tourism was a result of the nature of tourism employment itself. Tourism provides jobs due to its seasonality. Hence, child labour is a good employment option for employers because children are unlike adults who claim their rights. Children do not demand fixed hour jobs, wages, and fixed assigned tasks. They are more likely to be flexible and cheaper. The ILO (200) also claimed that tourism jobs hindered children from going to school.

Parents should encourage children to go to school, but some parents in Srah Srang Cheung village encouraged their children to go work in order to feed their family. The

result from interviews with teachers showed that some parents came to school to ask for permission from teachers for their children to work due to financial problems. The parents claimed that they were not suitable for this sort of job because they did not speak languages such as English, Chinese and Korean, while their children could speak several words for their businesses. In addition, an APSARA authority staff claimed that parents physically forced their children to work. Returning home without money, those children were punished. APSARA Authority staff also added that although children were too young to find a way to go to temples for businesses, parents brought them there in the morning and picked them up in the evening. This meant that children were forced to work regardless of the preference of working. The pressure and physical punishment from parents on their children to stop schooling were not found in any previous research.

Besides poverty and tourism employment, a shortage of schools was another important issue that made children stop studying. Even though the education office claimed that the office as well as the Ministry of Education was trying to build more schools to meet the needs from the increase in number of children, teachers and focus group members argued that the effort did not occur in Srah Srang Cheung village. Children could access only one primary school in the village. They stressed that it was hard for children to continue their schooling which was far away from the village as it cost money and time. They suggested that public transportation did not exist in the village. Children needed to ride a bike for about forty minutes.

The long distance to school issue has been linked with poverty and poor tourism development. If the living standards of local people were better, they would be able to afford to buy a scooter for their children attend school. If public transportation to schools had been provided, they would have studied in higher education. This barrier to education is supported by research from the ILO (2000) which suggested that the lack of a school discouraged children to go for higher education which were away from a village. In the ILO study (2000) majority of families did not possess any vehicle. Thus, children needed to walk to school or use public transportation. This walk not only demanded high physical energy, but also was hazardous due to the potential for violence and robbery. These issues strongly discouraged children from going to school. An ADI Team and Ballard (2002) also agreed with this and stated the experience of

villagers in Ankor National Park led children to travel a long distance to study in Siem Reap city. Research on dropout rate in the whole country of Cambodia also suggested that lack of a nearby school was one of the main reasons for children dropping out of school (National Institute of Statistics, 2009). This argument was not supported by Cigno, Rosati, and Tzannatos, (2000) who claimed that the availability of schools in Vietnam and Morocco have not affected school attendance.

The focus group members and APSARA authority staff showed that corruption was also responsible for children dropping out of school. Due to the low salary of teachers, corruption appeared in the form of taking money from children every day by claiming that it was for extra classes. This also showed a strong tie with poverty.

The Siem Reap Education Office claimed that the Ministry of Education Youth and Sports of Cambodia was taking action to maximize the quality of education and minimize in-class corruption. The effort does not fully reflect the village's situation. In-class corruption still exists. Irin (2008) confirmed the in-class corruption in Cambodia and claimed that some children, who did not have money to pay for the bribe, were punished and asked to stand at the door for an hour. Irin (2008) added that education in Cambodia is not fair. Corruption occurs in many forms in the education process including such activities as tests and exams. Irin (2008) implied that corruption occurred due to the fact that teachers obtained very low pay starting from UD\$ 50 a month. In addition, corruption did not happen only for students, but also happened for teachers. For new teachers, the salary was paid with a few months delay. The low salary and its delay were believed to be the root cause of corruption in the classroom.

However, villagers and teachers agreed with the education office that some policies to encourage children to come to school played a vital role in reducing the dropout rate. Firstly, "komametrey or adorable schools for children" means that schools need to design a friendly student environment by adding sport facilities and play grounds. Secondly, some slogans are placed on the streets or in front of school to remind villagers of the benefit of sending children to school. Thirdly, children who are absent quite a long time (one or two semesters) are allowed to go to next level with the some help from teachers to take core subjects. The tourism office stressed that without these policies, the number of children dropping out would be much higher.

In addition, villagers also claimed that their children stopped studying because they were female. This concept illustrated the cultural pressure of education on females. It is important to remember that females traditionally stay at home, look after children and cook for the family. However, this reason was not mentioned by a large proportion of the respondents. Hence, the pressure of cultural tradition on female education is not a main problem. Research by ILO (2000) in Kenya agreed with the result and showed that boys attended class more regularly than girls.

Finally, laziness was mentioned as one of the reasons that children did not attend school. Children did not have any interests in education anymore. They did not think about the long-term benefit of education but they preferred short-term money to fill their basic needs. The ILO (2000) confirmed the result and added that children lost their interest because of poor performance in class. Children may show slow progress in their academic work. This was the result of low attendance due to absence for employment. Thus, when they were behind other pupils and could not maintain good marks, they finally decided to drop out of school.

Adding to the reasons for dropping out, villagers were asked to comment on the impact of tourism on children's education. The results showed that the more involvement in tourism of the families, the more support there was for children attending higher education (see Table 5.8). Firstly, children working in tourism made money (55 %) which was used to pay for teachers and school fees for part-time tutorial. With money in hand, children went for skill training, especially languages which were useful for them to work. They could even afford to buy transportation vehicles to facilitate their traveling to work and for studying in Siem Reap city. Similarly, in Yasawa, Fiji, villagers claimed that tourism employment supported their living standard (Kerstetter & Bricker, 2009). With a better living standard, school fees were able to be paid. The ILO (2000), in an example for Kenya found that tourism jobs helped children with their daily expenses and paid for their school fees. This argument is strengthened by ILO (2008) which showed that child labor in Siem Reap provided income relatively equal to adults. Children made about one to one-and-a-half USD a day.

Secondly, tourism encourages children to go to school as they think that tourism provides job opportunities to the village. Unlike farming jobs where intensive labour is used to work in the field, tourism jobs require knowledge and skills such as languages and other hospitality skills in order to work in hotels and restaurants. To gain these opportunities they have to be qualified to work. This feeling is also a push factor encouraging children to work harder at school. The motivation from tourism jobs on education is supported by a case in Kenya where three-out-of-four children mentioned that they preferred to go to school as education would make them able to obtain a good tourism job (ILO, 2000).

Besides income, and motivation from tourism, most of the interviewees identified that tourism provided children with skills and languages such as English, Japanese, Korean, Chinese and French. These languages were learnt once they encountered tourists during their employment. In addition, the interview with the Chief of Siem Reap Education Office suggested that tourism raised awareness about the needs for improvement of the educational system in the village to the world. With this introduction, there were international agencies and tourists providing funds to upgrade the educational system by offering meals to poor children and building more rooms for the only existing primary school in the village. Other support included scholarships for good students to study hospitality skills in hotels and restaurants.

Similarly, the interview results from teachers suggested that absentee rate had changed from the agricultural season to the peak tourism season. This change was not necessarily negative but was possibly positive. Children made more money in tourism jobs, while they did not earn any with traditional farming jobs.

Although the interview results suggested that children made more money from tourism rather than traditional farming jobs, around half of the focus group argued that difficulties in tourism allowed their children to obtain only limited benefits. Some benefits from jobs were paid to cultural heritage police officers in the form of fines and protection fees. Some parents complained that their children did not even earn enough to pay to police officer sometimes, especially in low season.

