

**THE RURAL COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT
STRATEGIES OF SOUTH KOREA AND MYANMAR
(1970-2010): A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS**

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งานวิจัยนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อศึกษาเปรียบเทียบศักยภาพในการพัฒนาชุมชนชนบท
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This study compares rural community development efforts of Republic of Korea and Myanmar during 1960s to 2010. The research method is mainly descriptive based on historical and current situations. Primary data are collected in Myanmar to highlight the current level of rural community development through a survey on twenty villages. Villages were chosen from four geographically divided regions with sample random sampling basis. Republic of Korea and Myanmar share common characteristics. Both are located in Asia, started as poor countries, had been staying under military dictatorship for a number of years and egalitarian nature of people in rural areas. Nowadays, Korea is one of the economically strong countries while Myanmar is one of the poorest countries in the world. The rural community development movement called Saemaul Undong has significantly changed rural scenes of Korea. During the same period there were no integrated effort towards rural development and many attempts to boost rural life of people were ended up at the cosmetic level in Myanmar.

The findings from the experiences of South Korea show successful rural development remain on, agricultural marketing system, presence of incentive scheme for the development, the commitment of national leaders, community leaderships, cross institutional involvement, spiritual reform and finally stage by stage development with long-term orientation. The lessons from the study of rural development model of these two countries reveal that Korea model can be illustrated as proactive strategy and Myanmar's is reactive strategy. The first model place rural sector development as the country's priority while it was subordinate to the political stability of urban area in the second. Finally, the vision and real commitment of national leaders to develop their own country make a real difference in the fortunes of these countries.

The empirical data from twenty villages under survey in Myanmar reveals two things. Firstly, there is negatively correlated between number of farmland in the village and economic wellbeing of the village. This information highlights interventions should be taken to remedy the economic situation of farm households. Secondly, there is positively correlated between the level of rural development as measured by four aspects (infrastructure, economic, social and environmental) and the level of integration among institutions that active in those areas. Myanmar can adopt the rural community development model of South Korea, at least certain extent, since the two countries experienced similar political structure and socio-economic situations in the past. Based on Korea's experience, a model for rural community development of Myanmar has been suggested in the last part of the study.

Field of Study : Korean Studies Student's Signature

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

GDP	Gross Domestic Product
NGO	Non- Governmental Organization
GNP	Gross National Income
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
INGOs	International Non-Governmental Organization

Chapter I

Introduction

1.1 Background of the Study

Myanmar is located on the mainland of Southeast Asia. It covers an area of 677,000 square miles and is endowed with rich resources. It had been once occupied by British and had got independent in 1948. Strategically, it possesses a long coast line and locates between the world's largest populated countries - China and India. Myanmar receives favorable climate and terrain. It has well-educated and English spoken labor force. Considering its rich natural resource endowment, economists in 1960s predicted that it has the potential to become an economic power house of Asia in the future. On the contrary, Myanmar is one of the poorest nations in the world. At current scenario, more than 70% people are living in villages and depending on agriculture. Most families in rural areas of Myanmar spend around 70% of their income for food alone, which compares unfavorably with the global benchmark of 50% as indicator of poverty.

South Korea (Korea, hereafter) on the other hand, started as a poor country in Asia in 1960s. Its per capital GDP was even lower than 100 US dollar at that time. Its economy was mainly based on agriculture and fisheries. Economic situation of Korea at that time was characterized by abundant of unskilled labor, shortage of capital, weak technology based and undeveloped private sector. At present, Korea is an economically leading country in Asia-Pacific region.

Economic development of the country is the ultimate objective of all governments in the world particularly poor nations. Economic development of these countries, however, will be feasible only when the living standard of people in the rural areas has been improved since the majority of populations in these countries are living in the rural areas of the country. It is especially true for Myanmar. According to a recent World Bank report, "75 percent of the world's poor live in rural areas and most are involved in farming". "Poverty is still largely a rural phenomenon. The poorest countries are those with predominantly agricultural economies and societies, and the

poorest people live mainly in rural areas. Rural community development, therefore, matters to the development of a poor country.

It can be imagined that the current situation of Myanmar is more or less similar to the situation of South Korea in 1970s. Last 40 years ago, Korea has been successful in its attempt to narrow down rural-urban development gap by developing living standard of people in rural community by using Saemaul Undong (SMU) approach to rural community development. SMU was successfully implemented by Korea in a relatively short time (the decade of the 1970s) in raising incomes and improving living standards in rural areas, thus narrowing the Urban –Rural divide. During the same period, Myanmar has also tried several times to develop rural sector by means of various reforms under the Socialist government regime. These reformed measures had produced more or less positive results but could not be sustained and consequently were not integrated into the development of community as a whole. In other word, the rural sectors of Korea had transformed during the last 40 years as the result of SMU while the rural sectors of Myanmar barely changed. This prompts a research curiosity of why Korea SMU approach was successful? Why Myanmar was not as much successful as Korea? What were right and what were wrong? Can Myanmar benchmark Korea's SMU approach and if so what extent? If this study explores these research questions, the answers will provide useful lessons and insights for those who study and attempt to develop rural economy and community.

1.2 Rationale and objectives of the Study

The main rationale of this study is to compare and contrast a successful model of rural development with unsuccessful one and to find out for what aspects of former can be benchmark for the improvement of the latter. If the study finds the major factors that determine the success and failure of the rural sector development of the country, inappropriate and unrealistic approaches can be removed while good practices can be benchmarked and replicated. Therefore, the objectives of the study would be:

1. To explore the factors and practices responsible for successful rural development in the South Korea

2. To find out the factors and practices behind unsuccessful attempt to develop rural sector in Myanmar

3. To propose future model of rural community development of Myanmar

1.3 Research Questions and Hypothesis

In this study, two major research questions are attempted to answer.

Question (1) which factors are major responsible for the successful rural sector development in South Korea?

Question (2) Can the good practices of the successful model of one country be replicated to another country and what extent? Which factors need to modify in the process of replication and how those factors can be modified to suit with local situation?

In order to guide latter efforts in the research process, the following tentative hypothesis is adopted beforehand.

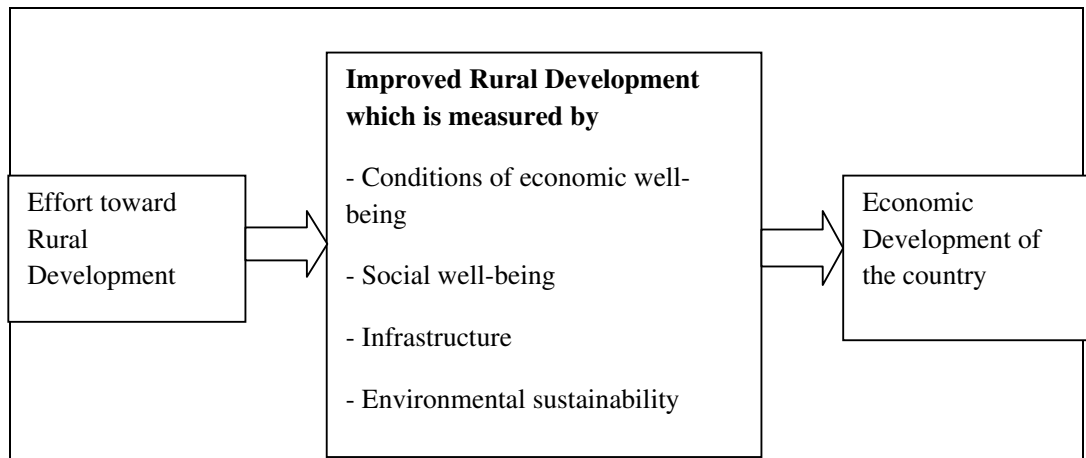
"The greater the integration among cross sector institutions that are involved in rural development effort, the better the rural development of that village is"

1.4 Conceptual Framework of the Study

Conceptual framework of the study is shown in the following diagram. The indicators used to measure rural development are based on "Indicators for Rural Development and Household Income" by Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (ESCWA) – United Nations, 2009¹.

¹ Expert Group Meeting on Adopting the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach for Promoting Rural Development in the ESCWA Region, Beirut, 21-22 December 2009

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework of the Research



As shown in the above diagram, the conceptual framework of the study is relatively simple. The rural development can be measured by four broad elements these are conditions of economic well-being of the rural community, social well-being, infrastructure and environmental sustainability of the village. The rural development is regarded as an outcome of the integrated model of rural development and that lead to be economic development of the whole country.

1.5 Analytical Framework of the Study

The analytical framework concerns with the detailed analysis and measurement of the elements shown in the conceptual framework. The model of rural development was analyzed based on Saemaul Undong approach that was adopted in Korea. The features of this model were investigated and that would be used as a reference for the improvement of rural development model of Myanmar. The historical and current approach of rural development in Myanmar was also analyzed for the purpose of comparison.

Four elements of rural development shown in the conceptual framework can be measured by the indicators as follow. These are also adapted from the elements to measure to the development of rural areas by Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (ESCWA) – United Nations, 2009.

1. Economic well-being

- a. Real per capita income of the villager (individual and household)
- b. Percentage of farmland households

- b. The number of houses in the village with good conditions
- c. The ownership of consumer durables like Motorcycle, Television, Seattleite, Mobile phone etc.

2. Social well-being

- a. Literacy rate of the village and number of graduates per year
- b. Percentage of the people access to safe water (suitable for drinking)
- c. Infant mortality rate

3. Infrastructure

- a. Access to electricity and road condition
- b. Time taken to read newspaper and journal
- c. Time taken to reach nearest town
- d. Forest area within 10 miles of the village

4. Environmental sustainability

- a. Pollution is measured by noise and air pollution due to the traffics and industries (because of motorcycle and machineries for transport purpose)
- b. Level of water and soil pollution
- c. Bio-diversity is measured by the number of animals (wildlife) in a square mile
- d. Access to water near the village

Economic development of the country can be measured by the growth rate of per capital income of the nationals at the time period involved.

1.6 Research Design and Methodology

This research mainly used descriptive research method based on the analysis of historical and current situation. Historical and current data of both South Korea and Myanmar gathered from all available sources including special reports, findings from previous studies, government statistics, books, periodicals, journals and internet. Literature survey was intensively used in this study. Primary data was collected from villages in Myanmar in order to understanding the socio economic status of living of people in the village, present level of rural development and the level and integration of effort towards rural community development. There are more than 330 townships and 60000 villages in Myanmar. Because of cost and time factors, this study only focuses on 20 villages to get detailed information on the above factors. Because of geographical difference as well as ethnical variety in Myanmar, there may be somewhat differences in terms of rural community development among villages in the whole country. Therefore, in order to represent the situation of villages in the whole country as much as possible the following procedure was used to obtain sample villages.

First step - The country was stratified into four regions based on their geographic characteristics namely - Central Region, Hilly Region, Delta Region and Coastal Region. After excluding remote areas that are very difficult to commute due to transport and resurgences problems, approximately 50-60 townships left in each region.

Second step – We drew five sample townships from each strata region with simple random sampling basis. Since there were four strata region, it got totally 20 townships after finishing this step. This step was done in order not to be two villages are located in a single township

Third step – We drew a sample village from each township being chosen in the second step with simple random sampling basis. After completing this step, it got five villages in each region and totally 20 villages all over the country to collect primary data. The location map of the state and division of sample villages are shown in Appendix B.

Table 1: Location of Sample Villages

Sr.	Name of the Village	Township	State/Division	Region (for the purpose of thesis only)
1	Bo toke	Laputta	Ayeyawaddy	Delta Group
2	Kyeik ka tha	Pyar Pon	Ayeyawaddy	
3	Tamatakaw	Bokalay	Ayeyawaddy	
4	Htaungtan	Daydaye	Ayeyawaddy	
5	Kanaung	Kangyidaunt	Ayeyawaddy	
6	Lamine	Ye	Mon	Costal Group
7	Tai Kyo	Gwa	Rakhine	
8	Kaungboung	Young bye	Rakhine	
9	Pearl	Thonggwa	Yangon	
10	Kyunpadat	Mudon	Mon	
11	Kansawl	Pwebwe	Mandalay	Central Group
12	Mintekon	Meikhtila	Mandalay	
13	Nwartekon	ZeKon	Bago	
14	Sapalpin	Kyautpandown	Mandalay	
15	Tharyargon	Myingyan	Mandalay	
16	Minlon	Naung Shwe	Shan	Hilly Group
17	Nantsan	Thi Baw	Shan	
18	Akha	Tachilalk	Shan	
19	Kamepyin	Mokok	Mandalay	
20	Kwanbi	Hlaing Bwe	Kayin	

The location of villages and their respective townships and regions are shown in the above table.

A set of predesigned questions were used to collect data. The questions were divided two parts - (1) factual information to determine the present level of infrastructure and socio-economic development of the village and (2) opinion information to get their attitude and effort toward village community development. The village head or (if not available) senior villager of the village who knows about the village very well was requested to complete questionnaires for the village. The questionnaires were sent to the Department of Commerce, Yangon Institute of Economics in Myanmar. According to the request of the author, the responsible person from the Department of

Commerce handled all the correspondence issues to collect village data and sent the completed questionnaires back to author in Bangkok, Thailand.

1.7 Scope and Limitation of the Study

The study is mainly comparative analysis on the strategies and efforts for the rural community development from 1970 to the current period. This study deals with rural sector of these two countries' population and development efforts for them including economic wellbeing, knowledge, and education, social, environmental and so on all are concern with quality of life for people in rural area.

This study has a number of limitations. First, it relies on secondary data for Korea's rural community development. Second, only literature survey can be used to gather required data from Korea. Third, sample size 20 villages are too small to reflect the situation of villages in the overall country of Myanmar. Fourth, the period covered by the study is limited from 1970 to 2010. Therefore, the development efforts toward rural sector prior to 1970 are beyond the scope of this study. Despite these limitations, this study should provide insightful information and lessons for successful rural development and unsuccessful one. As the output of the study, it can provide useful suggestions for the development of rural development model that suit the country's situation based on the experience of Korea. The finding from this study will be valuable for the later studies in the field of rural development in the developing countries like Myanmar.

Chapter II

Literature Review of the Study

2.1 Defining Community and Community Development

The term “Community” is widely used for different purposes but people may have different understandings on the exact meaning of it. (Paul Stepney, Keith Popple, 2008) have discussed the core characteristics of community are size of population, commonalities among people, identity and belonging, primary relationships and attachment, and local culture. (S.Pawar, 2010) has distinguished three different levels or layers of community. The first and most fundamental aspect of community is people and place in terms of geography or locality, close or distant, and mutual or otherwise interaction among people that creates a relative sense of belongingness and attachment, both with people and the place.

At the second level, there are communities of people without a specified geographic locality, but their sense of community is developed on the basis of common background, interests or issues, such as religion, ethnicity, place of origin, language, sports or hobbies, child care, youth and ageing (for example women community, youth community and so on). The third level of community that has established a community net by drastically reducing time and space so that where interactions occur and relationships develop with or without physical proximity (for example, face book community).

McMillan and David M.Chavis (Vol.14.Jan 1986) proposed four criteria for definition of community. The first element is membership. It is the feeling of belonging or sharing a sense of personal relatedness. The second element is influence, a sense of mattering, of making a difference to a group and of grouping matters to its members. The third element is reinforcement; it is integration and fulfillment of needs. This is the feeling of members’ needs will be met by the resources received through their membership in the group. The last element is shared emotional connection, the commitment and belief that members have shared and will share history, common places, timed together and similar experiences. For most of the people and practitioners, however, they have regarded the term community as a geographic based

community where people enjoy the sense of membership and belonging or an issue-based community within a geographic location. Even in this geographic-locality based category, there may be many different types of community depending upon the geographic that wishes to refer in a particular case such as international community, local community, urban community, rural community and like.

Likewise, the definitions of community development tend to be varied depending on what is meant by community. Community development can be generally defined as the process by which the people themselves are united with those of government authorities to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of the communities, to integrate these communities into the life of nation, and to enable them to contribute fully to national progress.

S.Pawar (2010) broadly defined community development as a participatory people-centred process that involves bringing together, mobilizing or organizing people, keeping them together and enabling them to work together to address their needs and issues so as to facilitate their own, their communities' and their society's comprehensive development. The author focused this definition on geographic-locality based community development particularly Asia-Pacific region in his book. The term community development covers not only development in economic aspect but also the conditions in the basic essential services of the community like health, education, housing, infrastructure and developmental opportunities of the people. Community development means that a community itself engages in a process aimed at improving the social, economic and environmental situation of the community. Good community development is action that helps people to recognize and develops their ability and potential and organizes them to respond to problems and needs which they share. It supports the establishment of strong communities that control and use assets to promote social justice and help improve the quality of community life. It also enables community and public agencies to work together to improve the quality of government.

2.2 Rural Community Development

Rural development has been identified as all efforts to improve the livelihood of rural people such as changes in *rural productivity, employment opportunities, income and wealth distribution, social structure and social mobility, resource management, information access, rural people's power, health and education*, and others – Human Development (Muktasam, oct 4-5.2007). Rural community development encompasses a range of approaches and activities that aim to improve the welfare and livelihoods of people living in rural areas. As a branch of community development, these approaches pay attention to social issues particularly community organizing. This is in contrast to other forms of rural development that focus on public works (e.g. rural roads and electrification) and technology (e.g. tools and techniques for improving agricultural production), (Wikipedia,2010).Rural development and community development become overlap when targeted community for development is geographic-based one, more specifically rural areas of the country.

Rural community development is a process mainly conducted by community members themselves. It is a process where local people can not only create more jobs, income and infrastructure but also help their community become fundamentally better able to manage change. Rural community development builds the five capitals of a community – physical, financial, human, social and environmental. It is through participation in their community that people rethink problems and expand contacts and networks; building social capital. They learn new skills, building human capital. They develop new economic options, building physical and financial capital. They also can improve their environment. Community development improves the ability of communities to collectively make better decisions about the use of resources such as infrastructure, labour and knowledge.

For the meaning of rural community development, (Mizuno, 2003) argued that it covers a more holistic view that involves better change in rural life so as to realize and enhance the total value of agrarian life and rural society. The meaning of “rural” itself has multiple and conflicting term. Rural areas are heterogeneous and always changing with response to changing wider environmental situation. There is absence of a commonly accepted definition or measure of the term ‘rural’. It is commonly based on

the population's size and density, the predominant forms of economic activity, the nature of local infrastructure, and the form of local political organization. Information provided in global databases is derived from national sources, but the precise definition of 'rural' exhibits considerable variation across countries and some variations over time. Wiggins and Proctor pointed out that there is no exact definition of the term, but that rural areas are 'clearly recognizable'. They contribute the space where human settlement and infrastructure occupy only small patches of the landscape, most of which dominated by fields and pastures, woods and forest, water, mountain and desert (Ashley and Maxwell, 2001,397).

Wikipedia (2010) defined rural areas or the country or countryside as the areas that are not urbanized, though when large areas are described country towns and smaller cities will be included. They have a low population density, and typically much of the land is devoted to agriculture. The degree to which areas of wilderness are included in the term varies; very large wilderness areas are not likely to be described by the term in most contexts.

According to U.S. Census Bureau classification of rural consists of all territory, population, and housing units located outside of urbanized areas and urban clusters. It defines rural areas as comprising open country and settlements with fewer than 2,500 residents. In term of land used the areas designated as rural can have population densities as high as 999 per square mile or as low as 1 person per square mile. Urbanized areas include populations of at least 50,000, and urban clusters include populations between 2,500 and 50,000. United States Department of Agriculture (2002 farm bill) defined rural areas as any area other than (1) a city or town that has a population of greater than 50,000 inhabitants, and (2) the urbanized areas contiguous and adjacent to such a city or town. In Mexico, the areas are defined as rural municipalities with populations less than 2,500 inhabitants. Canada's rural and small town analysis bulletin (2001) provided six alternative definitions of rural. Census rural refers to individuals living in the countryside outside centre of 1,000 or more population.

Rural and small town refers to individuals in towns or municipalities outside the commuting zone or larger sub urban centers (with 10,000 or more population). Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD)'s rural

community refers to individuals in communities with less than 150 persons per square kilometer. From Wikipedia, rural areas are large and isolated areas of an open country with low population density. The term rural development is used to denote the actions and initiatives taken to improve the standard of living in non-urban neighborhoods, countryside, and remote villages. These communities can be exemplified with a low ratio of inhabitants to open space. Agricultural activities may be prominent in this case whereas economic activities would relate to the primary sector, production of foodstuffs and raw materials. In general, rural areas share some characteristics that can be used to mark them out from their urban counterparts. They are agricultural based, a greater percentage of family living under poverty line, poor housing, communication and transportation, poor health and education status, restricted opportunity for growth, strong people orientation, traditional value and suspicions to outsiders, large number of children in the family and scarcity of professionalisms.

Ashley and Maxwell argued that agriculture is the best way to reduce rural poverty. They quoted the work of Irz et al that identified twelve separate reasons why agriculture growth might be expected to reduce poverty, at farm level, in the rural economy and nationally. As non-farm sources of income account for 40-45% of average rural household income in sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America, 30-40% in South Asia, with the majority coming from local rural sources rather than urban migration the rural non-farm economy should be an alternative way to rural development.

Although improving agriculture and the non-farm economy of rural areas may help people in the rural area to escape from poverty and improve their livelihood, the rural development itself is wider aspects. This includes infrastructure, knowledge, health, and education, right to participation, social relation and environmental protection. Therefore, rural development has to be about all the various aspects mentioned above and remaining others. The rural development process has to be concerned about the structure and processes which mediate how the assets are transformed into income and other desired outcomes for rural people (Ashely and Maxwell, 2001:411).

