

Pro-poor tourism policy in Thailand

Somparat Srisantisuk

Department of Social Policy

London School of Economics

A thesis submitted for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

2015

Declaration

I certify that the thesis I have presented for examination for the PhD degree of the London School of Economics and Political Science is solely my own work other than where I have clearly indicated that it is the work of others (in which case the extent of any work carried out jointly by me and any other person is clearly identified in it).

The copyright of this thesis rests with the author. Quotation from it is permitted, provided that full acknowledgement is made. This thesis may not be reproduced without my prior written consent.

I warrant that this authorisation does not, to the best of my belief, infringe the rights of any third party.

I declare that my thesis consists of 90,890 words.

Abstract

This study is an attempt to determine how tourism and tourism development policies, strategies and initiatives impact income generation and employment opportunities in a rural ethnic community.

The research consisted of both qualitative and quantitative methods. In-depth interviews, focus group discussions and participatory observations from various stakeholders were used to obtain qualitative data. The quantitative data were gathered using a researcher-developed questionnaire to obtain data from 330 households in Had Bai Village, Chiang Rai Province, northern Thailand. The research findings demonstrate that the well-being of the poor and the impact of the Thai government's One Tambon One Product (OTOP) project in terms of livelihood improvement were distributed unequally across the village.

The information from the qualitative and quantitative data revealed that the OTOP project improved slightly the livelihood outcomes of villagers in the group which fully participated in the scheme. By contrast, the villagers who were aware of OTOP but did not participate used their right to borrow funds to make independent investments and buy consumer goods. Members of this group were thus unable to repay their loans on time, had no return on their investment and had the highest amount of debt. Those villagers who were unaware of the OTOP scheme and did not participate were the poorest in the village. An analysis of this third group revealed that non-participation was largely due to a lack of access to information. Moreover, these families did not regard themselves as poor. They were happy with their simple life and did not perceive any benefit in participating in the pro-poor tourism project introduced by the Thai government.

Pro-poor tourism may benefit the poor in many parts of the world; however, in the case of Thailand it works mainly as a catalyst to improve the overall livelihood outcome of the poor and cannot be expected to enhance the individual livelihoods of the poorest. This study contributes to the literature in various ways. First, it is the first of its kind to investigate thoroughly Thailand's pro-poor tourism development policy. Second, it has attempted to assess pro-poor tourism from many vantage points: international standards,

livelihood impacts, and the assets and vulnerability of the poor. Third, the key success model developed from the outcome of the thesis can be used by Thailand and other developing countries in their efforts to develop more effective pro-poor tourism policies in the future.

Table of Contents

LIST OF TABLES	10
LIST OF PICTURES	12
LIST OF BOXES.....	13
LIST OF MAPS.....	13
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	14
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION TO PRO-POOR TOURISM	16
1.1 Research questions	17
1.2 The expected outcomes from this study	18
1.3 Scope of the study	18
1.4 Why study Pro-poor Tourism?.....	18
1.5 How Pro-Poor Tourism development began in Thailand	20
1.6 Poverty situation in Thailand	21
1.7 Categorising the poor in Thailand	23
1.8 Motivations for a study of the impact of Pro-poor Tourism development on the livelihoods of the poor in Thailand.....	27
1.9 Thesis Structure.....	30
CHAPTER 2 PRO-POOR TOURISM AND REVIEW OF LITERATURE.....	32
2.1 Defining Pro-Poor Tourism Concepts	32
2.2 Pro-Poor Tourism and Alternative Conceptualizations of Tourism	33
2.3 Sustainable Tourism: Definition and Concepts of Sustainable Tourism	34
2.4 Pro-poor Tourism and Sustainable Tourism	38
2.5 Pro-poor Tourism Strategies	42
2.6 Literature review on Pro-Poor Tourism: International Case study.....	45
2.7 Pro-poor Tourism in the Greater Mekong Sub-region (GMS)	51
2.8 Pro-poor Tourism case studies in the Greater Mekong Sub-region(GMS)	53
2.9 Issues arising from PPT case studies in GMS countries	57
2.9.1 Unequal benefits from PPT	57
2.9.2 Constraints and Barriersto Participation	59
2.9.3 Infrastructure	61
2.9.4 Local Governance.....	61
2.9.5 Regulatory and Land Use Concerns	62
2.9.6 Human Resource and Business Development	62
2.9.7 Government support in Marketing.....	63
2.9.8 In conclusion	63

CHAPTER 3 SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOOD AND ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK..... 65

3.1	The Sustainable Livelihood Framework	65
3.2	Sustainable Livelihoods and Pro-Poor Tourism.....	71
3.3	Sustainable Livelihoods (SLA) Approach as an Analytical Framework.....	74
3.4	Sustainable Livelihoods and Adaptive Strategies	79
3.5	The Impact of Pro-Poor Tourism on Livelihoods	81
3.5.1	Impact on Financial Capital.....	81
3.5.2	Impact on Human Capital, Education, Skills and Health	82
3.5.3	Impact on the Physical Environment and Infrastructure.....	82
3.5.4	Impact on social capital and community organizations	83
3.5.5	Impact on natural capital	84
3.6	Tourism, Vulnerability and Livelihood Diversification	85
3.6.1	The Linkage between Tourism and Vulnerability	85
3.6.2	Pro-Poor Tourism, Poverty and Vulnerability	86
3.6.3	Tourism and Livelihood Diversification.....	87
3.7	Objectives of the Research under the SL Framework	89
3.7.1	Expected Outcomes	89
3.8	Scope of the Study	90

CHAPTER 4 PRO-POOR TOURISM IN THAILAND AND PROJECT SELECTION..... 91

4.1	Tourism Policy in Thailand.....	91
4.2	Pro-poor Tourism in the Greater Mekong Sub-Region	92
4.3	PPT in Northern Thailand	97
4.4	PPT Development and Strategies in Thailand	100
4.4.1	The Village-based Tourism Programme	100
4.4.2	Village Funds.....	102
4.4.3	“One Tambon One Product” Programme	102
4.4.4	OTOP as a PPT Project	106
4.5	Pro Poor Tourism Interventions in HadBai Village	107
4.6	Underlying reasons for selecting Had Bai as a case study	110

CHAPTER 5 DETAILED METHODOLOGY 115

5.1	Analysis of Datausing the Sustainability Framework in this Study	115
5.2	Sampling	117
5.3	Data Collection Methods.....	119
5.4	Data Analysis	124
5.5	Main Research Question:	125
5.6	Expected Outcomes.....	126
5.7	Scope of the study	126
5.8	Limitations	134

CHAPTER 6 GENERAL PRO-POOR ACTIVITIES IN THE PILOT PROJECT 138

6.1	General Background of the Northern Region.....	138
6.2	Economic Structure of the Northern Region	138
6.2.1	Characteristics of the Northern Economy.....	139
6.2.2	Structure of the Northern Economy.....	139
6.3	Demographic Data of Had Bai Village 1999 – 2011	141
6.4	Distribution of Stakeholders in the PPT programme	147
6.5	Livelihood Structures and Strategies in Had Bai Village.....	150
6.5.1	Agriculture.....	150
6.5.2	Employment	151
6.5.3	Weaving.....	152
6.5.4	Local Resources of Had Bai	158
6.5.5	Land Holding pattern in Had Bai.....	160
6.5.6	Infrastructure support	165
6.6	Participation in PPT programmes	165
6.6.1	Group 1: Those who did not know about the OTOP programme and hence did not participate.	
	167	
6.6.2	Group 2: Villagerswith knowledge of OTOP, who chose to not participate.	169
6.6.3	Group 3: These villagers actively participated in the OTOP programme.	171

CHAPTER 7 PPT IMPACT ON THE SUSTAINABILITY AND DIVERSIFICATION OF LIVELIHOODS IN HAD BAI VILLAGE..... 176

7.1	Assessment of PPT Impact on Livelihood diversification	177
7.1.1	Livelihood Diversification.....	177
7.1.2	PPT initiatives match to the livelihood diversification strategies people use	179
7.1.3	Tourism's impact on villagers' way of life.....	180
7.2	PPT's Impact on Assets	182
7.2.1	Impact on Financial Assets	189
7.2.2	PPT Impact on Social Assets.....	196
7.2.3	PPT Impact on Personal Assets	201
7.2.4	PPT Impact on Physical Assets	203
7.2.5	PPT Impact on Human Assets	209
7.2.6	PPT Impact on Natural Capital.....	215

CHAPTER 8 PPT IMPACT ON THE VULNERABILITY OF THE POOR 220

8.1	Levels of Vulnerability in Had Bai after PPT programmes	221
8.1.1	Vulnerability in Group 1.....	221
8.1.2	Vulnerability in Group 2.....	223
8.1.3	Vulnerability in Group 3.....	225
8.2	Drivers of vulnerability and its impact in Had Bai Village	226

8.3	How villagers in Had Bai interpret vulnerability	227
8.3.1	Coping with Change	236
8.3.2	Enhancement of the Sense of Security in Life.....	237
8.4	The Sense of Self Worth and Personal Development	239
8.5	Conclusion	240
CHAPTER 9 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....		243
9.1	Key Findings	243
9.2	Livelihood Outcomes and Vulnerability	248
9.3	Financial outcomes.....	251
9.3.1	The Financial Sustainability of PPT initiatives in Had Bai Village.....	252
9.4	Social outcomes	253
9.5	Personal outcomes.....	254
9.6	Physical outcomes.....	255
9.7	Human Outcomes.....	256
9.8	Natural Outcomes	257
9.9	Analytical and Methodological Lessons	258
9.10	Challenges and Implications.....	261
9.10.1	Challenges in financial outcomes	261
9.10.2	Challenges in social outcomes	262
9.10.3	Challenges in personal outcomes.....	262
9.10.4	Challenges in physical outcomes	262
9.10.5	Challenges in Human Outcomes.....	263
9.10.6	Challenges in natural outcomes	263
9.10.7	Challenges in how to sustain the livelihood benefit.....	263
9.11	Recommendation for Future Research	270
9.12	Summary of PPT key success factors.....	272
9.13	Summary of Livelihood Tourism (LT).....	273
9.14	Process of Making Livelihood Tourism (PPT)	276
9.14.1	Preparation of community readiness for LT	276
9.14.2	Key factors for the success of LT	278
9.14.3	Marketing for LT	279
9.14.4	The four 'Ps' of LT marketing.....	279
9.15	Theoretical Reflection	281
APPENDIX A		286
APPENDIX B		310
REFERENCES.....		314

List of Figures

Figure 1-1 Real GDP and Real GDP per capita in Thailand	21
Figure 1-2 Income share held by each income group.....	22
Figure 1-3The Map of Poverty Categorisation.....	24
Figure 1-4 Poverty Headcount Ratio and Distribution by Province.....	26
Figure 1-5 Income from Tourism in Thailand.....	29
Figure 2-1 Pro-Poor Tourism Concept among Others	33
Figure 2-2 Sub-regional GMS Mekong Map	51
Figure 3-1 Dimensions of Sustainable Livelihoods Framework	66
Figure 3-2 Five Asset Building Blocks	66
Figure 4-1 Chart of Fundamental “One Tambon One Product” Concept	105
Figure 4-2 Organization Responsible for OTOP	106
Figure 4-3 Average Monthly Income of Selected Areas in 2011	110
Figure 4-4 Value of household debt in selected areas from 2002-2011	111
Figure 6-1 Gender Distribution	142
Figure 6-2 Where Had Bai children have gone to live	143
Figure 6-3 Number of children living outside village per family.....	144
Figure 6-4 Age Distribution	145
Figure 6-5 Education	146
Figure 6-6 Annual schedule for Had Bai villagers	150
Figure 6-7 Number of Rai in Had Bai during 3 periods	161
Figure 6-8 Allocation of households in the sample among threegroups	167
Figure 6-9 Average Number of children per household in Group 1	168
Figure 6-10 Average Annual Income and Debt of the Three Groups	172
Figure 8-1 Group 1 Livelihood Outcomes	221
Figure 8-2 Group 2 Livelihood Outcomes	223
Figure 8-3 Livelihood outcomes in Group 3	225
Figure 8-4 What villagers chose to do when facing livelihood constraint and vulnerability problem	233
Figure 8-5 If you become poor or are already poor, what do you think the reason would be?.....	233
Figure 8-6 If you had money, do you think about changing your agricultural occupation to something else?.....	234
Figure 9-1 Six Assets Building Blocks	259

Figure 9-2 Sustainable Livelihoods framework and impact of Pro-Poor Tourism policy in Thailand	260
Figure 9-3 Relationship of the Government Policy and The National Tourism Development Plan	266
Figure 9-4 shows ideal cooperation among tourism partnerships	267
Figure 9-5 Development Process of Pro-poor Tourism Policy in Thailand	268
Figure 9-6 How do we measure success of PPT	271
Figure 9-7 Simplified Idea of Livelihood Tourism	274

List of Tables

Table 1-1 Development of Household Debt in Thailand	23
Table 1-2 Measurement of Poverty in Thailand, 1988 - 2007	25
Table 1-3 Total expenditure of international tourists.....	28
Table 2-1 Pro-poor Tourism compared with Sustainable Tourism.....	38
Table 2-2 Pro-Poor Tourism compared with Eco-Tourism	41
Table 3-1 Sustainable Livelihoods Frameworks—Strengths and Weaknesses	79
Table 4-1 Tourism's Share of National GDP (%).....	93
Table 4-2 International Tourist Arrivals in GMS Countries, 1995-2007.....	93
Table 4-3 Population in the GMS Countries (Millions)	94
Table 4-4 Poverty Indicators in the GMS	94
Table 4-5 Annual income by source (THB).....	99
Table 4-6 Countries and villages participatingin Village Based Tourism	100
Table 4-7 Poverty conditions in the pilot area related to other parts of Thailand.....	112
Table 5-1 Fundamental questions for overall review.....	126
Table 5-2 Integrated sustainable livelihood components with sub-question #1	127
Table 5-3 Integrated sustainable livelihood components with sub-question #2	128
Table 5-4 Integrated sustainable livelihood components with sub-question 3#	131
Table 5-5 Questions that lead to the answers from the main research question	131
Table 6-1 Number of Households and Total Population	142
Table 6-2 Average number of persons per household seeking jobs outside the village .	144
Table 6-3 Average daily wage comparison from outside employment 1998-2011	151
Table 6-4 Wages for weaving and tailoring.....	155
Table 6-5 Land Holding pattern in Had Bai.....	160

Table 6-6	Livelihood Activities (estimated) in Had Bai	162
Table 6-7	Measuring factors of a good quality of life	162
Table 6-8	Working Schedule of Men and Women in Had Bai Village	164
Table 6-9	How PPT affects livelihood activities	165
Table 7.1	Do you agree with the following statements?.....	183
Table 7.2	Questions concerning financial assets	184
Table 7.3	Questions concerning human assets	184
Table 7.4	Questions concerning natural assets	185
Table 7.5	Questions concerning physical assets / infrastructure	185
Table 7.6	Questions concerning social assets	186
Table 7.7	PPT Impact on Financial Assets of Group 1	192
Table 7.8	PPT Impact on Financial Assets of Group 2	193
Table 7.9	PPT Impact on Financial Assets of Group 3	194
Table 7.10	PPT Impact on Social Assets in Group 1.....	198
Table 7.11	PPT Impact on Social Assets in Group 2.....	199
Table 7.12	PPT Impact on Social Assets in Group 3.....	200
Table 7.13	PPT Impact on Personal Assets in Group 1.....	201
Table 7.14	PPT Impact on Personal Assets in Group 2.....	202
Table 7.15	PPT Impact on Personal Assets in Group 3.....	203
Table 7.16	PPT Impact on Physical Assets in Group 1	206
Table 7.17	PPT Impact on Physical Assets in Group 2	207
Table 7.18	PPT Impact on Physical Assets in Group 3	208
Table 7.19	PPT Impact on Human Assets in Group 1	212
Table 7.20	PPT Impact on Human Assets in Group 2.....	212
Table 7.21	PPT Impact on Human Assets in Group 3.....	213
Table 8.1	PPT impact on the Vulnerability of Group 1	222
Table 8.2	PPT impact on the Vulnerability of Group 2	224
Table 8.3	PPT impact on the Vulnerability of Group 3.....	226
Table 8.4	How villagers think that PPT can reduce their vulnerability.....	229
Table 8.5	Time Line of Events of Disaster in Had Bai Village.....	230
Table 8.6	Time Line of Major Change Events in Had Bai Village	230
Table 8.7	Scoring of Livelihood constraint & Vulnerability problem	231
Table 9.9-1	Villagers' opinions of a better livelihood	244

Table 9.9-2 Improvements and benefits from PPT on the livelihoods of Had Bai Villagers	246
Table 9.9-3 To what extent has PPT improved livelihood outcomes	251
Table 9-4 Japan OVOP and Thailand OTOP Principle	264

List of Pictures

Picture 4.1 Examples of the special weaving styles of the village	108
Picture 5.1 The Author and Mrs. Duangporn who provided food and accommodation during fieldwork.	136
Picture 5.2 The author during small group discussion.....	137
Picture 5.3 Focus Group Discussion.....	137
Picture 6.1 Elderly Woman and Weaving.....	147
Picture 6.2 The author learned how to make cotton yarn.....	173
Picture 6.3 Dance to celebrate Loy Krathong full moon night festival	174
Picture 6.4 Elder women gather at the temple to make monk's robe during full moon festival.....	174
Picture 6.5 Hua Kuan Temple near Had Bai Village.....	175
Picture 6.6 Buddha at Hua Kuan temple.....	175
Picture 7.1 Local shop in Had BaiPicture 7.2 The village's only water pum.....	219

List of Boxes

Box 2.1 Sapa, Vietnam	53
Box 2.2 Siem Reap, Cambodia.....	54
Box 2.3 Mae Kompong and Plai Phong Phang, Thailand	55
Box 2.4 Xishuangbanna, Yunnan	56
Box 2.5 Luang Prabang, Lao PDR	57

List of Maps

Map 6.1 Map of Chiang Rai	140
Map 6.2 Map of the location of participating groups in Had Bai Village	166

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am grateful to many people in Thailand and the UK who have directly and indirectly contributed to the success of this study. The following persons require special thanks. First of all, my supervisor, Dr.Sunil Kumar, who devoted his valuable time and offered me guidance and support throughout my study.

I am grateful to Dr. Gail Wilson for her support during the major review in 2002.

For her provision of important materials and guidance in Thailand, I would like to thank Ms. Patcharee Wattanatham.

I would like to thank Dr. Somsak Srisontisuk, Dr. Ivan Stanley Reyes Sagun and Dr. Chayawadee Chaianan for many valuable comments on the thesis.

Special thanks go also to Mrs. Carol Woppard, Mrs. Sitapa Na Talang, and Dr. Pataporn Sukontamarn for their help and encouragement at various stages of my research.

Last but not least, my husband Warit Decharin, who shouldered all family responsibilities, my daughter Warichaya Decharin and my son Supatach Decharin who gave me love and inspiration.

Finally, I would like to thank my parents for the inspiration to pursue my studies, their constant support and encouragement for my study in Britain.

This thesis is dedicated to my family.

ABBREVIATIONS

ADB	Asian Development Bank
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
Bt, THB	Thai Baht(Thailand's currency)
CARE	Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere, Incorporated
CBOs	Community-based Organisations
CBT	Community-Based Tourism
DFID	Department for International Development
DOT	Department of Tourism
FRDF	Farmers Restoration and Development Fund
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GMS	Greater Mekong Sub-region
Lao PDR	Lao People's Democratic Republic
LED	Local Economic Development
MOTS	Ministry of Tourism and Sports
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NOAC	National OTOP Administrative Committee
ODI	Overseas Development Institute
OTOP	One Tambon One Product
OVOP	One Village One Product
PA	Participatory Assessment
PALI	Participatory Analysis of Livelihood Impacts & Issues
PRA	Participatory Rural Appraisal
PPT	Pro-poor Tourism
RRA	Rapid Rural Appraisal
SL	Sustainable Livelihoods
SMEs	Small and Medium Enterprises
TAT	Tourism Authority of Thailand
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
USD	United States Dollars
VBT	Village-Based Tourism
WTO	World Tourism Organization

CHAPTER 1

Introduction to Pro-Poor Tourism

Tourism is one of the world's largest industries, with over 10 per cent of global GDP directly related to tourism activities (Goodwin, 2000). Tourism also in Thailand directly contributed 2.56 million jobs or 6.6 percent of the total employment in 2013 (World Travel and Tourism Council 2014). With both backward and forward links to production and employment, the industry can have both a positive and a negative effect on the livelihood of the poor (Deloitte and Touche, 1999). Nevertheless, policy regarding tourism development in most countries continues driven by economic, environmental and cultural perspectives at national and international levels, with the impact on the poor at best a secondary consideration.

Since the mid-1980s there has been rapid growth in interest among decision makers and practitioners in sustainable tourism, eco-tourism and community tourism, focusing on the need to ensure that tourism does not prove ruinous to the environment and local cultures (Ashley, Boyd and Goodwin, 2000). However, there has been little consideration of the full range of impacts on rural livelihoods, and most countries have failed to incorporate the objectives of poverty elimination or mitigation into policies regarding tourism development. To this extent, the current policy agenda has missed the potential to enhance opportunities for the poor and hence the overall well-being of the economy (Ashley, 2000).

Governments and investors in tourism development thus face the challenge of responding to changes in broader thinking on strategies to ensure and enhance the positive impact of tourism on the livelihood of the poor. While poverty reduction may not be at the heart of the international tourism agenda, tourism itself affects significantly the livelihoods of millions of poor people. As a result, authorities in many countries, especially emerging markets, have promoted a strategy known as **Pro-poor Tourism (PPT)**, defined as tourism that generates net benefits for the poor. This does not refer only to economic benefits, but also encompasses social, environmental and cultural benefits, at the same time as aiming to unlock opportunities for the poor rather than merely expanding the overall size of the sector.

The aim of this thesis is to explore PPT policy and its impact on projects in Thailand. In particular, it examines whether PPT interventions have enhanced the livelihoods of the poor. In addition it seeks to examine question whether PPT contributes to a diversification of livelihood options, and to what extent this diversification reduces vulnerability and thus has an impact on poverty reduction. One PPT strategy this thesis will focus on is the One Tambon One Product (OTOP) scheme.

Launched in 2001 as a countrywide community entrepreneurship stimulus programme designed by then Prime Minister ThaksinShinawatra during his 2001-2006 Thai Rak Thai (Thai Loves Thai) government, OTOP was inspired by an earlier Japanese One Village One Product (OVOP) scheme, and Taiwan's One Town One Product (OTOP) project, itself modelled on the Japanese innovation. The programme is intended to support locally made products from each sub-district (*tambon*)through the improved quality and marketing of local products. A selected product from each sub-district is formally branded as a starred OTOP product, with a platform for local promotion and marketing, but also for the national market and possible export. Locallyproduced OTOP products include handicrafts, cotton and silk clothing and accessories, ceramics, kitchen and household items, and processed food products. In September 2006 a military junta carried out a coup against the elected government and cancelled the OTOPprogramme, but it was later revived and renamed, although retaining OTOP branding. Aimed at improving income in village communities to help alleviate rural poverty, the scheme provides an avenue through which the poor can access the higher benefits of tourism.

1.1 Research questions

The purpose of the research is to investigate the effect of the OTOP project as a proxy for Thailand's PPT policy on the livelihood of the rural poor, and to this end focuseson the extent to which Thailand's PPT policy has improved the livelihoodof the rural poor, the degree of participation, how PPT has contributed to livelihood diversification and whether it has reduced or increased the vulnerability of the poor.

The research question of this project is "**To what extent has Pro-poor Tourism improved the livelihood of the rural poor in Thailand**". This question will be answered through the following three sub questions:

1. What are the livelihood structures and strategies of the rural poor in Thailand?
2. How has Pro-poor Tourism contributed to livelihood diversification and an increasing in the assets of the poor?
3. To what extent has pro-poor tourism reduced the vulnerability of the rural poor?

1.2 The expected outcomes from this study

The expected results of this study are:

1. An understanding of how tourism interventions have improved the livelihood outcomes of the poor in Thailand.
2. An improved understanding of residents' perceptions, values and priorities relating to Pro-poor Tourism projects in their community.
3. Help identifying strategies to enhance the livelihood impacts of tourism on the poor.

This will produce guidelines for the future development of Pro-poor Tourism in Thailand.

1.3 Scope of the study

This study will focus on Pro-poor Tourism Projects launched by the Thai Government from 1998-2011. The methodology employed to answer this is based on a sustainable livelihoods (SL) framework using secondary data together with information from primary data obtained from a survey on OTOP.

1.4 Why study Pro-poor Tourism?

Essentially, pro-poor tourism is defined as tourism that generates net benefits for the poor. Benefits may be economic but they may also be social, environmental or cultural. Many developing countries believe that tourism is an effective means of expanding national economic growth as the development of the industry helps create job opportunities and increase local income. The industry is considered labour intensive and has a catalytic effect on the rest of the economy as it has lower barriers to entry and creates better and more gender-concerned jobs than most other economic sectors (Gerosa, 2003). Tourism can be seen to not only generate growth within its own industry, but also to spread this growth to other related businesses, including the hotel, restaurant, transport and communications sectors.

Moreover, it is also involved with almost all production sectors at all levels, whether local, provincial or national. However, tourism policy in most countries has not incorporated sufficiently the objective of poverty reduction. Tourism has been predominantly driven by economic, environmental and cultural perspectives at both national and international levels, and its potential to enhance opportunities for the poor has been somewhat overlooked. While the economic aspects of tourism in terms of wage and income has a direct benefit to the poor, the indirect impact on the livelihood of the poor can also be significant (Dorosh and Klytchnikova, 2009). Firstly, it can change poor people's access to assets and related livelihood options such as natural resources, physical infrastructure and funds for investment in health, education and other assets. Secondly, tourism can have a social impact, affecting other livelihood goals such as cultural pride, a sense of control and security, as well as good health. The range of impacts may be distributed unevenly among different sectors of the poor, depending upon the structural characteristics of the society in question.

In Thailand, tourism has been part of the nation's broad development strategy for decades, and is used as a major source of generating foreign exchange revenue for the economy, thus contributing to overall economic growth. Furthermore, as tourism is a labour-intensive activity, it is expected to create a broader distribution of economic benefit, both direct and indirect, within the economy. Although the number of foreign tourists visiting Thailand has grown in recent years, the majority remain concentrated in major cities with well-developed infrastructure and shopping areas. Mass tourism of this kind is unlikely to ensure the favourable distribution of impacts to low-income groups living away from popular locations. More recently however the Thai government has started to promote tourism development, better income distribution and cooperation among the people in local communities to foster sustainable development. (MOTS Tourism Strategies, 2012)

The government and community leaders have developed several alternative forms of tourism for the benefit of local communities, where people can use their natural and cultural endowments to create economic value. However, there has been no explicit pro-poor strategy that uses tourism as a tool to reduce poverty.

Although alternative tourism activities help to create income and employment, they do not create net positive benefits to the poor (Pupphavesa, Panpeimras and Anutchiworawong, 2005).

1.5 How Pro-Poor Tourism development began in Thailand

Recognizing the importance of tourism, the Thai government formulated several strategies specific to tourism development under the Ninth National and Social Development Plan (2002-2006). In addition to this national plan, which provides policy direction for the entire economy, government agencies have formulated a number of sub-plans, including Thailand Tourism Strategies (2004-2008), Thailand Tourism Development Strategies (2004-2006), and the Ministry of Tourism and Sports' Action Plan (2005-2008). These plans contain implicit pro-poor aspects in terms of improved income distribution, and the strategies have the economic objective of driving tourism activities to generate substantial earnings for the economy. Some strategies are concerned with the development of communities, and focus on how to establish linkages between tourism and local communities and to improve income distribution.

Historically, tourism in Thailand has been widely criticised as a major cause of social problems. In particular tourism achieved notoriety as a result of a sex industry catering to locals and international tourists. During the 1970s and 1980s sex tourism in Thailand was advertised by both Thai and international travel companies as one of the country's key attractions (Truong, 1990). The World Health Organization (WHO) estimated that 3.5 million people in Asia are infected with HIV and probably as many as 750,000 from Thailand (Fairclough, 1995). Social problems such as the exploitation and trafficking of women and children for sex and/or cheap labour, the spread of HIV/AIDS, and the sale and use of illegal drugs all affect vulnerable populations. The struggle against the social problems attributed to tourism has been exacerbated by the failure of government authorities to curb corruption instigated by well-connected criminal organizations. This has hindered the Thai government from a close examination of the root causes of these problems, an examination that is vital if vulnerable populations are to be rescued from entrenched poverty.

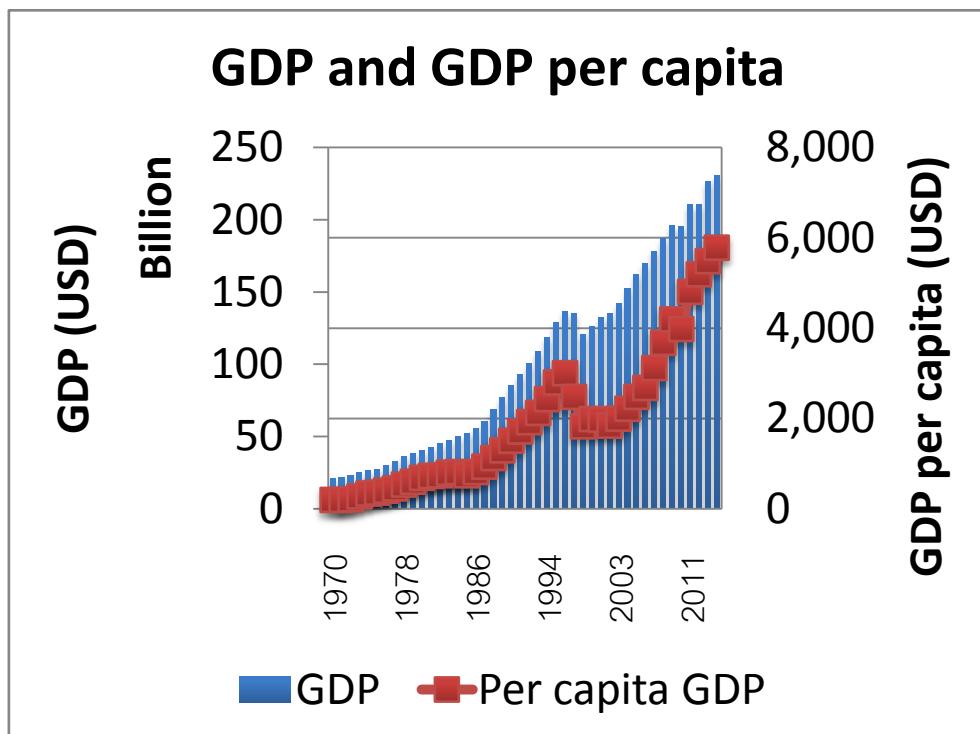
International and Thai tourists

To address this, a Pro-poor National Tourism Policy was formulated at a National Tourism Workshop held in the northern city of Chiang Mai on 20-21 April 2001, attended by the prime minister and representatives of the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT), the governments of each of the nation's provinces, NGOs and private businesses. In the hope that tourism will become a tool to reduce the poverty behind wider social problems, new policies have been launched together with the new National Agenda. These policies match the concept of PPT in that they aim to generate direct benefits for impoverished groups nationwide.

1.6 Poverty situation in Thailand

Thailand in the period from 1985 to 1996 enjoyed an average economic rate of expansion of over 10 percent, with real GDP growth at up to 6 percent in 2006. Despite this expansion, however, there was no significant change in the income gap between the richest and the poorest, and the distribution of well-being in the Thai economy has remained uneven. This suggests that high income alone is insufficient to improve well-being in the community.

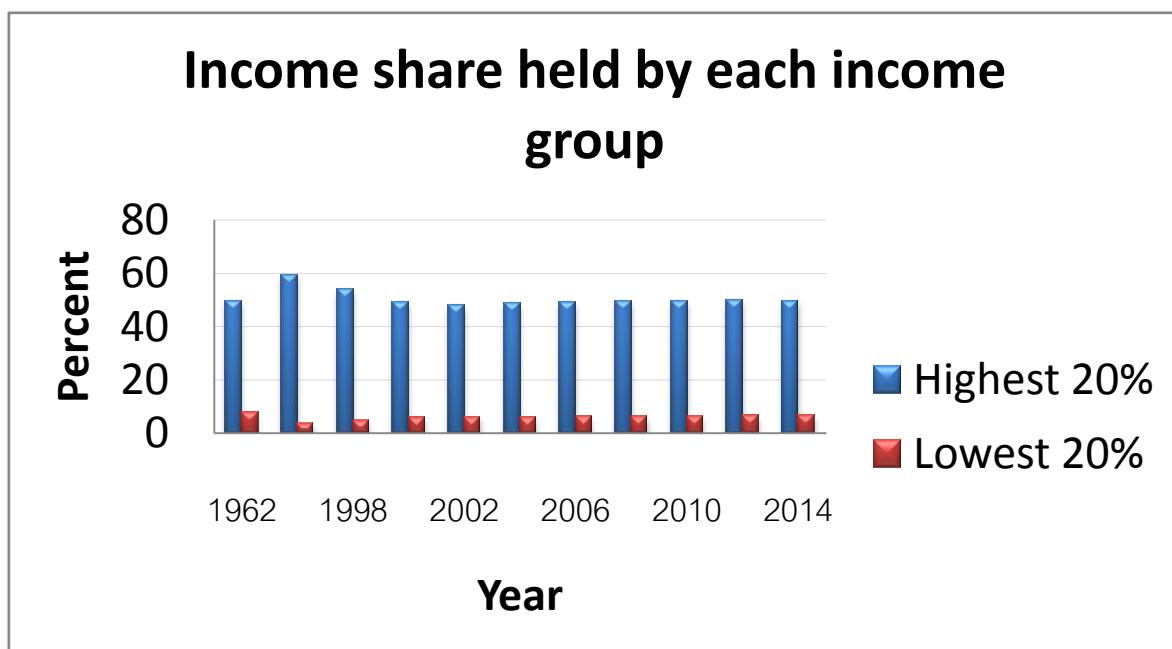
Figure 1-1 Real GDP and Real GDP per capita in Thailand



Source: NESDB 2011-2015

Theory also suggests that an inadequate income is only a partial indication of poverty, as it is also possible to escape the condition of poverty through better education, consumption and healthcare. Moreover, poverty does not merely have an economic impact, but also, due to questions of social status, a psychological one, and leads to issues such as general insecurity and unstable homes (Johnson, B., 1967). Regardless, a considerable amount of research has used income as an indicator of poverty. Traditional approaches to poverty define the minimum subsistence needs of people to achieve an adequate standard of living in a given country. The most common measure of poverty used in international studies has been approximately USD1 per day. However, the World Bank has revised the threshold to USD1.25 at 2005 PPP (Purchasing Power Parity) standards (Worldbank, 2008).

Figure1-2Income share held by each income group



Source: NESDB 2011-2015

As previously discussed however, measurements of poverty based on income and expenditure in this traditional way can be illusive. We have seen that despite reductions in actual numbers of persons living in poverty, a significant income gap¹ and social as well as

¹Biased distribution

environmental problems remain. The simple statistics from previous studies on Thailand can be taken as a good example of outstanding problems. Researchers discovered that the rate of income increase over previous years led by a rise in household assets has been relatively lower than the increase in household's liabilities (BOT symposium, 2004). This finding is confirmed by the data from the National Statistical Office on household debt and monthly income, shown in Table 1-1.

Table 1-1 Development of Household Debt in Thailand

	1994	1996	1998	2000	2002	2004	2006	2007
Average Household Debt (Baht/household)	31,019	55,300	72,345	70,586	84,603	104,571	116,585	116,681
Ratio of Household Debt to Monthly Income	3.7	5.0	5.7	5.7	6.1	7.0	6.6	6.3

Source: National Statistical Office 2008

These increasing liabilities may create further difficulties for the poor in their management of their way of living, and it is thus possible to argue that these people remain stuck in poverty. Although there has been no breakthrough in terms of the invention of an approach to poverty measurement that would accommodate these factors, the facts indicate that the growth development strategies targeting the grass-roots economy are essential for the overall improvement of the country's well-being.

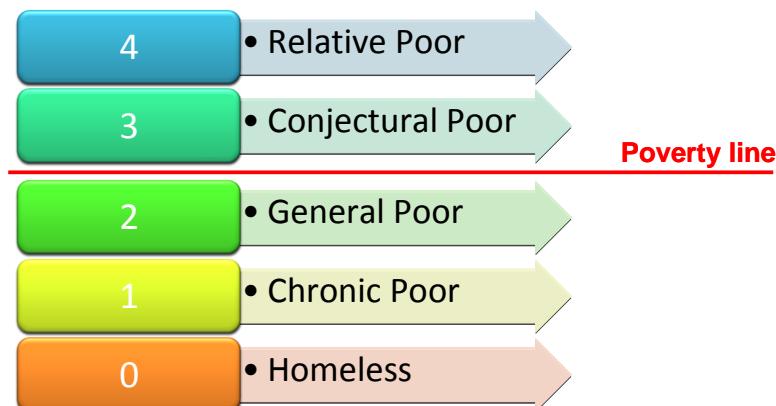
1.7 Categorising the poor in Thailand

For Thailand, Jitsuchon (2003) categorises the poor into four groups:

1. Basic or Physical Poor - those with an insufficient area of land, or low quality land unsuitable for cultivation. These poor have no savings and low assets. Only equipped with basic skills, they earn a bare minimum wage and have significant monetary burdens.
2. Chronic Poor - those with no basic requisites for living, very little education, no savings or assets and with high monetary burdens due to the need to care for infants, the disabled and long-term sick family members. The poor in this group provide temporary labour, and their wages must be spread among at least three family members. They have no opportunity for education and cannot escape poverty.

3. Conjectural Poor - those vulnerable to external factors that could tip them into poverty, such as weather, natural disasters or losing the head of the family. While this group may not lack the basic requisites for living, the land they farm, for instance, may be of low quality or situated in a poor geographical area. In some cases, they may have insufficient funding for cultivation and must rely on high-cost financing. They are relatively old and lack the skills needed to utilise new technology, which in turn makes them more vulnerable to unemployment than other labourers.
4. Relative Poor - those lacking opportunities to access news and information on technology and benefits from government programmes. They are not highly educated and have low bargaining power. This group will grow as the income gap widens, rather than being determined by overall national income.

Figure 1-3The Map of Poverty Categorisation



Source: Jitsuchon (2003)

The calculation of Thailand's poverty line is based on the varying cost of living and accordingly produces different values annually. With the exception of the 1990s, when Thailand was severely affected by the Asian financial crisis, the threshold has been above international standard and has shown an upward trend. The rising threshold can be attributed for the most part to the rise in the cost of living, which in turn has resulted in a declining trend of the poverty gap ratio², as shown in

² The poverty gap ratio is the ratio of the poverty line to the expenditure of those under the poverty line itself.

Table 1-2. The data demonstrates that fewer people are falling under the poverty line and reveals that the severity of poverty in Thailand has been ameliorated over recent years.

Table 1-2 Measurement of Poverty in Thailand, 1988 - 2007

	1988	1990	1992	1994	1996	1998	2000	2002	2004	2006	2007
Poverty Gap Ratio	11.40	8.05	6.62	3.92	2.85	3.35	4.24	2.75	2.01	1.81	1.45
Severity of Poverty³	4.30	2.82	2.23	1.22	0.85	0.99	1.30	0.81	0.56	0.53	0.41
Poverty Line (\$/person/day)	1.25	1.35	1.56	1.67	1.88	1.37	1.41	1.39	1.54	1.83	2.09
Ratio of the poor (percent)	42.21	33.69	28.43	18.98	14.75	17.46	20.98	14.93	11.16	9.55	8.48
Number of the poor (M. persons)	22.1	18.4	15.8	10.7	8.5	10.2	12.6	9.1	7.0	6.1	5.4
Total population (M. persons)	52.4	54.5	55.6	56.6	57.6	58.7	59.9	61.2	62.9	63.4	63.9

Source: NESDB 2007, Exchange rate from UN database

An agenda of poverty reduction in terms of improving the well-being of disadvantaged families, sharing the benefits of growth across communities in villages and cities, and connecting remote regions within the country, has played a central role in Thailand's development model. Commitment to poverty reduction by policy makers, businesses, and civil society has contributed to a remarkable record of poverty reduction in recent decades.

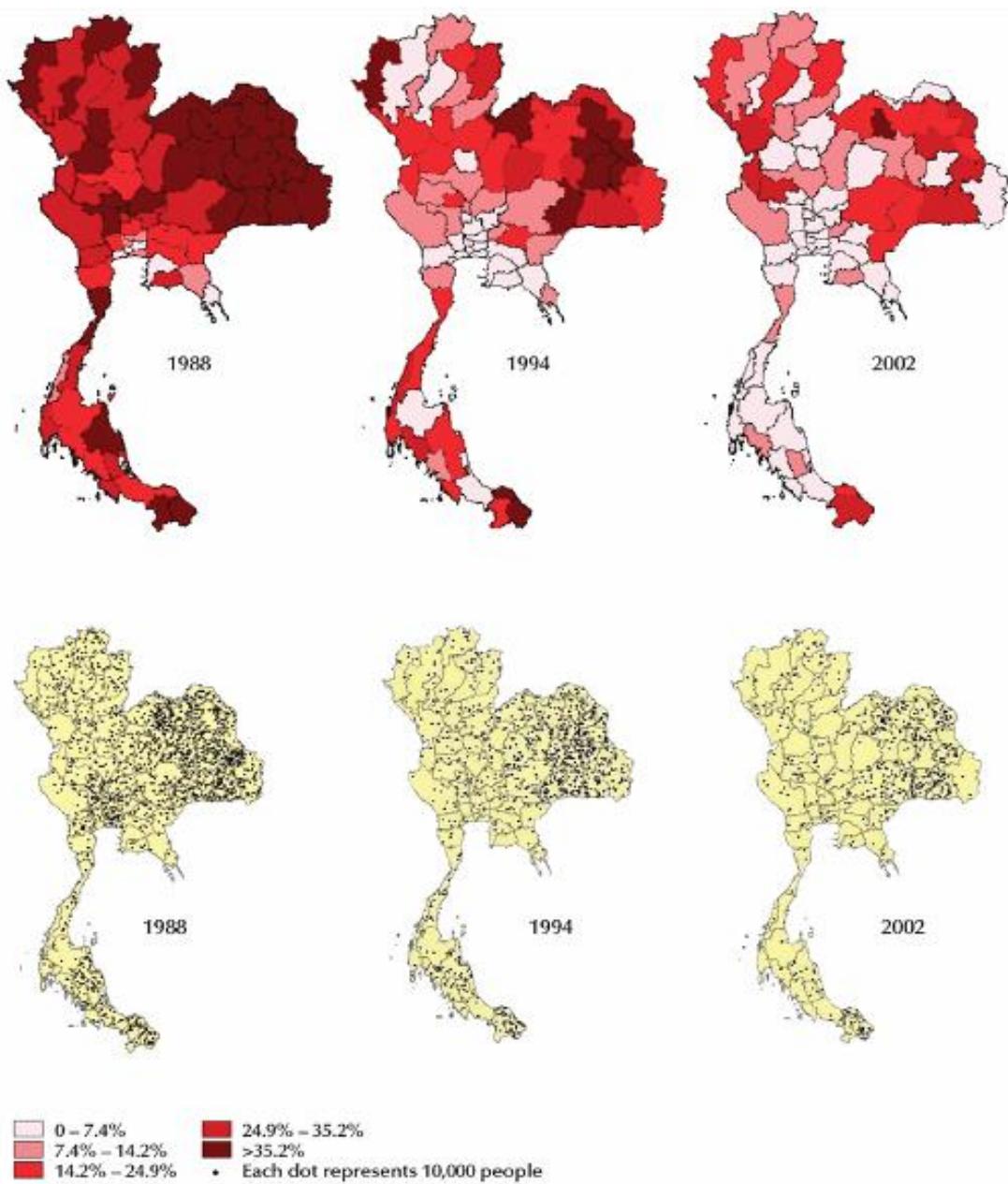
Nonetheless, questions and concerns have been raised about the effectiveness of economic policies in supporting growth in household income and providing communities

³Severity of poverty considers the importance of the poor with substantially low income compared to the poverty line, with more weight given the further the distance from the line. This monitors extreme cases of poverty, as people in this group will have the least opportunity to surface above the poverty line.

with access to basic services. The overlap between poor areas and areas with low population densities is a special form of poverty in Thailand.

This characteristic differs from the pattern exhibited in other countries, where high poverty occurs in highly populated areas. In Thailand, by contrast, poverty has been lowest in Bangkok and the surrounding areas and highest in the nation's outlying regions. The proportional reduction in poverty has been largest in Bangkok, followed by the Central, South, and North regions, with the slowest reduction in the Northeast.

Figure1-4Poverty Headcount Ratio and Distribution by Province



Source:Jitsuchon and Richter 2007

The Thai poverty map shows that while the Northeast and the South include the very poorest provinces, these regions also contain wealthy provinces where poverty incidence is less than 7.5 percent. Provinces in Thailand having high poverty headcounts tend to have large populations and, as a result, a large number of poor people. However, this general pattern does not apply to the North, the second poorest region in Thailand. The Northern provinces with the highest poverty incidence tend to be remote and with small populations, the low population density meaning that they contribute only moderately to the national poverty rate. In order to touch the root cause of poverty in Thailand one must look beyond the income rate and the conventional national poverty rate. Thus, in Thailand's case, the targeting of public resources on a small number of provinces, sub-districts, and villages has allowed the country to achieve significant progress in meeting the goal of eradicating poverty (Jitsuchon and Richter, 2007)

1.8 Motivations for a study of the impact of Pro-poor Tourism development on the livelihoods of the poor in Thailand

Tourism has played a vital role in the Thai economy, with an estimated THB 348 billion in total receipts from foreign tourist expenditure in 2004, representing a 24.16 percent increase from 2003 levels (Table 1-3).

Even with an economic downturn and ten years of political instability, tourism continues to generate revenue. (Fuller, 1997), and now accommodates approximately 24.7 million tourists per year, one of the highest figures for Southeast Asia (Ministry of Tourism and Sports, 2015). Thai tourism forms a major source of both direct and indirect employment in industries such as hotels, restaurants, transportation and the souvenir trade. Employment in the hotel and restaurant sector alone accounts for more than 16 per cent of total employment (TAT. 2009). Tourism revenue has increased from USD 10 million in 1960 to USD 46 billion in 2013 according to the World Tourism Organization.

Table 1-3 Total expenditure of international tourists

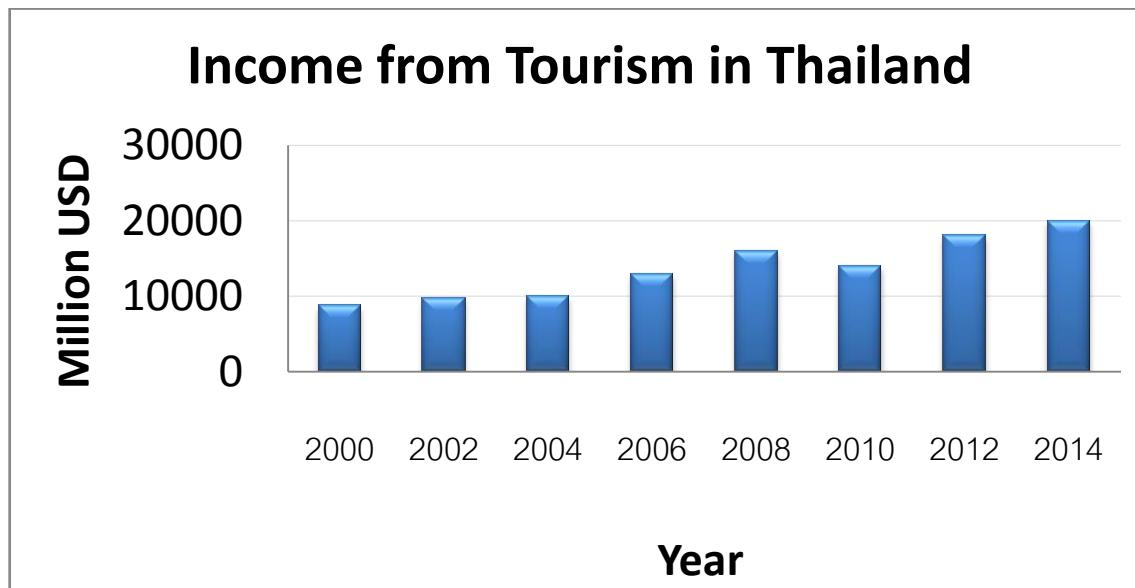
Year	International tourists						
	Tourist		Average length of stay (Days)	Average Expenditure		Revenue	
	Number (Millions)	Change (%)		/person/day (THB)	Change (%)	Million (THB)	Change (%)
1996	7.19	3.46	8.23	3,706	0.34	219,364	14.99
1997	7.22	0.41	8.33	3,672	-0.92	220,754	0.63
1998	7.76	7.53	8.4	3,713	1.12	242,177	9.7
1999	8.58	10.5	7.76	3,705	-0.23	23,018	4.48
2000	9.51	10.82	7.77	3,861	4.23	285,272	12.75
2001	10.06	5.82	7.93	3,748	-2.93	299,074	4.83
2002	10.8	7.33	7.98	3,754	0.16	323,484	8.17
2003	10	-7.36	8.19	3,774	0.55	309,269	-4.39
2004	12	19.95	8	4,000	5.97	384,000	24.16
2005	11.52	-1.51	8.20	3,890	-4.13	367,380	-4.42
2006	13.82	20.01	8.62	4,048	4.06	482,319	31.29
2007	14.46	+ 4.65	9.19	4,120	1.80	547,782	13.57

Source: *Tourism Authority of Thailand*

During 1996-2004, the average annual growth of total income earned from tourism was 7.24 percent. The number of foreign tourists visiting Thailand expanded by more than 66 percent from 1996, marking a relatively good direction for the tourism sector. Even when the economic crisis erupted in 1997, there was no sign of a slump in the sector. Even with the economic situation and recent political instability, tourism has continued to generate revenue. Thailand was among the first countries in the region to implement active tourism campaigns (Fuller, 1997), and now accommodates some 15 million tourists per year, one of the highest figures for Southeast Asia (TAT, 2009). Moreover, Thai tourism forms one of the major sources of both direct and indirect employment in various industries, such as hotels, restaurants, transportation and the souvenir trade. Employment in the hotel and restaurant sector alone accounts for more than 16 percent of total employment (TAT, 2009). According to the Bank of Thailand, tourism revenue increased from USD10 million in 1960 to USD18,173 million in 2008 (Figure1-5). The tourism industry has become the topmost foreign currency earner, above other industrial sectors such as computers and parts, electronic components and textiles.

The contribution of the tourism industry to the Thai economy is thus as significant, if not more so, than that of other industries.

Figure1-5 Income from Tourism in Thailand



Source: Bank of Thailand

It is clear that Thailand has all the necessary assets as a world class tourism destination. The Thai government has recognised the potential for tourism to reduce poverty in poorer areas at the same time as generating national income. Under the latest plans, the government declared tourism as a key item in the National Agenda and a pillar of national economic growth in 2010. The tourism policy as part of the National Agenda has been designed with an emphasis on developing and promoting sustainable tourism with the least environmental, natural, social and cultural impact, while enhancing the potential of tourism resources, including the standardization of tourism products, to generate optimum benefits.

This thesis tries to determine how tourism and tourism development policies, strategies and initiatives, whose establishment and objectives are consonant with pro-poor strategies, impact income generation and employment opportunities in a rural ethnic community.

This issue is the main motivation of this research, as tourism is one of many revenues streams that can increase opportunities for the poor and gradually close the income gap in the long run. This research focuses on PPT development in Thailand, where existing natural resources and legendary hospitality have combined to help generate tourism income. However, most benefits from the sector have hitherto appeared to concentrate in middle-to high-income groups, such as business owners and workers earning at very least a basic living wage. This, in turn, leads to questions of how policy makers can expand tourism activities in Thailand that they may fulfill their potential to enhance the well-being of poor communities. To fully access the potential of tourism for pro-poor growth, Gerosa (2003) has suggested that one must go beyond the economic benefits and socio-cultural impact and focus on livelihood and distribution.

1.9 Thesis Structure

This paper is divided into nine chapters. **Chapter 1** introduces the purpose and aim of this research, looking at the background and motivations for a study of PPT and how it began in Thailand, and providing an overview to poverty here and the categorisation of its poor.

Following the general introduction, **Chapter 2** focuses on PPT as a concept and gives an overview of related literature, including issues and debates. This chapter defines differences between PPT and alternative conceptualisations of tourism and PPT strategies.

Chapter 3 links the PPT concept to an analysis of its impact on livelihood, providing a framework for methodology and analysis. The Sustainable Livelihoods framework was adapted and reviewed to provide a more holistic approach to examine the livelihood impact of Thailand's PPT. The framework also helps explain the livelihood strategies of the rural poor in the research village.

Chapter 4 discusses PPT policy in Thailand and gives an overview of the authorities' policy towards PPT. This chapter provides information on PPT intervention in Thailand and the background of the OTOP project. Related literature on OTOP and tourism in Northern Thailand are described here.

Chapter 5 explains the methodology employed and experiences of the author while undertaking field research during various stages of study. Fundamental questions for overall review are provided along with the reasons for project selection.

Chapter 6 begins the analysis, and answers the first sub-question of the research: What are the livelihood structures and strategies of the rural poor in Thailand? This will provide information on the livelihood patterns, the general background of Thailand's rural poor, and the characteristics of the economic structure, all of which are necessary for an understanding of the livelihood structures and strategies of the poor in the pilot project. It also provides the general background of the research village as well as the demographic data. The chapter divides the villagers into the three groups based on their level of participation in the OTOP project: those who were unaware of the programme and thus did not participate, those who knew of the programme but chose not to participate, and those who actively participated. The average annual income versus debt analysis of the three groups is presented to illuminate the financial capital of the poor. In-depth analysis of the overall livelihood and assets of the three groups will be analysed systematically. Chapter 6 also explains the relevance of participation and the livelihood impact.

Chapter 7 attempts to answer the second sub-research question: How has pro-poor tourism contributed to livelihood diversification and an increase in the assets of the poor? The chapter will explain how villagers understand livelihood diversification and whether their assets, as defined by the Sustainable Livelihood approach, have changed following implementation of the PPT project.

Chapter 8 answers the third sub-research question: To what extent has pro-poor tourism reduced the vulnerability of the rural poor?

Finally, **Chapter 9** pulls together answers to the three sub-questions in order to answer the main research question: To what extent has Pro-poor Tourism improved the livelihood of the rural poor in Thailand? This chapter summarises the effectiveness of PPT projects in terms of improving the livelihoods of the poor. Overall results are looked at in the light of the existing literature, and an explanation of the discrepancies is discussed. Suggestions are given for policy implication and ways of making PPT work effectively.

CHAPTER 2

Pro-poor Tourism and Review of Literature

2.1 Defining Pro-Poor Tourism Concepts

The concept of Pro-Poor Tourism falls under the broader umbrella of sustainable development. Sustainable tourism focuses on issues such as how tourism damages nature, culture and the environment, the response of the local community and investment in tourism. While PPT is broadly congruent with such ideas, it places greater emphasis on how tourism can benefit the poor (Ashley, 2000). It is not a specific tourism product or sector, but rather an overall approach involving a range of stakeholders operating at different levels. Rather than aiming to expand the size of the tourism-related sector, PPT strategies aim to unlock opportunities for the poor (Ashley, Roe, Goodwin, 2001). One distinctive feature of PPT is that the poor can use ancestral skills such as cooking, farming, fishing, and craft production that they typically possess, to create profitable opportunities (Renard, 2001). PPT comprises tourism-related activities to bring about net benefits for the poor, increasing their overall quality of life and sense of well-being in diverse ways, including economic, social, environmental and cultural benefits.

Pro-poor tourism is set-up in developing countries as a means to improve the local economy for local people. It generally enhances linkages between tourism businesses and the poor, reducing poverty so poor people can participate more effectively in tourism development. There are a host of possible aims of pro-poor tourism, such as increasing local employment to involving local people in the decision-making process.

Prior to the emergence of PPT as a distinct concept, there was already an emphasis on sustainable tourism, eco-tourism and community tourism, all of which have grown rapidly since the mid-1980s. All of these seek to ensure that tourism does not have a detrimental environmental or cultural impact on the societies in question, but do not consider specifically the full extent of the impact on the livelihoods of the poor (Ashley, Roe and Goodwin 2001). An awareness that such issues needed addressing led governments in the late 1990s to develop PPT strategies.

2.2 Pro-Poor Tourism and Alternative Conceptualizations of Tourism

Figure 2-1 Pro-Poor Tourism Concept among Others



Ashley (2000) identifies six principles of Pro-poor Tourism

1. Participation - poor people must participate in tourism decisions if their livelihood priorities are to be reflected in the way tourism is developed.
2. Commercial realism - ways to enhance impacts on the poor within the constraints of commercial viability need to be sought.
3. A holistic livelihoods approach - the range of livelihood concerns of the poor - economic, social, and environmental, short-term and long-term - need to be recognised. Focusing simply on cash or jobs is inadequate.
4. Flexibility - The scale of development may need to be adapted. Appropriate strategies and positive impacts will take time to develop.
5. Distribution - promoting Pro-poor Tourism requires some analysis of the distribution of both benefits and costs - and how to influence it.
6. Learning - as much is untested, learning from experience is essential. Pro-poor Tourism also needs to draw on lessons from poverty analysis, environmental management, good governance and small enterprise development.

Pro-poor Tourism may be defined as tourism which benefits the poor more than the rich and which places a greater welfare weight on the well-being of the poor than that of the rich. Although there is much overlap between Pro-poor Tourism and alternative concepts of tourism, there are some differences. An interesting question is how PPT

differs from other forms of “alternative” tourism. The answer lies in the final stage of the net benefit, as outlined below.

2.3 Sustainable Tourism: Definition and Concepts of Sustainable Tourism

The past three decades have shown the popularity of the concept of sustainable development, partly due to the activities of environmental campaign organisations. The idea of sustainable development was first highlighted by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN, 1980) in its World Conservation Strategy. This was followed by the World Commission on Environment and Development Report in 1987, entitled “Our Common Future” (WCED, 1987), which placed the concept of sustainable development centre stage and promoted it as a vehicle for deliverance.

“Our Common Future” described sustainable development as “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (WCED, 1987). Sustainability as a concept may be viewed from opposites: at one extreme is economic sustainability where what is being sustained is the economy at whatever cost; diametrically opposed to this is ecological sustainability, where the natural environment takes priority over any economic development (Page et al, 2001).

Swarbrooke (1999) provides a useful definition of sustainable tourism:

“tourism which is economically viable but does not destroy the resources on which the future of tourism will depend, notably the physical environment and the social fabric of the host community”, observing the need to achieve a balance in the tourists’ use of tourist resources and environments they visit and consume.

According to the World Tourism Organization (2004),

“sustainable tourism development required the informed participation of all relevant stakeholders, as well as strong political leadership to ensure wide participation and consensus building. Achieving sustainable tourism is a continuous process requiring constant monitoring of impacts, introducing the necessary preventive and/or corrective measures as necessary. Sustainable tourism should also maintain a high level of tourist satisfaction and ensure a

meaningful experience to the tourists, raising their awareness about sustainability issues and promoting sustainable tourism practices.”

For Cater (1993),

“sustainable tourism can be defined as tourism meeting the needs of the host population in terms of improved living standards (in both short and long terms), ... satisfying the demands of a growing number of tourists and at the same time safeguarding the natural environment.”

The opening editorial of the first edition of the Journal of Sustainable Tourism defines sustainability as a positive approach intended to reduce the tensions and friction created by complex interactions between the tourism industry, visitors, the environment and communities.

Despite many positive initiatives for ecologically and socially tolerable forms of tourism, the conflict between the development of global tourism and the central goals of environmental policy, such as protecting climate, maintaining biological diversity and protecting energy and water resources, will continue to increase. Only ‘sustainable’ tourism is viable for the future (meaning) tourism that is ecologically, socially compatible, culturally appropriate and yields economic benefits for the local population (Insula, 2004).

This is not very different from the view that something should be left for future generations. As such, sustainable development builds on the old principle of conservation, but it offers a more proactive stance, incorporating continued economic growth in a manner that is at once more ecological and more equitable.

Sustainable tourism is also closely linked to responsible tourism. According to the 2002 Cape Town Declaration,

“responsible tourism is tourism which: minimises negative social, economic and environmental impacts; generates greater economic benefits for local people and enhances the well-being of host communities; improves working conditions and access to the industry; involves local people in decisions that affect their lives and

life chances; makes positive contributions to the conservation of natural and cultural heritage embracing diversity; provides more enjoyable experiences for tourists through more meaningful connections with local people, and a greater understanding of local cultural, social and environmental issues; provides access for physically challenged people, and is culturally sensitive, encourages respect between tourists and hosts, and builds local pride and confidence.”

Tourism in developing countries is driven by local communities, seen as being the principle resource upon which tourism depends. Local support is indispensable in developing a sustainable tourist product (Brohman, 1996). The role of the community is thus a key component to ensuring the sustainability of tourism development (Campbell 1994, Masberg and Morales 1999, Ross and Wall 1999). Of great importance in community-led sustainable development is good understanding among all the parties concerned, not only in terms of the relationship between local communities and their environment, but also an approach that acknowledges and addresses the political, economic and cultural tensions within communities (Richards and Hall, 2000). One meaningful way in which sustainable tourism may be evaluated is to examine how it can meet the needs of the host population in terms of improved living standards both in the short and long term.

Within this context, sustainable tourism can thus be seen as a general term implying an element of community involvement in tourism and a concern with the poor. It relates directly to the long-term aim of Pro-poor Tourism development and leads to the incorporation of community development issues into the tourism industry. It is clear that sustainable tourism does not imply a ‘no-growth’ policy, but it does recognise that limits to growth exist and that environments must be managed in a long-term way.

The empowerment of local communities is an important step in ensuring that these communities maximise their benefits and have some control over tourism. To achieve effective participation in tourism planning, the local community needs to be empowered to decide what forms of tourism programmes they want to be developed in their respective communities, and how the tourism costs and benefits are to be shared among different stakeholders (Akama, 1996).

This is not so different from the idea put forward by Kamsma and Bras (2000), who said that opportunities for local people will be enhanced if they can participate in tourism as entrepreneurs and through involvement in the ownership and operation of facilities, not only as employees in the hotel or restaurant sector.

Bramwell et al (1996) highlight four arguments for intra-generational equity in the sustainability debate. First, it is the local community, especially disadvantaged social groups, who bear the burden of negative costs. Second, poverty encourages unsustainable practices, with people seeking quick returns to meet immediate needs. Third, high charges to use some scarce resources tend to exclude poorer people. Finally, it is hard to justify caring about fairness to future generations without extending this concern to people in society today.

It can thus be seen that tourism projects require long-term oversight. Without monitoring, it cannot be said whether tourism is becoming more sustainable or not. Objective criteria are required against which progress can be checked (Dymond, 1997). This is becoming an accepted part of sustainable development on an international scale.

As a result of the impact of tourism on humans and the environment, sustainable tourism development is an issue for all levels of tourism to address – international, national, regional, and local. The host community, region, or nation must define the tourism philosophy and vision for the area as well as establishing social, physical, and cultural carrying capacities in the area. Destinations are responsible for implementing the community sustainable development plan in their management plans. The individual tourism firm or operator must observe local regulations and contribute to improving sustainable development based on experience with tourists. Residents of the host community or region must encourage tourists to accept the parameters of the sustainable development plan, and the tourists must understand sustainable development and accept its terms (Nickerson, 1996).

The issue of tourism and sustainability has always been questioned, where on the one hand poverty and social desperation necessitate a greater imperative for the local community to benefit from tourism development, while on the other hand the inability of

the host population to participate fully in the development process results in unsustainable tourism development.

In conclusion, it has been argued that sustainable tourism is the preferred term as it implies an element of community involvement and pro-poor concern. It relates directly to the long-term aim of Pro-poor Tourism development and leads to the incorporation of community development issues in tourism policy (Bramwell, Henry, Jackson and Straaten, 1996). However, there are differences, as shown in Table 2-1below:

2.4 Pro-poor Tourism and Sustainable Tourism

Table 2-1 Pro-poor Tourism compared with Sustainable Tourism

Sustainable Tourism	Pro-Poor Tourism
Sustainable tourism focuses mainly on mainstream destinations. In sustainable tourism, environmental concerns dominate. Social or local benefits are usually one of several elements of sustainability.	Pro-poor Tourism focuses on where the poor are. Poverty is the core focus of Pro-poor Tourism.

Pro-poor Tourism and Eco-Tourism

Tourism is a dynamic subject, and one that is covered by a large body of literature and research. This is especially true over the past several years, during which markets have been rapidly changing and there has been a growing emphasis on the need to ensure that the host community and the country as a whole benefit from tourism. In particular, two key areas have inspired debate: the use of tourism as a facilitator of development and the concept of eco-tourism.

Eco-tourism also lies under the broader remit of sustainable development, fostering economic development, environmental protection and community well-being (Klinsukont and Leksakundilok, 1996). While PPT aims to deliver net benefit to the poor, the main concern of eco-tourism is to ensure an appropriate return to the local community and the long-term conservation of the natural resources (Costas, 1996).

It thus involves education and the interpretation of the natural environment and is managed in such a way as to be ecologically sustainable, rather than focusing on growth-oriented prospects.

The concepts of eco-tourism, nature tourism and the like are difficult to define and ambiguous in their meaning. They are not mutually exclusive terms and different theorists have different ideas about what each one constitutes; 'eco-tourism' has been used by many tourism companies to encourage people who desire tourism with a 'clean conscience.' One definition that has been suggested is as follows; 'responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and sustains the well-being of local people' (Blangy and Wood, 1993). This inclusiveness of the well-being of the local community is one aspect that is not always used in definitions of the term. Some argue that eco-tourism should be nature based and focus predominantly on the natural environment (Wilson and Garrod, 2003). Lindberg, Enriquez and Sproule (1996) also suggest that 'tourism should satisfy conservation *and* development objectives in order to be considered eco-tourism'. There are many conflicting terms, which led to the discussion of the subject at the World Ecotourism Summit when it was decided that: '...ecotourism embraces the principles of sustainable tourism, concerning the economic, social and environmental impacts of tourism' (cited in Cater, 2004, p.485). This shows that those involved in tourism are realising that there is a need to balance the requirements of the environment and the people of the host communities.

Ceballos-Lascurain in 1993, whose statement eventually became the official definition adopted by the IUCN in 1996,

"ecotourism is a form of sustainable tourism—all forms of tourism can become more sustainable but not all forms of tourism can be ecotourism. Ecotourism is environmentally responsible travel and visitation to relatively undisturbed natural areas, in order to enjoy, study and appreciate nature (and any accompanying cultural features—both past and present), that promotes conservation, has low visitor impact, and provides for beneficially active socio-economic involvement of local populations."

Tourism, particularly 'eco-tourism' or 'nature tourism', is a continually growing sector and plays a vital role in the economies of many countries, especially less economically developed ones which can become heavily reliant on the tourism trade (Hammond, 2004). Barkin (1996) highlights the importance of 'green' productive projects to give communities the chance to generate goods and services that will enhance their standard of living. This need to help and ensure the well-being of the host community is often labelled 'Pro-poor Tourism' and is an area which is receiving increasing attention.

Cater (1994) stipulates the need to replace traditional livelihoods that are removed with alternative income strategies. However, some effective strategy must be put in motion as '...[indigenous populations] will encourage eco-tourism and will be more likely to participate in conservation programmes if they can benefit from such activities and are included in the management process' (Wearing, 2001).

Many countries now recognise the potential for tourism to increase the standard of living for their people and are making efforts to reduce the economic leakages that many large-scale multi-national corporations facilitate. Organisations such as Tourism Concern increase the awareness of the business sector and the consumer of the need for more pro-poor strategies. Eco-tourism, sustainability and debates concerning poor people's benefit are issues that governments and the private sector must consider as they come under pressure from civil society groups, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and, increasingly, the consumer, to ensure that their practices are ethically and morally sound.