Cigno, Rosati, and Tzannatos (2002) identified difficulties for children in child labor. As a result of adults, usually employers, taking advantage of the children. They were even

abused by the bosses. Bliss (n.d.) found a similar result in which children worked long hours for little pay, were involved in dangerous working environment, denied from vocational training and were provided unstable employment.

However, teachers, the educational office and the tourism office, still supported tourism employment for children; they put the blame more on poverty which was identified as the root cause that made children go to work rather than go to school. They claimed that without tourism jobs children would still work in different areas.

Overall, villagers supported tourism and believed that tourism made their living conditions better. Thus, they had some money for their children's education. Most of the interviews showed positive attitude towards child labor in tourism and said that children usually worked only as part time jobs after or before they went to school. This is confirmed by ADI Team and Ballard (2002) who showed that children, in some villages in Angkor Park, worked in handicrafts after classes.

6.4 Evaluation of the impacts

As a result of the research, it can be concluded that tourism development in Srah Srang Cheung village has more positive than negative impacts. Tourism has economically benefited villagers as a whole. Although some villagers are still living in poverty, tourism has helped to gradually improve their living standards to a better level.

The change of employment has been the key to the changes in living standards. Tourism has brought the village job opportunities and more chances for local villagers to initiate small-scale investments. In addition, tourism jobs employ more women who traditionally look after children, do housework and have less power in decision-making of a family. The role of women has been significantly changed as a result of tourism development. These economic and socio-economic benefits are well supported by literature regarding impacts of developing countries as shown in Sections 6.2 and 6.3.

The immigration issue was found to be slightly different from the literature. In-migrants are usually considered to be negative impact as they take jobs from local villagers. This research suggests that in-migrants take only a few jobs as the number of in-migrants was still in small number. The good news was in-migrants are not allowed to move into the village any more. However, the difference is that these in-migrants

bring capital to run restaurants, which employ villagers (around ten villagers per restaurant). Thus, they create employment opportunities more than taking jobs away from villagers.

Seasonality, which is usually described as negative, is not a significant problem in the village as local villagers still work on non-tourism jobs (see Figure 5.2). Villagers work in farming in the low season. This work allows them to have rice, vegetable, and fruits to eat and to sell if the agricultural produced is more than they require. In addition to this, tourism jobs provide residents with “cash” for other expenses. Thus, these two types of jobs complement each other to make the living of villagers better.

The research also shows that tourism has encouraged villagers to produce traditional crafts. A wide range of crafts have been produced from small cheap palm leaf souvenirs to large expensive wooden carvings (see Figure 5.12), in order to suit the demand of tourists. The market of these crafts allows the craft making skills to be passed on to the next generation. Therefore, tourism does not only promote the Khmer crafts, and identity of Cambodia to the world, but also helps to preserve cultural traditions.

Regarding the impacts of tourism employment on education, poverty is recognized as a key challenge preventing children’s education. This reason is a common problem identified in education research in Cambodia. Different from some tourism research in villages in the Angkor Park, tourism is found not to be a main reason for dropping out, but was found to help encourage children to go to school. Tourism provides villagers with money, which is used to pay for school fees, and other educational-related costs. Even though some parents force their children to work in tourism, this pressure happens because of the poverty they face. Without tourism, these children would be forced to work in other areas, which would be more hazardous. To support this argument, most villagers’ opinions show tourism is important for their children’s education (see Table 5.7). Villagers involved in tourism feel that tourism is important for their children’s education more than villagers working in “non-tourism” employment. More positively, tourism allows children to learn languages and business making-skills. With this basic knowledge, children can go for further training after they make some money. This is a good starting point for their lives.

Overall, tourism has benefited the Srah Srang Cheung village economically and socio-economically. Tourism provides job opportunities, improves living standards and has developed the village. Furthermore, tourism employment has helped to empower women in the society and preserve local crafts. In addition, tourism has brought positive impacts for children's education.

CHAPTER 7 CONCLUSION

This research of Sras Srang Cheung has attempted to examine the impacts of tourist expenditure on the society of Srah Srang Cheung village. Specifically, the key focus has been on identifying the changes from traditional jobs to tourism jobs and the relationship between tourism employment and children's education. To identify these issues, the study compares the difference ten years ago when there were very little impacts from tourism to 2009 when there were high impacts from tourism.

The literature review provided an overview of case studies to offer positive and negative economic and socio-economic impacts from specific examples of previous research in different countries, especially developing countries. To obtain general understanding of the village where the research was conducted, the background is introduced in the subsequent chapter (Chapter 3), which allowed readers to be familiar with the location of the village, to understand tourism offer and to identify the facts regarding tourism in Srah Srang cheung.

The Methodology chapter (Chapter 4) is presented next; this stressed the way the research data was collected. In Chapter 5, the findings were presented for the discussion in chapter 6. In the discussion chapter, the results were compared and contrasted with the literature to see whether tourism has benefited the village or caused more challenges. This allowed a final evaluation of the impacts from tourism development.

Through the presentation and analysis of several chapters, it is possible to provide a concept of the research and the link from one chapter to another. This cohesion positively leads to the key results, which are useful for two main reasons. The study practically identifies problems and the significance of tourism development in the village. In addition to practical significance, the study contributes to the academic knowledge relating to the impacts of tourism expenditure on economic and socio-economic impacts.

7.1 Methodological reflection

To ensure the high validity of the results, a mixed method approach was utilised—this was a combination of qualitative, quantitative, and observation methods. The quantitative method was used to identify problems through a survey. The results from quantitative survey were used to inform interviews and the focus group, while observation was used to clarify the results from the interviews and the focus group.

In the first phase, the survey collected numerical data. For instance, with the first objective regarding the changes from traditional to tourism jobs, the survey found the number of families working in “non-tourism”, “mixed tourism and non-tourism”, and “tourism” between 1999 and 2009. It also found numbers of toilets, wells, house renovation, and vehicles. In addition, in-migrant issues were raised in the interview with the village headman.

In terms of the second objective, the relationship between tourism employment and education, the survey found the number of students who drop out and the reasons that children drop out. The education management and tourism management relating to education was not possible to be told by local people but required knowledge from educational and tourism managers.

The quantitative survey provided the statistical figures to understand basic issues. However, it could not offer a deep understanding of the issues relating to socio-economic impacts in Srah Srang Cheung village. So, it was necessary to conduct qualitative research. As a result, the second phase of the research was adopted under the form of focus group and interviews.

Firstly, a focus group discussion gathered data from local villagers. Focus groups provide an opportunity to identify problems more clearly through group discussion that participants usually do during the meeting. It was also possible for the researcher to obtain the confirmation of answers to the problems through the summary of the issues mentioned by participants. With clear problems and detailed data from the villagers, it allowed the researcher to identify where the next data should be collected from.

As a result of the focus groups, the researcher, then, conducted interviews with two teachers, a school principle, and local authorities such as the headman, the commune chief, the Siem Reap chief of education, the deputy chief of Siem Reap tourism office and an APSARA staff. The interviews resulted in some differences from the interviewees' opinions and between survey results. As a result, the researcher conducted observation to provide more detailed results.

7.2 Summary of key findings

The research focused on the impacts of tourism expenditure on the society of Srah Srang Cheung village with two specific objectives. The first objective was to understand the change from traditional jobs to tourism jobs. The second intention was to identify the relationship between tourism employment and children's education in the village.

Answering the first objective, tourism has changed employment opportunities in 58 out of 60 households working in non-tourism (farming) in 1999 to only four out of 60 households working in non-tourism in 2009 (see Figure 5.2). The remaining 56 out of 60 households are involved in tourism. It is found that there were two main reasons to change jobs. Tourism jobs provide more income than traditional jobs. Secondly, the natural resource and land use limitation put pressure on them to change from the government.