2.3 Approaches to Community Development

The key to community development is facilitating a community in applying the principles to guide a flexible series of actions that are appropriate for the situation of the community. There are many “models” and frameworks for community development processes. There is a trade-off between communities having clear future plans for steps in the process and retaining flexibility and versatility. Considerable skill, confidence and judgment is needed to maintain an adaptable community-led process guided by the principles of community development.

The Federation of Community Development Learning defines community development as:

"A set of values and practices which plays a special role in overcoming poverty and disadvantage, knitting society together at the grass roots and deepening democracy."

There are a number of different approaches to community development. They are community economic development (CED); community capacity building; Social capital formation; political participatory development; nonviolent direct action; ecologically sustainable development; asset-based community development (ABCD); faith-based community development; community practice social work; community-based participatory research (CBPR); Community Mobilization; community empowerment; community participation; participatory planning including community-based planning (CBP); community-driven development (CDD); and approaches to funding communities directly.

(C.Allen, Spring, 2007)has presented the characteristics of so called traditional need-based community development and asset-based community development. In the first model, the focus is based on need, the goal is oriented to institutional change, the conversation is on problems and concerns, power is used as main change agent and individual is viewed as consumer or client. In this model, needs are based on community' problems like child abuse, crimes, gangs, school dropout, unemployment and welfare etc. In the latter, the focus is based on assets, the goal is building community, conversation is based on gifts and dream, relationship is used as change agent and individuals are viewed as the producers or owner. In this model, assets of

the community refer to artists, businesses, churches, clubs, community colleges, culture groups, farms, hospitals, libraries, parks, schools and youths etc. While the need-based approach focuses on garnering external resources to solve problems, the alternative asset-based approach looks for residents' personal skills and dreams and links them to action through a public articulation of these local assets.

The view of the individual is that of a producer or owner rather than that of a consumer or client. While the differences between owner and producer, and consumer and client may seem small, they provide a dramatic shift in where responsibility for the future lies. In the asset-based approach, community first organizes itself to identify local assets and, once these are identified, the community residents become mobilized and reorganize their local assets to create a positive future. Local assets may include individual, associational (voluntary organizations), institutional, economic (including hidden economic assets such as the transfer of wealth upon death), cultural and historic, and natural resource assets. Representatives of the community then map the assets for visual presentation to the community. Asset-based community development approach is relatively new and based on participation of people involved in the community.

Pawar (2010) has distinguished the five models of community development used in Asia-Pacific region based on the work of international agencies involved. They are community driven, rights-based, asset-based, sustainable livelihoods and local level social development. He also maintained that there are five broad approaches that contribute to community development and these approaches are neither mutually inclusive nor exclusive since they contribute to community development in different ways. These approaches are (1) the charity-oriented community development approach (2) state-led community development approach (3) NGO-initiated community development approach (4) community-initiated community development approach and (5) partnership-focused community development approach. He also argued that the top-down community development approach has been widely used in the 1950s and 1960s but they produced mixed outcomes since the flow of national level development plan to the local level implementation takes much time and passes many stages where a lot of coordination and integration are required and consequently

most of the efforts are diminish on the way before reaching to the grassroots level community people.

On the other hand, there are successful participatory people-centre community developments that demonstrate it is possible to achieve comprehensive development through community development practice at grassroots level. By taking account the people who lived in the community, he distinguished in terms of both community development for indigenous populations and community development by indigenous populations. In the first case, the efforts of community development have been initiated by the external agents such as government, NGOs and other parties. This type of community development has mostly top-down orientation with minimal participation of people concerned although there may be some exceptions. In the second case, indigenous people have organized themselves for the development of their communities. Concerning with the areas of rural community development, fifteen areas may be focused. These include self-help group and micro-finance credit scheme, agriculture, community forestry, water, infrastructure and service, sanitation, disasters and displacement, conflict, indigenous peoples, unaided and locally based development, cooperatives, drop in and depart activities, vulnerable groups, information and communication technology and state-initiated systems for local community development (Pawar, 2010: 70).

2.4 Rural Community Development in Asia

Asia has experienced a long history of rural community development not only the responses to pressures of economic development but also social and environmental development. Rural development has been identified as all efforts to improve the livelihood of rural people such as changes in rural productivity, employment opportunities, income and wealth distribution, social structure and social mobility, resource management, information access, rural people's power, health and education, and others (Muktasam, 2007). Muktasam analysed rural development experiences of three countries in Asia namely Indonesia, Thailand and Malaysia. Muktasam pointed out the failures of government approaches in promoting rural community development by imposing outsiders' perspective of "development". He maintained that transformation from subsistence form of production to more commercial farming

system run well in the early stages, but eventually the local community found that those “*imposed socio economic and environmental changes*” had led into a difficult situation.” He suggested that for effective rural development need to be involving local community in policy development and implementation – from village level, to national and regional level. Revitalizations of local community organizations and institutions, promote effective community networking. Creating awareness, improving knowledge skills, changing attitudes are required.

(Arsenio ,Rosemarie ,Sharon , June &Dec 2005) presented that over 70% of the poor people in Southeast Asian countries live in rural areas. The agriculture sector has been mainstay of these poor people in the rural areas particularly in Myanmar and Lao PDR where the agriculture sector contribution to national GDP is almost 50%. As a result, agriculture sector becomes the main target for the economic development policies of these countries. Agriculture sector development and rural development have become the same meaning.

The major approaches to rural sector development in Asia have been seen as paternalistic approach, technocratic approach, welfarist approach and radical/activist. In paternalistic approach, a government functionary in the village who would act as a “guide, philosopher and friend” of the villagers and was expected to familiarize them with modern and scientific ideas about agricultural and rural development with the presumption that whatever, if anything, they knew about farming practices was outmoded and needed to be discarded. It was introduced in India and Pakistan in the 1950s. The *technocratic* approach is associated with such programmes that promoted the spread of the green revolution in the 1960s that are now seeking to introduce biotechnology and information technology in agriculture. The main aim of such programmes is to increase the output of agriculture, often without much concern for institutional, distributional or environmental side effects. In recent years, however, concerns are becoming increasingly important and are beginning to receive greater attention thus engendering a more holistic approach.

The Integrated Rural Development Programmes (IRDPs) adopted in many South Asian countries in the 1960s and 1970s can be regarded as following a largely technocratic approach. The concept of integrated rural development (IRD) popularly

known as the Comilla Model was a major innovative step was high in the agenda nationally and internationally in Asian countries during 1970s. The *welfarist* approach has always been a significant influence in the architecture and implementation of rural development programmes but has become more prominent in recent times because of the emphasis of the poverty alleviation objective. Ever since the beginning, the trend is to give increasing attention to the equity aspects of public expenditure programmes, including those for rural development. More recently, such programmes have included limited land or tenancy reforms, in view of the fact that the growth-oriented strategies of the 1960s were unable to have a significant trickle-down effect increasing the access of the poor to public services, especially microcredit delivery to the poor.

The main objective of the *radical/activist* approach is to achieve rapid social change and to redistribute political power from the landed rich to the small farmers and the landless. To achieve this, the approach relies on the redistribution of wealth (mainly through radical land reforms) and income (through reduction in inequality). It also relies on faster growth through the increased intensity and efficiency of labor. This approach was based on the experience of the first two decades of China. However, the Republic of Korea and Taiwan Province of China also adopted radical land reforms. The radical rural development programmes aim at directly challenging the existing rural social order, rather than circumventing or appeasing it. The governments of Asian countries have developed policies and programs that emphasize community development since many years in the past. The ministry of rural development in India, ministry of community development in Singapore and Department of Community Development in the Ministry of Interior in Thailand provide some evidences. Although state-led community developments have achieved tremendous economic growth in the past in the Asia region, they have been heavily criticized on the ground of the fulfillment of the needs of the grass root level people and bottom-up approaches such as participatory development, people-centred development, local level development, community-based and community driven development have been recommend since 1980s. China has introduced grass root level participation approach and Villagers Committees have been developed through a democratic process in the rural areas of China. In successful rural development model of India like Ralegan

Siddhi, participation of indigenous population is the key. Nowadays, although community development programmes are initiated by the state they are incorporated as much as possible with the participation of people in the local areas in many Asian countries. In other word, top-down and bottom-up approach are needed to be combined.

The community development programmes in most of the Asian countries were designed mainly to improve the efficiency in agriculture and therefore focused on larger and middle farmers. Due to the evidences that indicate failures or at best mix results of state-led community development program in the 1980s, an alternative form of rural community development so called community-led community development gradually comes into surface. Many of the new initiatives in rural development are undertaken by similar individuals or groups who perceived the opportunity of mobilizing the poor and marginal households to engage in programmes largely through their own efforts, with the catalytic help of well-conceived and persistent efforts of outsiders, government agencies, universities, NGOs or donor agencies. The efforts people in the communities concerned, NGOs, business, government authorities and international agencies need to be integrated for the successful rural community development.

Chapter III

Rural Community Development in Republic of Korea

Republic of Korea was one of the poor countries in the world. It was facing high inflation and high unemployment during 1950s. But its economy has changed dramatically since 1962 after military coup led by general Park-Chung-Hee took over the national power. It has now become one of the economic power houses in East Asia region. Up to 1960s, it was characterized by low level agriculture production with poor infrastructure. In the journey of the country economic development, there are a number of policies and strategies have been adopted mainly export-led strategy of industrialization, encouragement of inward foreign investment, support to education research, narrowing urban-rural divide and many others.

Out of these successful policy reforms, rural community development should be ranked at the top. The effort to uplift the country's rural sector was started when the laws for agriculture extension program, agricultural cooperative movement and community development program were enacted in the 1960s. The community development programs were amalgamated into agricultural extension program in 1962. Base on its traditional culture value, Korea's rural development program namely Saemaul Undong launched in 1970. It was started as Rural Reconstruction Campaign, but it has achieved remarkable success and envy by many other countries that having more or less the similar history of Korea. Korea model of rural community development has transformed the scenes of rural village life as well as more importantly the attitudes and confident of people living in the rural communities of Korea. Later, this model has been extended to the urban areas and thus its scope was not constraining in the rural and so as should not be labeled as rural community development model. Instead, it should be named as community development model to be more appropriate although it was originated at the rural/village level.

3.1 Brief Political and Economic History of South-Korea

South Korea was established as The Republic of Korea in 1948. It was the same year Myanmar got her independence from the British. Before that, Japan conquered and ruled Korea peninsula for 35 years. After Japanese left, the country came into two parts; the southern the U.S. administered part and the northern the Soviet controlled part. South Korea appeared as one of the poorest nations in the world. When Korea

regained independence from Japanese Rule it was struggling with many problems including political instability and nationwide poverty. The per capita GNP stood at a meager US\$ 50 at the time of the independence, recorded a tediously slow increase, amounting to \$65 in the 1950s and \$85 in 1960.

North Korea attacked the country in 1950, resulting in a terrible civil war which lasted for three years and many civilians were injured and killed. In 1952, Syngman Rhee was elected as the President. It was the time of economic and social hardship in South Korea. GDP per capita was comparable with levels in the poorer countries of Africa and Asia. Poor natural resources and the low level of industrial technologies were identified as major constraining factors for economic development in the 1960s in Korea.

Park Chung-Hee took over the national power of the country in 1961 by means of military coup. The Military Coup in 1961 marked a historical turning point for Korea in almost every aspect. South Korea had been devastated by the Korean War just a few years earlier. Its economy remained one of the world's poorest (Overholt, 2011). General Park Chung-Hee attempted to develop the nation by adopting an export-led strategy. Despite the limited resources, the strategy was working well and led the country to be one of the leading countries in Asia. Raw materials and technologies were imported, domestic capital including human capital was developed and the economy was growing fast. However Industrialization was happened in the urban areas that inducing rural labor force to migrate into urban centers. This resulted in the serious problem of unbalanced development between metropolitan and rural areas. Therefore, unbalanced growth between urban and rural areas became the serious problem for Korea in the 1970-80s.

Park Chung-Hee was assassinated by one of his men in 1979. Although he was a military dictator, he made contribution a lot to the economic development of his country through initiation a successful model of rural community development - Saemaul Undong, which emerged largely due to his vision and guidance. The years between 1961 and 1987 were characterized by increasing domestic political repression and power struggles politically. As the result of unbalanced economic development, the economic power has been concentrated highly to hands of a few, and unequal development among regions became serious social problems, which

would threaten economic, political and social stability. Despite these problems, Korea's economy was achieving remarkable growth shown by the following indicators.

Table 2: Selected Economic Indicators of Korean Economy during 1960-2000

Year	1960	1985	1990	1995	2000
GNP growth rate (%)	2.3	7.0	9.5	8.2	9.2
GNP per capita US\$	81	2194	5210	10076	10841
Investment and GNP ratio	11.6	29.0	37.1	37.5	31.1
Domestic saving to GNP ratio	5.0	29.1	36.2	35.5	33.7
Export (U.S.\$ million)	32.9	30,283	65,016	125,058	172,267.5
Import (U.S.\$ million)	343.0	31,136	69,844	135,119	160,481.0

Source: Adopted from Ki Whan Chung n.d.

As seen in the above table, per capita GNP grew to U.S. \$10,841 in 2000 from U.S. \$81 in 1960. It transformed from the state directed market economy to free economy in the 1990s.

Although it was true that Korea had been one of the poorest nations in the last four decades in the early 1960s, the government of Park Chung Hee instituted sweeping economic policy changes emphasizing exports and labor-intensive light industries, leading to rapid debt-financed industrial expansion. Today, South Korea is the United States' seventh-largest trading partner and is the 15th-largest economy in the world with GDP per capita exceeding US \$ 17,000 in 2010.

3.2 Social Structure and Local Governance of Rural Korea

Social capital is comprised of formal and informal systems of norms, institutions and organizations that promote trust and cooperation in communities and also in wider society. It is "capital" because it is a resource that helps to accelerate the accumulation of well-being, and "social" because it is not the exclusive property of individuals but is possessed by social groups and can be a characteristic of entire

social systems. Social capital is built on the basic cultural norms of identity, trust and reciprocity and on customary behavior associated with these cultural elements, such as networks of reciprocity. The norms and networks of reciprocity however do not always and in themselves constitute forms of social capital (Durstun,1998).

Korea's success in Saemaul Undong process of community development was partly helped by social structure and relationship and value of people in the Korean rural community and local governance of rural Korea. The ideology of Saemaul Undong: diligence, self-help and cooperation could not be achieved if social structure and local governance system had not supported. Korea has well cultural identity which has persisted for centuries. Confucianism was introduced into Korea from China in early years of her story. The Neo-Confucian doctrine of the Chinese philosopher Zhu Xi (1130-1200) was first introduced into Korea during the closing years of the Koryo Dynasty (918-1392).

Confucian thought patterns become dominant in the Korea's society and later it was embedded in the value of the people in the community. The teachings Confucius that value on unity and harmony in the relationship of people was well accepted and practiced. To achieve harmony, the social structure was to be arranged in a hierarchy of classes that recognized superiority and subordination. The superiority-subordination relationship was existed in relation among people and well accepted: ruler over subject, father dominant over son, older brother preeminent over younger brother, husband paramount over wife, and friend on a level with friend. People were expected to obey the authorities, to pay homage to their ancestors, to respect their parents and older people, and to avoid conflict with their neighbors, assisting one another in an ethic of mutual aid become social norms (Vermeersch, 2010. March).

People were expected to nurture "sincere" attitudes, which meant not so much expressing what one "really" felt as "reflecting on" or "clarifying" one's thoughts and feelings until they conformed to traditional norms. There was no concept of the rights of the individual.

These culture values are more deeply rooted in attitude and behavior of rural people either explicitly or implicitly which represents the vast majority of people in Korea. The residents in the rural tend to spend their entire life in the village community which was economically and socially self-sufficient; their needs were met within the

settlement. The villagers know each other very well and because of stable population personal ties with each other were much closed. Outsiders were distrusted and not invited to take part in community affairs. Egalitarian ideology of cooperation and mutual assistance on a reciprocal basis is firmly existed. For seeding, transplanting, and harvesting of rice, the building of home, the replacement of roof, the social activities like wedding and funeral people help each other; tools are shared among the neighbors regardless of kinship connections. Most Korean villages have long been characterized by tight social bonds based on the concept of common home place (gohyang) and common family lineages (dongjok). Villages traditionally selected their own leaders, held meetings to settle the problems, and organized mutual aid societies (gye) as well as cooperative work team (dure, pumassi) for rice transplanting, harvesting and village projects (Reed, September 30, 2010). Custom and tradition were strongly binding the people in the rural community that made the individuals subordinate to the group within which each person's right is strictly defined.

The formal administrative structure of the state did not reach down to the village level due to the geographic and social isolations. The role of government in the rural community needs to be redefined. Where even the big government cannot cover all public services required by and for people, government needs partnership with all the stakeholders involved in or connected with its authorities and functions, to produce and deliver public services more efficiently and effectively. This kind of new way is referred to 'governance' in the practical circles. Even though, 'governance' can be defined variously according to academic fields and authors, it seems clear that 'governance' is a new way of collective decision-taking and action that leads to the common public good (Barry knight, Jan, 2002). The difference between governance and government has been distinguished by So Jin kwang.

“In terms of implementing method, the power or authority in governance system is usually shared by all the stakeholders, but that of government system is allocated hierarchically and one-sidedly, therefore the power or authority to produce public services in government system tends to be monopolized by public service personnel. Decision making in governance system tends to be practiced by bottom up approach, but in government system by top down approach” (SO, 2009.12, Vol.5).

For developing countries that are pursuing both economic development and democracy, achieving 'good' governance is especially important because good governance has been considered to be "a requisite for many different forms of growth, whereas the various features of bad governance ... corruption, waste, abuse of power and exploitation of public means for private ends ... tend to drive unfortunate nations into vicious spirals of decline, disruption and destruction" (Tarschys, 2001).

Governance system is necessary and adequate condition for community development and can be attributed in the success of Saemaul Undong. Governance system can mobilize internal resources more efficiently by sharing the power or authority concerned with community development. In the process of Saemaul Undong, although it was initiated by the government, the participation and acceptance of people in the rural community is the key to achievement that was created and maintained with a good local governance system which in turn based on social value, norms and tradition of people in the rural community.

Reed (September,2010) pointed out the importance to combine social acceptance at the village level and governance at every level in the success of Saemaul Undong as follows.

"SMU's success was built on the ironic combination of cooperation at the village level with mobilization and direction from an authoritarian government. Given the political system of Korea at that time, no village could refuse to participate in the SMU program, even if the immediate benefits were not clear to them. On the other hand, the village-level process and its success was largely attributable to the cooperative ethos and patterns that characterized Korean village life. Not only was every level of government involved in promoting SMU, an entire parallel bureaucracy was created to ensure that plans made at the national level were communicated from the President down to the local level" (Reed, 2010:7)

In short, the rural community development like Saemaul Undong is ultimately a change process. This change process basically and significantly affects the life of people in the community so that the success of this process remains on the level of acceptance and involvement of people in the community. The change process, therefore, should be done through the social structure and local governance system that conducive to create such a change process.

3.3 The Situation of Rural Community of Korea in the early 1960s

Farmers constituted about 70 percent of the Korean population in the 1950s. In order to uplift the life of farmers, rural areas of South Korea have been going under changes for a long period of time. Self-help movements were organized by yangban during the Yi dynasty. The rural development programs were initiated during Japanese colonial period through the introduction of scientific techniques in agricultural production. So called the Rural Revival Movement was launched during the Japanese occupatio

The Japanese set up more than 5,000 model villages and urged the farmers to engage in secondary occupations (John E. Turner, Vicki L. Heslis, Dong Suh Bark. Hoon Yu, March 30, 1993). However, it was proved to be unsuccessful. Several rural development efforts were initiated and implemented throughout the period up to onset of the Saemaul Undong. In 1958, Rhee government introduced a community development scheme but it also was faded away during a few years. After the military coup took power in 1961, a rural oriented community development plan, known as the National Movement for Reconciliation, was introduced. But this program did not success due to directives from the top were divorced from what was actually happening at the bottom. Korean government began to implement the economic growth policy by industrializing several big cities from 1962. But the economic growth around major cities brought about even more severe disparity between urban areas and rural societies. As a result, the development of urban and rural areas became much wider.

In addition, Korean rural villages until 1960s had been far away from the reach of government. The rural villages had been exposed to natural disasters without any help from outside. But some villagers' voluntary efforts to restore their own village destroyed by severe deluge in 1970 were reported to the leadership of Republic of Korea. Consequently, after the presidential election in 1971 the government paid more attention on the development of rural area. Until the early 1970s, rural infrastructure was very poor in Korea. Four-wheel car could access only about 60 percent of total rural villages. About 80 percent of farm households had a rice straw thatched-roof, and only about 20 percent of rural villages could use electricity. Flooding brought regular damages on rural roads and bridges, and agricultural

production was very low because of repeated flooding and drought. Rural poverty was high in the early 1970s since the rural income was so low.

Although the industrialization was accelerated in the urban areas, the rural sector was stagnated as it was before. Migration from rural people into the urban areas in search for better life by leaving unpromising their native rural villages was encountered which led to decline in the proportion of farmers in the total population up to 46 percent. Rural community development was an urgent issue for Korean government in the 1960s and 1970s to reduce development disparity between the rural and urban sector. However, Korean government could not afford the budget needed to support those projects. Most rural communities need government financial support to improve rural infrastructure and to create income generating activities. As a response to deal this problem, the National Movement for Reconciliation was replaced by Saemaul Undong movement in early 1970s.

“Specifically, the government has tried to raise rural income and to reduce rural-urban income disparity by adjusting the terms of trade between agriculture and industry in favor of the farmers, introducing a rural "self-help" program called Saemaul Undong (New Community Movement), and promoting nonagricultural employment opportunities in rural areas” (Ho, July 1979).