The idea that any development must be linked to conservation of local resources brings up the idea of corporate responsibility in the tourism industry, something that is constantly being grappled with, particularly with the rise of theories like Pro-poor Tourism (Briedenham, 2004). The pro-poor concept, while linked with other eco-tourism perspectives, focuses more on increasing opportunities for poor communities to help themselves, and actively participate in the development of their own welfare (Binns, Elliott, Potter and Smith, 2004).

Participation of local communities in eco-tourism and its management is however, something that must be fulfilled (Mowforth and Munt, 2003; Ashley, 2000; Campbell, 1999)

Table 2-2 Pro-Poor Tourism compared with Eco-Tourism

Eco-Tourism	Pro-Poor Tourism (PPT)
Eco-tourism initiatives may provide benefits to people, but they are mainly concerned with the environment.	Pro-poor Tourism aims to deliver net benefits to the poor as a goal in itself. Environmental concerns are just one part of the picture.

As previously discussed, PPT looks at benefits to the poor not only in basic economic terms, but also at social, environmental and cultural benefits. According to international definitions of absolute poverty, the ‘poor’ refers to those living on less than USD2 per day (in 1985 terms adjusted for purchasing power parity), while people living on less than USD1.25 per day are classified as ‘extremely poor’ (Worldbank, 2008). However, PPT does not focus on the ‘relative distribution’ of the benefits from tourism, but more narrowly on whether tourism activities contribute to the well-being of the poor. As a result, PPT can also generate even greater benefits to richer members of society, and hence to the overall community.

In this light, Spenceley and Seif (2003) categorise four main areas of potential for gearing tourism towards a ‘pro-poor’ approach;

1. Tourism is a diverse industry, allowing for the scope for participation to be expanded to include those in the informal sectors.
2. Tourism can invite customers to linked products, such as souvenirs.
3. Tourism provides more opportunities for assets to which the poor may have access, such as natural capital.
4. Tourism can be more labour intensive than other industries, even manufacturing. Moreover, studies suggest that a higher proportion of the benefits from tourism go to women

As a result, many studies regarding PPT have focused on these aspects in order to prove the extent to which tourism can be mobilised to help the poor. Thus far, most of the reports on PPT have emphasised the assessment of the performance of existing PPT activities initiated in various developing countries in different parts of the world.

However, most reports have discussed only the general impact of tourism on social, cultural, economic or environmental concerns, rather than assessing systematically the ability of tourism to foster and improve the development of the poor.

During 2000-2001, a need was perceived for work that could move the discussion on PPT down to the level of practice and effective policy implementation, as well as research on specific initiatives being implemented by different actors, such as government and NGOs, and the impacts that these initiatives were having on various poor groups (Cattarinich, 2001). In the UK, a DFID project in 2000, examining six case studies of PPT initiatives, provided a good opportunity to review experiences of PPT strategies. The study hoped to identify the lessons learned from PPT strategies, look at what was being done, examine what progress and constraints had emerged, and see what impacts there had been on the poor (Ashley, 2002). Looking at all six case studies, Ashley, Roe and Goodwin (2001) concluded that the initiatives differed enormously in both type and scale. At a local level, PPT can play a most significant role in livelihood security and poverty reduction. However, a wide range of other impacts on livelihood cannot be quantified.

2.5 Pro-poor Tourism Strategies

Strategies for PPT can be categorised in accordance with the local benefit generated, and be divided into three types (Ashley, Roe and Goodwin, 2001):

1. Strategies focused on **economic benefits** through the expansion of employment and local wages, and the expansion of business opportunities for the poor in terms of their access to opportunities for input into tourism operations or the final products that can be sold to tourists. This includes the development of collective community income, which could range from small earnings to collective income that can benefit the majority. However, this income is liable to be misused, and in order to ensure that the poor can reap the full benefit it is important to design tourism strategies in such a way that they can effectively tackle obstacles to economic participation, including lack of skills, low understanding of tourism, poor product quality and limited market access.

2. Strategies to enhance **livelihood benefits**, which generally focus on capacity building, training and empowerment, as well as the mitigation of the environmental impact of tourism on the poor and the management of competing demands for access to natural resources between tourism and local people. Such measures include improved access to services and infrastructure such as health care, water supplies and transportation. Literature suggests that such strategies include the mitigation of negative effects, such as cultural intrusion, and that consultation with the poor can also help ensure positive benefits directly to the community.
3. Strategies focused on **policy, process, and participation** to create supportive policies and planning frameworks that enable the poor to participate in decision-making as well as partnerships with the private sector. Strategies may include ones laying the foundations for further discussion, such as facilitating information flows and communication.

Cattarinich (2001) also documents PPT strategies and initiatives, including economic, cultural, environmental, policy, and other initiatives that developing countries have implemented. The review suggests that the sophisticated nature of the tourism sector could prevent it from acting as a catalyst to shape pro-poor growth, and that in order to maximise its potential other surrounding supporting policies should be re-evaluated. Moreover, Cattarinich also argues for the adoption of certain roles by different stakeholders as a way of ensuring that tourism becomes more 'pro-poor'. In this regard, tourism stakeholders can be categorised as follows:

- **Private sector companies**— with consumers, private sector companies are the driving force of the tourism industry. While most are profit motivated, in some cases they operate on a non-profit basis, such as Porini Ecotourism in Kenya.
- **Government**- national governments frequently promote tourism as part of a macro-economic growth strategy, while local governments focus more on micro-economic aspects.

- **International donors**⁴- including institutions and foreign aid agencies based in industrialised countries. Despite their diverse objectives, they tend to provide financial or other forms of support to tourism development without direct profit incentives. Tourism is seldom invoked by donors as a distinct strategy for poverty reduction, although many are now reconsidering their positions on tourism support (Deloitte & Touche, IIED and ODI, 1999).
- **Local, national and international NGOs**- formally recognised organisations, they are in theory independent of both states and the private sector and tend to operate on a non-profit basis (Cattarinich, 2001). Virtually every area of social concern is represented by a group of NGOs, and several NGOs use tourism primarily as a strategy for environmental/wildlife and/or cultural conservation, and/or poverty alleviation.
- **Community groups**- otherwise known as community-based organisations (CBOs), community groups are formal or informal associations of residents from a particular locale (e.g. one or more villages and possibly nearby areas). All residents of a village may join in a tourism venture, or involvement in tourism may be limited to only a few residents.
- **Tourists or travellers**- these are the consumers of tourism products, whose desires determine demand in the industry.

Looking at the co-operation of various stakeholders, Rogerson (2002) has stressed the importance of Local Economic Development (LED) on poverty reduction, noting that very few government-linked tourism plans are directly related to poverty reduction and that government intervention as part of appropriate policy frameworks is thus necessary to support the poor. He suggests that whilst tourism in itself is insufficient as a poverty reduction strategy, it could potentially play a significant role in a broader strategy for pro-poor economic growth.

⁴ Good examples are the World Bank, United Nations and the Asian Development Bank.

2.6 Literature review on Pro-Poor Tourism: International Case study

There are a number of critical issues on PPT strategies that can be identified from the existing literature, namely:

1. Market access of the poor

The overall success of a PPT project depends on the access of the poor to the tourism market, both in terms of their ability to break into the market, and in terms of the physical distance between poor people and outlets of products or the location of PPT projects. The existing market participants or elites, as well as existing products, could threaten the ability of the poor to penetrate the market with PPT products. Intervention from the authorities, marketing links, intensive communication and realistic expectations are thus imperatives if a PTT project is to succeed.

Geographical distance can equally be a barrier for the poor to access potential income opportunities. Renard has shown how in St. Lucia, the problem lies in the limited time the cruise ship tourists have to visit the inland communities, which in turn leaves them little time to spend their money on products and souvenirs (Renard, 2000). Similarly, Saville has shown that in Humia, Nepal, rural people derive little benefit from tourism because communities along the trekking route are far from the airport town where arrangements for services and supplies are organised (Saville, 2001). This implies that measures to disperse tourists to poorer areas are also important in increasing market access and enhancing tourism as a pro-poor growth driver.

2. Marketing

The success of a PPT project should not simply be measured in terms of the attraction of increasing numbers of tourists, but also in the establishment of a secure and appropriate market for the poor. This commercial sustainability requirement includes the attractiveness and quality of the products as well as good marketing schemes, of critical importance if a PPT project has to compete within the crowded market for tourist products. This could be accomplished by establishing effective links with the private sector and seeking their involvement on product development (Renard, 2001; Poultney and Spenceley, 2001; Spenceley and Seif, 2003), securing the support of a National Tourism Board (Saville, 2000 and Williams, White and Spenceley, 2001), improving marketing

skills (Nicanor, 2001) and matching products to the right markets (Poultney and Spenceley, 2001). Small enterprises, particularly in the informal sector, often provide the greatest opportunities for the poor (Braman, 2001). The attractiveness and quality of the products themselves is also of critical importance (Mahony and Van Zyl, 2001). Equally important is product differentiation, which, through the creation of unique selling propositions (USPs), strengthens the impact of the PPT project by ensuring a competitive advantage. Goodwin, 2008; Goodwin & Row, 2006 have made the same point, the importance of the market and commercial viability from the outset.

3. Training

Human resources are the life-blood of the tourism industry, and thus training, education and capacity building are very high on the agenda of tourism businesses. The tourism industry has been criticised for only offering menial jobs to local people while importing expatriates to work at management level and thus contributing to leakages (Meyer, 2006). At the same time, the poor often lack an understanding of the interests of the tourists. It is thus vital that PPT projects focus on appropriate training for the poor, in order to increase their awareness and understanding of tourists as well as the tourism products in which they are interested (Saville, 2001). Policy support from the government, therefore, is crucial (Poultney and Spenceley, 2001 and Braman, 2001). Kareithi (2003) for example, looks at the Shanzu Traditional Workshop in Kenya in terms of its PPT development program, in which disabled women learn production skills and gain business experience. The workshop is open to visitors to show them how the women live and work, and there is a shop selling their products. On some occasions it may also be necessary to draw on private sector expertise for training and product development, in order to overcome competition within the tourism industry and to meet with requirements for high product quality.

4. Strong community-based organisation

A main obstacle to the success of programme implementation has been the weakness of local and community-based organisations (Renard, 2001). PPT is most effective when different stakeholders work together (Spenceley and Seif, 2003). This calls for involving an explicit community association, and investment in communication. Likewise, capacity building to narrow the skills and capacity gap is essential for effective collaboration. Addressing both issues will also help alleviate expectation mismatches among stakeholders, and thus help minimise the potential for an initiative to fail.

It is therefore important to communicate and deliver short-term benefits while developing long-term schemes such as capacity building (Spenceley and Seif, 2003).

5. Environmental impact of tourism on the poor

Existing literature tends to place little focus on the issue of environmental action. However, Braman (2001) suggests that PPT is intimately related to environmental sustainability, while Saville (2001) argues that PPT is also integrated within broader rural development work, including activities surrounding natural resource management. It is notable that the most commonly cited negative impact of tourism relates to the degradation of natural resources used by the poor. It is also crucial that the environmental focus of sustainable tourism is balanced against attention to socioeconomic issues. In order to do this, authorities and other stakeholders need to develop the implementation and monitoring tools that currently exist for 'green' improvements. In tackling the issues of water, waste and energy, the aim should not be simply to maximise efficiency and conservation *per se*, but also to reduce consumption practices that particularly affect poor resource users (Ashley, Roe and Goodwin, 2002). Although PPT was explicitly differentiated from green tourism, nature-based, little PPT research focused on traditional CBT, capacity building and ecotourism initiatives (Goodwin, 2009)

6. Addressing the social and cultural impact of tourism

There is some concern that tourism development may lead to destinations losing their cultural identity by catering for the perceived needs of tourists, particularly those from international markets. The typical behaviour of tourists, whether taking photographs or enacting 'Western' habits, is often regarded as cultural intrusion, while sex tourism exploits women. The existing literature on the anthropology of tourism illustrated that tourism could change the cultures of both the tourist hosts and guests (Selwyn, 1996)

Smith(1996) described tourism's impact on tourists and hosts with the 4Hs concepts.

1.Habitat, a geographical form to access climate, landforms and space that people have to live with and where they will establish the activity that will engage them, 2. Heritage of the population as it will affect the value system, worldview and activity, 3.History, a transitioning concept of events which alter heritage view, perception and fundamental lifestyle, and 4.Handicraft, a way to identify values that the hosts like and want to preserve, including music and dancing.Nonetheless, PPT appears to be welcomed by local residents,

probably in part a reflection of the degree of control that local residents have, which is not common to all tourism. Braman has shown, for instance, that in Amazonian communities efforts to keep visitor numbers very low to minimise cultural intrusion have conflicted with local people's desire to increase revenues (Braman, 2001). However, research shows that most tourists want to experience the personality and true character, communities and attractions of the localities they visit. They expect to see and do very different things than those they would experience at home, and this includes experiencing the real life and lifestyle of the destinations they visit.

On the other hand, research has also highlighted a gradual change on the part of local residents as funds and external cultures intrude. This, therefore, requires a delicate balancing act between the necessities for locals to maintain their root identity while at the same time retaining their competitive edge in the tourism market.

7. Supportive policy and planning framework

Other than the major policies and measures in driving tourism towards pro-poor approaches, the literature on PPT has proposed the following necessary policies and supporting framework:

- Lobbying government for supportive policies and legislation (Renard, 2001; Nicanor, 2001; Williams, White, and Spenceley, 2001)
- Lobbying the provincial conservation authority to invest in destination marketing and infrastructure development and to lift restrictions on development (Poultney and Spenceley, 2001)
- Promoting inter-departmental initiatives and coordination (Mahony and Van Zyl, 2001; Renard, 2001)
- Linking the National Tourism Board with sustainable tourism networks and other tourism for poverty alleviation programs (Saville, 2001; Williams, White, and Spenceley, 2001)
- Using government power to allocate concessions to influence investors (Mahony and Van Zyl, 2001)

8. Promoting participation

Most of the literature highlights local involvement in both employment and the decision making of the poor, particularly at the level of local government. While the principle issue as far as employment is concerned has been the leakage of jobs to the white collar sector (or leakage to external personnel), the participation of the poor in planning is also an important concern. The poor are often excluded from decision-making processes and institutions, making it very unlikely that their priorities will be reflected in the decisions made.

There seem to be three distinct ways to enhance the participation of the poor in decision making. First, by facilitating participatory planning processes at the local level (Saville, 2001; Williams, White, and Spenceley, 2001; Renard, 2001), second, by increasing communication with government and enhancing the voice of poor tourism producers at the policy level through their own organizations (Nicanor, 2001; Saville, 2001; Williams, White, and Spenceley, 2001), and third, by giving the poor a legal stake in investments, so that they can participate as stakeholders rather than as passive recipients. However, where the community is large, it is difficult to see how participation in decision-making is very meaningful.

9. Bringing the private sector into pro-poor partnerships

Tourism involved the interaction of other components such as communication transportation, destination and accommodation among others. Sectors cannot be handled alone by the government as pillars of tourism development. Therefore, the private sector must be involved in the development and promotion of tourism in any country that intends to make tourism the main economy earning (Judith, 2011)

There are varying ways and degrees to which the private sector becomes involved in PPT. On the plus side, private sector involvement can (1) enhance the brand and ensure higher exposure, (2) facilitate the diversification of products for the guests or tourists, (3) be cost-saving by enhancing bargaining power, and (4) give better access to financing. The major cost is that the partnership could obstruct the self-sustaining concept for the poor and may divert income away from the poor and into private sector businesses.

In this regard, a trade-off is unavoidable. Overall, the literature suggests that the long-term gain could be considerable, but that challenges for implementation remain. Success is therefore dependent on whether the private sector is willing to invest in the pursuance of long-term benefits (Ashley and Mitchell, 2005).

Some form of private sector involvement seems to be essential, particularly if marketing is to be effective. Four of the case studies under review include direct efforts to develop partnerships between the private sector and communities (Poultney and Spenceley 2001; Braman, 2001; Nicanor, 2001; Mahony and VanZyl, 2001). White and Spenceley (2001) suggest lobbying for linkages with the private sector, while Nicanor (2001) and Braman (2001) both recommend close arrangements between a community and a tour operator. Later, the Pro-Poor Tourism Partnership reasserted that PPT cannot succeed without successful development of tourism destinations and hence it is very important to measuring impacts and ensuring commercial viability and inclusion of the private sector (Ashley, Roe, & Goodwin, 2001, p. 42 Ashley & Roe, 2003). Bath and Goodwin, 2003 demonstrate a successful result of bringing the private sector to PPT in Gambia, South Africa(Ashley, Poultney, & Hayson, 2005) and Tanzania(Goodwin, 2007) Each initiative demonstrated that close engagement with the private sector ensured that the ventures could have significant impact on the livelihoods of the poor.

Since the DFID policy paper launched its inception of PPT and a strong market-oriented approach to tourism to unlock opportunity for the poor in 1999, it was explicitly asserted that PPT strategies must be integrated with general tourism development to enable the poor to benefit from economic opportunities. (DFID, 1999)

PPT was often spoken of as though it were a product. It has also been confused with ‘poorism’ (Baran, 2008). UNWTO research tried focusing on other mechanisms, i.e employment, sale of goods, services to tourism businesses, taxes and levies, philanthropy and infrastructure gains as well as tourism enterprise development by the poor rather than measuring impacts on poverty(UNWTO, 2004). Harrison (2008, p. 851) argued that PPT should ‘focus more on researching the actual and potential role of mass tourism in alleviating poverty and bringing ‘development’.

Success in PPT requires engaging with the mainstream industry and working with them to maximise their positive economic impacts on local economic development and poverty reduction. In the future, there should be more research to achieve sustainable long-term poverty reduction linkages with mainstream industry (Goodwin, 2009).

These issues in international PPT have been assessed rigorously and should provide useful guidelines for future research, at the same time as facilitating the design of policies to better benefit the poor. The next chapter will continue to discuss PTT strategies, but will emphasise the impact on the livelihood of the poor through the use of a comprehensive framework. This study should in turn act as a building block towards the development of an answer to the question of how PPT could impact the livelihood of the poor in Thailand.

2.7 Pro-poor Tourism in the Greater Mekong Sub-region (GMS)

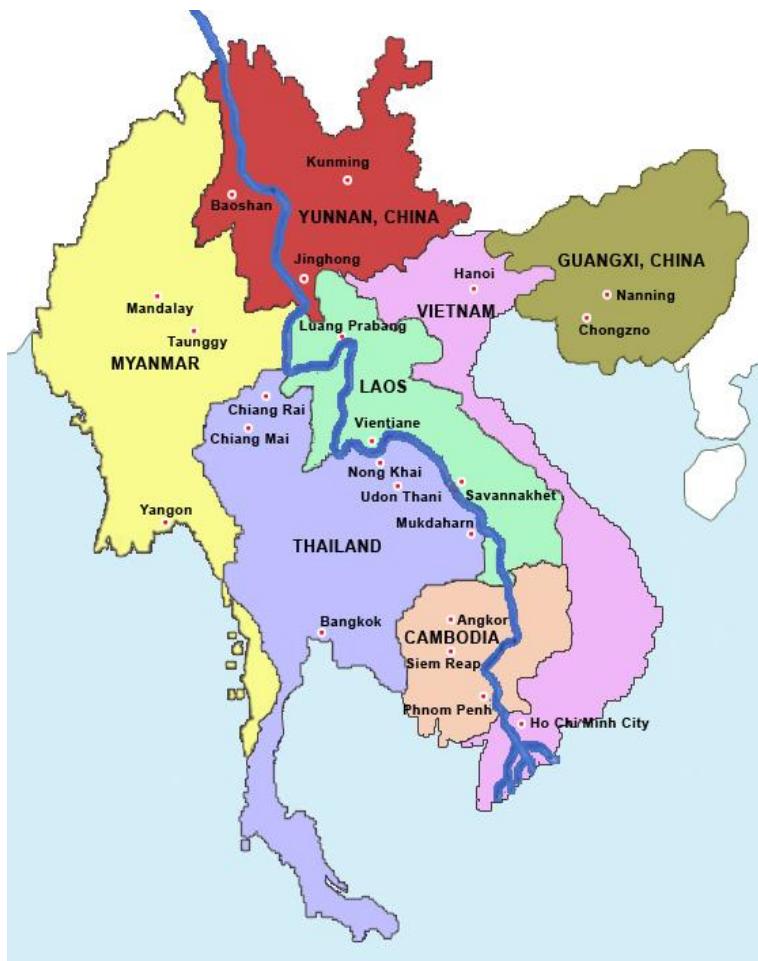
The Greater Mekong Sub-region (GMS) consists of portions of five countries in mainland Southeast Asia and adjacent China: Cambodia, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Thailand, Vietnam and China's Yunnan province. The GMS is not a geological region, but a development initiative proposed by the Asian Development Bank in 1992, and specifically excludes the region of Chinese Tibet from which the Mekong River emanates. Previous region-wide concern with the Mekong River focused on flood control.

Tourists from around the world are increasingly drawn to the 'exoticism' of the diverse ethnic minorities in the region, which appeal to the imaginations of mainly western travellers. National governments, development donor agencies and numerous international organisations are paying close attention to the official reduction of poverty in the Mekong region and are considering tourism development to benefit the poor (who form the majority of local residents), as tourism and tourism products are sources of employment and comprise an increasing share of GDP in the riparian countries.

Pro-poor Tourism seeks to redefine the relationship between tourists, tourism-sector businesses and the local communities which are the primary focus of this new sector of tourism. Pro-poor Tourism comprises tourism-related activities which bring about net benefits for the poor, increasing their overall quality of life and sense of well-being in diverse ways, including economic, social, environmental and cultural benefits.

The extent to which livelihoods benefit from pro-poor tourism in any locality depends on the nature of the linkages with profit- and asset-generating activities, including local ownership, both in legal terms and in terms of building the sense of community participation, as distinct from being just another programme imposed by the central government. Such activities involve providing direct and indirect tourism activities and services. Direct services often involve employment in hotels, transportation and in the distribution and vending industries. Indirect activities which often accompany PPT activities are, for example, agricultural and handicraft production, which link rural communities and tourism together.

Figure2-2Sub-regional GMS Mekong Map



Source:<http://mekongtourism.org/website/wp-content/uploads/2010/10/new-mekongmap560.jpg>

This section explores five case studies concerning the linkages between improving local communities in the Greater Mekong Sub-region and the tourism sector in order to achieve better and lasting benefits for the poor. The case studies are; Luang Prabang,

Lao PDR; Mae Kompong and Plai Phong Phang, Thailand; Sapa, Vietnam; Siem Reap, Cambodia and Xishuangbanna, in Yunnan.

2.8 Pro-poor Tourism case studies in the Greater Mekong Sub-region(GMS)

The Mekong region is characterised by upland rural areas where most of the region's poor and very poor make their homes, often in remote, difficult-to-reach areas and largely comprising ethnic minorities. This raises the fundamental question of how to most efficiently and effectively link the rural poor, e.g. the minorities, to the tourism industry, which until recently has been dominated by the largely urban-oriented mainstream majority.

Box 2.1 Sapa, Vietnam

Located near Vietnam's mountainous border with China, Sapa offers town-based amenities to tourists keen to experience the lifestyles of the region's ethnic minorities, and to join in traditional community cultural activities. As in the case of Siem Reap, services for tourists were offered initially by local people, but after a time outside providers appeared on the scene and invested in more aggressive competition with the local population.

The Sapa study found a direct linkage between tourism and poverty reduction (Dung et al, 2007). The experience here demonstrates that local families and communities can be pulled out of poverty by joining tourism-linked economic activities such as providing homestays and meal services to visitors, and that these activities could be identified as the primary sources of income for Sapa's poor. Nonetheless participation on the part of the poor is modest, despite only limited capital channeled into the area from Vietnam's central government. Members of low-income households tend to operate independently in the face of inadequate infrastructure and few opportunities for social linkages. Consequently many PPT developments in Sapa are one-off ventures rather than part of a community or government initiative. Related factors that could contribute to broader poverty reduction have always been ignored. The case study also reveals that both public and private investment is concentrated mainly in urban areas. While Sapa retains its charm and a wide variety of activities, human and natural habitats in which visitors can delight, there is little residual benefit for the poor and the very poor in the mountains and countryside remote from the town. The promise of tourism benefits remains, but there is no payoff, no community action which has overcome the challenges to providing jobs and access to capital for tourism investment and marketing.

Box 2.2 Siem Reap, Cambodia

The town of Siem Reap is not in itself a main tourist attraction, although it has become an attractive, cosmopolitan entryway to one of the world's prime historic attractions, the ancient temple city of Angkor Wat. Tourists only visit local communities to the extent that they pass through the case study villages on their way to the historic temples, and in fact may be screened from actually visiting localities other than the historic sites themselves. Consequently, the tourists do not visit the villages, but local residents must instead come to the tourism site in order to receive any benefit at all from the industry. Local Khmer investors led the way in welcoming outside visitors, quickly overtaking domestic investment. This has had serious implications for the nature and quality of the evolving tourism industry. Few foreign investors have expressed concern regarding the quality of life of the poor, although the increasingly commercialised tourism sector has drawn primarily on local unskilled labour, drawing some resources from local agriculture and the expansion of the patronage of authentic arts and handicrafts.

Sokphally and Vutha (2007) found that Siem Reap's poor are more often employed in entry-level and lower-status tourism-related jobs, and consequently receive much less income from tourism than do those of higher economic status. Their jobs are mainly unskilled and low paid. Poor people living in areas further from Siem Reap town centre tend to benefit less than those living nearby. The poor face the same constraints found in case studies from other parts of the world, for example regarding the objective and comparative lack of education and vocational skills and the high level of competition for tourism-related employment from migrant workers from outside the immediate vicinity. About half of those reporting improvements attributed their well-being to tourism, while most of the reasons given for negative outcomes were non-tourism-related factors, such as family problems or illness. This suggests that the poor may link their well-being to the improved infrastructure and social services that may occur during tourism development, rather than to any of the income-inducing activities themselves. More variety in tourist products is needed to involve more of the rural poor. Activities such as community-based tourism are only at an early stage of development.

Box 2.3 Mae Kompong and Plai Phong Phang, Thailand

Established tourism service providers in the case study can be seen as two groups, the local residents and small town providers of food and accommodation (insiders), and the tour and transport operators linked to hotels and airlines who carry tourists to see and experience 'a taste of Northern Thailand'. The case study shows that direct benefits go to the service providers, some well-off locals, but also poor and very poor villagers. Eco-community-based tourism, where visitors can experience the harvesting of fruit, the collecting and boiling down of palm sugar, and traversing back-water byways by boat, for example, gives lively new experiences to visitors, and adds income and employment. However it would seem that the ratio or income disparity of the community has changed just a little (Anuchitworawong, Panpiemras and Pupphavesa, 2007).

Tourist visits to such eco-community-based model communities indicate a comparatively pro-poor orientation. The researchers stated that eco-community-based tourism can be difficult to implement in line with explicit pro-poor concepts, as the start-up and operational costs of extending the programme on a larger scale could surpass the expected benefit to the community. There is a need to find a balance between the existing setting and market and management in order to bring a sustainable outcome to eco-community-based tourism. It is also important for the community to have an effective and equitable system for sharing the benefits among those directly involved in tourism services and the whole community. More thinking is needed to find alternative modes of cooperation within the community, especially the poor, with more initiatives needed to come from the poor themselves, rather than initiatives originated by local government which in turn are directed by agendas filtered down from the national government. Although such programmes bring in large quantities of visitors, significant income leakages take place, especially due to the near monopoly on transport on the part of outside suppliers. The study argues that mass tourism can be a solution in poverty reduction as many jobs do not require skilled labour and the poor can easily access low-income jobs as unskilled labour.

A broader range of interventions is also required in order to achieve sustainable poverty reduction and increased well-being, for example better educational and vocational training as well as affordable healthcare services.

Box 2.4 Xishuangbanna, Yunnan

China's Dai Garden in Xishuangbanna, Yunnan, has a special appeal to visitors from Thailand eager to gain an insight into the ethnic and cultural roots of the Thai people. Five Dai ethnic group villages near Jinghong City have been termed an 'ecological village', a community-based cultural park which includes sports and religious activities as well as displays of Dai lifestyle and cuisine. Insufficient community participation in the case of China leaves a top-heavy tourist establishment with government overseeing the setting up and regulation of tourism activities. The government also oversees the sharing of benefits, which as a result does not reflect participant decision-making. Many services located close to primary destinations are provided by outsiders, with internal elements similar to the breakdown in the Thailand case studies.

The PPT initiative at Dai Garden demonstrates convincingly that the development of rural cultural tourism provides varied employment and income benefits to the communities (Zheng, 2007). On the other hand it should be noted that students from the mainly poor communities were able to benefit from improved educational opportunities, and that low-income households and the elderly benefited from better transportation and communications infrastructure. Governance is an issue here as the relationship between outside private developers and the local community. In order to ensure that local participants and the community retain a sufficient share of the returns, local participation must be included in decision-making for the management, monitoring and assessment of the impact both on the environment and on the poor. Yet while community participation is essential, the study shows that effective liaison and support by government is also critically important. Nonetheless, the most significant factor is the active involvement of the community itself in developing and shaping possible community-based tourism in the area. It should also be noted that despite the positive outcome, community-based tourism is not sustainable in the long term due to the fact that rural China remains heavily dependent on agriculture, and is hampered by limited education levels and a lack of investment funds and developed management skills.

Box 2.5 Luang Prabang, Lao PDR

Interestingly, research by the Lao government suggests that poverty in Luang Prabang is falling faster than anywhere else in the country, largely due to the impact of tourism and spinoffs to the local community at all levels. However, it is unclear how much this assessment is influenced by, or reflects, national government policy and how much independence the local community actually has (Leebouapao et al, 2007). Despite the desire for more tourism and tourism revenues, community initiatives are not always wholeheartedly welcomed, but direct tourism income applied to goods and services is also positively affecting other economic sectors, especially farming and handicrafts. Longer-term low-end tourists, discouraged in neighbouring Thailand, are attracted to Luang Prabang and other Lao PDR destinations, and provide significant economic and cultural impacts in specific locales, where they explore Lao cuisine, accommodation, transport, and social life, although in the process also providing distractions to Lao society itself, especially in lifestyles and values.

A survey of 200 households showed that location is an important factor determining who benefits from tourism-related activities. For example, households in the Luang Prabang town centre gain significantly more benefit from improved incomes than households located in small villages outside the town. More well-off households in town also benefit from the increasing value of land (Leebouapao et al, 2007).

2.9 Issues arising from PPT case studies in GMS countries

2.9.1 *Unequal benefits from PPT*

The study by Anuchitworawong Panpiemras and Pupphavesa (2007) strongly equates tourism with income inequity. The authors state that their research shows that the vulnerability of the tourist trade leads to greater income disparity, rather than serving the interests of the majority population in the areas under review. While the idea of Pro-poor Tourism is appealing as a concept, in practice it may do the reverse from what it sets out to achieve. Furthermore, while a variety of tourism products and attractions in an area is theoretically thought to provide more income opportunities for the poor, lesser activities may actually provide greater benefits for the poorer members of a community.

The study also observes that income inequality is more likely to occur in a community in which power, knowledge and decision making are concentrated in the hands of very few players. These observations may help explain why income from tourism has not contributed significantly to lessening inequality in either the Mae Kompong or Plai Phong Phang communities in Thailand. The authors also suggest that eco-community-based tourism activities have been limited despite involving considerable public participation and more or less transparent decision-making.

Ballard (2005); Leebouapao et al (2007) and Sokphally and Vutha(2007), however, suggest that although some of the poor benefit from tourism, local community residents with better education and financial assets and control over resources benefit even more. Accordingly the gap between the poor and the non-poor may be widening as a result of tourism. One reason may be the fact that the range of tourism activities is much more diverse in the three areas under study than in the Thailand study sites. For example, the Sapa household survey showed that

"the groups that benefit most from tourism are the wealthier ones" (Dung et al 2007).

Economic performers in the community may have a built-in advantage, Dung says, reporting that jobs go to those who are already well-off, while the poor essentially receive leftovers. The Sapa researchers found that nearly 85 percent of those surveyed were from economically high-level groups, while those on the lowest rung of the ladder found it impossible to get jobs in the tourism sector.

Sokphally and Vutha (2007) found that the household income earned by the non-poor in Siem Reap was nearly twice that of the poor, but that the proportion of household income from tourism activities for the poor was 49 per cent, against 45 per cent for the non-poor. It can be predicted, then, that the poor households working in tourism sector may be especially vulnerable to shocks to the sector. The Sokphally and Vutha study also refers to issues regarding land, and observes that the number of land transactions in and around Siem Reap has steadily increased with the growth of tourism. The non-poor benefit the most from sales because they are able to buy additional land or invest in businesses. The poor do not benefit from land transactions much because they tend to sell their land at relatively low prices for non-entrepreneurial reasons, such as healthcare or family weddings.

Leebouapao et al (2007) show how in the Lao PDR those who are well-off to begin with are able to take advantage of the new opportunities and further improve their situations, but the poor are left behind. Visitors congregate in the older core areas, generally populated by better-off residents who are already doing business there. As a result of such factors as rising land values (Leebouapao notes significantly higher land prices over the five-year study period), the upgrade and sale of businesses, and opportunities to offer more first choices to arriving tourists, townspeople are able to benefit more and in more varied ways than residents of villages in the outlying areas, thus demonstrating that the rich are able to benefit more than the poor from tourism.

Zheng(2007) also raises several important issues concerning the distribution of benefits. The study indicates that the most difficult distribution challenge is compensation in the form of land-transfer subsidies from the villagers and the villagers' committee, who 'own' the land resources. As with the other studies, Zheng considers the distribution of tourism benefits according to village location. For example, the village located near the entrance to the tourism area has the highest rate of household participation in tourism activities (nearly 100 percent) and is, as a result, the richest among the five villages, while the other four enjoy, to varying degrees, fewer benefits. The uneven distribution includes vandalism and non-cooperative attitudes and behaviour by some villagers. These observations have a considerable impact on governance.

2.9.2 *Constraints and Barriers to Participation*

The causes of constraints and barriers that lead to unfair distribution of tourism benefits are stated in each of the studies. Dung et al(2007) and Sokphally and Vutha (2007) touch on human resource challenges, citing a shortage of or lack of access to capital assets, together with education, vocational and business skills. The social networks and activities such as handicrafts, transport and homestay services all require some initial investment, drawing on resources which the poor simply do not have. Rustic tourism, so to speak, needs a modicum of social skills for hosting and a threshold of material well-being to attract foreign visitors. Dung et al (2007), discussing the Sapa case in Vietnamnote that home-stay services generate the largest share of employment for local people in nearby villages.

However, there is no mention of relations between the service providers and the community; rather, it seems the primary contractual relationship is between the service provider and the private tour operators, with the result that the latter reap more of the benefits than the local community.

While Sokphally and Vutha (2007) show that migrants to Siem Reap from outside the area increasingly compete with local people for employment, Dung et al (2007) observe that ethnic minority service providers in Sapa sometimes do not speak Vietnamese. Moreover, both Dung et al (2007) and Leebouapao et al (2007) refer as well to constraints associated with infrastructure, including transport and electricity, which favour migrant workers in terms of access to the towns as well as better possibilities for receiving tourists in the villages. Zheng(2007), rather than focusing on human resource constraints, investigates institutional constraints and barriers, including governance and management issues associated with property rights.

In sum, community participation has been proven to be extremely important for pro-poor tourism in the greater Mekong sub-region. The case studies highlight the need for good information and a careful study of the costs and benefits associated with community-based tourism before proceeding. Anuchitworawong Panpiemras and Pupphavesa (2007) also suggest that leadership is an especially important aspect of maintaining community participation, while Zheng states that community leadership can be important in maintaining relationships with both private sector investors and local government. The conclusions drawn by Zheng highlight the important role that local participation plays in sustaining community-based tourism in Yunnan. Despite strong support from local government and external financial support, community-based tourism schemes are not likely to succeed without also having support from, and participation by the community. Poor management and a lack of cooperation from villagers have made villages unattractive to visitors. Most villagers can earn substantial income from household rubber plantations, so there is no real incentive to support tourism. Both Leebouapao et al (2007 and Sokphally and Vutha (2007) suggest that having a clear vision of the costs and benefits to be derived from helping one another, and full rather than token participation and cooperation lead communities to arrangements which work for mutual benefits, for individual employees, for families and for the community overall. Both studies caution that realistic planning and market assessment is recommended, preferably hand-in-hand with government agencies.

2.9.3 *Infrastructure*

The case studies highlight the importance of transport infrastructure to tourism sites in the Mekong region, with good infrastructure usually resulting in the distribution of more benefits to the poor. One issue is the inability of some local producers to keep up with the increased demand for goods and services. The volume of tourism to the Angkor region meant that local farmers, craftsmen and other producers could not meet the demand for some consumer goods and services, and the sudden flow of international tourists meant that more outside people had to be imported to fill the market need (Ballard, 2005; Sokphally and Vutha, 2007). Local producers could not meet the demand either in volume or quality, and local entrepreneurs could not invest at the rate required. As a result, investors turned to outside providers for food products, supplies, handicrafts and transportation, as well as skilled labour. While some local people continue to benefit from tourism, an unequal share of benefits has shifted from local producers, especially the poor, to external investors and suppliers.

Providing a contrast is the case of Luang Prabang, which, with its limited access by air, tends to attract adventure and budget travellers coming by road (Leebouapao et al, 2007). In Sapa, Vietnam, one must reach the town by rail or road, which brings both budget and higher-end comfort-seeking travellers (Dung et al, 2007). In both the Lao and Vietnamese studies, adventure and comfort travellers tend to spend more on local goods and services, providing more benefit for at least some of the local poor.

2.9.4 *Local Governance*

Local communities themselves can manage the growth of tourism and are able to do this without significant outside government support, as seen in the cases of Mae Kompong and Plai Phong Phang in Thailand. An eco-tourism project from a community base in Mae Kompong was run by a nine-member committee responsible for establishing the rules and regulations governing tourism in the village and setting prices for goods and services, thus providing consumer protection for tourists and ensuring a fair return for the local service providers. The village committee also set local regulations for the equitable distribution of profits to the village participants who were all members of the local cooperative (Anuchitworawong Panpiemras and Pupphavesa, 2007).

The case of Dai Garden in China involves private commercial investors who entered the community from outside and developed a large area for tourism, taking advantage of the area's distinctive natural surroundings and the colourful culture of ethnic groups in the area. The company compensated villagers for land that was expropriated for development. According to the plan, villagers were then supposed to receive benefits such as having their electricity bills paid and guaranteed employment for at least one member of every family. In a type of modified homestay, villagers could charge tourists for visits to their homes, and sell fruit and traditional barbecued food. In addition to other benefits, such as an improved and expanded road network built by the company and scholarships for village students, some villagers also expected to receive a proportion of the admission fees. The company plans eventually to give shares to the villagers and to exchange assets, such as traditional bamboo houses, for shares (Zheng2007).

2.9.5 Regulatory and Land Use Concerns

One good indicator of regulatory impacts on tourism development is the behaviour of land markets in the main tourist areas (Sokphally and Vutha, 2007; Leebouapao et al, 2007 and Dung, 2007). Leebouapao et al, (2007) note that government regulations define exactly how land may be used in Luang Prabang, while Dung (2007) suggests that in Sapa difficulties in converting agricultural land to commercial use may be a constraint to tourism development. Sokphally and Vutha (2007), on the other hand, argue that the booming real estate market in Siem Reap is not subject to any regulation at all, and agricultural and residential land, even that owned by the state, is freely converted to commercial use.

2.9.6 Human Resource and Business Development

Two of the most significant barriers to preventing the poor from participating more in tourism are the lack of employment skills and financial capital (Anuchitworawong Panpiemras and Pupphavesa, 2007; Dung,2007; Leebouapao et al,2007;Sokphally and Vutha 2007; Zheng 2007). The case studies demonstrate that there is a vital role for government in human resource development and skill acquisition. Vocational training and skill development are crucial to reducing leakages in the labour sector and promoting jobs for local young men and women. Special effort, however, must be made to target such

opportunities to young people from poor households, who are routinely excluded due to their inability to meet all the selection criteria.

More affordable credit should also be made readily available to small- and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) in the tourism sector. Lower interest rates, more flexible repayment schedules and fewer collateral requirements could be targeted at SMEs that train and hire the poor, or at individuals or households wishing to start their own small businesses. Group lending associations for the poor could also be introduced in collaboration with NGOs in areas where community-based tourism is being initiated. As with other aspects of PPT development, investment strategies that target the poor must be mainstreamed into the overall approach to tourism.

2.9.7 Government support in Marketing

Anuchitworawong Panpiemras and Pupphavesa (2007), Dung (2007), Leebouapao et al (2007), Sokphally and Vutha (2007), and Zheng (2007) all underscore the important role of government in promoting tourism. While regional collaboration among the governments of the GMS can and should play a significant role in marketing locations in the GMS as popular tourist destinations, the national governments must play a lead role in ensuring that the poor have better opportunities to participate fully in, and benefit from, tourism growth. A significant component of pro-poor approaches to tourism is to strengthen the capacity of local governments to play supportive roles and promote community participation in tourism development and stronger, more effective, public-private partnerships. In cases involving outside investors or other outside actors such as tour agents, there is also an important role for local government in mediating between external and local interests (Zheng, 2007).

2.9.8 In conclusion

The case studies revealed that poverty reduction programmes often end up benefitting general locales, while failing to target those where extreme poverty exists(Ballard, 2005; Anuchitworawong, Panpiemras and Pupphavesa, 2007; Dung et al, 2007; Leebouapao et al, 2007, Sokphally and Vuttha, 2007; Zheng,2007).

Despite general indicators to the contrary, the studies reveal that that tourism does bring some benefit to at least some households of the poor at the outer fringes of the benefit pool, and some communities that are beyond the reach of primary benefits, but the results differ country by country. Nonetheless, the extended lifting of community well-being has not happened as planned.

Consequently it should be noted that tourism policies in the Greater Mekong Sub-region have been inadequate in their design and application to begin with, and have proved to be insufficiently beneficial to the poor populations they are, in theory, designed to serve. We see four primary reasons for this:

1. Greater Mekong Sub-region tourist spending mainly involves direct services, including hotels and transport, often provided by urban-based sectors of society which are already relatively rich in resources. The poor hold poorly paid jobs which are more marginal to the main tourism activities.
2. Ethnic minorities comprise most of the poor in the GMS, and they live in rural and remote areas, whereas tourism investment is generally made directly in urban areas or in business services conducted by urban dwellers.
3. Statistical analysis and planning of tourism in the GMS tracks spending on goods and services rather than perceiving local populations and their produce as the target of the enterprise.
4. Well-defined and varied constraints are the measure of reality for the poor, who cannot escape the impact of their relative lack of social readiness to meet urban and international visitors due to limited educational and social learning opportunities. Such constraints are also reflected in limited vocational skills and a lack of access to capital.

There is clearly sufficient evidence to indicate that the time has come to reassess the relationship between tourism and poverty reduction. The first priority is to apply the findings and design, and implement more appropriate Pro-poor Tourism policies throughout the Greater Mekong Sub-region. The crux of the challenge is to integrate Pro-poor Tourism policies into core development planning, thus taking pro-poor poverty reduction planning from the sidelines into the core tourism strategies, plans and programmes of the GMS countries.

CHAPTER 3

Sustainable Livelihood and Analytical Framework

There are many dimensions to the impact that tourism can have on the poor. The previous section of this thesis looked at PPT strategies, noting that they could focus on generating both monetary and non-monetary benefits to poorer members of society. The remainder of this thesis, however, will use the Sustainable Livelihoods (SL) approach to analyse non-monetary benefits and the benefits of tourism in terms of livelihoods. In this it will examine whether pilot projects can improve significantly the livelihoods of members of a community, and will look at the impact and consequence of PPT on a community's ways of living.

3.1 The Sustainable Livelihood Framework

Capacity building models aim to develop resources and capacities for alleviating poverty on a sustainable basis. These models describe the minimum amount or level of assets needed to deal with stresses and shocks, and to sustain and enhance present and future capacities (Scoones, 1998). These models recognise that assets are used to build and support individuals and families in their acquisition of more assets needed for long-term well-being. The focus of these models may vary; it may be limited (e.g. specifically economic) or may look at a wider set of assets (e.g. personal, cultural, social, political). Of all the capacity building models, the sustainable framework is still the most recognised and most widely used capacity building model for poverty reduction.

The Sustainable Livelihoods framework, developed by the UK's Department for International Development, is an asset-based framework used for understanding poverty and assessing the progress of work on poverty reduction. The efficacy of this model lies in its ability to provide a simple but highly developed idea of the complex issue of livelihood sustainability. It has attracted interest and following because it can be applied easily to many levels of detail, either as a conceptual framework or as a practical tool for poverty reduction programme design or evaluation (DFID, 1999).

Figure 3-1 depicts the three key dimensions of the Sustainable Livelihoods framework (Ferguson and Murray, 2001):

Figure3-1Dimensions of Sustainable Livelihoods Framework

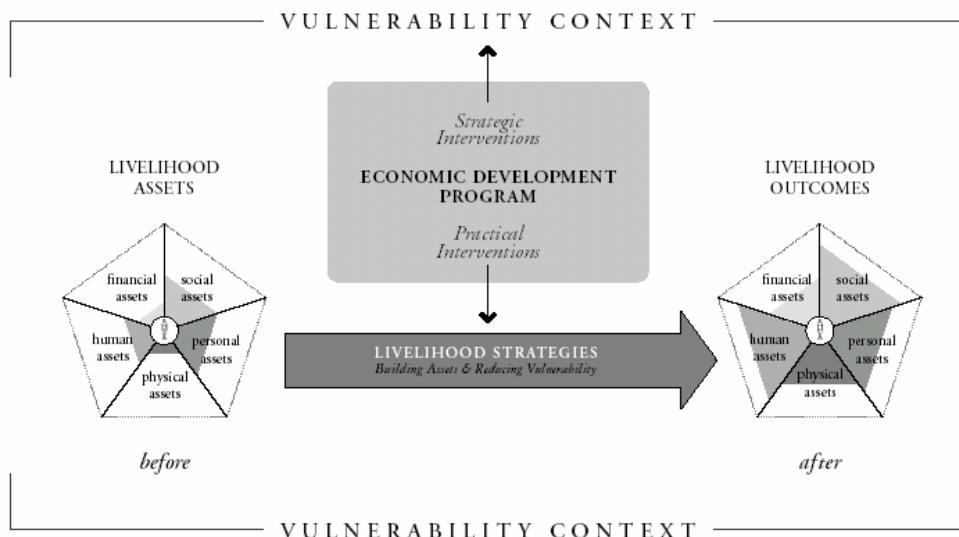


Figure 3-2Five Asset Building Blocks



Source:http://tamarackcommunity.ca/downloads/vc/Sustainable_Livelihoods.pdf

Sustainable Livelihood Assets are the building blocks for a sustainable livelihood. Households and individuals develop capacity to cope with the challenges they encounter by building assets, and increasing asset capacity in turn increases the potential for the sustainable satisfaction of needs (Brock and Coulibaly, 1999; Carswell et al 2000; Toufique, 2000; Shankland, 2000). The framework focuses on five asset categories that contribute to sustainable livelihoods and on which they are dependent, and within these five categories of assets are the related subcategories or items that describe each category

Livelihood Strategies are the combination and scope of activities or choices that are made to achieve livelihood goals. Examples are productive activities, investment strategies and productivity choices.

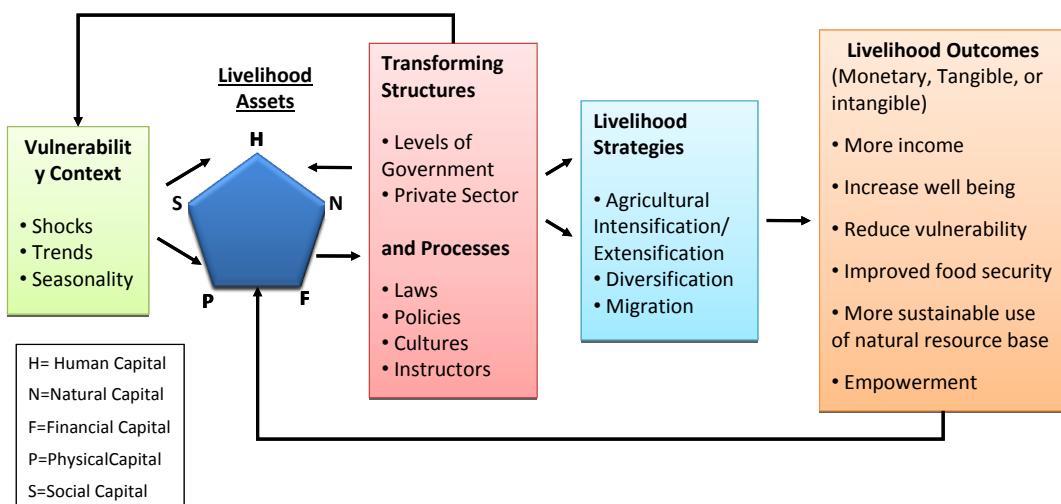
Livelihood Outcomes are the results of the application of livelihood strategies. People usually aim for multiple outcomes, which may include increased well-being, increased income, improved food security, reduced vulnerability, and the more sustainable use of natural resources.

Vulnerability Context describes the environment in which people live. Livelihoods and the greater availability of assets are usually affected critically by trends, shocks and seasonality, over which people have limited or no control. Conflict, human health, economic uncertainty, natural events, and crop/livestock health can all result in shocks. The vulnerability context can be transformed or influenced by livelihood structures and processes, and in turn, the vulnerability context affects a household's assets. The factors that create and perpetuate vulnerability and poverty can be seen at the level of the individual, that of their circumstances, and that of the wider context. The framework also points to the contextual and systemic factors that contribute to the occurrence of poverty. In the wider context, and in addition to building the assets of individual households, the SL framework identifies the need to initiate changes at the organizational, community and policy levels.

Techniques and Interventions are the two basic types of intervention can be pursued in poverty reduction. 'Practical interventions' are interventions that support low-income households to build livelihood assets, such as counselling programmes, education,

employment training, economic literacy and savings programmes, and support for small business development. 'Strategic interventions' are interventions aimed at improving the vulnerability context, and focused on social and economic change at the systemic level, such as community building and organizing, alliance building, policy work and advocacy (Helmore and Singh, 2001).

Figure3-3 DFID's Sustainable Livelihoods Framework



Source: Farington et al,(1999) and Scoones(1998)

The Sustainable Livelihoods Framework is the most widely recognised and the first framework for sustainable livelihood (Chambers and Conway, 1992). Others authors have modified it to emphasise other components, but all share the principles, elements and interrelationships between the elements (Ashley and Carney, 1999). These elements are influenced by social difference, including sex, age, ethnicity and other factors.

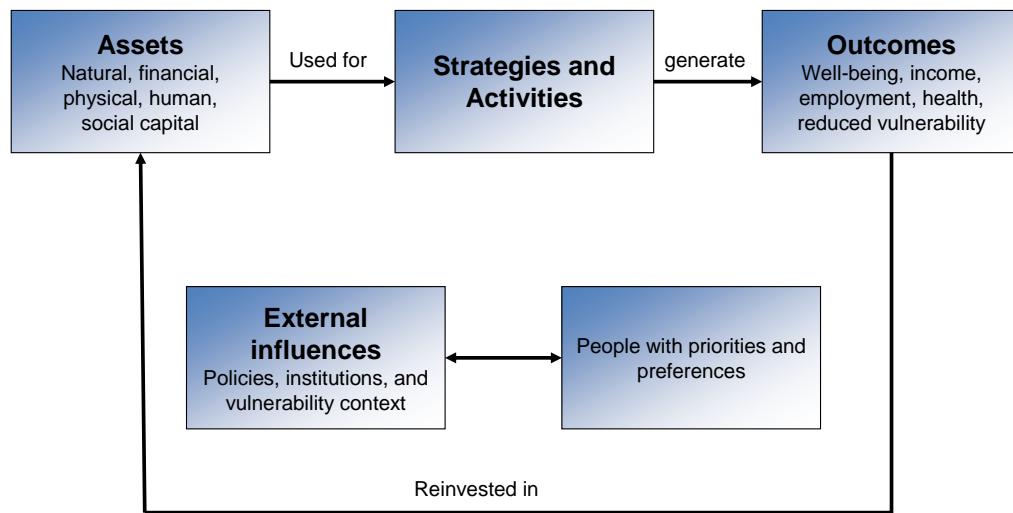
For example, men and women may have different access to natural capital (land, for instance), and influence over policies and therefore be impacted differently. This difference needs to be considered in analysing livelihoods at all levels. Power also influences livelihood assets, structures, processes, strategies, outcomes and vulnerabilities, and there are different interests, conflicts and tensions within and between communities. Poor communities can have the least access to assets and become the most vulnerable to all kinds of shocks.

The sustainable livelihood approach is thus important in understanding poor people's livelihoods and ways for improving them (Chambers, 1991 and Farrington, 1999).

Ashley (2000) and Farrington (1999) have identified the six essential core principles of the DFID SL approach.

- **People-centred:** sustainable poverty elimination will be achieved only if external support focuses on what matters to people, understands the differences between groups of people and works with them in a way that is congruent with their current livelihood strategies, social environment and ability to adapt.
- **Responsive and participatory:** poor people must be key actors in identifying and addressing livelihood priorities. Outsiders need processes that enable them to listen and respond to the poor.
- **Multi-level:** poverty elimination will only be overcome by working at multiple levels, ensuring that micro-level activity informs the development of policy and an effective enabling environment, and that macro-level structures and processes support people to build upon their own strengths.
- **Conducted in partnership:** with both the public and the private sector.
- **Sustainable:** there are four key dimensions to sustainability: economic, institutional, social and environmental. All are important - a balance must be found among them.
- **Dynamic:** external support must recognise the dynamic nature of livelihood strategies, respond flexibly to changes in people's situation and develop long-term commitments.

Figure3-4 A simplified sustainable livelihoods framework



Adopted from Ashley, 2001

The Sustainable Livelihoods approach stresses the need for local participation and the need to build on the existing assets of the poor (Carney, 1998). For tourism to become an effective poverty reduction strategy, it should thus complement the existing livelihoods of the poor by providing an opportunity for economic diversification without disrupting or substituting those livelihoods (Ashley, 2000). The Sustainable Livelihoods framework should help determine whether PPT could enhance the livelihoods of the poor, and should help see how their livelihoods have changed in positive or negative ways. Moreover, it can help produce better insights, for example into changes related to factors such as shocks, stress, vulnerability, and into strategies to cope with such impacts.

For Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (SIDA) through Lasse Krantz in 2001 in a paper entitled “The Sustainable Livelihood Approach to Poverty Reduction,” the concept of Sustainable Livelihood (SL) is an attempt to go beyond the conventional definitions and approaches to poverty eradication. These were found to be too narrow because they focused only on certain aspects or manifestations of poverty, such as low income, or did not consider other vital aspects of poverty such as vulnerability and social exclusion. It is now recognised that more attention must be paid to the various factors and processes which either constrain or enhance poor people’s ability to make a

living in an economically, ecologically and socially sustainable manner. The SL concept offers the prospect of a more coherent and integrated approach to poverty.

The sustainable livelihood idea was first introduced by the Brundtland Commission on Environment and Development as a way to link socioeconomic and ecological considerations in a cohesive, policy-relevant structure. The 1992 United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) expanded the concept, especially in the context of Agenda 21, and advocated for the achievement of sustainable livelihoods as a broad goal to end poverty. It stated that sustainable livelihoods could be an integrating factor allowing policies to address development, sustainable resource management, and poverty eradication simultaneously.

3.2 Sustainable Livelihoods and Pro-Poor Tourism

Since the 1980s there has been a growing recognition of the trend to give people a voice and to put them at the centre of the development process by identifying better solutions to development problems (Chambers, 1988; Chambers and Conway, 1992; Farrington et al, 1999). Moreover, there is a growing recognition that greater consideration should be given to the participation of the poor regarding their livelihoods, defined by Conway and Chambers (1992:7), as::

“A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims and access) and activities required for a means of living: a livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stress and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, and provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next generation: and which contributes net benefits to other livelihoods at the local and global levels and in the long and short term”.

The livelihood approach applied here should help broaden the scope of analysis of PPT to a wide range of livelihood impacts (Ashley, 2000). It draws upon the principles of being people-centred, the provision of a holistic analysis, and the provision of micro-macro links in policy and intervention. It is thus an approach that helps us understand the multiple causes of poverty and vulnerability, and which can direct us towards where interventions can best be made (Farrington et al, 1999).

The livelihood approach and Pro-Poor Tourism concept have been widely adopted throughout the world. For example in Nepal, the Tourism for Rural Poverty Alleviation Programmes (TRPAP) present new policies and strategic plans to be implemented in six districts for rural-based tourism development. The programme is focused mainly on the disadvantaged and discriminated against, including both women and men from rural areas, those belonging to lower social castes and ethnic minorities, and others living below the poverty line. The TRPAP pro-poor framework was designed as a pro-environment, pro-women and pro-rural communities approach for achieving sustainable tourism development (Dhakal, 2005).

In a case study based in Belize, alternative livelihoods were linked to sustainable tourism through a focus on natural resource management to achieve both environmental and socio-economic objectives in a number of parks and protected areas (Burks, 2006). Alternative livelihood programmes now focus on increasing the employment options for local people involved in the fishing industry, while at the same time lowering the pressure on marine resources (World Bank, 2004). Due to decreasing fish stocks, Port of Honduras Marine Resources Reserve (PHMR) and the Toledo Institute for Development and Environment (TIDE) facilitated the transition to other tourism-based occupations designed to promote the sustainable use of marine resources. The TIDE marketing plan is intended to promote ecotourism in and around the PHMR, and to strengthen local livelihoods with sustainable tourism strategies (Burks, 2006).

In rural Mexico in a study on cooperatives and sustainable livelihood strategies, the sustainable livelihoods perspective and the cooperative movement are rooted in frameworks that value social justice as a form of participatory democracy, distributional equity and solidarity. Unlike studies of cooperatives focusing mainly on economic efficiency and productivity, we argue that this socio-political dimension of cooperative projects is crucial to understand their potential to enabling sustainable livelihoods. The research examines the experience of two rural Mexican communities in Guanajuato and Oaxaca which formed cooperatives as alternative livelihood strategies. (King, Alder and Grieves, 2013).

A paper entitled Sustainable Livelihoods through Conservation of Wetland Resources: a case of economic benefits from Ghodaghodi Lake, Western Nepal, investigating participation of local ethnic groups in wetland conservation, determined the economic benefits they received, and assessed socio-economic factors affecting dependency on wetlands. Some 217 wetland resource-user households around Ghodaghodi Lake, western Nepal were surveyed. Data were analysed using descriptive statistics, t-tests and ordinary least squares regressions. The wetland resources contributed significantly to the household economy of the local people. Each household extracted lake resources at an annual worth of NPR 4379 (63USD), equivalent to 12.4 percent of household total gross income. Although the people maintained a positive attitude toward wetland conservation, their participation in the conservation effort was inadequate. Socioeconomic factors such as larger household size, older age of the head of the family, and larger area of agricultural land increased the rate of resource extraction. In contrast, when households were involved with local conservation organizations, resource extraction was reduced. It is then recommended the following resource conservation and livelihood strategies: implementation of community-based conservation approaches to increase system productivity, adoption of biogas plants, and improved cooking stoves to reduce fuelwood consumption coupled with conservation awareness programmes (Lamsal, Prant, Kumar and Atreya, 2015).

In Northern Peru in the village of Kuelap, a study identified livelihood diversification activities in the village as a form of pro-poor tourism appropriate to community members. The study, which used Sustainable Livelihoods Analysis (SLA) to validate compatibility with existing livelihoods, found that the activities reduced conflict for resource use and ensured the commercial viability of activities for both products and services. The study argues that pro-poor tourism development make for more sustainable and risk-free rural livelihoods more sustainable. Pro-poor initiatives can be taken at all levels, but to be successful as an approach, pro-poor initiatives must be taken as a core theme in the overall management of a project, and must therefore be initiated from above (Woods, 2005).

In this study, where PPT is used as a strategy for sustainable development, Woods (2005, p15-16) found that the ability of the community to incorporate tourism into their livelihoods depended on various factors:

- The form of development chosen for the greater area
- Community access to the tourism market
- The level of demand for products and services which the community can supply
- The compatibility of tourism activities with existing livelihood strategies
- The ability of the community to organise
- The potential for public-private partnerships

3.3 Sustainable Livelihoods (SLA) Approach as an Analytical Framework

This study is based on an adaptation of the SL approach first introduced as an analytical framework by DFID in 1988. Since then the framework has gone through several stages of evolution, with the emphasis shifting in terms of differing aspects of livelihood. In 1993 Oxfam adopted an SL approach with a greater emphasis on strengthening the participation of the poor in the development process, based on social and human rights considerations, while a year later CARE introduced an SL approach with more focus on social, human and economic assets. The SL approach taken up by UNDP highlights technology and political assets (participation and empowerment) which can rescue people from poverty.

The differences between the various frameworks appear to stem from differing definitions of “sustainability”, which can create difficulties when the framework is transformed from theory into practice. This current research adopts the framework used by Caroline Ashley to assess the impact of tourism on rural livelihoods in Namibia (Ashley,2000), which in turn is based on the DFID approach.

The aim of this Sustainable livelihood impact assessment is to gain a better understanding of the impact of the project on the livelihoods of local people and project participants. This framework is considered most appropriate as the PPT project involves rural development, and enables an analytical examination of how PPT projects have improved the livelihood outcomes of the rural poor, especially women. Key themes to be investigated are asset formation, diversification and vulnerability reduction.

The SL approach provides an analytical structure that highlights key components of livelihood against which project impact can be assessed. The inherent assumption is that people pursue a range of livelihood outcomes by drawing on a range of assets to undertake a variety of activities. The activities individuals adopt and the way in which they reinvest in assets is driven in part by their own preferences and priorities (Ashley and Hussein, 2000; Carney, 1999; Chambers and Conway, 1992).

The approach can be applied not only to planning new projects, but also to reviewing existing ones. This thesis will follow Ashley's three key themes for investigation when conducting livelihood assessment: (1) an overview of current livelihood strategies, achievements and priorities, (2) the various impacts of the project on livelihood strategies and achievement, looking at both external and internal factors and (3) the differences among stakeholder groups in the project.

For example in New Zealand, the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach (SLA) was developed for analysing livelihoods of the poor and to improve the effectiveness of livelihoods-related development assistance (NZAID, 2007). The SLA used in New Zealand succeeded an Integrated Rural Development approach, which was similar to the more current Area-Based Development and Community-Development approaches.

Another example is the use by the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) of SLA analysis as a way to improve the understanding of the livelihoods of poor people. The IFAD SLA has two key components; firstly, the framework to help understand the complexities of poverty, and secondly, the set of principles that guide action when addressing and overcoming poverty. Here the SLA is employed to analyse the main factors affecting the livelihoods of poor people, and to understand the typical relationships among the factors that affect livelihood. IFAD also uses a SLA in planning new development activities and when assessing the effects of existing activities on the sustainability of livelihoods (IFAD, 2011).

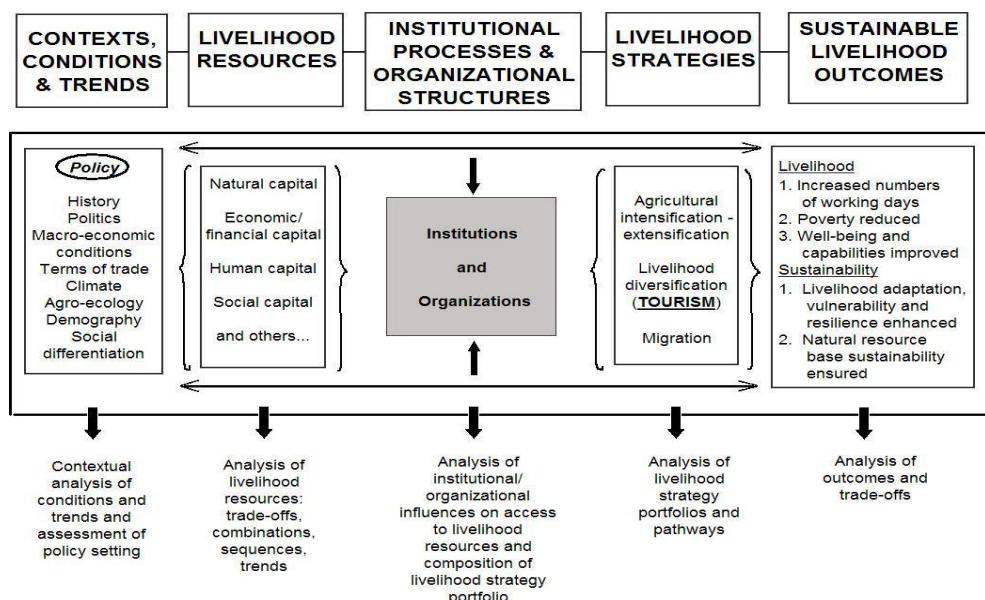
In both examples, the SL framework is used as an analytical tool to better understand people, particularly the rural poor, by placing them at the centre of an assessment of inter-related influences that affect how poor people create a livelihood for

themselves and their households. Although in both examples the SL framework was designed with a rural, agrarian context in mind, the sustainable livelihoods approach has also been used to assess the impact of information communication technologies (ICTs) in urban development.

In the Aguablanca district of the Colombian city of Cali, an SL assessment was used to ascertain the probable impact of the internet on social equity, with the authors of the study arguing that a Sustainable Livelihoods Framework could also be a useful tool in assessing ICT development projects (Parkinson, Ramírez, 2005). As an alternative, the SL framework is a powerful way of grounding developmental policies and interventions to reality through its consideration of the multidimensional, context-specific nature of both poverty and development. Other authors, such as Mardle (2003) and Batchelor and Scott (2001), have used a sustainable livelihoods approach to ICT-related development at a more general level, although only as a thought experiment.

The SL approach based on the sustainable livelihood framework supports poverty eradication by enhancing poor people's livelihoods as the central goal of development efforts (Farrington, 1999). SL analysis, the application of the SL approach as an analytical framework (Figure 3-), is used to identify the different options for supporting livelihoods (NZAID, 2007).

Figure 3-5SLA as Analytical Framework



Source: Tao (2006)

The SL approach provides a framework to help understand the interrelationships of factors that affect poor people's livelihoods, which can be used to facilitate the planning and implementation of more effective interventions. A study of related literature suggests that centring development around people rather than the technical inputs results in better opportunities for the achievement of sustainable impacts and significantly improves poverty reduction. The SL approach:

- Identifies existing assets and strategies available to poor women and men and uses these as a starting point
- Helps keep the focus on poor people and their varied livelihood assets, strategies and outcomes (rather than resources and activities)
- Recognises differences based on sex, gender, age, ethnicity, power and poverty status
- Builds on strengths as a means of addressing needs and constraints
- Makes explicit the links between policy and institutional issues on the one hand and micro-level realities on the other, and
- Helps in understanding how individual, possibly sector-specific, development programmes and projects fit into the wider livelihoods agenda and objectives

Using the sustainable framework, tourism and tourism development initiatives can be examined in the cultural context of indigenous places and people. Tourism development is reflected by dynamic economic, socio-cultural, political, ecological, technological and institutional forces (Tao, 2006).

The factors that make up the vulnerability context also have a direct impact upon the options that are open as members of the target community pursue beneficial livelihood outcomes. It has to be noted that not all the factors listed in the framework are negative or cause vulnerability (DFID, 1999). For example, policies of indigenous tourism development may be beneficial to indigenous people. Sources of livelihood capital are livelihood building blocks.

Scoones (1998, p.7) notes that: "The ability to pursue different livelihood strategies is dependent on the basic material and social, tangible and intangible assets that people have in their possession".

An example of a combination of livelihood assets used in tourism activities can help to identify the requirements of different kinds of tourism from individuals, household and the community. Activities, for example song and dance, can reflect the strengths in cultural capital among indigenous people, and lead to the successful design of appropriate tourism programmes.