The changes have resulted in more positive than negative impacts. Tourism provides job opportunities, which lead to improvement in living standard. Data show that number of wells, toilets, better houses (see Figure 5.5), television, batteries, generators, and vehicles (see Figure 5.6) have increased. Although wells and toilets were not financed directly from tourism jobs, these facilities were brought to the village through tourism. Loans were also identified as positive aspect in the development of the village supporting house renovation and the purchase of new vehicles as a result of micro-financing banks and relatives.

Personal savings is the only area which has not yet improved. However, savings are strongly linked to spending for renovation, equipment and vehicles. More spending makes it impossible for villagers to save yet.

In-migration, which is cited negatively by some researchers, was found to overall impacts the village positively rather than negatively. Some migrants who move to the village do take jobs opportunities from local villagers. However, some in-migrants bring capital to invest in restaurants, which employ villagers (around ten villagers per restaurants). Offering local employment opportunities for villagers.

With seasonality, tourism development in the village does not cause serious concern over the period of low season. Most of villagers have two jobs (mixed)(see Figure 5.2). The mixed jobs are a strength that combats the seasonality, and fragile nature of tourism. In low season, villagers work in farming. If external factors result in national instability, leading to significant decrease in number of tourists, villagers can always return to farming careers, which used to make the country prosperous in Angkorian time (see Section 3.2.5 in Background chapter).

Inflation is the only aspect found to be truly negative. Villagers mentioned that tourism development contributed to the increase of price of local products. With the increase in number of tourists, the demand for products such as food increases, while the supply of the products remains the same. The high demand and low supply leads to the increase in price. However, the insufficient supply provides a chance for villagers to grow agricultural products to sell for the local market.

In terms of the relationship between child labour in tourism and children's education, the results show that the majority of children work in tourism. The tourism jobs, which are assumed to be significantly responsible for children dropping out, turn out to be an encouragement for children to go to school, specifically for higher education (see Table 5.8 and 5.9). Through using quantitative and qualitative methods, it has been discovered that the main root causes hindering children from attending school are poverty, lack of schools and in-class corruption. Tourism employment also results from poverty. With hunger, children need to meet their basic needs. This demand does not encourage them to think about education for the future but to work for money. However, it is also possible to argue that some children only work part-time jobs.

In addition to poverty, the long distance of schools and in-class corruption are additional factors encouraging students to stop going to school. It is costly to go to

higher education such as middle/intermediate school. Firstly, it takes time (around 40 minutes by bike). Secondly, education is not free as teachers demand for some money in class and claim that it is for extra classes. Thus, tourism employment turns out to be a push factor for education; especially it encourages children to learn some tourism skills such as foreign languages with the money they obtain from tourism. Although it is arguable that tourism in this village encourages child labour, which is defined as a negative impact, children would work in other sectors which are likely more dangerous such as brick making. Therefore, tourism employment has positive relationship with education of children in the village.

7.3 Implications of research

The result of this research provides knowledge and information regarding the impacts of tourism expenditure on economic and socio-economic aspects of Srah Srang Cheung village. Problems found in the research would be able to be solved in some specific recommendation below.

The link between tourism and agriculture is very important for people in the village. Villagers claimed that the insufficient supply of agricultural products causes inflation in the village. Thus, agriculture should be paid more attention by having thorough studies to test crops to find the right ones for the type of land. In addition, irrigation is necessary for agriculture. It would be vital to upgrade the source of water in order to use it for farming. Villagers should also be provided with some agricultural skill training. Finding markets for their crops is a way to encourage and to ensure sustainable of agricultural practices. The government should help villagers to ensure that a market share will be available for their crops. For instance, the government should work with hospitality sectors to encourage them to help local people by using their products.

Asides from this, Cambodia had a long successful history as a farming country (see section 3.2.5). This should be interesting for tourists to see the traditional way of farming in addition to visiting temples. The agri-tourism idea should be promoted as a strategy to develop tourism in the area. To provide more profit to local villagers, traditional transportation such as ox cart should be used to provide a unique sense of

travelling from the past (traditional means of transportation to visit traditional culture). This service can be provided by local villagers. With this strategy, it should be possible to provide more benefits and overcome the limitations to the use of natural resources and land use restrictions linked to zoning.

Relating to the employment, as shown in the result chapter, villagers produce souvenirs, which are sold to only tourists by their children (see Figure 5.9 and 5.12). The number of tourists that their children encounter is limited. This suggests that villagers have a small market for the products. Villagers do not have a good marketing strategy. Thus, the issues would suggest that local people may need some skill trainings on how to produce a competitive product and on marketing.

The Ministry of Education Youths and Sports should take steps to put strategic planning into practice. Even though the government has strategies to build more schools and to fight against corruption in education, these strategies are not currently practical in Srah Srang Cheung village. Specifically, the government should build at least an intermediate/middle school in the village to avoid the dropouts due to long distance from school. To avoid corruption, teachers should be provided with more of a salary so that they do not have to bribe students. The chief of Siem Reap education Office suggested that the local school should provide some tourism skills to children such as languages and craft-making. With these skills, children should be provided opportunities to show their skills through exhibition where tourists are invited to visit and buy the hand made products. With this concept, it is possible that children would have specific time to do their work and study at the same time.

However, some further research should be crucial. Research should be conducted in order to focus more on the link between tourism and agriculture to promote agri-tourism. To do this, the research should interview more stakeholders such as farmers who work in the fields. A large sample size of local people should be recommended.

The research scope here has been limited to apply only on the impacts of tourism expenditure on the society of a village (Srah Srang Cheung village). This limitation provides room for further research on other villages in the park to see the overall impacts of tourism development on these poor communities in the heritage sites of

Angkor. This bigger picture would be useful for improving site management and for improving tourism policies in the area.

In addition, this research revealed a number of issues regarding land use conflict in relation to zoning policies of the government, specifically APSARA Authorities. However, the problem is not included as it is not caused by the impacts of tourism expenditure. Thus, this is another area which should be discussed in future research (APSARA Authority, 2001).

Due to the fact that world tourism is growing rapidly, it is estimated that the number of tourists in Angkor Park as well as in the Srah Srang Cheung will also increase as Cambodia's politics are stable. The Greater Mekong Subregion (GMS) is encouraging more tourism activities in the region. More tourists mean the village will experience higher impacts—more businesses, more jobs, and more challenges. The children who are now working in tourism will become adults who have tourism skills to work for better benefits. The more involvement in tourism will make villagers more dependent on tourism. Thus, tourism development strategies need to be established to understand and monitor impacts. Without a good strategic plan, development will bring more negative impacts rather than benefits for the community.

References

ADB. (2009). *Great Mekong Subregion*. Retrieved August 10, 2009, from <http://www.adb.org/GMS/default.asp>

Adepoju, A. (1995). Migration in Africa: An Overview. In J. Baker & T. A. Aina (Eds.), *The Migration Experience in Africa* (pp. 87-108). Uppsala: Nordiska Afrikainstitutet.

ADI Team, & Ballard, B. M. (2002). *The impact of the tourism industry in Siem Reap on the people who live in Angkor park*. Phnom Penh: Cooperation Committee for Cambodia (CCC).

Akis, S., Peristianis, N., & Warner, J. (1996). Residents' attitudes to tourism development: The case of Cyprus. *Tourism Management*, 17(7), 481-494.