The Saemaul Undong, which was officially launched in April 1970, intended to improve the physical environment of villages and to increase rural income. The term “Saemaul” was coined by combining *Sae*, which means ‘progressive renewal based on past experiences, and *Maul*, which refers to ‘regional and social communities.’

3.4 Concept of Saemaul Undong

Saemaul Undong has received attention from government agencies and international organizations such as the United Nations and the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development because it is regarded as a successful example of a poverty reduction and community-development program (Eom, April,2011). Saemaul Undong was launched by Park Chung Hee to increase rural participation in economic development and began with two objectives: to improve the physical environment of the village and to increase rural income (Ho, 1979: 652). Saemaul Undong is guided

by three central social values in Korean society: the spirit of diligence, self-help, and cooperation (National Council of Saemaul Undong Movement in Korea).

(Choe, Nov- 2005) pointed out the main characteristics of the Saemaul Undong. First, it was conducted by so-called integrated approach with the combination of top-down and bottom-up approach. Second, the implementation strategy of the Saemaul Undong is a pure Korean way of community development. It was based on the positive aspects of Korean culture and tradition. Third, the most important intention to pursue the Saemaul Undong is to escape from poverty. At the time of the inception of the Saemaul Undong was the period in which strong need to overcome a seasonal problem of hunger so called “the barley hump”. Fourth, it was a movement for spiritual reform of Korean people. It changed people’s attitude from laziness to diligences, from dependence to self-reliance and from individual selfishness to cooperation with others.

The Saemaul Undong (SMU) was a prominent rural development strategy in the 1970s in Korea. It was a nation-wide rural development movement bringing spiritual enlightenment of living conditions of rural people in the way of self-help and cooperation with the political consciousness of national building (John E. Turner, Vicki L. Heslis, Dong Suh Bark. Hoon Yu, March 30, 1993). Although it was started as top-down approach initiated by the government it was actually featured high level of involvement from the grassroots level of rural population. The SMU accommodates integrated approach; vertical integration and horizontal integration. The SMU covers the areas of village infrastructure building, housing, and income generating projects from agriculture and non-agricultural activities. It took holistic approaches by combining other reforms and activities at the same time and made sure them to be harmony in order to get maximum impact.

Major achievement of the SMU is said to be the elimination of absolute poverty from South Korean rural area. Participant villagers showed enormous volunteerism in the cooperative projects for the improvement of their living standards. Government led rural community development through SMU to motivate rural population for the improvement of roofing, road, running water and sewage in the first stage and then to lead those motivated farmers to various commercial farming projects for the improvement of farm income in the next stage (John E. Turner, Vicki L. Heslis, Dong

Suh Bark. Hoon Yu, March 30,1993). Saemaul Undong believes that economic growth in rural communities should be compatible with efforts to preserve conventional cultural traditions and a healthy natural environment (National Council of Saemaul Undong Movement in Korea).

Non-farm employment was part of the Saemaul Undong. The government attempted to raise the average level of rural income by encouraging non-farm employment through the establishment of the Saemaul Undong Factory Program in 1973. The program was administered by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry and attempted to attract industrial investments in rural areas by offering various incentives like reduction or elimination of taxes, availability of finance and giving priority in the installation of electricity and telephones (Ho, July 1979:653).

3.5 The Success of Saemaul Undong

The Saemaul Undong is the success achieved by Korea in a relatively short time in raising incomes and improving living standards in rural areas, thus narrowing the urban-rural divide(Reed, September 30, 2010). Korean rural villages could be transformed into new settlement through Saemaul Undong. Rural household income began to exceed that of urban household in 1974. Table 3 shows the main achievements of Saemaul Undong from 1971 to 1980.

Table3: Main achievements of Saemaul Undong (1971-80) project

	unit	Objective (set up in '71)	Achievement (‘71-’80)	Achiev./Object (%)
Village road extent.	km	26,266	43,558	166
Farm road development	km	49,167	61,797	126
Small bridges	set	76,749	79,516	104
Village hall	set	35,608	37,012	104
Warehouse	set	34,665	22,143	64
Work place	set	34,665	6,263	18
Stall	set	32,729	4,476	14
Small reservoir	set	10,122	13,327	132
Dike	set	22,787	31,625	139
Water canal	km	4,043	5,161	128
Small river maintenance	km	17,239	9,677	56
Housing improvement	1,000	544	225	42
Settlement improvement	Village	(unplanned in 1971)	2,747	-
Small town improvement	Set	1,529	843	55
Drinking water pump	Set	32,624	28,130	86
Sewage maintenance	Km	8,654	15,559	179
Telephone supply	1,000 unit	2,834	2,777	98
Village communication	village	18,633	18,633	100
Saemaul Factory	Set	950	717	75
Village forestation	Ha	967,362	642,804	66

Source: National Council of Saemaul Undong (1999) Saemaul Undong in Korea. p 24

The participation rate of Korean rural villages in Saemaul Undong had increased year by year. Nearly all the villages took part in Saemaul Undong to get the incentives from government, and all the villages competed with others for more incentives by “better accomplished”, this process promoted more villages to be involved in Saemaul Undong. The increased participation of Korean rural villages in Saemaul Undong movement is shown in table 4.

Table 4: The participation rate of Korean rural villages in Saemaul Undong

Year	The number of villages participated in Saemaul Undong	The number of participants in SM(1,000 persons)	Participants per one village(person)
1971	33,267	7,200	216
1972	34,665	32,000	923
1973	34,665	69,280	1,999
1974	35,031	106,852	3,050
1975	36,547	116,880	3,198
1976	36,557	117,528	3,215
1977	36,557	137,193	3,753
1978	36,257	270,928	7,472
1979	36,271	242,078	6,674
Total for 9 years	319,817	1,099,939	3,439(annually average)

Source (SO, 2009.12, Vol.5)

SO(2009.12, Vol.5) also analyzed that villagers' share in total expenses to implement Saemaul Undong increased from 66.4% in 1971, 57.9% in 1975 to 71.6% in 1977 and 77.5% in 1978.

Table 5: Reclassification of the Villages

Unit: Village (%)

Year	Total	Underdeveloped Village	Developing Village	Developed Village
1972	34,665 (100)	18,415 (53)	13,943 (40)	2,307 (7)
1973	34,665 (100)	10,656 (31)	19,769 (57)	4,246 (12)
1974	34,665 (100)	6,165 (18)	21,500 (62)	7,000 (20)
1975	35,031 (100)	4,046 (11)	20,936 (60)	10,049 (29)
1976	35,031 (100)	302 (1)	19,049 (54)	15,680 (45)
1977	35,031 (100)	-	11,709 (33)	23,322 (67)
1978	34,815 (100)	-	6,114 (18)	28,701 (82)

Source:E(Eom, April,2011)

According to the table 5, in 1972, 2,307 villages (7%) of 34,665 villages in the country belonged to the category of developed village, 13,943 villages (40%) were developing villages, and 18,415 villages (53%) were underdeveloped. However, in 1979, the underdeveloped villages no longer existed, the developing ones comprised 3%, and the developed stood at 97%. This suggested that the general living standards and the level of agricultural infrastructure had been enhanced during the Saemaul Undong period.

Korean government had implemented the industrialization policy around big cities from the early of 1960s. As the industrialization policy went on, the economic disparity between urban areas and rural villages got enlarged. The average annual income per one urban household increased 14.6% a year, whereas that of a rural household 3.5% a year. But by implementing Saemaul Undong for 4 years, annual income per a farm household (\674,000) got ahead of that of a urban household (\644,000) in 1974 (SO, 2009.12, Vol.5).

Only 20% of all rural household were provided with electricity in 1970, but nearly 98% in 1977. Village roads about 85,851km were constructed or repaired during 1971-1978 by Saemaul Undong. This corresponds to 2,601m per one village. About 65,000 bridges were constructed newly over the nation by Saemaul Undong during 1971-1975. Land owners donated their land estimated about 5,100m² for constructing village road by Saemaul Undong (SO, 2009.12, Vol.5).

Saemaul Undong had supported the sustainable industrialization in Korea by getting rid of the undesired or ill effects that grew from industrialization policy (SO, Jin Kwang, 2000). 320,000 projects were implemented in Korea under the name of Saemaul Undong in 1972, but 2,600,000 projects in 1978. The annual income per a farm household increased from \$824 in 1970 to \$2,961 in 1977. Like this, the success of Saemaul Undong can be identified in the fields of enlightenment of rural society, improvement of living environment and economic development of agrarian society (SO, Jin Kwang, 2008).

3.6 The Role of Government in Saemaul Undong

Saemaul Undong was developed from the political will of top leader to prosper the country. Credit should be given to the President Park Chung-Hee for his vision and effort for the development of Korean community. Under his strong leadership, both national government and local government contributed throughout the Saemaul Undong process until the fruitful results were appeared.

In the first step, the top leader of national government clearly recognized the current situation of rural community and accepted it is undesirable and needed to be developed. As a result, the president Park Chung-Hee instructed at a national conference of governors and ministers to find the ways to promote rural sector of the country based on cooperation among farmers, community leaders and government.

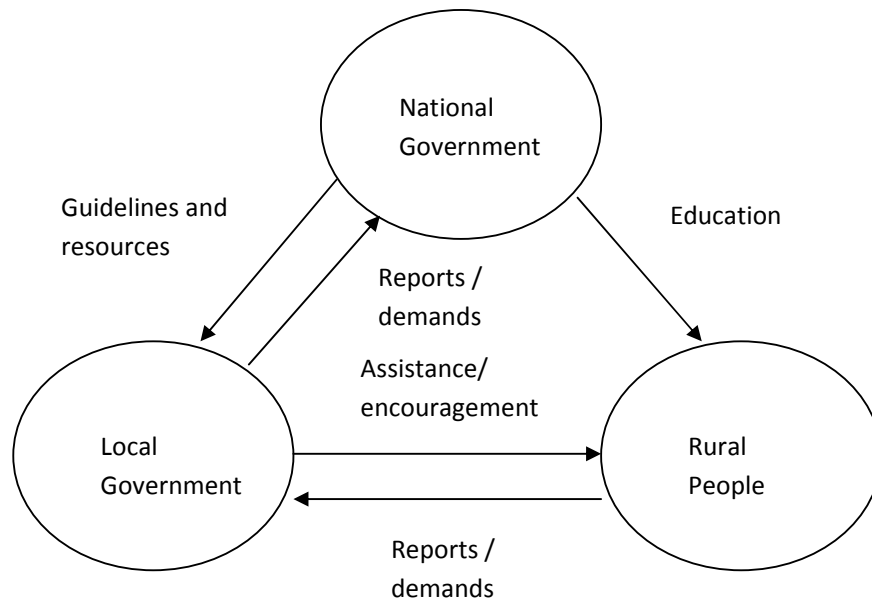
The national government prepared an experiment project namely “Ten Projects for Constructing Better Villages” as a pilot program. All responsible government officials were received special guidelines and a short training course on how to launch the projects. The pilot program was very impressively evaluated by the national government. To recognize the achievement, government provided cements to each of

all villages to use in the construction of village infrastructure. The distribution of 355 packs of cement was provided to each of the 34,665 rural communities free of charge to be used for the welfare of the entire community (Eom, April,2011).

The government provided \$ 8.5 million and the projects completed were worth \$ 25 million (Choe, Nov- 2005). The government offered incentive to the villages to initiate for their own development and provided training programs to the community leaders to oversee the development efforts of community and to motivate and coordinate the efforts of various constituencies at the village level. Based on the national survey conducted in 1972, all communities in the country were classified into three categories on the basis of their current level of development – underdeveloped, developing and developed communities. After that incentive and attention were given to the villages for advancing to a higher level of development.

The government established a coordinating committee for overseeing the progress of the Saemaul Undong including members from various sectors at the national, regional and county levels. The local governments were also involved in conducting the Saemaul Undong projects. Public delivery system was established for the implementation of Saemaul Undong to its control of local resources. Each government official was assigned responsibility for the effective implementation of the project in the particular region. To increase the efficiency of the project, officials of local government frequently met with community leaders to monitor progress, to identify problems, to coordinate with various agencies, to deliver required services and to encourage people involved in the project.

Figure 2: Structure of Interaction among National Government, Local Government and Village People in the Saemaul Undong Project



Source: (Choe, Nov- 2005)

The village Development Committee (VDC) was formed by the government to coordinate and make important decisions at the community level. The Saemaul Undong leaders were trained by the government chaired the committee. The committee selected suitable projects for the village and coordinates the implementing effort, stores and manages resources allotted by the government.

Therefore, Saemaul Undong was the result of strong will and leadership by the top, high level of involvement and cooperation by the officials and people concerned and consciously coordinated effort of the various government agencies. It was neither the showcase of the government nor the one that conducting ad-hoc needed basis.

3.7 Factors Contributing to the Success of Saemaul Undong

The Korean case of Saemaul Undong has shown a successful example of transformation poor rural economy into prosperous one through the self help approach in which motivated farmers involve for the development of rural community. But there are some factors that underpin the success of Saemaul Undong.

A. Land Reform in Korea

The program of land reform in Korea was carried out in the period from 1949 to 1952. Comprehensive land reform was an early policy to crises and opportunities. Land was redistributed more for political reason in order to satisfy landless farmers the impact was profound to the rural development process (Reed, September 30, 2010). Under the amend Land Reform Act which was passed in 1949 and implemented in 1950, landlords turned over lands to the family at the low prices to the families that were actually cultivating the land which caused the number of landowners in the rural communities increased from 30% to more than 90% (Pak, Nov., 1956). As a result, the tenant farm household was reduced to 1.8% in 1963, which was 50.2% in 1945. Most farmers became self-owned farmers. Wholly self-owned farm house-holds were increased from 14.2% in 1945 to 83.0% in 1963 (Kim, 2008). South Korea is one of the few countries in the world that has experienced a comprehensive, radical and peaceful land reform.

B Agricultural Marketing

The government agencies and private expertise exerted their best efforts to create new species of rice to maximize the quantity of harvested grains. Rice prices were largely subsidized. Government adjusted the terms of trade to favor the agricultural sector by increasing the government purchase price of rice and protecting the agricultural sector from cheaper import (Reed, September 30, 2010). The prices at which government purchase rice and barley were steadily increased starting from 1968 and within a few years stood well above both international and domestic prices (Moore,1984-1985). As a result, the main products of Korea – rice and barley – reached sufficiency by 1975 (Choe, Nov- 2005).

“To alter the terms of trade, the government decided to increase farm prices for grains and to provide farmers with fertilizers at low cost.....Between 1968 and 1973, the ratio of prices received to those paid by farmers increased by over 20% and brought about a gradual improvement in the relative position of farmers” (Ho, July 1979).

The government intervened to adjust terms of trade to favor the agricultural sector by increasing the government purchase price of rice

and protecting the agricultural sector from cheaper imports (Reed, September 30, 2010).

C. Incentive Scheme

Incentive scheme played an important role in Saemaul Undong. The scheme played at both levels – individual and village. Villages were classified according to the status of development as prescribed by central authority and undeveloped villages received no support until they had instituted a self-help program and cooperation to accumulate viable amounts of common funds to executed development projects. As the undeveloped villages advanced to developing status, the central authorities funneled resources to the local governments for distribution them mostly in the form of cement and steel rods to be able to use in further progress. When these villages reached to a higher level of growth, government subsidies were reduced and eventually cut off when the villages became self-sustaining. At the individual level, outstanding Saemaul leaders were given an Order of Merit which was bestowed upon them by the president or by another leading official. The Saemaul leaders were given priority when they applied for loans for their farming, allowed to discounted fares when they traveled on official business, and their children were given special consideration when they sought educational scholarship and they are favored when they tried to secure government jobs (John E. Turner, Vicki L. Heslis, Dong Suh Bark. Hoon Yu, March 30, 1993).

D. Leadership

The role of government and visionary leadership played an active role in the success of the model. President Park, who was passionate to develop rural areas of the country presided by himself over a monthly cabinet meeting held only for the report, discussion and relevant to the Movement. President, prime Minister and most ministers used to visit the rural communities or project sites without notice in advance. Several success makers to the movement were awarded with the medals and prizes by the president himself.

“One summer day in 1971, after a heavy flooding, the late president Park Chung Hee visited a rural village, which was damaged by heavy flooding. He found that the village road was repaired and the bridge was rebuilt. He asked who helped this village to recover the damages. He surprised, however, by hearing that the people

recovered the damages by themselves. On the way back to the presidential office, he thought why other village people do not recover the damage of flooding by themselves as this village, but relies on government support. He continued to think that if other villages do the same way, rural villages in Korea must be developed in a relatively short period. Government could not provide all necessary finances and technical assistance for rural community to improve infrastructure. He had a strong belief that the self-help and cooperation among community people are very important for community development, and government could support only when the community people will do something for themselves. He summoned provincial governors and introduced his idea based on his observation and suggested them to find this kind of cases in every province and to support the community when they would like to do something to develop their community. He also suggested that this kind of community development program must be expanded and call this as a Saemaul Undong, a new village movement.

Based on his observation, he found some principles to launch Saemaul Undong. First, community people need some motivation. Because they are so poor, most of them have no hope for the future. Therefore, the government should provide something to motivate people to participate to develop their community. Second, village leaders are very important since the leader could motivate people to lead to do something, and initiate development project. He thought that leadership development is so important for each community. Therefore, he established Saemaul Undong Training Center. Third, the successful cases should be expanded to other areas. Therefore, the successful village leaders should be facilitators or change agent for developing rural villages. Successful Saemaul Undong leaders were invited as lecturers to present his experiences. The community leaders learn from community” (Ki Whan Chung, Rural Development Policy of Korea, n.d. p.14-15).

Saemaul Undong was originated from the idea of President Park-Chung-Hee. He initiated and ensured it into effect and transformed the fortune of many Korean people up to the future generation.

E. Cross institutional involvement

One of the factors that contribute the success of Saemaul Undong was integration of efforts and genuine cooperation among all level of government institutions. Through integration plans made at the president level were well communicated stage by stage down to the group level in the village. National government, local government and rural people are well cooperated and structure of interaction among them is very strong in the process of rural community development. The Saemaul Undong was

conducted so called integrated approach with the combination of top-down and bottom-up approach (Choe, Nov- 2005).

F. Community leadership

President Park recognized the role of community hero to be able to successful implementation of the Saemaul Undong (John E. Turner, Vicki L. Heslis, Dong Suh Bark. Hoon Yu, March 30, 1993). Korea has a strong custom of selecting village leaders through informal process who are skill in resolving disputes and negotiating with higher authorities.

“Korean villages had always selected their own rijang (village chief) through informal process, but tradition usually dictated that leadership go to an elder of the dominant clan even after land reform. Saemaul Undong did not challenge this traditional practice rather it developed new cohort of younger and develop oriented leaders who served as change agents in their villages.” (Reed, September 30, 2010)

The authorities specified the new leaders based on the personal, social, educational and performance criteria. They must be respected and trusted by the people since they are chosen by the villagers through election or at their request. The Saemaul Undong leaders were enrolled in a special program of ideological, practical and leadership training at the national Saemaul Undong Leadership Training Centre and then they became focal points of authorizes for introducing government initiatives at the village level. One of the most important tasks of the Saemaul leader and village development committee was to agree on rural development projects with the villagers that were really needed for their village. The role of women in the village had also been enlarged to participate and support in village development activities.

G. Spiritual development

Korean people have the tradition of community spirit in which people living in the community are ready and willing to help each other's affairs and for the common good. One of the aspects of Saemaul Undong was energizing villagers with “we can do” philosophy and self help approach. Each community was responsible to develop their own village by the accumulation of own fund and need to show own initiatives after that funding from high authorities was followed for further development. In this

way, villagers acknowledge themselves successful outcomes of the development in which they take part (Lee, 2007).

“Another social factor that prompted the implementation of Saemaul Undong was the need for new mindsets and attitudes among the general public. The lives of most Koreans in the 1960s were dictated by irrationality, low productivity, and disorder. Few people prepared themselves for the future, out of pessimism or uncertainty regarding the future. Many were accustomed to living in despair, frustration and idleness. It was only natural to try to awaken the general public to face its unhealthy attitudes and lifestyles, and help people develop mindsets and attitudes that could contribute to the building of a healthy, strong, and stable society. Such a revolution in attitudes could not be achieved without dedication and effort from each and every citizen. Thus Saemaul Undong was born as a nationwide drive, responding to the need for a revolutionary change in citizens’ attitudes and mindsets. This very need, an essential factor in the campaign’s implementation, became Saemaul Undong’s basic goal as well” (National Council of Saemaul Undong Movement in Korea p. 10-11).

The movement was success in that it changed the spirit of rural people from dependence to self-reliance, from laziness to diligence and from individual to cooperation as a group (Choe, Nov- 2005).

H. Infrastructure development

The Saemaul Undong created environment that conducive to rural development through the improvement of rural infrastructure such as replacement of straw thatch roof of the houses with tile ones, enlargement of village roads and repair of village wells, improvement of walls and fences, expansion of irrigation cannels, building new bridges and repairing old ones, improvement of sewages and construction of community centers.

“One of the formidable impediments to rural development in Korea was the lack of infrastructure. Keenly aware of this, the government allotted in the first year of Saemaul Undong, about 335 bags of cement to each of over 35,000 villages. The cement was given on the condition that it would be used exclusively for communal village projects to improve living conditions, such as broadening entry roads leading to villages, constructing bridges and sewage systems, and general renovation projects”. (National Council of Saemaul Undong Movement in Korea)

The cooperative was taken to implement these projects through cements and steel rods were supplied by the government, lands were donated by wealthy household in the villages and labors are contributed by the villagers (Lee, 2007).