Using the framework, tourism can be situated as part of the overall livelihood of a locale, thus making it possible to determine, when assessing the role that tourism plays in the livelihood strategies of two indigenous communities, whether any linkage exists between it and other sectors of the local economy and how tourism can be made to better fit in with existing livelihoods. The links between inputs, outputs and flows of livelihood resources, actors, and trends in the social environment help to identify whether tourism might strengthen or weaken local livelihood assets, contribute to or undermine livelihood outcomes and alter the vulnerability context (Scoones, 1998).

This is not to say that the SL framework is without its critics. One important criticism has been that SL overemphasises the idea of applying self-help to poor populations while considering the complexity of livelihoods.

This idea may under-emphasise the importance of the macro economy and politics (Toufique, 2001; Toner, 2002; O'Laughlin, 2004). The SL framework is only one way in which to organise the complexity of issues surrounding poverty (Serrat, 2008). It must also be made appropriate to local circumstances and priorities. Should the use of SL frameworks lead researchers to overlook the bigger picture of the impact of development on local situations, studies would result only in unreliable data for area development (Parkinson, Ramírez, 2005).

Table 3-1 Sustainable Livelihoods Frameworks—Strengths and Weaknesses

Strength	Weakness
Seeks to understand changing combinations of modes of livelihood in a dynamic and historical context	Underplays elements of the vulnerability context, such as macroeconomic trends and conflict
Explicitly advocates a creative tension between different levels of analysis and emphasises importance of macro- and micro-linkages	Assumes that capital assets can be expanded in a generalised and incremental fashion
Acknowledges need to move beyond narrow sectoral perspectives and emphasises seeing linkages between sectors	Does not pay enough attention to inequalities of power
Calls for investigation of relationships between different activities constituting livelihoods, and draws attention to social relations	Underplays the fact that enhancing the livelihoods of one group can undermine those of another

A review of the literature also suggests that the SL framework is useful for assessing early and probable future impacts of development initiatives at the community level. Assessments using an SL framework can provide for early feedback, valuable for the testing and adjustment of developmental project designs. For this reason, the SL framework cannot be regarded as the ultimate or optimum framework for impact assessments of pro-poor development programmes; it is, however, a useful and powerful analytical tool that deserves greater attention.

3.4 Sustainable Livelihoods and Adaptive Strategies

In contrast to previous environment and development paradigms in sustainable development, SL is a people-centred approach which emphasises people's inherent capacities and knowledge and focuses on actions at the community level (Chambers, 1986; UNDP & Wanmali, 1999). The consensus that has grown around the notion of sustainable development, focusing on livelihood security, recognises the necessity to begin where the poor are now, with the resources they currently control, and the knowledge and skills they already have (Chambers, 1988).

“Livelihoods” is a more tangible concept than “development”; easier to discuss, observe, describe and even quantify. As has been noted, Chambers and Conway (1992:7) have argued that livelihood is sustainable only when it can cope with, and recover from, stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, while ensuring that the natural resource base is not undermined. As such, adaptive strategies on the one hand and participation and empowerment on the other form two major planks of the SL approach.

A livelihood is a means of making a living. It encompasses people’s capabilities, assets, income and activities required to secure the necessities of life. A livelihood is sustainable when it enables people to cope with and recover from shocks and stresses (such as natural disasters and economic or social upheavals) and enhance their well-being and that of future generations without undermining the natural environment or resource base.

Helmore and Singh (2001, p.3) argue that the key feature of the SL approach is the recognition that livelihoods lie at the root of all human development and economic growth; not just jobs *per se*, but the wide, infinitely diverse range of activities people engage in to make their living (Helmore and Singh, 2001).

“Livelihoods are also dependent on entitlements, such as support of family or clan members that can be called upon in an emergency. Everyone’s livelihood is made up of activities, assets, and entitlements, together with the short-term coping mechanisms and long-term adaptive strategies that the person employs in times of crisis so that in adjusting to hardship, loss and change, they can maintain a livelihood.”

The suitable application of knowledge, technology, financial services, and especially government policy can make adaptive strategies more productive and more sustainable. The SL approach inherently reveals the multi-sectoral character of real life, so that development work is better able to address actual problems as they exist at the village level. An SL approach can also integrate environmental, social and economic issues into a holistic framework, providing an opportunity to promote cross-sectoral and cross-thematic approach that should define research and development (Helmore and Singh, 2001; UNDP and Wanmali, 1999).

The SL approach focuses on the ways in which local people find the means to meet their basic needs and security through meaningful work, while at the same time minimising the negative effect on the environment and addressing social justice (Walker, Mitchell and Wismer, 2001).

3.5 The Impact of Pro-Poor Tourism on Livelihoods

The literature on tourism points to a wide range of impacts that tourism can have on the poor, both positive and negative. It is therefore vital that these impacts are located within the SL framework, as this can help improve understanding of PPT initiatives and hence provide useful guidelines for future policy making.

3.5.1 Impact on Financial Capital

It is argued that PPT initiatives have enhanced access to financial capital in many ways. First, small enterprises as well as micro entities relating to tourism can have better access to financing (Renard, 2001; Williams, White and Spenceley, 2001; Nicanor, 2001; Mahony and Van Zyl, 2001). Second, earners also gain access to credit (Poultney and Spenceley, 2001). And third, the collective income earned by community organisations eventually becomes a source of investment funding.

Local earnings are the key measure of the financial injection into poor households. Research by Poultney and Spenceley (2001) shows that at least 34 percent of local earnings, including wages and payments for services and supplies, are re-spent at the Wilderness Safari in Africa. By contrast, Saville shows that in the case of Nepal, earnings are likely to be spent on imported goods, thus reducing the multiplier effect (Saville, 2001). Earnings from locally made crafts are a very important source of income for the poor in most rural areas, especially in the Amazonian and Ucota enterprises (Williams, White and Spenceley, 2001).

In most cases, regular earners are relatively skilled, educated and are able to speak English. Production is often not just for those tourists who visit the area, but also for wider national and export markets. For example, a craft enterprise in Penduka Namibia, creates more local income for women in the area than all the community tourism enterprises in Namibia put together (Ashley, Roe and Goodwin, 2001). Poultney and

Spenceley (2001), Nicanor (2001), and Williams, White and Spenceley (2001) also note that women form a high proportion of earners in such cases. The tourism literature also shows the impact of financial gains received from rural crafts and horticulture made by rural women (Berkes and Gardner, 1997; Koeman, 1995; Singh, 1989; Timothy and Wall, 1997). Intervention may be necessary to prevent the emergence of negative consequences for the poor, for example high competition (McBeth, 1996). In conclusion, local support is indispensable for the development of sustainable tourism (Brohman, 1996). Opportunities for local people will be enhanced if they can become involved in tourism as entrepreneurs, through involvement in the ownership and operation of facilities.

3.5.2 Impact on Human Capital, Education, Skills and Health

PPT case studies note the positive impact on human capital in terms of enhancing skills through tourism-related vocational training and the development of business and organizational skills. Poor young students receive funding from local schools, either through donations from local businesses (Braman, 2001; Poultney and Spenceley, 2001) or from the expenditure of community income (Nicanor, 2001). In particular, most tourism literature suggests that tourism increases opportunities for local women.

Wilkinson and Pratiwi (1995) state that women can be partially independent and have more control over their lives because of tourism. Kinnaird and Hall (1994) note the economic significance of tourism resulting from the high proportion of women employed in the tourist industry in Cornwall. However, these female workers have relatively poor conditions of employment and their skills levels remain low. Some researchers also report improved access to healthcare, as private operators can provide emergency assistance in terms of both transportation and funds. Examples of public health investment driven by tourism include malaria control measures (Poultney and Spenceley, 2001) and the provision of drinking water and toilets along trekking routes (Saville, 2001).

3.5.3 Impact on the Physical Environment and Infrastructure

One of the positive outcomes of PPT initiatives can be improvements in infrastructure, with tourism bringing money into under-developed localities. The provision of infrastructure, the construction of roads and the supply of electricity, water and sewage

disposal, together with the construction of hospitals, schools and shops, becomes necessary when an area is developed for tourism purposes.

Mahony and Van Zyl (2001) note that at the Manyeleti Game reserve, road and water access for local communities was improved, while Poultney and Spenceley (2001) show that at the Wilderness Safari, the extension of water and electricity supplies to tourist lodges also serves people in the community. However, noise, cleanliness and the provision of adequate bathroom facilities are identified as specific problems (Nicanor, 2001). In Thailand, several villages and health resorts have been created or improved for the purposes of tourism (TAT, 1999). These improvements include the installation of a water supply and sewerage system, paved paths and electricity, and the planting of trees. Providing tourist roads may give farmers and other local people greater ease of access to market centres. However, the growth of tourism is likely to benefit large landowners, who see the value of their land increase due to tourism development potential. Ensuring that community enterprises achieve adequate levels of equality thus remains a challenge.

3.5.4 Impact on social capital and community organizations

Most PPT literature reports that community institutions have been strengthened by PPT projects. Tourism developments have enhanced cohesion and a sense of purpose. However, the process of institutional development and strengthening is inevitably complex. There are some negative impacts, such as increased tension over community funds (Braman, 2001; Poultney and Spenceley, 2001; Mahony and Van Zyl, 2001), inequitable power balances (Savillle, 2001), problems in the collective management of resources and enterprises (Renard, 2001), and heavy reliance of community institutions on external expertise (Braman, 2001; Mahony and Van Zyl, 2001).

The wider tourism literature reveals that the participation of local communities is a big issue. On Boracay Island, Philippines, Nicholson (1997) notes that despite the government's good intentions, tourism projects have failed due to a lack of local participation. He concludes that tourism should be based on the 'needs' of local people and the 'potential' of an area rather than the 'desirability' of locations as perceived by policy makers. Also on Boracay Island, Trousdale (1999) argues for the need for governance to for the clear delegation of local, regional and national roles and the

incorporation of community input to limit the negative effects of tourism development, while maximising benefits. The Philippines Department of Tourism, he argues, did not pay attention to local residents or provide sufficient proactive consultation, leading to protests when tourism plans were to be implemented. The empowerment of local communities is thus an important step in ensuring that local communities maximise their benefits and have some control over tourism-related matters. To achieve effective participation in tourism planning, the local community needs to be empowered to decide what forms of tourism programmes should be developed in their respective communities, and how the tourism costs and benefits are to be shared among different stakeholders (Akama, 1996). Sha (2000) found that people's attitudes and participation are related to community support for tourism development in their area. For Teo and Huang (1995), full participation and commitment leads to high quality tourism products and authenticity. Siegel (1995) argues that consensus-building is a good way to increase participation because it identifies areas of agreement and conflict in a community.

3.5.5 Impact on natural capital

The impact of PPT initiatives on the natural resources of the poor appears to have been relatively small. In most of the literature, tourism is linked with good management of the land, coast and other natural resources. Tourism has therefore provided incentives for conservation activities, including lobbying against industries causing environmental degradation (Braman, 2001)

In conclusion, good planning and protection are essential if PPT projects are to succeed. Planning and protection must encompass physical resources, ecological resources, human-use values, and quality of life values. Control measures must be applied to determine the carrying capacity of a particular destination. An SL framework can help policy makers to "gain insight into factors contributing to poverty by identifying groups of poor people and their livelihood as well as ensure that important livelihood components and constraints are not overlooked" (DFID). The framework can also "emphasise issues of vulnerability and the dimensions of sustainability which macroeconomic plans often fail to integrate adequately". However, the drawback of the SL approach is that by only providing a perspective on poverty and its causes, it may ignore other factors.

As a result, in order to effectively design a broad-based policy the SL approach needs to be complemented by other approaches.

3.6 Tourism, Vulnerability and Livelihood Diversification

Vulnerability involves a combination of factors that determine the degree to which someone's life and livelihood is put at risk by a discrete event in nature or in society (Blaikie, Cannon, Davis and Wisner, 1994). Other authors have contrasted vulnerability with 'capability'; the ability to protect one's community, home and family, and to re-establish one's livelihood (Anderson and Woodrow, 1989). A DFID report (2000) states that vulnerability can result from long-term trends, such as migration, or changes in the natural resource base; recurring seasonal changes, such as prices, production or employment opportunities; and short term shocks , such as illness, disease, natural disaster or conflict. It may also refer to a measure of a person or group's exposure to the effects of disaster or natural hazards, including the degree to which they can recover from the impact of that event. Since such events damage livelihoods, vulnerable groups find that it is more difficult to reconstruct their livelihoods following disaster or any abrupt structural change. Addressing the issue of vulnerability is thus a very important challenge for ensuring sustainable livelihoods among the poor.

3.6.1 The Linkage between Tourism and Vulnerability

Blaikie, Cannon, Davis, and Wisner (1994) argue that the causes of vulnerability are economic, demographic, and political processes. PPT projects are political processes that reflect the distribution of economic resources and power in a rural society, and which affect directly the allocation and distribution of resources among different groups of people in a given area. The implications of PPT in terms of vulnerability within a community are twofold. On the one hand, tourism itself can act as a shock (i.e. an instigator of vulnerability) through its impact on resources and income. With the intervention of tourism, access to livelihoods and resources can become less secure, thus generating higher levels of vulnerability and exacerbating poverty. Conversely, PPT can collectively provide greater access and opportunities for the poor as a cushion against vulnerabilities. Focusing on the first implication, it can be seen that given the aim of PPT to reduce poverty, vulnerability must be taken into account. Although poverty and vulnerability are related, they are not the same.

Anti-poverty projects like pro-poor projects are designed to raise incomes or consumption, while anti-vulnerability projects aim to increase security and to reduce the chances of hazards having a serious impact. Chambers, Pacey, and Thrupp(1989) argue that there are trade-offs between poverty and vulnerability,in that poverty can be reduced by investment but that the impact of these interventions may increase vulnerability. Climate change has also recently become a focus in the issue of vulnerability. A recent study in Belize, for example, highlights several areas of supply- and demand-based economic vulnerability to climate change, including the risks to coastal land and infrastructure, exposure to resource damages such as coral bleaching, and an associated reduction in demand because of resource changes or risks to personal health and safety. A preliminary assessment of Belize's tourism sector suggests that it is highly vulnerable to the effects of climate change through both its exposure to climate impacts and its weak capacity for adaptation. Adaptation measures that reflect these specific sources of vulnerability should be considered in the light of the country's limited capacity to moderate the harmful effects of climate change. Such measures include diversifying the portfolio of tourism offerings to emphasise inland attractions, planning for coastal development with greater caution, and considering the feasibility of artificial reefs as underwater attractions to alleviate some of the existing pressures on Marine Protected Areas (Richardson, 2007).

3.6.2 Pro-Poor Tourism, Poverty and Vulnerability

In his 2001 study, Nicanor (2001) notes that rural communities were making an extraordinarily high level of income from tourism, and that jobs were being created within local areas and thus helping to prevent migration to urban areas. Most communities which were previously classed as being poor or very poor had moved up the scale to become better off. Saville (2001) argues that although people may remain poor according to international standards, improvements in livelihoods are achievable through PPT initiatives. While previously households might have struggled to survive, PPT projects may allow them to make more active choices about their self-development and their communities, hence shielding them from vulnerability. Braman (2001) found the same result in Ecuador, where a majority of the households studied, especially those containing men who worked as tour guides, were able to move upwards from being poor to enjoying a more stable economic condition. In South Africa, Poultney and Spenceley (2001) have

noted that dramatic improvements in household income, especially for female-headed households, have resulted in greater overall household security.

3.6.3 Tourism and Livelihood Diversification

Livelihood diversification refers to “attempts by individuals and households to find new ways to raise incomes and reduce environmental risk, which differ by degree of choice and the reversibility of the outcome”(Hussein and Nelson, 1998:3). Ellis (1997) defines livelihood diversification as “the process by which rural families construct a diverse portfolio of activities and social support capabilities in their struggle for survival and in order to improve their standard of living”. Livelihood diversification includes both on- and off-farm activities undertaken to generate income additional to primary production activities from various sources. This diversification can stem from gradual development processes or be forced by vulnerability.

In Thailand, agriculture is the principle activity for almost every rural household. However, it is not the only activity. Livelihood diversification strategies among the poor in Thailand are broad and various, with tourism being among those included. Tourism may thus help provide a community with opportunities with which to diversify. Hussein and Nelson (1998) argue that income diversification in addition to primary production activities is intended to offset risk and vulnerability. However, in the case of tourism the outcome of livelihood diversification among the poor might not always be positive.

One of the main livelihood diversification strategies is migration, whereby people migrate to areas perceived as offering greater opportunities or higher standards of living. Not surprisingly, much of the literature states that tourism is a cause of migration (Singh, 1989; Siegel,1995; Berker et al, 1997; Nicholson, 1997). Reports show that skilled workers migrate into an area and take on most of the high-ranking jobs (Singh,1989; Nicholson, 1997). Berker et al, (1997) note that migration and rapid growth have a significant impact on the environment,transforming small villages to “semi-urban” areas. Griffin and Borele (1987) conclude that the best way to solve this problem is to cope with tourism growth and make mass tourism less harmful. One challenge is therefore to promote PPT whilst keeping migration (or other types of vulnerability) to the minimum.

Livelihood diversification via other non-agricultural activities is also very important. Many of these activities pursued by rural people involve micro-enterprises (Hussein and Nelson, 1997). Bryceson (1996) argues that rural non-agricultural employment in sub-Saharan Africa is increasing and that the region is becoming less agrarian. However, this trend is associated with falling incomes in general. In Thailand, recent years have witnessed a growth in small- and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs); PPTis thus likely to be a good avenue for the rural poor to integrate their craft and home-based work into the tourism industry.

Gender issues also need to be examined when studying livelihood diversification. Women can employ coping strategies that are not easily available to men (Laier, 1996). Women dominate activities such as food processing and handicrafts, and in PPT initiatives, women can sell food or handicrafts to tourists as a good way to earn extra income for rural households. However, for some women their income diversification strategy is entry into prostitution (Jiggins, 1986). The inequality of gender relations has led to many women being sold as commodities through the practice of sex tourism, which is seen to be one of the most important social problems in the Southeast Asian region (Hall, 1994). Pointing to prostitution and the provision of sexual services in Thailand and the Philippines, Brydon and Chant (1989) argue that women's status in Southeast Asia is not necessarily better than in regions where their involvement in remunerated work is lower.

Looking at Northern Thailand, O'Malley (1988) has suggested that the northern provinces are structurally disadvantaged within the Thai economy, and that the absence of alternative income sources creates a dependency upon a continuation of the sex industry. The economically marginal rural areas of the northeast and northern provinces of Thailand have been the major source of child and female prostitutes, with many families and villages economically dependent on remittances from sex workers (Wereld, 1979; Phongpaichit, 1981, 1982). It is clear that entrenched poverty is the main driver behind sex tourism. The rapid and uneven development of Thailand can force young women to choose prostitution within tourism as a diversification strategy. It is thus imperative to ensure better education for women, alongside fundamental changes within the tourism industry itself.

These multiple linkages between PPT and other social and economic factors are crucial challenges for the poor. The impact on livelihoods depends on the structure of initiatives and other supporting policies.

3.7 Objectives of the Research under the SL Framework

Using the SL approach, this research attempts to address the impact of a PPT project on various aspects of the livelihood of the poor. The aim is to address the question:

Have pro-poor tourism development initiatives improved the livelihood outcomes of the rural poor in Thailand and if so, how, and to what extent?

Based on this key objective, the following chapters examine empirical and survey-based data that answers the following three sub-questions:

1. What are the livelihood structures and adjustment strategies of the rural poor in Thailand?
2. How has the PPT project contributed to livelihood diversification and how did it impact the social, personal, physical, human and financial assets of the rural poor?
3. To what extent has PPT reduced the vulnerability of the rural poor?

3.7.1 Expected Outcomes

The expected outcome of this research is threefold:

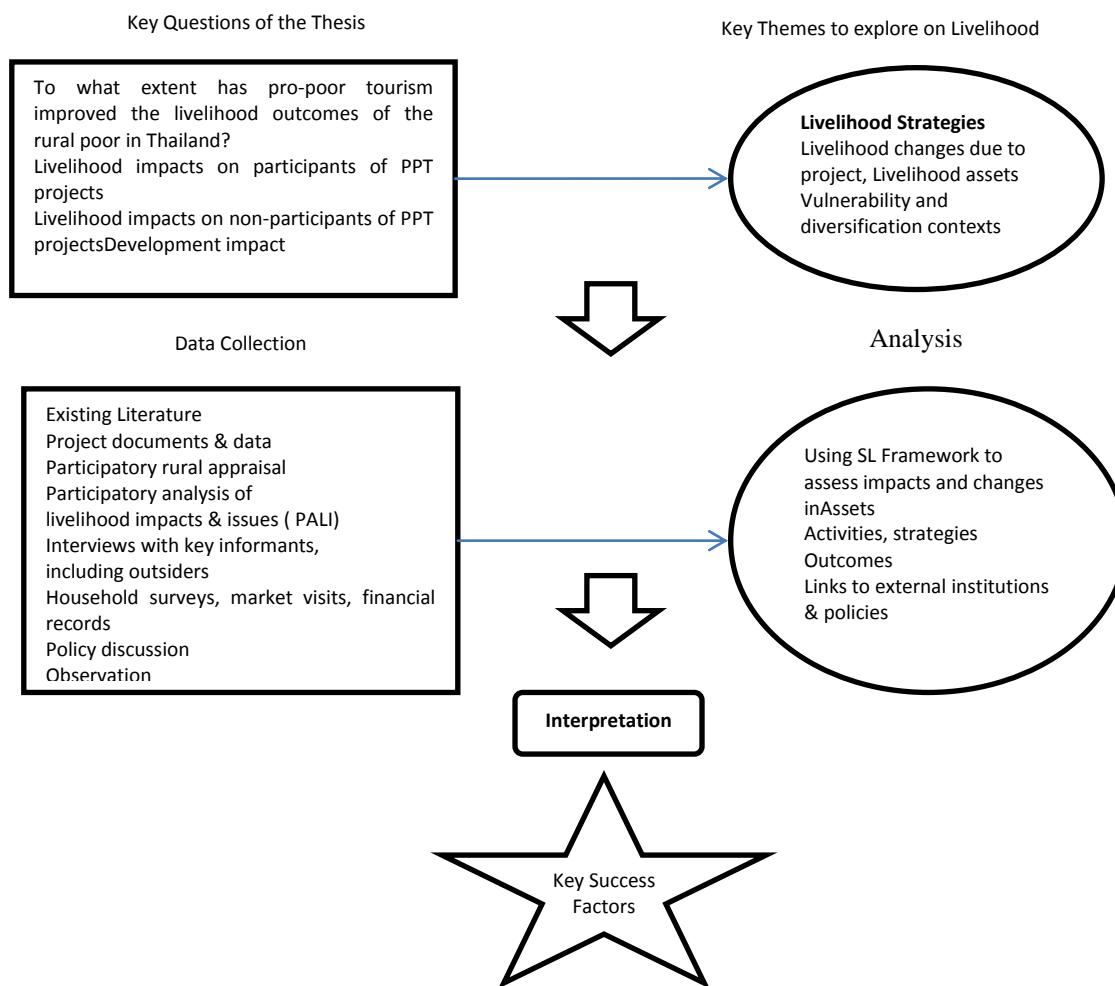
1. To understand how tourism interventions have improved the livelihood outcomes of the poor in Thailand.
2. To gain more understanding of the perceptions, values and priorities relating to PPT among residents within the community.
3. To help identify strategies to enhance the livelihood impacts of tourism on the poor.

These outcomes are expected to produce guidelines for the appropriate, effective and more targeted future development of PPT strategies in Thailand.

3.8 Scope of the Study

This study focuses on the livelihood impact of PPT projects launched by the Thai Government during 1998-2011, and is based on both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Figure 3-6 reveals the overall process of the analytical framework and steps taken to achieve the final outcome. This process is based on the framework used by Ashley (2000). Using the SL framework, the following section will first proceed with an analytical overview of PPT in Thailand and the detailed methodology used in the assessment of PPT.

Figure 3-6 Livelihood Impact Analysis



Note: Adapted from Ashley (2000).

CHAPTER 4

Pro-poor Tourism in Thailand and Project Selection

The previous chapter provided the framework for the analysis of the impact of PPT projects on people's livelihoods, and remarked on a number of challenges to be considered when assessing project outcome. This chapter will look more closely at PPT development in Thailand, examining the location of the project under study and other relevant issues. The end of the chapter will lay out the detailed methodology to proceed with the primary and secondary data from which to draw conclusions on the impact of PPT, taking the selected project as a case study, on the livelihoods of the poor in Thailand.

4.1 Tourism Policy in Thailand

In 2001 the Thai government for the first time placed on the National Agenda the use of tourism as a strategy to reduce poverty and promote sustainable development. This marked a step-change in the thinking of the government, which had hitherto used the Agenda to address other social problems, such as drug abuse, education and unemployment. The Ninth National Economic and Social Development Plan noted that thanks to its abundant and high quality tourist attractions, Thailand had the potential to be a world-class tourism destination (TAT, 1995). The Thai government thus employed tourism strategically as one of the main drivers of the country's economic growth. At the same time, it instituted programmes for the preservation of natural resources through sustainable tourism. The government also noted that tourism could help alleviate poverty by generating employment and ensuring better income distribution for the poor. To this end, it encouraged greater co-operation and participation in PPT development projects from all relevant parties, whether government agencies, private businesses, NGOs or the general public. It was hoped that such collaboration would lead to greater efficiency in the management of public sector resources.

Moreover, the implementation of PPT development projects at central, regional and local levels was felt to be consistent with the government's objective of delegating administrative authority. The National Tourism Workshop held in Chiang Mai on 20-21 April 2001 saw the joint formation of a National Tourism Policy for the poor, along with representatives from the TAT, the local governments of all provinces, NGOs and investors.

In the hope that tourism would become a tool to reduce the poverty that lay behind social problems, new policies were launched in line with the new National Agenda, with the aim of generating direct benefits for the poor in every part of the country.

While the Tenth National Economic and Social Development Plan(2007-2011) does not explicitly mention PPT as a tool for stimulating growth and development in rural areas, the concept of PPT remains firmly embedded as the central force behind the One Tambon One Product (OTOP) scheme, mentioned briefly in Chapter 1. The OTOP scheme, of which more later, aims at linking communities in networks to serve as the foundation for developing goods and services to boost added value, and thus increase the level of employment and income for people in local communities.

4.2 Pro-poor Tourism in the Greater Mekong Sub-Region

The first pro-poor related project in Thailand was the Village-based Tourism Project, officially established in 1998 to develop a tourism scheme to conserve local tradition and simultaneously alleviate rural poverty in the Greater Mekong Sub-region (GMS), comprising the six countries sharing the Mekong River: Thailand, the Lao PDR, Myanmar, Cambodia, Vietnam and Yunnan Province in China. The sharing by these areas of common borders and natural resources gave the impetus for strong co-operation. Tourism then played an increasingly important role in the economic growth of GMS countries.

Table 4-1 shows that the tourism sector has also made significant contributions to the national economies of GMS countries. For example, in the Lao PDR, tourism's share of GDP averaged 7.5 percent during the period 2000-05, while in Thailand, the sector's average share was 5.7 percent during 2000-04.

Table 4-1 Tourism's Share of National GDP (%)

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	Annual Average
Cambodia	7.6	9.0	10.3	9.7	11.2	8.9	9.2
Lao PDR	8.9	7.6	7.9	5.7	7.4	7.5	7.5
Thailand	5.8	5.8	5.9	5.2	5.8		5.7
Vietnam		6.1	7.4	8.2	8.7	8.6	12.5
Yunnan	10.8	12.4	13.0	12.4	12.5	12.7	12.3

Source: Ballard CDRI 2007

In the period 2000-04 tourism created some 3.3 million direct and indirect jobs in Thailand, about 8.4 percent of total employment. In Vietnam in 2005, tourism accounted for more than 744,000 jobs, of which 234,000 were direct and 510,000 indirect. In 2004 in Yunnan, tourism provided direct and indirect employment for about 1.7 million people, about 7.2 percent of total employment in the province. Although the proportion of GDP accounted for by the tourist industry was the lowest in Thailand, it had had the highest share of tourist arrivals among the GMS countries (Table 4-2).

Table 4-2 International Tourist Arrivals in GMS Countries, 1995-2007

Countries	Arrivals ('0000)		Average Annual Growth Rate (%)
	1995	2007	
Cambodia	220	2,015	22.0
Lao PDR	346	1,624	13.0
Myanmar	120	248	10.6
China, Guangxi	419	2,005	19.0
China, Yunnan	597	2,005	19.0
Thailand	6,925	14,464	6.7
Vietnam	1,351	4,185	9.8
GMS Total	10,005	26,760	8.7

Source: MTCO (2008) and UNWTO (2007)

With over 257 million people in the Greater Mekong Sub-Region, a large proportion of whom are classed as poor (see Table 4-4), the issue of poverty eradication in the region is extremely important. One of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) adopted by the United Nations Millennium Summit in September 2000 and supported and reflected in Asian Development Bank (ADB) policies and strategies, is to halve extreme poverty (i.e. the number of people living on less than USD1 per day) between 1990-2015.

Table 4-3 Population in the GMS Countries (Millions)

Year	Thailand	Cambodia	Vietnam	Myanmar	Yunnan	Lao	Total
					PROC		
1992	53.7	9	68.5	42.3	38.3	4.4	219.8
2002	63.4	13.5	79.	52.2	43.1	5.5	257.4

Source: ADB 2004

Table 4-4 Poverty Indicators in the GMS

Poverty Indicator	Period	Thailand	Cambodia	Vietnam	Myanmar	Yunnan Province PRC	Lao PDR
Population living below US\$1 a day (%- UNDP)	1990-2001	<2		17.7		16.1	26.3
	2002		34.2	13.1		15.9*	30.4
	2003-4*	2.2			18		
Population below National Poverty Line (Total %-WB)	1997		36.1				
Urban			21.1				
Rural			40.1				
	1998					4.6*	38.6
Urban						2*	26.9
Rural						4.6*	41
Poverty Gap Ratio (UNDP)	1990-2001			3.3		3.7*	6.3
	2000	0.1					
	2001					3.9*	

Poverty Indicator	Period	Thailand	Cambodia	Vietnam	Myanmar	Yunnan Province PRC	Lao PDR
Malnourished People (as % of Population (FAO estimates)	1998-2000	18**	36	18	6	9*	24
	1999-2001	19	38	19	7	11*	22
Children under 5 moderately or severely underweight (%- UNICEF Estimates)	2000		45	33	35	11*	40
Under 5 Mortality Rate (per 1,000 -WDI)	2002	28	138	26	108	38*	100
Primary Education Completion Rate (both sexes - UNESCO)	2000	87					
	2001		61	102	72	96*	73
Literacy Rates, 15-24yrs, both sexes (%- UNESCO)	2003	99.1	80.8	95.7	91.6	98.3*	80
Adult Literacy Rate (%of people ages 15 and over)	2001	92.6		90.3		90.9*	
	2002		69.4		85.3		66.4
Estimated number of Sex Workers	1997 (CATW)					1,000,000	
	1998 (AP Online)	55,000					
	2002 (Unicef)	200,000					
Under 18 years old	22,500- 50,000	33% (of 55,000)				2-500,000	
Prevalence of HIV, ages 15-49	2003	1.5	2.6	0.4	1.2	0.1*	0.1

Poverty Indicator	Period	Thailand	Cambodia	Vietnam	Myanmar	Yunnan Province PRC	Lao PDR
(%, UNAIDS estimate)							
Access to improved Drinking Water sources (% Total - WHO-UNICEF)	2002	85	34	73	80	77*	43
Urban		95	58	93	95	92*	66
Rural		80	29	67	74	68*	38
Access to improved Sanitation (% Total - WHO-UNICEF)	2002	99	16	41	73	44*	24
Urban		97	53	84	96	69*	61
Rural		100	8	26	63	29*	14
Telephone Lines and cellular subscribers per 100 population (ITU estimates)	2002	36.55	3.01	7.18	8.32	78*	2.12
Internet Users per 100 population (ITU estimates)	2002	7.76	0.22	1.85	0.05	4.6*	0.33

Source: ADB Regional Cooperation Strategy & Program 2004-8 (Appendix 3)

** Figure represents % of population living in cities aside from Bangkok and Pattaya

WDI = World Development Indicators Database, April 2004

PROC = People's Republic of China

4.3 PPT in Northern Thailand

As the pro-poor projects for fieldwork are located in northern Thailand, what follows is a review of tourism literature relating to this region. The north is renowned for its stunning scenery of beautiful mountains and other natural resources, which has made it a popular destination for eco-tourism, nature-based tourism and trekking. However, the poverty of local communities increases the potential for tourism to pose a threat to local livelihoods. In 1990 about one million tourists (20 percent of all foreign tourists in Thailand that year) visited nature tourism site (TAT, 1995), largely located in the northern provinces. According to a report by the US Department of Agriculture (USDA), more than 90 percent of Thailand's jungle tour clients are foreigners, mostly from France, Germany, Australia and the US (USDA, 1998). On the domestic side, a TAT survey of Thai tourists showed that 60 percent preferred natural attractions over cultural, historical, archaeological or entertainment facilities. Widener (1996) states that 60 percent of the 50 million domestic tourism trips taken each year in Thailand have a 'nature-based' focus.

Much of the allure of the northern region, especially to foreign visitors, lies in its ability to provide an 'exotic' experience, both in terms of its natural attractions and its ethnic groups. Hill trekking is a form of popular tourism involving a combination of cultural, adventure and nature-based tourism which emerged in the early 1970s as a culture-orientated activity (Cohen, 1989). By the mid-1980s, trekking involved about 100,000 participants annually (Dearden and Harron, 1994). More than 90 percent of trekkers are estimated to be foreigners, a large proportion of those engaging in the activity (Chudintra, 1993). While hill tribes are located throughout mainland Southeast Asia, it has only been in Thailand that their territories have been made accessible without restriction to outside visitors (Binkhorst and van der Duim, 1995). In northern Thailand, trekking has been used as a vehicle for promoting tourism to the region and as an alternative to traditional practices frowned upon by the central government, such as opium poppy cultivation and slash-and-burn agriculture.

Eco community-based tourism in northern Thailand has generated some employment and income. Studies reveal that tourism plays an important role in poverty reduction because the jobs generated do not require skilled labour and are easily accessible

to low income workers. Eco and cultural tourism, including homestays and community visits, can have some pro poor impact (Pupphavesa, Panpeimras and Anutchiworawong, 2005). Some northern villages have developed a form of eco-tourism by using existing cultural and natural resources in the area, and a number of villages offer homestays for tourists.

With some budget allocation from the government, funds have been used to develop local communities, with village development consisting of an initial phase, in which the participants were encouraged to develop an understanding of each other and the tourist attractions, and a second phase in which plans were made for the types of tourism activities or tour packages that could fit in with the natural and cultural resources of the community. Examples of such development projects include:

- Day trips: for domestic or foreign tourists who do not wish to stay overnight. Such trips generally include a visit to waterfalls and a short hike in the forest.
- Study trips: for students, private/government tour groups and other villagers who want to learn how tourism, the environment and village funds are managed under the homestay programme, or for those interested in traditional village tea cultivation and the preparation of herbal medicines.
- Homestays: for those wishing to stay in a local village. This option is offered directly, through the village homestay office, or indirectly by tour agencies for tourists with interest in the culture and way of life of the local community. Such tour packages offer nature-based activities such as hiking, the observation of wild flora and fauna, and visits to herb cultivation areas and coffee and tea plantations.

Northern villages are located in mountainous areas, and in addition to the natural attractions of exotic plants, animals and scenery, each possesses a unique heritage of traditional dance and folk music, and handicrafts such as weaving, furniture making, basket making, and hat and umbrella making. In some villages the residents grow tea, coffee and medicinal herbs used in traditional medicine and massage. The primary economic activity and source of income in the northern provinces is agriculture, while

other forms of employment are trading and tourism-related activities. According to a survey by the Farmers Restoration and Development Fund (FRDF) in one sample village, tourism-related income ranks only fourth, below other income sources, as shown in Table4-5.

Table4-5 Annual income by source (THB)

Sources of income	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Agriculture	21,669	18,036	0	60,000
Handicrafts/Processing	823	4,357	0	30,000
Trading	7,115	24,520	0	160,000
Homestay and tourism-related services	1,934	6,390	0	30,000
Waged Employment	15,788	24,572	0	90,000
Remittances from family members	323	1,880	0	12,000
Other sources	1,509	4,443	0	25,000
Total annual income	49,161	36,124	0	231,000

Source: FRDF, 2007

An overall review of the sources suggests that tourism-related activities have only a minimal impact on income, with agriculture remaining the primary source of income for villages participating in tourism development programmes. Tourism-related income is received from providing homestays and from other related activities, products and services, while according to a survey (Pupphavesa, Panpeimras and Anutchiworawong, 2005), other economic activities are created to support tourism programmes, including guides, transportation operators, massage services and cultural presentation operators.

The marketing of northern Thai tourist destinations is heavily reliant on the government promotion via the TAT, although some villages participating in homestay and eco-tourism programmes conduct their own marketing by distributing their brochures to the TAT regional office, hotels and other important tourist destinations, and also create their own websites to encourage direct contact rather than contact through tour agencies.

Although tourism development in Northern Thailand makes references to poverty reduction, a review of the literature suggests that there is much more that needs to be done to direct a greater share of tourism benefits to the poor.

4.4 PPT Development and Strategies in Thailand

PPT developments in Thailand have stemmed from sustainable tourism policies promulgated by the TAT, the aim of which has been to forge a balance between the economy, environment and society, while incorporating His Majesty the King's "sufficiency economy" concept (Deithelm Travels Thailand Tourism Review, 2007).

The aim of this development plan has been to expand the tourism market, increase the rate of repeat tourists, and enhance Thailand's reputation and performance as a tourist destination. Market expansion has been facilitated by exploring new products to meet tourist demands, implementing a destination management system and through the use of a proactive marketing strategy.

4.4.1 The Village-based Tourism Programme

The village-based tourism project was started as a tourism development programme for the Greater Mekong sub-region in 1998 (PCI & TEAM, 1998). Each country nominated one village for the development of a village-based tourism programme with the aim of increasing income for the poor villagers. Participating villages were expected to provide accommodation (homestay and guest houses); souvenir and handicraft sales to tourists; performances of cultural folk dance, songs; transport and communications as well as guide services.

Table 4-6 Countries and villages participating in Village Based Tourism

Country	Village
Thailand	Had Bai
China	Meng Han
Cambodia	Koh Dach
Laos	Pak Beng
Myanmar	Wan Pon
Vietnam	Thoi Son

Source: PCI & TEAM, 1998

Since the village-based tourism programme has the same objectives as PPT, it can be argued that in Thailand the government-initiated interventions and livelihood development strategies that support tourism development, such as the Village Fund, OTOP and the promotion of SMEs, may be considered to be PPT support programmes. Both PPT and village-based tourism here share an explicit set of objectives, which aim to ease poverty and generate economic opportunities for the poor.

The first objective of the village-based tourism scheme was to give priority to community participation in planning and managing tourism. These programmes aimed to develop capacity for ongoing planning and management and create community readiness for, and acceptance of tourism. Each community has the opportunity to assess the costs and benefits of tourism and determining its future in relation to tourism as a form of economic and community development. Community participation in planning and management issues was also essential for the pro-poor objectives to be realised, and a series of community participatory workshops to encourage local understanding of the tourism industry, cultural products and the community management of tourism was thus provided, with the aim of developing capacity for ongoing planning and management.

The second objective was to develop tourism products. Training in destination marketing and product development for both local officials and residents was provided, and villagers were encouraged to build on the unique aspects of their products and community.

The third objective was to achieve equitable income distribution within the villages. If tourism-generated income is to achieve sustainable development the introduction of good and successful examples of income generation and distribution is essential. It required capacity building as well as demonstration projects illustrating that equitable distribution was possible and in fact helps ensure the successful development of a village destination.

The last objective was to manage natural resources and environment in the project areas. There are two dimensions to the protection and enhancement of the natural environment: within the village itself, and for the entire ecosystem of the GMS.

4.4.2 *Village Funds*

Three years after the establishment of the village-based tourism scheme, in 2001, a new PPTsupport project was launched. The objectives remained broadly similar, but the project was launched by a different government under a different name, and reached a more extensive geographical area. On 26 February 2001 the new prime minister, Thaksin Shinawatra, announced to the National Assembly the establishment of Village and Urban Revolving Funds.

A key plank of the new government's attempts to alleviate poverty at a grassroots level, the Village Funds provided low-interest loans to spur enterprise and development in 71,364 villages nationwide. Each village was entitled to one million Baht to serve as a revolving loan facility for long-term local investments and income creation in rural areas at a community level. Committees consisting of village members were established to screen project proposals, and the money was borrowed from the Government Savings Bank. By August 2001, 28.47 billion Baht had been transferred to 28,475 villages, including Had Bai, the village that forms the case study for this research, of which more below.

4.4.3 *“One Tambon One Product” Programme*

Launched in conjunction with the Village Fund in 2001, OTOP formed the second plank of the government's overall PPT strategy. Originally named 'One Village One Product', the name was changed to 'One Tambon One Product' in 2005 ('*tambon*' being the name of the administrative unit above village level but below the level of district).

The project was aimed at enabling each community to develop and market its own local product or products based on traditional indigenous expertise and local know-how. Each village, or *tambon*, was required to have its own unique product manufactured with local raw materials and resources. The promotion of such products, which could be as diverse as food, handicrafts or local tourist attractions, was intended to help solve the problem of rural to urban migration, while the innovation and development of products in each local area was expected to earn extra income for each community. Emphasis was placed on transforming local resources into high quality products with distinguishable and marketable features that could win national and international recognition for local communities.

One Tambon One Product (OTOP) is a local entrepreneurship stimulus programme designed by former Thai prime minister Thaksin Shinawatra during his 2001-2006 Thai Rak Thai government. The programme aimed to support locally made and marketed products of each Thai tambon (sub-district). Drawing inspiration from Japan's successful One Village One Product (OVOP) programme, OTOP encourages village communities to improve local products' quality and marketing, selecting one superior product from each tambon to receive formal branding as its "*starred OTOP product*". It provides both a local and national stage to promote these products, which include a large array of local items, including traditional handicrafts, cotton and silk garments, pottery, fashion accessories, household items and food. After a military junta overthrew Thaksin's government in 2006 following an election cancelled for irregularities, the OTOP programme was cancelled. However, it was soon revived and rebranded.

Basic Principles of OTOP

There are three principles of OTOP:

1. **Local yet Global:** Goods and services based on local wisdom and culture achieve international recognition.
2. **Self-Reliance-Creativity:** Realise the dream through the OTOP process by initiating activities based on local potential.
3. **Human Resource Development:** People are encouraged to develop their versatility and creative spirits to cope with challenges.

Objectives of the OTOP programme

The OTOP project is aimed at

1. The creation of jobs and the generation of income for local communities
2. The strengthening of the local community through the development of self-reliance
3. The strengthening of local wisdom
4. The strengthening of human resource development
5. The strengthening of creativity within communities through the development of products drawing on their way of life and local culture

There are currently three main **OTOP policies**, as follows:

1. **World-class standards:** products manufactured as part of the OTOP scheme must meet the determined quality standards, must undergo continual development, and must accord with local culture. They must also be unique, as well as recognised in the domestic and global markets.
2. **Distinctive characteristics:** product initiation and development must be pursued through a brainstorming process in order to ensure the best possible outcome, with the product itself incorporating and embedding local customs and the tradition of the community or village.
3. **Human resource and technology development:** the personnel involved must possess vision and other necessary competencies, such as planning, marketing skills and a consumer-oriented mindset. These personnel must be selected from within the local community for their knowledge and forward thinking, and must be willing to exchange views and insights in order to help solve problems and develop the products to be manufactured.

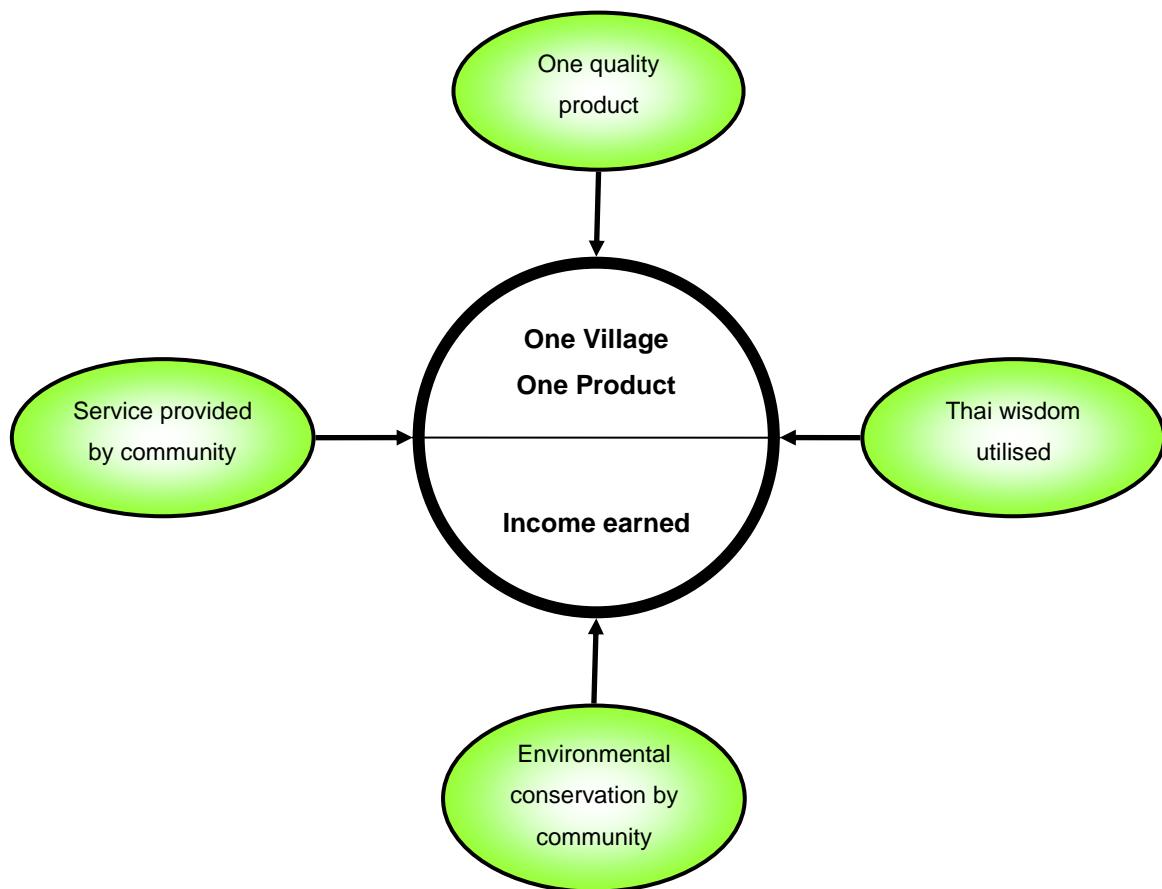
At the heart of the scheme was the concept of self-reliance, with local residents encouraged to devote energy and creativity to using local resources to manufacture goods for wider national and international markets. By producing high quality products and with suitable marketing, villagers could earn their communities extra income. To do this, villagers engage in mutual co-operation, working together to create products firmly rooted in local wisdom and culture.

The scheme thus concerned matters of unity, trust and culture as much as material wealth. The grassroots nature of the scheme was intended as a conduit for Thai culture, tradition and pride to pass through to the next generation. At the same time, the focus on natural resources was intended to improve the villagers' quality of life while maximizing profits. By creating rural development jobs and income, it was hoped that villages participating in the scheme would come to form the main foundation of the country and Thai society.

In short, the OTOP project envisaged economic activity as a tool to stimulate learning in the community to ensure continued economic development. The village, or *tambon*, was seen as the primary unit of development and villagers were encouraged to participate.

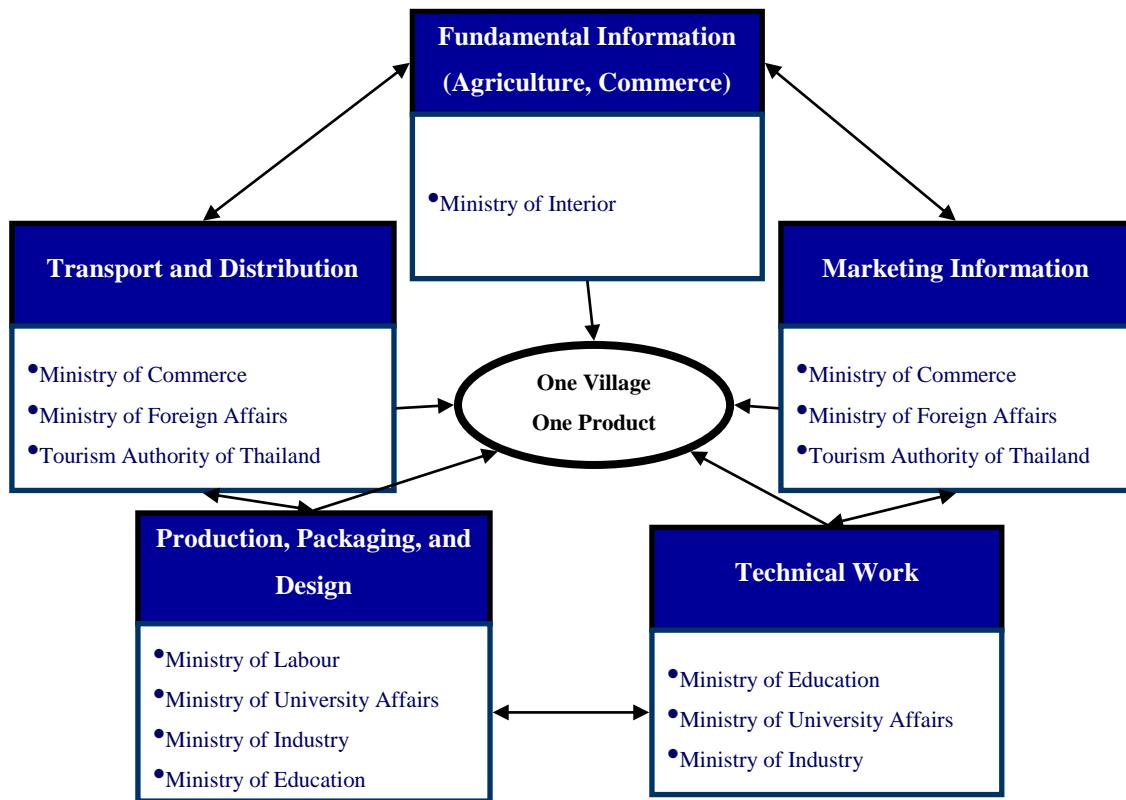
In September 2001 the government established the National OTOP Administrative Committee (NOAC) chaired by a deputy prime minister to issue OTOP policies, strategies and master plans, and establish product selection standards and criteria. The committee was also tasked with ensuring that overall management and operations were consistent with the respective policies, strategies and master plans.

Figure 4-1 Chart of Fundamental “One Tambon One Product” Concept



However, most communities faced a number of fundamental problems, including the question of what to produce, uncertainties over how to market the product, and protection of intellectual property rights. These problems were gradually overcome through orchestrated government efforts and initiatives under the direction of NOAC, working through a network of countrywide sub-committees down to the district level.

Figure4-2Organization Responsible for OTOP



In an analysis of the OTOP programme, Chutimaskul (2006) shows a steady rise in income from the scheme, from 24 million Baht in 2002 to 33 million in 2003 and 46 million by 2004. The scheme appeared to have achieved its objectives of raising living standards. In recent years a number of OTOP initiatives have been set up, such as 'OTOP Village Champion', 'OTOP Provincial Star' and 'OTOP Product Champion', aimed at promoting the quality of OTOP goods. Nonetheless, Chutimaskul cautioned that OTOP disproportionately benefitted those already running businesses and those determined to find markets. Moreover, some OTOP projects failed in terms of quality.

4.4.4 OTOP as a PPT Project

The OTOP scheme may be considered a pro-poor project insofar as it is aimed at improving the livelihoods of impoverished people in targeted communities. As noted, the scheme is intended to broaden opportunities, both economic and those relating more widely to the quality of life. This it can do in various ways, including:

1. **Market Access:** one key advantage of OTOP is market accessibility. By drawing tourists into an area and exporting products to outside markets, communities can look forward to a more regular income stream.
2. **Cumulative Marketing:** that the products are marketed through a national scheme and meet guaranteed quality standards ensures more opportunities for outside sales, thus offering the hope of relatively constant income.
3. **Employment:** the scheme supports employment within the village, especially during the low season for agriculture when villagers would otherwise be underemployed. Moreover, the project can also help landless villagers who are unemployed, giving them a chance to gain income.
4. **Better Infrastructure:** participating villages are registered in a national database, and can access support in terms of infrastructure for the duration of the project, including access to electricity, water and roads, which in turn will serve to enhance market access.
5. **More Updated Information:** villagers are able to gain up-to-date information about the outside world via the Internet, television or contact with government officials. This enhances opportunities for them to maximise benefits from government services as well as better education from schools and other sources.

Nonetheless, the project can also pose a negative threat to the livelihood of the poor, as too fast exposure to the outside world and competition without the benefit of experience or guided direction can lead to overspending and debt.

4.5 Pro Poor Tourism Interventions in HadBai Village

In 1998 TAT identified Had Bai, in the northern province of Chiang Rai to participate in the village-based tourism scheme (CUCUEM, 2000), standing alongside representative villages from other countries in the GMS. The village was selected due to its traditional weaving, with the objective being to set up participatory weaving workshops and sell woven products to domestic and foreign tourists. Had Bai is located in Chiang Rai province along the Mekong River, between the communities of Chiang Khong and Chiang Saen. There are significant tourism attractions in the region, such as the Golden Triangle and Chiang Khong, a gateway to the Lao PDR.

Each year these attractions draw an increasing number of tourists. As of 2009, the village had 412 households, totalling 1,327 people. Agriculture is the primary source of income for the community, while selling Thai Lue woven products adds to household earnings.

Traditional Thai Lue weaving is the community's main tourist attraction. There are three shops selling woven fabrics and other products including long skirts, shirts, blouses and small bags, with one of the shops run by the women's weaving club. Buyers from around Thailand come to the village and place substantial orders through the weaving club while some women sell their weaving directly to tourists from their homes.

Picture4.1 Examples of the special weaving styles of the village



The villagers aim to educate tourists and exhibit their traditional weaving through participatory weaving workshops. Weaving and workshops represent a tourism market niche that can be directed toward domestic and foreign travellers who are interested in traditional textiles.

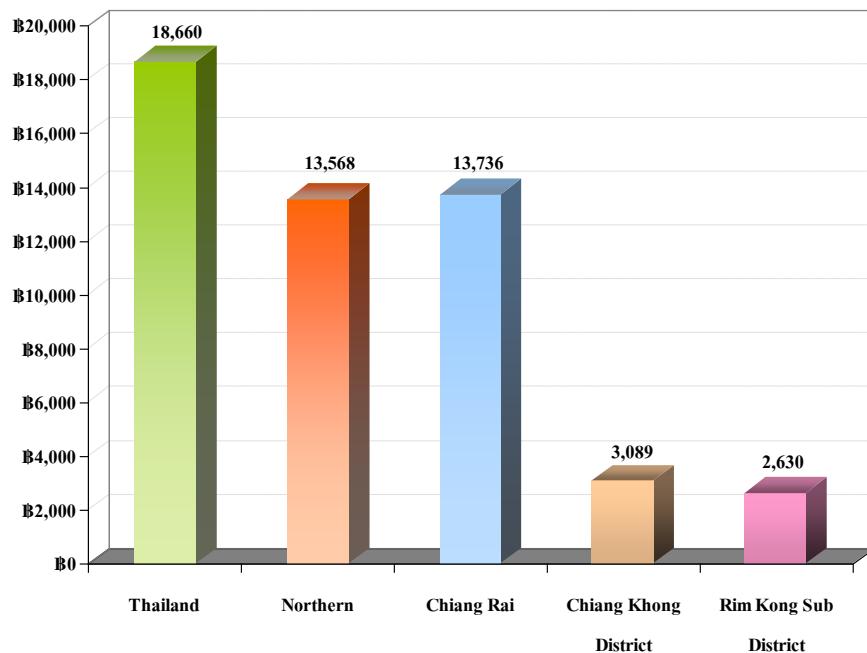
A CUCUEM evaluation of Had Bai's village-based tourism plan in 2000 found that:

1. Although the village itself has few tourist attractions, traditional weaving could be used as a prime attraction to attract tourists. The fact that the project had received strong community support, together with good infrastructure and environmental management, boded well for future support for increased tourism activities. At the same time, it was important to ensure that the community was ready to manage the profits that could potentially accrue from tourism growth.
2. Community participation in the planning and management of tourism should be increased.
3. Further capacity should be built up through education and training. This could encompass community participation workshops to encourage local understanding of the tourism industry, and short- and long-term training courses in the English language to ensure basic conversational skills with potential visitors.
4. Improvements should be made to the village infrastructure and physical planning.
5. Efforts should be made to create a positive visitor experience. The community needed to improve public facilities such as toilets, cafes and a refuse collection and disposal system. The researchers recommended that the village leadership and the local school should develop a programme to educate local children about refuse, litter and the need to protect their environment. Annual assessments of the environmental, cultural and social impacts of tourism must be carried out by the local government and the community.
6. The various agencies responsible for the village should provide better co-operation. Additional assistance in the implementation of local initiatives could be sourced through the Department of Industrial Development or other relevant government departments.
7. The marketing programme should be improved. Had Bai had been marketed through a brochure produced by the TAT and local tour operators to market the village as a location to purchase Thai Lue textiles. However, the brochure was mainly focused on other attractions in Chiang Rai province, and the section on Had Bai was brief and contained few pictures.
8. The management of natural resources and the environment should be improved.

4.6 Underlying reasons for selecting Had Bai as a case study

The principle reason for selecting Had Bai as the case study for this thesis is the implicit PPT orientation of the tourism promotion schemes there. Initially the focus of village-based tourism, Had Bai was able to adjust when the government switched its support policy from village-based tourism to tourism products development. Moreover, the village is located in one of the poorest areas of the northern region, where PPT could play an essential role in enhancing local livelihoods. Figure4-3 suggests that (with the exception of the northeastern region), poverty in the northern region is more severe than in other parts of the country. At the same time, ChiangRaiProvince has performed badly relative to the average performance of the region as a whole. RimKhong sub-district, where Had Bai village is located, has significantly lower income than the district and provincial average.

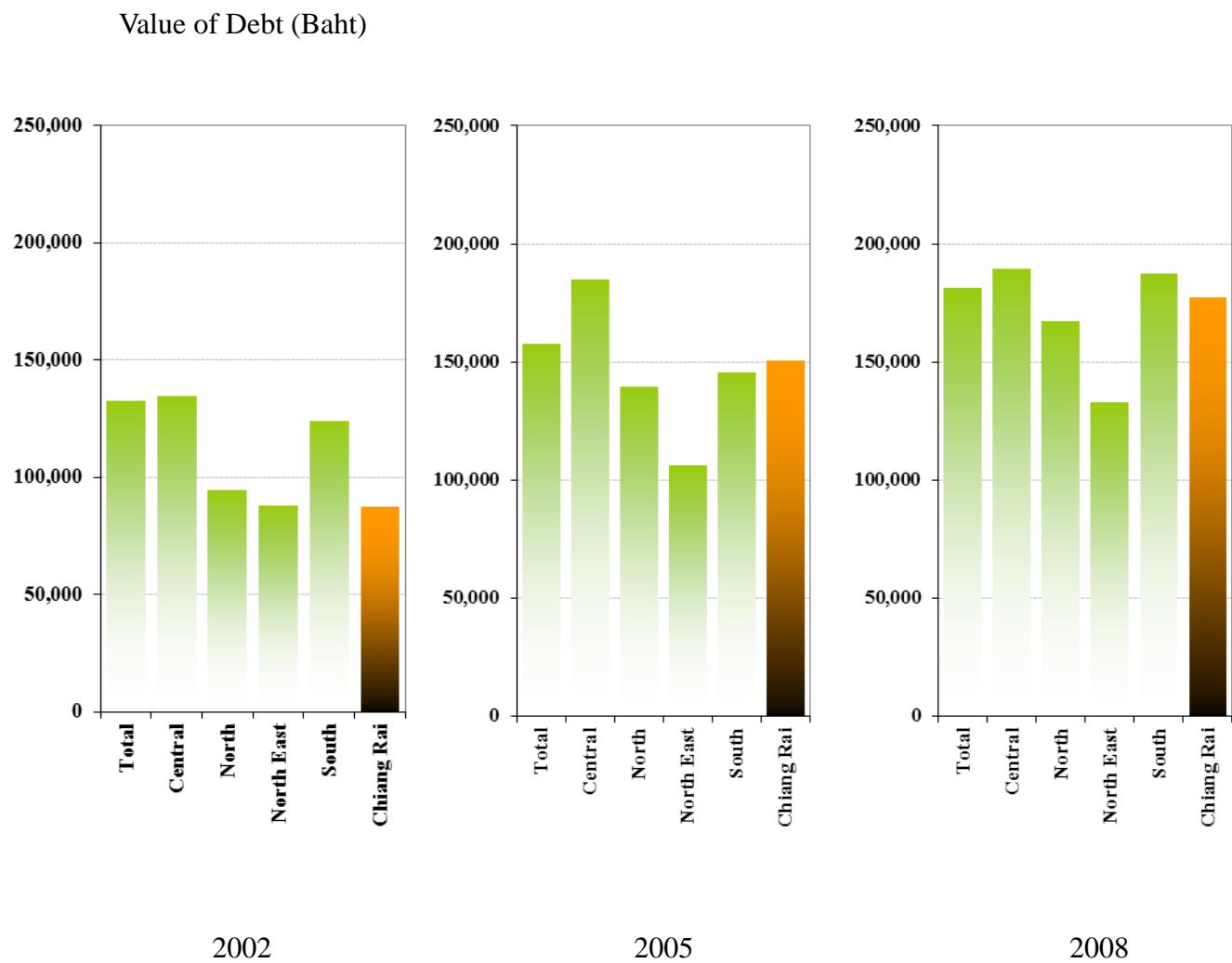
Figure4-3Average Monthly Income of Selected Areas in 2011



Source: National Statistic Office

Although the number of households living below the poverty line has improved in recent years, other concerns have emerged, as shown in Figure 4-4. During five years, from 2002 to 2007, household debt in the area almost doubled. The years 2004 and 2006 saw a particularly high rate of debt increase in Chiang Khong, even when compared to other regions showing similar trends. While the Village Fund could account for the overall debt increase in the region, other factors provided a better explanation of the extra increase in the area under research. It is hoped that the results of the research will provide powerful implications for the direction of future policies designed to assist the poor.

Figure 4-4 Value of household debt in selected areas from 2002-2011



Source: National Statistical Office

Data from GMS PPT projects sponsored by the ADB, SNV, NZAID, GTZ, EU and UNDP, indicate that Thailand is unique among GMS countries in having a relatively higher lever of per capita GDP (Jacquemin, 2006). However, the UN database shows that the selected pilot area for this study in Chiangrai was home to the second highest ratio of poor people in the country, after as shown in Table 4-7.

Table 4-7 Poverty conditions in the pilot area related to other parts of Thailand

		2000	2002	2004	2006	2007
Total	Poverty Line (\$/person/day)	1.41	1.39	1.54	1.83	2.09
	Ratio of the poor	20.98	14.93	11.16	9.55	8.48
	Number of the poor (thousand persons)	12,555.4	9,135.4	7,018.6	6,056.7	5,421.7
Central	Poverty Line (\$/person/day)	1.53	1.49	1.66	1.95	2.19
	Ratio of the poor	9.03	7.63	4.47	3.31	3.08
	Number of the poor (thousand persons)	1,246.7	1,090.4	666.2	525.1	496.2
Southern	Poverty Line (\$/person/day)	1.29	1.28	1.45	1.77	2.00
	Ratio of the poor	16.64	9.56	6.03	5.49	5.88
	Number of the poor (thousand persons)	1,330.1	783.5	505.4	472.2	512.8
Northeastern	Poverty Line (\$/person/day)	1.24	1.21	1.34	1.64	1.91
	Ratio of the poor	35.34	23.06	18.58	16.77	13.05
	Number of the poor (thousand persons)	7,281.6	4,826.9	3,953.7	3,620.4	2,830.3
Northern	Poverty Line (\$/person/day)	1.27	1.25	1.41	1.67	1.92
	Ratio of the poor	23.10	20.29	15.68	12.00	12.93
	Number of the poor (thousand persons)	2,590.1	2,290.0	1,842.1	1,410.2	1,518.1
Of which Chiang Rai	Poverty Line (\$/person/day)	1.24	1.24	1.41	1.67	1.93
	Ratio of the poor	34.46	12.39	13.12	15.63	14.44
	Number of the poor (thousand persons)	382.1	139.3	155.3	204.5	189.8

Source: NESDB, exchange rate from UN database

Moreover, an ADB study of the development of pro-poor tourism in the GMS revealed that current tourism in the sub-region fails to benefit many of those living below the poverty line. Although there are already a number of PPT initiatives in the GMS, much of the focus has been on single communities or destinations to host either day-or over-night trips. Analyses of these initiatives reveal that many other factors must be integrated into the programmes and that current tourism development initiatives still only plays a marginal role in realising the goals of the GMS Cooperation framework. Jacquemin (2006) argued that for tourism to make a much greater contribution towards poverty alleviation in the GMS countries, a wider approach clearly needed to be adopted and that pro-poor projects must develop the capacity to target the poor directly.

4.7 Why a Single Case Study

Most case studies use at least two sources of data: Multiple sources, even multiple investigators and sites may be involved in the collection of interview, observation and administrative documents and performing structured surveys. Even single period case studies may cover a protracted period: Cases may be studied over a prolonged period or written at a single point and pursued at future points in time by follow-up case studies. Case studies which feature multiple or single cases, or even single cases viewed over a prolonged period of time, or revisited after an interval of time may provide for greater generalization (Gareth and Smircich, 1980)

Flyvbjerg(2006) explains in his research that there are five common misunderstandings about case-study research: (1) Theoretical knowledge is more valuable than practical knowledge; (2) One cannot generalize from a single case, therefore the single case study cannot contribute to scientific development; (3) The case study is most useful for generating hypotheses, while other methods are more suitable for hypotheses testing and theory building; (4) The case study contains a bias toward verification; and (5) It is often difficult to summarise specific case studies.

Some would say that we cannot generalise from a single case and social science is about generalising. Others would argue that the case study may be well suited for pilot studies but not for full-fledged research schemes. Others again would comment that the case study is subjective, giving too much scope for the researcher's own interpretations.

Thus the validity of case studies would be wanting. It should be mentioned that the various strategies of selection are not necessarily mutually exclusive. For example, a case can be at once extreme, critical, and paradigmatic. The interpretation of such a case can provide a unique wealth of information, because one obtains various perspectives and conclusions according to whether it is viewed and interpreted as one or another type of case (Flyvbjerg, 2006). Ragin (1992) states that criticising single-case studies as inferior to multiple case studies is misguided, since even single-case studies 'are multiple in most research efforts because ideas and evidence may be linked in many different ways. Geertz (1995) says fieldwork involved in most in-depth case studies that 'The Field' itself is a 'powerful disciplinary force: assertive, demanding, even coercive, it can be underestimated, but it cannot be evaded.

With respect to intervention in social and political affairs, Abbott (1992, 79) has observed that a social science expressed in terms of typical case narratives would provide 'far better access for policy intervention than the present social science of variables.' However, that the revision of the five misunderstandings about case study research described above, conventional wisdom about case-study research -- for instance that one cannot generalise on the basis of a single case or that case studies are arbitrary and subjective (Stake, 1995, Ragin and Becker, 1992).

The author hopes that the selection of Had Bai as the village under study will potentially provide valuable data for assessing the role of current tourism development initiatives in reducing poverty. Findings from the study in this pilot project could also provide valuable input into human resource development, infrastructure development, sharing good practices and policy planning, which in turn can increase support for PPT in the future.