Andereck, K. L., & Vogt, C. A. (2000). The relationship between residents' attitudes toward tourism and tourism development options. *Journal of Travel Research*, 39, 27-36.

Ang, S. (2003). *Tourism development: Local perception of the socio-economic impacts and its cultural consequences in Pradak community, Siem Reap province, Cambodia*. Royal University of Phnom Penh, Phnom Penh.

Ang, S. (n.d.). Poverty challenges and employment opportunity in tourism: The case study of Norkor Kroav, Siem Reap province. Social Research Institute, Chiang Mai University.

APSARA Authority. (2004a). *The Angkorian Period: The empire's birth*. Retrieved October 19, 2009, from <http://www.autoriteapsara.org/en/angkor/history/birth.html>

APSARA Authority. (2004b). *The modern period: The re-discovery of Angkor*. Retrieved October 27, 2009, from <http://www.autoriteapsara.org/en/angkor/history/rediscovery.html>

APSARA Authority. (2005a). *APSARA: Authority for the Protection and Management of Angkor and the Region of Siem Reap*. Retrieved October 23, 2009, from <http://www.autoriteapsara.org/en/apsara.html>

APSARA Authority. (2005b). *Legal documents concerning Angkor and the region of Siem Reap*. Retrieved October 27, 2009, from http://www.autoriteapsara.org/en/apsara/about_apsara/legal_texts.html

APSARA Authority. (2005c). *Police*. Retrieved October 27, 2009, from http://www.autoriteapsara.org/en/apsara/about_apsara/police.html

Ashley, C. (2000). The impacts of tourism on rural livelihoods: Namibia's experience. *Working Paper-Overseas Development Institute*.

Ashley, C., Boyd, C., & Goodwin, H. (2000). Pro-poor tourism: Putting poverty at the heart of the tourism agenda. *Natural Resource Perspectives*, 51, 1-6.

Asian Development Bank. (2006). *ADB loan to upgrade Cambodia's Siem Reap airport*. Retrieved October 3, 2009, from <http://www.adb.org/documents/news/1996/nr1996157.asp>

Ballard, B. M. (2005). Linking tourism to poverty reduction: A Siem Reap case study. In K. A. S. Murshid & B. M. Ballard (Eds.), *Annual development review 2004-2005*. Phnom Penh: Cambodia Development Resource Institute.

Berg, B. L. (2007). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences*. Boston: Pearson Education.

Bergman, M. M. (Ed.). (2008). *The straw men of the qualitative-quantitative divide and their influence on mixed methods research*. London: Sage Publications.

Black, M. (1995). *In the Twilight Zone: Child workers in the hotel, tourism and catering industry*. Geneva: International Labour Organization.

Blaxter, L., Hughes, C., & Tight, M. (1996). *How to research*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Bliss, S. (n.d.). Child labor in tourism industry: Social justice and human rights. University of Sydney.

Bloor, M., & Wood, F. (2006). *Keywords in qualitative methods: A vocabulary of research concepts*. London: Sage Publications.

Boyd, S. (2002). Cultural and heritage tourism in Canada: Opportunities, principles and challenges. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 3(3), 211-233.

Briedenhann, J., & Wickens, E. (2004). Tourism routes as a tool for the economic development of rural areas—vibrant hope or impossible dream? *Tourism Management*, 25(1), 71-79.

Brohman, J. (1996). New directions in tourism for third world development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23(1), 48-70.

Buckingham, A., & Saunders, P. (2004). *The survey methods workbook: From design to analysis*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Bushell, R. (2001). Practice, provision and impacts. In N. Gouglas, N. Douglas & R. Derrett (Eds.), *Special interest tourism*. Sydney: John Wiley & Sons Australia.

Butler, R. (2001). Seasonality in tourism: Issues and implications. In T. Baum & S. Lundtorp (Eds.), *Seasonality in tourism*. Oxford: Elsevier Science.

Canby Publications. (2009). *Angkor Archaeological Park: Greater park area map*. Retrieved March 14, 2010, from <http://www.canbypublications.com/maps/templemap.htm>

Chambers, E. (1997). *Tourism and culture: An applied perspective*: State University of New York Press.

Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory: A practical guide through qualitative analysis*. London: Sage Publications.

Chheang, V. (2008). The political economy of tourism in Cambodia. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 13(3), 281-297.

Chok, S., Macbeth, J., & Warren, C. (2007). Tourism as a tool for poverty alleviation; A critical analysis of 'Pro-Poor Tourism' and implications for sustainability. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 10(2), 144-165.

Choulean, A., & Thompson, A. (2001). Communities in Siem Reap. *Udaya, Journal of Khmer Studies*, 2.

CIA. (2009). *East and Southeast Asia: Cambodia*. Retrieved October 18, 2009, from <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/cb.html>

Cigno, A., Rosati, F., & Tzannatos, Z. (2000, April 11-13, 2000). *Child labor, nutrition and education in rural India: An economic analysis of parental choice and policy options*. Paper presented at the World Bank Conference on Child Labour, Washington, DC.

Cigno, A., Rosati, F., & Tzannatos, Z. (2002). Child labor handbook. *Social Protection Department Discussion Paper*, 206.

Cook, L. (1995). *A guide to good survey design*. Wellington: Statistics New Zealand.

Creswell, J. W., & Clark, V. L. P. (2007). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. London: Sage Publications.

Crick, M. (1989). Representations of international tourism in the social sciences: Sun, sex, sights, savings, and servility. *Annual Review of Anthropology*, 18(1), 307-344.

Cross, S., & Ringbeck, J. (2009). Tourism contributes to economic growth. In R. Espejo (Ed.), *What is the impact of tourism*. New York: Greenhaven Press.

- Crouse, J. S., & Stove, A. (2009). Tourism contributes to the exploitation of women and children. In R. Espejo (Ed.), *What is the impact of tourism?* New York: Greenhaven Press.
- Cukier, J., Norris, J., & Wall, G. (1996). The involvement of women in the tourism industry of Bali, Indonesia. *The Journal of Development Studies*, 33(2), 248-270.
- Czaja, R., & Blair, J. (1996). *Designing surveys: A Guide to Decisions and Procedures*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Czaja, R., & Blair, J. (2005). *Designing surveys: A guide to decisions and procedures*. California: Sage Publications.
- Dagens, B. (1995). *Angkor: Heart of an Asian Empire*. London: Thames & Hudson.
- Dahles, H. (1998). Tourism, government policy and petty entrepreneurs. *South East Asia Research*, 6(1), 73-98.
- Dahles, H. (2001). *Tourism, heritage and national culture in Java: Dilemmas of a local community*. Surrey: Curzon Press.
- Davies, M. B. (2007). *Doing a successful research project: Using qualitative or quantitative methods*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- De Lopez, T. (2007). Towards sustainable development in Angkor, Cambodia: Social, environmental and financial aspects of conserving cultural heritage. *EEPSEA Research Report*.
- Department of Tourism. (2009). *Statistics of tourists in Angkor Park*. Siem Reap: APSARA Authority.
- Doswell, R. (1997). *Tourism: How effective management makes the difference*. Oxford: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Durand, S. (2002). Angkor: A decade of tourist development after a decade of heritage rescue? *Museum International*, 54(1 & 2), 131-137.
- Edwards, P. (2007). *Cambodge: The cultivation of a nation, 1860-1945*: University of Hawaii Press.
- Esichaikul, R., & Baum, T. (1998). The case for government involvement in human resource development: A study of the Thai hotel industry. *Tourism Management*, 19(4), 359-370.
- Espejo, R. (Ed.). (2009). *That is the impact of tourism?* New York: Greenhaven Press.