I. Stage by stage approach with long-term orientation

The Saemaul Undong was not a one-off and ad-hoc project. It was a well-design and long-term development project with the real commitment for rural development from the top in every stage. With the passage of time, Saemaul Undong has gone through different stages emphasizing different developmental criteria. The rural development program was introduced into 12 pilot villages in 1958, and the number increased into 2,137 villages in 138 countries in 1962. Government designated community development (CD) workers to each village to help the villagers. Village development committee (VDC) was organized under the CD program, and VDC executed CD projects such as village infrastructure and agricultural development, home management technologies, and other economic activities for income increase. Once the projects were identified, those projects were implemented by their own resources. The initial stage of development was largely self help approach that was designed to improve the living conditions of individual households through improvement of housing condition, sanitation and wells. In that stage, government supplied necessary materials, guidance and encouragement. The second stage focused on the development of economic infrastructure which included the building of feeder roads, bridges, irrigation and drainage systems, community places, strengthening of embankment and the development of rural electrification. The third stage was concentrated to increased incomes of rural family through increased food production, group farming, breeding and marketing and establishing small scales industries in the villages. The villages were classified according to their level of development based on established criteria to be able to support according to their status. These are undeveloped, developing and developed. Supports from the authorities vary with the level of villages' development status. Each village was supposed to be evaluated annually for reclassification. The objective was to raise the villages to a self-sustaining to be able to carry out their development without further reliance on government funding. In 1988, the classification was added the welfare stage at which village themselves able to encourage to the improvement of education, public health

and cultural facilities and programs (John E. Turner, Vicki L. Heslis, Dong Suh Bark. Hoon Yu, March 30, 1993).

Table 6: Stages of Saemaul Undong

Stage	Characteristics	Period
Stage 1	Foundation and Groundwork	1970 ~ 1973
Stage 2	Proliferation	1974 ~ 1976
Stage 3	Energetic Implementation	1977 ~ 1979
Stage 4	Overhaul	1980 ~ 1989
Stage 5	Autonomous Growth	1990 ~ 1998

Source: National Council of Saemul Undong Movement in Korea

Without exception, Korea experienced arbitrary, coercive and exploitative political control by authoritarian regime. It was facing the experiences of lack of political leadership, lack of modern citizenship, lack of trust in democracy, and unsound socio-political system. However, at the same time government's real concern to develop rural community development had been existed.

Table 7: Stage by Stage Development of Saemul Undong

Stage	Priority Projects	Characteristics	GNP per capita (in US dollar)
1. Foundation and Groundwork (1970~73)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ·Improving living environments: Expanding roads inside villages, constructing common laundry facilities, improving roofs, kitchens, and fences ·Increasing income: Expanding agricultural roads, improving farmland and seeds, division of labor 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ·Launching and igniting the campaign ·Government-initiated activities ·Top priority on improving living environment 	257 in 1970 375 in 1973

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ·Attitude reform: Fostering diligence and frugality, and a cooperative atmosphere 		
2. Proliferation (1974~76)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ·Increasing income: Straightening rice field ridges, consolidating creeks , encouraging combined farming, operating common working places, identifying non-agricultural income sources ·Attitude reform: Attitude changes through Saemaul education and public relations activities ·improving living conditions: Improving housing and water supply systems, operating village centers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expanding program scope and functions ·Increasing income and changing attitudes ·Earning national understanding and consensus 	402 in 1974 765 in 1976
3. Energetic Implementation (1977~79)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ·Rural areas: Encouraging the construction of more modern housing, encouraging growth of special-purpose plants, running industrial facilities to combine agriculture and manufacturing ·Urban areas: Paving alleys, cleaning, establishing order ·Corporations and factories: Enhancing productivity, conserving materials, 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ·Larger units of implementation by developing linkages among villages in the same region ·Economies of scale ·Appearance of distinct unit characteristics 	966 in 1977 1,394 in 1979

	promoting sound labor-management relations		
4. Overhaul (1980~89)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ·Social atmosphere: Kindness, order, selflessness, cooperation ·Economic development: Combined farming, distribution improvement, credit union activities ·Environmental activities: Cleanliness, developing parks throughout the country, building better access roads 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reborn as a private sector-organization ·Enhancing the role division between government and private sectors ·Escape from inactivity and contraction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1,507 in 1980 4,934 in 1989
5. Autonomous Growth (1990~98)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ·Sound atmosphere: Developing traditional culture, emphasizing hard work, sound lifestyles, recovery of moral ethics ·Economic stability: Economic recovery, urban-rural direct trade, diligence and frugality ·Living environment: Cultivating better community environments, emphasizing autonomous living 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ·Reinforcing the basis of autonomy and self-reliance ·Meeting the need for liberalization and localization ·Efforts to overcome economic crisis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 5,503 in 1990 10,548 in 1996

Source: National Council of Saemul Undong Movement in Korea

The Saemaul Undong movement undeniably transformed the appearance of Korean villages. Several institutions including national government, local government, and village heads appointed by the villagers were united under the same goal of developing the life of rural people. Therefore, resources could be pooled and efforts towards rural development were not overlapped and fragmented. In short, Saemaul Undong has got achievement in transforming the rural senses. By the end of 1973, most villages around the country participated in Saemaul Undong. 3,047 rural villages were constructed. Most village roads were accessible by car, every village has installed electricity and telecommunication system installed almost every village. Most rural villages installed pipe water system, improved toilet, and launched income generation project. During the same period, total 5,258.3 billion won, which is equivalent to US\$ 7,203.2 million, was invested to the Saemaul Undong project. The government invested 51.0 percent to the total, while the people in the communities invested 49.0 percent. Accordingly, rural farm household income surpassed urban labor workers household income in 1978. By the end of 1982, Saemaul Undong in rural areas achieved remarkable results. During 1971-1982, 64,686 km of farm road was developed, 6,187 km of rural road was paved with concrete, and 82,596 small bridges were built by community people under Saemaul Undong. 39,231 community halls were built, 258,000 houses improved kitchens (Choe, Nov- 2005) The Saemaul Undong movement greatly contributed economic and social development of Korea.

Chapter IV

Rural Community Development in Myanmar

Myanmar had been one of the economically promising countries in Asia up to the early years of 1960s. Its economy was relatively better than those of neighboring countries at that time. However, just after 30 years it has been declared as one of the least developing countries in the world. Steinberg, as a leading Myanmar specialist, observed:

“If an allegedly prescient observer of the Asian scene attempted to predict in 1955 the economic and political future of several Asian states a generation hence, that predictor might well have chosen three countries for comparison. All seemed quite diverse, but Burma, Thailand, and South Korea had populations within about 10 percent of each other, and per capita GNPs ranging from \$50 to \$70, thus inviting parallel consideration.....

Political comparisons were less clear. Korea suffered from an authoritarian state in the guise of a democracy. Thailand was dominated by the military in fact, if not in law. Burma was operating a fragile parliamentary system that seemed more responsive to democratic forms than either of the other states. That observer with reasonable confidence would have pointed to Burma as the potential economic and political leader of the three. It was perhaps the only developing country (although that term came into prominence later) that was an exporter of food and fuel, having been the world’s largest exporter of rice before World War II, and a supplier of oil, especially to India. It had untapped, even unexplored, natural resources. It contained about 75 percent of the world’s teak reserves, and had vast other timber potential. Its population in relation to its land base was the most favorable of any continental Southeast Asian country. It contained a natural communications network through the Irrawaddy River (Kipling’s *Road to Mandalay*) and its tributaries. Literacy was high; the use of English was widespread, thus international communications were relatively easy. The *Economist*, years later, pointed out that Rangoon, along with Manila, in that period would have been considered the model urban areas of Asia’s future. The Burmese seemed to have absorbed a good bit of the British parliamentary experience of the colonial era with reasonably good results. (Steinberg, November 1997).

4.1 Brief Political and Economic Background of Myanmar

Myanmar is a country that located in Southeast Asia whose economy mainly depends upon agriculture. After fighting three wars in 1824, 1852 and 1885, it became a colonial of English for many years and had been treated as a state of India. As the result of a long period of struggling and making allied with Japanese in 1945 that in turn rapidly became enemy shortly afterward, the nation gained independence in 1948. At the turn of the nineteenth century, Myanmar had been the largest exporter of rice and teakwood in the world. It was also known for its good quality Jade and Ruby. Its economy had been performed well relative to most of the countries in Asia before independence. In term of annual average of per capita export from 1936 to 1939, it enjoyed nearly double relative to those of Indonesia and Thailand, three times higher than that of Vietnam, six times higher than India and 25 times higher than China (Khin Maung Kyi, Ronald Findlay, R.M. Sundrum, Mya Maung, Myo Nyunt, Zaw Oo, et al., 2000) Most of the benefits of the economic achievement at that time, however, were enjoyed by ruling English and Westerners since most of the lucrative economic activities were in their hand. Perhaps a portion of benefits went into Indians who were imported as land laborers but later they seized most of the productive lands in Myanmar as the collaterals of loan made to Myanmar farmers. Most of Myanmar people at that time were confined in the country's main economic engine of agricultural sector.

Coupled with the independence Myanmar faced nation-wide insurgencies that broke out from its multi-colors political beliefs and ethnic diversity. The army had won in fighting against these insurrections and got reputation in the protection of so-called "Rangoon Government". After defeating these insurgencies, the institutional framework of the country was quickly and dramatically altered soon after the independence due to the results of bitter experience in colonial period in which large businesses and productive lands were monopolized by the foreigners - English at the top, Chinese at the middle and Indian at the lower layer. Farmlands were nationalized and which were redistributed to actual cultivators with the ceiling of 10 acres per household. The State Agricultural Marketing Board (SAMB) was formed to monopolize rice trading and other major remaining export earnings trading activities

were handled through State Trading Board (STB). At the same time, government established certain basic industries on a state-owned basis encouraged import substitution industries. As a result, new manufacturing industries were emerged to support import substitution products. The political system adopted at that period was so-called parliament democracy; however, the economic policy had been done mainly with socialist ideology.

A turning point of the country's fortune was actually happened in 1958 which was start with the splitting of the ruling party at that time namely Anti-Fascist Peoples' Freedom League (AFPFL) into two parts. This situation led to political instability which was further compounded by the demand of the leaders of major ethnicity to take apart from the Union according to the rights provided in 1947 constitution. In order to maintain the worsening situation, U Nu, prime minister of the country, invited the army led by General Ne Win to temporarily take care of the country before the next election was due. Gaining experience in national administration with achieving some successes like relocation of the city slums of Rangoon (Yangon) into newly satellite areas during caretaker period (1958-1960) and having tastes in power led the Myanmar army to have confident in taking over national power through military coup in 1962 which led to the end of democracy in the country, just one year after military coup of General Park Chung-Hee in South Korea. In term of economic development during that period from 1948 to 1962, the average annual growth of GDP of 5.3 percent is said to be quite satisfactory although it was not meet to the period of prewar (1936-1939) level. It can be compared with the South Korea's average annual growth rate of GDP between 1953 and 1961 was only 4.0 percent (Thein, 2004). This fact shows there was not much different between the economic developments of these two countries before 1962.

As discussed in above, the gap between economic developments of these two countries has started from last five decades specifically from 1961 in South Korea and 1962 in Myanmar after the military coups in both countries. Perhaps General Ne Win followed suit of General Park Chung-Hee since his achievement of taken over national power might stimulate to his contemporary Ne Win to follow the suit. Both of them maintained their power for a long time (1979 for Park and 1988 for Ne Win).

Therefore, it can be concluded that the difference in quality of the leaders or at least their visions and commitment for economic wellbeing of the country that makes a real difference.

The military adopted “Burmese way to Socialism” as main political thrust of the country and in line with that wide spread nationalization process was initiated. Revolutionary Council was formed and later it transformed as Burma Socialist Program Party in 1972. All productive enterprises were fallen into government control except rice cultivation and small scale trading. Inward looking and close door economic system was adopted and the country’s authoritarian government sealed its citizens all the connection with outside world including media and trading activities. The economic performance was rapidly deteriorated during the period between 1962 and 1988. From 1962 to 1988, exports fell from about \$ 260 million to an average of \$ 217 for the last three years from 1985 to 1988 while external indebtedness rose from negligible levels to over \$ 4 billion at the end (Khin Maung Kyi, Ronald Findlay, R.M. Sundrum, Mya Maung, Myo Nyunt, Zaw Oo, et al., 2000). These results led to the all-round political unrests in 1988 and which were put to an end by a new military coup in 1988 as The State Law and Order Restoration Council (SLORC) and later changed its name as State Peace and Development Council (SPDC) in 1997. The new government officially adopted Market-oriented economic system and accordingly foreign investments were invited and private sector participation to the economy was encouraged. A progress made in some areas like infrastructure developments, foreign investment and trade and private sector participation in the economy despite there were some limitations such as wide income distribution gap between the top and bottom of population, dysfunctional financial systems and misallocation of public sector resources. After long period of holding power SPDC conducted state referendum for national constitution in May 2008 amidst in cyclone Nargis and based on the result of the referendum and according to promise given, a democratic election was held in 2010 September. As the result of the election, Union Solidarity and Development Party (USDP) wins majority of the votes and has taken over power in March 2011. A new democratic government period has been opening amidst skeptical from both internal and external communities.

4.2 Social Structure and Local Governance of Myanmar

The societies of mainland of Asia - Myanmar, Thailand, Laos, Cambodia and Yunnan province of China have shared the same characteristics of people. People are close to each other and willing to help others' affairs who are living in the same village community. People naturally have tendency to divide in-group (people within their community) and out-group (people not within their community). They treat very closely with the people of in-group members while they reserve and doubt to relate people of out-group members. Like Korea, collectivist culture is well existed in the community.

Moreover, all of the Asian cultures practice rituals of civility in superior-inferior relationships that glorify the dignity of the superior; in these cultures, dignity is the essence of power. Superior-subordinate relations, particularly the all important patron-client ties in Southeast Asia, have much to teach about the creation of social capital (Pye, Vol. 29, No. 4 (Spring, 1999)).

Home to more than 100 ethno-linguistic groups, Myanmar is said to be the country of ethnic diversity. The major ethnicities of Myanmar can be reviewed in the 1983 census, which was the last national wide population census, records 69% of the population as belonging to the majority Burman (Bama) group, 8.5% as Shan (including various sub-nationalities), 6.2% as Karen, 4.5% as Rakhine, 2.4% as Mon, 2.2% as Chin, 1.4% as Kachin, and 1% as Wa. Under the 2008 constitution, the country is demarcated administratively into seven predominantly ethnic nationality-populated states and seven Burma majority regions.

Theravada Buddhism is the dominant religion in Burma while other religions are given freedom. Buddhist monk in the village has informal power to rule the villages in the village and social affair. The political isolation of Burma has meant that its culture is less influenced by the outside world. Superior-inferior relationship is firmly existed in the culture and there is high power distant between superior and subordinate, father and son, teacher and students. Village head is normally appointed by higher authority concerned even though well respected senior people in the village have voice in community affair. Village heads have to obey the order and instruction coming from the higher authority at the township level. Villagers normally accept the

authority of the village head barely make a question. Villagers are naturally cooperated each other to conduct community work under the leadership of the village head. However, the village heads tend to more emphasize to implement the instruction of higher level government authority for the development works of the village than what is actually necessary in the village. Mostly, government authority appoints the person who tends to follow their will as the village head and he has to implement the government instruction at the village level. Myanmar is one of the countries that are the highest corruption rate in the world².

4.3 The Situation of Rural Community of Myanmar in the early 1960s

Myanmar economy is still predominantly based on agricultural sector. The sector contributes almost 50% of the country's GDP and employed 60% of labor forces (Myint, 2011). The majority of Myanmar's population lives in rural areas. Most of the country's poor are rural farmers and landless. An estimated 30% of households in rural areas are landless in Myanmar.

Evidence from rural surveys suggests that rural indebtedness is dramatically high and increasing (Harvard Kennedy School, 2009). Therefore, development of rural community inevitably associated with the development of agricultural sector. However, the situation of farmers is not encouraging in any period in the history.

In Myanmar, all lands are owned by the state. Historically, farmers have no ownership right on the land they have cultivated but cultivators have land holding right as long as they pay taxes and cultivated. Although farmers have no ownership rights, they have enjoyed the right to chose crops to grow, the right to sell and mortgage the land and the right of the inheritance. But most of these rights on land were discarded during the socialist era (1964-1988) except the right to till the land and the right of inheritance over the land (Soe, 2004). Under the socialist regime, agriculture became highly controlled and directed by the state often going into detail about choice of crop growing and methods of cultivation. According to Tenancy Law enacted in 1963, the right of tenancy was vested solely in the Agrarian Committees set up in all rural areas. It in turn allocated the land to farmers, the poorest given the first priority without

² Transparency International rates Myanmar as the second largest incident of corruption in the world after Somali.

regard to whether they had skills and resources to undertake cultivation. This land policy had created small scale, subsistence and family farming with small amount of land holding³. The government passed a Farmers Rights Protection Law that protect farmers from losing their lands to lenders but it also deterred to access to organize credit market ((Khin Maung Kyi, Ronald Findlay, R.M. Sundrum, Mya Maung, Myo Nyunt, Zaw Oo, et al., 2000). In agricultural marketing, the government introduced a system of official procurement of paddy and rice since the parliament democracy era (1948-1962) through SAMB. This system effectively discriminate domestic price of rice from international price and any difference between them was enjoyed by the government. This system was compounded in the socialist period with the compulsory delivery system under which farmers were required to sell part of their paddy output (set by the quota) to the state with the fixed price which was far below than the prevailing market price. To compensate to this, government supported agriculture inputs with subsided prices although it could fulfilled only one-fifth of farmers' requirements (Soe, 2004). In case of crop failures, the farmers had to buy paddy with the prevailing market prices and delivery to the state depot with the fixed price in order to protect their tilling right of land. The lack of incentives to produce more for agricultural products due to the problem as mentioned above, the agricultural outputs of Myanmar reduced year by year in term of both quality and quantity. Compulsory delivery system creates farmers' incentive for not to focus in quality improvement of their paddy since farmers were exempted from action (penalty was up to seizure of their land holding rights) if they fill quota quantity without need to regard of quality. Furthermore, the income received from sell of surplus crops were barely enough to support farmers' livelihood so that they cannot afford to reinvest in the land upgrading or technology improvement. Therefore Myanmar which was former champion of rice export in the world can export only up insignificant amount of rice representing less than 1 % of world's total rice export.

The government also banned internal transport of paddy from township to township without having special permission granted by the authority in order to protect illegal export of rice to neighboring countries. This system was continued by the SLORC/

³ Over 85 percent of total farm land holdings in 1971 and 1987/88 were household-based farming of less than 10 acres (Myat Thein, 2004:89)

SPDC government until 2002. The reform to promote farmers' lives in the rural areas came in the form of mass campaign "Green Revolution" in which government encouraged to boost rice yield per acre by using high yield variety seeds and chemical fertilizers. This created short-term spurt of growth in agricultural sector from the mid of 1970s to the early 1980s (Thein, 2004). The Summer Paddy program was instituted in 1992 by using water from dams which were largely constructed by the SLORC government. The first liberalization in agricultural sector was happened in 1987 by liberalizing domestic agricultural marketing and abandoning crop planning by the government (Koichi FUJITA, Ikuko OKAMOTO, June 2006). This was followed by liberalization of agricultural marketing up to exporting in 2003.

The SPDC government began to recognize the policy failures of this system by abolishing public procurement system and liberalizing agriculture trading in April 2003 including major agricultural products of rice, beans and pulse. However, rice exporting was banned for the sake of domestic self-sufficiency and food security in 2004. Rice export rights were resumed in large scale in 2009 to some large companies after weighting up domestic sufficiency year to year basis. Every successive government since independence regarded rice as the national crop since it represents the major portion of total consumption expenditure of the household. Per capita rice consumption is also much higher relative to close neighboring countries⁴. Therefore, the price of rice represents the major political threat to the government. This is an underlying reason for why the governments consider exporting rice only after domestic sufficiency is assured. From socialist period to 2002, the government subsidized 12 pyi of rice (two-third of a basket) to all civil servants monthly with free of charge and keeping the rice price low in the urban area. This created transfer of welfare from farmers to civil servants and urban dwellers for a long period of time.

The liberalization of agricultural marketing in 2002 contributed the expansion of cash crops like bean and pulses to the large extent. The emergence of India market was a key factor for this development and pulses from Myanmar came to about 40% of

⁴ Per capita rice consumption in Myanmar is 8.5 baskets (637.5 lbs) per year while 3.5 baskets (262.5 lbs) in Thai. (Myint, 2011)

India's total pulses imported by 2002. Pulses have made huge impact on the farm economy of Myanmar (Okamoto, 2009).

Apart from pulse, another factor which indirectly contributes rural economy beyond 1990s of Myanmar is migrated job-less workers from rural areas starting from 1990s first to Thailand and then up to Malaysia and Singapore. The opportunity of getting high income by working as migrant workers has attracted landless laborers in rural areas which represent 53 percent of total rural households⁵. In Thailand alone, the number of Myanmar immigrant working was estimated at between 1.5 million and two million in 2000 which is about 4 % of country's total population (Lubeigt, 2007). This number tend to increase double due to lack of job opportunity in the farms after cyclone Nargis and crop failures in 2010 due to irregular climate condition. This was evident in the finding of two paradoxes of Myanmar economy (Okamoto, 2009). The first paradox of them is income levels are higher in villages far from center than in villages that located in regions and the second paradox is farmers and villages that emphasized a paddy-based irrigated cropping system have lower incomes than that do not. Concerning with other major aspects of rural community developments like social, health, education and environmental, it should be given credit to U Ne Win's government for their effort in country wide campaign for eliminating illiterate population in 1970s, accidental maintenance of social relation in the villages' life and environmental condition due to long been adopting of close economy. The natural beauty of rural areas was almost untouched. This situation, however, was reversed in the regime of SLORC/SPDC government. Due to the economic liberalization, the villages' life is not noiseless. The environmental condition of villages has been rapidly deteriorating due to heavy exploitation of natural resources including mining and forest. The percent of forest area of the country is rapidly declining from 60% in 1988 to 47 % in 2008. The water in the rivers is increasing contaminated due to increased mining and waste disposal. Soils are not fertile like before due to over usages of chemical fertilizers and multiple cropping without upgrading land quality.