CHAPTER 5

Detailed Methodology

The previous section provided a review of existing literature in order to obtain an overall view of approaches to PPT and sustainable livelihoods. Within the scope of this review relevant issues were examined, including the impacts of PPT on rural livelihoods and assets of the poor. This chapter will outline the research method used in studying the effects of PPT livelihood strategies, and will focus on the research design used to present, interpret and analyze findings from the study.

5.1 Analysis of Datausing the Sustainability Framework in this Study

The research combines a qualitative and a quantitative approach to analyze the impact of the Village Base Tourism and OTOP, insofar as these relate to PPT, on the livelihood of the poor in Had Bai. Due to the diverse and dynamic nature of the tourism industry, involving as it does a wide range of stakeholders and actors, the two approaches are used to complement each other and facilitate the triangulation of the comprehensive interpretation of the data collected.

The primary sources of quantitative data were gathered using a self-made questionnaire based on a sustainable livelihood assessment, while the primary sources of qualitative data were gathered using guided interviews. Secondary sources of data, used to validate the findings of the study, included a review of related literature from previous studies, reports, presentations and internet sources.

The **Quantitative Approach** is based on the information obtained from the statistical analysis of sample surveys and structured interviews. The data is quantifiable, and is sampled from a probability basis whereby a greater number of samples will result in more unbiased results and implications. Any information derived from this approach is fully backed by statistics and realities. However, the information derived from such an approach provides only systematic answers to the questions of interest, which are on occasion difficult to explain, especially when the samples are diverse. Under such circumstances it is difficult to draw conclusions without any supporting information based on opinions or judgment.

By contrast, the **Qualitative Approach** provides information relating to judgments, attitudes, preferences, priorities and perception about the subjects from the interactive interviews (Carvalho and White, 1997). The fact that this approach generally brings up broader information means that assessment is likely to be more difficult than with the quantitative approach. However, when the two approaches are used in conjunction, the conclusions can be mutually supportive.

The strength of the quantitative approach lies in the possibility of aggregating the results and the ease with which it can present strong supporting figures. The information from the approach is therefore more reliable and can be compared across samples or groups of samples. More advanced statistical methods can also allow simulation of the results using different assumptions or policy options. On the other hand, the approach may be subject to sampling errors, in which inferences about a wider population are made on the basis of results from a portion of that population, and non-sampling errors, in which the sample selected may omit important portions of a population or in which some of the questions are left unanswered, which could statistically and significantly change the results and implications. Such errors can be mitigated against by increasing the sample size as well as the sample coverage.

In comparison with the qualitative approach, the quantitative approach may be more prone to non-sampling errors, as it is harder to control the replies given by the respondents. At the same time, the qualitative approach tends to be more subject to sampling errors due to the more selective nature of the samples.

The quantitative approach, with its focus on measurable data, may also miss unquantifiable information. By seeming to disregard some information as unimportant the outcome may be distorted, leading in turn to inappropriate policy implications. Additionally, the nature of the approach, in which the household head is often the main respondent, may not accurately reflect intra-household allocation.

The qualitative approach, on the other hand, can be geared to focus more on the links between households and better capture the relations within the household (Cavalho and White, 1997). This can be significant, as, for example, the coping strategies for different circumstances as well as vulnerabilities and the impact of the project may not be the same between men and women. At the same time, the qualitative approach offers up richer information and explanation, especially when it comes to the steps and causal processes of events.

The approach also provides the reasons for the observed responses in the qualitative approach. As a result, the two approaches can effectively be combined in order to complement each other for the best policy outcome.

Most of the early literature assessing PPT projects was based only on the qualitative data derived from surveys (Ashley, Roe, Goodwin, 2001; Ashley, 2002; Spenceley and Seif, 2003; Meyer, 2006). However, recent literature has seen a shift in focus towards combining the two techniques to obtain a more comprehensive analysis and stronger conclusions (Cattarinich, 2001).

5.2 Sampling

Sampling using a quantitative approach is conducted randomly, with a sample with some known probability selected from the population. There are three different ways to select a probability sample, depending on the objective of the project and the statistical technique used to interpret the data. First, **simple random sampling** places an equal probability on all in the sample to be selected; in other words, each sample has an equal chance to be drawn from the population. Second, **stratified random sampling** first divides the population into different groups or classes, before samples are randomly drawn from the population within the group. And third, **systematic random sampling** randomly ensures evenly spaced intervals between each sample selected, the process continuing until the desired sample size has been reached (Gupta et al, 1982).

This research employed simple random sampling, with questionnaires directed to randomly selected households in Had Bai, in the hope that this approach would elicit a distribution of villagers with differing knowledge of an involvement in the PPT-oriented OTOP project. Three hundred thirty households were randomly selected from 440 households (80 percent coverage of the total population at the time the questionnaire was launched).

Sampling using a quantitative method involves non-probability sampling, which in turn can involve a variety of techniques. Narayan (1996) provides a few examples of non-probability sampling: (1) Accidental sampling, in which a person is selected by accident for the simple reason that they are available upon the approach of the surveyor, or because they themselves approach the surveyor and express willingness to provide information, (2) 'snowballing sampling', based on referral, in which a key informant provides the names of people who are related to the situation under study, (3) common sense sampling, which attempts to include sufficient samples to include a range of people or variety of situations to help prevent bias in data interpretation, and (4) quota or proportionate sampling, whereby the sample is selected to reflect the distribution of different socio-economic groups based on the representation of these groups in the population.

In this study, various techniques have been applied to complement the results from the work conducted using a quantitative approach. Interactive interviews were conducted with various stakeholders, notably the villagers and government officials, in order to compare their views on aspects of PPT projects insofar as they have an impact on the livelihood of the poor in the area, and to see how differently they perceive the benefits and costs of the project. The villagers were selected based on their availability and referral. At the same time, government officials were selected both by referral and by using proportionate sampling.

5.3 Data Collection Methods

Using a quantitative approach, pre-designed questionnaires with well-defined (as opposed to open-ended) questions were given to sampled villagers. It was decided that government officials would only be questioned using a qualitative approach, as the information needed was in-depth and specific, rather than simply general demographic data. The answers from each respondent were recorded and statistically processed and reported.

Such questionnaires contrast with those employed when using a qualitative approach, which tend to be informal and open-ended, leaving open the possibility of adding or dropping questions according to the situation and the previous answers given by the respondents. Participants in the interview play an active role in providing comments and opinions rather than just simply replying to the questions.

There are various methods of data collection when using a qualitative approach: (1) Key informant interviews with people with specialist knowledge and experience of the area of interest. The number of these informants usually varies between 10 and 25 (Carvalho and White, 1997). (2) Focus groups that stimulate discussion among homogenous participants where the role of the interviewer is simply to facilitate the interactive exchange of ideas in the group. (3) Community meetings that are open to all participants to answer pre-designed questions. Interviewers often have to put in extra effort to encourage the participation of women and marginalised groups. (4) Structured direct observation requiring an individual or group of observers to observe and collect information on the sample over a specified period. (5) Participant observation (PO), whereby the researcher observes a community over a prolonged period by effectively becoming a part of that community. This method requires more time than structured direct observation, and is designed to focus more on the social and cultural behaviour of the community rather than on discrete observation or the physical environment. Additionally, when using this method it is important that the observer seeks common understanding with people in the community in order to obtain their perspectives effectively (Kupta, 1993 and Norton and Stephen, 1995).

In addition to the different methods employed using a qualitative approach, the techniques used in understanding the development, cause and effect as well as the usual habits of the community also vary. Chamber (1994) lists the available technique often utilised as follows: (1) social mapping and modeling to represent a map of the community structure, institutions and facilities that matter to their livelihood, (2) a seasonal map showing the evolution of events or phenomena that matter to the community over the annual cycle, (3) the oral histories and ethnobiographies of individuals, crops or animals in the cycle insofar as they relate to the topic of interest, (4) daily time use analysis, which allows the researcher to learn the daily activities of the sample group through the seasons, (5) participatory linkage diagramming, which reveals the chains of causality for the viewer to understand the relationship between factors surrounding the sample, (6) Venn diagrams showing the relative importance of individuals and institutions within the community under observation, and (7) wealth and well-being ranking, examining how the selected households rank themselves in terms of well-being or wealth.

The methodology of the field research for this study can be divided into three broad areas.

The first looks at the initial stages of the of the Village Base Tourism interventions in 1998 following the OTOP initiatives in Had Bai around the year 2001, especially when OTOP was first launched, and details the objectives of the research and the reasons why Had Bai was selected as the location of interest. The basic data for this stage was obtained from national databases such as the National Statistical Office and the National Social and Economic Development Board, together with other related literature. Secondary data sources such as government reports and statistics were also gathered in order to provide a better understanding of the background of the tourism sector as well as up-to-date information regarding PPT initiatives. At the same time, a qualitative approach was also employed here through interviews with key informants such as the leader of the village, the school principal, and the leader of the housewives in the community. Additionally, a focus group was established with the aim of sharing and exchanging views on current livelihood activities and expectations for the future of the project. The first stage was conducted in 2002 when the author first visited Had Bai village.

The second stage of the analysis relies on the data from the qualitative and quantitative approach, with questionnaires sent out to households in the village for data collection. The work on this stage was conducted in 2003 by which stage the project was fully up and running, and all stakeholders were beginning to participate actively. The primary data obtained from the questionnaires was processed, ready for interpretation and analysis together with the field interviews in the final stage.

The questionnaire instruments used with this quantitative approach in poverty-related studies are adopted from the Living Standard Measurement Survey (LSMS). An LSMS generally has three core modules: basic household information such as the age and gender of the household members, the expenditure module, and the income and asset module. An LSMS includes the collection of data that can be more flexible than traditional surveys, as the questions in each module can be adjusted according to specific purposes (Grosh, 1991). The questionnaires used in this research resemble an LSMS in that there is a relatively large number of questions. These questions are segmented into sub-questions in order to glean answers on how the project has had an impact on the respondent's livelihoods, based on assets analysis. The author uses an assessment based on the SLA framework for collecting the quantitative data, while for the qualitative data the author uses semi-structured interviews and focus group discussion with all stakeholders, including policy makers, government officers, Had Bai residents and others.

Another data collection was carried out in the end of 2010 with more interviews. The author decided to hold the last focus group discussion for a conclusion of the impact of PPT towards livelihood of the poor. The last stage of the analysis was to send out the questionnaire in 2011 to get the most updated information and triangulate with primary data collected. These methods were aimed at following up key issues, in order to (1) cross check against the data obtained from the questionnaires in the second stage, and (2) support or fill in any gaps of understanding in the information from the questionnaire where the meaning remained ambiguous.

A self-made questionnaire was used to collect the quantitative data. The questionnaire was based on the Sustainable Livelihood Framework and designed to elicit respondents' perceptions on the level of improvements in the five sustainable livelihood assets resulting from the livelihood development of the PPT programmes. The SLA was used in order to determine the impact of the sustainable tourism policies and strategies initiated by the Thai government to reduce poverty in the community.

With the aim of collecting data on the perceived impact of the interventions on the livelihood assets of Had Bai residents during the thirteen-year period from 1998-2011, the questionnaire was administered to 330 respondents representing each household in the village. The questionnaire measured the respondents' perceptions of the changes in their livelihood assets by responding to items relating to the following sustainable livelihood factors:

1. Social Assets – cooperation, network interconnectedness, family support, friendships, relationship to trust/ exchanges, partnership and collaboration, and political participation.
2. Personal Assets – motivation, self-esteem, self-confidence, self-perception, emotional well-being, assertiveness and spirituality.
3. Physical Assets – child/elderly care, secure shelter, clean affordable energy, information, banking and access to related services, basic consumer needs, affordable transportation, tools and equipment, natural resources, air and water quality.
4. Human Assets – skills, knowledge, ability, employability and earning power, good health, leadership.
5. Financial Assets – income from productive activity; available finances/savings; regularity of inflow of money from government transfers, family, gifts and payment in kind, credit ratings, leadership.

The interviews conducted for the purposes of this study were predominantly in-depth ones, allowing for qualitative information to be clarified and elaborated upon while enabling more latitude for the acquisition of in-depth answers (May, 1997).

Semi-structured interviews were used with 40 respondents; representatives of national government, local government, the private sector and village opinion leaders. Since the primary focus of this research is to shed light on an understanding of the livelihood outcomes of PPT projects, the quality of the data, rather than the quantity, was the main concern.

The main methodologies employed in qualitative data collections were (1) Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) (previously called Rapid Rural Appraisal, or RRA), and (2) Participatory Analysis of Livelihood Impacts & Issues (PALI). The first method emphasises community-level interviews and considers the views of other stakeholders, while PALI concentrates more on the impact on livelihoods, which is again particularly appropriate for this research.

PRA represents an extension and application of insights, approaches and methods. Inherent in this approach is the empowerment of the poor, as it enables poor people to map, model, quantify and estimate, rank, score and diagram, and do much of their own investigation, analysis and planning. As a result, they are more in control of the investigation and thus able to present valid and reliable information. (Chambers, 1992).

PALI, designed by an African Wildlife Foundation (AWF) team, involves a range of PRA-type activities to explore livelihood issues and impacts (Ashley and Hussein, 2000). Consisting of group meetings in which participatory appraisal techniques are used to explore livelihood issues, it allows many people to be reached quickly, thus allowing large amounts of information to be gathered and consensus to be explored, and allowing local people to assess the pros and cons of a project. While this method aims to extract information for outsiders rather than to empower, it remains important to place people, their perceptions and their livelihoods at the centre of analysis.

Informants in this research were selected for their ability to provide the information required, the categories of informants having been specified by social mapping and a stakeholder map drawn up by the villagers. Informants included men and women of different ages, different employments statuses, and both participants and non-participants in pro-poor projects.

PRA methods were used to extract information from the villagers as to what they were doing prior to the establishment of the PPT project in 1998, and to find out how local people perceived their livelihood as having changed following the launch of the new PPT project in 2001. PALI was later used to examine the livelihood impact of the PPT project from when it was first launched in 1998 until 2011.

5.4 Data Analysis

This research seeks a better understanding of the livelihood outcomes before, between and after the new PPT projects. In so doing it will examine the development of policies and identify the impact of the project on the poor in terms of factors such as whether villagers feel more secure, whether they have more opportunities, and whether their livelihoods have changed with the inception of the new projects. Finally, the research seeks to come up with guidelines for the successful integration of sustainable livelihoods with PPT policy in Thailand.

In the SLA assessment, the items relating to livelihood assets were scored using Likert scale values 1-5 with the following descriptions:

1 – Very Poor; 2 – Poor; 3 – Fair; 4 – Very Good; 5 - Excellent

The average scores of all the items described the profile of the effects of the initiatives on each factor while the average scores of all the factors described the vulnerability index resulting from the initiatives. The average scores of the responses relating to the items of each factor were interpreted using the standard weighed scale value for the following corresponding hypothetical categories:

- 1.00 – 1.79 No Improvement
- 1.80 – 2.59 Slight Improvement
- 2.60 – 3.39 Moderate Improvement
- 3.40 – 4.19 Improved
- 4.20 – 5.00 Highly Improved

The vulnerability index was determined by the average from the scores of each livelihood asset. The average score was interpreted using weighted scaled values for the following hypothetical categories:

- 1.00 – 1.79 Highly Vulnerable
- 1.80 – 2.59 Slightly Vulnerable
- 2.60 – 3.39 Vulnerable
- 3.40 – 4.19 Not Vulnerable
- 4.20 – 5.00 Normal

5.5 Main Research Question:

To what extent has PPT improved the livelihood outcomes of the rural poor in Thailand?

3 Sub-Questions:

1. What are the livelihood structures and strategies of the rural poor in Thailand?
2. How has PPT contributed to livelihood diversification and an increase in the assets of the poor in terms of the following:
 - 2.1 Social assets
 - 2.2 Personal assets
 - 2.3 Physical assets
 - 2.4 Human assets
 - 2.5 Financial assets
3. To what extent has PPT reduced the vulnerability of the rural poor?

5.6 Expected Outcomes

1. An understanding of how tourism interventions have improved the livelihood outcomes of the poor in Thailand.
2. An improvement in the understanding of residents' perceptions, values and priorities relating to PPT projects in their community.
3. Assistance in the identification of strategies to enhance the livelihood impacts of tourism on the poor.

The outcome will hopefully produce guidelines for future development of PPT in Thailand.

5.7 Scope of the study

This study will focus on PPT projects launched by the Thai government from 1998-2011

Table 5-1 Fundamental questions for overall review

Questions	Objectives
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Who are the most likely stakeholders in the projects? How would these groups be affected? • What are the characteristics of PPT participants? • What are the requirements for people to participate in the projects • What are the reasons for participating in the project? What happens to the non-participants? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify main groups of people involved in and affected by the project • Classify those with common interests into stakeholder groups, for example direct participants (e.g. shop owners, co-operatives run by women, workers, men, tourists), non-participants affected by the enterprise (e.g. local residents), and those who may influence the project (e.g. government) • Identify the characteristics of people participating in the project • Identify the requirements for people to participate in the project (e.g. minimum resources, education, skills, attitudes, exposure to information from government) • Identify people's motivations

Sub-research question #1

What are the livelihood structures and strategies of the rural poor in Thailand?

Table 5-2 Integrated sustainable livelihood components with sub-question #1

Key components of sustainable livelihood framework	Questions	Whom to ask?
Livelihood activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How do villagers organise? • How do people in different roles allocate time for tourism and agricultural work? • How are they occupied at different times during the year? • Is time spent on PPT activities taken away from their other activities? • Do PPT activities conflict with or complement the seasonal timetable of other existing activities? • Is there any competition for land or resources between PPT activities and other activities? • What were the income, living standards and production levels of families before PPT intervention (assess by considering separate groups of people; women, men, etc.)? • What are the socioeconomic roles of men and women (labour within and outside the household)? • Do PPT projects improve employment in the village? • Do the best jobs in PPT go to people inside the village? • How can villagers gain access to productive resources, social services, goods, labour and markets? • How do external institutions influence livelihood opportunities? 	Villagers, headman, opinion leaders, family head, president of women's co-op
-On farm		
-Off farm		
-Migration		
-Employment		

Sub-research question #2

How has PPT contributed to livelihood diversification and an increase in the assets of the poor?

Table 5-3 Integrated sustainable livelihood components with sub-question #2

Key components of sustainable livelihood framework	Questions	Whom to ask?
Livelihood diversification	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is your understanding of livelihood diversification? How would you interpret the meaning of livelihood diversification? 	Top management, middle management, local government officials, villagers, opinion leaders, heads of families, members of women's co-op, private sector workers, NGO workers
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does the project match the livelihood diversification strategies that people use? Does it minimise risk? 	Local government officials, villagers, opinion leaders, heads of families, women's co-op president, private sector workers
Overall assets	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do villagers think their ways of life have changed to suit tourists? 	Villagers, opinion leaders, heads of families, president of women's co-op
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do you think that PPT projects could help increase assets? • How is access to resources and opportunities distributed? How equally is access to land, capital, credit, information, markets, etc. distributed? 	Local government officials, villagers, opinion leaders, family heads, women's co-op president, private sector workers, NGO workers
	Would the project broaden or narrow	

Key components of sustainable livelihood framework	Questions	Whom to ask?
Natural capital	this access, especially for the poorest people?	
Social capital	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does the project change the quality or productivity? • How significant are these improvements from PPT projects on assets compared to other sources of change? • Are natural resources used sustainably? • Is there any preservation and restoration of the environment? 	Local government officials, villagers, opinion leaders, heads of families, president of women's co-op, private sector workers, NGO workers
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does the project strengthen or weaken community co-operation and institutions? • Does it change access to social networks for households or the broader community? • Does it change the community's relations with the outside world, in terms of influence, co-operation or conflict? 	Local government officials, villagers, opinion leaders, heads of families, president of women's co-op, private sector workers, NGO workers
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In what ways are villagers involved in project implementation, monitoring, and evaluation; such as deciding project goals and methods, carrying out project activities, and acquiring project benefits? 	Local government officials, villagers, opinion leaders, heads of

Key components of sustainable livelihood framework	Questions	Whom to ask?
Human capital	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Are cash earnings invested in education and health? Do the skills acquired from the project enhance human capital? Does the PPT initiative develop complementary skills or markets for agricultural activities? What types of training or assistance do villagers need to participate more effectively? Does the project design encourage mutual learning and adjustment by the local people along with the local government? 	Local government officials, villagers, opinion leaders, heads of families, Local government officials, villagers, opinion leaders, heads of families, president of women's co-op, private sector workers
Financial capital	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Are cash earnings invested in financial assets? Are PPT activities financially sustainable? 	
Physical capital	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Does PPT affect how households invest incomes to transform them into assets? Are cash earnings invested in physical assets? Do villagers think that PPT changes the general appearance of the village (e.g. infrastructure)? Are they happy with any changes that occurred? 	

Sub-research question 3# To what extent has PPT reduced the vulnerability of the rural poor?

Table 5-4 Integrated sustainable livelihood components with sub-question 3#

Key components of sustainable livelihood framework	Questions	Whom to ask?
Risk and vulnerability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is your understanding of the vulnerability context? How would you interpret the meaning of vulnerability? • Do you think that PPT projects can reduce the vulnerability of the poor? • Do PPT projects change people's ability to cope with shocks or capitalise on positive trends? • Do the projects help people cope with temporary change or adapt to a permanent change? • Do villagers think that tourism might increase litter/noise or crime in the community? • What do you think about your current production choices, costs, and risks, compared to those not associated with the projects? 	Top management, middle management, local government officials, villagers, opinion leaders, heads of families, women's co-ops, private sector workers, NGO Local government officials, villagers, opinion leaders, heads of families, women's co-ops, private sector workers, NGO workers Villagers, opinion leaders, head of families, women's co-ops

Conclusion to main research question: **To what extent has Pro-poor Tourism improved the livelihood outcomes of the rural poor in Thailand?**

Table 5-5 Questions that lead to the answers from the main research question

Key components of sustainable livelihood framework	Questions	Whom to ask?
Livelihood outcomes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is your understanding of the PPT concept? • Do you think that this concept is applicable and useful for Thailand? • What do you think are the most significant factors in terms of poverty reduction? 	Top management, middle management, local government officials, villagers, opinion leaders, heads of families, women's co-ops, private sector workers, NGO

- What are the real needs of local workers people concerning the benefits from PPT?
- Do you think that PPT projects are useful for Thailand?
- Which policies or specific regulations need reform?

Top management

- What are the main obstacles? What type of people might oppose the projects?
- What groups of people do you think gain most from PPT projects, and why?
- Do you think that the benefits from PPT projects are distributed equitably throughout the poor village?
- Do you think that the grassroots or the poorest can receive benefits from PPT projects, and what are your reasons for your answer?
- Do you think that PPT has enhanced the livelihoods of the poor in Thailand?
- What is the priority for the Thailand Tourism Master Plan 2001-2010?
- Are there any specific policies to improve the livelihood outcomes of the poor?
- What are your visions for PPT projects in the future?
- Are there any problems in implementing PPT projects, and do you have any suggestions for a solution?
- What do you expect from the government, the private sector and local people concerning the success

Middle management, local government officials

Local government officials

Local government officials, villagers, opinion leaders, heads of families, women's co-ops

Villagers, opinion leaders, heads of families, women's co-ops

of PPT projects?

- What is your opinion of the overall livelihood or quality of life before and after introducing PPT projects?
- Do you think that the PPT concept is applicable and useful to your community?
- How does the project contribute directly to improved livelihood outcomes (e.g. cash, food, health, education, physical wellbeing, security, empowerment, sustainability)?
- Which groups of people gain most benefits from PPT, why and how?
- Do the projects benefit women or disadvantaged minorities? What project design would help ensure particularly beneficial outcomes for such people, and what designs would lead to adverse outcomes?
- What are the barriers to the participation of local people?
- Do small producers or poorer residents have reasonable access to, or information about, markets and regional economic opportunities?
- How do policy and the institutional and political environment influence the projects and livelihood outcomes?
- How does policy and the institutional environment affect livelihood sustainability?
- Do you still want PPT projects to carry on in your community? Why?
- What do you expect from the government, the private/business

sector and NGOs in terms of the success of PPT projects?

- Do you have any suggestions or requests for the government, local authorities, private/business sectors?

5.8 Limitations

It is also important to list the drawbacks to this study. One limitation is the fact that PPT projects in Thailand are in flux, with new policy initiatives constantly being issued. As a result, assessing the impact of PPT projects must be dynamic and continually updated. Moreover, it is not always easy to determine the causes of changes to the livelihood of the poor. The outcomes of other government development initiatives and increasing connectedness with the outside world can easily be confused with the outcome of PPT projects, and it can be difficult to isolate the various strands. To counter this problem, the questionnaire and survey questions were made as specific as possible in order to isolate the impact of PPT on the respondents' livelihoods.

Thesis content

CHAPTER	QUESTIONS	SOURCE OF INFORMATION	METHODOLOGY
Chapter 1 - Introduction, source and issue of poverty situation in Thailand, - Why other countries including Thailand adopt PPT project.	- Why study pro-poor tourism policy? - Why study pro-poor tourism policy in Thailand?	- Secondary data - Reports by local, and international organizations	Analysis of literature
Chapter 2 - Literature review. - Defining Major tourism concepts and Pro-poor tourism concepts	- What is Pro-poor tourism? - How does it differ from the general promotion of tourism? - What others attempt to find about Pro-poor tourism?	- Secondary data - Reports by local, and international organizations	Analysis of literature
Chapter 3 - Literature review on Pro-poor Tourism and livelihood impact. - Literature review on how PPT contribute to livelihood components and reduces vulnerability.	- What others attempt to find about pro-poor tourism and livelihood impact? - What kind of debate and issue in the literature about impact of PPT on the poor	- Secondary data - Reports by local, and international organizations	Analysis of literature

CHAPTER	QUESTIONS	SOURCE OF INFORMATION	METHODOLOGY
	by looking at sustainable livelihood framework.		
Chapter 4 - Content of pro-poor tourism policy in Thailand	- Which actions the Thai Government has undertaken in terms of policies, regulations and coordination to promote Pro-Poor Tourism?	- Secondary data - Reports by local, and international organizations	Analysis of literature
Chapter 5 - Methodology and brief information about pilot projects.	- What kind of research methods is suitable for accessing PPT projects in Thailand?	- Secondary data	Analysis of literature
Chapter 6 - General Pro-poor activities in the pilot projects. - Answer from in-depth interview and from field work(Sub-question#1)	- What are the livelihood strategies of rural people in Thailand? - What kind of activities are local people doing in Pro-poor tourism right now?	- Data from field work - Interview - PRA. - Household survey	Analysis of data
Chapter 7 - Answer from in-depth interview and from field work(Sub-question#2)	- How has pro-poor tourism contributed to livelihoods diversification and an increase in the assets of the poor?	- Data from field work - Interviews - PRA.PALI - Household survey	Analysis of data
Chapter 8 - Answer from in-depth interview and from field work	- What extent has Pro-Poor tourism reduces vulnerability of the rural poor?	- Data from field work - Interviews - PRA.PALI - Household survey	Analysis of results
Chapter 9 - Answer to main research question - Conclusion and policy recommendations	- To What extent has PPT improved the livelihood outcomes of the rural poor in Thailand? - What are key implications, recommendations for future	- Gathering all data.	Analysis of results

CHAPTER	QUESTIONS	SOURCE OF INFORMATION	METHODOLOGY
	<p>development of Pro-Poor Tourism in Thailand?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - How to use this concern within Pro-Poor Tourism policy? 		

Picture 5.1 The Author and Mrs. Duangporn who provided food and accommodation during fieldwork.



Picture 5.2 The author during small group discussion



Picture 5.3 Focus Group Discussion



CHAPTER 6

General Pro-poor Activities in the Pilot Project

This chapter describes the livelihood patterns of the poor in the pilot project. It provides the details of three patterns starting with a short discussion of the general background, characteristics of the economic structure in the northern region. The livelihood patterns in the pilot project will be discussed by presenting primary and secondary data describing the demographics, livelihood structures and strategies of the three groups who participated in the survey.

6.1 General Background of the Northern Region

The north of Thailand is a mountainous region made up of 17 provinces, having one third of the total area of the nation, covering 169,600 square kilometres. One fifth of the Northern area is utilised for agricultural purposes. At the end of 2006, the population in the North totalled 11.6 million or 17.8 per cent of the total population.

The pilot project in Had Bai Village is located in Chiang Kong district of Chiang Rai Province, 115 kilometres from the provincial capital. Chiang Khong is known as the place where giant catfish, locally known as Pla Buk, are cultivated. The Fishery Station in Chiang Khong is where the largest fresh water fish in the world is bred for release back into the rivers. From mid-January to May during fishing season, popular sightseeing trips take tourists to view the scenery along the Mekong River. Ban Had Bai or Had Bai village is the popular tourist destination along the river. The cultural attraction of this Thai Lu community is noted for making beautiful local fabrics (Tripsthailand 2007). Tourists can come to the village by boat and by road. However, tourists come to Had Bai mainly by long tail boat. They board boats at one of 4-5 piers in Chiangsaen, Golden Triangle, enjoy the scenery of Mekong River and stop at Had Bai pier. Tourists can also visit by road.

6.2 Economic Structure of the Northern Region

The average growth of the northern economy during 2000-2006 was 3.4 percent, less than that of the country as a whole which was 5.0 percent. Agriculture has long been the lifeblood of this region. In 2006, the agricultural sector accounted for 19.3 percent of the total production of the region. Vegetables and fruit crops have increased in importance to

the northern economy, with significant growth in revenues. The major industrial activities are focused on electronics, sugar processing, and cement, with large earning also made from the production of ceramics and handicrafts.

6.2.1 Characteristics of the Northern Economy

According to 2006 market prices, the Gross Regional Product (GRP) of the northern economy was valued at Bt686,218 million, equivalent to 8.8 percent of Thailand's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Particularly important to the regional economy are the agricultural and mining sectors, accounting for 20.2 and 11.4 percent of the country's agricultural and mining output respectively. In terms of agriculture, the northern region is a major source of rice and crop production, with soybeans, maize, rice, and sugarcane being the principle crops. In aggregate, the production in the northern region of these four crops accounts for at least a quarter of the total value of these crops produced nationwide. Other important agriculture products, such as longans, lychees, garlic, tobacco leaves, shallots and onions are all produced in the north. The northern region is also the source of major waterways in the central region, as well as Bangkok and its suburban areas. Moreover, it is also an important source of the country's mineral resources, including lignite, limestone, marl, zinc and crude oil.

6.2.2 Structure of the Northern Economy

The northern economy can be classified into two parts, that is, the upper north and the lower north.

The upper north covers nine provinces and accounts for approximately 60 percent of the total area of the whole northern region. More than 50 percent of the upper north is mainly forest, of which only 15 percent can be used for farming. The area is rich in terms of tourist attractions and enjoys favourable weather which makes tourist-oriented businesses such as hotels, resorts, and souvenirs the major economic activities. Key electricity generating resources are also located here. It is considered as the commercial gateway to Myanmar, Laos, and China's southern region.

Chiang Rai province is the economic centre for both the upper north and the northern region as a whole, accounting for 15.3 percent of total production in the region. The province has the fourth largest number of commercial bank branches per capita and represents one third of the total value of bank deposits and credit in the region.

The lower north, on the other hand, consists of eight provinces. Sharing a border with the central region, like the central region it is characterised geographically by plains suitable for agriculture. The area is therefore a major source of crops as well as rice production and trading. Most manufacturing here is related to agriculture, such as sugar refining, rice milling and farm tool production. The region also boasts a number of historic sites which attract tourists.

Map 6.1 Map of Chiang Rai



Had Bai is in the north part of Chiang Rai Province. As shown in Map 6.1, it is located on the Mekong River northwest of Chiang Kong district.

The area is at the lower end of income distribution and faces serious problems of poverty and high levels of debt.

Despite the fact that it benefited from support both from the village-based tourism initiative and the Village Fund, chronic poverty and the high level of outstanding household debt remain pressing problems. The introduction of the OTOP scheme thus posed the question of whether a tourism-based project could alleviate some of these concerns. Both members of the local community and researchers were interested to see how the latest government initiatives benefits people in the area. With involvement and participation of the new group of stakeholders, who have the initiative to enhance the participation of the poor themselves, this study is interested in assessing the programme's success in solving the problems.

To investigate how the project has helped the village, the research relies on both a quantitative and a qualitative approach to data collection, as described in Chapter 5. Three rounds of interviews were conducted with different groups of stakeholders, and questionnaires were sent out at the time of the second interview to 80 per cent of the villagers for the overall assessment. Focus groups were also conducted along with transect walks to collect information on livelihood activities. Secondary data on the fundamental infrastructure and livelihood structure of the village were obtained from the District Development Office. The first part of the review sheds light on the basic background information of the inhabitants in terms of their demographic make-up and livelihood structure.

6.3 Demographic Data of Had Bai Village 1999 – 2011

The demographic background of the community was taken both from secondary sources and from key informants during the first round of interviews.

During the past 15 years Had Bai has grown considerably in size, with the number of households increasing from 273 in 1998 to 309 in 2001, and jumping to 412 by 2011, as shown in Table 6-1. While the total population followed a broadly similar trend, it was

notable that the rate of increase in the total population was relatively lower over time, reflected in the diminishing number of average members in each household.

Table 6-1 Number of Households and Total Population

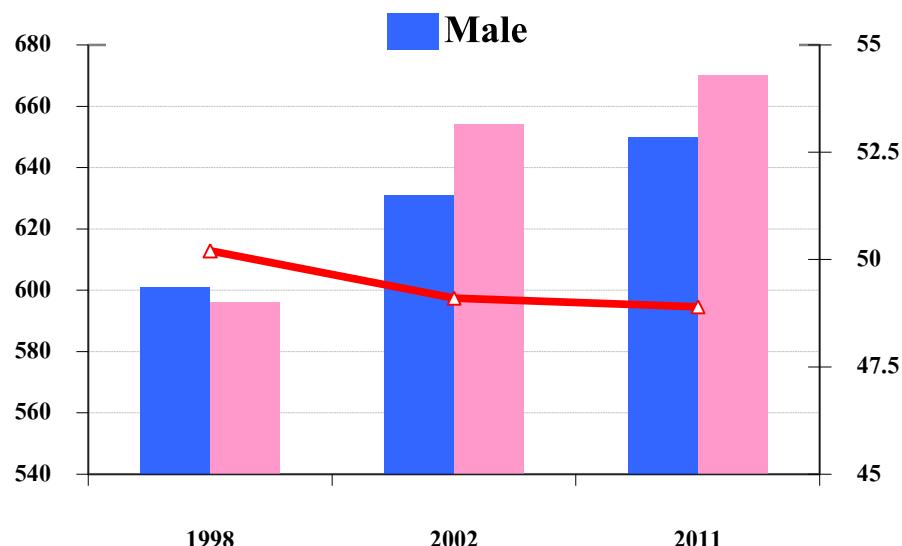
	1998	2001	2011
No. of households	273	309	412
Persons/household	4.4	4.2	3.2
Total population	1,197	1,285	1,327

Source: Community Development Department, Ministry of Interior

In terms of inward migration, the growing involvement of the village in tourist activities and other development has seen an influx of new workers into the village to work in these new industries. Most of these inward migrants were lone migrants, or were accompanied by only a small number of family members. The two migration trends – outward and inward – would seem to be one of the major explanations of the declining average household size. Economic development had driven the desire for more consumption and thus more income.

In terms of the **male to female ratio in the village**, Figure 6-1 suggests that in the 1990s there was a slight preponderance of men in the village, but that over time this situation has reversed, and that by 2011 there were more women than men.

Figure 6-1 Gender Distribution

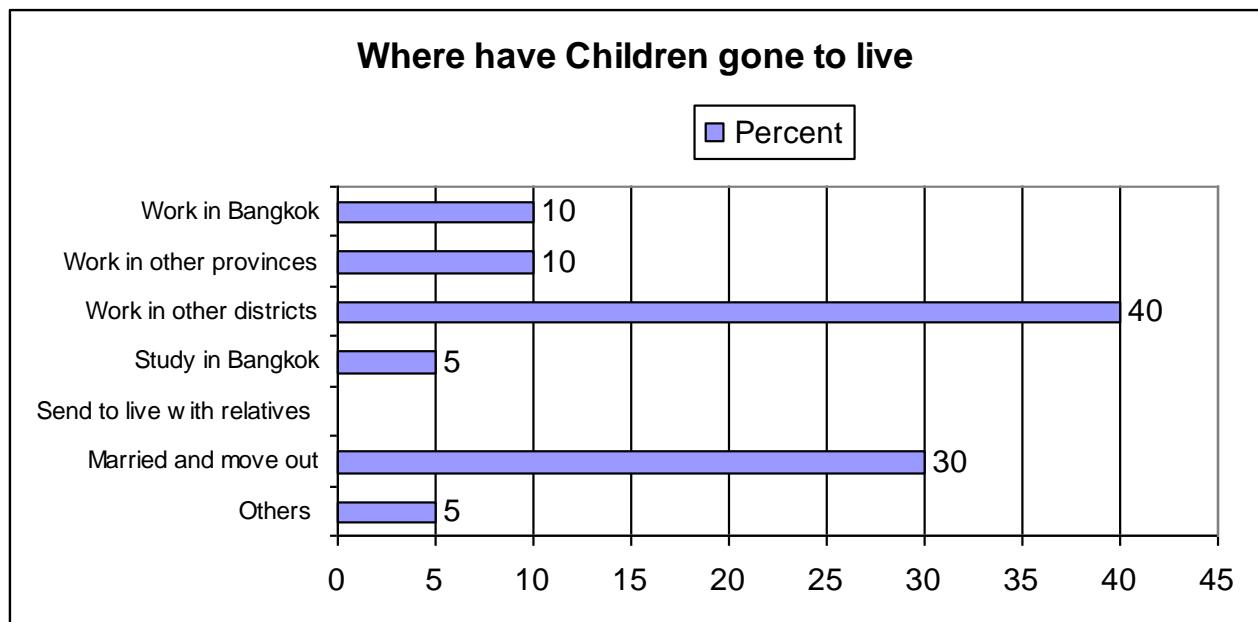


Source: Community Development Department, Ministry of Interior

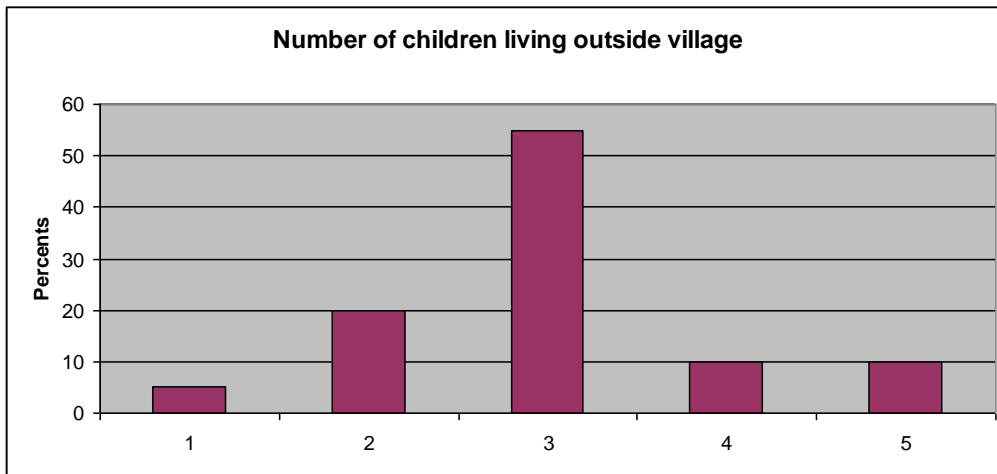
Nonetheless, the rate of increase in the number of women has started to decline. This change in demographic trend appears to have been gradual and structural rather than abrupt and temporary. One explanation for the growth in the number of women might be that with the introduction of the tourism livelihood development schemes, women were required to remain in the village due to their skills as weavers and to provide hospitality.

Information obtained from the focus group and questionnaire indicated that a large number of young women had left the village for education as the family income rose in line with development, while others left for jobs outside the village. The focus group agreed that the consumption pattern changed over time as well. With expenditure rising faster to accommodate higher consumption, both men and women of working age had to seek higher-paid jobs outside the village.

Figure6-2Where Had Bai children have gone to live



Source: Field work 2003

Figure6-3Number of children living outside village per family

Source: Field work 2003

This migratory trend was confirmed by the higher average number of household members seeking jobs outside the village in 2011. According to questionnaire results, more than 50 percent of households have at least three of their children living outside the village. The majority of these migrants were employed in Bangkok and other provinces, and regularly sent money back home to their families.

Table6-2 Average number of persons per household seeking jobs outside the village

1998	2001	2011
0.19	0.22	0.25

Source: Field work 2002-2003,2010-2011

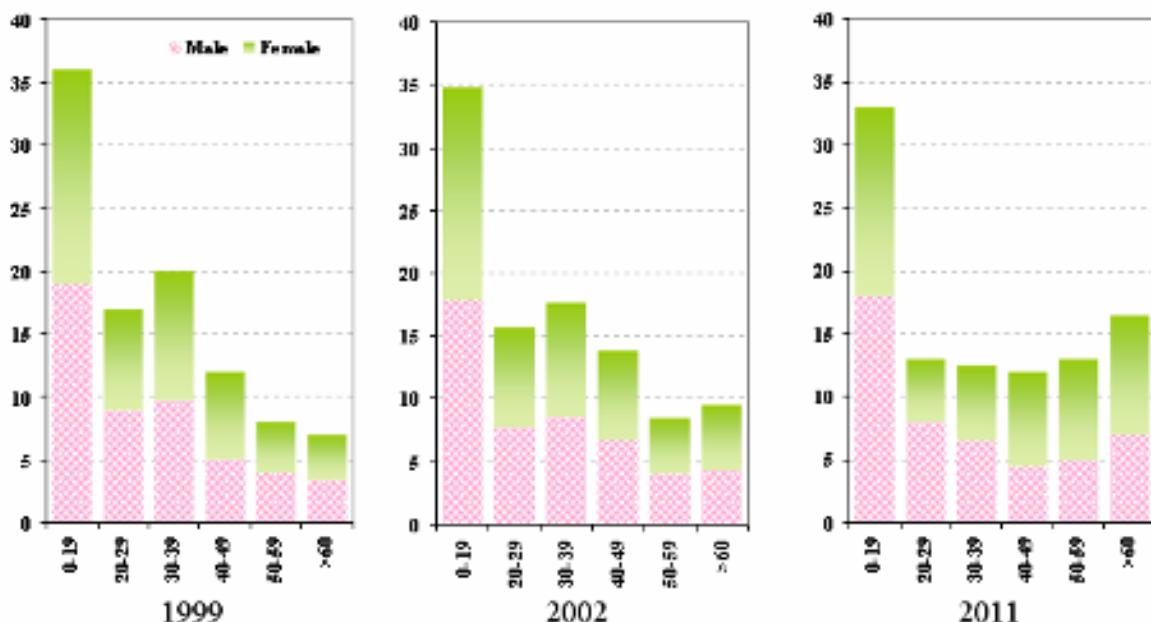
The additional information on age distribution (gleaned mainly from interviewing the village leader) provides us with better insight of who might have migrated from and to the village.

We have seen that the proportion of young people as well as the working age population has declined over the period of consideration, leaving the village with a higher proportion of elderly women. Most of these women were likely to be employed in the weaving industry. Both the interviews and information provided during the focus group showed that the economic growth of the village has produced higher income for many households. This in turn has enabled them to provide better schooling for the children,

with young women especially being sent to Bangkok or other cities for further education. Thus far, this outward migration appears to be permanent. This decrease in the working age population has added to the vulnerability of these households, as it has left them with less help during difficult times, for instance when bad weather requires immediate action in the fields. At the same time, the relative scarcity of field labour has led to higher labour costs, thus pushing up expenditure and household debt.

Figure 6-4 Age Distribution

% of total population

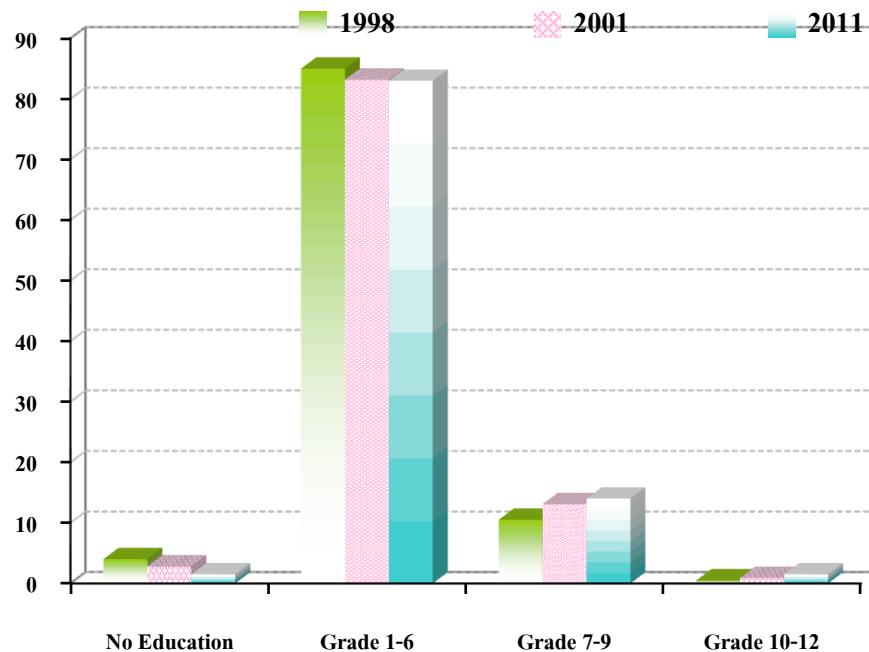


Source: Community development Department, Chiang Kong District

Data from **age distribution** in Figure 6-4 shows that the proportion of younger people and the working age population declined over time, resulting in higher proportion of elderly population.

Demographic data from the education of the respondents showed that the majority of the population had only primary education. As shown in Figure 6-5, the numbers of those who have no education have reduced over time. In recent years, the numbers of those with secondary and higher education has significantly increased.

Figure6-5 Education



Source: Community development Department, Chiang Kong District

In terms of **education**, this finding is consistent with the information from the interviews and the focus group, which shows that as the villagers' income grew, they were in a better position to hire workers from outside the family or use machinery in place of manual labour, thus freeing up household members to pursue educational opportunities.

Other interesting findings of this research will be presented systematically in support of the answers to each of the sub-questions concerning the impact of the project on the livelihood of the villagers.

The **fundamental questions** for the overall review prior to the key PPT-related questions are targeted in accordance with who the stakeholders are, the characteristics of the PPT project participants, the requirement to participate in the projects and the reasons for participation or non-participation.

6.4 Distribution of Stakeholders in the PPT programme

The interviews show that the **major stakeholders** in the project are the women's weaving group and elderly women. These women earn income from the project in addition to their regular income from selling agricultural products. Weaving conducted as part of the OTOP project is a generations-old practice, representing a style of weaving unique to Had Bai which had always been a source of income during the low agricultural period. Indeed, elderly women, regarded as being the best weavers able to execute the most detailed patterns, often used weaving as their sole source of income.

Moreover, the fact that they dress in traditional costume is a draw for tourists, and village women could earn extra income by weaving for tourists in the museum.

Picture 6.1 Elderly Woman and Weaving



Other stakeholders in the project include local and central government officials, Non-Government Organisations (NGOs), shop and restaurant owners, bus drivers, villagers with boats for tourists, other workers in the tourism industry and the tourists themselves. Project influencers are investors and the local government, who are able to provide relevant information and financial support, while non-participants are local residents who are not involved in the project, for example, those who continue to derive all their income from agriculture and who live further away on the hill. The work of this group of villagers is concentrated on their agricultural activities, and they have no time to participate in the project. This leaves them more vulnerable to events such as the vagaries of the weather and other natural disasters. Their income stream is likely to be more volatile than that of those undertaking additional activities, and it is difficult to rescue this group from chronic poverty.

Moreover, not all of these villagers are farming their own land, and the ones who are renting land are left particularly vulnerable. Not only are they at greater risk of getting in a position which could increase their vulnerability, but the stresses they encounter are likely to be of high magnitude than those encountered by other villagers.

The assumptions before starting the research are that the participants of the Pro-poor Tourism related project were those without much land for cultivation (the chronic poor); do not have high education (less than grade 6 and cannot find sufficiently-paid jobs outside the village); savings group; those with weaving skills and unskilled housewives who may be taught weaving by their skilled counterparts.

Most village households already possess a loom for personal use, although it is notable that the launch of the tourism product development project, with concomitant facilitation of market access, led to a tendency for villagers to purchase cheaper clothing from the market and reserve their hand-woven cloth for sale, which also had the effect of diluting their cultural heritage.

Men seemed likely to become active participants in tourism-related activities if they owned long-tailed boats, minibuses which they could drive for villagers and tourists, or possessed the skills to build looms and other furniture. These men tended to have a higher income than those in agriculture, but wished to earn additional income for greater financial security.

The information collected, however, showed that participants were for the most part those who owned sufficient land, and who were able to rent out part of their land to landless farmers, while devoting more of their own time to weaving and other tourism-related activities. The fact that they possessed land, in other words, meant that they were able to choose between farming and tourism related activities. Income from agriculture is by definition cyclical, due both to market fluctuations and weather, and many villagers with the option of diversifying hoped that involvement in the weaving project could in time iron out income fluctuations.

The requirements for participating in the programme are minimal, especially for those with spare time once their agricultural activities had been seen to. The women have to join the savings group and deposit money for the purchase of weaving materials, at the rate of Bt25 per month (GBP0.5 per month at 2010 exchange rates). Men who want to participate need a long-tailed boat or minibus to transport tourists.

Non-participants, on the other hand, can be divided into two groups: those who own land, and the landless. The majority of non-participants in the latter group live on the hill or in a remote area further away from the centre of the village. Those in this group rent land, and engage only in agriculture as a means of paying their rent. Their greater distance from the village, together with their need to focus on agricultural activities, leaves them no time to participate in the project.

Some non-participants cannot be described as very poor, having sufficient land and either farm for themselves or hire workers. These villagers appear to think they have sufficient income without engaging in additional labour. Nonetheless, agriculture is their sole source of income and that leaves them vulnerable. As they are paid only once or twice a year, they must manage their finances carefully. Nonetheless, natural disasters may wipe out their crops and force them to borrow money.

At the same time, natural disasters may wipe out their crops and force them to borrow money from elsewhere.

The main motivations expressed for participating in the project are (1) the constant stream of income rather than one that fluctuates and depends upon the vagaries of nature, (2) additional income from weaving and tourism, (3) good relationship with investors in the project, i.e. relatives, friends of the investor, (4) the Bt20,000 loan with seven percent interest available from the Village fund for participants to invest in their weaving, and (5) information provided by the government.

6.5 Livelihood Structures and Strategies in Had Bai Village

The first sub-research question examines the livelihood structure and strategies of the rural poor. Traditionally, Had Bai villagers have based their living on agricultural activities and weaving.

6.5.1 Agriculture

Had Bai's major farm products are maize and rice, with tobacco grown outside the main agricultural season. Maize is an industrial crop planted twice a year. The first round of planting takes place during April-June, with the second round lasting from around November until January of the following year. From planting to harvest takes approximately 2.5-3 months. Around 150 to 200 households in the village are involved in maize cultivation, but it is noticeable that both the yield per *rai* (1 *rai* = 1,600 square metres) and the price is relatively low compared to other products.

Approximately 650 *rai* of land in Had Bai is given over to rice paddy, with a yield of approximately 400 kg per *rai*, to be sold at approximately Bt5 per kilo.

Figure 6-6 Annual schedule for Had Bai villagers



Source: Fieldwork 2003

Another main agricultural activity in Had Bai is tobacco. As tobacco cultivation requires a relatively large amount of water, it tends to take place toward the end of the rainy season. Planting normally commences in October and November, with the harvest taking place in January.

6.5.2 Employment

During the low agricultural period, the villagers of Had Bai normally seek other sources of income. These can be (1) applying for a job outside the village during the low period, or (2) relying on weaving. Those seeking employment outside the village normally do so during two periods: before the harvest (September to October) and after the harvest (January to March).

Table 6-3 Average daily wage comparison from outside employment 1998-2011

	1998 Pre-PPT-Village Base Tourism		2001 (OTOP)		2011 Post PPT	
	Wage/Day	In Village (Baht)	In Town (Baht)	In Village (Baht)	In Town (Baht)	In Town (Baht)
Male	100	100	118	118	147	147
Female	80	100	100	118	120	147
Bangkok	167		174		300	

Source: Fieldwork 2003,2010-1011

Note: Workers in the village eat with employers but those working in town bring their own food

As shown in Table 6-3, daily wage from employment in and outside the village has been increasing. Before 1999 male and female workers, on average, earned Bt100 and Bt80 per day respectively. However, after 1998 the average daily wage has increased for both groups to 118 for both male workers, and 100 for female workers. This trend has continued, with the average village wage now standing at Bt120 and Bt147 for women and men respectively. While it is difficult to separate the impact of the pro-poor projects from the usual development path of the economy, it is instructive to compare the growth rate of the daily wage in the village to that in Bangkok. It is notable that the rate of growth in the village is much higher than that in the capital, especially after 2001. This indicates a change in income in the area, which could be partly explained by the implementation of the pro-poor projects.

It is also worth pointing out that these are only average wages, and that men, for instance, could earn Bt150-200 per day as opposed to Bt100 if they undertook potentially hazardous work such as insecticide spraying.

6.5.3 *Weaving*

Since the price of agricultural products fluctuates and has in recent years been on a downward spiral, most households rely on the weaving activities undertaken in spare time for additional income. There is a bamboo forest around the village, so villagers never have to buy weaving machines. They cut the bamboo and local trees in the area and assemble parts of the wood-sticks into weaving machine. As a result, every household has at least one weaving machine.

The Tai Lue-style Female Weaver Group of Hat Bai Village is a weaver group of Tai Lue ethic minority group who migrated from Xishuangbanna in the southern Chinese province of Yunnan to northern Thailand 200 years ago. In spite of being mixed with other cultures and traditions of other neighbouring ethnic groups as a result of migration, their cultures have been transferred from generation to generation, especially their unique ethnic costume and various weaving techniques, e.g. Chok (using of discontinuous supplementary weft), Kit (using of continuous supplementary weft), Yok Dok or brocade and Koh (using of continuous supplementary multi-coloured weft) by local female weavers who formed groups with aims both to preserve their tradition and to increase their household income.

Had Bai's weaving is unique. They weave "up-side down". They only see the back of the pattern while weaving. They have to remember the pattern by heart. They weave and tide the cotton yarn alternatingly to arrange colours. The beautiful front will be revealed when finished. Even though silk products in Thailand are more popular than cotton products but silk products are very difficult to keep in best condition. Cotton products, especially at Had Bai are easy to preserve. They can be easily washed in a washing machine. The fabric will become softer the more it has been washed.

In 1984, Sukhawadi Tiyatha who was selected to be the chairman of Committee on Women's weaving group Development initiated to her member production of Pha Sin, tablecloth, place mat, glass mat, traditional blouse from cotton textiles. Their products were initially produced in traditional way which were made in black and red colours with animal and flower motif popular among their village's visitors. In 1988, Sukhawadi's products which were showed and sold in Cotton Festival at the Chiangmai Orchid Hotel, Chiangmai, attracted considerable attention from the visitors and a lot of products were sold.

In 1993, as a part of the OTOP empowerment programme held by Community Development Office of Chiang Khong District, 12 members of the group were sent to attend a training course on grouping, management and financial management for manufacturing. The Tai Lue-style Female Weaver Group has formally been set up together with establishment of their money saving group for manufacturing. This group which has been organised in the form of a committee has its objectives as follows: -

1. To create a supplementary job
2. To preserve the local wisdom
3. To increase income of its members

The Group's products initially were various kinds of wraparounds namely Lai Nam Lai, Lai I Bi, Lai Dok Tho, Lai Bat, Lai Kho Krachae, Lai Dok Nak, Lai Dok Ngao, Lai Dok Nuai, Lai Kho Noi, plain textile, and other kinds of textile products, e.g. Sabai or Thai breast cloths, shawls, scarves, Pha Khao Ma cloths, plate mats, bags, shirts for men and women, pants, etc. Procurement of factors of production, i.e. cotton and synthetic yarns, are normally carried out by the Group committee which will later sell to the members. The chairperson is responsible for ordering the goods from shops in Chiangrai and Chiangmai and the shops later send the goods to the Group accordingly. For some kinds of raw materials, e.g. chemical dyes, it is ordered by the chairperson from shops in Chiang Rai, whereas the natural dyes will be procured by the local people. After that cotton and synthetic yarns will be stored at the Group's office and sold to the members who either pay cash or buy on credit.

Details of Factors of Production are as follows: -

1 Raw Materials: Main Raw Materials includes:

Cotton: The Group uses natural cotton No.10/1 for both warp yarns and weft yarns. It costs 500Baht per one 4.5 kg pack, which is then divided into 60 skeins(50 baht=1 GB pound). The group normally orders the cotton from three suppliers--Cham Mai Thai Shop in Chiang Khong District, Sahasin Shop in Mueang Chiangrai District and Chin Heng Huat Shop in Chiang Mai District-- which is then sent to members. Each purchase is 50 packs purchase every two months. Sometime the purchase frequency and the quantity may vary depending on the clients' orders.

Synthetic Yarn: Synthetic fibre is usually used as warp yarn since it is more durable than the natural cotton thread. It costs 950Baht per pack weighing 4.5 kg which will be divided into 105 skeins. The group orders cotton from the same suppliers, the quantity and frequency of each purchase being the same as for cotton yarn.

2. Minor Raw Materials includes: -

Chemical dyes: Chemical dyes are available in local shops at 2,500Baht per kilogramme.

Natural dyes: Raw materials including bark, leaves and local fruit used for dye-making are procured by the Group who employs the local people to collect the materials with the price of 150Baht per one sack. One pack of raw materials is used for dyeing 3 packs of cotton.

Salt: Salt is a raw material used for both natural and chemical dying.

Soda ash: The soda ash is a raw material used for chemical dying. Its price is 400Baht per 30-kilogram sack.

In 2003, all of production employment involved members, including 50 weavers from a pool of 175 members overall. Ten of them worked at the group's production centre or office, and the remaining members work at home. Each member producing and selling the products to the group is paid based on quantity, while the wages of those buying raw materials on credit from the group are deducted. If a member sells goods directly to a client, their wages depend on the agreement between the member and her client. For some kinds of textiles which are later used for decoration, as flags, handbags, bags, men's and women's shirts and blouses, etc., the group buys them from members at the price set by the group.

Table 6-4 Wages for weaving and tailoring

Products	Types	Details (Motif)	Unit	Size (Width x Length)	Rate of Wages (Baht per piece)
1. Textile	Pha Sin (Wrap-around cloths)	Lai Nam Lai	Piece	32 inch x 2 m.	400
		Lai I Bi	Piece	32 inch x 2 m.	800
		Kho Khruea	Piece	32 inch x 2 m.	1,500/1,800
		Kho Krachae	Piece	32 inch x 2 m.	500
		Kho Noi	Piece	32 inch x 2 m.	300
		Dok Tho	Piece	32 inch x 2 m.	300
		Sai Bat	Piece	32 inch x 2 m.	1,500/1,800
		Dok Nak	Piece	32 inch x 2 m.	800
		Dok Ngao	Piece	32 inch x 2 m.	1,000
		Dok Nuai	Piece	32 inch x 2 m.	800
	Lai Saeng	Piece	Piece	32 inch x 2 m.	300
	Plate mat		Piece	22 inch x 20 inch	20
	Dining Table Cover Sheet		Piece	32 inch x 1.5 m.	250
	Shawl		Piece	11 inch x 1.5 m.	80
	Scarves		Piece	11 inch x 1.5 m.	70

	Plain textile	-	Piece	32 inch x 1 m.	60
	Pha Khao Ma	-	Piece	32 inch x 2 m.	100
	Tung (Decorative Flag)	-	Piece	11 inch x 2 m.	200
	Sabai (breast sash)		Piece	11 inch x 1.5 m.	100
	2. Processed Product	Bag	Piece	-	100
	Traditional Shirt		Piece	-	350
	Pants		Piece	-	280

The group's production process is in the same way as other enterprises, starting from procuring raw materials and distributing them to members. The group is also responsible for dying of cotton yarn and employing local people to collectbarks with the price of 150Baht per sack (one sack of wood barks is used for cotton dying once). In each time of dying, the Group hires 3 members with the wages of 100Baht per person per day. After receiving the thread, the member will prepare the cotton thread by putting the threat into the shuttle for both the weft and the warp yarns. Then another group of people will be hired to prepare the motif and then the process of weaving is started. With respect to processedproducts, the fabrics made by the members will be transformed into the products as required which will be sold to the Group and to the clients.

The price of the Group's products can be divided into three levels, including buying price from the members, wholesale price and retail price. The buying price from the members is set by the cost of raw materials and labour. The wholesale price is based on the buying price from the members plus the cost of expenses of the Group and slight profit. The retail price is based on the wholesale price plus profit anticipated by the Group. The samples of pricing are as follows: -

Wrap-around with Dok Tho and I-Bi Motif – In one piece of the product, the cost of production and the transport cost to market is 794.33Baht per piece. The buying price for the members is set at 750Baht each. The wholesale price is set at 800Baht and 1,000Baht at retail. The profit at wholesale and retail gained by the group based on the cost of production is 5.67Baht per item and 205.67Baht per item, respectively. Mark up on cost (Mark-On) for the price buying from the members and the wholesale price are -5.58 percent and 0.71 percent, respectively, which means if the cost is 100Baht, the group will set the buying price from the members 5.58Baht lower than cost and will gain the profit from wholesaling 0.71Baht per piece. The mark up on selling price or Mark-Up for retail price is set at 20.57 percent. This means if the price is set at 100Baht, the Group will gain 20.57Baht per piece as profit.

Wrap-around with Dok Nuai Motif – The cost of production and the market cost of one piece of wraparound is 1,544.33Baht each. The buying price for members is set at 1,500Baht each. The wholesale price is set at 1,800Baht each and 2,500Baht per piece for

the retail price. The profit for the wholesale and the retail gained by the Group based on the cost of production and the marketing cost is 255.67Baht per piece and 955.67Baht per piece, respectively. Mark-On for the buying price for the members and the wholesale price are -2.87% and 16.56%, respectively. This means if the cost is 100Baht, the Group will set the buying price for the members 2.87Baht per piece lower than the actual cost and will gain profit from the wholesale 16.56Baht per piece. The Mark-Up for the retail price is set at 38.23%. This means if the price is 100Baht, the Group will gain 38.23Baht as the profit from retailing.

The price of the Thai Lue weaving was relatively satisfactory to the villagers. Most popular weavings cloths come in two standard sizes. A smaller piece of 32 inch x 1 m. which normally takes one week to complete, could be sold in the village for around Bt500, while the larger size of around 32 inch x 2 m., which takes almost a month to finish, can sell for around Bt2,000. Income from weaving is thus significant, especially when compared to average monthly income from agriculture of Bt2,000-3,000 baht (or slightly more for land owners) Moreover, this figures does not include extra income from tourism for those who also exhibit their weaving in the weaving museum.

During 1997 – 2001, the Group was supported by Community Development Office of Chiang Khong District who provided them with construction of a production center building. In 1998, Agriculture Office of Chiang Khong District provided them with budget for purchasing looms and cotton. In 2001, Rim Khong Subdistrict Administration Organization provided them with 100,000 Baht budget for purchasing 100-inch loom, related equipment and cotton. From 2002 to present The Tai Lue-style Female Weaver Group becomes well-known throughout the region as a result of support from both the public and the private sectors. The Group is usually invited to participate in trade fairs, where a number of purchase orders have been made.

The managerial success of the group became a major factor of their achievement in product development and domestic market expansion. Their recognizable products' quality due to the use of developed techniques also contributed to the winning of many awards, e.g. Northern Thai-Style Textile Contest Award presented by HM the Queen on the occasion of HM the Queen's Birthday Anniversary in 1993, 4-Star OTOP (One Tambon

One Product) Award (Northern Region) in 2003, etc. The group's operation did not only become a new source of income of its members and strengthen the community, but their achievement in preserving their heritage also resulted in elevating their community-level enterprise.

6.5.4 *Local Resources of Had Bai*

Traditional “Thai Lue” Costume: Had Bai ladies wear ankle-length skirts, embroidered cotton blouses, hair buns with silver hairpins, silver earrings and bracelets while men put on cotton shirts and pairs of knee-length trousers of Chinese style.

Local Language: “Thai Lue” and “Thai Khuen” for both spoken and written.

Music: Lue-style singing, flute playing and “Cheung Dancing”, Sword dance.

Food: Rice cooked in a section of thick bamboo, vegetable with shrimp paste and chili sauce, Khong River seaweed spicy soup, roasted seaweed, fried seaweed, boiled bamboo shoot with shrimp paste and chili sauce.

Festival:

- Traditional New Year (Songkran Day of 12,13 and 14 April); Paying respect to the elder by pouring pure water into their hands; holding a village celebration; performing folk play for children; carrying sand from the beach into a temple
- The Buddhist Lent and the end of the Buddhist Lent
- An annual festival of Thailand performed on the full-moon night in November, when people float krathongs in the rivers and canal
- Weaving the costume of the monk, usually finished within 24 hours
- The sermon on the Buddha's previous life in March
- Traditional Thai Lue wedding ceremony
- The boat competition in Khong River
- Going into monkhood for the novice in Buddhism, usually at the age below 20.

Belief:

- Getting rid of bad luck
- Strengthening one's morale when being sick or encountering accidents by the expert of this field
- The belief of the house ghost, the god and goddess of the mountain, the god of the temple

Livelihood:

- Thai Lue people earn their living by doing paddy farming, farming grain crops, vegetables and fruits. The housewives weave clothes in unique design of Thai Lue by hand. The men of Thai Lue go fishing in Khong River and ponds, go hunting up on the mountain and make basketry and wicker ware of household use.