Evans, D., Pottier, C., Fletcher, R., Hensley, S., Tapley, I., Milne, A., et al. (2007). A comprehensive archaeological map of the world's largest preindustrial settlement complex at Angkor, Cambodia. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 104(36), 14277-14282.

Feng, X. (2008). Who Benefits?: Tourism development in Fenghuang county, China. *Human Organization*, 67(2), 207-220.

Figgis, P., & Bushell, R. (2007). Tourism as a tool for community-based conservation and development. In R. Bushell & P. Eagles (Eds.), *Tourism and protected areas: Benefits beyond boundaries*. Cambridge: CABI.

Flick, U. (2002). *An introduction to qualitative research*. London: Sage Publications.

Flick, U. (Ed.). (2007). *Managing quality in qualitative research*. Los Angeles: Sage Publications.

Fortin, M. J., & Gagnon, C. (2002). An assessment of social impacts of national parks on communities in Quebec, Canada. *Environmental Conservation*, 26(03), 200-211.

Freitag, T. G. (1994). Enclave tourism development for whom the benefits roll? *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21(3), 538-554.

Gillespie, J. (2009). Protecting World Heritage: Regulating Ownership and Land Use at Angkor Archaeological Park, Cambodia. *International Journal of Heritage Studies*, 15(4), 338-354.

Gillham, B. (2005). *Research interviewing: The range of techniques*. Berkshire: Open University Press.

Godfrey, K., & Clarke, J. (2000). *The tourism development handbook: Practical approach to planning and marketing*. New York: Martins the Printers.

Google. (2009). *Map*. Retrieved October 12, 2009, from <http://maps.google.co.nz/maps?hl=en&tab=wl>

Gordon, W. (1999). *Good thinking: A guide to qualitative research*. Oxford: Admap.

Gössling, S., & Schulz, U. (2005). Tourism-related migration in Zanzibar, Tanzania. *Tourism Geographies*, 7(1), 43-62.

Gossling, S., Schumacher, K., Morelle, M., Berger, R., & Heck, N. (2004). Tourism and street children in Antananarivo, Madagascar. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 5(2), 131-149.

Gray, D. E. (2004). *Doing research in the real world*. London: Sage Publications.

- Groves, R. M., Fowler, F. J., Couper, M. P., Lepkowski, J. M., Singer, E., & Tourangeau, R. (2004). *Survey methodology*. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons Inc.
- Gu, Z. (2000). Strategies for minimising tourism leakages in Indo-Chinese development countries. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 5(2), 11-20.
- Hall, C. M. (2005). *Tourism: Rethinking the social science of mobility*. Harlow: Prentice Hall.
- Hall, C. M., & Page, S. (2000). *Tourism in South and Southeast Asia: Issues and cases*: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Hampton, M. P. (2005). Heritage, local communities and economic development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32(3), 735-759.
- Haralambopoulos, N., & Pizam, A. (1996). Perceived impacts of tourism: The case of Samos. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23(3), 503-526.
- Harrison, D. (2008). Pro-poor tourism: A critique. *Third World Quarterly*, 29(5), 851-868.
- Harrison, D., & Schipani, S. (2007). Lao tourism and poverty alleviation: Community-based tourism and the private sector. *Pro-poor tourism: Who benefits? Perspectives on tourism and poverty reduction*, 84.
- Hesse-Biber, S. N., & Leavy, P. (2006). *The practice of qualitative research*. London: Sage Publications.
- Hitchcock, M., King, V. T., & Parnwell, M. J. G. (1993). Dragon tourism in Komodo, Eastern Indonesia. In M. Hitchcock, V. T. King & M. Parnwell (Eds.), *Tourism in South-East Asia* (pp. 303-316). London: Routledge.
- Hitchcock, R. K. (1997). Cultural, economic, and environmental impacts of tourism among Kalahari Bushmen. In E. Chambers (Ed.), *Tourism and culture: An applied perspective* New York: State University of New York.
- Horner, S., & Swarbrooke, J. (2004). *International cases in tourism management*. Oxford: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Howse, J., Boffa, F., Eagle, S., Lambert, R. d., Clark, L., Klerx, G., et al. (2007). *Angkor management plan*: APSARA Authority.
- Hubbell, L. (2006). One Cambodian community's struggle with development. *International Third World Studies*, 17, 11-18.

Huttasin, N. (2008). Perceived social impacts of tourism by residents in the OTOP tourism village, Thailand. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 13(2), 175-191.

Illes, S., & Michalko, G. (2008). Relationships between international tourism and migration in Hungary: Tourism flows and foreign property ownership. *Tourism Geographies*, 10(1), 98-118.

ILO. (2000). *Child labor*. Retrieved August 22, 2009, from http://www.ilo.org/public/english/dialogue/actrav/genact/child/part2_a/tour_2.htm

ILO. (2008). ILO-IPEC child profiling for TBP phase II, Siem Reap. International Labour Organization.

Im, S. (1995). *Daily life of Angkorian dwellers on the bas-relief of the Bayon temple*. Royal University of Fine Arts, Phnom Penh.

Irin. (2008). Corruption and poverty keeping Cambodia kids out of classroom. *Jakarta Globe*. Retrieved October 23, 2009, from <http://thejakartaglobe.com/world/corruption-and-poverty-keeping-cambodian-kids-out-of-classroom/303241>

Jenner, P., & Smith, C. (1992). *The tourism industry and the environment* (No. 2453). London: Economist Intelligence Unit.

Kantamaturapoj, K. (2005). *Impacts of community based tourism in Thailand: A case study of Plai Pong Pang Village, Samutsongkram Province*. Chian Mai: Social Research Institute, Chiang Mai University.

Kaosa-ard, M. (2005). *Tourism blessings for all?* Chiang Mai: Social Research Institute, Chiang Mai University.

Keat, C., & Sok, A. (2001). *Joint Prakas from the Council of Ministers and the Ministry of Economy and Finance regarding authorization for the free entrance passes for foreign visitors to Angkor Archaeological Park*. Retrieved November 01, 2009, from http://www.autoriteapsara.org/en/apsara/about_apsara/legal_texts/sub_free_entrance.html.

Keosothea, N. (2005). Competitiveness of Cambodia agriculture: A case study of Maize, Soybeans and Cassava in Cambodia, Thailand and Vietnam. In K. A. S. Murshid & B. M. Ballard (Eds.), *Annual Development Review 2004-05*. Phnom Penh: Japan Printing House.

Kerstetter, D., & Bricker, K. (2009). Exploring Fijians' sense of place after exposure to tourism development. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17(6), 691-708.

Khan, M. M. (1997). Tourism development and dependency theory: Mass tourism vs. ecotourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24(4), 988-991.