⁵ A total of 3.1 million rural households without land or 53 percent of total rural households in 1993 (Harvard Kennedy School, 2009)

In 2001, the Integrated Rural Development Plan was initiated to undertake the following major tasks (Zaw, 2007).

- Construction of roads between villages in rural areas to establish a link with urban areas;
- Make water available for people as well as for cultivation;
- Improve and upgrade school buildings and furniture to improve the standard of education, to improve the quality of teachers, and to encourage school-age children to attend school;
- Uplift rural health care system; and
- Bring about economic growth for the rural populace.

Though these policies seemly attract in the form, practically there is nothing more than for political dressing activities with minimal implementation and encouragement by the government. Therefore, there is no significant progress in the life of rural people and the poverty increased among the people in the rural community.

In the regime of present government, the rural areas regain attention of the national leaders. After addressing ten rural development strategies by The President U Thein Sein in the national level workshop for rural development and poverty alleviation which was held in Naypyidaw on 20 May 2011, several working papers were followed to discuss the idea on how to define, reduce poverty in the country and finally how to develop the rural economy and reduce poverty⁶.

4.4 Rural Community Development of Myanmar after 1960s: Comparison with Saemaul Undong

Myanmar has been implementing several reforms after 1960s aimed at to improve the situation of rural people. However, most of the reforms were short-life; segments oriented and have a dysfunctional impact on the life of rural people.

The first reform was started on the early 1970s through the government led movement of initiation on cultivation high-yield variety paddy throughout the nation. This only

⁶ Discussing Papers of Dr, U Myint (Chief Economic Advisor to the President), U Set Aung (Member of Economic Advisor to the President) and of several other officials of the Ministry concerned

focus on the improvement of yield on paddy thereby increased farmers' income which will contribute to development of living standard in the village rather than other aspects of rural development like infrastructure, health, education and non-farm industries. Traditionally, Myanmar farmers used to cultivate traditional variety which was taken more duration until harvest and low in yield but more tempered on weather effect once cultivated. Natural fertilizers were mainly used to increased yield. Farming methods were very primitive and mainly reliance on cattle for cultivating and human labor for harvesting. As a result, the yield on per acre basis was very low and huge wastes were created in harvesting. Agriculture research was solely undertaken by the government and the farmers were neither educated nor have capacity to do own research. Through the effort of the agriculture research department, the government encouraged farmers to grow high-yield variety paddy which required different seeds, farming methods and heavy use of chemical fertilizer through so called "mya sein yawng operation" which means green operation. The special high-yield variety was required shorter duration from growing to harvesting than traditional yield but not tempered to weather change like heavy rain. Township-wide special high-yield variety cultivation programmes were launched. Individual farmers as well as township that could yield more per acre were awarded. In other word, the government started to emphasize vertical extension in agriculture (yield per acre basis) rather than horizontal extension (increased farm land) that was heavily used under British' rule. The yield per acre were significantly increased but this could not much contribute to improve rural community development without land reform and changing agriculture marketing system that make farmers incentive to put their effort more on farming and without associated with other development effort like improvement of infrastructure, social, education and health for the rural people.

The second reform on agriculture production was done in early 1990s during the SLORC regime. The SLORC government heavily invested on agriculture infrastructure through the construction of dams and reservoirs to distribute water to farm lands that solely reliance on rain for growing. By distribution water from dams during dry season, government encouraged "multiple crop system". That is harvesting more than one crop in during the year. This system was well working in the areas where water from dams is assessable but not for other areas. Furthermore, water

distributions to farmland are not reliable sometime more than sufficient and sometime less than sufficient for cultivation. Sometime water is not flowing in the right time before cultivating due to lack of cooperation between staff who take care for water distribution and farmers who want water. Significant amount of water has been absorbed in the soil throughout the way to the farms since water distribution drainages are not concrete ones. Only farmlands that closely located to the dams are assured for water therefore, the remaining farmers do not dare to invest in multiple crop farming without the assurance of water flow from the dams.

In education, government launched a program so called “three Ah”. In this system of teaching, a person can able to read and write most of the daily used phrases by learning a few core words in Myanmar language. This program was intended to eliminate or reduce illiteracy rate in the rural areas during later part of 1960s and early 1970s. Many university students and volunteers were take part in this program during their summer vacation. They visited to the rural villages, stayed there for one or two months, gather illiterate people (most of them are older people), teach them with “three Ah” system. In this way, they can able to read and write the language during the short period of time. This system helped a lot to increase and maintain literacy rate in the country despite the country is said to be poor.

In the other areas of rural development in which government contributed are arranging to increase accessible for waters in the areas where water is scare during the dry seasons. Government launched the programme by two ways. The first one is that used water from the rivers by means of heavy engines and pumps and distribute through pipeline to the areas where pipelines can be accessible. The second is to construct tube-well by using specialize machine that can dig up to many feet in the ground to get water. The government also collaborated with other INGOs and donor institutions to implement that program.

The government also contributed to improve health of rural people by initiating various types of health and nutrition programmes for the village people collaborating with NGOs, INGOs and donor agencies. The projects were started from early 1990s until now and achieving some successful results and undeniable contributing to

improve livelihood of people in the rural areas. Some of these are elimination of leprosy project, polio project, and Malaria and HIV projects.

Although it is clearly that Government attempt to improve rural community development in various ways, the effort achieved only limited success and gave short-term results due to lack of integrated and coordinated plans that put together infrastructure, social and economic development aspects like Saemaul Undong of Korea. Moreover, these development efforts are launched through piecemeal approach rather than a set of well coordinated fashion. The following are comparative factors with Korea' Saemaul Undong that can explain in some extent for unsuccessful rural community development in Myanmar.

A. Land reform

In Myanmar, all lands are owned by the state. Historically, farmers have no ownership right on the land they are cultivating but cultivators have land holding right as long as they pay taxes and are cultivating. During AFPFL government regime, Tenancy Act (1948) and Nationalization of Farmlands Act (1953) were enacted. Under the socialist regime, the agriculture sector was highly controlled and directed about the choice of crop to grow and the method of cultivation. This land policy had created small scale, subsistence and family farming with small amount of land holding⁷. The government passed a Farmers Rights Protection Law (1963) that protects the land of farmers from the lenders but it also deterred the access of credit from the banks by using lands as collateral.

B. Agricultural Marketing

The State Agricultural Marketing Board (SAMB) was formed to monopolize rice trading since parliament democracy period. The government practiced a system of official procurement of paddy with the compulsory delivery system under which farmers were required to sell a part of their paddy output (set by the quota) to the state with the fixed price which was far below than the prevailing market price throughout the socialist period up to 2002. This system effectively discriminated domestic price

⁷ Over 85 percent of total farm land holdings in 1971 and 1987/88 were household-based farming of less than 10 acres (Myat Thein, 2004:89)

of rice from international price, and any difference between the two prices was enjoyed by the government⁸. Internal transportation of rice had been strictly prohibited to avoid illegal export to neighboring countries. The first liberalization in agricultural sector was happened in 1987 by liberalizing domestic agricultural marketing and abandoning crop planning by the government.

The first is the agricultural marketing liberalization since 1987 (followed by the official abandonment of the Burmese Socialism in 1988) and the second is the Summer Paddy Program since 1992/93. Under the first reform, the state sector reduced the amount of statutory government procurement and gave farmers more freedom to sell the surplus in private markets. Although rice export was still under the state monopoly, domestic paddy/rice marketing was deregulated, resulting in active participation by private traders. Under the deregulated system, the main purpose of paddy procurement is to supply rice to government employees, hospitals, and other social welfare institutions at subsidized price. Since the market prices were usually much higher than the procurement price, the reform in the late 1980s gave a substantial incentive to produce surplus rice (Ikuko Okamoto, Kyosuke Kurita, Takashi Kurosaki, and Koichi Fujita, October 2003)

From socialist period to 2002, the government subsidized 12 pyi of rice (two-third of a basket) to all civil servants monthly with free of charge and keeping the rice price low in the urban area. This created transfer of welfare from farmers to civil servants and urban dwellers for a long period of time. The government was very careful to the rice price and frequently intervened that they think rice price is too high.

The Myanmar government tended to intervene in the domestic rice market in three situations. One was when rice transactions were made with remote regions. In general, after the first liberalization, there were no longer any restrictions on the marketing of rice over a wide area of the country; however, transactions with some remote regions bordering neighboring countries were an exception. These regions Myanmar – the state, community and the environment were Shan, Chin and Rakhine States and Tanintharyi (Tennasserim) Division. For any rice transactions with these regions, permission from the local authorities was necessary. In some cases, the monthly quota for the volume of rice to be transacted was prescribed by the authorities. The ostensible rationale for this regulation was, of course, to keep the domestic rice price stable. With Myanmar's domestic rice price kept far below the international price, if sizeable amounts of rice were exported (even informally) to

⁸ This was referred to as a policy of agricultural exploitation (Fujita and Okamoto, 2006:3)

neighboring countries, upward pressure on the domestic rice price would inevitably follow. To prevent this, every effort was made to regulate strictly the volume of rice transacted with these remote regions. This regulation, however, made the people in these regions, which are rice-deficit areas; pay a high price in relative terms for the rice they consumed. The second situation was when the volume of procured rice fell below the government's target. There was an unwritten rule, even when the harvest was normal, that traders could not buy paddy or rice from farmers who had not met their procurement quotas for that year. When procurement was not progressing well in an area, however, the government often prohibited all private sales of paddy or rice in that area. In the rice-deficit remote regions discussed above, the government generally did not permit such sales during the procurement season. The third situation was when there was an abrupt rise in the rice price. The government was noticeably wary about depending on the private sector for the marketing of rice. Whenever the authorities judged that the rice price had gone above the level they could tolerate, orders were issued to start inspecting rice traders in various parts of the country, in rural and urban areas. As a result, compared with all other commodities, the rice market in Myanmar faces a much higher risk of sudden, unexpected intervention by the government (Okamoto, 2009).

The SPDC government abolished public procurement system and liberalizing agriculture trading in April 2003 including major agricultural products of rice, beans and pulse. However, rice exporting was banned for the sake of domestic self-sufficiency and food security in 2004. Rice export rights were resumed in large scale in 2009 by granting export permits to some large companies that specialized in paddy.

C. Incentive scheme

There were no incentive schemes for rural development throughout the period from villages since everything was dictated by the government throughout the period. Instead the disincentive had taken in place for agricultural products due to the marketing system as described above. Therefore Myanmar which was the former champion of rice export in the world can export less than 1 % of world's total rice export at present (Myint, 2011). In fact, there existed disincentive scheme⁹. In Myanmar, farmland belongs to the state and farmers are given cultivation rights only. Farmers do not have the official right to exchange, transfer, lease, inherit, or mortgage

⁹ The economic policy of Myanmar during the socialist period was essentially a policy of agricultural exploitation, with heavy emphasis on rice production (Fujita and Okamoto, 2006:3).

their land, although children of a farmer are usually given the right to cultivate their parents' land and unofficial transfers among nonrelatives are frequent. To maintain the cultivation rights for paddy fields, farmers are obliged to grow paddy crops and deliver the designated amount of paddy to the government procurement system, regardless of the profitability of paddy crops. It is true that more freedom is allowed in crop choices under the current system than under the Burmese Socialist period until 1988. Due to compulsory delivery system that specified according to farm lands permitted to each farm household, farmers were disincentive to produce more on quantity and quality of rice as well. The government purchase price was far below than prevailing market price. As long as the minimum quota of quantity was met, government rice depots rarely insisted the quantity of rice being supplied. Market incentives, which were introduced during the late 1980s, led to a substantial increase in agricultural production and farming income at the beginning. It was decline because of government intervention to ban export of rice for food security in the country.

D. Leadership

During socialist regime (1962-1988), the government had organized totally eight rounds of nationwide farmers' conferences to be able to present and discuss the difficulties and desires of farmers (Mya Han, 1993). These activities, however, were initially intended to explore the real difficulties and problems of farmers and let them to know the highest level leader but end up with disappointing results since partly due to the tradition of Myanmar people who are reluctant to publicly explore their view point especially to very top level authorities and partly due to implicitly discouragement by the authorities at the lower level that did not want to bother higher authorities with unpleasant information. During SLORC/SPDC regime in 2001, the Integrated Rural Development Plan was initiated to undertake the following five major tasks: 1. Construction of roads between villages in rural areas to establish a link with urban areas 2. Make water available for people as well as for cultivation 3. Improve and upgrade school buildings and furniture to improve the standard of education, to improve the quality of teachers, and to encourage school-age children to attend school 4. Uplift rural health care system and 5. Bring about economic growth

for the rural populace. But in practice, the effectiveness was weakening due to lack of integrated efforts among institutions from the top to the bottom and end up the activities like its predecessor. Although the successive leaders of government claimed agricultural sector industrialization, they could not turn into reality and as a result most of the agricultural lands and farming methods are still primitive ones and barely changed that used in colonial period.

E. Cross institutional involvement

Throughout the socialist period up to the SLORC/SPDC regime, majority of effort on the rural development activities have been done by the rural people themselves, by government institution, by the NGOs and INGOs especially after Nargis and international donor agencies like Japanese International Cooperation Agency (JICA) and Korea International Cooperation Agency (KOICA). With the lead of National Solidarity and Development Association ¹⁰with government support some villages in central part of Myanmar which are relatively better infrastructure are designated as model villages and provide active supports to those villages. However, each of the institution above mentioned has done these activities with their separate objectives, resources and scopes and no national wide initiative to cooperate them has been seen yet although some degree of integration of efforts may be taken place at the lower level.

F. Community Leadership

Although Myanmar rural people have a tradition of selecting informal leaders in their community, throughout the socialist period up to present, leaders at the village level are directly appointed the higher authorities and their selection criteria may be different from the expectation of the people in the villages. Buddhist monks in the village still informally influence the village's affair and in most of the villages, the monks guide and even actively participate to the improving social and infrastructure of the village.

¹⁰ This institution was formed with the intention of national solidarity and development and backed by the government. Most of the top level government ministers are the member of the institution. Later, in 2011, it was reorganized as a political party and become ruling party at present.

G. Spiritual development

Like Korean people, Myanmar has a culture of community spirit in which people in the same community are willing to help each other and cooperation for common good. But “we can do” philosophy and self help approach could not be generated due to the influence of authorities for a long period of time who want to behave people according to their dictate. Top down command and follow up style dominated in behavior and spirit of the people. In authoritarian regime, the natural tendency of various level of authorities is they more emphasize on administrative than development activities. Most of the development activities in the rural or urban areas are normally done through the lead of authorities. Self initiated development projects by people themselves or by the lead of an institution without the involvement of authorities concerned are viewed with criticism and normally not allowed. Therefore, the spirit of people is normally do- as-they-said or better-do-nothing.

H. Infrastructure development

In quantitative terms, the rural economic and social infrastructure of Myanmar like road, dams, bridges, communication, schools, hospitals have been increased particularly during SLORC/SPDC regime (Ministry of Information, Myanmar, 2007). Their relative term and cost effectiveness in term of real contribution to rural economy, however, are largely questionable. Moreover, these projects have been done as parts of the country’s overall development program and depend on the arbitrary of people at the top and therefore they are not integrated with rural community development projects of the particular regions.

I. Stage by stage approach with long-term orientation

Unlike Korea, the rural development efforts were done with ad-hoc needed basis without long-term orientation by the authorities. The development projects are decided by the few people at the top without consulting the people lived in these areas or systematically analysis their impact on the community. In both Socialist and SLORC regimes, the development projects were implemented through the agenda of the various ministries and each ministry has its own agenda of development with little coordination of integration, if any, with other ministries. The projects that required

heavy investments are listed by the Ministry concerned and the minister presented at the meeting for special projects implementation meeting which is chaired by the president of SLORC. Those getting the highest level person's attention were granted to implement. Normally, Ministry of Construction, Ministry of Transportation and Ministry of Agriculture and Dam get larger budget than Ministry of Education and Ministry of Health. The improvement had been done some extents but could not sustain for the long time and back to the origin. Therefore, even hundreds of attempts had been made, that the real situation not much different from the past.

Concerning health, education and environmental situation of the rural areas, credit should be given to U Ne Win's government for their effort in country-wide campaign for eliminating illiterate population in 1970s, accidental maintenance of social relation in the villages' life and environmental condition due to long been adopting of close economy. The natural beauty of rural areas was almost untouched. This situation, however, was reversed in the regime of SLORC/SPDC government. Due to the economic liberalization, the villages' life is not noiseless. The environmental condition of villages has been rapidly deteriorating due to heavy exploitation of natural resources including mine and forest. The percent of forest area of the country is rapidly declining from 60% in 1988 to 47 % in 2008. The water in the rivers now is largely contaminated due to increased mining and waste disposals. Soils are not fertile like before due to over use of chemical fertilizers and multiple cropping without upgrading land quality. In the regime of present government, the rural areas are again received attention by the national leaders. After addressing ten rural development strategies by The President U Thein Sein at the national level workshop for rural development and poverty alleviation which was held in Naypyidaw on 20 May 2011, several working papers came out to discuss the idea on how to define, reduce poverty in the country and how to develop the rural economy and reduce

poverty¹¹. These initiatives produced eight action programs to be implemented by respective ministries concerned¹².

¹¹ Discussing Papers by Dr, U Myint (Chief Economic Advisor to the President), U Set Aung (Member of Economic Advisor to the President) and of several other officials of the Ministry concerned

¹² Addressed by the President U Thein Sein on 20 June 2011 at the first meeting of Rural Development and Poverty Alleviation Central Committee in Naypyitaw (The New Light of Myanmar, Vol. 50, No. 259, 21 June 2011)

Chapter V

Present State of Rural Community Development in Myanmar: A Survey Report on Twenty Villages

As an attempt to present current state of rural community development in Myanmar, a small survey was conducted that covers 20 villages throughout Myanmar during 2011 May. In order to represent overall situation of whole country, the country is divided into two strata namely Upper and Lower Myanmar and they are in turn divided into four strata namely hilly and central area in upper Myanmar and delta and costal area in the Lower Myanmar. They will be named as Hill group (HG), Central group (CG), Delta group (DG) and Costal Group (SG). Five villages in each of four strata were randomly selected and collect data through questionnaires directed to the head of village. Normally the village head is appointed by higher authority at the township level. The four aspects of rural community development mainly investigated in the survey are economic well-being, social well-being, infrastructure, and environmental sustainability. Finally, the effort towards rural development has been examined. The findings of survey in each of the above area will be briefly presented and discussed here.

5.1 Rural Community Development of Villages in Delta Group

The factual data of villages covered in delta group (DG) is shown in the table 8. All the villages in the Delta region that include in the survey are cyclone nargis affected except Ka Naung in Kangyidount Township. The Htaung village in Daydye township achieves highest per capita income with 1.2 USD as well as highest per household income with 2.3 USD per day. This main activity of this village is offshore fishing. All other surveyed villages in the region are relying on agriculture sector as the main economic activity. The ownership of transportation vehicles of any kind (boat, car, motorbike, bicycle etc.) is about 30% on average of household in the villages. Most of their transportation vehicles are wooden boat without engine since the region is covered by many rivers and creeks. The villages that main economic activity based on agriculture generally earn lower per capital income. Electricity is not accessible in all

villages. There is no collective program to generate and distribute electricity in the villages. Some affordable households in the villages use generators to access to electricity for their own. About 2 to 7 percent of youth population in the villages is working at aboard and most of them go to Malaysia and Thailand.

In social-welling, literacy rate of all villages are more than 80%. It can said to be rather high. However, the villagers cannot access to safe water (tube water) for drinking. Infant mortality rate is rather high due to poor health knowledge and health care. The average life expectancy is ranged between 50 and 60 respectively.

In terms of infrastructure, all villages cannot access to electricity distributed by the government as already mentioned. Time taken to get to hospital is ranged from 1 hour to 3 hours depending on location of the village. The mode of transportation is mainly dependent on river and road. Normally inner village roads are good but the network from one village to another is not very good since rivers and creeks are the main routes of transport. Road can be accessible by motorbike only on dry season and waterway is accessible in all three seasons.

Concerning environmental aspect, there are no industries in the villages except Botoke village in Laputta Township which has three industries that use more than five horse powers for processing of agricultural products. There is low to average level of traffic in the village. Water pollution level is average and there is no shortage of water near the villages. However, all village heads report that the number of wildlife animals near the village is very low.

Regarding opinion of the village heads on infrastructure development, most of them agree that situation of the roads and houses are better while they answer no change in electricity accessibility. Almost all the houses in those villages are destroyed by the cyclone Nargis during May 2008 so they are just after being repaired by the aids of government, NGOs and rural people themselves. In economic development aspect, most of their answers are negative. In social aspect, they all agree that villagers' cooperation in social activities is better than before except health. Out of five village heads, three agree that number of young people go to abroad for working is increased after cyclone nargis. In environmental aspect, air, water, soil pollutions are so much at

the surveyed villages in the Delta group. However, the forest depletion, garbage level and reducing the percentage of wildlife animals become serious threats in these villages in the delta region. Government, NGOs, private people and villagers all are contributing to infrastructure development of the region while NGOs are major players in all remaining aspects.