Natural Resources and Tourist spots

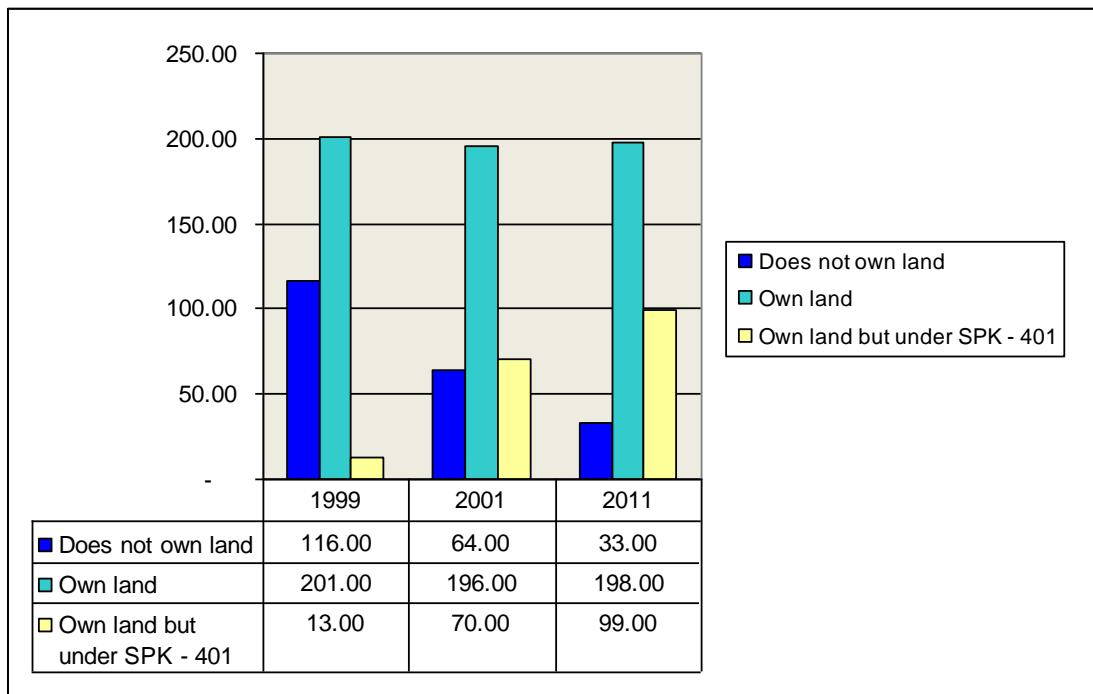
- Mekong River
- Fish in Mekong River
- Round and beautiful rock of Mekong River
- Gold in Mekong River, particularly on the bank of Laos
- Geographical features of 3 beautiful mountains – Chom Moak Mountain, Huay Hok Mountain and Huay Hok Waterfall Mountain -- as the village's backdrop, which “Sri Chom Moak Relic of the Buddha” that people respect is situated on the top of Chom Moak Mountain. In wintertourists enjoy very beautiful sea of fog in the area.
- The scenery of the beautiful Mekong River (especially when going up to view the scenery of the Chom Moak Mountain)
- Plants of wild type, wild animals on the mountain e.g. banana forest, bamboo forest, barking deer, wild boars, wild fowls, various types of birds with beautiful color, squirrels etc.
- Rice farm and the Combination of Crops Farm under the Royal Project, orange farm on the mountain, white green garden, tobacco, corns and Indian nuts
- The Royal Buddha Image (The main Buddha statue in Had Bye Temple)
- The shrine of Kai Jae God (god of bantum) under the big tree beside Had Bye Temple

Villagers' Knowledge and Habits

- Men are best in making tools for trapping animals such as a bamboo fishing-trap and other types of animals trap.
- Thai Lue people are thoughtful, always kind to visitors.
- Knowledge of weaving in various designs, by local wisdom transfer from generation to generation
- Knowledge of making a boat by digging a wood
- The ability to make basketry and wicker ware from bamboo
- The belief of magic spell in healing wound, illness and getting rid of bad luck
- The culture of getting the help of one's neighbors on a given day, apparently seen from the activities concerning agriculture

6.5.5 Land Holding pattern in Had Bai

Table 6-5 Land Holding pattern in Had Bai



Source: Fieldwork 2003, 2010-2011

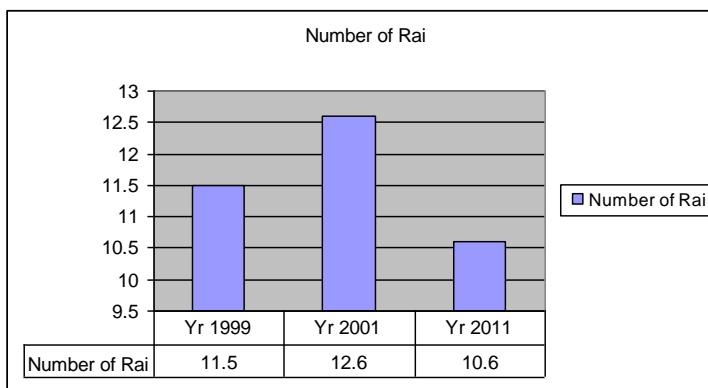
From the Table 6-5 above number of households that do not own land decreased over time while the number of households that own land also decrease. Information from the interview shows that some of them sell their land to gain more money for PPT projector

pay off debt. The number of households that own land but under SPK-401⁵ increased which means those who sell their land move to land under SPK-401 as one way of livelihood diversification when they no longer have land of themselves.

Landless people normally rent lands from others at 1,000 baht/rai⁶ /year to plant a crop of their choice. The owner of land will be responsible for paying tax. Estimated money that the landless earned would be around 3,000 baht/rai/year.

Figure 6-7demonstrates the number of rai(land measure in Thai) during three periods. The graph shows that the average number of rai/household increases during 2001 or OTOP period and decreases to less than 1999 after 10 years. Information from interviews also suggests that residents benefit from and earn enough to have more land after the second PPT was launched. But, they cannot sustain their land due to many factors, i.e selling land to pay for educating children or due to debt or for investment. One villager said that 2011 representsOTOP in decline. Changing the government resulted in unstable support which depends on the policy maker holding office at the time.

Figure 6-7Number of Rai in Had Bai during 3 periods



Source: Fieldwork 2003, 2010-2011

⁵ “Sor Por Kor 4-01” is a special class of land title that was issued throughout most of the 1990’s to claimants with proven occupation over forestry land. They can work and live on the land but could not sell it.

⁶1 rai equals 1600 m²

Table 6-6 Livelihood Activities (estimated) in Had Bai

Livelihood Activities	1998		2001		2011	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Agriculture	220	193	201	187	188	145
Handicraft	15	45	18	68	19	82
Handicraft & Agriculture	38	78	25	86	28	73
Labour	11	39	29	22	24	14
Labour & Agriculture	89	48	70	31	68	22
Government Officials	7	2	13	4	15	6
Services (Hotel, Tailor and Boat)	20	4	29	20	45	59
Local shop owners	3	3	6	3	10	7
Others and Unemployed	54	42	40	28	34	20

Source: Fieldwork 2002-2003, 2010-2011

Table 6-7 Measuring factors of a good quality of life shows, the participation of households in tourism-related activities has increased over time, with more than half of households now engaging in activities related to tourism. These emerging activities include handicrafts, the hotel sector and general labour geared towards the tourism service industries. This livelihood changing trend may be considered partly due to the impact of tourism project.

Table 6-7 Measuring factors of a good quality of life

What are the meaning of a good quality of life for HadBai people?	Mean	Std. Deviation
Owns their own land	4.63	0.50
Owns more than 5 rai of land	4.61	0.61
People who do not have to do field work	3.41	0.80
People who have a lot of money	4.00	0.73
Having food to eat every meal	4.55	0.51
Have their own business	4.37	0.50
Being a government official or doctor	4.00	0.59
Is a merchant	4.00	0.56
Their children receive high education	4.44	0.62

What are the meaning of a good quality of life for HadBai people?	Mean	Std. Deviation
Their children get to continue their education Bangkok	3.94	0.85
Having good health	4.28	0.67
Have a color television	4.39	0.85
Have a refrigerator	4.16	0.96
Have a cell phone	3.61	1.33
Have a house phone	3.84	1.01
Have a stereo	3.61	1.33
Have a fan	4.00	1.20
Have a gas oven	4.32	0.75
Have a weaving machine	3.32	1.11
Have an electrical iron	4.05	1.03
Have a computer to use	3.50	1.28
Have a concrete house	4.10	1.07
Have a car to use	4.16	0.90
Have a motorcycle to use	4.26	0.87
Have a bicycle to use	4.11	1.10

Source: Fieldwork 2003

Villagers view a good standard of living as one in which (1) they own land, preferably more than five *rai*, (2) they have sufficient money, (3) they can get sufficient food for every meal, (4) they own a business, (5) they work as a government official or doctor, (6) they are able to send their children to school, (7) they are healthy, and/or (8) they possess a colour television, a concrete house, or a car or motorcycle.

Table 6-8below reveals the working schedule of the average household in Had Bai. The villagers mainly work in agriculture. In their spare time, men may work as tour guides. Weaving was always a favoured spare time activity for women, but PPT activities seem to have encouraged women to lay aside more time for this task.

Nonetheless, the results from the interviews suggest that participants were not engaging in PPT related activities to the detriment of other activities, and that the PPT activities do not conflict with the timetable of other existing activities, even during the main agricultural season. At the same time, however, the drawbacks of PPT activities should not be ignored. For instance, villagers competing for access to looms donated by the local government.

Table 6-8 Working Schedule of Men and Women in Had Bai Village

Time	Men's work	Women's work
4 A.M.		Wake up, take a shower
5 A.M.		Cook breakfast, prepare a lunch box
6 A.M.		Take care of children, general house work
7 A.M.	Wake up, take a shower, have breakfast	Have breakfast
8 A.M.	Work in the field or planting etc.	Work in the field , planting or weaving
9 A.M.		
10 A.M.		
11 A.M.		
12 Noon	Lunch	Lunch
1 P.M.	Work the afternoon shift	Start working in the afternoon
2 P.M.		
3 P.M.		
4 P.M.		
5 P.M.	Stop working, going back home	
6 P.M.	Drinking beer or alcohol with friend	Going back home to prepare dinner
7 P.M.	Have dinner	Have dinner
8 P.M.	Watching TV, take a shower	Weaving (those working in rice/cornfields weave in evenings for more money, those normally weaving all day work until 9pm, except older persons who cannot see well in the dark)
9 P.M.		Weaving
10 P.M.	Sleep	Take a shower
11 P.M.		Doing general house work
12 Midnight		Sleep

Source: Fieldwork 2003

Data from the daily work routine clearly shows that women do 2 more hours for livelihood work and 2 more hours of household chores than men.

Table 6-9 How PPT affects livelihood activities

Do you agree with the following statements?	Mean	Std. Deviation
OTOP activities do not disturb your livelihood activities and the time of the villagers life	3.61	0.50
VBT activities do not disturb your normal activities and the time of the villagers life	3.89	0.32
OTOP project has increased the employment rate in the village	3.71	0.47
VBT has increased the employment rate in the village	2.72	0.83
The best job with the best money in the OTOP project belongs to a person in the village	2.89	0.96
The best job with the best money in the VBT project belongs to a person in the village	2.89	0.76

Source: Fieldwork 2003

Table 6-9 above shows that PPT /OTOP disturbs livelihood activities and the time of villagers lives more than the VBT project, while OTOP has increased the employment rate in the village more than VBT.

6.5.6 Infrastructure support

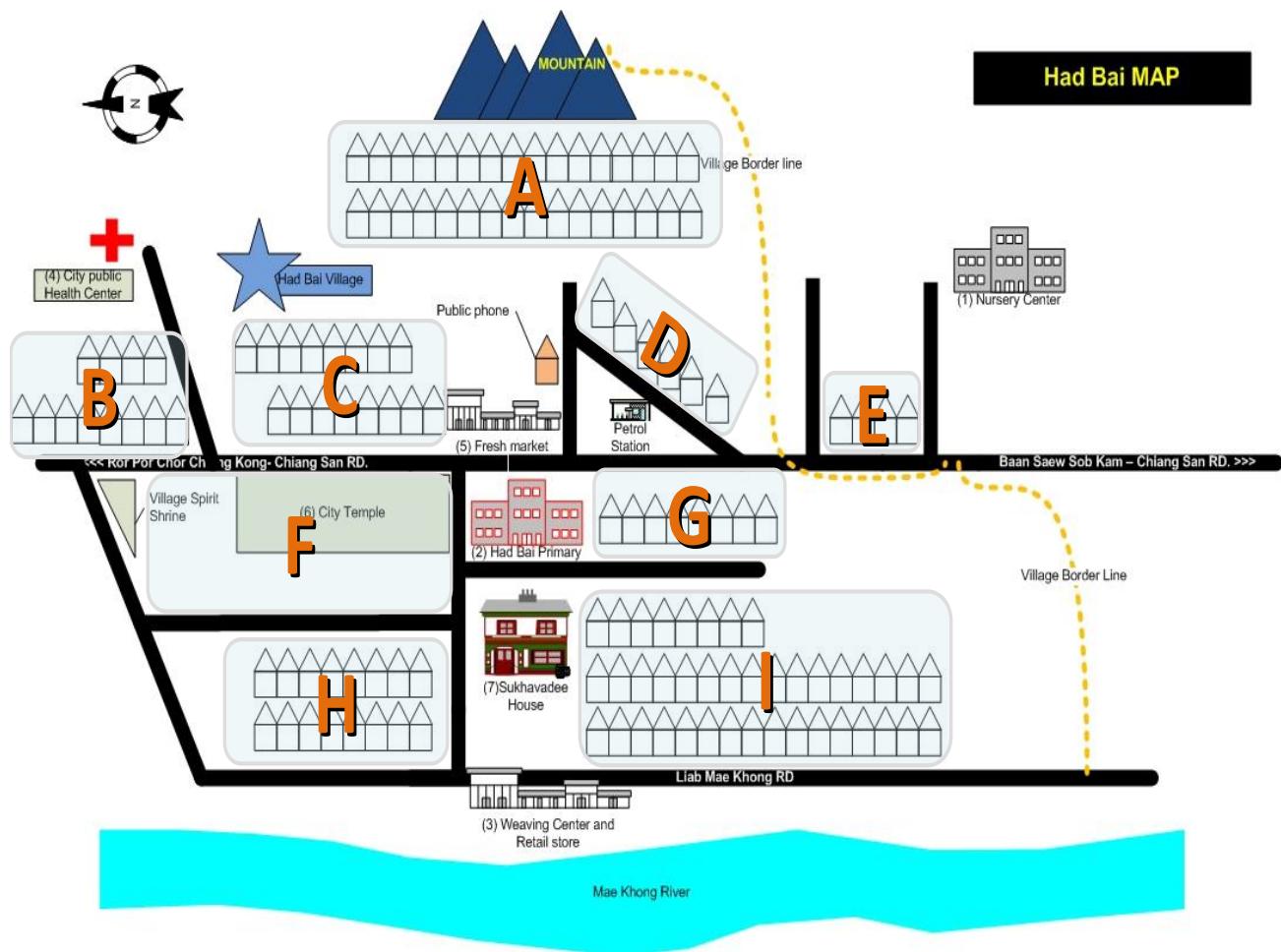
In terms of infrastructure to support livelihoods Had Bai can be considered largely self-reliant, although it is worth noting that some households cannot access electricity. Other infrastructure, though, roads, water supply (supplied using traditional methods) or public telephones, are present. But infrastructure to support long-term human resource development is either insufficient or lacking, whether schools, hospitals or sports fields. There is only one primary school, one sports field and one small-scale public health centre for more than 400 households.

6.6 Participation in PPT programmes

To obtain more insight into the impact of the PPT programmes, a second round of interviews was conducted. These semi-structured interviews were conducted with 330 households, and gave striking results. At the proposal stage of this research, the author

intended to divide the households into two control groups; those who participated in the PPT programme and those who did not, the aim being to investigate the difference in livelihood between the two groups, and thus isolate the impact of the PPT programmes on the poor. However, using the random sampling method of conducting surveys and interviews, it was clear that there were actually three, not two, sub-groups that could be in the controlled sample.

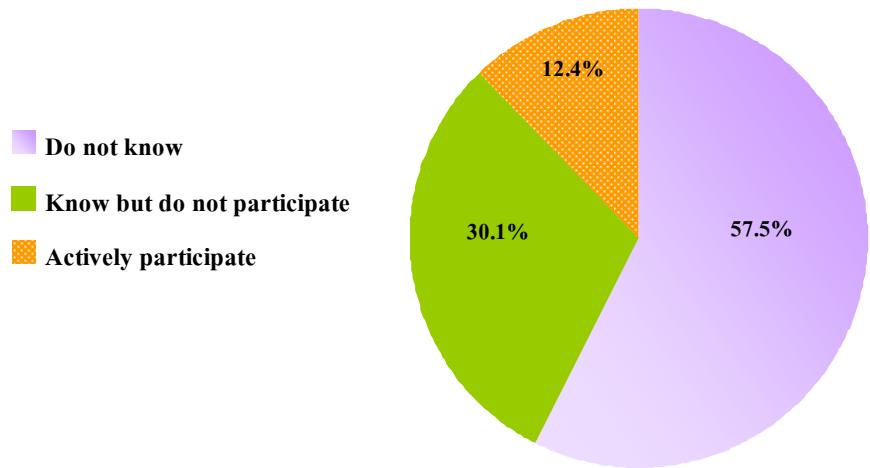
Map 6.2 Map of the location of participating groups in Had Bai Village



Source: Fieldwork 2003

The picture shows that most villagers not participating in OTOP live in Zone A. Villagers with knowledge of OTOP but choosing not to participate live in Zones B, C, D, and E. The fully participating group live in Zone H and I close to the Weaving Centre and Sukhawadee House which is the home of the weaving group head, who is wife of the principal of Had Bai school.

Figure 6-8Allocation of households in the sample among three groups



Source: Fieldwork 2003

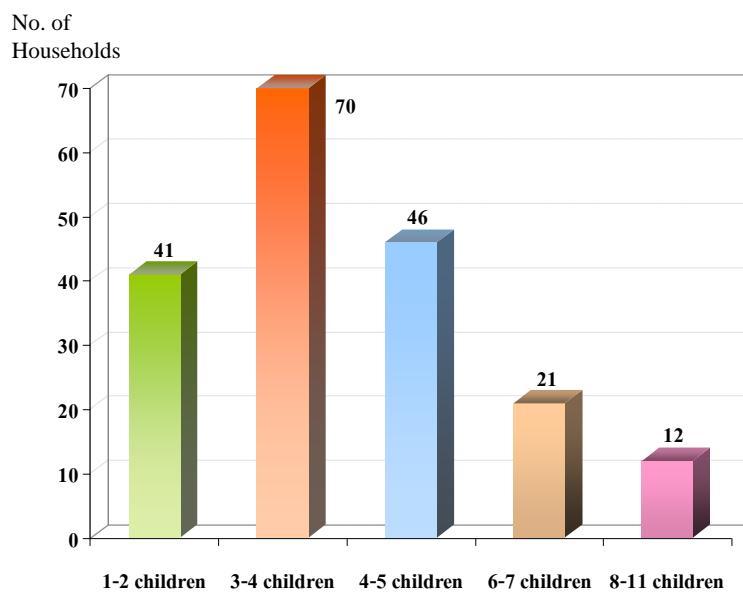
6.6.1 *Group 1: Those who did not know about the OTOP programme and hence did not participate.*

There were 190 households in this group (57.5 per cent of the sample). Villagers in this group knew nothing about the programme, and their homes were apt to be far from the village centre. At the same time, they were among the poorest in the village. The interviews suggested that these villagers had no time to learn about outside information, and no way to access it. Their everyday lives mostly focuses on farming, with most being landless farmers renting land from villagers in other groups, and whose work schedule left them with no spare time.

Leaders of households in this group included 86 women and 104 men. The average monthly income for the women was Bt2,200 baht, while the men earned slightly more at Bt2,792. Their small incomes were allocated to food and medicine (Bt100-150), transport (Bt60), gas and charcoal (Bt270), religious observances (Bt50-100) and investing in agriculture (Bt1,000-2,000). While most of their income came from farming, they also had to participate in other activities for extra income to help pay the rent for the land they farmed. The women might forage in the forest, or make other products, including weaving, if time allowed. The men also earned added income by working on tour boats, and driving trucks and tour buses. Carpentry was another activity that members of this group might use to diversify their income.

Group members were unable to save, and relied on external financing from the village co-operative, the Government Agricultural and Co-operative Bank, and black market loans with interest rates as high as 20 percent per month. Average annual debt per household stood at around Bt20,000-29,760. If income earned during the year did not stretch far enough to pay off their debts, group members were likely to rely still further on loans from the black market.

Figure 6-9Average Number of children per household in Group 1



Source: Fieldwork 2003

This group is considered the poorest of the entire sample. On average, they possessed only 1-3 *rai* of cultivable land. Due to the limited amount of land owned, they rented additional land for cultivation, at a cost of around Bt1,000-1,500 per *raiper* annum. Moreover, households in this group appeared to have the highest number of dependents, as well as the highest number of disabled members. The poorest household in the village was also in this group, with 11 children. Within this group, all the household heads were or had been married, but a quarter of them had already been widowed. Such circumstances put an extra burden on the households, and explained why they had no time to take much interest in village affairs.

However, it is worth noting that despite their lower income relative to other groups, group members tended to have lower liabilities. Having little communication with other villagers, together with their lack of assets for collateral, households in this group had quite limited access to financing sources. While some were reliant on black market loans, the interviews showed that many attempted to manage their expenditures effectively rather than borrow.

In order to manage their income, they sought to follow a ‘sufficiency economy’ model, in which they optimised their expenditure by only purchasing necessities. Moreover, the fact that they had very little exposure to the outside world, as well as their lack of basic infrastructure, helped them to follow a sufficiency economy model more easily; they had no need for a television or mobile phone, for instance, which might have added significantly to their expenditure.

A household leader in this group confirmed this with the author:

“With a wife and three children, the average cash I usually carried in the household was only 5 baht. With only a small piece of land, my food was in the water and forests. My monetary income was used in paying the rent for extra land and I saw no need to save or borrow” (Anonymous 2003a)

The family was one of the extreme examples of self-sufficiency. Low income, low debt, and low asset levels are the major characteristics of this group. While it could be argued that the PPT programme failed in its objective to reach the poorest, it is worth noting that members of this group do not perceive themselves to have been disadvantaged by not participating.

6.6.2 *Group 2: Villagers with knowledge of OTOP, who chose to not participate.*

There were 100 households falling into this group (30.1 per cent of the sample). Of the total households, 27 were led by women and 73 by men. The average land ownership was more than 15 *rai* per household. In addition to farming, the major income-generating

activity for men, added income was earned from working outside the village and renting out land, mainly to people in Group 1.

Women earned additional income by selling weaving (but outside the OTOP scheme), or through trade and livestock rearing. The household leaders in this group were all married and appeared to have considerably fewer children than the previous group; most had only 1-2 children and the rest had no more than four children. As their income was relatively high, most of their children were in school. Their monthly income averaged around Bt3,528 for women and Bt3,750 for male household leaders. Most expenses resembled those of the first group, with the exception of significant additional spending on mobile phones (Bt300 per month) and electricity (Bt450 per month).

However, this group suffered some very clear disadvantages compared to those households participating in the PPT project, namely:

1. The cost of the weaving materials. Group members faced significantly higher outlays, as unlike OTOP participants, who by placing large orders could pay at wholesale prices, they were forced to pay the retail price.
2. The access to markets for the weaving products was limited. Sales fluctuated on a monthly basis in accordance with demand, and in some months households might only be able to sell one small piece of weaving, leaving them financially vulnerable.

As members of this group experienced severe fluctuations of household income, they had to cover their relatively large expenditure with external borrowing. Even with their better access to the tourists, the income of their sales did not increase by much. Moreover, they were more likely than members of the first group to incur debts. The relatively large level of asset ownership, coupled with ease of access to information, allowed them greater access to government and village financing. In addition, the credit line allocated to these households was as high as Bt38,000. This contributed to an average annual debt of around Bt49,833 for women and Bt48,324 for men.

This relatively high level of debt made this group particularly vulnerable; especially as they had smaller cushions in terms of financing should adverse events take place in the future.

The major reason given by members of this group for not joining the PPT project was a perception that investment in the project, which necessitated entering into a co-operative-like partnership, was inherently risky. They felt that as income from sales might be partially retained for new investment to improve production, they might do better going it alone. Nonetheless, they discovered that due to the high cost of weaving materials the profit from sales was not sufficient to meet their high expenditure, and many of them became trapped in a spiral of debt. By the final round of interviews some of those interviewed were reporting that they had been forced to sell a part of their land to relieve the debt burden. Although tourism provided better access to the outside world, tourism alone was not sufficient to explain their chronic debt problem, worsened by changing patterns of consumption brought about by other economic policies and greater rural-urban connectivity.

6.6.3 Group 3:These villagers actively participated in the OTOP programme.

Forty households were this group, accounting for 12.4 percent of the total sample. Interestingly, all 40 participants were women, with farming being their major source of income. Most had one or two children, with six children being the maximum. Another unique characteristic was the relatively high average age. More than 75 percent of the group members were age 51 or higher. As a result of their age, these villagers are experienced in weaving, and being more skilled than other villagers they were able to execute very detailed designs which were difficult to imitate. Their average monthly income was around Bt3,660, with an additional Bt500-1,000 per month from the project.

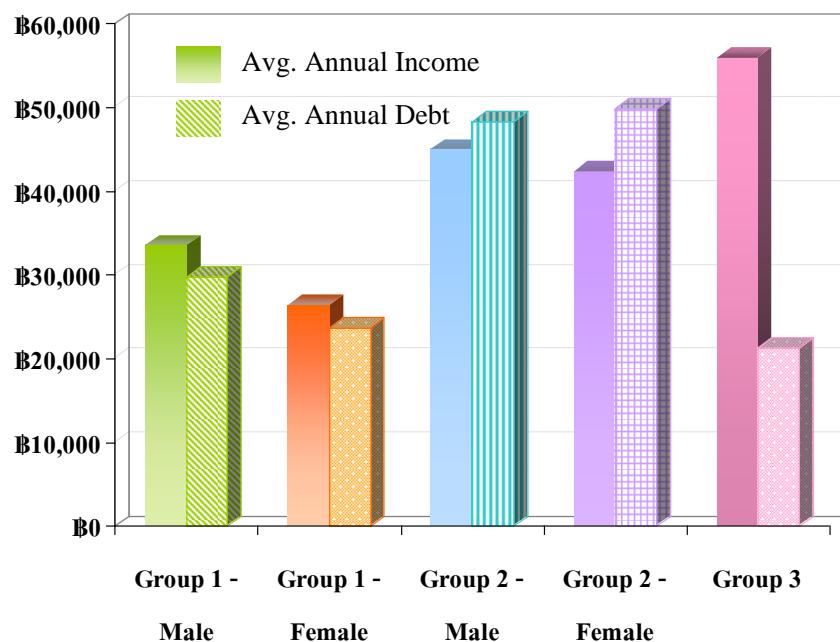
Those able to sell their products outside the village could even earn Bt 1,000-3,000 on top of their main income. This level of income was likely to cover the cost of weaving materials, together with electricity and mobile phone use.

Due to their constant stream of income, the group rarely resorted to borrowing, except when they faced untoward events or when new investment was needed. As a result, the average debt per household was a relatively low Bt21,330 baht per annum.

This group enjoyed the maximum benefits of the programme, largely due to the fact that the programme was based on their everyday farming and weaving activities. The beneficiaries were mainly old women who stayed at home to weave while younger members of the household were engaged in the main agricultural work. It would thus appear that the project provided the most benefit for those who could easily adapt their living to the project mechanism. Those who most needed help, on the other hand, might not be served so well by the project, which thus could be said to have had a limited impact.

Income distribution among the three groups show that group 3, with supplementary income from participating in PPT projects had slightly higher income than group 2 and substantially more than the group 1. This group also had the lowest annual debt. As shown in Figure 6-10 Average Annual Income and Debt of the Three Groups. Group 2 had the highest annual debt among the 3 groups. Their annual debts were higher than their average annual income. Although group 1 had the lowest income in the group, their annual debts did not exceed their annual income.

Figure 6-10 Average Annual Income and Debt of the Three Groups



Source: Fieldwork 2003

From the overview of the livelihood structures and strategies, the PPT programme seemed to enhance better access to the outside world, external market and additional income stream. It also provided more options for the livelihood activities and income generating process of the villagers.

It should also be noted that the project has also had indirect consequences for the overall wellbeing to those who were exposed to the project while not being directly involved, in terms of competition and changed consumption behaviors. This chapter has only focused on an analysis of the general impact and impact on livelihood structures, with the income versus debt analysis shedding light only on the financial capital of the poor. In order to assess the impact on overall livelihoods, the next chapters will utilise systematically the SL approach to undertake a more comprehensive assessment. The analysis will be based on these three groups in order that the consequences might be compared effectively.

Picture 6.2The author learned how to make cotton yarn



Picture 6.3 Dance to celebrate Loy Krathong full moon night festival



Picture 6.4 Elder women gather at the temple to make monk's robe during full moon festival.



Picture 6.5 Hua Kuan Temple near Had Bai Village.

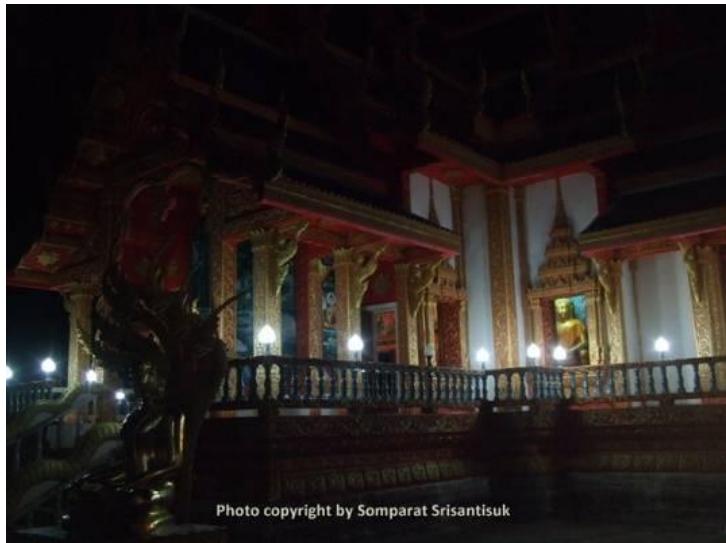


Photo copyright by Somparat Srisantisuk

Picture 6.6 Buddha at Hua Kuan temple



Photo copyright by Somparat Srisantisuk

CHAPTER 7

PPT Impact on the Sustainability and Diversification of Livelihoods in Had Bai Village

This chapter uses the Sustainable Livelihood (SL) approach to assess the impact of the PPT project on the livelihood of the poor, and to explore how the project contributed to livelihood diversification. The sub-question that this chapter focuses on will reveal how PPT contributed to livelihood diversification and impacted on the assets of the poor.

The assessment using the SL framework presented in this chapter includes the results from the assessment of the impact of PPT on livelihood diversification, and the impact of PPT initiatives on the villagers' Financial, Social, Personal, Physical, Human and Natural Assets. Although not presented in sequence, the survey focused on analyzing both qualitative and quantitative data to reveal the impact of PPT on the following themes:

1. the overall productivity of the community following the implementation of the project and how the resources and opportunities are distributed;
2. the sustainability of natural resource usage and how the project contributes to the preservation and restoration of the environment compared to other sources of change;
3. the impact on social capital, in terms of whether the project strengthens or weakens community co-operation and institutions, and whether the connection between the community and the outside world has changed;
4. whether the earnings from the project were used to invest in programmes that could enhance the human capital in the community, and what extra training the villagers wish for in order to enhance their participation in the project;
5. in terms of financial capital, how the project encourages the villagers' investment in financial assets, and whether the project itself is financially sustainable; and
6. whether the increased income from the project has been used to invest in physical assets and how happy the villagers have been observing the changes in the village's appearance.

The answers to these questions have been derived from the information made available through all three rounds of interviews with the stakeholders and related parties. However, the information from the third round interviews, which were in-depth interviews, was most extensively processed, and the consistency of the opinions of the interviewees were cross-checked against the data from the quantitative assessment.

This part of the chapter also attempts to find the point of view of government officials, how they perceived changes in the lives of OTOP project participants, not only in terms of employment but also in other aspects. Then, the focus is to analyze if and how the implementation of the OTOP project affected the assets that were at the disposal of the rural poor to make their livelihood. A conclusion will then be made to pave way for the treatment of sub-research question #3 in the following chapter.

7.1 Assessment of PPT Impact on Livelihood diversification

The discussions from the officers' point of view are based on the information obtained from interviews with 15 officials from nine government departments along with one NGO and a tour company as practitioner involved in different aspects of the implementation of the OTOP project. The respondents were officials from the Tourism Authority of Thailand and the Tourism Development Office under the Tourism and Sports Ministry; the Industrial Promotion Department and SMEs Promotion Office under the Industry Ministry; from the Export Promotion Department under the Commerce Ministry; the Community Development Department under the Interior Ministry; from the Agricultural Extension Department and from the Cooperatives Promotion Department under the Agriculture and Cooperatives Ministry; and the SME Bank. The results are given below:

7.1.1 Livelihood Diversification

Official studies have revealed the following livelihood diversification strategies villagers engage in when income from agriculture, the main source of their income, fails to cover expenditure:

1. borrow money
2. find extra jobs
3. sell hand-woven weave cloth
4. limit spending
5. sell agricultural land

The fact that borrowing seems to be the principle source of diversification among the villagers is a cause of some concern, as it implies a certain misperception of the villagers about the project could lead to unexpected outcomes in the future. Borrowing could have adverse consequences, as the villagers need to manage their funds effectively as well as market the products in which they invest. However, high-ranking officials tended to stick to the official view that the project would play a large role in livelihood diversification among the poor, by providing additional opportunities for income and employment.

All of the officials interviewed agreed that the OTOP project had brought about changes to the livelihood and assets of project participants.

“The OTOP project enabled the people to have access to financial resources which they used to buy materials and machines to improve the production of goods.”
(Anonymous 2005a)

“With the help from the government in providing training on management and identifying potential markets, the people could sell more products at higher prices, which definitely resulted in an increase in income of project participants.”
(Anonymous 2005b)

The most obvious one was an increase in “income” which they believe had helped reduce the hardship of the local people.

“In cases where the people opened their villages to tourists, OTOP had created employment opportunities related to tourism business for villagers ranging from work in the transportation sector. They can also sell food and drink and offer accommodation businesses.”
(Anonymous 2005c)

“Tourism definitely helped distribute income to those involved directly or indirectly with tourism business, leading to a better living condition of these people.”
(Anonymous 2005d)

These views were in contrast with those expressed by mid-ranking officials from the Tourism Authority of Thailand and the NGO, who raised concerns that the objectives of the project could be misperceived as the allocation of funds had no clear conditions attached.

“I personally think that villagers who are the producers of PPT products will gain just little benefit but mostly the money goes to the leader of the group.” (Anonymous 2003b)

Such observations chimed with those perceived by the author from the interviews, and pointed to the need for close monitoring and useful advice from government officials and community leaders during the project promotion and implementation.

7.1.2 PPT initiatives match to the livelihood diversification strategies people use

As mentioned in the earlier chapters, the project has been effective for the selected group of villagers as it matched with the livelihood diversification strategies of the poor in the area. The weaving activity has long been the traditional way of life for women in the village. The project was only trying to provide support in terms of market access and sustained financial income which produced marginal changes to most of the villagers' livelihood strategies.

Results from the interviews show that villagers did not think joining the PPT projects is one way of adapting their livelihood in order to survive. They also view that they did not change their livelihood in order to interact with tourists or participate in the PPT.

While the villagers did not feel their way of life had been significantly changed to suit the tourism industry, concerns from the practitioner level officers and the private sector have been that the by-product from tourism can be harmful. The relatively abrupt exposure to the outside world without any education or good judgment may alter the traditional way of living especially consumption pattern (television, mobile phone as well as the internet) can be too difficult for the poor to manage, both in financial and social terms. This was coinciding with the increase in household debt observed in the previous chapters as well as the social problems mentioned above.

“Income does not make livelihood better if the poor do not know how to save the money. Having more income can lead to higher spending which results in no money at the end. Although they seem to feel less vulnerable.” (Anonymous 2005e)

“The villagers may feel livelihood has been improved during the first stage of the project. Then, if they cannot sustain the market and have left over stocks and no income, burden such as debt will follow.” (Anonymous 2005f)

7.1.3 Tourism’s impact on villagers’ way of life

Although the OTOP project had created higher income for its participants, in most cases, it had not altered the fundamental way of life of the people. Villagers who relied on farming as their major source of income did not abandon work on the farm.

Concerns from the middle rankings and the NGOs have been that the by-product from tourism can be harmful.

“Some villagers think that PPT especially OTOP is the pride of the village. So, participants try so hard to make a lot of products to sell in the project. Those who have to go to work in the field hire someone else to do this job. Some of them even stop their work just to welcome the tourists.” (Anonymous 2005g)

“I doubt the money and civilization will destroy the purity of these poor people both in the physical appearance of the village as well as their value to life and culture.” (Anonymous 2005b)

“I doubt the money and civilization will destroy the purity of these poor people both in the physical appearance of the village as well as their value to life and culture.” (Anonymous 2005b)

Some officials were even concerned the success of the OTOP project might bring material progress to the rural communities and affect the way the people lived which constituted the very essence of the OTOP project.

In contrast, high ranking officers believed the OTOP project is designed to help people maximise existing opportunities for earning additional income without affecting their way of life. With greater employment opportunities in the villages, government officials believe there would be fewer people migrating from the rural area to seek jobs in the big cities. This is obviously described by a high ranking TAT officer, as follows:

“...As far as the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) is concerned, the concept of OTOP tourism is to offer opportunities for tourists to experience the way of life of a community. It is therefore important that the community maintains their traditional way of living. What has been introduced to the people is the knowledge required to manage tourists that come to their villages.... (Anonymous 2005h)

...The TAT does not want to disturb the way of life of the people. Their business usually starts after the harvest season.... The money they gain from OTOP tourism provides them with extra income...which helps to reduce the hardship and improve their living conditions. ... ”(Anonymous 2005i)

From the above interview, it can be seen that the high ranking officer had hoped the implementation of the OTOP tourism project would not change the traditional way of living. Most of the high ranking officers were of the view that villagers did not have to change their way of life to accommodate tourists. On this point, one NGO commented that:

“As a matter of fact, they should not change their life to suit tourists. However, I was aware of the negative impact that might occur. What I could do was to explain to the people that it was important to keep the essential features of their traditional way of life as that was the very element that attracted tourists to their villages. Without it, the project would not have become successful.”(Anonymous 2003b)

However, from the view of the practitioner such as the tour company, villagers' way of life has gradually been altered. An implication can be drawn that other than the villagers themselves, those officials responsible for the project should not only provide useful guidance for the short-term adjustment, but they also have to find effective ways to balance the living of villagers with the tourism expansion in such a way the tradition that is the key to attracting the tourists itself is optimally preserved in the long run.

One top official in the Tourism Authority of Thailand suggested that the villagers should not be ignorant and changes cannot be avoided. However, they have to adjust themselves efficiently to reap the best benefit out of those changes. For example, the children in the village can be trained to be “Junior Tour Guide”. This will also help distribute the increased income from the project more evenly rather than concentrating on only enhancing the adults’ income. Another officer said

“I have seen cases where some project participants abandoned their original occupation and turned to rely on the production of OTOP goods as their major means of living. This happened when the income earned from the OTOP project was higher than that earned from working on the farm.” (Anonymous 2005j)

“It is possible for villagers to abandon their way of life if they found out that they had accumulated enough expertise and money to develop their own business. But such cases are relatively few.” (Anonymous 2005k)

Finally, although the officers also thought that the access to resources and opportunities was not fairly distributed, the OTOP project to develop tourism products however, matches the villager’s livelihood diversification and does not have much effect on the traditional way of life of the poor people.

7.2 PPT’s Impact on Assets

In analyzing how the OTOP project created an impact on the livelihood diversification, we also have to examine if the project had helped increase the assets that constituted livelihood components of the people. This follows the analytical framework using the Sustainable Livelihood (SL) approach discussed in Chapter 3. The assets examined in this chapter are not limited to financial and natural resources but include knowledge, skills, the physical environment and social capital as reflected in the interaction among community members.

The first questionnaire set sent out in 2003 revealed the overall opinion of villagers towards PPT and their assets

Table 7.1 Do you agree with the following statements?

Do you agree with the following statements?	Mean	Std. Deviation
Village-based Tourism (VBT) makes the villagers feel like they have more assets.	3.11	0.47
OTOP projects make the villagers feel like they have more assets.	3.33	0.49
Visible change that can clearly be seen is monetary assets.	3.94	0.54
Visible change that can clearly be seen is intelligence and ability to learn new things.	4.00	0.34
Visible change that can clearly be seen is natural resources.	3.41	0.71
Visible change that can clearly be seen is a stronger social group.	4.06	0.42
Visible change that can clearly be seen is the environment, roads, and infrastructure of the village	3.61	0.50
Visible change that can clearly be seen is because of VBT.	2.60	0.63
Visible change that can clearly be seen is because of the OTOP project.	3.33	0.49
The different visible change that can clearly be seen happened on its own from the cooperation of the villagers.	3.47	0.72

Source: Field Research 2003

From Table 7.1, the visible change about assets that can be clearly seen were stronger social group, human assets in terms of ability to learn new things and financial assets.

Table 7.2 below shows villagers' opinion concerning financial assets gained from PPT. The majority of villagers think that money gained from OTOP can be better used for beneficial investment for the village and income from OTOP will probably be continuous income

Table 7.2 Questions concerning financial assets

Questions concerning financial assets	Mean	Std. Deviation
The money that is gained from VBT has been used for beneficial investments for the village.	3.18	0.39
The money that is gained from the OTOP project has been used for beneficial investments for the village.	3.29	0.69
Income from VBT will be continuous additional income	3.13	0.34
Income from the OTOP project will be continuous additional income	3.82	0.73
Total	3.36	0.25

Source: Field research 2003

Table 7.3 Questions concerning human assets

Questions concerning human assets	Mean	Std. Deviation
Income from VBT has been used for education or health care in the community	3.76	0.44
Income from OTOP has been used for education or health care in the community	4.07	0.46
Villagers have received training from the PPT project.	3.88	0.72
Training from PPT has its benefits and will also create pride in oneself.	3.94	0.68
Besides weaving, the PPT project has helped improve the labour skills or improve the market that has to do with agriculture also.	3.94	0.57
The PPT project has made the manufacturing of products better.	4.06	0.43
The PPT project has increased the quality of the products.	3.94	0.66
Total	3.90	0.38

Source: Field research 2003

From the questions concerning human asset, the villagers think that income from OTOP has been used for education or health care of the community and PPT has made the manufacturing better.

Table 7.4 Questions concerning natural assets

Question concerning natural assets	Mean	Std. Deviation
PPT activities have disturbed the supply of natural resources, environment, or the land that is used for living.	2.88	0.78
Natural resources in the village have been used correctly in VBT.	3.00	0.63
Natural resources in the village have been used correctly in the OTOP project.	3.06	0.44
Sustainable use of natural resource in the VBT project	2.94	0.85
Sustainable use of natural resource in the OTOP project	3.31	0.87
Total	3.04	0.55

Source: Field research 2003

Table 7.4 shows that villagers think natural resources in the OTOP project have been used more correctly than the VBT project and natural resource used are more sustainable in the OTOP project.

Table 7.5 Questions concerning physical assets / infrastructure

Questions concerning Physical assets / infrastructure	Mean	Std. Deviation
VBT will make the village dirty, noisy, and increase the level of crime.	2.87	0.64
The OTOP project will make the village dirty, noisy, and increase crime.	3.13	1.13
VBT creates pollution for the environment.	2.87	1.25
The OTOP project creates pollution for the environment.	3.07	1.00
New changes and developments such as road is because of VBT.	3.00	0.53
New changes and developments such as road is because of the OTOP project.	3.20	0.86
Total	3.02	0.68

Source: Field research 2003

Again, information from Table 7.5 shows that villagers think the OTOP project increased overall physical assets compared to the VBT project. However, the VBT project created less pollution for the environment.

Table 7.6 Questions concerning social assets

Questions concerning social assets	Mean	Std. Deviation
VBT has made 'Had Bai' become stronger.	3.50	0.52
The OTOP project has made 'Had Bai' become stronger.	3.42	0.51
There is competition for land, natural resources, or tools for VBT.	2.58	0.67
There is competition for land, natural resources, or tools for OTOP.	2.27	0.90
VBT has made access to different organizations better.	3.73	0.79
OTOP has made access to different organizations better.	3.64	0.50
VBT has made relationships between the village and the outside world change in a better way.	3.64	0.50
The OTOP project has made relationships between the village and the outside world change in a better way.	4.09	0.54
VBT has made relationships between the village and the government sector change in a better way.	4.18	0.60
The OTOP project has made relationships between the village and the government sector change in a better way.	3.93	0.27
VBT has made access to funds and information better.	3.40	0.51
The OTOP project has made access to funds and information better.	3.79	0.89
Total	3.54	0.29

Source: Field Research 2003

From Table 7.6, VBT has over all created better social assets and stronger social network among villagers than the OTOP project. However, the OTOP project has made access to funds and information to the outside world better.

Information from interviews with villagers shows that access to information resource and funding of both PPT projects was better from 1998-2001. However, there is no topic about PPT in the village's meeting held once a month. Women can participate in the meeting. However, only the president of the women's weaving group or her committees attended.

On the whole, those who were interviewed thought that the OTOP project helped increase overall assets of the rural poor. The government injected funds to villages to support the implementation of the OTOP project, which enhanced financial capital. By participating in the OTOP project, villagers had to work with one another and with government officials in planning and implementing the project as well as in solving problems. This way, villagers could gain experience in running a business and the community became stronger in terms of social capital. Such experiences were valuable if the villagers wanted to undertake other economic activities apart from working on the farm which was their traditional occupation.

The OTOP project has also increased the people's access to information and knowledge by providing vocational training to villagers which contributed to the enhancement of human capital. This knowledge on production technique allowed project participants to produce local products of better quality.

The project also changed the quality and productivity of the product. The government's local products development programmes increased productivity and then provided venues for showcasing and marketing the product. The OTOP fair organised by the department of trade promotion is held once a year in Bangkok. Villagers with OTOP products from all over the country participate in this event, and in the case of Had Bai, sometimes there are unfavourable results. One villager said of the experience:

"I remember when the Government told us to weave for one OTOP fair in Bangkok, and we all weaved all day and night hoping that we can sell them and earn lots of money. At the end we produced too many cloths and could not sell all. Our money was spent in buying materials. Now, we do not have money to buy food and we can only look at these cloths wishing that they were edible." (Anonymous 2003c)

Interviews yielded valuable insights into the problems of the product development initiatives. The most recurring problem theme in the interviews was about effectively

marketing products after increased productivity. Once precious money is redirected to production, the failure to recover the capital invested in it posed a frustrating challenge for rural villagers. As one participant relates her experience:

“The officers told us to provide a variety of styles to sell in the Department Store in Town. However, they didn’t tell of the quantity. So, we all produced too many. It is always the president of the weaving club who got this chance, and she tends to sell her relatives’ work first.” (Anonymous 2003 d)

Although the OTOP project is aimed at maximising existing local knowledge - like weaving, dyeing, wood carving, etc. - by encouraging people to use such knowledge in producing goods that are unique to their locality, local knowledge alone is not enough to ensure the success of the OTOP project.

One villager commented on the added cost and risk from the production of high quality products. Competition from similar but cheaper products across the Laos border also posed another challenge:

“I spent days weaving this cloth using the best natural materials. Then the customer came to tell me that my product’s colour faded. That was not true. They must have bought from somewhere else. I heard there are fake products sold by Laotians. They use the cheap chemical dye colour to save cost. How can we sustain our reputation then?” (Anonymous 2003e)

With an opportunity for profit, competition comes in the form of cheaper products that can be sold to tourists as a cheap alternative. Thai Lue weaving is not exclusive to Had Bai Village, it is a cultural tradition of villages with the same ethnicity on both sides of the border. Some villagers relate their frustration:

“A selfish investor taught how to weave a Thai Lue cloth to Laotian girls across the river. They have a cheaper daily wage. How can we compete with them?” (Anonymous 2003f)

“It took me almost a month to weave this traditional style of Thai Lue, then the girl from across the river adapted my style to more easily finish the piece of work quickly. I can also do the same but that is not the real Thai Lue style.” (Anonymous 2003g)

The tourism product development project is a business undertaking and it needs to be managed effectively in order to be sustained in the long run. Government agencies should organise several training courses for project participants so that they have the necessary knowledge and skills. The training provided to project participants covered various aspects of business activities ranging from production, packaging, and marketing to financial management. With such training, villagers were equipped to undertake economic activities other than farming, which was their traditional occupation.

In conclusion, the villagers and middle ranking practitioners and NGOs did not think there were significant improvements from PPT projects on assets compared to the other sources, however, in the government sector, high ranking government officers argued that PPT is still a great tool to enhance overall livelihood assets.

7.2.1 *Impact on Financial Assets*

As mentioned earlier in this Chapter, the tourism product development projects like OTOP helped broaden people's access to funds, resulting in an increase in financial assets that project participants could use to start or expand their businesses. With better access to financial resources, villagers could buy more materials and new machines which enabled them to produce better quality goods and sell them at higher prices. Literature also shows that PPT initiatives have enhanced access to financial capital in many ways. Firstly, loans are available for micro and small enterprise tourism (Renard 2001; Williams, White and Spenceley 2001; Nicanor 2001; Mahony and VanZyl 2001). Secondly, earners gain access to credit (Poultney and Spenceley, 2001). Thirdly, the collective income earned by community organizations became a source of investment funding.

All of the officials who were interviewed said that one obvious change brought about by the OTOP project was that the people had more income. The extra money gained from tourism products development provided for supplementary income for villagers. Although OTOP project participants did not become rich from OTOP products, the extra income they earned did help reduce their hardship and enable them to have a better living.

The OTOP project had also increased people's access to factors of production. This is especially true with how the increase in access to financial capital could lead to improving the human capital. In the case of financial capital, the government played an important role in ensuring people's access to adequate funds.

The OTOP project, being a top priority in Thailand's government policy, had been allocated a relatively large budget for its implementation. The government designated the Small and Medium Enterprises Development Bank of Thailand (SME Bank) as the major financial institution responsible for channeling the money to rural villages.

Under some conditions requirements were set out by the Bank of Thailand, and were seen as necessary to ensure that borrowers had the financial discipline and would spend the money in a productive manner.

Although in principle, there was equal opportunity provided for all villagers to apply for loans, those who did still had to comply with the same conditions as in any financial institution. The government bank was no different from any other commercial bank; villagers who participated in the projects were treated like other customers. The banks did not provide special privileges to the project participants; the only incentive was the government's promise of support. Participants who did get loans approved discovered that interest rates were not cheaper either. Such conditions had put limit on people's access to the funds.

This was reflected in the interview given by officials involved with the financing of the OTOP project.

"In principle, everyone had equal opportunity to access the Bank's financial resources, and the Bank tried to reach their target customers as much as they could. The Bank adopted a "Direct Call" and "Direct Mail" strategy in order to get in to direct contact with villagers. But in practice those who applied for credit were subject to conditions similar to those of other financial institutions before funds could be approved." (Anonymous 2005)

Access to funds was not easy for aspiring entrepreneurs who wanted to participate in the projects, no matter whether the government intention was to alleviate poverty at the grass roots level; the target population's financial asset could only be improved by seeking employment with fellow villagers fortunate enough to have sufficient collateral to have loans approved. Participants were after all indebted only to a certified financial institution following the requirement set out by the Bank of Thailand. Another official commented on the processing of loans for applicants who participated in the project that:

“...The government said that in considering applications for loans (of OTOP project participants) it wouldn't take into account past credit records but would look ahead into the future. If the project proposal is feasible and financially sound, the government would support it. But in reality it does not happen that way. The government banks are no different from commercial banks. They have similar procedures when considering loan applications. For example, if you have a piece of land that is still mortgaged with another bank, it would appear in your record and you would be blacklisted. Moreover, government banks do not take shorter time to process an application for loans and their interest rates are no cheaper. ...” (Anonymous 2005m)

The officer from the SME Bank confirmed that the government was ready to help villagers who were not qualified to obtain the funds by advising them how to manage their finances properly before they reapplied for loans. This was confirmed by Vice President, Franchise and OTOP Cluster of the SME Bank:

“...Before giving out loans to entrepreneurs, we usually provide them with training so that they could learn how to run their businesses professionally. They must have financial discipline, know how to do the bookkeeping and know the cost of their production. They must have sufficient knowledge on financial management before we can give them the money...” (Anonymous 2005n)

“...We always try to improve people's access to the funds because projects undertaken without sound financial management would have high risk of failure. Such failure was undesirable both for the Bank and the villagers themselves....” (Anonymous 2005o)

But that was not true with all villagers. There were cases where project participants spent their savings on future plans. Some people invested the extra income they had earned on the education of their children who would come back to help with the family business or migrate to work in the big cities. In some cases, project participants pooled their financial resources and spent them on improving the infrastructure in their communities. Some villagers set up a revolving fund for community members to borrow for new investments.

Results from the qualitative assessment confirmed that in terms of project impact, the government policy only provided slight to moderate impact on the financial assets and for the goals on poverty alleviation. The institutional policies aimed at increasing financial assets did not really have a significant impact on improving the financial capital of the poorest in the village who did not acquire loans themselves.

The following are the results from the quantitative assessment on the impact of PPT initiatives on the financial assets of villagers in Had Bai Village during three periods of time. The following tables 7.7 present the results collected from each of the three groups, according to their level of participation. Group 1 results as presented in Table 7.7 are the perception of the villagers who did not know about the government initiatives and did not participate in the tourism development programmes.

Table 7.7 PPT Impact on Financial Assets of Group 1

Group 1 FINANCIAL ASSETS						
	1998		2001		2011	
	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement
Income from productive activity	2.314	Slight	2.315	Slight	2.416	Slight
Available finances / savings	2.628	Moderate	2.583	Slight	2.805	Moderate
Regular inflow of money	2.362	Slight	2.403	Slight	2.544	Moderate
Credit Rating	1.852	Slight	2.166	Slight	2.387	Slight
Access to Credit	2.028	Slight	2.138	Slight	2.305	Slight
AVERAGE	2.302	Slight	2.319	Slight	2.464	Slight

Source: Fieldwork 2010-2011

Results from the data collected revealed that villagers who did not know or participated in any of the tourism development projects saw slight improvements in their financial assets. The table shows how the village fund and the OTOP initiatives impact on financial assets on this group. The table shows that the village fund had slightly better impact than OTOP on available finances. Both however, only had very slight impact on the financial assets of this group.

The results also show that over time, available finances and regular inflow of money did improve from slight to moderate. The results showed that although the PPT initiatives were perceived to slightly improve financial assets, this group comprising the most financially disadvantaged group also provided the lowest scores. The results show that the initiatives were unsuccessful in significantly improving the financial assets of the most vulnerable and poorest in the village.

Group 2 comprised of the respondents who knew about the project, borrowed funds but did not participate fully in PPT product development. Their perception of the impact on financial assets, as shown in Table 7.8, showed not much difference from the results of Group 1. Although respondents from this group had access and were given loans, the results from their assessment of financial assets revealed only slight improvement.

Table 7.8 PPT Impact on Financial Assets of Group 2

GROUP 2 FINANCIAL ASSETS						
	1998		2001		2011	
	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement
Income from productive activity	2.630	Moderate	2.852	Moderate	3.035	Moderate
Available finances / savings	2.781	Moderate	2.688	Moderate	2.968	Moderate
Regular inflow of money	2.341	Slight	2.556	Slight	2.527	Slight
Credit Rating	2.042	Slight	2.529	Slight	2.529	Slight
Access to Credit	1.926	Slight	2.154	Slight	2.353	Slight
AVERAGE	2.345	Slight	2.532	Slight	2.533	Slight

Source: Fieldwork 2010-2011

Results from the assessment showed that PPT initiatives had only slight improvement on the second group's financial assets although they were able to get loans from the initiatives. The results validate the quantitative data from interviews. This group had access to loans but spent the money on unsustainable expenses rather than capital for product development.

The table clearly shows that their access to credit and credit rating have the lowest score among the items relating to financial assets. Unexpectedly, they rated the availability of finances higher because at the onset, credit was available to them, however, at the same time, they rated credit rating and access to credit significantly lower. This mixed result may be explained by their inability to get more loans after failing to manage the first loan effectively. The results showed that programmes, the village fund and OTOP loans were still unsuccessful in significantly improving their financial assets over time.

Group 3 however, showed better results. In this group were the villagers who got loans and fully participated in the tourism product development.

Table 7.9 PPT Impact on Financial Assets of Group 3

GROUP 3 FINANCIAL ASSETS						
	1998		2001		2011	
	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement
Income from productive activity	2.414	Slight	2.585	Slight	2.536	Slight
Available finances / savings	2.829	Moderate	2.775	Moderate	2.951	Moderate
Regular inflow of money	2.327	Slight	2.643	Moderate	2.69	Slight
Credit Rating	2.366	Slight	2.366	Slight	2.424	Slight
Access to Credit	2.685	Moderate	2.685	Moderate	2.794	Moderate
AVERAGE	2.524	Slight	2.610	Moderate	2.679	Moderate

Source: Fieldwork 2010-2011

Although members of this group's income from productive activity and the regularity of inflow of capital remained slight, access to credit and availability of finances were scored significantly better. The data showed that OTOP brought significantly better improvement in financial assets than the village funds. Over time, both initiatives resulted in a moderate improvement in the financial assets. The results show that at least, for this group, who participated fully in the PPT initiatives it produced moderate improvement in financial assets.

Results from earlier interviews supported the more recent quantitative data collected. A typical comment from one villager in Group 2 revealed the attitude prevalent among the members of this group.

“I work all day and get only Baht 100, while a village fund offers Baht 20,000 per household. Why would I not take it At that moment I must grab the money first and think about how to pay it off later”. (Anonymous 2010a)

“The village fund has just launched its 2nd phase. So there is another Baht 1 million that can be borrowed for each village. I see many people who still didn’t return the money from the first phase, and yet they were still able to borrow more from the second phase. The village fund committee in the village has nine people. None of them finished primary school. So, I will not blame them” (Anonymous 2010b)

It can be argued that the elected government at that time appropriated the village fund to deliver on their populist campaign promises. An NGO worker observed how the financial assistance marked for village tourism development, and later on the OTOP project to further develop village products for tourism was otherwise spent unsustainably by some villagers.

“People had different priorities and spent the extra money they had gained from the OTOP project differently. Some villagers spent it on improving their houses, having electricity connected to their village, or to buy cars or motorcycles” (Anonymous 2010c)

A government official’s task in implementing the projects to villages where they had more personal connections and relationships from years of public service, however, provided a more apprehensive perspective to the untraditional process in which the financial assistance was allocated:

“People in the rural area usually lived simple lives. They would produce as much as they wanted and not more, even when they had opportunities to make more money. With such outlook in life, many villagers did not give much importance to savings. They might not be careful when spending money and risked getting indebted.” (Anonymous 2005f)

Several officials also mentioned about those who did not have enough capital to establish their own business and ended up working for other OTOP producers in their village.

In conclusion, it might be said that the village tourism development financial assistance strategies available from the village fund and later the OTOP project may have helped raise income of some of the project participants. This means that the people had more financial assets at their disposal. Some spent the extra money they had earned on improving their living condition or supporting their children's education; others spent it on improving the physical environment of their communities or reinvested it through community funds.

The results from the study however, showed that the PPT initiative had only slight to moderate improvements in the financial assets of villagers in Had Bai Village, but even the slightest improvement is still improvement, financial improvement that villagers and their communities could use to further the diversification of their livelihood. However, as the data indicates, to make PPT financially sustainable, it is important to teach local people how to spend the extra income in a productive way.

7.2.2 PPT Impact on Social Assets

Social capital refers to community institutions, interaction among community members, and their interaction with the outside world. Most of the Pro-Poor Tourism literature reports that community institutions have been strengthened. Tourism developments have enhanced cohesion and a sense of purpose. However, the process of institutional development and strengthening is inevitably complex. There are some negative impacts such as increased tension over community funds (Braman, 2001; Poultney and Spenceley 2001; Mahony and VanZyl 2001), inequitable power balances (Saville, 2001), problems in collective management of resources and enterprises (Renard 2001) and heavy reliance of community institutions on external expertise (Braman 2001; Mahony and VanZyl 2001).

The concept of social capital has been in use for almost a century while the ideas behind it go back further still. The concept became popular recently, but the term "Social Capital" may first have appeared in a book published in 1916 in the United States that discussed how neighbours could work together to oversee schools. Author Lyda Hanifan referred to

social capital as “those tangible assets [that] count for most in the daily lives of people: namely goodwill, fellowship, sympathy, and social intercourse among the individuals and families who make up a social unit”. That gives some sense of what’s meant by social capital, although today it might be difficult to come up with a single definition that satisfied everyone. However, we can think of social capital simply as the links, shared values and understandings in society that enable individuals and groups to trust each other and so work together.

Social capital is defined by the OECD as “networks together with shared norms, values and understandings that facilitate co-operation within or among groups”. In this definition, we can think of networks as real-world links between groups or individuals.

Think of networks of friends, family networks, networks of former colleagues, and so on. Our shared norms, values and understandings are less concrete than our social networks. Sociologists sometimes speak of norms as society’s unspoken and largely unquestioned rules. Norms and understandings may not become apparent until they’re broken. If adults attack a child, for example, they breach the norms that protect children from harm. Values may be more open to question; indeed societies often debate whether their values are changing. And yet values – such as respect for people’s safety and security – are an essential lynchpin in every social group. Put together, these networks and understandings engender trust and so enable people to work together. (OECD.org Insights: Human Capital, 2010)

In Had Bai, villagers who participated fully in the project activities learned managerial skills necessary for group work; they shared responsibilities among themselves; they communicated with one another more than before; and they shared benefits fairly using cooperative systems. Gradually, they developed a good relationship among themselves. The training organised by different government agencies provided a good opportunity for villagers to get closer together. They built their own network, shared information and experiences and helped each other. The villagers also had to interact more with the outside world, with both government officials and tourists. They worked closely with government officials who helped give advice on various issues, from production, financing, to marketing of OTOP products. This had helped enhance the community’s unity and strengthen the community as an institution.

Almost all government officials who gave their views on the question relating to social capital thought that the OTOP project had a positive impact on community relations as it drew people in the community together. Project participants had the opportunity to take part in the planning and implementation of the project as explained by one officer from the Bureau of Farmer Development, Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives below:

“ The villagers must first understand the concept. Then they have to consider other factors: is the village easily accessible to tourists, or are villagers prepared to ensure tourists’ safety? We have to make sure villagers understand these concepts before moving on to the planning stage where the people would delegate work among themselves. . . .”(Anonymous 2005o)

Another officer confirms that:

“We don’t want the project to cause conflicts among villagers. We ask if they understand that the OTOP project only provides for supplementary income and that agriculture will continue to be their main occupation. We tell them they have to maintain the natural beauty of their locality.”(Anonymous 2005f)

Results from the assessment of PPT impact on social assets revealed there was indeed some improvement in villagers’ social assets resulting from the projects. All the members of the three groups surveyed provided similar results.

Table 7.10 PPT Impact on Social Assets in Group 1

Group 1 SOCIAL ASSETS						
	1998		2001		2011	
	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement
Cooperation	2.914	Moderate	2.625	Moderate	2.812	Moderate
Network Interconnectedness	2.285	Slight	2.281	Slight	2.562	Moderate
Family Support	3.029	Moderate	2.838	Moderate	2.774	Moderate
Friendships	3.147	Moderate	3.032	Moderate	2.870	Moderate
Partnership and Collaboration	2.882	Moderate	2.666	Moderate	2.806	Moderate
Political Participation	2.764	Moderate	2.548	Moderate	2.774	Moderate
AVERAGE	2.665	Moderate	2.759	Moderate	2.766	Moderate

Source: Fieldwork 2010-2011

Data from the assessment revealed that even the group who did not know and participate in the project saw improvements in their social assets. As shown in Table 7.10, PPT impacts were such that the social assets were moderately improved. During the periods of village tourism development with the village fund and OTOP, this group experienced significant improvements in family support, friendships and cooperation. Being part of the village, although not being a direct participant, the social cohesion required from other villages directly participating in the programmes may have diffused into this group. The data shows that the moderate improvements in social assets were sustained over time.

Members of the second group who knew about the programmes, made loans but did not participate in the tourism products development completely showed similar results. Group 2 data revealed that PPT projects did bring about moderate improvements to their social assets.

Table 7.11 PPT Impact on Social Assets in Group 2

GROUP 2 SOCIAL ASSETS						
	1998		2001		2011	
	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement
Cooperation	2.771	Moderate	2.735	Moderate	2.676	Moderate
Network Interconnectedness	2.615	Moderate	2.462	Slight	2.730	Moderate
Family Support	2.818	Moderate	2.875	Moderate	2.818	Moderate
Friendships	2.962	Moderate	3.040	Moderate	3.076	Moderate
Partnership and Collaboration	2.414	Slight	2.357	Moderate	2.793	Moderate
Political Participation	2.160	Slight	2.360	Slight	2.307	Slight
AVERAGE	2.623	Moderate	2.638	Moderate	2.733	Moderate

Source: Fieldwork 2010-2011

As shown in Table 7.11, it could be argued that friendships, cooperation and family support played an important role in acquiring a loan. However, as the new capital indented for livelihood development was spent on unsustainable expenses, and loans could not be repaid, partnership and networking with fellow villagers who fully participated in the programmes could have quickly eroded.

The data also shows that the village fund and OTOP initiatives did not show any significant difference in the degree of impact on the social assets for this group. Over time the moderate level of improvements in the social assets were sustained. This pattern was also true in Group 3. As shown in Table 7.12, improvements in social assets were also sustained over time. Members of Group 3, however, produced significantly higher scores at the same level of improvement.

Table 7.12 PPT Impact on Social Assets in Group 3

GROUP 3 SOCIAL ASSETS						
	1998		2001		2011	
	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement
Cooperation	2.853	Moderate	3.050	Moderate	3.000	Moderate
Network Interconnectedness	2.902	Moderate	2.925	Moderate	2.926	Moderate
Family Support	3.170	Moderate	3.425	Improved	3.365	Moderate
Friendships	3.390	Moderate	3.375	Moderate	3.375	Moderate
Partnership and Collaboration	2.707	Moderate	2.900	Moderate	2.902	Moderate
Political Participation	2.756	Moderate	2.925	Moderate	2.926	Moderate
AVERAGE	2.963	Moderate	3.100	Moderate	3.082	Moderate

Source: Fieldwork 2010-2011

As expected, full participation in the projects, both the village fund and OTOP tourism product development initiatives required more social participation among the members of this group. The data shows higher scores on all items compared to the other groups. The data shows no significant difference in social asset improvements difference from village fund and OTOP participation, suggesting both projects had the same level of impact on factors related to improvements in social assets.

However, data from the interview revealed that there were also cases where the tourism livelihood development projects had caused conflicts among project participants. It was learned that conflict and its management depended very much on the group leaders. A good leader would bring success to the project and share benefits fairly. Therefore, the impact that PPT had on the interaction among community members depended on the members themselves and how they handled and managed the project.

The projects that encouraged the participation of all the villagers, whatever their level of involvement. Had Bai villagers had infused their already tight ethnic social structure with an institutionalised process requiring them to learn to manage the project together which lead to an improvement in the social assets of a community.

7.2.3 PPT Impact on Personal Assets

Although this asset was not explicitly assessed in previous rounds of interviews, it was collected in the quantitative assessment to complete the five categories required in assessing the DFID vulnerability context (Ferguson and Murray 2001) following the framework illustrated in Figure3-. This category is substituted by the natural assets in DFID (2000) SL framework. Impact on natural assets will be discussed at the next category, hence discussion of personal assets lacks the qualitative support available in the analysis of the other SLE categories presented in this study.

Table 7.13 PPT Impact on Personal Assets in Group 1

Group 1 PERSONAL ASSETS						
	1998		2001		2011	
	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement
Motivation	2.416	Slight	2.722	Moderate	2.733	Moderate
Self-Esteem	2.885	Moderate	2.972	Moderate	2.866	Moderate
Self-Confidence	3.055	Moderate	3.083	Moderate	3.066	Moderate
Self-Perception	3.111	Moderate	3.032	Moderate	2.833	Moderate
Emotional well-being	3.083	Moderate	2.967	Moderate	2.933	Moderate
Assertiveness	2.722	Moderate	2.833	Moderate	2.967	Moderate
Spirituality	2.638	Moderate	2.444	Slight	2.566	Moderate
AVERAGE	2.844	Moderate	2.848	Moderate	2.852	Moderate

Source: Fieldwork 2010-2011

Personal assets in Group 1 showed moderate improvements. Although this group did not directly participate in the PPT projects, results show that their personal assets also moderately improved. The data showed that there were no substantial differences in personal assets improvement during village fund and OTOP tourism development initiatives. It could be noted that motivation in this group was lower during the village fund for village tourism project development. Over time the moderate level of improvement is also sustained.

Table 7.14 PPT Impact on Personal Assets in Group 2

GROUP 2 PERSONAL ASSETS						
	1998		2001		2011	
	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement
Motivation	2.345	Slight	2.347	Slight	2.689	Moderate
Self-Esteem	3.161	Moderate	3.103	Moderate	3.266	Moderate
Self-Confidence	3.212	Moderate	3.097	Moderate	3.281	Moderate
Self-Perception	2.788	Moderate	2.875	Moderate	3.060	Moderate
Emotional well-being	3.065	Moderate	3.067	Moderate	3.161	Moderate
Assertiveness	2.783	Moderate	2.808	Moderate	2.740	Moderate
Spirituality	2.375	Slight	2.391	Slight	2.680	Moderate
AVERAGE	2.819	Moderate	2.814	Moderate	2.982	Moderate

Source: Fieldwork 2010-2011

Data from Group 2 revealed that improvements in personal assets were slightly lower than Group 1 although both were on the same level of improvement. Financial pressures to pay debts may help explain lower scores in motivation and from both the village fund and OTOP projects. Spirituality also scored lower in both projects. Self-confidence and self-esteem however, remained the highest scored subcategory.