- Korça, P. (1996). Resident attitudes toward tourism impacts. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23(3), 695-697.
- Krueger, R. A. (1998a). *Analyzing & reporting focus group results: Focus group kit 6*. London: Sage Publications.
- Krueger, R. A. (1998b). *Developing questions for focus groups: Focus group kit 3*. London: Sage Publications.
- Kummu, M. (2005). The natural environment and historical water management of Angkor, Cambodia. *Department of Water Resources, Helsinki University of Technology, Espoo, Finland*, 8.
- Lea, J. (2001). *Tourism and development in the third world*. New York: Routledge.
- Legard, R., Keegan, J., & Ward, K. (Eds.). (2003). *In-depth interviews*. London: Sage Publications.
- Leiper, N. (1995). *Tourism management*. Victoria: Tape Publications.
- Lepp, A. (2007). Residents' attitudes towards tourism in Bigodi village, Uganda. *Tourism Management*, 28(3), 876-885.
- Leung, P., Lam, T., & Wong, S. (1996). Tourism development in Cambodia: An analysis of opportunities and barriers. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 1(2), 27-33.
- Lickorish, L. J., & Jenkins, C. L. (1997). *An introduction to tourism*: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Lim, E. (1990). Regional analysis of tourism: The economic impact of tourism in New Zealand, Auckland, Bay of Plenty and Canterbury regions. *Unpublished report of the Deloitte Tourism Scholarship, Christchurch*.
- Lundmark, L. (2006). Mobility, migration and seasonal tourism employment: evidence from Swedish mountain municipalities. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 6(3), 197-213.
- Lyberg, L. E., & Biemer, P. P. (Eds.). (2008). *Quality assurance and quality control in surveys*. New York: Taylor & Francis Group.
- Marks, K. (2007). *Angkor, the world's first mega-city*. Retrieved October 19, 2009, from <http://www.independent.co.uk/news/world/asia/metropolis-angkor-the-worlds-first-megacity-461623.html>
- Mason, P. (2003). *Tourism impacts, planning and management*. Oxford: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.

- Mason, P. (2008). *Tourism impacts, planning and management*: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Mathieson, A., & Wall, G. (1982). *Tourism economic, physical and social impacts*. New York: Longman Scientific & Technical.
- Mbaiwa, J. E. (2003). The socio-economic and environmental impacts of tourism development on the Okavango Delta, north-western Botswana. *Journal of Arid Environments*, 54(2), 447-467.
- Mbaiwa, J. E. (2005). Enclave tourism and its socio-economic impacts in the Okavango Delta, Botswana. *Tourism Management*, 26(2), 157-172.
- Mena, M. M. (2008). International tourism and developing economies. In S. Babu, S. Mishra & B. B. Parida (Eds.), *Tourism development revisited: Concepts, issues and paradigms*. New Delhi: CABI.
- Mihalic, T. (2002). Tourism and economic development issues. In R. Sharply & D. J. Telfer (Eds.), *Tourism and development: Concepts and issues*. Clevedon: Channel View Publications.
- Ministry of Culture and Fine Arts. (2008). *History of Cambodia*. Retrieved October 19, 2009, from http://www.mcfa.gov.kh/index_en.php?nav=11
- Ministry of Tourism. (2008). *Tourism in Cambodia*. Retrieved November 12, 2008, from <http://www.mot.gov.kh/mot/Index.php?CoID=9>
- Ministry of Tourism. (2009). *Tourism statistic report 2008*. Retrieved August 12, 2009, from http://www.mot.gov.kh/ch/img_files/Executive%20Summary%20Report%20in%202008.pdf
- Moore, N. (2000). *How to do research: The complete guide to designing and managing research projects*. London: Library Association Publishing.
- Morgan, D. L. (1998). *The focus group guidebook: Focus group kit 1*. London: Sage Publications.
- Murphy, P. E., & Murphy, A. E. (2004). *Strategic management for tourism communities—bridging the gaps*. New York: Multilingual Master Ltd.
- Narayan, P. K. (2004). Economic impact of tourism on Fiji's economy: Empirical evidence from the computable general equilibrium model. *Tourism Economics*, 10(4), 419-433.
- Neuman, W. L. (2003). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. New York: Pearson Education.

New World Encyclopedia. (2009). *Angkor*. Retrieved January 30, 2010, from http://www.newworldencyclopedia.org/entry/Angkor#End_of_the_Angkorian_Period

Ngov, S. (2009). *The situation and the management of tourism in Siem Reap*. Siem Reap: Siem Reap Tourism Department, Ministry of Tourism.

Norindr, P. (1996). *Phantasmatic Indochina: French colonial ideology in architecture, film and literature*. Durham: Duke University Press.

Page, S. J. (2007). *Tourism management: Managing for change*. Oxford: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.

Page, S. J. (2003). *Tourism management: Managing for change*. Oxford: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.

Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods*. London: Sage Publications.

Phillips, P. P., & Stawarski, C. A. (Eds.). (2008). *Data collection: Planning for and collecting all types of data*. San Francisco: Pfeiffer.

Prack, C., Ream, M., & Dom, T. (1996). *Results of doing research in Srah Srang Cheung village*. Siem Reap: United Nations Volunteers.

Punch, K. F. (2003). *Survey research: The basics*. London: Sage Publications.

Reisinger, Y., & Turner, L. W. (2003). *Cross-cultural behaviour in tourism: Concepts and analysis*. Oxford: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.

Richards, G., & Wilson, J. (2004). *The global nomad: Backpacker travel in theory and practice*. New York: Channel View Publications.

Ritchie, J. R. B., & Crouch, G. I. (2003). *The competitive destination: A sustainable tourism perspective*. Cambridge: CABI.

Rowena, B. (n.d.). Peripheral vision: Implications of spatial contextualisation for communities surrounding heritage sites. School of Geosciences, The University of Sydney.

Sathiendrakumar, R., & Tisdell, C. (1989). Tourism and the economic development of the Maldives. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 16(2), 254-269.

Silverman, D. (2006). *Interpreting qualitative data*. London: Sage Publications.

Slee, B., Farr, H., & Snowdon, P. (1997). The economic impact of alternative types of rural tourism. *Journal of Agricultural Economics*, 48(2), 179-192.

Snape, D., & Spencer, L. (Eds.). (2003). *The Foundations of qualitative research*. London: Sage Publications.

Sok, S. (2009). *Demographic statistics 2008*. Siem Reap: Norkorthom Commune.

Stark, M. T., & Griffin, B. (2004). Archaeological research and cultural heritage management in Cambodia's Mekong Delta: The search for the "Cradle of Khmer Civilization." *Marketing Heritage: Archaeology and Consumption of the Past*, 117-141.

Taylor, K., & Altenburg, K. (2006). Cultural landscapes in AsiaPacific: Potential for filling World Heritage gaps 1. *International Journal of Heritage Studies*, 12(3), 267-282.

Teye, V., Sirakaya, E., & Sönmez, S. F. (2002). Residents' attitudes toward tourism development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(3), 668-688.

Thai, M. T. T. (2002). *Does tourism help local people? A Vietnam focus*. Mano: University of Hawai'i at Mano.

The Columbia Electronic Encyclopedia. (2000-2007). *Cambodia: Land and people*. Retrieved October 18, 2009, from <http://www.infoplease.com/ce6/world/A0857135.html>

Timothy, D. J., & Boyd, S. W. (2003). *Heritage tourism*. Harlow: Prentice Hall.

Timothy, D. J., & Wall, G. (1997). Selling to tourists: Indonesian street vendors. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24(2), 322-340.

Tisdell, C., & Wen, J. (2001). Foreign tourism as an element in PR China's economic development strategy. In C. Tisdell (Ed.), *Tourism economics, the environment and development: Analysis and policy*. Massachusetts: Edward Elgar Publishing, Inc.

Tosun, C. (2002). Host perceptions of impacts: A Comparative tourism study. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(1), 231-253.

Tsartas, P. (1992). Socioeconomic impacts of tourism on two Greek isles. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19(3), 516-533.

Turker, S. (2007). Tourism and migration-two windows into globalization. *Contours*, 17(2).

UNESCO. (1996). *Angkor past, present and future*. Phnom Penh: APSARA Authority.