Table 8: Factual Data of the Village in Delta Group (5 Villages)

Particular	Variables	Villages Name					Mean	Standard Deviation
		Laputta	Pyar Pon	Bokalay	Daydaye	Kangyid aunt		
		Botoke	KYEIT KA THA	Tamatakaw	Htaungtan	Ka Naung		
Economic Well-beings	Per capita income of villager	0.8 USD	0.6 USD	0.5 USD	1.2 USD	1 USD	0.820	0.286
	Per capital income of household	1.5 USD	1.2 USD	1.1 USD	2.3 USD	2 USD	1.620	0.517
	% of farm households	90%	80%	87%	25%	82%	0.663*	0.280
	No. of houses in good condition	5%	4%	5%	6%	7%	0.053*	0.011
	Ownership of transportation vehicles	40%	20%	25%	45%	20%	0.283*	0.119
	Ownership of TV at home/ household	20%	5%	20%	18%	16%	0.142*	0.065
	Ownership of phone/ household	.5%	.2%	.5%	.7%	0	0.003*	0.003
	Youth population working at abroad/country	7%	2%	5%	12%	2%	0.031*	0.024
Social Well-beings	Literacy rate	85%	82%	95%	85%	98%	0.888*	0.070
	% of people access to safe water	5%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.002*	0.024
	Infant mortality rate	5%	4%	5%	5%	4%	0.046*	0.005
	Average Life Expectancy	50	55	55	57	55	54.4	
Infrastructure	Access to electricity	10	0	0	5%	0	0.014*	4.993
	Time taken to hospital	1 hr	2 hr	2hr	3 hr	3hr	2.200	0.837
	Time taken to read newspaper or journal	2 days	1 day	2 days	1 day	2 days	1.600	0.548
	Road condition (good =1, average =2 Poor= 3)	3	3	2	2	2	2.400	0.548
	Forest Area within 10 miles(good =1, average=2 Poor= 3)	2	3	3	3	3	2.800	0.447
Environmental Sustainability	No. of industries with more than 5 H.P	3	0	2	0	0	1.000	1.414
	Level of traffic flow (low =1, average=2, high=3)	1	2	2	2	1	1.600	0.548
	Level of water pollution (low =1 average =2 high =3)	1	3	2	1	3	2.000	1.000
	Access to water near village (low =1, average=2, high =3)	3	3	2	3	2	2.600	0.548
	% of wild animal near villages (high =1, average =2, low =3)	3	3	3	3	3	3.000	0.000

**Table 9: Opinion on Effort towards Rural Development
(Interview with Village Head)For Delta Group (5 villages)**

Particular	Questions - What is the present situation of the village in following factors relative to last five year?	Responses Frequency		
		Better	No Change	Worse
Infrastructure Development	1.Situation of road/bridge	4		1
	2. Situation of House	2		3
	3.Availability of electricity		5	
	4.Education standard of youth	4	1	
	5.Situation of health of people	3	2	
Economic Development	1.Job opportunities for the village	2	1	2
	2. Income growth for people	2		3
	3. Growth of wealth		2	3
	4. Available of loan		3	2
	5.Collaborative program for income generation (Y/N)	(N,N,N,N,N)		
Social Development	1. People involvement in social activities	4		1
	2. People's health situation	2	3	
	3. Education level	3	2	
	4. People working at abroad	3	2	
	5. Education program in health	1	4	
Environmental Sustainability	1. Air pollution level		3	2
	2. Soil pollution level		1	4
	3. Water pollution level		2	3
	4. Water level in the river		4	1
	5. Forest depletion			5
	6. Garbage level in the village		2	3
	7. Situation of wildlife found			5

The Institution Involved in the Rural Development Effort (tick as relevant)

Activities	Government	Private	NGO	Political Party	Villagers
1.Infrastructure Development	2	1	2		3
2. Economic Development			5		3
3. Social Development			5		3
4. Environmental Sustainability	2		1		

Degree of Cooperation among these Institutions

Activities	Low	Moderate	High
1. Infrastructure Development	2	3	
2. Economic Development	4	1	
3. Social Development	1	4	
4. Environmental Sustainability	5		

Sources: Survey data

5.2 Rural Community Development of Villages in Central Group

The factual data of villages covered in Central group (CG) is shown in the table. All the villages in the Central region that include in the survey are fallen in so called dry zone of Myanmar. They normally receive little rainfall throughout the year. These villages are Kanzawl village located in Pwebwe Township, Mintekon village in Meikhtila Township, Nwetekon village in Zekon Township, Sapalpin village in Kyautpantawn Township and Thayarkon village in Myinchan Township. Out of them Nwetekon village achieves highest per capita income with 1.38 USD and highest per household income with 5 USD per day. This main activity of this village is farming which represent 65% of households in the villages. All other surveyed villages in the region are relying on agriculture sector as the main economic activity. They mainly grow various kinds of beans and pulses, onion and groundnut. The ownership of transportation vehicles of any kind (boat, car, motorbike, bicycle etc.) is ranging from 50% to 90% of households in these villages. Most of the transport vehicles are motorbike most are made in China. The average ownership of TV at home is 45.5%. Electricity is not accessible in all villages except Sapalpin in Kyautpantawn Township. Some households in the villages use batteries and generators to access to electricity. About 10 to 20 percent of youth population in the villages is working at aboard and most of them go to Malaysia and Thailand. Those who go to Singapore is relatively small number but they can send more money back to their family than those who going to other countries.

In social-welling, the average literacy rate of those villages is more 83.9%. The significant portion of villagers in three villages can access to safe water (tube water) for drinking. Infant mortality rate is about 1% in all villages except Thayargone in Myinchan Township which is about 4%. The average life expectancy is 60 for all villages in this region.

In terms of infrastructure, three villages namely Mintekon, Nwartekon and Sapalpin can access to electricity distributed by the government. Time taken to get to hospital is within 1 hour for all villages. The mode of transportation is mainly road by motorbikes and cars. Normally inner village roads as well as the road networks from one village to another are also good except in raining season. Roads can be accessible

by means of motorbikes and cars and they can be used in all three seasons. Road condition is normally good. They are mainly paved road. Time taken to read newspaper and journal is about 1 day lag in all villages. Forest cannot be seen within 10 miles all those villages.

Concerning environmental aspect, there are no industries in the three villages except Sapalpin and Thayargon village. Sapalpin has 4 industries that using more than 5 Horse powers. They are oil mills and a motor vehicle body repairing workshop. Level of traffic flow is low to average in all villages. Level of water pollution level is low in all villages except Nwetekon in Zekon Township and access to water near the village is low in two villages. However, all village heads report that the number of wildlife animals near the village is very low and almost lacking.

Regarding opinion of the village heads on infrastructure development, most of them agree that situation of the roads and houses are better while they answer no change in electricity accessibility as in the case of villages in delta region. Concerning with education standard of the youth and health of general population the heads of three villages are answer as better while other two villages said no change. In economic development aspect, most of their answers are positive except availability of the loan from banks and other institutions. In social aspect, they all agree that villagers' cooperation in social activities is answer as better in two villages while others answer as no change. Education level of the youth and people working in abroad are answer as increase in four villages. In environmental aspect, air, and soil pollutions are so much increased in all villages while water pollution and water level in the river are reported as no change by at the surveyed villages in the Central group. However, the forest depletion, garbage level and the number of wildlife animals found are poor in all villages in the central region.

In terms of the developmental efforts, villagers themselves play a significant role in their community development followed by NGOs and government. They are mainly involved in infrastructure development like tube water drilling, road construction but their involvement is low in environmental protection. However, the level of cooperation among them is very low except infrastructure and social development aspects in which they are moderately coordinating one another.

Table 10: Factual Data of the Village in Central Group (5 Villages)

Particular	Variables	Township/Villages Name					Mean	Stand ard Deviat ion
		Pwe bwe	MEIK HTILA	ZeKon	Kyaut pantawn	Myin chan		
		Kan Sawl	MINTE KON	Nwar tekon	Sapal pin	Thar yargon		
Economic Well-beings	Per capita income of villager	1.2 USD	1.5 USD	1.8 USD	1.6 USD	1.2 USD	1.460	0.261
	Per capital income of household	4 USD	5 USD	5 USD	5 USD	4 USD	4.600	0.548
	% of farm households	80%	75%	65%	60%	80%	0.715*	0.091
	No. of houses in good condition	20%	30%	50%	60%	25%	0.339*	0.175
	Ownership of transportation vehicles	60%	50%	90%	90%	50%	0.656*	0.207
	Ownership of TV at home	40%	20%	90%	90%	30%	0.455*	0.349
	Ownership of phone	1%	2%	2%	5%	1%	0.018*	0.017
Youth population working at abroad/country	20%	15%	10%	20%	20%	0.164*	0.045	
Social Well- beings	Literacy rate	90%	80%	80%	90%	80%	0.839*	0.055
	% of people access to safe water	10%	50%	50%	60%	10%	0.272*	0.260
	Infant mortality rate	1%	1%	1%	1%	4%	0.013*	0.014
	Average Life Expectancy	60	62	60	63	55	60	
Infrastructure	Access to electricity	10%	20%	15%	50%	5%	0.150*	0.186
	Time taken to hospital	1/2 hr	1 hr	1/2hr	1/2hr	1 hr	0.700	0.274
	Time taken to read newspaper or journal	1 day	1 day	1 day	1 day	1 day	1.000	0.000
	Road condition (good =1, average =2 Poor= 3)	2	1	1	1	1	1.200	0.447
	Forest Area within 10 miles(good =1, average=2 Poor= 3)	3	3	3	3	3	3.000	0.000
Environmental Sustainability	No. of industries with more than 5 H.P	0	0	0	4	1	1.000	1.732
	Level of traffic flow (low =1, average=2, high=3)	2	1	2	2	1	1.600	0.548
	Level of water pollution (low =1 average =2 high =3)	1	1	2	1	1	1.200	0.447
	Access to water near village (low =1, average=2, high =3)	1	1	2	2	3	1.800	0.837
	% of wild animal near villages (high =1, average =2, low =3)	3	3	3	3	3	3.000	0.000

* Represents geometric mean and other represent arithmetic mean

Source: Survey data

**Table 11: Opinion on Effort towards Rural Development
(Interview with Village Head)For Central Group (5 villages)**

Particular	Questions - What is the present situation of the village in following factors relative to last five year?	Reponses Response		
		Better	No Change	Worse
Infrastructure Development	1.Situation of road/bridge	4	1	
	2. Situation of House	3	2	
	3.Availability of electricity	1	4	
	4.Education standard of youth	3	2	
	5.Situation of health of people	3	2	
Economic Development	1.Job opportunities for the village	4	1	
	2. Income growth for people	4	1	
	3. Growth of wealth	4	1	
	4. Available of loan	2	3	
	5.Collaborative program for income generation (Y/N)	(N,N,N,N,N)		
Social Development	1. People involvement in social activities	2	3	
	2. People's health situation	3	2	
	3. Education level	4	1	
	4. People working at abroad	4	1	
	5. Education program in health	3	2	
Environmental Sustainability	1. Air pollution level	3	2	
	2. Soil pollution level	3	2	
	3. Water pollution level		5	
	4. Water level in the river		5	
	5. Forest depletion	5		
	6. Garbage level in the village	5		
	7. Situation of wildlife found			5

The Institution Involved in the Rural Development Effort (tick as relevant)

Activities	Govern ment	Private	NGO	Political Party	Villagers
1. Infrastructure Development	1		2		4
2. Economic Development					4
3. Social Development			3		3
4. Environmental Sustainability	1				1

Degree of Cooperation among these Institutions

Activities	Low	Moderate	High
1. Infrastructure Development	1	4	
2. Economic Development	5		
3. Social Development	2	3	
4. Environmental Sustainability	3	2	

Source: Survey data

5.3 Rural Community Development of Villages in Coastal Group

The factual data of villages covered in Coastal group (SG) is shown in the table. All the villages in the Coastal region included in the survey are located in Taninlari Division, Mon state and Rakhine State. Since Myanmar possesses a long coastal line that stretch from Rakhine State to Taninlari Division. The surveyed villages chosen in this group are Lamine village located in Ye Township, Tikyo village in Gwa Township, Koungbaung village in Yanbye Township, Pearl village in Thonggwa Township and Kyonpadat village in Mudon Township. Out of them Kyonpadat village achieves highest per capita income with 5 USD and highest per household income with 8 USD per day. In this village, farm household represents only 20% of households in the village and majority of youth population which is about 80% are working in the neighboring country – Thailand. All other surveyed villages in the region are relatively less relying on agriculture sector since the average farm households in the villages of this region is only 42.5% which is significantly less than all other regions. They mainly grow rubber and paddy. The ownership of transportation vehicles of any kind (boat, car, motorbike, bicycle etc.) is ranging from 50% to 95% of households in these villages. Most of the transport vehicles are motorbikes. The average ownership of TV at home is 60.2% relatively better than other regions. Electricity is accessible in two villages in this group namely Lamine and Kyonpadat while the remaining villages use batteries and generators as main source of power. About 80 percent of youth population in two villages (Lamine and Kyonpadat) is working at aboard and most of them go to Thailand. The youth population working at abroad is less than 10 percent in other villages in this group.

In social-welling, the average literacy rate of those villages is more 93.7% which is the highest among all regions. The significant portion of villagers in three villages can access to safe water (tube water) for drinking which is also more than the villages involved in other regions (43.8%). Infant mortality rate is about 1.3 % on average in all villages. The average life expectancy is 61 years for all villages in this region which is also better than other regions.

In terms of infrastructure, three villages cannot access to electricity distributed by the government. Only Kyonpadat village in Mudon Township can assess electricity. In

Lamine village in Ye township although it cannot access to the power distributed by the government, the monetary in the village is taking care of electricity distribution including street lighting by using generator. Time taken to get to hospital is 1 hour on average for all villages in the group. The mode of transportation is mainly road by motorbikes and cars as in the case of central group. Road can be accessible with motorbikes and cars and can be used in all three seasons. Road condition is normally good. They are mainly paved road. Time taken to read newspaper and journal is about 1 to 2 days lag in all villages. Forest areas can be seen within 10 miles all those villages but most are rubber plantation growing in Ye and Mudon Township, mangrove in Thongwa and Gwa townships. Natural forest can be seen only in Yanbye Township in Rakhin state within ten miles of the village.

Concerning environmental aspect, there are industries that using more than 5 Horse powers is found in Pearl village in Thongwa Township for paddy processing and Kyonpadat in Mudon Township for various kind of industry including rubber processing and rice milling. Level of traffic flow is low to average in all villages. Level of water pollution level is low in all villages and access to water near the village is average in all villages. However, as in the case of all other regions, all village heads report that number of wildlife animals near the village is very low and almost lacking.

Regarding opinion of the village heads on infrastructure development, most of them agree that situation of the roads and houses are better. Three village heads answer they can access more electricity while other two answered it is remain unchanged. Concerning with education standard of the youth three village heads said increase while other two answered remain unchanged. The situation of the health of general population two village heads answer it is improving while other three villages said no change. In economic development aspect, most of their answers are positive except availability of the loan from banks and other institutions as in the case of other regions. In social aspect, three village heads reported that villagers are more cooperation in social activities while other two villages answer as no change. Education level of the youth and people working in abroad are answer as increase in three villages and no change in other two. In environmental aspect the forest depletion and garbage level are much more increased while and the number of wildlife animals

found are reducing as in the case of all other regions. Concerning with developmental efforts, government more involve in infrastructure development while villagers and NGOs play significantly roles in all other aspects. Except infrastructure and social aspects, the level of integration among them takes place at the very low level.

Table 12: Factual Data of the Village in Costal Group (5 Villages)

Particular	Variables	Township/Villages Name					Mean	Standard Deviation
		Ye	GWA	Yan Bye	Thon gwa	Mu don		
		La Mine	Ti KYO	Kaung boung	Pearl	Kyon Padat		
Economic Well-beings	Per capita income of villager	3 USD	2 USD	1.5 USD	3 USD	5 USD	2.900	1.342
	Per capital income of household	8 USD	6 USD	5 USD	8 USD	12 USD	7.800	2.683
	% of farm households	30%	60%	70%	55%	20%	0.425*	0.217
	No. of houses in good condition	98%	30%	20%	55%	98%	0.501*	0.385
	Ownership of transportation vehicles	90%	50%	60%	80%	95%	0.729*	0.195
	Ownership of TV at home	90%	50%	30%	60%	98%	0.602*	0.289
	Ownership of phone	5 %	2%	2%	7.5%	7%	0.040*	0.027
	Youth population working at abroad/country	80%	10%	5%	10%	80%	0.200*	0.437
Social Well-beings	Literacy rate	100%	85%	85%	100%	100%	0.937*	0.082
	% of people access to safe water	90%	20%	20%	50%	90%	0.438*	0.369
	Infant mortality rate	1%	2%	2%	1%	1%	0.013*	0.006
	Average Life Expectancy	65	60	58	60	62		
Infrastructure	Access to electricity	98%	20%	10%	30%	100%	0.358*	0.473
	Time taken to hospital	1 hr	2 hr	1 hr	½ hr	½ hr	1.000	0.612
	Time taken to read newspaper or journal	2 day	2 day	2 day	1 day	1 day	1.600	0.548
	Road condition (good =1, average =2 Poor= 3)	1	1	2	2	1	1.400	0.548
	Forest Area within 10 miles(good =1, average=2 Poor= 3)	2	2	2	3	3	2.400	0.548
Environmental Sustainability	No. of industries with more than 5 H.P	2	1	0	20	25	9.600	11.929
	Level of traffic flow (low =1, average=2, high=3)	2	1	1	2	2	1.600	0.548
	Level of water pollution (low =1 average =2 high =3)	1	1	1	1	1	1.000	0.000
	Access to water near village (low =1, average=2, high =3)	2	2	2	2	2	2.000	0.000
	% of wild animal near villages (high =1, average =2, low =3)	3	3	3	3	3	3.000	0.000

* Represents geometric mean and other represent arithmetic mean

Source: Survey data

**Table 13: Opinion on Effort towards Rural Development
(Interview with Village Head)For Costal Group (5 villages)**

Particular	Questions - What is the present situation of the village in following factors relative to last five year?	Response		
		Better	No Change	Worse
Infrastructure Development	1.Situation of road/bridge	4	1	
	2. Situation of House	3	2	
	3.Availability of electricity	3	2	
	4.Education standard of youth	3	2	
	5.Situation of health of people	2	3	
Economic Development	1.Job opportunities for the village	3	2	
	2. Income growth for people	3	2	
	3. Growth of wealth	3	2	
	4. Available of loan		5	
	5.Collaborative program for income generation (Y/N)	(N,N,N,N,N)		
Social Development	1. People involvement in social activities	3	2	
	2. People's health situation	3	2	
	3. Education level	3	2	
	4. People working at abroad	3	2	
	5. Education program in health	3	2	
Environmental Sustainability	1. Air pollution level	1	4	
	2. Soil pollution level		5	
	3. Water pollution level		5	
	4. Water level in the river		5	
	5. Forest depletion	4	1	
	6. Garbage level in the village	3	2	
	7. Situation of wildlife found			5

The Institution Involved in the Rural Development Effort (tick as relevant)

Activities	Government	Private	NGO	Political Party	Villagers
1. Infrastructure Development	3				5
2. Economic Development			2		3
3. Social Development			5		3
4. Environmental Sustainability	2		2		1

Degree of Cooperation among these Institutions

Activities	Low	Moderate	High
1. Infrastructure Development		5	
2. Economic Development	5		
3. Social Development	1	4	
4. Environmental Sustainability	2	3	

Source: Survey data

5.4 Rural Community Development of Villages in Hilly Group

The factual data of villages covered in Hilly group (HG) is shown in the table. Three the villages in the Hilly region included in the survey are located in Shan State, one village in Kayi state and another is in Mandalay Division.. The surveyed villages chosen in this group are Minlon village located in Nyaung Shwe Township, Nantsan village in Thibaw Township, Akha village in Tarchilalk Township, Kamaepyi village in Mokok Township and Kwambi village in Hlaingbwe Township. Out of them Akha village achieves highest per capita income with 3 USD and highest per household income with 7 USD per day. There are only 20% of households in the village working in the farm and majority of youth population which is about 70% are working in Thailand. Except Minlon and Nantsan village, other surveyed villages in the region are relatively less relying on agriculture sector since the average farm households in the villages of this region is only 38.8% which is significantly less than all other regions. They mainly grow tea leave and tobacco with other fruits and flowers. The ownership of transportation vehicles of any kind (boat, car, motorbike, bicycle etc.) is ranging from 30% to 50% of households in these villages. Most of the transport vehicles are motorbikes as in the case of villages in other region. The average ownership of TV at home is 19.6% which is relatively less than other regions. Electricity is not accessible in all villages. A few people use batteries and generators as main source of power. A significant percentage of youth population in two villages (Akha and Kwambi) is working Thailand since they are located near border. The youth population working at abroad is less than 10 percent in other villages in this group. In social-welling, the average literacy rate of those villages is more 69.6% which is the smallest among all regions. Most of the people in the villager cannot access to safe water (tube water) for drinking and they rely on water from the streams near the village. Infant mortality rate is about 1.7 % on average in all villages. The average life expectancy is 57 years for all villages in this region.

In terms of infrastructure, three villages cannot access to electricity distributed by the government. Time taken to get to hospital is ranged from 2 to 3 hour for all villages in the group. The mode of transportation is mainly road by motorbikes and cars as in the case of central group. Road can be accessible with motorbikes and cars and can be

used in all three seasons. Road condition is normally average to good. They are mainly paved road. Time taken to read newspaper and journal is about 2 to 3 days lag in all villages. Forest areas can be seen within 10 miles all those villages except Kamaepyi village in Moekok Township.