After participating in both projects, money used to purchase electronic goods and other symbols of affluence like motorcycles or cars may have played a role in the higher scores in this subcategory. Overall, both projects had moderate improvement in personal assets. These moderate improvements were also sustained over time.

The data showed that PPT initiatives in Had Bai Village had resulted in moderate improvements in the personal assets of villagers who made loans even though they did not fully participate in the tourism products improvement programmes in the village funds and the OTOP scheme.

Table 7.15 PPT Impact on Personal Assets in Group 3

GROUP 3 PERSONAL ASSETS						
	1998		2001		2011	
	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement
Motivation	2.871	Moderate	3.948	Improved	3.044	Moderate
Self-Esteem	3.384	Moderate	3.416	Improved	3.463	Improved
Self-Confidence	3.410	Improved	3.550	Improved	3.475	Improved
Self-Perception	2.263	Slight	3.317	Moderate	3.243	Moderate
Emotional well-being	3.461	Improved	3.414	Improved	3.341	Moderate
Assertiveness	3.435	Improved	3.536	Improved	3.512	Improved
Spirituality	2.972	Moderate	3.036	Improved	2.921	Moderate
AVERAGE	3.114	Moderate	3.460	Improved	3.286	Moderate

Source: Fieldwork 2010-2011

As expected, data from the results of personal assets in the group that made loans and invested the money in product development and services for the village tourism initiative showed the highest personal asset improvement compared to the other two groups. The data clearly showed significant improvement in personal assets for participating in OTOP compared to the village funds. As a process, more technical support was given during the OTOP project compared to the village fund. Aside from technical assistance, the yearly OTOP fair also provided villagers with pride in showcasing the development and preservation of their culture. Over time, improvements in self-esteem, self-confidence, and assertiveness were sustained. The data clearly shows that both pro-poor initiatives improved the personal assets of members in this group.

Data from the assessment of personal assets revealed that the degree of improvements corresponded to the level of participation. Although villagers from the three groups perceived moderate improvements from the Pro-Poor Tourism initiatives, the villagers who participated more scored higher than those who did not participate or those who did not participate completely. The data showed the OTOP Pro-Poor Tourism initiatives significantly improved the personal assets of villagers who fully participated in the project.

7.2.4 PPT Impact on Physical Assets

The positive impact that PPT can have on the physical capital of a community is usually the improvement in infrastructure, especially if it involves the promotion of tourism. This

can be the construction of roads, the supply of electricity and water, and the improvement of the sewage system. However, according to the information obtained from the interviews, the impact of PPT projects on the physical environment of the community tended to be an ecological one. This may be because the OTOP project did not put emphasis on the development of infrastructure but on human capital as explained by the interviewee.

PPT literature revealed that improvements in infrastructure can be a good result of Pro-Poor Tourism initiatives. At Manyeleti Game reserve, road and water access for local communities is improved (Mahony and VanZyl, 2001). At Wilderness Safari the extension of water and electricity to tourist lodges also serves people in the community (Poultney and Spenceley, 2001). However, noise, cleanliness and the provision of adequate bathroom facilities are also identified as specific problems (Nicanor, 2001). Thus, helping community enterprises to achieve adequate levels of quality is a challenge.

The PPT initiative to develop tourist products as in the case of the OTOP project involved a larger scale of production of goods which created more garbage and waste water in the community. Sometimes chemicals were used in the production process which gave off unpleasant smell and could be hazardous to the environment. For example, in one community where project participants engaged in cloth dyeing activities, underground water was contaminated by the dyes that were left on the ground. In some communities, people worked together to keep their environment clean; but in others these wastes might not be disposed of properly and could create problems.

Physical capital is extremely important to the success of PPT. The villagers all said that PPT was one factor leading to a wider and better road to the village which reduced the travelling time and gave an option to visiting tourists not wanting to come by long tail boat via the Mekong River. However, there is no proper signage giving directions to the village, and villagers said the construction of the new road had caused confusion for some tourists.

“My friend came over from another village to visit me, and I had cooked several kinds of food to serve them. I waited and waited and they called the head man later in the evening to say they drove past Had Bai Village because the new road had changed the

view and there was no sign pointing the direction to Had Bai. Even local people cannot find this village, so how can the tourists come to us?" (Anonymous 2010a)

"I was upset about the new physical structure very much. The new road looks so confusing and there is no sign or direction where to go to our village. I remember when my son got married only half of the guests came because the rest were confused and couldn't find the village. It takes another one hour to come back if you miss the entrance." (Anonymous 2010d)

"It is good to have a new road. However the road just passes the entrance of the village. It is very confusing and not practical for visitors to turn left immediately and off the new road to the same old gravel road" (Anonymous 2010e)

In cases where a community offered or built a place to welcome tourists, good management was required to regulate the flow of people who would visit the village so as not to disrupt the locals' way of life or cause damage to the environment. Some officers recommended changes be made to the physical environment of a community to provide tourist facilities. For example, every village with OTOP tourism had to arrange a meeting place for tourists, build parking lots for tourist coaches and separate restrooms for men and women, and an outlet for its OTOP products.

Data from the interviews revealed that the OTOP project could put a strain on the physical environment of a community as its members produced more or when more tourists visited. However, this negative impact could be avoided with proper knowledge and good management.

Data from the quantitative assessment revealed that there were indeed moderate improvements in the physical assets resulting from the PPT initiatives. Improvements in physical assets assessed included child/elderly care, security of shelter, affordability of energy, information, access to banking services, access to basic consumer needs, transportation, tools and equipment, natural resources, and air and water quality.

Results from the assessment indicated slight variation in levels of improvement and specific to each subcategory as well. Although the improvements in physical assets were primarily directed to support the villagers participating in the PPT initiatives, the impact

was not exclusive to any group. Improvements in infrastructure benefited everybody in the village regardless of their level of participation.

Results showed that even the villagers who did not participate in any of the PPT initiatives noticed moderate improvements in their physical assets. As shown in Table 7.16, villagers in this group, although indirectly benefiting from the developments supporting the PPT initiatives, agreed that PPT had moderately improved physical assets.

Table 7.16 PPT Impact on Physical Assets in Group 1

Group 1 PHYSICAL ASSETS						
	1998		2001		2011	
	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement
Child/Elder Care	3.382	Moderate	3.333	Moderate	2.866	Moderate
Secure Shelter	3.542	Improved	3.225	Moderate	3.129	Moderate
Clean Affordable Energy	3.114	Moderate	2.838	Moderate	2.645	Moderate
Information	2.571	Slight	2.709	Moderate	2.548	Slight
Banking and access to Related Services	2.647	Moderate	2.766	Moderate	2.566	Slight
Basic consumer needs eg. Local grocery store and other services	2.705	Moderate	2.666	Moderate	2.833	Moderate
Affordable Transportation	2.636	Moderate	2.633	Moderate	2.612	Moderate
Tools and Equipment	2.647	Moderate	2.689	Moderate	2.838	Moderate
Natural Resources	2.685	Moderate	2.774	Moderate	2.870	Moderate
Air and Water Quality	2.685	Moderate	2.741	Moderate	2.806	Moderate
AVERAGE	2.870	Moderate	2.837	Moderate	2.771	Moderate

Source: Fieldwork 2010-2011

Data from Group 1 showed that assets was the least improved among the subcategories during the village fund initiative. Villagers in this group are farmers, and are the poorest in the village. While this group can be regarded as the target group in both initiatives, the information regarding both projects failed to reach them. The findings validate the significantly lower improvements of information and banking access subcategories.

This group however ranked child/elder care and secure shelter slightly higher than the other categories. This group also ranked secure housing to be significantly improved after the village fund initiatives. There was increased opportunity to work on farms available for

rent by those villagers who no longer had time for farm work as a consequence of their partial or full involvement in the PPT projects.

Table 7.17 PPT Impact on Physical Assets in Group 2

GROUP 2 PHYSICAL ASSETS						
	1998		2001		2011	
	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement
Child/Elder Care	3.115	Moderate	3.304	Moderate	3.083	Moderate
Secure Shelter	3.133	Moderate	3.107	Moderate	3.310	Moderate
Clean Affordable Energy	3.242	Moderate	2.968	Moderate	3.312	Moderate
Information	2.462	Slight	2.636	Moderate	2.833	Moderate
Banking and access to Related Services	2.520	Slight	2.826	Moderate	3.125	Moderate
Basic consumer needs and other services	2.538	Slight	2.913	Moderate	2.916	Moderate
Affordable Transportation	2.742	Moderate	2.759	Moderate	2.838	Moderate
Tools and Equipment	2.844	Moderate	2.710	Moderate	3.125	Moderate
Natural Resources	2.938	Moderate	2.871	Moderate	3.187	Moderate
Air and Water Quality	2.938	Moderate	2.875	Moderate	3.031	Moderate
AVERAGE	2.850	Moderate	2.897	Moderate	3.076	Moderate

Data from Group 2 also revealed moderate improvements from the PPT initiative. As shown in Table 7.17, villagers in this group similarly considered child/elder care and secure shelter slightly better than the other subcategories. However, this group scored basic banking access and availability of basic consumer needs significantly lower than the other subcategories, during the village fund project. It could be an indication that most of the villagers in this group were unable to acquire loans during the village fund initiatives, but did so during the OTOP project. Overall both projects had moderate improvements in the physical assets of villagers in this group. These moderate improvements were also sustained over time. The data shows that even without full participation, the PPT initiative moderately improved the physical assets of villagers in this group.

Data from the assessment of PPT impact on the villagers who had full participation in the initiatives revealed that there were also moderate improvements in physical assets. However, as shown in Table 7.18, villagers in this group scored the improvements significantly higher than the other groups.

Table 7.18 PPT Impact on Physical Assets in Group 3

GROUP 3 PHYSICAL ASSETS						
	1998		2001		2011	
	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement
Child/Elder Care	3.435	Improved	3.585	Improved	3.609	Improved
Secure Shelter	3.666	Improved	3.756	Improved	3.682	Improved
Clean Affordable Energy	3.342	Moderate	3.390	Moderate	3.365	Moderate
Information	3.205	Moderate	3.225	Moderate	3.100	Moderate
Banking and access to Related Services	3.125	Moderate	3.272	Moderate	3.303	Moderate
Basic consumer needs eg. Local grocery store and other services	3.354	Moderate	3.406	Improved	3.281	Moderate
Affordable Transportation	2.701	Moderate	2.878	Moderate	2.780	Moderate
Tools and Equipment	2.641	Moderate	2.804	Moderate	2.951	Moderate
Natural Resources	3.358	Moderate	3.268	Moderate	3.390	Moderate
Air and Water Quality	3.384	Moderate	3.100	Moderate	3.365	Moderate
AVERAGE	3.221	Moderate	3.268	Moderate	3.283	Moderate

Source: Fieldwork 2010-2011

Results from the assessment on physical assets of villagers who fully participated in the tourism products and services development showed that PPT significantly improved child/elder care and home security during both the village fund and OTOP initiatives. The improvement was also sustained over time. Availability of basic consumer services also significantly improved after the OTOP projects. The data revealed that cheaper transportation and better tools and equipment were the subcategories that concerned this group. Improvement to these concerned could significantly lead to further improvements in the physical assets for the villagers in this group.

The quantitative assessment on the physical assets among the villagers in each group similarly revealed that PPT moderately improved physical assets. The level of improvement was found to be slightly varied according to level of participation in the PPT projects. In Group 1 and Group 2, villagers who did not know nor participate in any of the

programmes indirectly benefited from the improvements of physical infrastructure primarily intended to support the PPT initiatives.

In Group 3, villagers who fully participated in the project revealed significant improvements in some subcategories, moreover, data indicated that even slight improvement in transportation, tools and equipment could significantly improve the impact on the overall physical assets.

7.2.5 PPT Impact on Human Assets

All PPT case studies note positive impacts on human capital in enhanced skills through tourism-related vocational training and development of business and organizational skills. Poor young students receive funding from local schools, either through company donations (Braman, 2001; Poultney and Spenceley, 2001) or from expenditure of community income(Nicanor, 2001). If the community did not take up Pro-Poor Tourism, they would have to wait for decades for many of these benefits to come to their location.

In Thailand's case, most government officials who were interviewed agreed that one of the most obvious changes brought about by PPT initiatives like the village fund to support village tourism and OTOP project to develop tourism products and service in Had Bai Village, was the impact on the knowledge and skills of the people who participated. The very concept of the tourism products and services development, as in the OTOP project, was to make use of traditional knowledge that people in the rural area inherited from generation to generation to produce goods in a manner that could provide them with additional sustainable income.

Since the rural people did not have experience in business production, the government, therefore, had to provide knowledge and training to the people not only in production, but also in packaging, marketing and financial management to enable them to participate effectively in the project. Several government agencies were involved in organizing training according to their respective expertise. For example, the Ministry of Commerce provided training on how to improve the quality of OTOP products that suited market demands and with a focus on value creation. The SME Bank gave training on financial disciplines and management.

More importantly, the OTOP project had taught the people the learning process which could be applied to any new situation. The impact of the training on project participants was described by an Officer from the Community Development Department, the Ministry of Interior:

“Villagers have developed knowledge in the production of OTOP goods. For example, in one village many households may produce the same kind of product. Villagers learned that if they did not make their products different from the others, they would not be able to sell them. This led them to become more creative in making their products more unique to make them more competitive...Some villagers were keen to attend training courses at their own expense...because they knew the more they learned, the better the chance to develop their products.” (Anonymous 2005o)

In general, officials thought that the people had gained knowledge from training courses organised by various government departments. As they brought such knowledge to practice, they developed production, marketing and organizational skills. They also learned to share experiences among themselves which further enhanced their knowledge. Some interviewees thought that the OTOP project had helped preserve traditional knowledge. The elderly people in a household would teach the younger generation members how to use traditional knowledge in producing OTOP products, such as dyeing techniques using natural materials. Some communities continued to make certain traditional products, such as the paper parasol of ChiangMaiProvince, because they drew tourists to their village. Today, the paper parasol can be replaced by other modern products. Without the OTOP project, such traditional industry might have disappeared.

The PPT project had also resulted in a better use of the rural workforce. Villagers were taught to produce things they were adept with, usually some kind of handicraft and labour-intensive products. They were also advised that they should try to make different products to avoid competition. One villager said:

“Women were given vocational training in their free time after they finished work on the farm. This was a much more effective way to spend free time for some women who would otherwise engage in unproductive activities like drinking alcohol and playing cards.” (Anonymous 2010d)

From the interviews with government officials on the impact of the OTOP project on human capital, it could be said that an introduction of new knowledge and skills was an important factor that enabled project participants to take on activities other than their traditional occupation of farming, thus contributing significantly to livelihood diversification. From the villagers' point of view, the skills acquired from the project enhanced human capital. The cash earned could be invested in improving the education and health of people in the village. The PPT initiative did not develop complimentary skills or a market for agricultural activities. The project design did not encourage mutual learning and adjustment by the local people and local government. What the villagers need most is the market to sell the products and marketing knowledge provided by the government.

Results from the quantitative assessment validated data collected from the in- depth interviews and focus groups. The data, however, showed varying levels of improvements corresponding to the villagers' level of involvement in the projects. Moreover, this category showed the highest level of improvements among the other categories and also more significantly improved subcategories.

Data revealed that villagers who did not participate in the PPT initiative also perceived moderate improvements in human assets although they were not directly involved in any of the projects. As shown in

Table 7.19, human assets were moderately improved.

Table 7.19 PPT Impact on Human Assets in Group 1

Group 1 HUMAN ASSETS						
	1998		2001		2011	
	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement
Skills (including technical & interpersonal)	2.617	Moderate	2.733	Moderate	2.916	Moderate
Knowledge	2.657	Moderate	2.741	Moderate	2.935	Moderate
Ability	2.771	Moderate	2.903	Moderate	2.967	Moderate
Employability and earning power	2.914	Moderate	2.935	Moderate	3.161	Moderate
Good Health	3.428	Improved	3.516	Improved	3.580	Improved
Leadership	3.205	Improved	3.166	Moderate	3.233	Moderate
AVERAGE	2.932	Moderate	3.017	Moderate	3.130	Moderate

Source: Fieldwork 2010-2011

Data from PPT impact on the human assets in Group 1 showed that human assets was the most developed category compared to the other assets assessed. Health was shown to have significantly improved during the village fund and OTOP projects, and was sustained over time. Leadership also significantly improved during the village tourism development and village fund projects and retained high scores although slightly reduced to a moderate rank. Results however indicated that knowledge was the least improved among the subcategories. This result indicates that involvement in knowledge and skills and training programmes focused on developing the abilities of villagers in this group, can significantly increase the overall level of improvements in this category.

Table 7.20 PPT Impact on Human Assets in Group 2

GROUP 2 HUMAN ASSETS						
	1998		2001		2011	
	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement
Skills (including technical & interpersonal)	2.552	Slight	2.840	Moderate	2.807	Moderate
Knowledge	2.697	Moderate	2.645	Moderate	2.937	Moderate
Ability	2.848	Moderate	2.677	Moderate	3.032	Moderate
Employability and earning power	2.533	Slight	2.593	Slight	3.034	Moderate
Good Health	3.235	Moderate	3.344	Moderate	3.606	Improved
Leadership	3.061	Moderate	3.065	Moderate	3.348	Moderate
AVERAGE	2.821	Moderate	2.861	Moderate	3.127	Moderate

Source: Fieldwork 2010-2011

Data from Group 2 similarly revealed moderate improvements in human assets; however, a number of subcategories scored lower than Group 1. As shown in Table 7.20, villagers who had only partial involvement in the PPT initiatives, ranked improvements in human assets slightly lower than Group 1 after the village fund and OTOP projects.

Data on PPT impact on human assets among the villagers who did not participate fully in the PPT programmes ranked skills and employability significantly lower than the other subcategories during the village fund initiatives. Employability and earning power might have been perceived low as they tried hard to increase their income to repay the loans they acquired during the programmes. The data showed that their employability did not also improve during the OTOP projects. There was however, significant improvement in health. The data shows the overall perceptions in this group was that human assets improved moderately after the PPT initiatives and were sustained over time.

Data from the villagers who fully participated in the PPT initiatives however, showed significant improvements in human assets. As shown in Table 7.21, Group 1 showed significant improvements in abilities, health and leadership.

Table 7.21 PPT Impact on Human Assets in Group 3

GROUP 3 HUMAN ASSETS						
	1998	2001		2011		
	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement	Mean	Improvement
Skills (including technical & interpersonal)	3.028	Moderate	3.108	Moderate	3.09	Moderate
Knowledge	3.128	Moderate	3.219	Moderate	3.122	Moderate
Ability	3.394	Moderate	3.92	Improved	3.414	Improved
Employability and earning power	3.256	Moderate	3.195	Moderate	3.25	Moderate
Good Health	3.81	Improved	3.78	Improved	3.85	Improved
Leadership	3.684	Improved	3.756	Improved	3.75	Improved
AVERAGE	3.383	Moderate	3.496	Improved	3.413	Improved

Source: Fieldwork 2010-2011

Data showed that villagers in this group have benefited greatly from the PPT initiatives. Almost all subcategories scored high, indicating significant improvements in human assets while participating in both projects. Among all categories tested, human assets was the most significantly improved in this group.

This result validates the data collected from interviews; the PPT projects had indeed improved human assets of villagers in this group.

The analysis of PPT impact on assets revealed that improvements to assets correspond to the level of involvement in the projects. Villagers who fully participated in the tourism products development programmes revealed more improved assets than those villagers who did not and those who had only partial participation. It is interesting to note however that in some subcategories, those who did not participate had perceived slightly better improvements than those who partially participated.

When comparing the effectiveness of the two tourism product and service development projects in the village, the data reveals that the OTOP project is more effective in improving the villager's assets. On the analysis of effects over time, the data showed that the effects were sustained. The data therefore, conclusively demonstrated that the PPT initiatives had indeed resulted in some slight and moderate improvements in some categories. Comparison of subcategories in each category, however, shows an entirely different profile. There were actually some subcategories that were shown to have significantly improved, analysis of subcategories indicating leverage points that could be used to effectively increase improvements in each asset. Overall, the data clearly demonstrated that the SL approach can be a very useful tool, not only to assess the effectiveness of PPT programmes but also to point the way for improving these programmes.

As previously discussed, the impacts on natural assets were not assessed quantitatively. This category was only a subcategory in the physical asset category. However, in the recent adaptations of the SL approach framework, it has been made to replace the physical category entirely. Natural assets and Physical assets could be integrated into the framework as separate entities, since both are significant and important indicators of sustainability. In the following section, findings from the qualitative data will be used to determine how PPT programmes affected the natural assets in Had Bai Village.

7.2.6 PPT Impact on Natural Capital

The impact of PPT projects on the natural resources can be positive or negative depending on whether the villagers know how to manage these resources. The impact of Pro-Poor Tourism initiatives on the natural resources of the poor appears to have been relatively small. In most of the literature, tourism is linked with good management of the land, coast and other natural resources. Tourism has therefore provided incentives for conservation activities, including lobbying against degrading industries i.e. oil exploration in the Amazon (Braman, 2001).

The concept of PPT in Thailand was the utilization of local resources and know-how for the production of goods or services by the community to create employment and increase income for rural people.

With the introduction of tourism product development into a local community, people learned to use materials found in their village to produce goods. Some communities offered places of attraction for visiting tourists. All of the officials who gave their views on this issue said the PPT projects with supporting livelihood development initiatives, had led to greater use of natural resources to increase income. Some communities came to recognise the value of their resources and moved to protect and conserve them, as an officer from the Bureau of Farmers Development, Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives said:

“OTOP products use natural resources in the community as raw materials. Villagers who participated in the project need to increase production, both in terms of quantity and quality. As they need more raw materials, they have to grow more trees and plants used in making OTOP products. They also take good care of what they grow to ensure that they have good materials to produce quality products. Let’s take the case of the production of “sa” paper in Chiang Mai’s OTOP as an example. To make “sa” paper, villagers have to cut down “sa” trees in the community and use them as raw materials. As they increase their production, they see that “sa” trees in their community are fast depleting. They have become aware that without growing more “sa” trees, they will be left without any raw materials for their production. This also happens to villagers whose products use herbal plants as raw materials.” (Anonymous 2005o)

There was concern from officers that some communities might not be aware that excessive use of natural resources without any effort to protect them could be unsustainable. The exploitation of natural resources without a sense of responsibility may create more wealth for the project participants in the short-term. But in the long run, the community would stand to lose as the natural resources depleted. There was a case where trees were cut down in a wide area because villagers wanted to grow the plants used to make “*Mak Mao*” wine.

In the case of cultural tourism where the natural resources of a community are the “product” that attracts tourists or where villagers offer opportunities for tourists to experience their traditional way of life which is usually related to agriculture with Homestay type accommodation, also known as “agro-tourism.”

An official from the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives thought that so far the villagers were able to preserve the natural endowment in their locality in part because “agro-tourism” is not mainstream but is an alternative tourism not involving large numbers of tourists. This type of tourism thus does not put much strain on the natural resources and the small number of tourists is within the capacity of a community to manage.

The author’s work after joining the Tourism Ministry promoted **Homestays** certified by the Ministry of Tourism and Sports of Thailand in 2012. The Department of Tourism, Ministry of Tourism and Sports has been developing the Homestay Standard since 2004. In 2014, there were 143 homestays nationwide awarded the standard certificate from the Department of Tourism. The program aims to utilize the country’s cultural centres, promote social values and increase economic value added by making use of traditional ways of life, art and culture along with local wisdom to create careers, special products as well as services which eventually lead to the improvement of local livelihood and income. Communities nationwide can participate by developing their neighbourhood and open their houses to welcome tourists. This allows tourists to learn about Thai local cultures in different parts of the country and experience local activities. Thai homestays refers to a form of tourism that allows visitors to rent a room from a local family.

According to the Hotel Act 2004, the definition of Thailand Homestay Standard is an accommodation not exceeded more than four rooms with a total capacity of maximum 20 guests, operating as small business which provide additional source of income for the owner and is registered with the Department of Tourism. This program promote accommodations and OTOP in local area and hence leading to an improve of livelihood of the poor.

A host family typically charges 7-10 pounds per tourist per night; this includes three meals and up to five tourists to a room on local-style bedding. A detailed analysis of the food provided, its sources and preparation revealed that a host family spend an average 30 pounds a month on food supplies (DOT, 2013). This monthly cost will cover an average about 4-5 visitors in a month. The homestay host will typically serve as tourist guide to guests. Guide and transport fees are not fixed, will usually be negotiated, but are normally 2-3 pounds per tourist per trip. On the assumed basis of 10 homestay visits in a month, a homestay provider can anticipate revenue of 70-100 pounds for bedding and meals (depends on the numbers of tourists in each visit) and around 20-30 pounds for guiding.

Interview with the vendor or local market, cultural performance for tourists, minibuses, owned by villagers during the visit founded that foods and products and services are noticeably flow very well while having visitors. Moreover the food and products used for welcome visitors are obtained locally. Thus, although the allocation of tourists among households was reported only a small number of households that actively participate in the program, but the distribution of overall livelihood assets is well spread to everyone in some way.

Despite its growing importance to the domestic tourism market in Thailand, To promote Homestay as PPT, LT or a tool to reduce poverty is still doubted. Oranratmanee, 2009 debate about homestay village being vulnerable to the impacts of rural tourism. Although the villagers allow the use of a rural home for economic purposes and for the well-being of the family, there are social and cultural distinctions.

Strong relationships were found between the spatial characteristics of rural houses and the social interactions produced in them. However, the characteristics of the space and the hospitality of the people ease the establishment and implementation of homestay program launched by Department of Tourism.

Churyen and Duangsaeng²⁰¹⁵, argues that success in the context of homestay tourism is a double-edged sword, because even when communities succeed in operating a homestay program, this success comes at the price of diminished authenticity, greater dependence on tourism, and enhanced social and economic inequalities. Knowing such challenges, rural communities seem to continue to respond to tourist demand for novelty by commercializing their homes and offering homestay experiences that deliver rural livelihood to the guests.

In Had Bai Village, preservation and restoration is a concern for everyone. Moreover, the weaving activity did not cause much harm to the natural resources in the village. Thus, most villagers, both those who participated and those who did not participate in the project are positively confident the natural resources are used sustainably. On the whole, as the PPT projects in Had Bai sought to use natural capital in the community to create employment and income for the people, it is thus suggested that the government should impart knowledge on sustainable use of natural resources to the people and make it a requirement for the implementation of a tourism product development project in the community. This is to ensure that these natural assets are well maintained and can always be used to support the livelihood of people in the community.

In conclusion, the PPT initiative had some positive impact on the livelihood diversification of the rural people in Had Bai Village. It did not seek to change the way of life of the people but aimed to create more employment opportunities that complement their main occupation of farming. The project has provided a source of supplementary income for the people and helped reduce their hardship. PPT initiatives in Had Bai had improved some assets of the villagers. Some villagers might have been more successful than others. Success depended on the interest and level of participation from the participants themselves.

While the Pro-Poor Tourism products development projects contributed to new streams of income, the fair distribution of capital resources and opportunity remain doubtful. The villagers already viewed that the resources and opportunity had been unfairly distributed. Investors with funding appear to have more opportunity to sell their products or attend the fairs in Bangkok, which is considered much better market access than for those who stay in the village. The access to financing as well as training in related skills also favours investors or villagers with collateral. On the other hand, the poorest, especially landless villagers, have little opportunity to access these benefits. They have to focus on their work in order to pay their rent, and work as extra labour on other's fields, leaving them no time to enjoy any benefits from the Pro-Poor project.

Knowing the cause of poverty and reasons that the villagers who did not participate in OTOP were the poorest group, will address how to design a better PPT policy in future.

Picture 7.1 Local shop in Had Bai
Picture 7.2 The village's only water pump



CHAPTER 8

PPT Impact on the Vulnerability of the Poor

Vulnerability involves a combination of factors that determine the degree to which someone's life and livelihood is put at risk by a discrete event in nature or in society (Blaikie, Cannon, Davis and Wisner, 1994). This chapter attempts to answer the third sub-research question-**To what extent has Pro-poor Tourism reduced the vulnerability of the rural poor?**

In analysing if and how pro-poor tourism helps reduce people's vulnerability, we need to examine if the diversification of livelihood brought about by PPT can be sustained in the long run, how the livelihood diversification impact on their assets, and how PPT impact on the people's ability to cope with change. This chapter will address these questions by presenting and analysing the results of both the qualitative and quantitative data collected in this study. The objective of this chapter is to assess the impact of the Pro-poor Tourism programme on the livelihood in terms of risk and vulnerability reduction, in other words; to what extent has Pro-poor Tourism reduced vulnerability in Had Bai village.

This chapter is divided into two parts. Part one will present the quantitative level of vulnerability, it is a discussion and analysis of the data collected using the SLA assessment. This part presents the levels of vulnerability among the villagers in the three groups studied. The vulnerability context for each group was determined by comparing the levels of improvements in the livelihood assets resulting the PPT development programmes and livelihood strategies affected livelihood outcomes. Both PPT initiatives were compared by assessing their effectiveness in reducing the vulnerability on each group.

Part two aims to discuss the drivers of vulnerability. The results, derived mainly from the qualitative data, support the discussion on the main drivers of vulnerability and how Pro-poor Tourism initiatives in Had Bai affected the villager's vulnerability.

8.1 Levels of Vulnerability in Had Bai after PPT programmes

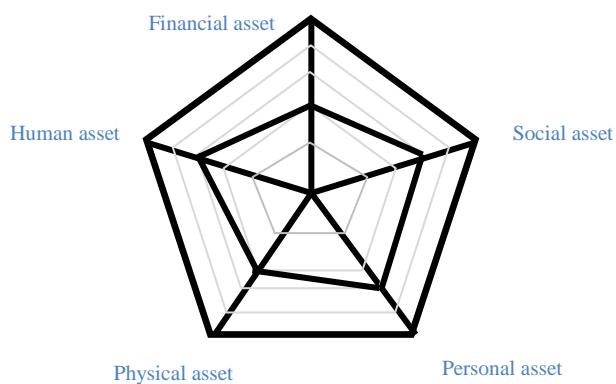
The presentation on the analysis of the levels of vulnerability after PPT utilised the data from the impact that PPT livelihood diversification initiatives had on the assets. Significant improvements on the livelihood assets resulting in improved livelihood outcomes indicated decrease in vulnerability. The data will be presented using the summary of the data in the previous chapter. The results were plotted on a pentagon to graphically present the livelihood outcomes that both initiatives had on each asset.

Data from the summary of the livelihood outcomes revealed that the PPT initiatives had only resulted in a slight decrease in vulnerability of villagers in the groups. Looking at each asset, however, reveals that there were differences among the groups. Comparison of levels of vulnerability after the Village Base Tourism and OTOP also showed slight differences among the groups. The data revealed that the impact on vulnerability corresponded to the level of participation. The results showed that villagers on group 3 who had full participation were slightly less vulnerable than the other villagers who had no participation or those who had only partially participated in the initiatives.

8.1.1 Vulnerability in Group 1

The data on the impact of PPT on livelihood outcomes revealed slight decrease in vulnerability in Group 1. Although villagers in this group did not participate in the PPT programmes, results showed that they also benefited indirectly from the programmes.

Figure 8-1 Group 1 Livelihood Outcomes



The livelihood outcomes of Group 1 were slightly improved by the PPT programmes. As shown in Figure 8-1, the livelihood slightly improved the villagers' social, personal, physical and human assets. The results showed that, since this group had not participated in any of the programmes, there were almost no improvements in financial outcomes. The results plotted on the graph showed that financial and physical assets were the least improved or showed the least improvements after the livelihood development programmes. The results show that although the villagers in this group did not participate in any of the programmes, improvements in personal, physical and human assets may have resulted from indirect benefits from the programmes. The graph shows that the programme outcomes in the physical and human assets from the livelihood development programmes were the most improved assets. The results show that, although the PPT programmes were aimed at improving livelihood outcomes for this group, villagers in this group, being those who are the poorest in the village, failed to participate in the livelihood development programmes. However, even though the programme failed involving the poorest villagers in this group, the data showed that, the PPT initiatives had slightly improved livelihood outcomes through indirect benefits.

The vulnerability context is measured from the impact of livelihood development programmes on the livelihood outcomes. In this study, the livelihood development strategies assessed were the VBT and OTOP programmes initiated to support the village tourism policy. As shown in Table 8.1, villagers in this group were still slightly vulnerable after the PPT programmes.

Table 8.1 PPT impact on the Vulnerability of Group 1

GROUP 1						
	1998		2001		2011	
	Mean	Vulnerability	Mean	Vulnerability	Mean	Vulnerability
FINANCIAL ASSETS	2.302	Vulnerable	2.319	Vulnerable	2.464	Vulnerable
SOCIAL ASSETS	2.665	Slightly Vulnerable	2.759	Slightly Vulnerable	2.766	Slightly Vulnerable
PERSONAL ASSETS	2.844	Slightly Vulnerable	2.848	Slightly Vulnerable	2.852	Slightly Vulnerable
PHYSICAL ASSETS	2.870	Slightly Vulnerable	2.837	Slightly Vulnerable	2.771	Slightly Vulnerable
HUMAN ASSETS	2.932	Slightly Vulnerable	3.017	Slightly Vulnerable	3.130	Slightly Vulnerable
AVERAGE	2.722	Slightly Vulnerable	2.756	Slightly Vulnerable	2.770	Slightly Vulnerable

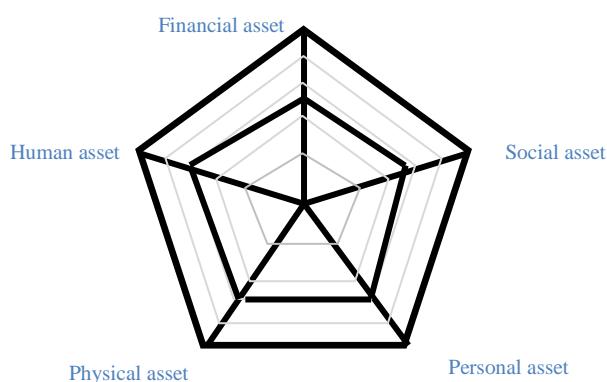
Source: Fieldwork 2010-2011

Data on the vulnerability on Group 1 showed that villagers in this group were financially vulnerable after both programmes. The results showed that the village fund and the OTOP livelihood development programmes in 1994 and 2002 respectively, failed to improve financial vulnerability of villagers in this group. As previously mentioned, the villagers in this group did not participate in any of the programmes. Although, villagers in this group did not directly participate in the programmes, they have benefited indirectly from working on farms that were freed for rent by the villagers who fully participated in the programmes. Although the additional work on more farm lands failed to significantly improve financial vulnerability and financial outcomes in this group, the additional income from the additional work may have contributed to slightly decreasing vulnerability in the other categories. The results show that, although the PPT initiatives failed involving villagers in this group, vulnerability was slightly decreased through indirect benefits from the programmes.

8.1.2 Vulnerability in Group 2

Data on the impact of PPT on the vulnerability of group 2 revealed that vulnerability slightly decreased after the livelihood development programmes. Results showed that, although the villagers in this group had partially participated in the livelihood development programmes, their partial participation failed to significant decrease vulnerability.

Figure 8-2 Group 2 Livelihood Outcomes



Results from the assessment revealed that livelihood outcomes from Group 2 were not so different from Group 1. The plot on the diagram, as shown in

Figure 8-2, reveals a profile very similar to Figure 8-1. The results showed that, livelihood outcomes for this group who had partially participated in the programmes were not so different from the group that did not participate in any of the livelihood development programmes. The plot shows that the PPT livelihood programmes impact outcomes on personal, physical and human assets more than the financial and social assets.

Data on the impact of PPT on the vulnerability of group B revealed that partial participation resulted in slight decreases in vulnerability. As shown in Table 8.2, PPT's impact on the vulnerability in group that had partially participated in the livelihood development programmes shows results that are not so different from those in the group that did not participate in any of the programmes.

Table 8.2 PPT impact on the Vulnerability of Group 2

GROUP 2						
	1994		2002		2011	
	Mean	Vulnerability	Mean	Vulnerability	Mean	Vulnerability
FINANCIAL ASSETS	2.345	Vulnerable	2.532	Vulnerable	2.533	Vulnerable
SOCIAL ASSETS	2.623	Slightly Vulnerable	2.638	Slightly Vulnerable	2.733	Slightly Vulnerable
PERSONAL ASSETS	2.819	Slightly Vulnerable	2.819	Slightly Vulnerable	2.982	Slightly Vulnerable
PHYSICAL ASSETS	2.850	Slightly Vulnerable	2.897	Slightly Vulnerable	3.076	Slightly Vulnerable
HUMAN ASSETS	2.821	Slightly Vulnerable	2.861	Slightly Vulnerable	3.127	Slightly Vulnerable
AVERAGE	2.691	Slightly Vulnerable	2.749	Slightly Vulnerable	2.890	Slightly Vulnerable

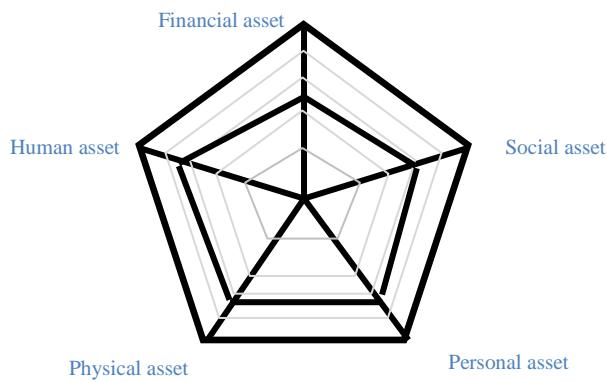
Source: Fieldwork 2010-2011

Data from the quantitative assessment shows that villagers in group 2 were still financially vulnerable even after partially participating in the programme. The data shows that although villagers in this group were able to avail of loans from both programmes, did nothing to improve financial outcomes. The other subcategories also show outcomes not different from the group that did not receive any financial assistance. The result conclusively shows that, financial assistance alone does not guarantee improvements in livelihood outcomes. As previously discussed, villagers in this group availed of loans but most of them did not invest the money on PPT and livelihood diversification. Based on these results, it can be argued that financial assistance can result in a negative impact on financial outcomes and increase vulnerability, if it is not invested on the activities relating to PPT initiatives.

8.1.3 Vulnerability in Group 3

Data on the impact of PPT programmes on livelihood outcome and vulnerability in group 3 revealed significantly better results compared to the other groups. Although the overall interpretation indicate similar results with the other groups even after fully participating in the PPT programmes, data from the individual categories and comparison of the effects from each programme reveals a different picture. Comparison of categories shows significant improvements and significant decreases in vulnerability that was not observed in the previous groups.

Figure 8-3 Livelihood outcomes in Group 3



The profile of livelihood outcomes revealed significant difference in group 3 when compared to the previous groups. The profile shows more improved outcomes in all categories. The individual categories show significant improvements when compared to the other groups. However, there are also similarities, the profile maintains the trend wherein financial and social categories where scored slightly lower than the personal, physical and human categories. Financial outcomes was still scored lower than the other categories, however, it has significantly improved to a higher level compared to the results from the other groups. Again, similar to the profile from the other groups, the physical and human categories were the most improved. However, for this group, improvements in the human assets resulted to the successful elimination of vulnerability in this category. The profile conclusively contributes to the argument that full participation in PPT initiatives can develop sustainable livelihoods that will result to reduced vulnerability

Data on the impact of PPT on the vulnerability of Group 3 shows that full participation in the PPT initiatives significantly reduced vulnerability in some categories.

Data from the villagers who had full participation in both the village fund and OTOP programmes shows significant improvements in the elimination of vulnerability.

Table 8.3 PPT impact on the Vulnerability of Group 3

GROUP 3						
	1998		2001		2011	
	Mean	Vulnerability	Mean	Vulnerability	Mean	Vulnerability
FINANCIAL ASSETS	2.524	Vulnerable	2.610	Slightly Vulnerable	2.679	Slightly Vulnerable
SOCIAL ASSETS	2.963	Slightly Vulnerable	3.100	Slightly Vulnerable	3.082	Slightly Vulnerable
PERSONAL ASSETS	3.114	Slightly Vulnerable	3.460	Not Vulnerable	3.286	Slightly Vulnerable
PHYSICAL ASSETS	3.221	Slightly Vulnerable	3.268	Slightly Vulnerable	3.283	Slightly Vulnerable
HUMAN ASSETS	3.383	Slightly Vulnerable	3.496	Not Vulnerable	3.413	Not Vulnerable
AVERAGE	3.041	Slightly Vulnerable	3.186	Slightly Vulnerable	3.148	Slightly Vulnerable

Source: Fieldwork 2010-2011

Results from the assessment of vulnerability in the group who had fully participated in the tourism products and services projects showed significant improvements after participating in the programmes. As shown in Table 8.3, financial assets were still vulnerable after participating in the village fund projects, however, after participating in the OTOP projects to develop tourism products and services, vulnerability was significantly reduced and sustained over time. The data also reveals that the livelihood outcomes in terms of personal assets effectively eliminated vulnerability right after the OTOP project, however, this result was not sustained over time. The outcomes in human assets were also effectively eliminated after participating in the OTOP project, and this result was sustained over time. The results show that the OTOP had better results in the significant elimination of vulnerability than the Village Base Tourism project. The results conclusively show that vulnerability was significantly reduced for the villagers who fully participated in the PPT initiatives.

8.2 Drivers of vulnerability and its impact in Had Bai Village

The following discussion aims at discussing the drivers of vulnerability and its impact on the vulnerability among the villagers in Had Bai Village. The discussion will focus on answering the following:

1. The interview respondents' understanding on the context of vulnerability as well as risks that they are currently exposed to;
2. Impact of the programme on their life and how it reduced vulnerability;
3. Whether the project change the ability to cope with shocks or capitalise on positive trend;
4. The contribution of the project to the people's ability to cope with temporary change or adapt to a permanent change;
5. Whether tourism contributed to increased litter/pollution and crime in the community;
6. The impact on people's current production choices, costs, and risk as well as the comparison to those unassociated with the project.

Again, the answers to the afore-mentioned questions were derived from the information available during all three interviews and assessment with stakeholders and related entities. The results are as follow:

8.3 How villagers in Had Bai interpret vulnerability

The villagers interpret vulnerability in many aspects of which most of them describe it in terms of wealth, that is, the state of being poor and insolvent. Many of them think of failure in agricultural investment or when nothing fills up their stomach. Only a few of them suggest that it should be considered in terms of natural disaster, such as flooding or failure in farming.

The answer for the second question tends to be overestimated. Most of the responses suggest that people advocate the initiation of Pro-poor tourism and agree that it can reduce the vulnerability of the poor despite the fact that they don't fully recognise or really understand the project. This is simply because they think everything new is good.

The answer for the third question reflects the answer of the first two questions. Most of the people interpret vulnerability in terms of money and do not see its connection with other types of exposures. Therefore they do not think the project could enhance their ability to cope with natural disaster.

The following table shows the overall opinion of villagers towards PPT projects regarding vulnerability. In the assessment, the scores range from 1 to 5 using Likert scale with the following descriptions:

1 – Strongly Disagree;

2 – Disagree;

3 – Not Sure;

4 – Agree;

5 – Strongly Agree

Table 8.4 below shows that villagers think that OTOP reduces hardship in their life more than the VBT and also increases ability to deal with and adapt to risk and hardship. However, VBT has made relationship between the village and the outside world change in a better way than the OTOP project. People who take part in the VBT also have less risk in life compared to those who take part in the OTOP.

Table 8.4 How villagers think that PPT can reduce their vulnerability

Do you agree with the following statements?	Mean	Std. Deviation
VBT has lessen hardship in your life.	3.00	0.00
OTOP project has lessen hardship in your life.	3.75	0.45
VBT has increased the villagers ability to deal and adapt with risk and hardship.	3.13	0.34
OTOP project has increased the villagers ability to deal and adapt with risk and hardship.	3.94	0.25
VBT has made access into the different organization of the village better.	3.69	0.48
OTOP project has made access into the different organization of the village better ^l	3.69	0.87
VBT has made relations between the village and the outside word change in a better way.	3.50	0.52
OTOP project has made relations of the village with the outside word change in a better way.	3.44	0.51
VBT has made access to different funds, money loan, and different sources of information better.	3.19	0.66
OTOP project has made access to different funds, money loan, and different sources of information better.	3.25	0.45
People who take part in the VBT have less risk in life compared to those who choose only to do agricultural work.	3.19	0.54
People who take part in the OTOP project has less risk in life compared to those who choose only to do agricultural work.	3.31	1.01

Source: Fieldwork 2003

Table 8.5 Time Line of Events of Disaster in Had Bai Village

Decades	Year	Events
1960s	1966	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Big flooding that destroyed all their lands and houses (up to the roof)
1970s		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Flooding every year in August-September (as usual) if their homes are safe they wouldn't think that it is a disaster because they get used to it already. (Although corn field are all destroyed) • Hail Stone that destroyed all lettuce.
1980s-2000s		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Flooding • Hail Stone

Source: Fieldwork 2003

Table 8.5 shows a timeline of events of disaster as recalled by senior villagers in Had Bai village. The Table 8.5 shows catastrophic flooding from the Mekong River that repeats over a 10 year cycle, and an annual flooding that villagers have learned to cope with even if it destroys agricultural products. There were also the hail storms which destroyed village farms.

Table 8.6 Time Line of Major Change Events in Had Bai Village

Decades	Year	Events
1980s	1984	Establish women group
	1989	Started to sell hand weaving cotton (household industry)
1990s	1990	First Electricity
	1992	Established women "weaving" group and sell to tourists
	1996	Established money saving group
	1996	Received 200,000 baht SOR POR CHOR Fund
	1997	Tap water supply
	1998	Village base tourism
2000s	2001/2544	First public telephone
	2001/2544	One Tambon one village (OTOP) along with 1,000,000 baht village fund

Source: Fieldwork 2003

Saving group started at 40 baht/share with only 30 members. Currently, the share is up to 200 baht/share,(provided 50 baht = 1 pound in 2013)the membership had grown to over 170 members since 2002. In 1996 the village received the The Sor Por Chor fund, it is a special credit fund for developing the local area. The leader of saving group used this money for funds which villagers could borrow to use for their own interests. Mainly, the money was used for buying cotton yarn, agricultural products, and weaving materials. In 1997, the tap water supply was installed in the village. The tap water supply that comes from the mountain was reported to be very unreliable and the quality was not so good.

Livelihood Constraints and Vulnerability in Had Bai Village

Table 8.7 shows the ranking of livelihood constraint and vulnerability by villagers. The data shows that villagers perceived the business losses from middle men, water supply and shortage of cash as the highest constraints to their livelihood; they also rank these as top priority constraints

Table 8.7 Scoring of Livelihood constraint & Vulnerability problem

Constraint	Impact of constraint to livelihoods		Priority of Constraints	
	1 = min. impact		1 = low priority	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Changes in climate	2.25	3.33	3.25	3.66
Insects	2.50	3.66	3.75	3.66
Hail stone	2.00	3.00	3.00	2.83
Flooding	2.75	3.83	3.75	3.66
Rats, pest	3.25	2.83	3.00	3.16
Bad soil	2.25	3.66	4.00	4.16
Storm	2.00	2.50	2.75	3.00
Low electricity supply	1.50	3.16	2.50	3.73
Low water supply	4.00	4.16	4.25	4.16
Plant disease	2.75	3.33	3.75	3.66
Shortage of labor	2.50	3.33	3.50	3.66
Middle man	4.00	4.33	5.00	4.83
shortage of money	4.25	3.83	5.00	4.00

Constraint	Impact of constraint to livelihoods		Priority of Constraints	
	1 = min. impact		1 = low priority	
	5 = max. impact		5 = high priority	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Small landholding	3.25	3.33	3.75	2.66
Unemployment	3.25	3.33	3.75	2.83
Corruption	2.75	3.00	3.25	3.00
Damaged crop	3.25	3.00	3.75	3.33
Migration	2.25	2.16	3.00	2.33
Infrastructure	2.75	2.50	3.50	2.83
Organization- related	1.75	1.66	3.25	2.83
Maximum	4.25	4.33	5.00	4.83
Minimum	1.50	1.66	2.50	2.33

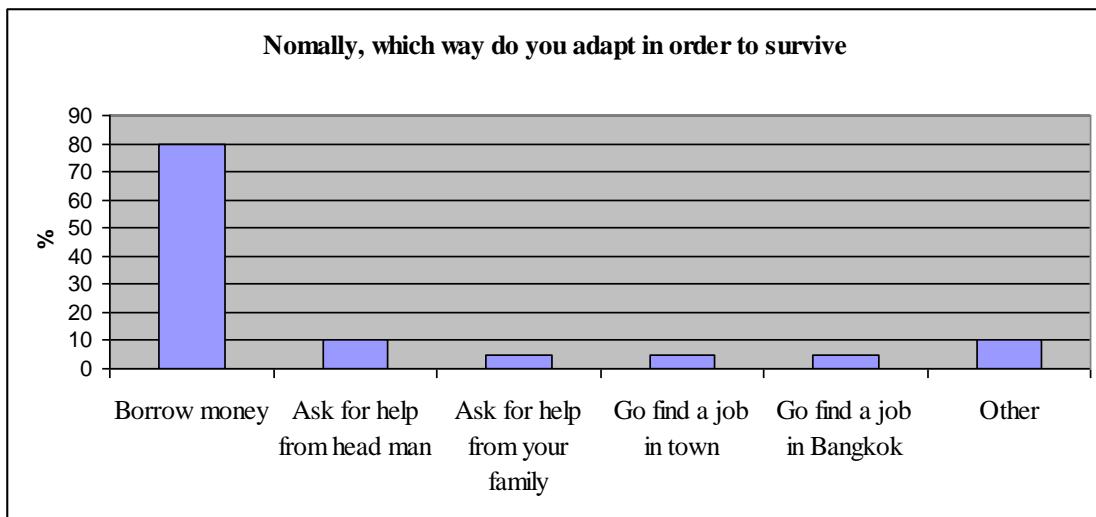
Source: Fieldwork 2003

The soil quality at Had Bai is quite good. However, the villagers produce more than the demand. As a result, they have to sell crops at a low cheap price. The street lights are turned off at 8.00 pm. Therefore, women at weaving club must stop their activities before sunset, so that they could walk back home safely. The water supply was ranked high as a livelihood constraint and priority, the villagers thought that the quality is not good and the flow unreliable. The middle man's low price was ranked top constraint and priority. Damage from flooding was ranked higher as a priority than as an impact to livelihood. Migration was ranked middle as a constraint and priority, actually those who have education higher than grade 9 would leave the village to further their study in town or find a job in Bangkok. However, villagers didn't see this as a problem.

The condition of the roads and infrastructure were not very good but villagers were happy about it because they had just got better infrastructure improvements not very long ago.

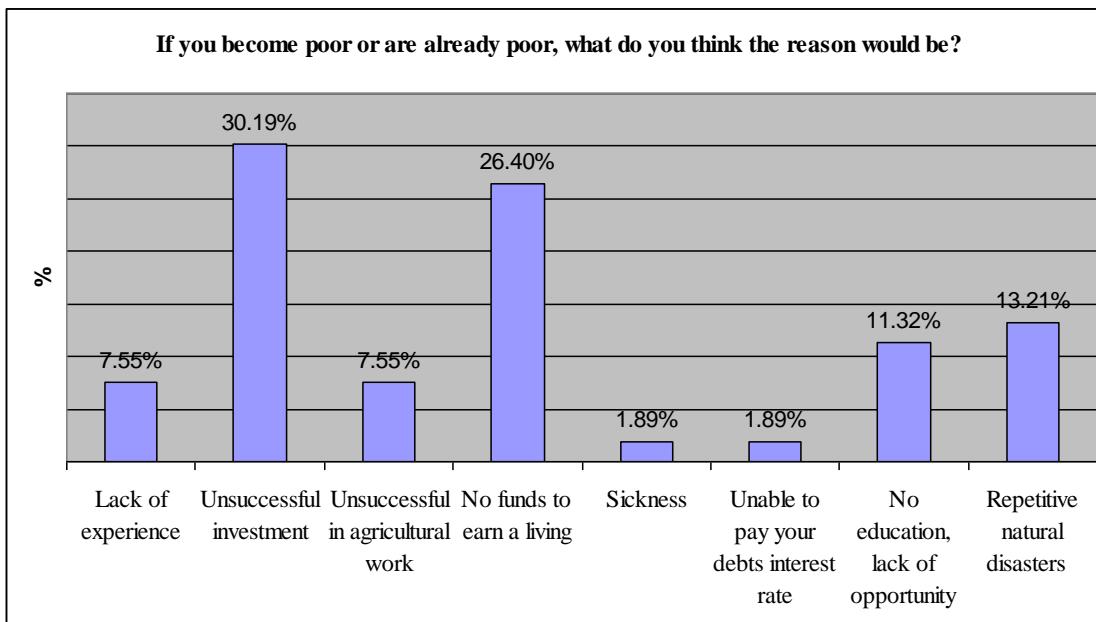
Figure 8-4below shows what villagers chose to do when facing livelihood constraint and vulnerability problem. Eighty percent chose to borrow money.

Figure 8-4 What villagers chose to do when facing livelihood constraint and vulnerability problem



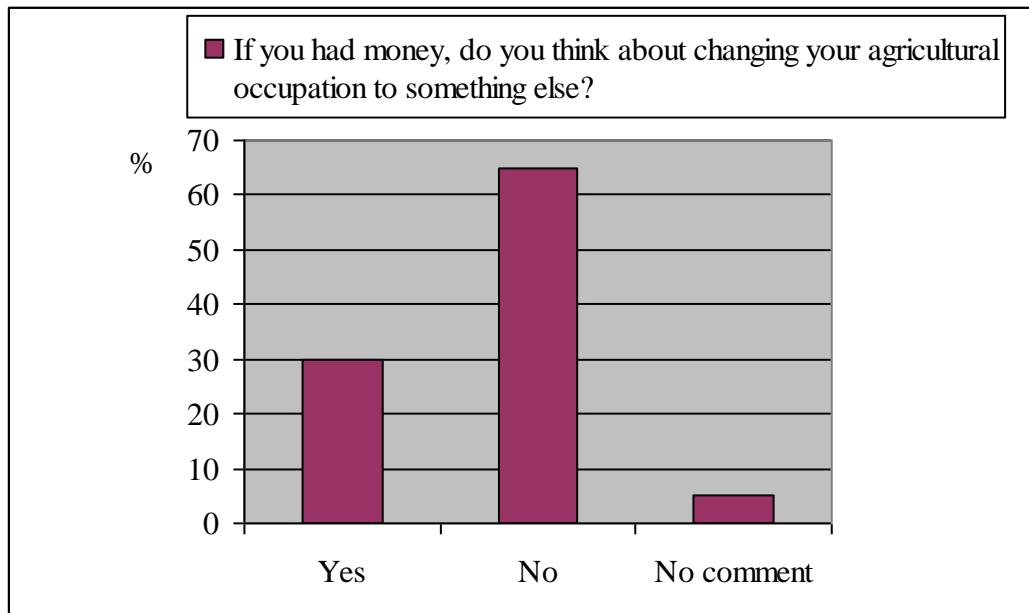
Source: Fieldwork 2003

Figure 8-5 If you become poor or are already poor, what do you think the reason would be?



Source: Fieldwork 2002-2003

Figure 8-6If you had money, do you think about changing your agricultural occupation to something else?



Source: Fieldwork 2003

Information from focus group and interviews reveals that people do not consider changing their jobs because 1. Agricultural is the work of our ancestors; 2. Because agricultural work is the most stable work in their opinion; 3. Because there is not enough fund to do something else and 4. Because they are happy with this kind of life.

For those who consider changing their jobs if they had money the answers are: 1. Field work does not make as much money as selling things; 2. Field work is hard work; 3. Farming has low profit; 4. Farms get destroyed by natural disaster.

The Government officials view PPT as one approach to reduce vulnerability. They think that the sustainability of OTOP can reduce vulnerability and hence enhance livelihood of the poor. The OTOP project is designed to promote community development to improve the standard of living of rural people in a sustainable way. Two important principles that contribute to the sustainability of the project are the concept of self-reliance and continued learning process. On the self-reliance principle, the OTOP project seeks to use materials found in a locality to produce goods to generate income for the people.

It also aims to use traditional knowledge and know-how in the production process. However, maximizing local potentials alone is not enough to ensure a sustained development in the age of globalization. People have to learn to develop their versatility to cope with challenges. Here, the government will assist them by stimulating a continued learning process to enhance their knowledge and skills in adapting to constant changes.

When implementing the OTOP project, government departments concerned tried to translate the two principles on sustainability mentioned above into practice. First of all, they had to assess if a particular community had the potential and readiness to develop under the OTOP project. This was explained by officer from Services Promotion Division, the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT), as follows:

“From the point of view of TAT, a village appropriate for OTOP tourism is not merely a village that offers OTOP products. But that village must have good potential (for development in tourism) in terms of its linkage with other communities and tourist attractions. A stand alone village without convenient access cannot be linked to other tourist destinations....” (Anonymous 2005h)

As for continued learning process, it is more difficult to say to how successful the government has been in equipping the people with the knowledge to cope with changes. According to the interviews given by some government officials, villagers had learned to solve some problems arising from the implementation of the project. For example, some communities had learned to conserve natural resources used in the manufacture of OTOP products to ensure that they would always have sufficient supply of raw materials. Others became aware of the need to address the negative impacts that the production of some OTOP goods had on their communities' environment. Project participants had also acquired knowledge and management skills for small businesses ranging from production, packaging and marketing to financial matters. Such knowledge and skills would be useful for them if they were to undertake other similar economic activities in the future. In addition, villagers had gained experiences in participating in community activities and learned, for example, how they could share responsibilities and how to share benefits derived from OTOP fairly among themselves.

8.3.1 Coping with Change

However, the knowledge and skills villagers had learned might not be sufficient to deal with the problems or cope with changes. The areas of concern which were often cited by government officials in their interviews were the development of OTOP products, access to markets, the financial management of the project, as well as the attitude and capacity of the villagers themselves. On the development of OTOP products, the government had a clear policy to encourage project participants to improve the quality of their products both in terms of design and value creation by setting 5-level standard for OTOP goods. Officer of the Department of Agricultural Extension, Ministry of Agricultural and Cooperatives said that

“the sustainability of the OTOP project depended on the quality of the products. But the products that were of export quality, or those obtaining standard levels 4-5, were usually made by producers that were classified as SMEs, not the community-based groups. The SME producers had been entrepreneurs before; farming was not their main occupation. They constituted the group which already had some potential to develop further. For most “genuine” OTOP producers, their products still had not reached the high standards (levels 4-5). They would produce goods with the same design and packaging over the years without any change. This showed that OTOP producers lagged much behind on adding value to their products. This group of OTOP producers still needed support and technical assistance from the government to improve the quality of their products.” The same could be said for marketing. Many OTOP villagers were not adept with promotion activities. Relevant government departments had to help project participants identify potential customers or market their products” (Anonymous 2005o)

Most OTOP participants relied on farming for their living and were not familiar with business undertakings. They had a lot to learn about financial disciplines and management. Some officials thought that although the OTOP project had been implemented for some time, villagers were not strong enough to carry out the projects by themselves.

“If left alone without continued assistance from the government, OTOP producers would be in a very vulnerable position amidst high competition and volatile economic environment caused by, for example, fluctuation in oil and Gasoline prices”.

One official even suggested that there should be a “financial advisor” for project participants.

The success of PPT also depended on the people’s outlook in life and their interest and ability to learn new things. For some villagers, they preferred a simple life and would work as hard as they wanted. One official told that

“Once I visited Chanthaburi Province which was famous for its locally-made mats called “Krajood” mats. I met a female mat weaver and asked what she would do if she received large order for mats that exceeded her capacity to deliver. She said simply that she would only weave as many mats as she could.” (Anonymous 2005a)

Even though the OTOP project has provided for a supplementary source of income and helped improve the living condition of the rural poor, it is not yet certain how much it can contribute to a sustained diversification of livelihood to the people. As mentioned above, many grassroots OTOP producers still have to rely on the government for guidance and assistance in many aspects. Moreover, many officials who were interviewed believed that a change in policy could have a negative impact on its effectiveness. Given all of the reasons mentioned above, it might be said that at present, the OTOP project might help reduce the vulnerability of the rural poor only to some extent.

8.3.2 *Enhancement of the Sense of Security in Life*

Earlier in this chapter, some aspects of the livelihood development projects have been examined to see how they contribute to or affect the sustainability of the project which provide for diversification of livelihood of the people. If the project can provide extra income for the people in a more sustained way, people would become less vulnerable to changes.

In this section, the question of vulnerability will be examined from a different aspect, i.e. how the people felt about their life after having participated in the OTOP project as perceived by some government officials involved in the execution of OTOP project. If the people feel their lives are more secure, it might be said that the implementation of the project has helped reduced the risk and vulnerability in life caused by a sudden or more subtle change.

It was found out that most government officials who were interviewed thought that the OTOP project had created in project participants a sense of stability and security in life. In their views, the fact that the OTOP project provided additional source of income added to the sense of security in the people, most of whom relied almost solely on farming for their living. The OTOP project had also offered more employment opportunities for the people, thus reducing the need for the rural poor to migrate to big cities to seek for jobs. The fact that villagers could work in their communities allowed them to stay with their families and helped forge closer relationship among family members.

The knowledge and skills villagers had learned from participating in the OTOP project also contributed to their sense of security. Vocational training provided by the government and opened up their opportunities for alternative employment other than farming. The management skills they had acquired from undertaking business activities under OTOP project and the experiences gained from working with various stakeholders, ranging from other project participants, government officials, visitors from outside their communities, and other villagers who did not participate in OTOP project, should equip them with necessary tools to cope with changes more effectively.

However, several interviewees expressed concern that some villagers tended to overspend the extra money earned from OTOP activities and risked getting indebted. Participating in the OTOP project had exposed villagers to the outside world and the influence of western culture with emphasis on materialistic values. Some project participants could cope with such changes and adapt themselves quite well. But other villagers might get lost in the wave of materialistic culture. It was thus important that the government took steps to ensure that the people knew how to spend the money wisely and encourage more savings among villagers.

One official was of the view that the ability of a community to cope with change also depended very much on its leaders. Some communities could cope with changes better than others. A good community leader could guide their members when faced with problems and was more successful in addressing the challenges brought about by the OTOP project.

Another official mentioned the impact of OTOP project on the physical security. In his view, villagers who had higher income might be exposed to robbery and other crimes. He knew of a case where an OTOP producer who became successful in his business in a short period of time was killed by his own relative because the latter wanted to take over his business. However, from the information obtained from the interview, no other government officials mentioned about the problem of crimes. This case could thus be regarded as an exception.

8.4 The Sense of Self Worth and Personal Development

The sense of self-worth and the pride in sustainable personal development is closely related to the sense of security in life. The fact that project participants knew they could produce something of real value made them see their own value. They also knew that they could rely on themselves for a living. The OTOP project gave them an opportunity to make useful contributions to their families and communities, either through earning more money to support the families or through taking part in a project that benefitted their communities. An example was given by Head of the Franchise and OTOP Cluster of the SME Bank:

“Villagers have gained a sense of self-worth because they know they can rely on themselves for a living. Such is the case in one village of the production of baked clay tablets used in pot plants to prevent the moisture from evaporating too quickly. Such production created employment opportunities for students who were hired to make the clay tablets during their free time after school. The elderly members in the village were also hired to do the job which turns out to be a useful exercise for their hands. Then they deliver the clay tablets to the producer to bake them in a kiln before selling them. This activity has helped the students and the elderly in the village to appreciate the value in themselves....” (Anonymous 2005m)

The pride in sustainable personal development occurs when a person is aware that he or she has the necessary means and ability to advance his or her personal goal in the long run.

About half of the officials who were interviewed thought that the OTOP project had helped people develop themselves in a sustainable way. One interviewee said that the OTOP project had created a learning process whereby its participants learned about production, marketing and management techniques. However, a couple of respondents said the success of OTOP project in promoting personal advancement depended on the project participants themselves. The people needed to build on the knowledge and skills they had learned through various training courses organised by the government. It was the process of learning that would enable the people to continue to learn independently even after the project was terminated.

But there were some project participants who did not try hard enough to learn by themselves and waited to be helped by the government. In that case, the OTOP project was not successful in promoting people's advancement in a sustainable way. From the information obtained from the interview, there seemed to be an emphasis on knowledge as a major factor that determined whether the project participants would be successful in making a sustainable personal advancement, which would add to the increase in social capital of the project participants.

“...Some project participants have learned to help themselves in finding access to markets for their products, improving the packaging and adapting marketing techniques without merely waiting for help from the government. But to make OTOP project more sustainable, the government had to give them consistent support in product development and financial assistance....”(Anonymous 2005n)

8.5 Conclusion

It might be said that the PPT projects have helped reduced risk and vulnerability of the rural poor to a certain extent. The concept of the project itself is designed to create sustainable alternative livelihood for the people in many ways. It has the purpose of creating employment opportunities without disturbing the way of life of the people.

One of its main principles is to make use of raw materials available in the locality, traditional knowledge and know-how in the production of goods. This way, the people can earn more money by relying largely on their own resources.

The government merely plays the role of an advisor and supporter, providing villagers with the funds, knowledge and skills they are lacking. It is the people themselves who have to execute the project and decide how they want it to be carried out. By undertaking the project, the people have gained first-hand knowledge and experiences that are valuable for livelihood diversification.

However, there were several factors that can affect the sustainability of the livelihood, thus decreasing the impact that the project may have on reducing vulnerability of the people.

First of all, the success of the livelihood development through PPT depends very much on the interest and the ability of the people to learn new things. Villagers who are hard-working and put in a lot of time and efforts in the project have a better chance of success. Project participants having some knowledge on production are in a position to benefit more from the project. Those who have learned to apply and adapt are more likely to be less vulnerable as they can cope with changes better.

Despite the government's intention to make diversification of livelihood sustainable, many villagers still need support of the government, especially in the areas of funding, financial management, product development and marketing. Some of these involve specific skills that will take some time to learn before the project participants can use these skills effectively. Some products are not destined for local consumption but aimed at wider domestic and international markets. The dependency on larger markets makes project participants more or less part of the globalised world. This can put them in a vulnerable position to some degree, depending on how much they rely on those markets to sell their products. Project participants must also have financial disciplines to have a sustainable business. They need to learn the value of savings rather than overspend the money on non-productive things.

All the above-mentioned factors can affect the sustainability of the project. How much the project helps reduce the people's vulnerability depends on the interaction of these factors which can vary from case to case.

CHAPTER 9

Conclusions and Recommendations

The previous chapter presented the results of this study; in this chapter, the key findings are analysed to determine whether, and to what extent, the PPT programmes were successful in improving the livelihoods of the poor. After the findings have been presented, a theoretical reflection discussing the poverty situation revealed in this study will follow. This chapter will also discuss the strengths and limitations of the conceptual framework used, and the challenges and implications for PPT policies. Finally, as recommendations for future research a new PPT model will be proposed, to form the basis for the development of a new PPT policy incorporating knowledge gleaned from the study.

The discussion in this chapter is organised according to the following topics:

1. Key findings of the work and answer to the main research question: **To what extent has PPT improved the livelihood outcomes of the poor?**
2. Theoretical reflections: an understanding of the new poverty situation revealed in this study, in which it is apparent that household debt can contribute to the problem of poverty and may hide the true nature of the well-being of the poor.
3. Analytical and methodological lessons: the strengths and limitations of the conceptual framework.
4. Challenges and implications for PPT policy to alleviate poverty.
5. Recommendations for future research.