Ung, H., & Hun, S. (1997). *Sub-decree establishing the special police corps for the protection of cultural heritage*. Retrieved October 23, 2009, from http://www.Autoriteapsara.org/en/apsara/about_apsara/legal_texts/sub_police_heritage.html

Ung, T. E. (2003). *Socio-cultural impacts of tourism with a focus on change in local traditional jobs and social values: Case study in Trapeing Sesh, Siem Reap Province*. Royal University of Phnom Penh, Phnom Penh.

Upchurch, R. S., & Teivane, U. (2000). Resident perceptions of tourism development in Riga, Latvia. *Tourism Management, 21*(5), 499-507.

Vann, M. (2002). Management of the Angkor Site: National emblem and world heritage site. *Museum International 54*(1&2), 110-116.

Virak, P. (n.d.). The effects of socioeconomic development on in-migration rate at district level: An analysis of district level in Cambodia. Mahidol University.

Vogt, C., Kah, A., Huh, C., & Leonard, S. (2004). Sharing the heritage of Kodiak Island with tourists: Views from the hosts. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research, 9*(3), 239-254.

Wager, J. (1995). Developing a strategy for the Angkor World Heritage Site. *Tourism Management, 16*(7), 515-523.

Walpole, M. J., & Goodwin, H. J. (2002). Local attitudes towards conservation and tourism around Komodo National Park, Indonesia. *Environmental Conservation, 28*(02), 160-166.

Wattanakuljarus, A., & Coxhead, I. (2008). Is tourism-based development good for the poor?: A general equilibrium analysis for Thailand. *Journal of Policy Modeling, 30*(6), 929-955.

Weaver, D., & Oppermann, M. (2000). *Tourism management*. Melbourne: John Wiley & Sons Australia.

Weinberg, D. (Ed.). (2002). *Qualitative research methods*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.

Whittaker, E. (1997). The town that debates tourism: Community and tourism in Broome, Australia. In E. Chambers (Ed.), *Tourism and culture: An applied and perspective*. New York: State University of New York.

Wilkinson, S. (Ed.). (2004). *Focus group research*. London: Sage Publications.

Williams, A. M., & Hall, C. M. (2000a). Guest editorial: Tourism and migration. *Tourism Geographies, 2*(1), 2-4.

Williams, A. M., & Hall, C. M. (2000b). Tourism and migration: New relationships between production and consumption. *Tourism Geographies*, 2(1), 5-27.

Williams, A. M., & Hall, C. M. (2002). Tourism, migration, circulation and mobility. In C. M. Hall & A. M. Williams (Eds.), *Tourism and migration: New relationships between Production and Consumption* (pp. 1-52). Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Williams, A. M., & Shaw, G. (2002). *Critical issues in tourism: A geographical perspective*. Massachusetts: Blackwell Publishers.

Wilson, H. (1995). *Discovering researchable problems from practice to theory*. Paper presented at the qualitative research: Beyond the boundaries, Fremantle, Western Australia.

Winter, T. (2004a). Landscape, memory and heritage: New Year celebrations at Angkor, Cambodia. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 7(4&5), 330-345.

Winter, T. (2004b). Cultural heritage and tourism at Angkor, Cambodia: Developing a theoretical dialogue. *Historic Environment*, 17, 3-8.

Winter, T. (2007). Rethinking tourism in Asia. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 34(1), 27-44.

Winter, T. (2008). Post-conflict heritage and tourism in Cambodia: The burden of Angkor. *International Journal of Heritage Studies*, 14(6), 524-539.

World Tourism Organization. (2008). *World tourism exceeds expectations in 2007- Arrivals grow from 800 million to 900 million in two years*. Retrieved October 5, 2009, from http://www.unwto.org/media/news/en/press_det.php?id=1665

Wright, G. (1991). *The politics of design in French colonial urbanism*: University of Chicago Press.

Appendices

Appendix 1

Summary of research in developing countries (1998-2005)

| |
|--|
| <p>SUMMARY OF RESEARCH IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES (1998-2005)</p> <p>CARPET FACTORIES</p> <p>Morocco: 12 year old girls working 72 hours a week</p> <p>Nepal: 10 million bonded children in 300,000 factories earn \$40 per carpet. Some of these carpets are sold for \$20,000 each.</p> <p>CLOTHING FACTORIES AND MARKETS</p> <p>Bangkok, Patpong Rd: cheap designer label articles-Reebok and Nike joggers, Chanel clothes, Hermes scarves, Louis Vutton bags, Calvin Klein & Levi jeans purchased in the market</p> <p>Mexico, Wonchang Industriales: children earn \$1 a day to sew clothes.</p> <p>India, Agra: 12 year old boys work with their fathers to make shoes.</p> <p>Thailand: girls locked in factories & sleep in work room (many killed from fires)</p> <p>Indonesia, Guatemala: young children helping adults sell food/clothing</p> <p>LUXURY HAMMOCKS</p> <p>Fortalaza, Brazil: specifically for tourists</p> <p>OUTWORKERS</p> <p>Peru, Bolivia, Guatemala: children work at home or behind closed doors making jumpers, clothes, sheets, luggage & shoes</p> <p>ARTEFACTS</p> <p>Indonesia: young artisans produce pottery, batik materials, paintings, wood carvings</p> <p>MAIDS</p> <p>India, Indonesia, Morocco: clean hotel rooms, cook food, wash clothes and linen</p> <p>STREET PEDDLERS</p> <p>Tunisia and India, New Delhi: shoe shine boys wait outside hotels</p> <p>Vietnam, Peru, Mumbai, Indonesia: children selling tourist cards, artefacts, bottled water, cakes, fruit & confectionary</p> <p>PHOTOGRAPHS</p> <p>Peru: attractive children 'hang' around tourist sites for the opportunity to be given money for their photograph</p> <p>BEGGING</p> <p>Indonesia, Central America: beggars hire 'cute' children and babies to increase the money received by passing tourists</p> <p>Around tourist sites in Istanbul and Egypt there are Tourist Police to stop this practice</p> <p>PLANTATIONS</p> <p>Africa: thousands of children smuggled from Mali and Burkino Faso to work on coffee, & cocoa plantations</p> <p>Ivory Coast: makes ingredients for half of the world chocolates & employs 15,000-20,000 children on their cocoa farms</p> <p>AGRICULTURE</p> <p>Nepal: plant, sew & harvest crops. Morocco, Tibet: tend the animals. Food sold to tourists</p> <p>CONFECTIONARY FACTORIES</p> <p>Thailand: wrap lollies for tourist market</p> <p>TRANSPORT</p> <p>Calcutta: rickshaws. Saigon: cyclos</p> <p>Nepal: boys with ropes to help trekkers climb the Himalayan Mts</p> <p>MINING</p> <p>Colombia: small children excavate tunnels in the ground to mine the coal to be used as electricity in large hotels</p> <p>El Salvador: bonded workers earn 15c an hour. Honduras: earn 31c an hour</p> <p>MINE PRECIOUS STONES</p> <p>Burma: jewellery eg. rubies. India: silver</p> <p>GARBAGE AND WASTE</p> <p>Philippines: earn \$1 a day recycling waste from hotels.</p> <p>PROSTITUTION</p> <p>Mumbai: 50,000 children aged between 10 & 14 years taken from the streets in Nepal to work in Mumbai as prostitutes</p> <p>Cuba: young girls wait around tourist hotels and restaurants</p> <p>Thailand: 12 year old girls sold to brothels where they are kept as prisoners.</p> <p>Paedophilia</p> <p>DANCING/ENTERTAINMENT</p> <p>India, Morocco, Indonesia, Cuba, Honduras, Panama</p> |
|--|

(Bliss, n.d.)