Concerning environmental aspect, there are no industries that using more than 5 Horse powers all villages in this region. Level of traffic flow is low in all villages e. Level of water pollution level is low in all villages and access to water near the village is average in all villages except Akha village in Tachilalk Township. However, as in the case of all other regions all village heads report that number of wildlife animals near the village is very low and almost lacking.

Regarding opinion of the village heads on infrastructure development, most of them agree that situation of the roads and houses in their villages are generally no change except Minlon in Naungshwe village. Three village heads answer they can access more electricity while other two answered it is remain unchanged. In all other aspects of infrastructure development, the village heads in all villages in the survey agree there is no significant change in their villages. In economic development aspect, all village heads report that there is no significant change in their villages. In social aspect, all village heads reported that villagers are more cooperation in social activities while most of other dimensions like education standard, situation of health and the person working at abroad are no significant changing in their villages. In environmental aspect the forest depletion in more increasing and the number of wildlife animals found are reducing as in the case of all other regions. But the level of garbage found in the villages is relatively better off than other regions. Concerning with developmental efforts, government more involve in infrastructure development while villagers and NGOs play significantly roles in all other aspects mainly in social activities. Except infrastructure and social aspects, the level of integration among them takes place at the very low level as in the case of other regions. Like villages in other regions, they are least cooperation and integration in environmental protection and sustainability.

Table 14: Factual Data of the Village in Hilly Group (5 Villages)

Particular	Variables	Township/Villages Name					Mean	Stand ard Deviat ion
		Nyung shwe	THI BAW	Tachi lalk	Moe kok	Hlaing Bwe		
		Min lon	Nant San	Akha	Kamae pyin	Kwam Bi		
Economic Well-beings	Per capita income of villager	1.2 USD	1.5 USD	3 USD	2 USD	2 USD	1.940	0.684
	Per capital income of household	3.6 USD	3.8 USD	7 USD	5 USD	5 USD	4.880	1.354
	% of farm households	70%	70%	20%	30%	30%	0.388*	0.248
	No. of houses in good condition	60%	50%	80%	40%	40%	0.521*	0.169
	Ownership of transportation vehicles	40%	50%	50%	40%	30%	0.413*	0.084
	Ownership of TV at home	10%	12%	60%	40%	10%	0.196*	0.239
	Ownership of phone	1%	1.5%	3%	2%	1%	0.016*	0.009
Youth population working at abroad/country	10%	5%	70%	2%	40%	0.123*	0.326	
Social Well-beings	Literacy rate	75%	80%	80%	85%	40%	0.696*	0.184
	% of people access to safe water	20%	20%	10%	12%	2%	0.099*	0.082
	Infant mortality rate	1%	1.5%	1%	3%	3%	0.017*	0.011
	Average Life Expectancy	65	65	60	50	50	57.595	7.596
Infrastructure	Access to electricity	2%	5%	3%	3%	2%	0.028*	0.012
	Time taken to hospital	2 hrs	2 hrs	2 hrs	2 hr	3hrs	2.200	0.447
	Time taken to read newspaper or journal	2 day	2 day	2 days	2 days	3 days	2.200	0.447
	Road condition (good =1, average =2 Poor= 3)	1	1	2	2	3	1.800	0.837
	Forest Area within 10 miles(good =1, average=2 Poor= 3)	2	3	2	3	2	2.400	0.548
Environmental Sustainability	No. of industries with more than 5 H.P	0	0	0	0	0	0.000	0.000
	Level of traffic flow (low =1, average=2, high=3)	1	1	1	1	1	1.000	0.000
	Level of water pollution (low =1 average =2 high =3)	1	1	1	2	2	1.400	0.548
	Access to water near village (low =1, average=2, high =3)	2	2	1	2	2	1.800	0.447
	% of wild animal near villages (high =1, average =2, low =3)	3	3	3	3	3	3.000	0.000

* Represents geometric mean and other represent arithmetic mean

Source: Survey data

Table 15: Opinion on Effort towards Rural Development

Particular	Questions - What is the present situation of the village in following factors relative to last five year?	Response		
		Better	No Change	Worse
Infrastructure Development	1.Situation of road/bridge	1	4	
	2. Situation of House	1	4	
	3.Availability of electricity		5	
	4.Education standard of youth		5	
	5.Situation of health of people		5	
Economic Development	1.Job opportunities for the village		5	
	2. Income growth for people		5	
	3. Growth of wealth		5	
	4. Available of loan		5	
	5.Collaborative program for income generation (Y/N) (N,N,N,N,N)	(N,N,N,N,N)		
Social Development	1. People involvement in social activities	5		
	2. People's health situation		5	
	3. Education level	1	4	
	4. People working at abroad	1	4	
	5. Education program in health	1	4	
Environmental Sustainability	1. Air pollution level		5	
	2. Soil pollution level		5	
	3. Water pollution level	1	4	
	4. Water level in the river		5	
	5. Forest depletion		1	4
	6. Garbage level in the village		3	2
	7. Situation of wildlife found			5

(Interview with Village Head)For Hilly Group (5 villages)

The Institution Involved in the Rural Development Effort (tick as relevant)

Activities	Government	Private	NGO	Political Party	Villagers
1. Infrastructure Development	2				3
2. Economic Development					5
3. Social Development			5		2
4. Environmental Sustainability	1				2

Degree of Cooperation among these Institutions

Activities	Low	Moderate	High
1. Infrastructure Development	2	3	
2. Economic Development	5		
3. Social Development	2	3	
4. Environmental Sustainability	5		

Source: Survey data

5.5 Findings on Empirical Data on the Villages in the Survey

From the empirical data collected through questionnaires on surveyed villages, two aspects are investigated into detail and attempt to explore some insight information. The first one is (a) the relationship between percentage of farmland households in the village and the average per capital income of individual villagers in the village and (b) the relationship between percentage of farmland households in the village and the average per capital income of the households in the village. The second is the investigation into the relationship between level of rural community development and level of integration among institutions involved in rural community development. The process of investigation is attempted to be simple as possible and the results are reported in the following sessions.

5.5.1 The relationship between percentages of farmland households in the village and the average per capital income (a) individual villager and (b) household

As an attempt to get deeper insight into the empirical data collected from the surveyed villages, the relationship between the percentage of farmland households and the economic wellbeing of the villages is investigated. In Myanmar, farmers were historically handicapped group since they also support to achieve the political objective of the leaders who wants to stabilize their country by keeping the food prices (mainly rice) at constantly low level. Even after agriculture marketing reforms have been made after 1988, the economic welling of farmers as a whole country is not improving substantially due to many factors such as limited access to international market, many layers of supply chains, limited modernization of farm machineries, low level of both cultivating and processing technologies, changes in weather like flooding, price instability in the market and abnormal appreciation of Myanmar' currency (Kyat) that effectively destroyed the competitiveness of agriculture products in the international markets and so on. As a part of this study, therefore, economic well being of farm household should be examined. This can be achieved by the investigation the link between the number of farmland households and the economic well being of the villages.

The empirical data from 20 villages that located in four regions under survey show the following information.

Table 16: Information on percentage of farmland households and economic wellbeing of the villagers in twenty villages included in the survey

Group	Village Name	Percentage of farmland Households in the village (X)	Average per captia income of individual in the village in term of US dollar (Y)	Average percaptia income of household in the village in term of US dollar (Z)
Delta	Bo toke	0.9	0.8	1.5
	Kyeik ka tha	0.8	0.6	1.2
	Tamatakaw	0.87	0.5	1.1
	Htaungtan	0.25	1.2	2.3
	Kanaung	0.82	1	2
Central	Kansawl	0.8	1.2	4
	Mintekon	0.75	1.5	5
	Nwartekon	0.65	1.8	5
	Sapalpin	0.6	1.6	5
	Tharyargon	0.8	1.2	4
ostal	Lamine	0.3	3	8
	Tai Kyo	0.6	2	6
	Kaungboung	0.7	1.5	5
	Pearl	0.55	3	8
	Kyunpadat	0.2	5	12
Hilly	Minlon	0.7	1.2	3.6
	Nantsan	0.7	1.5	3.8
	Akha	0.2	3	7
	Kamepyin	0.3	2	5
	Kwanbi	0.3	2	5

Source: Survey data

The correlations between number of farm households in the village as measured by the percentage of farm household and economic wellbeing of the village under study is examined as follows.

Correlation between variables X and Y

$$r = -0.73893$$

Correlation between variables X and Z

$$r = - 0.65454$$

Therefore, the finding on variable X and Y reveals that there is a negatively and strongly correlation between the percentage of farm household and the average per capita income of individual villagers. And also the finding on variable X and Z reveals that there is negatively and moderately correlated between the percentage of farm household and the average per capita income of household in the villages.

5.5.2 Empirical finding on the relationship between Level of Rural Community Development and Level of Integration among Institutions

The investigation on this relationship is based on the data of 20 villages covered in the survey. The level of rural community development is measured in term of four aspects. These are (1) Infrastructure development (2) Economic development (3) Social development (4) Environmental sustainability.

In infrastructure development, the proxy variables are (a) situation of road and bridge (b) situation of houses (c) availability of electricity (d) education standard and (e) situation of health of rural people. In economic development the proxy variables are (a) job opportunities (b) income growth (c) growth of wealth and (d) availability of loan. In social development, proxy variables are (a) people involvement in social activity (b) people involvement in health (c) people involvement in education (d) percentage of people who go abroad for working and (e) education program in health. In environmental aspects, the proxy variables are (a) air pollution level (b) soil pollution level (c) water pollution level (d) water level in the rivers, creeks and lakes (e) forest depletion (f) garbage level and (g) situation of wildlife near the village.

The village head of the respective village included in the survey is asked to rate their opinion on each proxy variable. These responses are rated into three categories - better, no change and worse. The answers are giving score as- for better (3) points, for

no change (2) points and for worse (1) points. After that these scores are summed to get the total score for each aspect of rural community development in each region (Delta region, Central region and so on). For example one total score for infrastructure development aspect of village in delta region, one total score for economic aspect of villages in delta region so on. Therefore, there are four total scores each region. These scores represent one set of data.

For another data set, the village heads covered in the survey are requested to rate the level of integration among various institutions (government, NGOs, private, political party and rural people) in the development of their rural community in term of four aspects that used in first data set (1) Infrastructure development (2) economic development (3) social development and (4) environmental sustainability. Their responses are rated into three categories - Highly cooperate, moderately cooperate and low cooperate. These rating are giving scores as for highly cooperate (3 points), for moderately cooperate (2 points) and for low cooperate (1) points. Each region group contains five villages and the total score of the answered by five villages head in the region are summarized into single total score for each aspect of rural development. One total score for infrastructure development, another for economic development and so on. There are four total scores each region that represents each dimension of the rural community development of the each region covered in the survey. This represents second data set. And then, the correlation between these two data sets are examined to see there is significant relationship between them. It is done with three steps shown as follows.

Step 1: Calculating Data set (1) Level of rural community development

Level of rural community development will be measured by the answers on four aspects by the village heads of totally 20 villages in the survey. These are infrastructure development, economic development, social development and environmental sustainability. They are requested to give their opinion on each proxy variable include in each aspect. They are given three opinions of which they have to choose one that they think as relevant on each proxy variable. These are (i) better than before (ii) no change and (iii) worse than before. The responses of the village heads of the villages in each region and their scores for each aspect are shown in the following.

Data processing is rather complicated since it considers various aspects and nature of data itself is largely qualitative.

Aspect 1. The Responses of Village Head on Infrastructure Development

Proxy variable	Delta Group (5 villages)	Central Group (5 villages)	Costal Group (5 villages)	Hilly Group (5 villages)
Situation of road and bridge	better - 4 worse-1	better -4 no change-1	better -4 no change-1	better -1 no change -4
Situation of houses (no. of responses)	better -2 worse - 3	better -3 no change -2	better -3 no change -2	better -1 no change -4
Availability of electricity	no change-5	better -1 no change- 4	better -3 no change -2	no change-5
Education standard (no. of responses)	better -4 no change-1	better - 3 no change- 2	better -3 no change -2	no change-5
Situation of health (no. of responses)	better - 3 no change -2	better - 3 no change- 2	better -2 no change -3	no change-5

Scores for Rating by the Village Heads of the Villages of Respective Region

Rating score (better =3, no change = 2, low =1)

Proxy variable	Delta Group (5 villages)	Central Group (5 villages)	Costal Group (5 villages)	Hilly Group (5 villages)
Situation of road and bridge	13	14	14	11
Situation of houses	9	13	13	11
Availability of electricity	10	11	13	10
Education standard	14	13	13	10
Situation of health	13	13	12	10
Total Score	59	64	65	52

Aspect 2. The Responses of Village Head on Economic Development

Proxy variable	Delta Group (5 villages)	Central Group (5 villages)	Costal Group (5villages)	Hilly Group (5 villages)
Job opportunities for the villagers (no. of responses)	better - 4 worse-1	better -4 no change-1	better -3 no change- 2	no change -5
Income growth (no. of responses)	better -2 no change -3	better -4 no change -1	better -3 no change - 2	no change -5
Growth of wealth (no. of responses)	better-3 no change -2	better -4 no change- 1	better -3 no change - 2	no change-5
Availability of loan (no. of responses)	better -1 no change-4	better - 2 no change - 3	no change - 5	no change-5

Scores for Rating by the Village Heads of the Villages of Respective Region

Rating score (better =3, no change = 2, low =1)

Proxy variable	Delta Group (5 villages)	Central Group (5 villages)	Costal Group (5 villages)	Hilly Group (5 villages)
Job opportunities for the villagers	10	14	13	10
Income growth	9	14	13	10
Growth of wealth	7	14	13	10
Availability of loan	8	12	10	10
Total Score	34	54	49	40

Aspect 3. The Responses of Village Head on Social Development

Proxy variable	Delta Group (5 villages)	Central Group (5 villages)	Costal Group (5 villages)	Hilly Group (5 villages)
People involvement in social activities (no. of responses)	better - 4 worse-1	better -2 no change-3	better -3 no change-2	better -5
People involvement in health activities (no. of responses)	better -2 no change - 3	better -3 no change -2	better -3 no change -2	no change -5
People involvement in education activities (no. of responses)	better -3 no change- 2	better -4 no change- 1	better -3 no change -2	better -1 no change-4
People working at abroad (no. of responses)	better -3 no change-2	better -4 no change- 1	better -3 no change -2	better -1 no change-4
Education programs in health (no. of responses)	better -1 no change -4	better -2 no change- 3	better -3 no change -2	better -1 no change-4

Scores for Rating by the Village Heads of the Villages of Respective Region

Rating score (better =3, no change = 2, low =1)

Proxy variable	Delta Group (5 villages)	Central Group (5 villages)	Costal Group (5 villages)	Hilly Group (5 villages)
People involvement in social activities	13	12	13	15
People involvement in health activities	12	13	13	10
People involvement in education activities	13	14	13	11
People working at abroad	13	14	13	11
Education programs in health	11	13	13	11
Total Score	62	66	65	58

Aspect 4. The Responses of Village Head on Environmental Sustainability

Proxy variable	Delta Group (5 villages)	Central Group (5 villages)	Costal Group (5 villages)	Hilly Group (5 villages)
Air pollution level (no. of responses)	no change - 3 worse-2	no change - 2 worse-3	no change - 4 worse-1	no change -5
Soil pollution level (no. of responses)	no change - 1 worse-4	no change - 2 worse-3	no change - 5	no change -5
Water pollution level (no. of responses)	no change - 2 worse-3	no change- 5	no change -5	no change - 4 worse-1
Water level in the river (no. of responses)	no change - 4 worse-1	no change- 5	no change -5	no change-5
Forest depletion (no. of responses)	worse-5	worse-5	no change - 1 worse-4	no change - 1 worse-4
Garbage level in the village (no. of responses)	no change - 2 worse-3	worse-5	no change - 2 worse-3	no change - 3 worse-2
Situation of wildlife found (no. of responses)	worse-5	worse-5	worse-5	worse-5

Scores for Rating by the Village Heads of the Villages of Respective Region

Rating score (better =3, no change = 2, low =1)

Proxy variable	Delta Group (5villages)	Central Group (5 villages)	Costal Group (5 villages)	Hilly Group (5 villages)
Air pollution level	8	7	9	10
Soil pollution level	6	7	10	10
Water pollution level	7	10	10	9
Water level in the river	9	10	10	10
Forest depletion	5	5	6	6
Garbage level in the village	7	5	7	8
Situation of wildlife found	5	5	5	5
Total Score	47	49	57	58

By combining these data, data set 1 for level of rural community development in surveyed villages in different regions can be constructed.

Data set 1- Scores on Level of Rural Community Development of the Villages in Different Regions Included in Survey

Aspects of Rural Community Development	Delta Group	Central Group	Costal Group	Hilly Group
Infrastructure development	59	64	65	52
Economic development	34	54	49	40
Social development	62	66	65	58
Environmental sustainability	47	49	57	58

Step 2: Calculating Data set (2) Level of integration among various institutions involved in rural community development

The next step is calculating data set 2 for the opinion on the level of integration among various institutions involved in rural community development rated by the village heads in the surveyed villages.

For Delta region, the opinion of village heads of five villages is as follows.

Degree of Cooperation among these Institutions (Delta Group - five villages)

Activities	Low	Moderate	High
1. Infrastructure Development	2	3	-
2. Economic Development	4	1	-
3. Social Development	1	4	-
4. Environmental Sustainability	5	-	-

When these are transformed into scores (low = 1, moderate =2, high = 3)

Scores for Degree of Cooperation among these Institutions (Delta Group - five villages)

Activities	Scores
1. Infrastructure Development	8
2. Economic Development	6
3. Social Development	9
4. Environmental Sustainability	5

For Central region, the opinion of village heads of five villages is as follows.

Degree of Cooperation among these Institutions (Central Group - five villages)

Activities	Low	Moderate	High
1. Infrastructure Development	1	4	-
2. Economic Development	5	-	-
3. Social Development	2	3	-
4. Environmental Sustainability	3	2	-

When these are transformed into scores (low = 1, moderate =2, high = 3)

Scores Degree of Cooperation among these Institutions (Central Group - five villages)

Activities	Scores
1. Infrastructure Development	9
2. Economic Development	5
3. Social Development	8
4. Environmental Sustainability	7

For Costal region, the opinion of village heads of five villages is as follows.

Degree of Cooperation among these Institutions (Costal Group - five villages)

Activities	Low	Moderate	High
1. Infrastructure Development	-	5	-
2. Economic Development	5	-	-
3. Social Development	1	4	-
4. Environmental Sustainability	2	3	-

When these are transformed into scores (low = 1, moderate =2, high = 3)

Scores for Degree of Cooperation among these Institutions (Costal Group - five villages)

Activities	Scores
1. Infrastructure Development	10
2. Economic Development	5
3. Social Development	9
4. Environmental Sustainability	8

For Hill Group, the opinion of village heads of five villages is as follows.

Degree of Cooperation among these Institutions (Hilly Group - five villages)

Activities	Low	Moderate	High
1. Infrastructure Development	2	3	-
2. Economic Development	5	-	-
3. Social Development	2	3	-
4. Environmental Sustainability	5	-	-

When these are transformed into scores (low = 1, moderate =2, high = 3), the results can be seen as follow.

Scores for Degree of Cooperation among these Institutions (Hilly Group - five villages)

Activities	Scores
1. Infrastructure Development	8
2. Economic Development	5
3. Social Development	8
4. Environmental Sustainability	5

By combining the results, data set 2 for the opinion on the level of integration among various institutions involved in rural community development can be constructed.

Data set 2- Scores on Level of Integration among Various Institutions Involved in Rural Community Development of the Villages

Aspects of Rural Community Development	Delta Group	Central Group	Costal Group	Hilly Group
Infrastructure development	8	9	10	8
Economic development	6	5	5	5
Social development	9	8	9	8
Environmental sustainability	5	7	8	5

Step 3- Finding Relationships between Data set 1 and 2 for Each Region included in the Survey

By comparing data set 1 and 2, it can be find out the correlation between them to examine their relationships. It reveals the following relationships.

For Delta group, correlation between (data set 1, data set 2) $r = 0.786517$

For Central group, correlation between (data set 1, data set 2) $r = 0.668808$

For Costal group, correlation between (data set 1, data set 2) $r = 0.966988$

For Hilly group, correlation between (data set 1, data set 2) $r = 0.408248$

As seen in above relationship between these two data sets, it can be said that the level of rural community development as measured by four aspects (infrastructure, economic, social, and environmental) is positively associated with the level of integration among various institutions (government, NGOs, private, villagers) as explored by the opinion of village heads in the villages under survey.

Chapter VI

Comparison between Korea and Myanmar Rural Community Development

The comparative study of rural community development including goals, policies and strategies as well as implementation reveals, up to certain extent, why one country is more successful than another.

6.1 The Differences between Rural Community Development of Korea and Myanmar

A. The Role of the Leader

It should be recognized that all leaders of the country would like to see their country prospers. What different is the way to achieve it. Again, it depends on their vision and foresights as well as their priority. The leaders of Korea and Myanmar put effort toward rural community development since both of them recognized the development of their country would be feasible only when the people in the rural community prosper. Both of them used top-down approach i.e. the goal and strategy were determined at the top and rolled out to the lower level for implementation. But in the case of Korea, the leader knew and accepted real situation of the village since he had intimate knowledge on the situation at the rural level. In the case of Myanmar, U Nay Win rarely visited to the village level and even he visited, it is difficult for him to know and accept real situation of the village because everything in the village was forced to change before he visited that village. The authorities at the various stages down to village level were very afraid to bother their top leader and they attempted to hide what is happening in the reality. Everything in the village was cosmetically or temporarily changed before the leader visit. Village's lanes are being repaired, the fences were being reconstructed and nicely painted and even the villagers gathering are trained how they should react to the questions from the top leaders.