9.1 Key Findings

The results from the study conducted shows that there is an inequitable distribution of the benefits coming from the PPT projects throughout the village. As mentioned in Chapter 5, the villagers may be divided into three groups according to their level of involvement in the PPT programmes:

1. Villagers who did not know about OTOP (Group 1)
2. Villagers who knew about OTOP but chose not to participate fully (Group 2)
3. Villagers who participated fully in the OTOP project (Group 3)

The livelihood impact was different among the three groups because of the level of participation being made and exerted. The characteristics of the population and other factors were drawn and taken into consideration to discover the root causes of their participation and nonparticipation, and to determine why villagers felt themselves to be able or unable to join the schemes. Should the results prove that the participants enjoyed higher incomes and consequently, improved their assets as a result of participation, it is important to find ways in which to draw the non-participant group into PPT activities in the future.

Among the three groups, the villagers in Group 3 who participated fully gained the most benefit from the PPT project. Their livelihood outcome and livelihood assets showed some improvements.

Table 9.9-1 Villagers' opinions of a better livelihood

What are your opinions towards livelihoods?	Mean	Std. Deviation
A better livelihood is a result of having more funds	3.85	0.93
A better livelihood is a result of having income besides agriculture	3.79	1.03
A better livelihood is a result of luck in field work	4.05	0.76
A better livelihood is the result of the ability to borrow a lot of money	2.50	1.10
A better livelihood is the result of the ability to contact government officials	2.35	0.88
A better livelihood is the result of participation in the VBT and OTOP schemes	2.25	0.72
In order to improve your livelihood, you must migrate to find a new home	2.20	1.01
In order to improve your livelihood, you must find additional income besides that from agriculture	4.05	0.94
In order to improve your livelihood, you must abandon agriculture and change your occupation	2.58	1.12

What are your opinions towards livelihoods?	Mean	Std. Deviation
In order to improve your livelihood, you must borrow money from people in the village	2.45	1.15
In order to improve your livelihood, you must take out government loans	2.85	1.31
In order to improve your livelihood, you must join the OTOP project	2.50	0.99
In order to improve your livelihood, you must join the Village-Based Tourism project	2.39	0.98
In order to improve your livelihood, you must join all the programmes/projects organised by the government.	2.72	1.07
In order to improve your livelihood, you must borrow money from the co-op	2.32	1.00
In order to improve your livelihood, you must send your child to receive higher education	4.00	0.97

Source: Fieldwork

The table 9.9.1 shows that villagers perceive agricultural work as a means of attaining a better livelihood, while many also think that additional income besides that earned through agricultural work can help improve their livelihood. Moreover, sending children to receive higher education can result in higher income for the family.

Table 9.9-2 Improvements and benefits from PPT on the livelihoods of Had Bai Villagers

Do you agree with the following statements?	Mean	Std. Deviation
Village-Based Tourism has been beneficial for the community	3.19	0.40
The OTOP project has been beneficial for the community	3.67	0.49
The Village-Based Tourism project has been effective and has benefitted me sufficiently	3.69	0.48
The OTOP project has been effective and has benefitted me sufficiently	3.80	0.41
The benefits from the Village-Based Tourism project have reached the poorest group of villagers	3.67	0.62
The benefits from the OTOP project have reached the poorest group of villagers	3.13	0.64
The political situation in the village will have an effect on the success of the Village-Based Tourism project in the future	3.20	0.56
The national political situation will have an effect on the success of the OTOP project in the future	3.38	0.72
In conclusion, the Village-Based Tourism project has improved my livelihood	3.00	0.56
In conclusion, the OTOP project has improved my livelihood	3.20	0.53
Village-Based Tourism deserves to be continued in the community	2.93	0.46
The OTOP project deserves to be continued in the community	3.20	0.68

Source: Fieldwork 2003

The information from the quantitative data gives a clear picture of how villagers perceived the impact and benefits of the PPT projects vis-à-vis their livelihoods. The villagers thought that overall the OTOP project had been more effective than village-based tourism in improving the livelihood outcomes of both individuals and the community.

However, village-based tourism was more effective than OTOP in reaching the poorest group. Thus while the OTOP project might have improved livelihoods generally and increased assets, it was not truly pro-poor if it failed to reach the poorest group of villagers. Conversely, although the village-based initiative may not have improved livelihoods and increased assets as the OTOP project appears to have done, the fact that it had fewer negative impacts and was better able to reach the poorest means that a new concept of village-based PPT can be developed to design a new project to benefit everyone in society.

As established in the previous chapters, PPT projects can help increase the overall assets of a community. However, if this results in a higher debt burden for the villagers, with them spending their higher income on consumer goods rather than livelihood diversification, then improvements will not be sustainable. Overspending can lead to household debt and can become chronic. PPT research in Kenya mentions debt problems rooted in declining tourism resulting in hardship for the poor, particularly in areas where livelihoods were tourism-based (Kareithi, 2003). Physical hardship from dramatic declines in household income were compounded by increased social conflict due to mounting debt (Kareithi, 2003). Poor families were forced to sell assets such as livestock. There was also increased exploitation of the poor as they moved from self-employment to other livelihood options out of desperation. Research by Tangpianpant, 2010 also criticised the same negative impact on the community.

In addition, this study has uncovered concerns that investors and tourists could have an unintentional adverse influence on the productivity and quality of the products being produced under the scheme. The in-depth interviews with villagers raised examples of such concerns: investors can produce more products to sell to tourists, but the quality of the hand-woven products might suffer, which in turn can reduce the reputation of the original products. This could further add to the vulnerability of the poor. However, due to the significantly better quality of the original weave, some tourists may yetbe willing to pay more for high quality goods. Officials also raised concerns that the competition from lower-quality products as well as lower prices could harm the original Had Bai hand weaving. In this regard the local museum could mediate in promoting and preserving weaving skills.

9.2 Livelihood Outcomes and Vulnerability

No clear picture of the benefits of the PPT initiatives in terms of livelihood improvement emerged from the in-depth interviews with other stakeholders. The results were extremely varied, although it is interesting that the comments received from related parties at the policymaker or academic level focused broadly on the positive aspects of the programme.

The study revealed that the PPT initiatives in Had Bai led to a marginal improvement in livelihood outcomes and slightly decreased vulnerability.

The results also showed that the PPT projects provided the most benefit to those who could easily adapt their way of life to the project mechanism. The poorest and most vulnerable on the other hand were not served so well by the project, thus limiting the impact on this group. Contrary to the findings of Leaungsomnapa, Promproh, and Khanwiset (2011), the finding showed that the programmes failed to significantly improve the lives of those needing it most. The programme was said by policy makers to provide opportunities for women and the disabled, and opportunities were distributed equitably throughout the community. However, those at the practitioner level tended to suggest otherwise, saying that the programme benefits were concentrated in the hands of the community leaders.

The results revealed that the extra money gained from the various levels of involvement in the PPT programmes provided supplementary incomes, and that this additional money did help reduce hardship and enable slightly better living. The greatest contribution that the project made was perhaps increasing people's access to greater knowledge in tourism-related handicraft production, through the provision of vocational training which contributed to the enhancement of human capital. This knowledge of production techniques allowed project participants to produce higher quality local products.

The study identified livelihood outcomes and vulnerability according to the level of participation in the PPT initiatives:

Group 1: In this group are villagers who knew nothing about the programme and hence did not participate. Villagers in this group were among the poorest in the village and their houses were likely to be located geographically distant from the centre of the village. The majority in this group were landless farmers who rented land from villagers in other groups. Despite the lower income, members of this group tended to have lower liabilities, as their lack of assets for collateral provided very limited access to financing resources. Nonetheless, the fact that agriculture was their sole source of income left them vulnerable to natural disasters, which could wipe out their crops and force them to borrow money from elsewhere.

The results showed that the financial outcomes from livelihoods in Group 1 were improved slightly by the PPT programmes. However since this group had not participated in any of the programmes the impact on financial and social assets were only marginal; there were, however, improvements in personal, physical and human assets. Thus even though the programmes failed to involve the poorest villagers, they did reap some marginal benefits.

Moreover, the results showed that the PPT programmes did have an impact, albeit very marginal, on the vulnerability of members of this group. This impact came, however, not as a direct result of the PPT initiatives, but because villagers in this group were able to work on farms that were freed for rent by the villagers who participated in the programmes. This additional income served to slightly decrease vulnerability.

Group 2: Villagers in Group 2 had substantial land holdings of their own. In addition to farming, the major income-generating activity for men in this group, additional income was also earned from employment outside the village and renting out land, mainly to people in Group 1. The relatively large level of asset ownership allowed villagers in this group greater access to government and village financing; however, even with their better access to the PPT initiatives, they were more likely to incur debt than members of the other groups. This resulted in a relatively high level of debt for this group, making them particularly vulnerable, especially as they had a smaller financial cushion should adverse events take place.

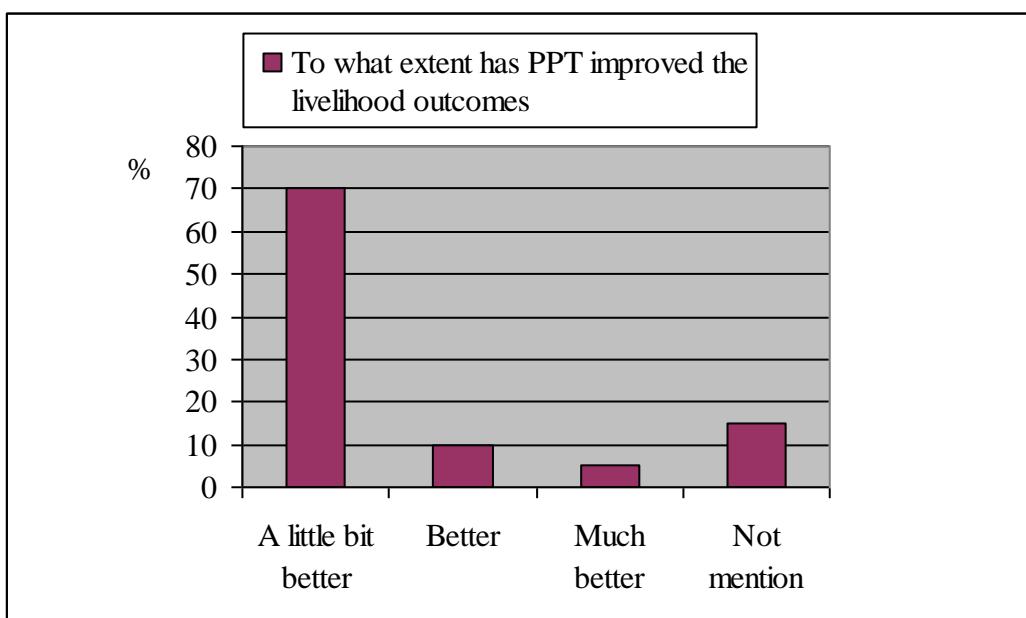
The results revealed that livelihood in Group 2 improved slightly after the livelihood development programmes, but that the improvements were marginal and were broadly in line with the results for Group 1. The plot shows that the PPT livelihood programmes effected more improvements in personal, physical and human assets than they did in financial and social assets.

Data on the impact of PPT on the vulnerability of members of Group 2 revealed that partial participation resulted in a slight decrease in vulnerability. Nonetheless, this decrease was only marginal, and was again broadly similar to the outcome for the group of non-participants.

Group 3: Group 3 villagers participated fully in tourism-related livelihood diversification programmes. With a constant stream of additional income, the average debt in this group was relatively low. This group enjoyed the maximum benefits from the programme, largely due to the fact that the programme was based around their everyday activities of farming and weaving.

The results showed that livelihood outcomes for Group 3 were significantly better compared to the other groups. Although the overall picture indicates results similar to those of the other groups, the data from the individual categories and a comparison of the effects of each programme reveals a significant improvement in livelihood outcomes not observed in the previous groups.

An assessment of the vulnerability outcome for the group which fully participated in the programmes showed that the programmes served to significantly reduce vulnerability. While the improvements in terms of personal assets were only temporary and were not sustained, vulnerability in terms of human assets was effectively eliminated after participation in the OTOP project, and this result was sustained over time. The results show that the OTOP project brought about better results in the significant elimination of vulnerability than the Village-Based Tourism project.

Table 9.9-3 To what extent has PPT improved livelihood outcomes

Source: Fieldwork 2003, 2010-2011

9.3 Financial outcomes

The study results revealed slight improvements in the financial assets of Group 1, and that the Village-Based Tourism project had a marginally better impact than OTOP on available finances. Although Group 1 villagers were unaware of the PPT projects, they could compare their financial circumstances across years. The results showed that over time, the available finances and regular inflow of money did improve from slight to moderate; however, Group 1 also provided the lowest scores. The results showed that the initiatives were unsuccessful in making significant improvements to the financial assets of the most vulnerable and poorest in the village. Therefore it is important to find alternative PPT financial processes to target the poorest groups.

Likewise, the results showed that PPT initiatives resulted in only a slight improvement in the financial assets of Group 2 members, despite their ability to acquire loans from the initiatives. Programmes were seen to be unsuccessful in improving financial assets significantly over time. Although Group 2 could access loans, they were spent on consumer goods rather than as capital to sustain product development. Group 2 rated the availability of finances more highly because credit was available to them, but they also rated credit rating and access to credit significantly lower. The results demonstrated their

inability to procure additional loans after failing to manage the first loan effectively. These findings suggest that improvements in screening loan beneficiaries are very important, and that loans should be granted only to those who will invest money in sustainable livelihood diversification.

Higher improvement in financial assets was seen among members of Group 3. Although supplementary income from PPT activities and the regularity of capital inflow remained slight, access to credit and availability of finances improved, showing that for this group, at least, full programme participation led to moderate financial assets improvement. The data showed that OTOP brought about significantly better improvement in financial assets than did Village-Based Tourism, although over time both initiatives resulted in a moderate improvement in financial assets. The findings make it clear that financial improvements can be sustained by increased participation, and that more positive financial improvements will result from better money management.

9.3.1 The Financial Sustainability of PPT initiatives in Had Bai Village

The study showed that while PPT improved cash earnings of participants to some extent, non-participants began to encounter debt problems caused by improper use of the government-injected money. Moreover, while the villagers sold more tourist products, middlemen purchased them at prices lower than previously. Since local people had to wait for tourism-generated income, which was sometimes seasonal, some opted for more reliable incomes by migrating to towns. In addition, the information from the interviews, focus groups and questionnaires demonstrated that expenses increased slightly after joining the program. It was found that there was more desire to invest in the production of the product, especially investing in raw materials used in the production process. Although there was more demand for the woven products, there was no capital allocated for purchasing new equipment, and the same old looms continued to be used. Expenses on durable goods also increased, especially the purchase of mobile phones, motorcycles and electrical goods. The attitude of that a higher income necessitated the purchase of consumer goods as status symbols to 'show face' results in unmanageable debts that were often paid back by borrowing more from creditors from outside the system.

After joining the project, the participating families enjoyed some additional income. The project also encouraged cooperation between people of the same occupation, jobs and specialties, which meant that they could produce faster. In addition, the government provided opportunities for products to be showcased in shopping malls and trade fairs, expanding the market for group members.

9.4 Social outcomes

The results showed that project participation had a positive impact on community relations as it drew residents together. Fully participant villagers learned managerial skills for group work, shared responsibilities, communicated better than before, and shared benefits fairly and cooperatively. Training organised by different government agencies provided a good opportunity for villagers to come closer together by building work networks, sharing information and experiences, and improve interaction with both government officials and tourists, thus helping to enhance and strengthen the unity of the community.

Interaction among community members depended on the members themselves: how they handled and managed the projects encouraged participation of all villagers. Whatever their level of involvement, interaction infused the villagers' already tight ethnic social structure with an institutionalised process requiring them to work together, leading to improved social assets. The findings clearly showed that PPT programmes can have multiplier effects on social assets, even for those not directly participating.

Results from assessing the three groups provided similar results. Although members of Group 1 did not participate in the projects, the results revealed that their social assets were moderately improved, with significant improvements in family support, friendships and cooperation. Although not directly participating in the programmes, the increased village social interaction and with villagers in the programmes improved non-participant social assets as well.

Similarly, Group 2 results showed moderate improvement in social assets, as friendships, cooperation and family support played an important role in acquiring loans. But when the new capital intended for livelihood development was spent on unsustainable expenses and loans could not be repaid, partnership and networking with fellow villagers decreased. A data comparison showed that OTOP and Village-Based Tourism initiatives equally impacted their social assets, and the improvements were sustained over time. The findings thus demonstrated that social factors improved though unsustainable debts can negatively impact social relationships.

The results for Group 3 showed significantly higher levels of improvement in social assets. The fact that group members participated fully increased social participation and interaction. The assessment showed that both programmes resulted in the same level of impact on factors related to improvements in social assets, and the findings demonstrate that social assets can be improved by programmes requiring community participation and interaction.

9.5 Personal outcomes

Assessing personal assets showed that the degree of improvement corresponded to the level of participation. Although the three groups perceived moderate improvements from the PPT projects, Group 3 scored higher than the other groups. The results showed that the programmes significantly improved personal assets of villagers participating fully in the project.

Group 1 results revealed that despite not participating directly in the projects, their personal assets also improved moderately. Both projects led to similar levels of improvement in personal assets, but motivation was lower during the Village-Based Tourism scheme than during the OTOP project. Over time this moderate level of improvement was sustained. The findings demonstrate that indirect benefits from livelihood-based PPT programs can also result in improvements in the personal assets of individuals who are not direct participants.

Meanwhile the results for Group 2 suggest that while the programmes also led to a moderate improvement in their personal assets, the improvements were slightly lower than for Group 1. Financial pressures to pay off debts lowered scores in motivation and spirituality during both projects. However, self-confidence and self-esteem were high after participation in both projects, as members of this group used the money loaned from the programmes to purchase electronic goods and other symbols of affluence like motorcycles or cars. The findings show that personal assets suffer from unsuccessful participation, and that personal improvements that are not sustained indicate problems that need immediate attention.

Unsurprisingly, Group 3 showed the highest level of improvement in personal assets compared to the other groups. The OTOP project led to more significant improvements in personal assets than the Village-Based Tourism project, the former providing more technical support in the product development process. Moreover, the annual OTOP fair in Bangkok gave pride as villagers showcased the development and preservation of their culture. Over time, improvements in self-esteem, self-confidence, and assertiveness were sustained. The findings show that successful participation in PPT programmes can lead to sustainable improvements in personal assets.

9.6 Physical outcomes

The results showed that the project did not emphasise the development of infrastructure but of human capital. Some changes were made to provide facilities to meet tourists, parking lots for coaches, restrooms and a sales outlet for tourist products.

The results revealed there were indeed moderate improvements in the physical assets resulting from the PPT initiatives. Although the improvements in physical assets were primarily directed to support the villagers participating in the PPT initiatives, the impact was not exclusive to any group, as improvements in infrastructure benefited everybody regardless of their level of participation.

Group 1 data showed that information was least improved among the subcategories. Although this group, the poorest in the village, was targeted for benefits in both initiatives, they failed to access information for either project, but had slightly better child/elder care and secure shelters afterward. The findings showed that infrastructure development in PPT programmes impacted physical assets even for those not directly participating in the programmes.

Data from Group 2 showed that even without full participation moderate improvements in physical assets resulted from the programmes. Banking access and basic consumer needs availability were significantly lower during the Village-based Tourism Project, indicating that they could not acquire loans during the Village-based Tourism initiatives, but could during the OTOP project. Overall, both projects moderately improved physical assets of villagers in this group, and the improvements were sustained over time.

Results showed that the physical assets of villagers fully participating improved more than the other groups. Child/elder care and home security, and availability of basic consumer services were significantly better after the projects. There are still concerns about transportation, tools and equipment. These concerns needed urgent improvement. The findings showed that full participation results in more significant and sustainable improvements in physical assets than for non- or partial participation.

9.7 Human Outcomes

Improvements in the human outcomes resulted from various institutional supports providing knowledge and training not only in production, but in packaging, marketing and financial management. Training enabled villagers to participate more effectively in developing tourism products from inherited traditional knowledge from their elders and previous generations to produce goods for additional sustainable income.

Varying levels of improvement corresponded to villagers' degree of involvement. Improvements in human assets were more significant compared to other outcomes, especially from PPT programmes.

Moderate improvements in human assets resulted even for villagers not directly involved in any project. The PPT impact on human assets showed that it was the most improved category compared to other Group 1 assets. Health and leadership significantly improved and were sustained over time. However, a need for knowledge and skills training programmes focusing on skill development was shown.

Group 2 similarly revealed moderate improvement in human asset, but lower than Group 1. Skills and employability lessened during village fund initiatives.

Employability and earning power were low, with difficulty in increasing incomes to repay loans acquired during the programmes. However, health improved and overall moderate effects were sustained over time. Interviews and focus group discussions showed that urgent financial interventions to relieve debt burdens are needed for this group.

Full participation by Group 3 significantly improved human assets like abilities, health and leadership. Human assets benefited greatly from participating in either project. The human assets category was the most improved outcome, with Group 3 experiencing the highest improvements.

Overall the findings showed that, PPT initiatives in Had Bai had its greatest impact on human outcomes.

9.8 Natural Outcomes

The impact of PPT on natural resources, positive or negative, depended whether villagers knew how to manage their natural resources. The excessive use of natural resources without an effort to protect them could be unsustainable. Exploitation of natural resources creates short-term wealth, but in the long run, the community stands to lose as their natural resources are depleted.

In Had Bai Village, preservation and restoration concerned everyone. Participants perceived that weaving did no harm to their natural resources. Participants expressed confidence that natural resources were used sustainably.

However, the study revealed that the livelihood diversification project meant larger scale production, creating more garbage and wastewater. Chemicals used in production included environmentally hazardous pollutants. Where participants engaged in cloth dyeing, groundwater was contaminated by dyes left on the surface. Although they realised the importance of keeping their environment clean, accumulated wastes were not disposed of properly and could create future health problems.

There is an urgent need to effect processes and policies to proactively protect environmental degradation. A sustainable environmental framework will ensure that natural assets in the village will be maintained and continually support local livelihoods.

9.9 Analytical and Methodological Lessons

The assessment framework used to assess PTT effects in this study was a capacity building SLA model designed to develop resources and capacities for alleviating poverty on a sustainable basis. The model described the minimum level of assets needed to deal with stresses and shocks, and to sustain and enhance present and future capacities

The framework assessed five asset categories with related subcategories to describe each category. The focus of SLA models may vary; it may be limited or on a wider set of assets. These models recognised that assets are used to build and support individuals and families to acquire more assets needed for long-term well-being.

The model used in the qualitative part of the study assessed natural assets not assessed in the quantitative survey. Ferguson and Murray (2001) presented a five asset framework with categories and related subcategories slightly different from the DFID (2000) framework. In the DFID framework, personal category was replaced by the natural category.

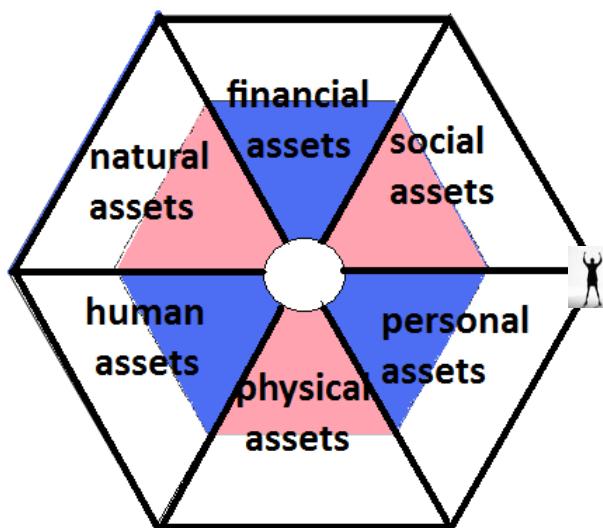
For comparison, both frameworks were used in this study. The first collected quantitative data; the natural category was but a subcategory of the physical category. The second framework was used in the qualitative data collection, and personal assets were eliminated.

Although data for both assessments were presented, each lacked complete support, there were no qualitative data to support the personal asset discussion, and there were no quantitative data to support the discussion of natural asset. Both assets were equally important. Neither could be assigned as a mere subcategory of the other. Since both are equally important, they should be a separate category by themselves, and dependent on the other categories.

Since natural assets cannot be delegated as a mere category and personal assets in the same way, a new model recognising both assets for its equal significance increases the five asset category to six. Assigning the natural as the sixth asset on the sustainable livelihood building block requires identifying its subcategories. Findings from the study propose the following five natural assets subcategories:

- Natural resources conservation
- Energy conservation and alternative energy development
- Freshwater resources management
- Waste minimization
- Safe care and use of chemicals

Figure 9-1Six Assets Building Blocks



Adapted from DFID (2000) , Ferguson and Murray (2001)

Figure 9-1 shows how the six assets building block configuration can be presented. Adding natural asset as a separate category transforms the pentagon into a hexagram.

Actually, there are no specific methods of data collection, or analysis, suitable only for PPT. Any information -- including tourist arrival statistics, tourism satellite account, household income, tourism impact are all useful for PPT analysis. However, to examine the relationship of pre-existing of the SMEs of the poor and opportunity and the improvements in welfare from PPT is valuable. (Jamieson, Goodwin and Edmunds, 2004)

Figure 9-2 Sustainable Livelihoods framework and impact of Pro-Poor Tourism policy in Thailand

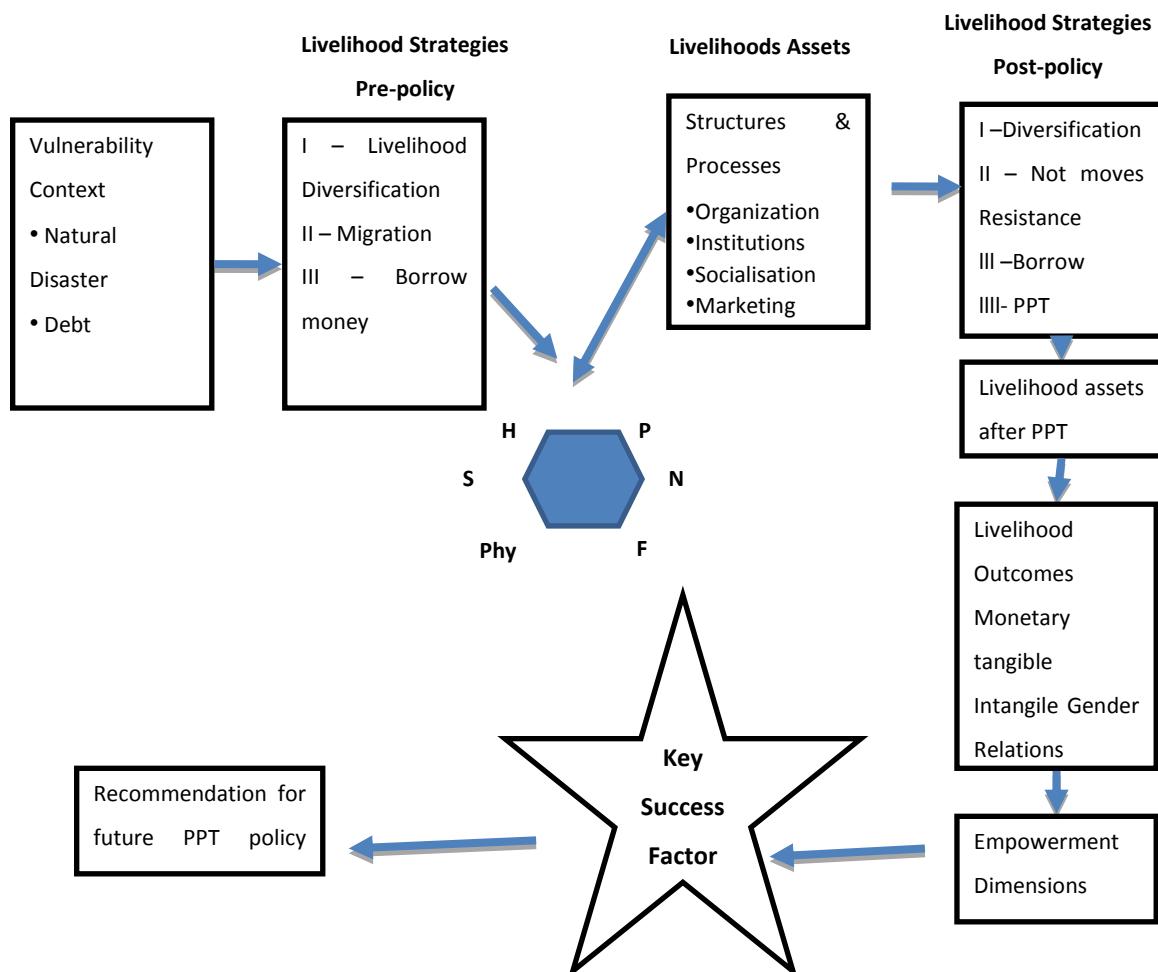


Figure 9-2 shows the sustainable livelihood framework that the author adopted from DFID (2000), Ashley (2000), Ferguson and Murray (2001) and findings from the thesis. The new sustainable livelihood framework can help identify the impact of PPT through the emphasis on one more aspect of assets by adding one more category which is personal assets. The framework also looks at the livelihood strategies pre-policy and livelihood strategies post-policy. After evaluating livelihood assets of the PPT projects, the livelihood outcome can be interpreted. The answer will lead to key success factor and the recommendation for future policy.

9.10 Challenges and Implications

The study showed that vulnerability significantly reduced only for the villagers who fully participated in the PPT initiatives. The challenge for sustainable livelihood in PPT programmes is to design a programme that can significantly benefit the poorest community members in terms financial, social, personal, physical, human and natural outcomes.

The challenge in tourism product development project as a business undertaking needs to be managed effectively in order to be sustainable in the long run. Government agencies should organise several training courses for project participants so that they had the knowledge and skills necessary. The training provided to project participants covered various aspects of business activities ranging from production, packaging, and marketing to financial management. With such training, villagers were equipped to undertake economic activities other than farming, which was their traditional occupation.

9.10.1 Challenges in financial outcomes

The finding of the study revealed that financial improvements can be only be sustained by increased participation. Positive financial improvements will only result from effective and efficient financial resources management.

The study revealed a need for alternative financial processes designed to target the poorest groups. The challenge is to design a financial component in the PPT programmes that can provide financial assistance for livelihood diversification to the poorest and most vulnerable members of the community. However, this facility should also be coupled with

strong improvements in screening loan beneficiaries; loans granted should only be invested on sustainable livelihood diversification.

9.10.2 Challenges in social outcomes

The findings of the study revealed that PPT programmes can have multiplier effects in social assets, even to those who are not direct participants in the development programmes. However, social factors improved though unsustainable debts can have negative effects on social relationships.

The challenge in developing social outcomes lies in the awareness that social outcomes can be easily influenced by increases in financial outcomes. Unsustainable financial outcomes lead to negative social relationships. PPT initiatives targeting improvements in social outcomes should include programmes that will increase community participation and interaction.

9.10.3 Challenges in personal outcomes

The finding in this study showed that indirect benefits from livelihood based PPT programmes can also result in improvements in the personal assets of individuals who are not direct participants. However, personal assets suffer in cases of unsuccessful participation.

The challenge in developing personal outcomes lies in the success of recruiting greater participation. Successful participation in PPT programmes lead to sustainable improvements in personal outcomes. When personal improvements are not sustained, this indicates problems that need immediate attention.

9.10.4 Challenges in physical outcomes

The findings in the study revealed that infrastructure development in village based PPT programmes easily impacts physical assets even for those who are not directly participating in the programmes. Improvements in physical infrastructure in the community is not exclusive, it is improvement shared by all members regardless of their level of participation.

Again the challenge for insuring sustainable physical outcomes at the individual level is to encourage more full participation. Complete participation will result in more significant and sustainable improvements compared to no or partial participation.

9.10.5 Challenges in Human Outcomes

Identifying positive results from increase in human outcomes can be difficult in close rural communities. Therefore, findings may show PPT impact and improvements in humans greater than all the other categories.

The challenge for improving human outcomes in Had Bai revealed the need for knowledge and skills training programmes focused on developing abilities of villagers in group 1. In group 2, the challenge is in finding urgent financial interventions to relieve debt burdens.

9.10.6 Challenges in natural outcomes

The findings showed that there is an urgent need to include processes and policies enforced to proactively protect environmental degradation. The challenge is in the effective implementation of sustainable environmental practices that will ensure that natural assets in the village can be maintained and continually support the livelihood of people in the community.

9.10.7 Challenges in how to sustain the livelihood benefit

As mentioned in chapter 4 the OTOP pro-poor tourism policy is not originally from Thailand. The Thai Government used the OVOP rural development policy of Oita prefecture in Japan to develop a similar program in Thailand. However, Japan's Oita OVOP movement has sustained sales until the present. However, many projects in other countries failed to sustain sales and were discontinued (Mukai and Fujikura, 2015). The ability to develop unique products which cannot be imitated or to quickly develop a new unique product if imitated, and to continue active marketing are crucial to make the project sustainable (Hiramatsu 2006).

Table 9-4 Japan OVOP and Thailand OTOP Principle

Japan OVOP Principle	Thailand OTOP Principle
Local yet global	World class standards
Self-reliance and creativity	Distinctive characteristics
Human Resources Development	Human resource and technology development

The three principles of both OVOP and OTOP are indispensable for the projects to gain sustainability. Principle 3 (Human Resources Development) is particularly most important because it is people who enable the other two principles.

Had Bai PPT via Thailand's OTOP program misses the three main principles. First, the villager cannot prevent the emergence of competing imitation products from Laos and hence ended with a poor quality product. Second, it has an unclear marketing strategy and depends on only hand woven products, which excluded men. Third, the village has failed to create awareness leading to cooperation and human resource development.

Stable livelihoods are more important than more jobs or income creation. PPT must critically consider if tourism development, in the long-term, will jeopardise the poor's livelihood portfolios, for example, through its impact on the health of community natural resources, as well as their livelihood capabilities through replacing traditional livelihoods.

Thinking through Policy Implication

Poverty is an influential factor that inhibits a country economic development. Every government administration in Thailand from the past until now has acted in the belief that poverty is the issue affecting a majority of citizens, and has been trying to solve the problem. Different poverty reduction schemes and measures which go in tandem with government policies are deployed but the implementation of the Pro-Poor Tourism (PPT) provides no positive result. The reasons derived from conducting this research are:

1. Inability to thoroughly understand the nature and causes of rural poverty
2. Pro-poor Tourism Policy is universally written from central administration.
3. Efforts from the public sector, private sector, and locals are not fully integrated.
4. The PPT concept is not incorporated in the National Tourism Strategy.

Inability to thoroughly understand the nature and causes of rural poverty

Therefore, for PPT to be effective in poverty reduction there needs to be some adjustment in the thinking process and guidelines.

Poverty in the rural area is a systemic problem that involves several factors. The solution is not as simple as giving away money or creating jobs for villagers. To successfully reduce poverty in rural areas, especially with PPT, a thorough understanding of the nature and causes of rural poverty needs to be taken into consideration by the authorities.

Generally, policymakers often define ‘poverty’ in a monetary dimension, in terms of income level and the economic status of individuals against standard cost of living or poverty line.

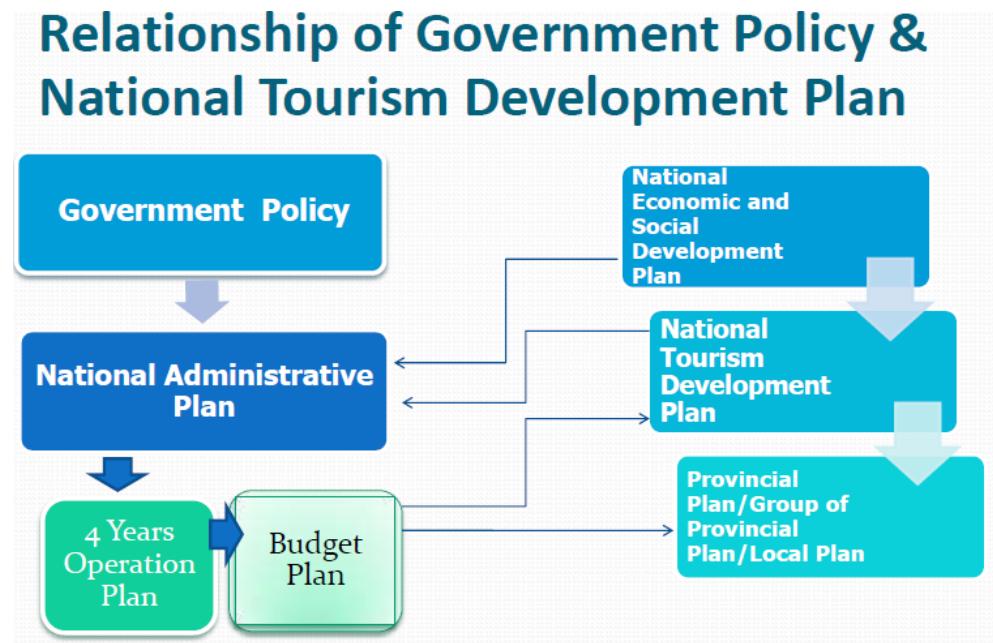
When poverty is defined by the lack of income to support consumption, policy and tools to tackling poverty will be directed into increasing household income. Efforts will be geared to improving factors of production and increasing efficiency, of market condition instead of the needs of ‘the poor’. Subsidies will come in the form of loans which will only benefit SME business owners, but not ‘the poorest’ as intended.

For this reason, the definition of poverty should also include other factors that are non-monetary in nature, such as sustainable livelihood or other assets. Then, the classification of poverty considering both monetary and non-monetary dimensions should be centrally used by all concerned parties and budget should be allocated strategically to each class of the poor.

Pro-poor Tourism Policy is universally written from central administration.

Pro-poor Tourism Policy from the central administration doesn’t take into account the differences in condition and context that each rural area is in. Many researchers believe that there is a better chance of success than just ‘one policy fits all’. (Siriprachai and, Wisavet and Srisuchart, 2004)

Figure 9-3 Relationship of the Government Policy and The National Tourism Development Plan



Poverty cannot effectively be tackled because the authorities are not serious about addressing the issue; it is always a Top Down Policy. The authorities tend to see the poor as just a small part of the whole rather than as an important mechanism in driving national development. Moreover, the stereotyped mindset that treats all rural areas as the same and that a centralised rural development fits all accentuates the issue further. The application of a model that proved a success in one area doesn't prove success elsewhere with a different context, social structure and culture. (Panpiamrat, 1993, Karnpisit, 2003, Wattanasirithum, 2006, Suwan, 2006)

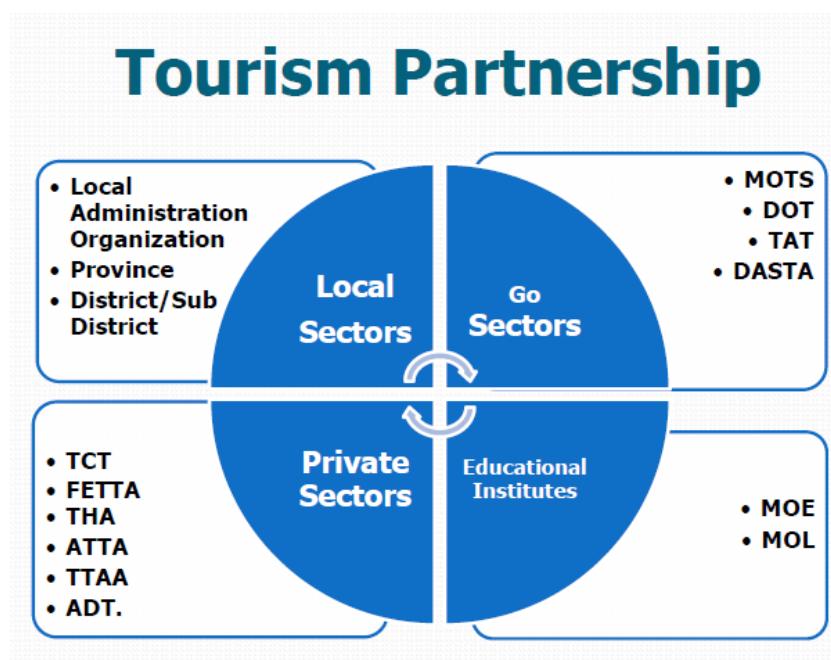
Economic development focusing on the physical well-being of citizens by building public utility and providing public assistance for the welfare of the rural society is indeed a good idea; however, if the readiness of the rural society in terms of environmental and social is overlooked, this will cause the villagers to become poorer and with more debts because of having to buy the non-necessities (for life in the rural) such as motorcycle and electrical appliances. Income earns from farming will have to be paid for those non-necessities that signify sophisticated life than for basic needs.

Additionally, Thailand's National Economic and Social Development Plan focuses on industrial and service sectors more than agricultural sector causing a change in the usage and the price of land. Industrial growth has shrunk the percentage of farm land. Land prices shoot up from economic stimulation and many farmers sell their heritage to seize the opportunity. Not long after using all the money earned from selling their lands, the farmers become 'poor' like before, but even worse than before because they are now 'poor farmers' with no land to farm or 'landless poor farmers'. Some became labourers on their own previously owned land. Furthermore, some of the 'landless poor farmers' will invade the forest to farm because they are not capable of doing other work.

Lack of effective stakeholder involvement – Government, private sector, international organization, NGOs, and especially the poor

Effective stakeholder involvement in tackling poverty, acknowledging rural differentiation and carrying capacity are keys to enabling the poor to work effectively together to promote PPT. To provide a better definition of poverty we should relate poverty to a broader aspect and to other dimensions -- other assets, the lack of opportunity in several areas, a lack of power and rights, limited access to factors of production such as land, capital and market, and decentralization of the local administration and resources for better involvement of the locals.

Figure 9-4 shows ideal cooperation among tourism partnerships

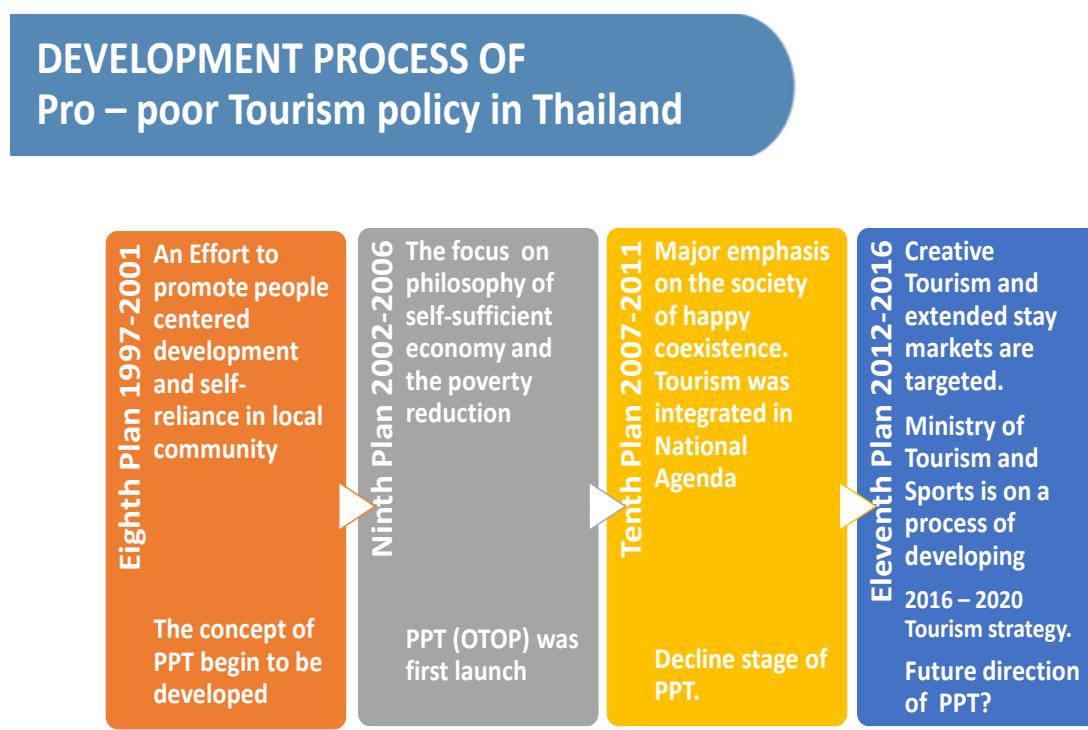


PPT Concept not incorporated into the National Tourism Strategy.

In order to create an effective pro-poor tourism policy, it is quite important to adopt adequate poverty concepts in the National Tourism Strategy, but this is not being done..

Meanwhile, policymakers must be practical when identify groups of poor people and prioritise them.

Figure 9-5Development Process of Pro-poor Tourism Policy in Thailand



17

Thailand's national development plans has been using economic to lead the development for more than 40 years (1961-1997), since the first national development plan to the seventh plan. This led the National Tourism Strategy which refers to The National development plan to be strongly critisised. The Eighth Plan (1997-2001) was a dramatic change n both content and creation. The plan has shifted from economic growth orientation to "people-centered development" through promoting self-reliance in the local community. The Eighth Plan consists of a whole chapter aimed to promote local participation and the ability of the local community to play an important role in local development. This included the funding for traning courses on community leadership and how to manage natural resources. The plans also emphasised the involvement of NGOs and businesses to work with the community. The Eighth Plan is a good start to incorporate pro-poor concept.

The Ninth Plan (2002-2006), although having less content and commitment to people-centred development but retained the same aspirations as the Eighth Plan.

The Ninth Plan attempts to balance the concept of people-centred development of the Eighth Plan with the economic recovery strategies to ease the country from the 1997 crisis (the Tom Yam Kung crisis).

The plans adopt H.M the King's philosophy of Sufficiency Economy in principle and focuses on poverty reduction for both the economic and tourism sectors. (NESDB 2002)

The stability of the economy improved, poverty was lessened, while the people's quality of life improved greatly as a result of expanded health services, better health insurance in both quality and quantity covering most of the population, and a decline in drug problems. But the Thai economy remains vulnerable to external instabilities (NESDB 2007).

The Tenth National Economic and Social Development Plan (2007-2011) was promulgated in an auspicious year for all Thai people. It was created with ideas using popular participation of people in all sectors, groups and regions countrywide in every step of the planning process. There was a consensus to adopt the philosophy of the Sufficiency Economy as the guideline in conjunction with a holistic people-centered development approach and to pave the way towards a "society of happy coexistence" to enhance the wellness of all people, consistent with the will and determination of His Majesty the King. The Tenth Plan includes tourism in the national agenda. During this period tourism arrivals increased steadily from 2005 to 2010, at 7.5 percent a year on average, from 11.5 million in 2005 to 15.8 million in 2010. (MOTS 2011)

The Eleventh Plan (2012-2016), won Cabinet approval on 15 February 2011, Its objective is to move Thailand's tourism competitiveness up at least 15 places, putting it among the top five destinations in Asia. The plan intends to increase tourism income by at least 5 percent during the five-year period.

In order to achieve this aim, five strategies have been set for implementation. The first strategy seeks to develop infrastructure and logistics, linking with domestic and international tourism. The second strategy involves the development and rehabilitation of tourism sites and improvement of various rules and regulations to enhance the country's potential for accommodating more tourist arrivals.

In the third strategy, emphasis will be placed on the development of the creative economy, which is the focus in the 11th National Economic and Social Development Plan, 2012-2016. New products and services will be launched, while incentives for tourism trade and investment will be offered and human resource development will be emphasised.

The fourth strategy seeks to create confidence in Thailand's good image among visitors, so that the country will welcome a greater number of tourists who will spend more in Thailand. The fifth strategy calls for the participation of the public sector, civil society, and local administrative organizations in tourism management.

Whether tourism policy will benefit the poor or not is up to the distribution of political power in decision-making. Richter (1993: 192) argues that tourism policy has so far been an 'elite-driven policy', and capital requirements mean 'negotiations which more closely follow private economic advantage than some ideal of balanced development'. Fore tends to mirror the distribution of political influence more generally'

9.11 Recommendation for Future Research

The author will report information from interviews and focus group discussions as recommendation for future research. "Voice of the poor" is truly important and cannot be ignored. The success or failure of the projects depends on both policy itself and the knowledge and readiness of the poor.

While pro-poor tourism, including the OTOP scheme, might go some way towards improving the livelihoods of certain sectors within local communities, this research demonstrated that the poorest continued to lose out. As the informants told the author, the poorest members of the village had neither the time nor the money to invest in PPT-related work, thus preventing their participation in the scheme. Nonetheless, they were proud of

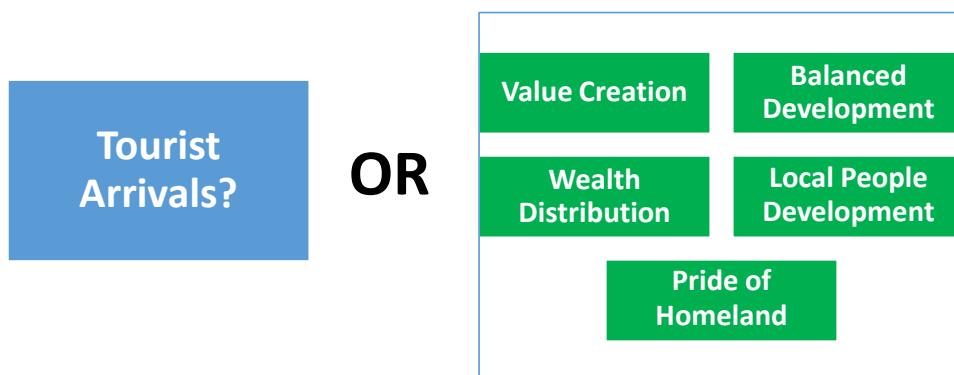
their way of life and were willing to draw on their unique lifestyles as a means of gaining tourist income.

There is no specific methods of data collection, or analysis that are suitable only for PPT. Any information include statistics of tourists arrival, tourism satellite account, household income, tourism impact are all useful for PPT analysis. However, to examine the relationship of pre-existing of the SMEs of the poor and opportunity and the improvements in welfare from PPT is valuable. (Jamieson, Goodwin and Edmunds, 2004)

The idea is like the convergent of sustainable concept to almost every kind of tourism. Merging PPT with other multi-disciplines is challenging. It will be useful for international development to use PPT's underlying principles – such as a holistic livelihoods approach (Ashley et al., 2000) to overlapping with sustainable livelihood approach or ecotourism, policy debates – similary to those of sustainable development. (Irwin, 2001, Macbeth, 2005).

Figure 9-6How do we measure success of PPT

**How Do We Measure Success
of PPT?**



9.12 Summary of PPT key success factors

Internal Factors

- Participation
- Suitable public relations and marketing plans
- Good database system with regular follow-up and evaluation - Transfer of local wisdom and cultural heritage
- Good management
- Fair distribution of benefits
- Use of appropriate technology
- Regular product development and training
- Good budgeting/loaning

External Factors

- Reliable allies and networks such as nearby villages
- Participation from outside stakeholders and government officers
- Easy access by tourists
- Communication, road, logistics and infrastructure (tourists can reach and stay in the community)

In sum, internal factors are the most important factors for the success of PPT. The key factors for success are based on participation, marketing, and the capability of community organizations to manage tourism efficiently. Participation means the participation of everyone in the community according to roles most suited to them in that particular social set-up. Participation includes thinking, planning, working and evaluation, all of which are based on understanding, friendship and consideration.

The following section derived from the focus group discussion. The focus group discussions gathered all stakeholders namely, villagers, practitioners, policy makers, private sector and the NGOs.

The author asked participants in the last focus group discussion held in 2010 what kind of PPT initiatives would bring the most benefit and improve the livelihood outcomes of the poor. The participants then suggested “Livelihood Tourism” as an approach that would allow the poor at all levels to participate more easily and effectively.

The main PPT activity in Had Bai village is weaving. This effectively excludes men, as weaving is the role of women. However, there are many more activities that could draw in more participants, such as making brooms, furniture or traditional paper lantern. The poorest could be taught basic agricultural skills such as how to fish in the Mekong River and how to plant rice and other crops.

The new poverty situation such as debt problem or negative adverse would affect PPT in Thailand. Thus, the author would like to suggest alternative PPT in relation to “Livelihood Tourism”

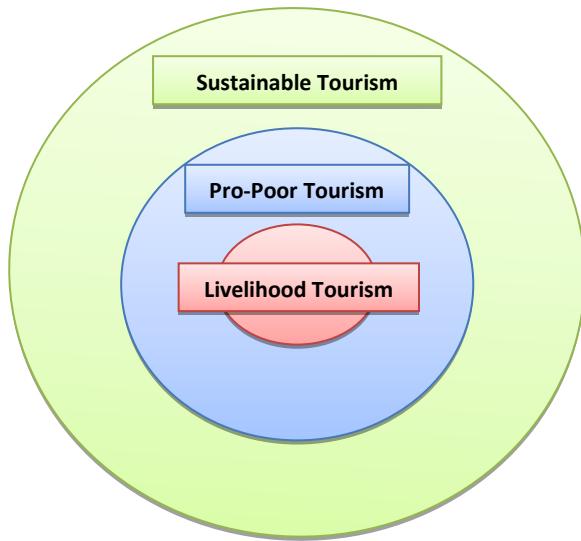
9.13 Summary of Livelihood Tourism (LT)

Livelihood Tourism (LT) might therefore be considered as a concept distinct from, albeit similar to, Community-based Tourism (CBT), of which is might be said to form a sub-set. While it also shares many characteristics with PPT, unlike the latter it is not only aimed at benefitting the poor.

LT puts emphasis on having visitors appreciate the stories, skills and products of the community. “Story” here refers not to works of fiction but to the distinctive oral history of a community, and the stories of the daily lives of its members. “Skill” refers to those things that local communities are capable of doing, whether the production of artefacts or the preparation of special food, or to certain activities. “Product”, unlike in the OTOP scheme, might be multiple and need not be unique to a particular locale. For instance while poorer members of the Had Bai community might not have the time or capital to engage in weaving, they could produce good quality brooms, bamboo furniture or local lanterns. Such activities could be those traditionally performed both by men and women, thus ensuring a more even rate of participation between the sexes.

Home-stays, as with CBT, could be an important part of LT, but still just a part. Home stays work better with the relatively wealthier members of the community, whose homes are more amenable physically and who are more socially adept at accommodating visitor. Poorer members of the community, by contrast, could sell their products or simply welcome tourists to observe, and perhaps participate in, their daily activities, for instance on the farm.

Figure 9-7 Simplified Idea of Livelihood Tourism



The LT model, on the other hand, is predicated on the belief that everything in the community can be developed and participated in by visitors in some ways. Such a belief encompasses not only local products but also ways of life, music, food, activities, events, festivals and sightseeing spots.

It might thus be said that whereas CBT aims to bring *in* visitors to the community and OTOP aims to market *out* community products to the wider public, both domestically and internationally, LT aims to ensure that both *in* and *out* are promoted.

One criticism of the OTOP scheme is that many supposedly 'unique' products from different communities are virtually identical; for example, as with the *naem* (fermented pork) produced in Chiang Rai province is no different from that produced in the neighbouring province of Chiang Mai and other places (Charoenrach, 2001).

LT, on the other hand, makes use of stories unique to a particular community; for example the event of the dragon fire on the fifteenth night of the eleventh month is unique to Nong Khai province, and cannot be copied by other communities. While few communities have major memories, so to speak, the of past and its relation—the stories and the people whose stories are told—do have the opportunity to play a larger role in community memory.

Moreover, the concept of LT can be applied to very small scale villages (*moo ban*), unlike OTOP, which, as the name implies, is based at the level of the *tambon* (sub-district). Indeed, several villages using an LT model could work together to create a wider network. For instance, villagers in Had Bai village could work together with their counterparts in Had Sai Ngoen and Had Sai Thong villages to form a larger tourist attraction, with the products from these three villages sold together to create a more varied market.

Many cultures have disappeared because of a lack of people able or willing to continue local cultural traditions and wisdom. In Had Bai, the villagers did not worry much about natural disasters, noting that they were able to ‘bend with the wind’, or become accustomed to them. The real vulnerability they feared was the disappearance of Thai Lue culture and their livelihoods.

In most small villages, the potential inheritors of these traditions always leave to work in towns and cities. Despite the relatively well-known handicraft traditions in Had Bai, the younger generation tends not to appreciate this, instead searching for higher incomes in urban jobs and leaving the older villagers as guardians of their culture.

It is hoped that if LT could be implemented successfully, villagers would be able to make a sustainable income from their culture and traditions, and that this in turn would foster a greater appreciation among the younger generation. Knowledge management (KM) would also be applied to prevent the loss of the culture chain and livelihood.

The concept of LT is based on what I will call a ‘BIM’ model, where ‘B’ refers to brainstorming, ‘I’ to information and ‘M’ to management. First, older members of the community would meet to decide what “stories” they wished to focus on. At the same time, on the part of the young, some village children (informally) and schoolchildren (formally) would facilitate community knowledge, spirit and ownership in the process on the part of the young, which by its very nature contributes to the possibility of an ongoing community. Second, information would be gathered about the village, sources of funding and policies, and this information would be shared among the villagers, tourists and others involved, whether from the government, the private sector or NGOs. Third, a knowledge management approach would be applied to ensure the transfer of local knowledge from one generation to the next. As my informants said: “Who’s afraid of floods or hailstorms? What I fear more is that Thai Lue culture will disappear”. Pro-poor Tourism may benefit the poor elsewhere in the world, but in Thailand it has worked only to improve the overall livelihood of lower-income groups, and has scarcely touched the very poorest in society.

The author hopes that “Livelihood Tourism” as an approach can be developed and will allow the poor at all levels to participate more easily and effectively. The model emerging from the thesis can help develop more effective Pro-poor Tourism in the future.

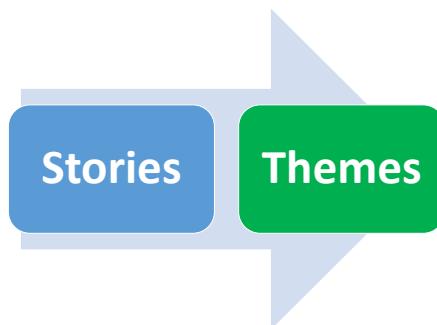
The following section details the outcome of the focus group discussion on how to establish Livelihood Tourism.

9.14 Process of Making Livelihood Tourism (PPT)

9.14.1 Preparation of community readiness for LT

- Conduct community meeting or dialogues to evaluate the tourism needs (“want” and “do not want”)
- Pursue the “want” and disregard the “do not want”
- Find out the selling points or assess objectively the resources of the community

- Study the community's history to find out the community's strengths, resources and 'story' (for instance in the case of Thai Lue weaving, a story about a Thai Lue princess spending all day and all night during the full moon festival in November weaving a length of cloth to give to the monks, believing that by making merit in this way she will send her soul to meet the commoner that she loves once a year on that night).
- Set tourism goals and visions and arrange educational tours for local people to see and experience various forms of tourism in another village
- Equip local people with tourism skills through attendance of seminars, symposia, formal schooling or training programs
- Establish tourism programmes which connect with the selling points of the community
- Design activities through group processes and participation, establishing and promoting tourism products through workshops. The prevention of negative impacts must also be considered.
- Construct LT networks with other villages/ ethnic groups to form alliances
- Seek assistants and supporters
- Regularly evaluate the results of previous tourism initiatives, if any.



Participants believe that LT can be considered as a tool for the following achievements:

- Preservation of resources and culture
- Fostering of self-confidence among local people
- Provision of opportunities for good cooperation among people
- Creation of high quality tourism
- Creation of more income for local people

However, they also foresaw the following challenges:

- Conservation of natural and cultural resources
- Control and management of the suitable use of resources
- Provision for the management of sustainable resources
- Creation of network connections in LT
- Creation of business mechanism environment to support local people
- Setting new and solid standards for LT

In summary, LT management requires a clear vision, the preparation and readiness of the community, effective marketing and cooperation with other bodies. Tourism resources for LT can be classified into four categories:

1. Merchandises, goods, e.g. OTOP products
2. Natural resources, e.g. rivers, mountains
3. Cultural heritage and lifestyle
4. Historical background
5. Climate and geography

In another discipline the LT resources are classified into three main areas:

- Social Capital
- Cultural Capital
- Natural capital

9.14.2 Key factors for the success of LT

- The identification of tourism resources, with an emphasis on finding the unique attributes and 'story', and local wisdom of the community which has been handed down over the generations.
- To treasure and maintain tourism resources
- To conduct research and development into new products and resources
- To educate and share knowledge with local people of all ages-
- To set up organizations to manage and support LT
- To conduct extensive public relations work as necessary
- To evaluate both the positive and negative outcomes
- To foster cooperation among people and networks

- To ensure good planning and continuous operations, establishing clear policies for project continuity
- To create networks and alliances
- To ensure that good management knowledge is transferred

9.14.3 Marketing for LT

Livelihoods cannot be bought or sold, and in this respect they are invisible goods. However, they are equally not something that can be copied, and as such, LT can be truly unique in each village.

However, the success of LT is dependent on a community having proper processes of public relations. Tourists should be carefully screened to ensure that both sides benefit from the project.

9.14.4 The four 'Ps' of LT marketing

Product : LT products consist of livelihoods, goods and services which tourist must come to visit, touch, see and feel in order to experience the distinctive nature and culture of the village. The 'products' received by the tourists in the form of service will be of cultural identity, natural scenery, and the local way of life, and they will enjoy services and warm welcome from the local people.

Price : Prices should be clear, value-laden and fair for both sides, with the villagers satisfied with the price and the tourists feeling that they have received value for money.

Place of distribution : In order to introduce LT, government agencies and tour companies must work together to create suitable schemes for each community. Tourists normally know about the community through brochures, guidebooks, documentary books, the internet and tour agencies. Foreign tour agencies should work with Thai tour agencies and local government in the screening and placement of tourists in various communities. Other places of information distribution are hotels and local shops. Tour agencies would have to work closely with communities, who in turn would talk to tour agencies concerning their requirements. Tour groups should be selected using the following criteria:

- Responsibility of company policies and understanding of, and interest in, LT - Ability to provide training programmes for guides in order to equip them with knowledge of communities and their responsibilities towards them
- Written contracts between community and tour agencies concerning details of activities, price and personnel, for instance whether tour guides should be locals or should be drawn in from outside - Tour agencies should be responsible for making clear to tourists the sensitivities of the community in terms of culture, livelihood, way of life, religions, etc.
- Detailed agreements should be drawn up between the tour agencies and communities, outlining the needs of both sides. Taken into account should be issues related to the time of the year, season of harvest, seasonal cultural activities, and information indicating the readiness of the community. The tour agencies should also give information about the tourists such as their age, sex, interests and any other issues pertinent to the provision of homestay accommodation
- Evaluation of the feedback from both tourists and local Production of summary reports indicating the LT situation is important in order that plans might be made for further development and the necessary data submitted to the government

Promotion : LT can seek to attract tourists by means of promotions such as seasonal low prices and special activities and services . A tourism resource map, giving tourists information on what to do in the area, is also extremely important for LT. This map must show local shops with arrows indicating directions and the clear identification of location names in both the local language and English. Technology can also be tapped and be taken advantage with through the use of electronic marketing (e-Marketing). Livelihood tourism projects in the locality can be advertised through this platform so that as majority are internet users at this technology age, they will be able to know these things in no time and be able to save a lot of cost. However, traditional platforms may be continued depending of whatever is very effective in terms of gathering tourists.

9.15 Theoretical Reflection

While the PPT aims to contribute more constant streams of income to the poor, the fair distribution of resources and opportunities can be argued. The study revealed that the net benefits from the PPT initiatives in Had Bai were not equally distributed. The villagers in the lower end of income distribution who did not have collateral did not participate in the projects, and most of those who were able to acquire loans faced serious financial problems as well as high levels of debt. Despite the fact that there were some benefits from both village-based tourism Village Fund and tourism products development OTOP programmes, vulnerability and the high level of outstanding household debts still remain as pressing problems.

The results showed however, that participants benefiting most from the initiatives were those owning sufficient land, and able to rent out land to landless farmers, while devoting more of their own time to tourism-related production like weaving and other activities. The poorest, especially the landless villagers, had minimal access to these benefits. The findings about uneven distribution were affirmed by PPT researcher and practitioners as acceptable that the poorest may not benefit at all from PPT initiatives while some of non-poor may well do. (Harrison, 2008)

OVOP projects have not always been successively implemented either in Japan or overseas. These projects are essentially dependent on the manufacture and sale of local goods and/or services. The degree to which these products are financially sustainable is crucial for success. There were some problems, however, such as dissatisfaction that income was not distributed equally among the producers' groups, a decline in prices due to similarity among products, and a shortage of raw materials (Takei 2007).

PPT in this research can be summarised that actually, PPT is not a specific theory or model. It can be any form of tourism that delivers net benefits to the poor in the area. As a result, it is not the kind of tourism involved, but the extent to which it improve the livelihoods of the poor. The use of the term 'pro-poor tourism' is for everyone promoting tourism as a tool for poverty reduction, regardless of what kind of tourism and what they term it.

Policy recommendation

This research finds that pro-poor tourism policy should emphasise these guidelines:

- 1) Measures, strategies, and/or procedures in tackling poverty should not lead to changes in the way of life, which are deeply embedded to the natural environment, but should rather integrate into the way of life of the poor.
- 2) Development of public utilities, public assistance (welfare), and/or other development activities should take into account the capacity and readiness of the population and its environment. Introducing the symbols or indicators of civilization to the rural society that are not ready to accept and that environmental condition is not ready, the rural villagers will end up into a deeper poverty from having to lend money to pay for new non-necessities.
- 3) Improve the quality of the rural population with better education system, better hygiene, and skill enhancement in earning income for a rural living should be the first priority for the authority. Secondly, the authority needs to improve the quality of the environment especially soil, water, and forest which are all important to the lives of the rural villagers in terms of having direct relation to their primary occupation, farming.
- 4) Encourage and support the unique identity of each rural village (a self-contained unit that forgoes external reliability). If there should be a need for connecting with people outside one's own society, it should be those of the same level of society. If there needs to be a relationship with a bigger society, the rural society should be very careful with the disadvantages in having to exchange between the two societies. At the same time, the bigger society that is also totally connected to one's own way of life should lessen the attempt in taking advantage of the smaller society in order to keep a stable and long-lasting relationship.
- 5) Approach in tackling poverty has to change from 'giving' to 'making them capable of self-help' as much as possible. In giving all the best possible help doesn't absolutely demolish poverty. When help runs out, the rural villagers who are used to being helped will 'wait' or 'beg' for the help. If we change from helping to teaching them all the skills necessary for self-help, the writer is certain that poverty will decrease or in time be demolished.

- 6) Tackling poverty is similar to tackling all other problems that involves people. Therefore, the key is to let the poor rural villagers who take ownership to the problem think of their own solution and implement the solution on their own. The poor rural villagers know best about the situation they are in and prioritise what they need the most. Stakeholder both public and private should take part as 'chaperon' in giving guidance and support needed in terms of technics and academic than actually solving the problem.
- 7) The Royal initiative of the 'Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy' by His Majesty King Bhumibol Adulyadej needs to be put into practice as much and as fast as possible. With this, poverty will absolutely be demolished for good. Under the 'Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy', HM King Bhumibol guides us to focus on two important aspects which are people and environment in terms of human ecology. For 'people' aspect, He guides us to stress on building contentment, unity, awareness and conscience, making use of local wisdom, and being generous to each other. As for 'environment', He guides us to create biodiversity in the rural area and to give importance to the carrying capacity
- 8) For the rural society, development plan from public sector should focus on fundamental needs such as education, hygiene, and work skill. Development activity and project should avoid stimulating or influencing the rural population to become materialism or consumerism. On the contrary, the development activity and project should target on blending human in with the rural environment. Focus on local wisdom and reinforce sufficiency economy with humility

Over-all Conclusion:

After considering the findings of the study, both quantitative and qualitative, there appears to be a close relationship between the following variables: the country's tourism policy, poverty status or condition of a particular locality, sustainable livelihood programs being implemented in the community and assets of the people living in the community.