Appendix 2

Summary of laws and regulation relating to Angkor Park Management

| Item | Legal Document | Purpose and Coverage |
|------|--|--|
| 1 | Constitution of Cambodia adopted by the Constitutional Assembly on September 21, 1993 and amended by Kram NS/RKM/0399/01 dated March 8, 1999 | Provisions for the preservation and promotion of national culture, the Khmer language, and ancient monuments and artifacts, including their restoration (Articles 69, 70 and 71). Also provisions relation to collective and individual property rights. (Article 44) |
| 2. | KRET 001 NS dated 28 May, 1994 | The Royal Decree (Reachkret) defining the perimeter of protection of the Siem Reap region, the nature of four other national categories of protected sites, and corresponding management regulations. |
| 3. | KRET NS/RKT/0295/12 dated February 19, 1995 | Also a Royal Decree establishing the APSARA National Authority as an autonomous agency with a governing board and full financial responsibility. This autonomy was reduced significantly in later legislation where the Authority has become a government unit under the umbrella of the Council of Ministers with much reduced autonomy and financial authority. |
| 4. | KRAM NS/RKM/0196/26 dated January 25, 1996 | Law on the protection of Cultural Heritage, specifically Article 5 placing responsibility for the protection, preservation and the enhancement of the national cultural heritage in the Angkor/Siem Reap region with APSARA |
| 5. | KRET NS/RKT/019918 dated January 22, 1999 | Amending some provisions of the Kret establishing the APSARA National Authority. Specifically Article 6 reiterating the role of APSARA for the protection, preservation and promotion of the Angkor region, and for the issue and management of building consents as well as the powers relating to the removal of illegal and unauthorized buildings. Also the defining of Zone 2 as “protected archaeological reserves under Article 4 of the Royal Decree 001 NS dated 28 May, 1994 and thereby belonging to the inalienable land of the State. |
| 6. | KRAM NS/RKM/0801/14 dated August, 2001 | The Land Law with particular reference to Articles 15, 16, 43 and 44 reaffirming sites of archaeological, cultural and historical patrimonies as falling within the public property of the State and public legal entities. Also confirming: that State property is inalienable and ownership of those |

| | | |
|----|---|--|
| | | properties is not subject to prescription; That public property of the State cannot be subject to acquisition or ownership; and the position of an occupant of State public property remains precarious and illegal if such occupation was not authorized in the manner determined by the Land Law. |
| 7. | KRET 15 ANK/BK dated June 11, 2004 | Defining the organization, functioning and determination of the tasks, obligations and structures of the Executive Directorate of the APSARA National Authority, as well as the duties and responsibilities of the Departments and Units of the Authority |
| 8. | Decision of the Royal Government of Cambodia No. 70/SSR, dated September 15, 2004 | <p>On the Determination of standards for the utilization of land in Zones 1 and 2 of the Siem Reap/Angkor sites.</p> <p>Article 1 of this Decision reaffirms that all land within Zones 1 and 2 is State public property, which the APSARA National Authority has to manage, preserve and develop in a <u>sustainable</u> manner.</p> <p>Article 2 sets down standards for the utilization of land in Zones 1 and 2 of the Siem Reap/Angkor sites where among other matters the citizens who have been dwelling in the zones <u>for a long period</u> may continue living there without being subject to eviction and evacuation.</p> <p>Article 2 then goes on to prescribe the rights of residents to renovate, repair, extend, replace or sell their houses; and the rights governing land occupation and the transfer of these rights. The role for APSARA in managing and consenting to these rights.</p> |

(Howse et al., 2007)

Appendix 3

Responsibilities of Cultural Heritage police

1. Establish and implement measures according to the general directives of the Ministry of the Interior and in close collaboration with the APSARA Authority and the authorities of Siem Reap Province.
2. Ensure security and public order in the Angkor region as defined by the APSARA Authority.
3. Investigate, take preventive measures and repress illegal acts – destruction, theft, harboring, armed robbery, buying, selling and transport of cultural and historical heritage – within the limits of its competence.
4. Ensure the security of national and international tourists and official visitors in the Angkor region.
5. Investigate criminal actions, arrest, hold in custody and search those involved with the destruction, theft, harboring, armed robbery, buying, selling and transport of cultural and historical heritage in the Angkor region. Prepare reports and send the arrested party, along with supporting evidence, to the tribunal.
6. Establish guard posts and organize regular patrols in the most sensitive areas of the Angkor region.
7. Collaborate with the Siemreap Provincial Police Corps, the Commander of the Fourth Military Region, the Commander of the Operation Zone of Siemreap province, the Commander of the Military Police of Siemreap province, the Angkor Conservation Office, the Provincial Branch of Religious Affairs, the Provincial Branch of the Ministry of Tourism, the Provincial Customs Department, and other relevant Departments in view of implementing measures for the prevention and the repression of all activity causing destruction to the cultural and historical heritage.
8. Maintain relations with UNESCO and other international organizations through the APSARA Authority in order to solicit recommendations, diffuse fundamental information and receive assistance in view of protecting the cultural heritage.

(Ung & Hun, 1997)

Appendix 4

Questionnaire

Topic: The impacts of tourism expenditure on local economy and society of Srah Srang Cheung village, the Angkor Park, Cambodia.

I. Personal Data

1. Sex Male Female
2. Age
3. Number of family member Male..... Female.....

II. Economy

1. How many people in your family work?
2. What are your jobs? (can choose more than one answer)
 - Farmer Vegetable planter Construction worker
 - Sellers in the local market Motor/ taxi driver Tour guide
 - Souvenir producer Staff in restaurants /hotels
 - Souvenir seller Temple guard Park cleaner
 - Palm sugar producer
3. What were your jobs before 1999?
 - Farmer Vegetable planter Construction worker
 - Sellers in the local market Motor/ taxi driver Tour guide
 - Souvenir producer Staff in restaurants /hotels
 - Souvenir seller Temple guard Park cleaner
 - Palm sugar producer
4. Why did you change the jobs?
.....
.....
5. What vehicles do you possess? How many?
 - Bike Motor bike Car
6. Before 1999, what vehicles did you possess?
 - Bike Motor bike Car
7. Have you ever repaired or rebuilt your house?
 - Yes when?
 - No

8. Have you ever encountered any difficulties when you fix or rebuild your house?

Yes what is it?

9. Do you have a toilet?

Yes when did you build it? No

10. Do you have a well?

Yes when did you build it? No

11. Have you saved some money?

No enough money Just enough Save some money

12. Had you saved some money before 1999?

No enough money Just enough Save some money

13. Do you need more tourists?

Yes, why?

No, why?

Circle a number (1: strongly disagree, 2: disagree, 3: neutral, 4: agree, 5: strongly agree)

Tourism helps improve your village. 1 2 3 4 5

Tourism improve your living standard 1 2 3 4 5

Tourism provides more job opportunities. 1 2 3 4 5

III. Education

1. Are any of you children studying? (No go to question 3)

Yes how many? No

2. Which levels are they in?

Primary Middle intermediate High school

3. Do any of your children drop out of school?

Yes, how many? What ages?

No

4. What are the reasons of dropping school?

Poverty Schools are too far Female

Laziness help do housework

Sell and produce souvenirs

5. Do you think tourism make your children have higher education?

Yes, why?.....

No, why?

Any comments

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Thanks you very much!