Accordingly, if the tourism policy of the country or a locality is geared towards pro-poor, facilitative of pro-poor initiatives or the eventual improvement of the well-being of the poor through tourism activities, it can definitely alleviate poverty.

Poverty is generally considered as a social disease. It is something that everybody does not want to happen in his or her life. If it persists and is left unabated, it can pose serious threats to security, as crime rates will go up. If crime does rise, it will become a restraining or a 'pull-down' factor to investors wanting to pour in their capital. If there are no investors in any locality for that matter, the economic condition, as expected, will stagnate. If the invested funds are used according to their purpose, they can definitely benefit the community or the market. In the eventual end, the consumers are greatly benefited.

If livelihood activities like eco-tourism or rural tourism in the chosen locality or the country are sustained, then it cannot just benefit the present generation, but must serve future generations as well. Thus, assets of whatever form and kind will continue to expand.

Government intervention and support is equally important in the equation. At any given time, the government must be around for regulatory purposes. If the absence of a regulatory body is quite noticeable, abuses might ensue which can be detrimental to the consumers. Even more there could be factors needing improvement on the part of government, such as a presence for streamlined operations, less bureaucracy, efficient processes and clear demarcation lines for the authorities and responsibility so that harmony can be achieved.

In the process, however, there may be other things to facilitate or hinder growth and development. It is just a matter of identifying which factor influences or facilitates which component. With that, weak points can easily be identified and remedied.

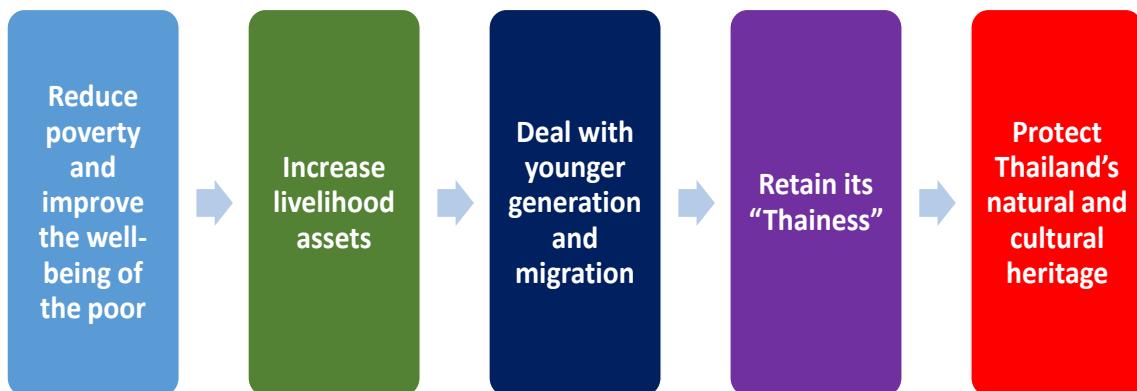
Despite this, tourism continues to be prioritised as a key development option for economies stimulation. It is a trade off between cultural richness, authentic culture, real nature or electricity and infrastructure that comes with development

Thus, Thailand's case is most important to consider what forms of pro-poor tourism development are likely to emerge from such a highly politicised landscape. Top-down governance, tourism policies and plans are less likely to reflect a community's social, cultural and environmental concerns than are the economic imperatives of those in power. Despite the term 'participate' in Thailand tourism development, it cannot be assumed that they are able to participate meaningfully. Neither should it be assumed that their participation will lead to an equitable distribution of benefits.

The long-term prospects of PPT are therefore in question. How to put PPT at the core of policy making? It would be useful for Thailand to adopt a more pro-poor focus and use tourism as a poverty alleviation strategy. Moreover, regulatory frameworks at a national, regional policy formulation should adopt pro-poor approaches and sustainable principles.

The finding points to the need for close monitoring, better screening, and closer supervision from government officials, banking institutions and community leaders during the project promotion and implementation.

OVERALL CHALLENGE: HOW DOES Thailand Pro-poor Tourism policy



APPENDIX A

Household Survey Questionnaire

To what extent has pro-poor tourism improved the livelihood outcomes of the villagers in 'Had Bai'?

Greetings, my name is Somparat Srisantisuk and I am a student funded by the Thai government, and am currently studying my doctoral degree at the LSE, University of London. I would like to ask you about your work, livelihood, and the villagers needs. I would like to know what your problems are concerning the VBT (Village Base Tourism) and OTOP program (One Tambon One Product) and the how the project has affected your livelihood. All your names will remain anonymous and will not be exposed to the government or any other person. The answer that is received will be part of the overall information in the thesis; I ask your help in answering the following questions:

Address of interviewee.....

Date of the interview / /

Amount of time interviewed **First Time** **Date**/...../..... **Time**

Second Time Date/...../..... **Time**

Part 1 General information concerning the population

Please make a mark in front of the number or fill in the blank.

1. Name of the interviewee
2. Status (2.1) Head of the family (2.2) Spouse of the head of the family
 (2.3) Child of the head of the family (2.4) Cousin or others (specify)
3. Gender (3.1) Male (3.2) Female
4. Age (4.1) 20-29 (4.2) 30-39 (4.3) 40-49 (4.4) 50-59 (4.5) 60 years and older
5. Education (5.1) Illiterate (5.2) Grade 1-4 (5.3) Grade 4-6
 (5.4) Grade 7-9 (5.5) Grade 9-12 (5.6) Bachelor Degree
 (5.7) Higher than a bachelor degree
6. Status (6.1) Single (6.2) Married (6.3) Widowed
7. Do you have any children? (7.1) sons persons (7.2) daughters persons
8. Do you have children who are working? (8.1) yes people (8.2) no
9. Do the children who are already working help with household expenses or not?
9.1 yes 9.2 no

10. Do you have any children living outside of the village?

10.1. yes, there are people 10.2 no

11. Where have your children gone to live?

11.1. Married

11.2. Education in Bangkok

11.3. Gone to work outside of the village but in Chaing Rai

11.4. Gone to work in other provinces

11.5. Gone to work in Bangkok

11.6. Others (specify)

12. What kind of job would you like your children to do in the future?

12.1. Government official

12.2. Employee

12.3. Agriculture

12.4. Commerce

12.5. Tourism-related work

12.6. Others (specify)

13. Have you or any other family members migrated to another area or not?

13.1. Yes

13.2. No

14. If yes, where was the migration to?

14.1. Another village in 'Amphur' Chiang Kong

14.2. Another 'tambon' in Chiang Rai

14.3. Another province (specify)

15. Please state the reason of the migration

15.1. Move to a better place

15.2. Because of my parents job

15.3. Because of my job/ or my spouse's

15.4. Because I was forced out

15.5. In order to find a job at 'Had Bai'

15.6. Because the original place is being destroyed by natural disasters (specify)

15.7. Others (specify)

Part 2 Basic information concerning the demographic characteristics: comparing 3 specific time periods, before and after the operation of the “Village base tourism” project and the “One Tambon One Product” project

Please make a √ mark in the space that corresponds with the answer or fill in the blank.

Question	Answer	1999	2001	2011
16. What are the qualities of your plot of land?	(1)Does not own any land	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(2)Owns land	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(3)Owns land but belongs to Sor. Por.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Kor.4-01

Question	Answer	1999	2001	2011
17. What is the size of your plot of land?	(1)0-2 rai (2) 2-3 rai (3) 3-5 rai (4) more than 5 rai (5) more than 10 rai	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
18. Do you have a house of your own?	(1)Own house (2) Rented (3)Living with others (4) Homeless	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
19. Does your house have a weaving machine?	(1)Yes (2)No	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
20. Are you a member of the 'weaving' group?	(1)Yes (2)No (3)I don't know it.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
21. Is your head of the family a member of the weaving group?	(1)Yes (2)No (3)I don't know it.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
22. Are there any family members who are members of the weaving group?	(1)Yes (2)No (3)I don't know it.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
23. Did you participate in the "Village Base Toursim"?	(1)Yes (2)No (3)I don't know it.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>

Question	Answer	1999	2001	2011
27. What is/are the head of the family's additional occupation(s)? (may answer more than one)	(1) Agriculture (2)Weaving (3)Employee (4) House wife (5) Business owner (6)Government official (7)Tourism/service (8) Occupation involved with OTOP /VBT (9)Others	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
28. What is the quality of your family's income?	(1) No income (2) Good income (3)There is income but is not stable	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
29. Your main income	(1)Daily (2)Weekly (3)Monthly		Baht	Baht
30. Your additional income	(1)Daily (2)Weekly (3)Monthly		Baht	Baht

Question	Answer	1999	2001	2011
31. Your spouse's main income	(1)Daily (2)Weekly (3)Monthly	Baht Baht Baht	Baht Baht Baht	Baht Baht Baht
32. Your spouse's additional income	(1)Daily (2)Weekly (3)Monthly	Baht Baht Baht	Baht Baht Baht	Baht Baht Baht
33. Your family's income <u>per month</u> is about how much?	(1)Less than 500 baht (2) 500 – 1,000 baht (3)1,000 – 1,500 baht (4) 1,500 – 2,000 baht (5) 2,000 – 2,500 baht (6) 2,500 – 3,000 baht (7)more than 3,000 baht	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
34. How do you think the expenditure in your family is?	(1)Enough (2) Enough because borrowed money (3)Not really enough (4) Not enough (5) Borrowed money and still not enough (6) Not enough to the point of poverty	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
35.				

Question	Answer	1999	2001	2011
	(7) Find extra job outside Village	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(8) Others (specify)			
38. Do you have any ways of increasing your money? (many answer more than one)	(1) Local share	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(2) Deposit the money at	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Co-op			
	(3) Deposit the money in the bank	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(4) Be a money lender	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(5) Others (specify)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(6) Invest in agriculture	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(7) Invest in tourism	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(8) Invest in OTOP	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(9) Invest in the weaving industry	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(11) Others (specify)			
39. Does your family have any debts?	(1) yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(2) no	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Please specify how much?		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Question	Answer	1999	2001	2011
40. If you have debt where did you borrow the money from? (may answer more than one)	(1) Cousins (2) Neighbors/ Friends (3) Employer (4) Respected elder (5) Shop owner (6) Money lender (7) Village and urban revolving fund (8) From a cooperative (9) Government's bank Others (specify)	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
41. Do you have any savings?	(1) yes (2) no	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
42. Average savings	(1) Savings per month (2) Saving per year		Baht Baht	Baht Baht
43. Which of the Pro-poor tourism policy do you know?				
1) Village Based Tourism	<input type="checkbox"/> Know	<input type="checkbox"/> Do not know		
2) One Tambon One Product Project	<input type="checkbox"/> Know	<input type="checkbox"/> Do not know		
44. What projects/programs have you participated in? (may answer more than one)				
1) Village Based Tourism <input type="checkbox"/>				
2) One Tambon One Product Project <input type="checkbox"/>				
Expenditures per month				
1. Food expenditures				
2. Traveling expenditures				baht
3. Child expenses				baht
4. Interest from debt				baht
5. From which source				baht
6. Water bill				baht

7. Electricity bill baht
8. Gas/coals baht
9. Agricultural investment baht
10. OTOP investment
 - 10.1. Cloth baht
 - 10.2. Thread baht
 - 10.3. Color dye baht
 - 10.4. Cotton baht
 - 10.5. Labor expenditures baht
 - 10.6. Tourism investment baht
11. Otherinvestment..... baht
12. Medicine baht
13. Charity/ rituals..... baht
14. Cell phone bill baht
15. Miscellaneous spending baht
16. Total expenditures baht

Income per month

1. Personal income from..... in terms of moneybaht
2. Personal income from second job..... in terms of money baht
3. Spouse's income baht
4. Total family income baht
5. Income from loans
 - 5.1. Borrowed from amount..... baht
 - 5.2. Borrowed from..... amount..... baht
 - 5.3. Borrowed from amount..... baht
 - 5.4. Borrowed from amount..... baht
6. Income from Tourism baht
7. Income from agriculture..... baht
8. Income from others, such as , in terms of money baht
9. Total Incomebaht

Part 3 Determining indicators of good life of the villagers

Please make a ✓ mark in the space that is the answer

What is the measuring factor of a good quality of life for the people of this village?	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
45. Own their own land	<input type="checkbox"/>				
46. Own more than 5 rai of land	<input type="checkbox"/>				

47. People who do not have to do field work	<input type="checkbox"/>				
48. People who have a lot of money	<input type="checkbox"/>				
49. Have food to eat every meal	<input type="checkbox"/>				
50. Have their own business	<input type="checkbox"/>				
51. Being a government official or doctor	<input type="checkbox"/>				
52. Is a merchant	<input type="checkbox"/>				
53. Their children receive high education	<input type="checkbox"/>				
54. Their children get to go study in Bangkok	<input type="checkbox"/>				
55. Be a healthy person	<input type="checkbox"/>				
56. Color television	<input type="checkbox"/>				
57. Have a refrigerator	<input type="checkbox"/>				
58. Have a cell phone	<input type="checkbox"/>				
59. Have a house phone	<input type="checkbox"/>				
60. Have a stereo	<input type="checkbox"/>				
61. Have a fan	<input type="checkbox"/>				
62. Have a gas oven	<input type="checkbox"/>				
63. Have a weaving machine	<input type="checkbox"/>				
64. Have an electrical iron	<input type="checkbox"/>				
65. Have a computer to use	<input type="checkbox"/>				
66. Have a concrete house	<input type="checkbox"/>				
67. Have a car to use	<input type="checkbox"/>				
68. Have a motorcycle to use	<input type="checkbox"/>				
69. Have a bicycle to use	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Others (specify)

Please make a *✓* mark in the space that is the answer

Do you agree with the following statements?	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
	70. People have better livelihood because they have more funds	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
71. For people who have better livelihood, it is because of other income besides agriculture	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
72. For people who have better livelihood, it is because they are lucky in their filed work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
73. For people who have better livelihood, it is because they were able borrow a lot of money	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
74. For people who have better livelihood, it is because they were able to contact a government official	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
75. For people who have better livelihood, it is because they joined the "Tourism Activities"	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
76. In order to improve your livelihood, you must migrate to find new land	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
77. In order to improve your livelihood, you must find additional income besides just agriculture	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
78. In order to improve your livelihood, you must abandon agriculture and change your occupation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
79. In order to improve your livelihood, you must borrow money from people in the village to use	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
80. In order to improve your livelihood, you must join the OTOP project	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
81. In order to improve your livelihood, you must join the "Village base tourism"	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
82. In order to improve your livelihood, you must join all the programs/projects organised by the government	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
83. In order to improve your livelihood, you must borrow money from the co-op	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
84. In order to improve you livelihood, you must send you child to receive the highest level of education possible	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Please make a *✓* mark in the space that is the answer

85. If you become poor or are already poor, what do you think the reason would be? (may answer more than 1)

- 85.1. Lack of experience
- 85.2. Unsuccessful investment
- 85.3. Unsuccessful in agricultural work
- 85.4. Sickness
- 85.5. No funds to earn a living
- 85.6. Did not receive any information from the government
- 85.7. Unable to pay your interest from the debts
- 85.8. Repetitive natural disasters
- 85.9. No education, lack of opportunity
- 85.10. Others specify

86. If you had money, do you think about changing your agricultural occupation to something else?

86.1. Yes
 86.2. No (do not answer the next question)

87. Why do you think of changing your job? (may answer more than 1)

87.1. Field work does not make as much money as selling things
 87.2. Field work is hard
 87.3. Crops have extremely low selling price
 87.4. Natural disaster
 87.5. Others specify

88. If you do not consider changing your job, why? (may answer more than 1)

88.1. Because this is the work of our ancestors
 88.2. Because there is not enough fund to do something else
 88.3. Because agricultural work is the most stable
 88.4. Because I am happy with just enough eat and live with
 88.5. Others specify

Question	Answer	1999	2001	2011
89. Do you think the people in this village have an easy or difficult time finding a job?	(1) Easy	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	(2) Difficult	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

90. How do you want the government to help with finding jobs for the villagers?

.....

.....

Part 4 Livelihood Activities: Comparing 3 time periods before and after the Village base tourism and the “One Tambon One Product” project

(In order to answer the research question #1, what are the livelihood structures of the Had Bai Villager) Please fill in the answer in the blank space

91. Currently, what are the characteristics of your plantations?

Month	Main vegetation include:	Secondary vegetation include:	Please specify agricultural activities for example transplanting rice seedlings, plowing, or unemployed, weaving, and employment work
January			
February			
March			
April			
May			
June			
July			
August			
September			
October			
November			
December			

92. Activities while waiting for collection of main vegetation

	1999	2001	2011
January			
February			
March			
April			
May			
June			
July			
August			
September			
October			
November			
December			

93. What are your daily activities?

Time	Activities in your life
Four a.m.	
Five a.m.	
Six a.m.	
Seven a.m.	
Eight a.m.	
Nine a.m.	
Ten a.m.	
Eleven a.m.	
Twelve a.m.	
Noon	
Two p.m.	
Three p.m.	
Four p.m.	
Five p.m.	
Six p.m.	
Seven p.m.	
Eight p.m.	
Nine p.m.	
Ten p.m.	
Eleven p.m.	
Midnight	

Please make a ✓ mark in the space that is the answer

Do you agree with the following statements?	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
---	----------------	-------	----------	----------	-------------------

94. OTOP activities do not disturb your normal activities and the time of the villagers life
95. Village base tourism activities do not disturb your normal activities and the time of the villagers life
96. OTOP project has increased the employment rate in the village
97. Village base tourism has increased the employment rate in the village

98. The best job with the best money in the OTOP project belongs to a person in the village

99. The best job with the best money in the VBT project belongs to a person in the village

Part 5: To Answer Sub research question#2 How has Pro-Poor Tourism contributed to livelihood diversification and an increase in the assets of the poor.

1. Financial Capital
2. Human Capital
3. Natural Capital
4. Social Capital
5. Physical Capital

Please make a ✓ mark in the space that is the answer

100. What is your understanding of the phrase “Livelihood diversification”?

.....

.....

101. Under what conditions do you have to struggle and adapt in order to survive? (may answer more than one)

- 101.1. No money
- 101.2. Your child wants high education
- 101.3. Lack of agricultural investment
- 101.4. Hit by natural disasters
- 101.5. Head of your family passed away
- 101.6. In this life, you do not have any problems
- 101.7. Others (specify)

102. Normally, which way do you adapt in order to survive? (may answer more than one)

- 102.1. Borrow Money
- 102.2. Ask for help from the Head Man
- 102.3. Move your house to runaway from problems
- 102.4. Ask for help from your cousins
- 102.5. Go stay with cousins
- 102.6. Ask for help from the public(government) sector
- 102.7. Sell your belongings that you have in the house (specify)
- 102.8. Weave and sell the cloth
- 102.9. Find a way to get involved in the tourist industry
- 102.10. Join the weaving group
- 102.11. Find a way to join the OTOP project
- 102.12. Go find a job in the “Amphur”
- 102.13. Go find a job in Bangkok
- 102.14. Others (specify)

Please make a ✓ mark in the space that is the answer.

Do you agree with the following statements?

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	----------	----------	-------------------

103. Joining the VBT is one way of adapting your livelihood in order to survive

<input type="checkbox"/>				
--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------

104. Joining the OTOP project is one way of adapting your livelihood in order to survive

105. The villagers change their livelihood in order to interact with the tourist or participate in the VBT project

106. The villagers change their livelihood in order to interact with the tourist or participate in the OTOP project

107. VBT makes the villagers feel like they have more assets

108. OTOP projects makes the villagers feel like they have more assets

109. Visible change that can clearly be seen is monetary assets

110. Visible change that can clearly be seen is intelligence and learning new things

111. Visible change that can clearly be seen is natural resources

112. Visible change that can clearly be seen is a stronger social group

113. Visible change that can clearly be seen is the environment, roads, and infrastructure of the village

114. Visible change that can clearly be seen is because of the Village Base Tourism

115. Visible change that can clearly be seen is because of the OTOP project

116. The different visible change that can clearly be seen happened on its own from the cooperation of the villagers

Minor questions concerning financial Capital

Do you agree with the following statements?	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
117. The money that is gained from the Village Base Tourism has been used for beneficial investments for the village <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>					
118. The money that is gained from the OTOP project has been used for beneficial investments for the village <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>					
119. Income from the Village Base Tourism will be continuous additional income <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>					
120. Income from the OTOP project will be continuous additional income <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>					
Minor question concerning Human Capital and education					
121. Income from the Village Base Tourism has been used for education or health care in the community <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>					
122. Income from the OTOP has been used for education or health care in the community <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>					
123. Villagers have received training from the VBT project <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>					

124. Villagers have received training from the OTOP project

Minor question concerning Natural Capital

125. Natural resources in the village have been used sustainably in the Village Base Tourism

126. Natural resources in the village have been used sustainably in the OTOP project.

Minor Question about Physical Capital

Do you agree with the following statements? Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree

127. Village Base Tourism will make the village dirty, noisy, and increase the incidents of crime

128. OTOP project will make the village dirty, noisy, and increase the incidents of crime

129. Village Base Tourism creates pollution for the environment

130. OTOP project creates pollution for the environment

131. New changes and developments such as road is because of Village Base Tourism

132. New changes and developments such as road is because of the OTOP project.

133. Major events that caused changes in the village that you remember clearly, for example electricity, water-supply, roads, receiving funds from the government, establishment of cooperatives, receive money loans, new programs and projects.

Minor questions concerning community strength and communication with the outside world

Do you agree with the following statements?	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
134. Village Base Tourism strengthen community institutions	<input type="checkbox"/>				
135. OTOP project strengthen community institutions	<input type="checkbox"/>				
136. There is competition for land, natural resources, or tools for Village Base Tourism activities	<input type="checkbox"/>				
137. There is competition for land, natural resources, or tools for using in the OTOP project	<input type="checkbox"/>				
138. Village Base Tourism has made access to different organizations better	<input type="checkbox"/>				
139. OTOP project has made access to different organizations better	<input type="checkbox"/>				
140. Village Base Tourism has changed community's relations with the outside world in a better way	<input type="checkbox"/>				
141. OTOP project has changed community's relations with the outside world in a better way	<input type="checkbox"/>				
142. Village Base Tourism has changed community's relations with government sector in a better way	<input type="checkbox"/>				
143. OTOP project has changed community's relations with government sector in a better way.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
144. Village Base Tourism has made access to funds, money loans, and the information better.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
145. OTOP project has made access to funds, money loans and the information better.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

146. Are there any meetings about the tourism project ?

146.1. Yes how often?

146.2. No

147. What were the issues that were discussed in the meeting?

.....

148. Who participated in the group meetings?

.....

149. Are there any women that participated in the meetings?

149.1. Yes

149.2. No

150. Who were they?

.....

151. Who talks in the meeting for the majority of the time?

.....

152. Do women have the opportunity to talk and give their opinions?

152.1. Yes

152.2. No

153. Did the villagers have the opportunity to take part in the PPT project, in what aspects?

153.1. Evaluations
153.2. Making decisions in the project
153.3. Receiving benefits
153.4. Setting up the related activities
153.5. Others (specify)

154. Who does your village respect?

154.1. Head Man
154.2. Teachers
154.3. Head of Woman weaving group
154.4. Doctors
154.5. People with high education
154.6. Monks
154.7. Others (specify)

Part 6 Questions for the purpose of understanding the risk and vulnerability of the villagers and answer to Sub-Research Question #3 : To what extent has pro-poor tourism reduced vulnerability of the rural poor?

155. What is your understanding about vulnerability context? How would you interpret the meaning of vulnerability?.....

156. Have you ever had an urgent problem that is very important in your life, for example no job, your child is very sick, natural disasters, floods?

156.1. Yes

Please make a *✓* mark in the space that is the answer

Scoring the severity of the problems that might have an effect on livelihood of the villagers

157. Do you think the following aspects are important problems that effect livelihood ?	Very	Important	Not sure	Not	Not
	Important			important	Important at all
The changing of the atmosphere (environment)	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Problems concerning bugs and weed eating in on your agricultural products.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Hailstone falls on your house and farms	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Flooding your house and farms	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Poor soil	<input type="checkbox"/>				
No electricity	<input type="checkbox"/>				
No water-supply	<input type="checkbox"/>				
No enough labor in the household	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Low selling price via middleman	<input type="checkbox"/>				
No cash flow	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Unemployment problems	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Migration problem of the young people	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Landless	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Poor roads and communication system	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Problems in the organization within the village	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Corruption	<input type="checkbox"/>				

158. Has your family received help from different government organization, municipal, foundations, or other private organization?

158.1. Yes

158.2. Never

159. If yes, how did you receive help?.....

.....

160. How do you want the public service or other private social welfare organization help your family?

.....

.....

161. In your opinion, what are the kinds of needs or problems that villagers in the area that you are living have? What areas should the government help with? (problems within the community and need for help from the outside)

.....

.....

162. Have there been problems as a result of the OTOP or the tourism project or not? How?

.....

.....

Please make a ✓ mark in the space that is the answer

Do you agree with the following statements?	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
163. Village Base Tourism reduced the vulnerability of your life	<input type="checkbox"/>				
164. OTOP project reduced the vulnerability of your life	<input type="checkbox"/>				
165. Village Base Tourism has increased the villagers ability to deal and adapt with risk and hardship	<input type="checkbox"/>				
166. OTOP project has increased the villagers ability to deal and adapt with risk and hardship	<input type="checkbox"/>				
167. Village Base Tourism has made access into the different organization of the village better	<input type="checkbox"/>				
168. OTOP project has made access into the different organization of the village better	<input type="checkbox"/>				
169. Village Base Tourism has made relations of the village with the outside world change in a better way	<input type="checkbox"/>				
170. OTOP project has made relations of the village with the outside world change in a better way.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
171. Village Base Tourism has made access to different funds, loans, and different sources of information better	<input type="checkbox"/>				
172. OTOP project has made access to different funds, loans, and different sources of information better	<input type="checkbox"/>				
173. People who take part in the Village Base Tourism has less risk in life compared to those who choose only to do agricultural work	<input type="checkbox"/>				
174. People who take part in the OTOP project has less risk in life compared to those who choose only to do agricultural work	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Concluding Question to gather answer for main research question

(In conclusion, has PPT improved the livelihood of the poor in the village or not? How?)

175. Do you understand the basis of PPT?

175.1. Yes

175.2. No

176. If we were to say that “the Village base tourism or the OTOP project is one way of tourism to improve the livelihood of the poor people, by bringing the tourists to come tour a village and buy products from the poor villagers”, will this make it easier to understand?

176.1. Yes

176.2. No

Please make a ✓ mark in the space that is the answer

Do you agree with the following statements?	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

177. VBT has been beneficial towards the community

178. OTOP project has been beneficial towards the community.

179. The villagers have received equal benefits from the OTOP project

180. Benefits from the VBT project have reached the group of poorest villagers

181. Benefits from the OTOP project have reached the group of poorest villagers

182. Political situation in the village will have effects on the success of the OTOP project in the future

183. Political situation on the national scale will have effects on the success of the OTOP project in the future

184. In conclusion, the VBT has changed your livelihood in a better way

185. In conclusion, the OTOP project has changed your livelihood in a better way.

186. VBT should carry on in the community.

187. OTOP project should carry on in the community.

188. What do you think is the most important thing that will help decrease poverty?.....because.....

189. What is the most important thing that the villagers need from Village Base Tourism or the OTOP project in order to help the poor people?.....because.....

190. Do you think the policy, rules, and regulation of the OTOP need to be changed or modified?

.....because.....

191. What is the most important obstacle of the OTOP project?
because.....

192. What will prevent the villagers from fully participating?
because.....

193. What group of people do you think is most likely to receive the most benefits from the OTOP project?
because.....

193. What do you expect from the government to do concerning the success of pro-poor tourism projects?

.....

194. What do you expect from the business sectors to do concerning the success of pro-poor tourism projects?

.....
 What do you expect from fellow villagers to make the OTOP project reach its maximum benefits?

.....

195. In conclusion, the OTOP project has benefits directly in which aspect of life?

- 195.1. Cash
- 195.2. Food
- 195.3. Health
- 195.4. Education
- 195.5. Environment
- 195.6. Stability and security
- 195.7. Feeling of self-worth and ability to help oneself
- 195.8. Felling of sustainable development with oneself

196. To what extent has PPT improved your livelihood outcome?

- 196.2. Much better
- 196.3. A little bit better
- 196.4. Better
- 196.5. Not better

197. Thank you for your cooperation.....

APPENDIX B

Sustainable Livelihood Assessment Questionnaire

Part A: General Information.

This questionnaire is an assessment of the impact of Pro-poor tourism development programs (PPT) in your community. Tick on the space before each item corresponding to your answer or write your answer on the space provided.

Level of Involvement:

Please tick on the space to indicate the level of your involvement.

Group A: Did not know about Pro-poor tourism development programs and did not participate

Group B: Know about PPT but did not fully participate (including those who only used the services of PPT)

Group C: Know about PPT and fully participated

Demographic Data:

Sex:	Status	Age:
<input type="checkbox"/> Male	<input type="checkbox"/> Married	<input type="checkbox"/> Below 19 <input type="checkbox"/> 40 - 49
<input type="checkbox"/> Female	<input type="checkbox"/> Single	<input type="checkbox"/> 20 - 29 <input type="checkbox"/> above 50
	<input type="checkbox"/> Separated	<input type="checkbox"/> 30-39

Occupation: _____

Monthly Income: _____

Education: _____

Pro-poor tourism Participation:

List the all the PPT programs you participated in, including the financial support programs you were involved in:

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

List all the livelihood development programs in your community including the sources of funding.

1. _____
2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

Part B: Success of PPT Programs in Your Community

Rate the level of the success of the livelihood development programs in your community. Tick on the box corresponding to your answer using the following scale values:

1 = Very Poor; 2 = Poor; 3 = Fair; 4 = Very Good; 5 = Excellent

Part C: Comments and Suggestions

Please write your personal comments, suggestions or recommendation on how you think Sustainable Livelihood Development Programs can be improved in the community.

References

Abbott, Andrew (1992) 'What Do Cases Do? Some Notes on Activity in Sociological Analysis', in Charles C. Ragin and Howard S. Becker (eds), *What is a Case? Exploring the Foundations of Social Inquiry*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1992, pp. 53-82

Akama, J. (1996). "Western environmental values and nature-based tourism in Kenya" *Tourism Management* 17(8): 567-574.

Anderson, M. B. and P. J. Woodrow. (1989). "Rising from the Ashes: Development Strategies," *Times of Disaster*. Boulder, Colorado:Westview Press, 51

Anonymous (2003a). Personal Interview with Had Bai male villager. Zone A, Chiang Rai,16 March.

Anonymous (2003b). Personal Interview with NGO,Chiang Khong district near Had Bai village. Chiang Rai,16 March.

Anonymous (2003c). Personal Interview with Had Bai female villager. Zone H, Chiang Rai, 17 March.

Anonymous (2003d). Personal Interview with Had Bai female villager. Zone I, Chiang Rai, 17 March

Anonymous (2003e). Personal Interview with Had Bai female villager. Zone G, Chiang Rai, 17 March

Anonymous (2003f). Personal Interview with Had Bai female villager. Zone H, Chiang Rai, 18 March

Anonymous (2003g). Personal Interview with Had Bai female villager. Zone I, Chiang Rai, 18 March

Anonymous (2005a). Personal Interview with Tourism Development officer under Ministry of Tourism and Sports. Bangkok 7 July.

Anonymous (2005b). Personal Interview with Export Promotion Department officer under Commerce Ministry. Bangkok, 7 July.

Anonymous (2005c). Personal Interview with private sector person. Bangkok, 10 July.

Anonymous (2005d). Personal Interview with Community Development Department officer under Interior Ministry. Bangkok, 12 July.

Anonymous (2005e). Personal Interview with Cooperatives Promotion Department officer under Agriculture and Cooperatives Ministry. Bangkok, 13 July

Anonymous (2005f). Personal Interview with Industrial Promotion Department officer. Bangkok, 13 July

Anonymous (2005g). Personal Interview with tour company managing director. Bangkok, 24 July

Anonymous (2005h). Personal Interview with Officer#1fromTourism Authority of Thailand. Bangkok, 25 July

Anonymous (2005i). Personal Interview with Officer#2fromTourism Authority of Thailand. Bangkok, 25 July

Anonymous (2005k). Personal Interview with senior officerfromTourism Authority of Thailand. Bangkok, 25 July

Anonymous (2005l). Personal Interview with Director fromSME Bank. Bangkok, 26 July

Anonymous (2005m). Personal Interview with Officer fromSME Bank. Bangkok, 26 July

Anonymous (2005n). Personal Interview with Vice president, Franchise and OTOP cluster fromSME Bank. Bangkok, 26 July

Anonymous (2005o). Personal Interview with officer from the Bureau of Farmer Development, Ministry of Agricultural and Cooperatives. Bangkok, 28 July

Anonymous (2010a). Personal Interview with Had Bai female villager. Zone F, Chiang Rai, 20 November

Anonymous (2010b). Personal Interview with Had Bai male villager. Zone C, Chiang Rai, 20 November

Anonymous (2010c). Personal Interview with NGO near Had Bai village, Chiang Rai, 21 November

Anonymous (2010d). Personal Interview with Had Bai female villager. Zone D, Chiang Rai, 21 November

Anonymous (2010e). Personal Interview with Had Bai male villager. Zone B, Chiang Rai, 21 November

Anuchitworawong, C., J. Panpiemras and W. Pupphavesa (2007). *Pro-Poor Tourism Development in Thailand*, Bangkok: TDRI.

Ashley, C. (2000). “The impacts of tourism on rural livelihoods: Namibia’s Experience” *ODI Working Paper No 128*. London: ODI.

Ashley, C. and K. Hussein (2000). “Developing Methodologies for Livelihood Impact Assessment: Experience of the African Wildlife Foundation in East Africa” *ODI Working Paper No.129*. London: ODI.

Ashley, C., and J. Mitchell (2005). “Can Tourism Accelerate Pro-Poor Growth in Africa?” *ODI Opinion No.60*, London: ODI.

Ashley, C., C. Boyd, C. and H. Goodwin (2000). "Pro-Poor Tourism: Putting Poverty at the Heart of the Tourism Agenda" *Natural Resource Perspectives No. 51*, London: ODI. March 2000.

Ashley, C., & Roe, D. (2003). *Working with the private sector on pro-poor tourism: Opinions and experience from two development practitioners*. London: PPT Partnership.

Ashley, C., D. Roe and H. Goodwin (2001)." Pro-poor Tourism Strategies, Expanding opportunities for the poor." *Pro-poor tourism briefing No 1*, London: ODI, IIED, CRT.

Ashley, C., D. Roe, and H. Goodwin (2001). "Pro-Poor Tourism Strategies: Making Tourism Work for The Poor" *A review of experience*, London: ODI, IIED.

Ashley, C., D. Roe and H. Goodwin (2002). "The Tourism Industry and Poverty Reduction: A Business Primer." *Pro-poor tourism briefing No 2*, London: ODI, IIED, CRT.

Ashley, C., Poultney, C., & Hayson, G. (2005). *Pro-poor tourism pilots in southern Africa*. London: ODI.

Asian Development Bank (2004). "The Dimensions of Poverty in the Greater Mekong Subregion. Annex 6" *Pro-poor Tourism Regional Cooperation Strategy & Program* 2004-8. ADB.

Bah, A., & Goodwin, H. (2003). *Improving access for the informal sector to tourism in The Gambia* (PPT Working Paper No. 15). London: ODI.

Ballard, M. B (2005). "Linking Tourism to Poverty Reduction: A Siem Reap Case Study." *Annual Development Review 2004-2005* (Phnom Penh: Cambodia Development Resource Institute)

Bank of Thailand Symposium, (2004). "Safeguarding Economic Stability: The Role of Public Policy" *Paper presented at the 5th Symposium*, Shangri-La Hotel, Bangkok, Thailand 6-7 September, 57-69.

Barkin D (1996). Ecotourism: A tool for sustainable development.

<http://www.planeta/96/0596monarch.html>

Baran, M. (2008). *Poorism: The economics of exploitation*. Secaucus, NJ: Travel Weekly. May 5

Berkes, F. and J.S. Gardner (eds) (1997). *Sustainability of Mountain Environments in India and Canada, Winnipeg*: University of Manitoba, Natural Resources Institute.

Binkhorst, E. and V. Van der Duim (1995). "Lost in the jungle of Northern Thailand: The reproduction of hill-tribe trekking" In G. Ashworth and A. Dietvorst (eds) *Tourism and Spatial Transformations: Implications for Policy and Planning*, CAB International, Wallingford, U.K.

Binns, T Elliott, J Potter, R and Smith, D (2004) *Geographies of Development*, Second Edition, Pearson Education Limited, Essex

Blaikie, P., T. Cannon, I. Davis and B. Wisner (1994). *At Risk: Natural Hazards, People's vulnerability, and disasters*, London: Routledge.

Blangy, S. and M.E. Wood (1993). "Developing and implementing ecotourism guidelines for wildlands and neighboring communities" In K. Lindberg and D. E. Hawkins (eds.). *Ecotourism: A Guide for Planners and Managers*. Bennington VT: The Ecotourism Society.

Braman, S. and Fundación Acción Amazonia (2001). "Practical Strategies for Pro-Poor Tourism. Tropic Ecological Adventures – Ecuador" *PPT Working Paper No 7*. London: ODI, IIED and CRT.

Bramwell, B. (1991). "Sustainability and Rural Tourism Policy in Britain" *Tourism Recreation Research*, 16(2). 49-51.

Bramwell, B., and B. Lane (1993). "Interpretation and sustainable tourism: the potentials and pitfalls" *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 12, 71-80.

Bramwell, B., I. Henry, G. Jackson, and J. van der Straaten. (1996). "A framework for understanding sustainable tourism". In B. Bramwell, I. Henry, G. Jackson, A.G. Prat, G. Richards and J. van der Straaten (eds). *Sustainable Tourism Management: Principles and Practice*. Tilburg: Tilburg University Press, pp. 23-71

Briedenham, J, (2004), "Corporate Social Responsibility in Tourism-a tokenistic agenda? " *Tourism in Focus, Autumn 2004, Issue Number 52*, Tourism Concern, London

Brock, K. and Coulibaly, N. (1999). "Sustainable Rural Livelihoods in Mali" *Research Report 35*. Brighton, UK: Institute of Development Studies.

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

Bryceson, D.F (1996). "Deagarianization and rural employment in sub-Saharan Africa: a sectoral perspective" *World Development*, 24(1): 97-111

Brydon, L and S. Chant (1989). *Women in the Third World: Gender issues in rural and urban areas*, Rutger University Press.

Burks M.R . (2006). "Linking Livelihoods and Sustainable Tourism for Parks and People in Belize." *A paper submitted to the faculty of Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, May 11, 2006*. Falls Church, Virginia

Campbell, D. (1994). "Eco Tourism booms in South East Asia" *The Eco Tourism Society Newsletter*, 4(4). 1-3

Campbell, L,M, (1999), "Ecotourism in Rural Developing Communities" *The Annals of Tourism Research, Volume 36, Number 3*, Pages 534-553

Carney, D. (1999). "Approaches to sustainable livelihoods for the rural poor." *ODI Poverty Briefing, No.2*, London: ODI.

Carney, D. (ed) (1998). *Sustainable Rural Livelihood: What Contributions Can We Make?*, London: DFID.

Carswell, G., de Haan, A., Dea, D., Konde, A., Shankland, A. and Sinclair, A. (2000) “Sustainable Livelihoods in Southern Ethiopia” *Research Report 44*. Brighton, UK: Institute of Development Studies.

Carvalho, S. and H. White (1997). *Combining the quantitative and qualitative approaches to poverty measurement and analysis: The practice and the potential*, Washington, D.C.: World Bank.

Catarinich, X. (2001). “Pro-poor Tourism Initiative in Developing Countries: Analysis of Secondary Case Studies” *Report to PPT Project*, London: ODI, IIED and CRT. PPT *Working Paper No. 8*, © CRT, IIED and ODI, 2001.
<http://www.propoortourism.org.uk>.

Cater, E. (1993). “Ecotourism in the Third World: problems for sustainable tourism development”. *Tourism Management* 14(2): 85-90.

Cater, E. (1994). Cater, E., and G. Lowman. ed. “Ecotourism in the third world - problems and prospects for sustainability” *Ecotourism: a sustainable option?*. United Kingdom: John Wiley and Sons.

Cater, E. (2004) “Ecotourism: theory and practice. In A.A. Lew, C.M. Hall and A.M. Williams” (eds) *A Companion to Tourism*. Blackwell Publishing, Oxford, pp. 484–497.

Héctor, C.(1993). *The IUCN Ecotourism Consultancy Programme*. México, DF.

Chamber, R. (1988). “Sustainable Rural Livelihoods: A Key Strategy for People, Environment and Development” In C. Conroy and M. Litvinoff (eds). *The Greening of Aid: Sustainable Livelihoods in Practice*, London: Earth scan Publications Ltd., in association with The International Institute for Environment and Development, 1-17.

Chamber, R. (1992). *Rapid and Participatory Rural Appraisal*, Africanus, 22:1, 6-15.

Chamber, R., and G. Conway (1992). "Sustainable Rural Livelihoods: Practical Concepts for the 21st Century" *IDS Discussion Paper, No.296*. Brighton: Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex.

Chambers, R. (1988). "Sustainable Rural Livelihoods: A Key Strategy for People, Environment and Development" In C. Conroy and M. Litvinoff (eds). *The Greening of Aid: Sustainable Livelihoods in Practice*, London: Earth scan Publications Ltd., in association with The International Institute for Environment and Development, 1-17.

Chambers, R. (1992). *Rapid and Participatory Rural Appraisal*, Africanus, 22:1, 6-15.

Chambers, R., (1994). *The Origins and Practice of Participatory Rural Appraisal*. World Development 22(7):953-969

Chambers, R., A. Pacey and L Thrupp (eds) (1989). *Farmer First: farmer innovation and agricultural research*, London: Intermediate Technology Publications.

Chambers, R., and G. Conway (1992). "Sustainable Rural Livelihoods: Practical Concepts for the 21st Century" *IDS Discussion Paper, No.296*. Brighton: Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex.

Charoenrach, T(2001). "Community Business – Means to Sustainable Community Development: A Case Study of Kudchum District, Yasothon Province" Master Degree thesis in Economics. Graduate School Ramkhamhaeng University

Chudintra, S. (1993). "Nature Tourism Profile: Thailand" In Nenon, J. and Drust, P.(eds). *Nature Tourism in Asia Opportunities and Constraints for Conservation and Economics Development. Forestry Support Program*, Washington, D.C. pp.31-41.

Churyen, A., Duangsaeng.V and Kontogeorgopoulos A. (2015). “Homestay Tourism and the Commercialization of the Rural Home in Thailand”. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 20(1):29-50

Chutimaskul, W. (2006). “Thailand's eGovernment for Poverty Reduction and Helping the Disadvantaged Groups, School of Information Technology, King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi” *Handout for Capacity Building of eGovernment initiatives*, 24-25 April, 2006 Thailand.

Clarke, J. (1997). “A framework of approaches to sustainable tourism”. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 5: 224-233.

Cohen, E., (1989) “Primitive and Remote Hill Tribe Trekking in Thailand”, *Annals of Tourism Research* 16(1): 30-61.

Cotas, C. (1996). “Ecotourism and Its Role in Sustainable Development” *Paper presented at 2nd International Conference on Implementation of Ecotourism*, Srinakharinwirot University, Bangkok, Thailand, 18-21 July, 1996.

CUCUEM (Canadian Universities Consortium Urban Environmental Management Project Training and Technology Transfer Program) (2000). *Recommendations for Sustainable Village Tourism Development in the Greater Mekong Subregion*, Bangkok: Asian Institute of Technology (AIT).

Dearden, P and S. Harron (1994). *Alternative tourism and adaptive change*. Annals of Tourism Research Vol.21, 81-102.

Dearden, P. (1995). “Development, the Environment and Social Differentiation in Northern Thailand” In *Counting the Costs: Economic Growth and Environmental Change in Thailand*, Jonathan Rigg (ed). pp.111-30, Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies.

Deloitte and Touche, IIED and ODI (1999). "Sustainable tourism and poverty elimination study" *A report to DFID*, London: DFID.

Deloitte and Touche, IIED and ODI (1999). "Tourism and Poverty". Unpublished report to DFID, London: DFID.

Denzin, N. and Lincoln, Y. (2000). "Introduction: the discipline and practice of qualitative research" In: Denzin, N. and Lincoln, Y. (eds). *Handbook of Qualitative Research*, pp. 1–28. Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, CA.

Department for International Development (DFID) (1999). *Tourism and poverty Elimination: Untapped Potential*, London: DFID.

Department for International Development (DFID) (2000). *Sustainable Livelihoods Guidance Sheets*, London: DFID.

Dhakal D. P. (2005). "Sustainable Rural Tourism For Improved Livelihood Of Local Communities" *Economic Policy Network. Policy Paper 4. Prepared for the Economic Policy Network His Majesty's Government of Nepal/ Ministry of Finance, Asian Development Bank and Nepal Tourism Board*. Singha Durbar, Kathmandu, Nepal December 2005

Diethelm Travels Thailand Tourism Review 2007. *TAT Sustainable Tourism Policy: Planning a Sustainable Future*. The Post Publishing Public Co., Ltd. 2008.
<http://www.bangkokpost.com/tourismreview2007/31.html>

Dorosh, P. and Klytchnikova, I. (2009) "How Tourism cab Z and does benefit the poor and the environment-A case study from Panama" *Responsible Tourism Serie number 146*. World Bank

Dung, T.K, N., Loi, C C., Cuong, H V., and Minh, T.(2007) "Pro-Poor Tourism in the GMS" *Vietnam Case Study*, Hanoi: Central Institute for Economic Management

Dymond, S. J. (1997) "Indicators of Sustainable Tourism in New Zealand: a. Local Government Perspective" *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 5 (4): 279-. 293.

Ellis, F (1997). "Household Strategies and Rural Livelihood Diversification" *Paper submitted to the Journal of Development Studies*, pp.5.

Farrington, J., Carney, D., Asheley, C., and Turton, C. (1999). "Sustainable Livelihoods in Practice: Early Applications of Concepts in Rural Areas" *ODI Natural Resource Perspectives*, No.42, London: ODI.

Ferguson, M and Murray, J. (2001). "Women in Transition Out of Poverty. Toronto:" *Women and Economic Development Consortium*. January.

<http://www.cdnwomen.org/eng/3/3h.asp>

Firestone, W.A. (1987). *Meaning in method: The rhetoric of quantitative and qualitative research*. Educational Researcher, 16, 16-21.

Flyvbjerg, Bent, "Five Misunderstandings About Case-Study Research," *QualitativeInquiry*, vol. 12, no. 2, April 2006, pp. 219-245.

Fuller, B (1997). "Thailand's Tourism Vision 2012" *Paper Published in TDRI Quarterly Review*. Vol.12. No.2 June 1997, pp.14-24

Gareth, M and Smircich, L.,(2011), "The Case for Qualitative Research", *Academy of Management Review* vol 5 no 4, pages 491-500.

Geertz, Clifford (1995) *After the Fact: Two Countries, Four Decades, One Anthropologist*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Gerosa, V (2003). "Pro-Poor growth strategies in Africa. Tourism: A viable option for Pro-Poor growth in Africa?" *Economic Commission for Africa*. Report presented during the Economic Commission for Africa Economic Policy Research Center Expert Group Meeting at Munyonyo Speke Resort in Kampala, Uganda , 23-24 June 2003

Goodwin, H (2000). *Pro-poor Tourism, Opportunity for Sustainable Development*, D+C Development and Cooperation, 5(9/10). 12-14

Goodwin, H. (2007). Measuring and reporting the impact of tourism on poverty. In D. Airey & J. Tribe (Eds.), *Tourism research: New directions, challenges and applications* (Chap.5, pp. 63–75). London: Elsevier.

Goodwin, H. (2008). Pro-poor tourism: A response. *Third World Quarterly*, 29(5), 869–887.

Goodwin, H (2009) Reflections on 10 years of Pro-Poor Tourism, *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events*, 1:1, 90-94,

Goodwin, H., & Rowe, D. (2006). *Pro-poor tourism annual register*. London: PPT Partnership.

Gray, J. (1992). “Earth first can be good business” In Hay, J.E., (ed). *Promoting a Sustainable Experience*. Proceedings of Ecotourism Conference, University of Auckland, 12-14 October, 1992, pp.107-110.

Grosh, M. (1991). “The Household Survey as a Tool for Policy Change: Lessons from the Jamaican Survey of Living Conditions” *LSMS Working Paper No. 80*. Washington, D. C.:World Bank.

Guba, EG, and Lincoln, Y. (1988). “Do inquiry paradigms imply inquiry methodologies?” In DM Fetterman (Ed.). *Qualitative approaches to evaluation in education* (pp. 89-115). New York: Praeger.

Gupta, V.K., Nigam, A.K. and Kumar, P., 1982. *On a family of sampling schemes with inclusion probability proportional to size*. *Biometrika* 69, pp. 191–196.

Hall, C. M. (1994). “Gender and Economic Interest in Tourism Prostitution: The Nature, Development, and Implications of Sex Tourism” In Kinnaird, V and D. Hall (eds). *Tourism: A Gender Analysis*. West Sussex: John Wiley & Son Ltd.142-163.

Hammond, R. (2004), “Certification and accreditation in redefining ecotourism”, *Travel and Tourism Analyst*, No. 5, pp. 47-56.

Harrison, D. (2008) Pro-poor Tourism: a critique, *Third World Quarterly*, 29:5, 851-868, Routledge, London UK

Helmore, K., and Singh, N. (2001) *Sustainable Livelihoods: Building On The Wealth Of The Poor*, p.3, Kumarian Press, 2001,

Hiramatsu, M. 2006. Policies and Strategies Toward Local Government. Tokyo: Toyo Keizai

Hussein, K and J. Nelson (1998). "Sustainable Livelihood Diversification" *IDS Working Paper 69*, London: ODI.

IUCN (1980). World Conservation Strategy, IUCN, Gland, Switzerland

IFAD (International Fund for Agricultural Management(2011) The Sustainable Livelihoods Approach. <http://www.ifad.org/sla/index.htm>. accessed 2011

Insula Sustainable Tourism (2004). Concepts of sustainable tourism. In Sustainable Tourism. (Online). Available: www.insula.org/tourism/pagina_n8.htm.

Irwin, A. (2001) *Sociology and the Environment: A Critical Introduction to Society, Nature and Knowledge*. Cambridge: Polity.

Jacquemin, L.(2006). MTCO GMS Tourism& Biodiversity Project Proposal. Bangkok. UNESCO.

Jamieson, W., H. Goodwin & C. Edmunds (2004), 'Contribution of tourism to poverty alleviation: pro-poor tourism and the challenge of measuring impacts', report prepared for the Transport Policy and Tourism Section, Transport and Tourism Division, ESCAP, November 2004.P19-24

Jiggins, J. (1986). "Women and seasonality: Coping with crisis and calamity", *IDS Bulletin*, 17(3). 9-18.

Jitsuchon, S. (2003). "Poverty, economic security and the role of the Thai government" *Bangkok: TDRI Quarterly Review (December 2003)*.

Jitsuchon, S., and K. Richter. 2007. "Thailand's Poverty Maps: From Construction to Application" In Coudouel, A. and S. Kenneth (eds). *More Than a Pretty Picture; Using Poverty Maps to Design Better Policies and Interventions* Washington DC. World Bank 241-259

Johnson, L. B. (1967). "The responsibility of making a comprehensive study and appraisal of the current economic situations and trends in American rural life". *President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty*, Tucson. 26-27 January, 1967.

Judith,E. (2011) The Role of Private Sector Participation in Sustainable Tourism Development in Cross River State, Nigeria. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*. Vol. 2 No. 2, February 2011.

Kamsma, T. and Bras, K.(2000). "Gili Trawangan-from desert island to "marginal" paradise: Local participation, small-scale entrepreneurs and outside investors in an Indonesian tourist destination." In: G. Richards and Hall. D. (eds). *Tourism and Sustainable Community Development*, London: Routledge. pp. 170-184.

Kareithi, S. (2003). "Coping with Declining Tourism, Examples from Communities in Kenya" *PPT Working Paper No.13*, London: ODI, IIED and CRT.

King, R., Alder, M and Grieves, M. (2013). "Cooperatives as Sustainable Livelihood Strategies in Rural Mexico". *Bulletin of Latin American Research* . Apr2013, Vol. 32 Issue 2 166–177.

Kinnaird, V. and D. Hall (1994). *Tourism: A Gender Analysis*. West Sussex: John Wiley & Son Ltd.

Klinsukont, C. and Leksakuldilok (1996). "The Eco-Tourism Establishment in a small Island: Ko Taen". In Dhamabutra, P., Stithyudhakarn, V. & Hirunburana, S. eds., *Paper presented at 2nd International Conference on Implementation of Institute of Ecotourism*, Srinakharinwirot University, Bangkok, Thailand, 18-21 July, 1996. pp.149-160.

Koeman, A. (1998). Sa Pa, Vietnam: Capacity Building for Sustainable Tourism: Ideas for the Future. Communications to the Internet Conference on Community Cased Mountain Tourism sponsored by Mountain Forum, 11 May, 1998, <http://www.2mtnforum.org>

Krantz, L. (2001) The Sustainable Livelihood Approach to Poverty Reduction An Introduction,Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency Division for Policy and Socio-Economic Analysis,pp.1-2.

Laier, J. K. (1996). "Gender", *household food security and coping strategies*, University of Sussex: IDS.

Lamsal, P., K. P. Pant, L. Kumar, and K. Atreya. 2015. Sustainable livelihoods through conservation of wetland resources: a case of economic benefits from Ghodaghodi Lake, western Nepal. *Ecology and Society* **20**(1): 10.

Leaungsomnapa, Y., Promproh, S. and Khanwiset, S. (2011). Quality of life, problems and needs of disabled persons at Thachang Subdistrict Administrative Organisation, Chanthaburi Province. Prapokkla Hospital Clinical Medical Education Center, 28 (2), 98-109.

Leebouapao, L., Olaboun, S., Sone, P, Souksavat, P. and Voladet, S. (2007). *Pro-Poor Tourism in the Lao PDR*:Vientiane: National Economic Research Institute.

Leksakndilok, A. (2004). *Ecotourism and Community-based Ecotourism in the Mekong Region*. Australia, University of Sydney Printing Service , 2004.

Lindberg, K., J. Enriquez and K. Sproule. 1996. "Ecotourism Questioned: Case Studies from Belize" *Annals of Tourism Research*. 23(3): 543-562.

'Livelihoods in Southern Ethiopia', Research Report 44. Brighton, UK: Institute of Development Studies.

Macbeth, J. (2005) Towards an ethics platform for tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 32 (4), 962-984.

Mahony, K. and Van Zyl, J. (2001) "Practical strategies for pro-poor tourism, Case studies of Makuleke and Manyeleti tourism initiatives" *South Africa, Report to PPT project*, London: ODI.

Masberg, B.A. and Morales, N. (1999). *A Case of Strategies in Ecotourism Development*, Aquatic Ecosystem Health and Management, 2, 289-300

May, T. (1997). *Social Research: Issues, Methods and Process*, 2nd ed, Great Britain: Open University Press, 111.

McBeth, J. (1996). "Going Once, Going Twice", *Far Eastern Economic Review*, 21 November 1996, Hong Kong.

McNeely, J., and Dobias, R. (1991). *Economic Incentives for Conserving in Thailand*, Ambio, 20(2). 86-90.

Meyer, D. (2006)." Caribbean Tourism, Local Sourcing and Enterprise Development: Review of the Literature" *PPT Working Paper No 19*, London: ODI, IIED and ICRT.

Ministry of Tourism and Sports (MOTS) (2012) " Thailand Tourism Plan 2012-2016", Bangkok: Ministry of Tourism and Sports.

Ministry of Tourism and Sports (MOTS) (2013) " 10 Best Thailand Homestay Standard 2013", Bangkok: Ministry of Tourism and Sports,

Mowforth M and Munt, I, (2003), *Tourism and Sustainability: Development and New Tourism in the Third World, Second Edition*, Routledge, New York

Mukai, K. and Fujikura, R., (2015), One village one product: evaluations and lessons learnt from OVOP aid projects, *Development in Practice*, 2015 Vol. 25, No. 3, 389–400

MTCO (2008). “How to foster responsible nature based tourism in the GMS protected areas?”, Paper presented at the Biodiversity Conservation and Tourism Development in the Greater Mekong Subregion, Bangkok, Thailand

MTCO (2008a). “Mekong Tourism Coordination Office Marketing Plan (2008-2011).” Mekong Tourism Coordination Office, Bangkok, Thailand

Muqbil, I.(1994). “Lessons from the Lisu”, *PATA travel news*, March, pp.12-15.

Murray, J., and Ferguson, M., (2001). *Women in Transition Out of Poverty*. Toronto: Women and Economic Development Consortium January.
<http://www.cdnwomen.org/eng/3/3h.asp>

Narayan, D. (1996). “Towards Participatory Research” *World Bank Technical Paper # 307*. World Bank, Washington, DC, USA.

National Economic Development Board (NESDB) (2002-2007). The Ninth National Economic and Social Development Plan, Bangkok: Office of the Prime Minister.

National Economic Development Board (NESDB) (2007-2011). The Tenth National Economic and Social Development Plan, Bangkok: Office of the Prime Minister.

National Economic Development Board (NESDB) (2011-2015). The Tenth National Economic and Social Development Plan, Bangkok: Office of the Prime Minister.

New Zealand’s International Aid and Development Agency (NZAID), 2007. Sustainable Livelihoods Approach. Guideline. Accessed through:
<http://nzaidtools.nzaid.govt.nz/sustainable-livelihoods-approach/>

NIB (1982). Thailand 1982; Plans, Problems and Prospects, Bangkok, National Identity Board.

Nicanor, N. (2001). "Practical Strategies for Pro-Poor Tourism: NACOBTA, The Namibian Case Study" *PPT Working Paper No 4*. www.propoortourism.org.uk. London:ODI, IIED and CRT.

Nicholson, T. (1997). "Culture, Tourism and Local Strategies for Development". *Research report* for Department for International Development (DFID): London.

Nickerson, N.P. (1996). *Foundations of Tourism*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Oranratmanee,R.(2009). "Rural homestay: Interrelationships between space, social interaction and meaning in northern Thailand" (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). School of Architecture, Oxford Brookes University, Oxford.

Oranratmanee, R. (2011). Re-utilizing space: Accommodating tourists in homestay houses in northern Thailand. *Journal of Architectural/Planning Research and Studies (JARS)*, 8(1), 35–54

O'Laughlin, B. (2004). *Book reviews*. *Development and Change*, 35(2), 385-403.

O'Malley, J. (1988). "Sex Tourism and Women's Status in Thailand", *Society and Leisure*, 11:1, 99-114.

Page, S.J., P. Brunt, G. Busby and J. Connell. (2001). "Tourism: A Modern Synthesis. London: " *Thomson Learning.Paper 72*, Brighton: IDS.

Parkinson S, Ramirez R, (2006), "Using a Sustainable Livelihoods Approach to Accessing the impact of ICTs in Development" *The Journal of Community Informatics, Special Issue: Telecentres*, Volume2 No3 (2006)

PCI & TEAM (Pacific Consultants International and TEAM Consulting Engineering Co. Ltd). (1998), "Mekong Lancang River Tourism Planning Study: Concept Plans" *Asian Development Bank Regional Technical Assistance Project, TA # 5743 REG*, Bangkok.

Phongpaichit, P. (1981). "Bangkok masseuses: holding up the family sky" *Southeast Asia Chronicle*, 78:15-23

Phongpaichit, P. (1982). *From peasant girls to Bangkok masseuses*, International Labour Office, Geneva.

Poultney, C., Spenceley, "A.(2001) Practical strategies for pro-poor tourism, Wilderness Safari South Africa: Rocktail Bay and Ndumu Lodge" *Report to PPT project*, London: ODI, IIED and *CRT PPT Briefing*, March 2002.

Pro-poor tourism briefing No.2. ODI, IIED, ICRT. March 2002 (President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty, 1967).

Pupphavesa, W., Panpiemras, J., and. Anuchitworawong, C., 2005 *Pro-Poor Tourism in the GMS, Thailand Case Study*, Bangkok, Thailand Development Institute

Ragin, Charles C. (1992) "“Casing” and the Process of Social Inquiry', in Ragin, Charles C. and Becker, Howard S. (eds), *What is a Case? Exploring the Foundations of Social Inquiry*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 217-226.

Ragin, Charles C. and Becker, Howard S. (eds) (1992) *What is a Case? Exploring the Foundations of Social Inquiry*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Renard, Y.(2001). "Practical strategies for Pro-Poor Tourism: a case study of the St. Lucia Heritage Tourism Programme" *Pro-poor Tourism Working Paper No.7* for the Centre for Responsible Tourism at the University of Greenwich (CRT), International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED) and Overseas Development Institute (ODI)

Richards, G. and D. Hall (2000). “The community: a sustainable concept in tourism development?” In G. Richards and Hall. D.(Eds) *Tourism and Sustainable Community Development*, London: Routledge.

Richardson R. (2007) “Tourism in Belize: Vulnerability and Capacity Assessment”. *Report Submitted for Belize’s Second National Communication to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change*. Michigan State University (USA) and Galen University (Belize) August 2007

Roe, D.(2011) Pro-Poor Tourism: “Harnessing the World’s Largest Industry for the World’s Poor IIED, UK and Penny Urquhart Khanya, South Africa” *World Summit on International Development, May 2011*

Rogerson, C. M. (2002). *Tourism and local economic development: The Case of the Highlands Meander*, Development Southern Africa, 19, 143-166.

Ross, S. and G. Wall (1999). *Evaluating Ecotourism: The Case of North Sulawesi, Indonesia*, Tourism Management, 20, 673-682.

Salomon, G. (1991). *Transcending the quantitative-qualitative debate: The analytic and systemic approaches to educational research*. Educational Researcher, 20(6). 10-18.

Saville, M. N. (2000). “Practical strategies for pro-poor tourism, Case study of pro-poor tourism and SNV in Humla District, West Nepal” *Report to PPT project*. ODI, IIED and CRT, London.

Saville, M. N. (2001). “Practical strategies for pro-poor tourism, Case study of pro-poor tourism and SNV in Humla District, West Nepal” *Report to PPT project*. ODI, IIED and CRT, London.

Scoones, I. (1998), “Sustainable Rural Livelihoods: A Framework for Analysis”, *IDS Working Paper 72*, Brighton: IDS.

Serrat, O., 2008. "The Sustainable Livelihoods Approach". Knowledge Solutions. Asian Development Bank (ADB). Accessed through:
<http://www.adb.org/Documents/Information/Knowledge-Solutions/Sustainable-Livelihoods-Approach.pdf>

Selwyn, T. (1996). "*The Tourist Image: Myth and Myth making in tourism*", London, Wiley.

Shah, K. (2000). "Tourism, the poor and other stakeholders: Asian experience" *ODI Fair-Trade Tourism Paper*. ODI, London.

Shah, K. and V. Gupta (2000). *Tourism, the Poor, and Other Stakeholders: Experience in Asia* : London, ODI.

Sherman, P. and J. Dixon (1991). "The Economics of Nature Tourism: Determining if it pays." In Whelan, T.(ed) *Nature Tourism: Managing for the Environment*. Washington, DC: Island Press, 89-131.

Siegel, P. B., and P.M. Jakus (1995). "Tourism as a Sustainable Rural Development Strategy: Building Consensus in Resident Attitude" *Southern Journal of Rural Sociology*, 11(1): 17-41.

Singh, T. V. (1989). *The Kulu Valley Impact of Tourism Development in the Mountain Area*, New Delhi: Himalayan Books.

Sokphally, T. and H. Vutha. (2007). "Pro-Poor Tourism" *Siem Reap Case Study*, Cambodia Development Resource Institute, Phnom Penh, Cambodia

Spenceley, A and J. Seif (2003). "Strategies, Impacts and Costs of Pro-Poor Tourism Approaches in South Africa" *PPT Working Paper No. 11*, London: ODI, IIED and CRT. January 2003

Stake, Robert E. (1995) *The Art of Case Study Research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Swarbrooke, J. 1999. *Sustainable Tourism Management*. Wallingford: CAB International.

Tangpianpant, P.G., (2010). Thaksin Populism and Beyond: A study of Thaksin's Pro-poor Populist Policies in Thailand. Wesleyan University, Connecticut.
p.76

Tao, T. C., (2006) *Tourism as a Livelihood Strategy in Indigenous Communities: Case Studies from Taiwan* . Thesis University of Waterloo, Ontario Canada, 2006

Teo, P. and S. Huang, (1995). "Tourism and heritage conservation in Singapore". *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol. 22, 589-615.

The Nation (1987). "Agriculture: Dramatic decline" *The Nation*, (1 January 1987). 15-17

Timothy, D. J. and Wall, G. (1997). "Selling to Tourists: Indonesian Street Vendors" *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol.24 (2). 322-340.

Toner, A. (2002). *Sustainable livelihoods approaches - Can they transform development?* Bradford, BCID, University of Bradford.

Toufique, K. (2001). *Rights and livelihoods. Workshop*, Dhaka, Bangladesh: Bangladesh Institute of Development Studies and Power and Participation Research Centre.

Toufique, K.A. (2000) "Sustainable Rural Livelihoods in Bangladesh: Summary of Research Findings", *Research Report 45*. Brighton, UK: Institute of Development Studies.

Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) (1995). Thailand Statistical Report, Bangkok: Tourism Authority of Thailand.

Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) (1999). Tourism Marketing Plan 2000, Bangkok:
Tourism Authority of Thailand.

Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) (2009). Thailand Statistical Report, Bangkok:
Tourism Authority of Thailand.

Trousdale, W. J (1999). "Governance in context: Boracay Island, Philippines" *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol.24(2). 322-340.

U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service (USDA)(1998). *Ecotourism in the Asia-Pacific Region: Issue and Outlook*. January 1998.

UNWTO (United Nations World Tourism Organization). (2004). *Tourism and poverty alleviation recommendations for action*. Madrid: UNWTO.

UNWTO (2008). "Tourism Highlights 2008 Edition," United Nations World Tourism Organization: <http://www.world-tourism.org/facts/eng/highlights.htm> Viewed December 2009.

Walker, J, B.Mitchell, and S. Wismer(2001) "Livelihood strategy approach to community-based planning and assessment: a case study of Molas, Indonesia" *Impact Assessment and Project Appraisal* 19(4),297-309

WCED(1987). Our Common Future. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wearing, S, (2001), Exploring Socio-economic Impacts on Local Communities in Weaver, D,B and Wallingford, (2001), The Encyclopaedia of Ecotourism, CABI Publishing,

Wells, M. and K. Brandon (1992). People and Parks: Linking Protected Area Management with Local Communities, Washington, DC: IBRD and World Bank.

Wereld, O. (1979). Sex tourism to Thailand. In ISIS, Tourism and prostitution, International Bulletin, 13:9-12.

Whyte, W.(1955). *Street Corner Society*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Widener, P. (1996). "Green boom curries favour: the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) is facing a tough juggling act promotion ecotourism whilst limiting damage to the country's eco spots", *PATA Travel News*, June, 34-36.

Wilkinson, P. F and W. Pratiwi (1995) "Gender and Tourism in an Indonesian Village" *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol. 22 (2). 283-299

Williams, E., (2000). UCOTA-Uganda Community Tourism Association: A comparison with NACOBTA

Williams, E., White, A. and Spenceley, A. (2001) "UCOTA – The Uganda Community Tourism Association: a comparison with NACOBTA" *Pro-Poor tourism working paper No.5*, ODI/CRT/IIED, May 2001

Wilson, J.C. and Garrod, B. (2003) "Introduction". In B. Garrod and J.C. Wilson (eds) *Marine Ecotourism: Issues and Experiences*. Channel View Publications, Clevedon, pp. 1-11.

Woods, K. (2005) "Pro-poor tourism as a means of Sustainable development in Vctubabba Valley, Northern Peru" *ICRT occasional Paper No.02*

World Bank.(2008) " The Country-level Poverty data" *The 2005 International Comparison Program*, World Bank

World Travel and Tourism Council (2014) Travel and Tourism Economic impact 2014, Thailand.