The second thing is the choice of the leader whether he wants to maintain the power or wants to raise the welfare of the villagers. Both countries leaders were authoritarian and they wanted maintain their power as long as possible. But in the case of Korea,

the leaders was so committed to improving living standard of the rural people by means of subsidizing through government budget, encouraged the increase in agriculture products and farm output through price incentive and ensuring government's official are supporter for improving village situation. In the case of Myanmar, the situation was reversed. Government forced village people to obey the government instructions to implement its planned economic system about what and how much should be cultivated. Political stability was given priority in the urban area at the expense of the villagers by transferring wealth through compulsory paddy delivering system with set quota with the lower price and rice were distributed at the subsidized prices for the urban people and freely provided to the government staff. The government officials down to the village level were not supporter but enforcers of the government policy whether they are meaningful or not. Therefore, most of the rural development efforts were made only to please the top leaders.

B. Macro Economic Policy and Strategy

Korea adopted outward looking economic policy and export-driven strategy while Myanmar emphasized on implementing inward looking and import-substitution strategy in the same period. In Korea, the success of these policy and strategy had impacted on the life of people rural areas by creating industrials' demand for labor the urban centre located in the urban areas. It is difficult to assess whether or not economic development contributes to rural community development. They are mutually reinforcing each other.

C. Systematic and Well Coordinated Plan with Long-term Orientation

Korea's Saemaul Undong is not a spark for showing short-term result. It was well systematic planned, step by step development, integrated with incentive, community spirit and leadership development. It is combined both top-down and bottom-up approach with cross institutional participation, cooperation and integration of effort while Myanmar's effort for rural community development is ad-hoc and too much emphasis on showing good results within a short-period of time, lack of integration and coordination among constituents in the process.

D. Involvement of Local People

Although Korea's model was started from the top and ended up through the effort of the local people. In Myanmar case, the authority could not attract the local people involvement in the rural community development process since there were lack of communication of the true purpose, lack of ways for involvement, lack of incentive for involvement and no clear guideline for development.

E. Lack of Leadership at the Village Level

In the case of Korea, community spirit and "can do" philosophies were nurtured through initiation and cooperation in the village's development work. Saemaul Undong leaders were carefully selected and exposed training for rural community development. In Myanmar, the village leaders could not lead the villagers to initiate and cooperate in rural community development activities like road and bridge repairing, digging drinking waters, improving social and economic activities of the village since they are preoccupied to enforce and implement government direction and plans. The development effort and agenda started at the top were disappeared before reaching the village level since there were too many levels for implementation and coordination.

6.2 Recent Movement of Rural Community Development in Myanmar

Soon after new government has taken power in April 2011, it shows enthusiasm to develop rural areas of the country. Just after one month of taking power, the government organized "the national level workshop for rural development and poverty alleviation" on 20 May 2011 to explore and discuss the policies and strategies to promote rural areas of the country where 70% of the country's 60 million population are living¹³. At the workshop, the President laid down the 10 areas for rural community development to be considered. These include: 1.increasing agriculture output through vertical extension, 2.growing high-quality variety, 3. reducing cost of cultivation, 4.using farm machinery for speedy cultivation and harvesting while reducing wastes, 5.reducing agriculture input costs of seed, fertilizer,

¹³ Speech of President U Thein Sein at the National level Workshop for Rural Development and Poverty Alleviation held in Naypyidaw on May 20 2011.

pesticide and farm machineries through the use of collective distribution system,6. accessing micro finance,7.developing technology through collaborative system,8. developing integrated farming system and generating secondary income through breeding,9.encouraging medium and long term plantation to earn secondary income,10 practicing and encouraging one village one product system.

In essence, the President pointed out the intention to reenergize cooperative system with like-minded persons through confident building and availability of micro credit to the village level. In order to provide basic framework for the discussion at the workshop, the President set down five topics. They are (1) agricultural sector development (2) fishery sector development (3) rural industrial development (4) development of micro credit (5) development of cooperatives up to the village level. A number of economists and government officials from the various ministers attended the workshop, presented the papers and participated in the discussion. Central Committee for Rural Development and Poverty Alleviation was formed and the President chaired at the committee. The first meeting of the committee was held on June 20, 2011 and at which the areas for further action were laid down¹⁴. The Central Committee will handle the policy framework and each area will be undertaken by a union minister for detailed implementation at the state and division level. The project period for implementation was determined from first July 2011 to 31 December 2015. Setting cooperative groups of like-minded people was determined as core activity and these groups will be further transformed into cooperative societies to undertake mutually beneficial activities. The ministry of cooperative will be prime actor in the organization of these groups and societies. However, the top down policy will be avoided in the process of forming these groups and bottom up initiative will be mainly used. The private companies, NGOs, INGOs and social institutions need to provide

¹⁴ These are 1. Agricultural sector development 2. Development of Rural Output 3. Cottage industries development 4. Development of micro credit 5. Development of rural cooperatives 6. Development of rural socio-economic condition 7. Rural energy development and 8. Maintenance of rural environmental condition.

assistance. The Specialized Companies ¹⁵ need to provide help to these groups in the form of low interest¹⁶.

The President speech and the actions of government conducted just before 3 months period taken power has clearly showed that the government conviction for the development rural community and poverty alleviation. As indicated in the President's guidelines, the agricultural sector will still be main target for the development and cooperatives will be major actors in this process. Although the President mentioned about bottom-up initiative for rural development, his speech indicates the intention to use the state-led model of rural community development. Without encouragement from the state, it is hard to get integrated support from NGOs, INGOs, private companies, social institutions and specialized companies in the development process. Now, it is too early to say the result of this initiative by the government whether the effort will change rural scene of Myanmar or will follow in the ways of its preceding ones.

6.3 Suggested Model for Rural Development of Myanmar

In the effort to develop rural community, Myanmar should learn successful experience of Korea in the similar area. The experience of Saemaul Undong may serve as a guidance to develop its own model for Myanmar that will be tailored to its unique culture and social system. Some of the good practices may be learned from Korea's experience and then be imitated. Comparison with Korean and Myanmar past experience in the effort of rural community development was helpful in determining what points should be followed in practice. The following guild lines are suggested after comparing and contrasting the experiences of Korea and Myanmar.

1. Vision, Commitment and Knowledge on Grass root Level by The Top leader

Both Korea and Myanmar case highlight the role of top leader on the rural community development. It should be noted that without the support of top leader throughout the

¹⁵ The Government encouraged forming specialized companies by economic sector particularly in the agricultural sector starting from 2011. They are formed jointly by the companies already running in that sector.

¹⁶ President speech at the first meeting of Central Committee for Rural Development and Poverty Alleviation.

process, any development efforts will be doomed to failure. Not only top leader passionate on rural community development but also he has to know and accept what is happening in reality at the rural level. In the case of Korea, President Park Chung-hee personally visited the village level, understand the real situation of the village and what should be done to improve, constantly monitor the progress through monthly formal meeting and consultation with regional level officials and really passionate to the rural community development in which he was growing. In the case of Myanmar, President U Ne Win did not have intimate knowledge on the village level since he rarely visited the villages and relied only on formal reports which had been filtered by a number of stages. Although he might had vision on how to develop rural village and may be really passionate on the development of rural community, lack of knowledge on the real situation of the village level led him to make costly mistakes.

The historical event pointed out that the top leader should not merely satisfy upon information given to him, he should have personal and intimate on what is happening in the reality on the situation of the rural. The President should visit the villages frequently without giving notice or only giving a short notice. He should visit the village as far as possible up to the poorest village in the remote areas and make snap decisions based on the real situation on the requirements of the village.

2. The Role of Incentives

People tend to put effort to achieve a goal based on the incentives given to them. Without incentive scheme it will be very difficult to motivate these people to be participating in the development effort even if they are done for their community. Market incentives or government incentives should be created. In the case of Myanmar, the rapid growth of export in beans is largely due to market incentives given by SPDC government and the fall of rice output can be attributable to the lack of incentive to produce more under the compulsory delivery with quota system during Socialist period. In the case of Korea, the government categorized the village into three groups – developed, developing and undeveloped and used government incentives to improve rural situation.

3. The Role of Community Leader

Those who are educated, well respected and have ability to organize people in the village should be selected and trained to be the community leader who will take charge and integrate the rural development effort at the village level. Community leaders should be change agent and facilitator as well as organizer for change in rural community. They are those trusted by the villagers and have ability to lead and coordinate the resources of all contributors for the rural community development. Saemaul Undong case highlights the potent role of community leader in the success of the project.

4. Take actions

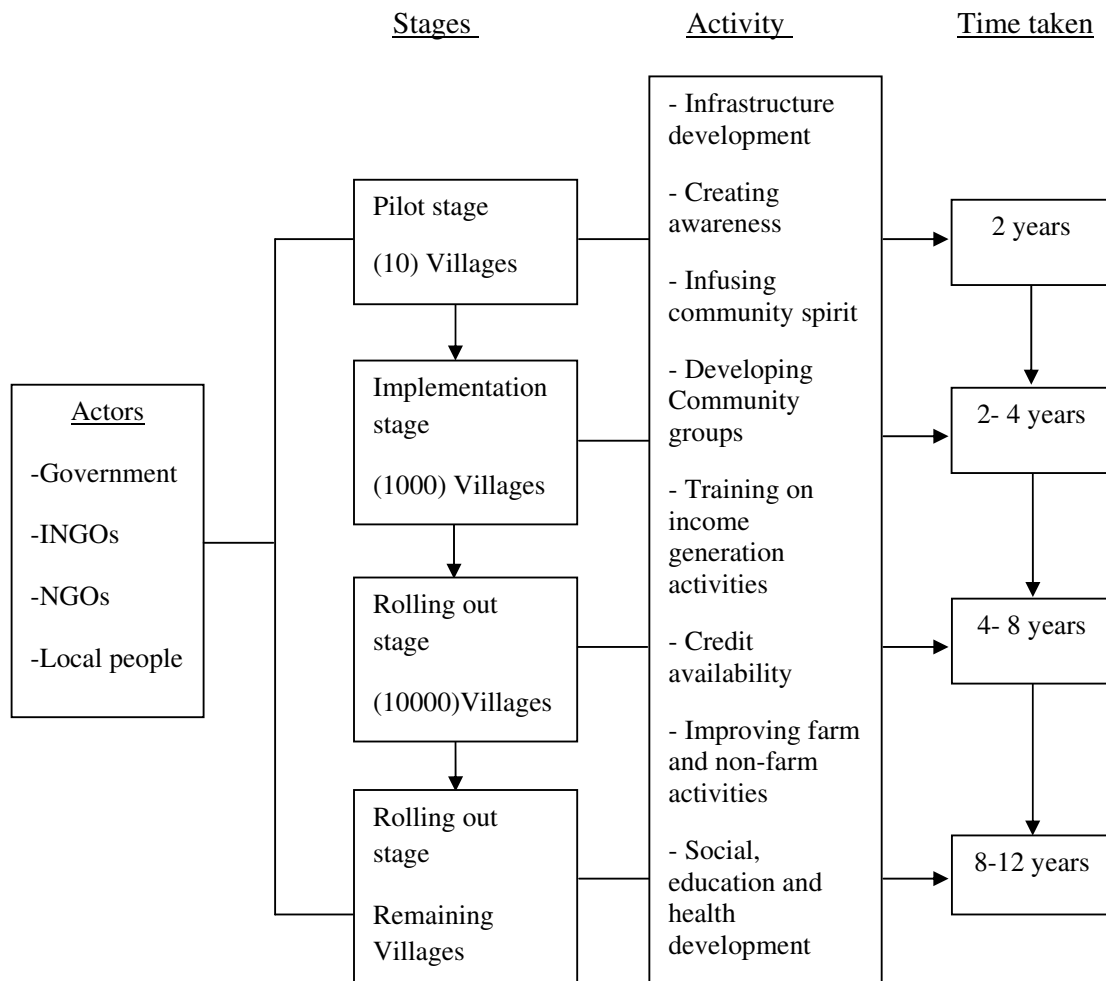
Most of the development efforts are out of fuel before their effect reach to the village level. Seminar and workshops are organized, discuss the problems and explore the options, call several meeting for detailed implementation, invite many parties to participate, impose the guidelines and call again the meeting at the lower level to clarify these guidelines and tried before actual implementation. This phenomena is so called paralyze by analyses. As a result nothing is happening in practice and end up as political shows. The people do activities not because they really believed them but because of powerful people like them and ignore these after top leader's attention gradually faded away. Rural community development is long-term process and has done through integrated effort of many people. These people can be motivated to fully and actively participate in the process only when actual works are done and fruits from these can be seen at the lowest level.

5. Stage by stage development

Saemaul Undong experience shows that rural community development cannot be done during short term and ad hoc basis. Instead, it is a result of deliberated and well-considered plan. Saemaul Undong was undertaken through four stages that were devised after thinking very well. There are five stages in the process namely foundation and ground work stage, proliferation stage, energetic implementation stage, overhaul stage and autonomous growth. Each stage takes at least three years to nine years and to successfully finish the whole process required 28 years. In the case

of Myanmar, the period to complete rural development and poverty alleviation is about four and half years from July 30, 2011 to December 30, 2015. During that period, predetermined eight tasks have to be completed which will be handled by eight ministries with the collaboration of NGOs, INGOs, local people and private companies. The targets are intended to accomplish through the group of like-minded people. It will be very challenging task to accomplish all targets in time since many tasks need to be done and a number of stakeholders are participating without incentives. This could result a lot of coordination and conflicting objectives and interest among various stakeholders. Like Saemaul Undong, rural development process should be done through stage by stage – Infrastructure development through joint effort of government and rural people, awareness creation on community, developing community spirit and organizing community groups, training for income generation and cash management, availability of credit, improving farm and non-farm activities and finally encouraging social, health and education level of the villages. Some villages that have a good potential to develop should be chosen as the model villages and the process should be started from these villages. After getting some experience and when other villages envy on the success of model villages, the process should be spread out gradually to other villages which are already classed in terms of development stage. The process should be done through the lead of government and the participation of people in the local community only as in the case of Korea's Saemaul Undong. The suggested model of rural community development in Myanmar is shown in the following figure.

Figure 3: Suggested Model of Rural Community Development in Myanmar



Source: Author

As shown in the figure, the development effort of rural community should be done through efforts of the Government, INGOs, NGOs and local people. The pilot phase should be started in 10 villages and based on success the process will be rolling out to other village communities.

The major activities will be

- (1) Infrastructure development
- (2) Creating awareness on community development
- (3) Training on income generation and cash management

- (4) Developing community spirit
- (5) Improving farm and non-farm activities and
- (6) Encouraging social, education and health development of the people.

In implementing these activities, incentives for the progress should be offered to the whole village community by the government as in the case of Saemaul Undong and these will be gradually reduced after the villages have confident enough to stand by themselves. The total time taken to the whole process should be 12 year minimum as indicated in the figure.

Chapter VII

Findings and Conclusion

From the comparison of experience in rural community development between South Korea and Myanmar after 1960s, it can be seen that there are many similarity and major differences between these two countries. The similarities are both countries come from military dictatorship, both are poor after getting independence, both countries relied on agricultural sector and more or less similar culture i.e. willing to cooperate and help each other among neighborhood (so called collectivist culture) remain in rural community. The differences are the main focus of agriculture marketing, incentive schemes for development, visionary leadership at the top, cross institutional involvement, spiritual reform and long-term concerted effort to achieve outcomes as opposed to emphasize upon short-term success. These factors are responsible for producing different results between them.

From early 1960s until 2002, farmers in the rural area were transferring their wealth to urban settlers and civil workers through compulsory delivery system since rice is the staple and political product of Myanmar. Every successive governments of Myanmar preferred domestic sufficiency of rice rather than boosting export. They attempted to keep rice price low for political reason and consequently prices of farm outputs were separated from the world's market prices that created disincentive effect to produce more output and destroyed rural economy. Visionary leadership was lacking in Myanmar since top leaders were content with the report submitted to them that were deviated from what was happening in the grass root level. They rarely visited the villages so that they only received filtered information from lower levels. There was no integrated and concerted effort towards rural development and many attempts to boost rural economy and life of people in the rural areas were just-for-show and ended up at the cosmetic level. After 1990s, the young people in the rural areas start migrating into neighboring countries in search of better livelihood that leads to farm labor shortage in the rural areas. This problem is more acute since there cannot be effectively substituted with the farm machineries to cure the problem of labor shortage. In recent years, bad weather conditions destroy farm outputs in the harvest and there are no insurance and other buffered systems are in place for those

farmers. There is also rapid fluctuation of prices of farm outputs. As a result, the farmers are suffering from total losses¹⁷. This problem gradually leads to a major national problem and if there is no remedial action taken, it may severely impact on the farm outputs and make a threat to food security for the country in the future.

The lessons from the study of rural development model of these two countries reveal that Korea model can be illustrated as proactive strategy and Myanmar's is reactive strategy. The first former model place rural sector development as the country's priority while it was subordinate to the maintenance of political stability of urban area in the latter. Therefore, agricultural outputs of rural areas were effectively separated with the market price for a long time. Rural community development of Korea partly benefited from growth of economy in the urban areas through rapid industrialization that leads to increase demand of farm products from rural area. Urban industrialization and rural community development are mutually reinforcing each other in Korea model while this link is not found in Myanmar's. Finally, the vision and real commitment of national leaders to develop their own country make a real difference in the fortunes of these two countries.

The empirical data from twenty villages under survey could reveal two things. The first is there is negatively correlated between number of farmland in the village and economic wellbeing of the village. This information highlights there should be government or other interventions in place to remedy the economic situation of farm households or otherwise nobody wants to undertake farming in the future. The second is there is positively correlated between the level of rural development as measured by four aspects (infrastructure, economic, social and environmental) and the level of integration among institutions that active in those areas.

The new government has shown its enthusiasm to reverse rural life of the country¹⁸. It should be noted, however, the enthusiasm and commitment at the top level are not enough to get desired results. Without concerted effort and guideline at the top and

¹⁷ There are two crops failure in the harvest was happening due to off season rains in 2010 that severely affected farmers in rural area. A lot of farmers sell their seed to repay borrowing money.

¹⁸ Speech of president U Thein Sein at the workshop which is aimed at improving the living conditions for rural people and alleviating poverty at Naypyitaw on 20 May 2011

participation from the mass and all stakeholders at the implementation level, the effort will be in vain since similar kind of initiatives were done in the last 40 years during socialist era without achieving concrete results¹⁹. Even the involvement of various stakeholders, it cannot make improvement if the strategy is not a proper one. A cohesive and proper model of rural community development is required for Myanmar that fits unique characteristics of Myanmar. In this regard, Korea's Saemaul Undong model can be used as a benchmark for although detailed fine tunings can be required to suit local condition. The Korea's experience shows the creation of incentive system to effectively encourage rural people to put extra efforts for their own development, passionate efforts of top leaders toward rural community development, step by step development with long term goal, involvement of village people under the democratic community leadership and top level support with lower level initiated target and strategy are keys to achieve desired outcome.

The present approach toward rural community development is seen as an attempt to hit two targets simultaneously – rural development and poverty alleviation. Committed leadership is already presence; the guidance has been laid down through eight targeted areas, top level support is ready by assigning eight ministers to take charge on each targeted area for example, Ministry of Cooperative for taking charge of micro credit, Ministry of Agriculture and Dam for agriculture development so on, the targeted deadline for outcomes of those efforts is already set as December 30, 2015. In light of the success of Saemaul Undong and past failures of such efforts in Myanmar, what is missing at present effort of Myanmar are appropriate incentive system for villagers to put their own effort for their development, the system that ensures to synchronize the efforts of all related parties including the channels for bottom up communication and step by step, area by area development instead of trying to develop all areas at once within the short period of time. The strategy to create like-minded groups to implement income generation activities with the support of private companies, NGOs and INGOs and specialized companies in the form of lower credit and the like should be reconsidered if it is feasible or not in practice.

¹⁹ Within 6 years (from December 1962 to March 1968), revolutionary council had organized totally eight round of the whole country farmers conventions aimed at improving life of farmers in the rural area.

Likewise extension of micro credit to rural people without educating them how to utilize this money effectively is risky. The funds may be diverted into illegal gamble or personal use without using them in the productive sector. Imposing burden for accomplishing designated task area on the each eight ministries without having practical mechanisms to integrate the voluntary efforts and incentives with lower levels down to village may create undue pressure on the shoulder of the respective ministers. Korea' Saemaul Undong shows the spiritual reform of the people play very important role for its success. Without having mechanism to change spiritual of rural people to stand on their feet, any reforms measure would hardly be successful. Resources, time and effort of people will be wasted. By combining this with lack of practical knowledge about what is happening at the lowest level by the top leaders may tend to produce many cosmetic activities and efforts that intend to satisfy the top leader. If these problems actually happen in the future, a lot of money and effort will be lost and more importantly peoples' hope toward development of the country will be dashed. As a country with more than 70% of its population living in the rural area, the development will not be possible without success of rural community development effort. At present, people in the village community faces many economic problems that result from loss of their agriculture products due to flooding and falling the prices of their output due to abnormal appreciation of Myanmar's currency which result in the loss of competitiveness of Myanmar agriculture products in the international markets, thereby leading to deterioration of the whole agriculture supply chain. Since the farming cannot guarantee their livelihoods, a lot of young people from villages are crossing border and working in other countries. The model suggested in this research may help reduce these problems in timely manner. It is strongly believed that the effort devoted in this research may help to the future development of Myanmar, at least a small extent, by indicating possible weak points in the current efforts and strategy of rural community development of Myanmar with objective manner and suggesting the options to overcome problems.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Questionnaire on Rural Development of the Village

(Please answer by the village head or a senior villager who knows about the village very well)

Part A. General Information of the Village

1.1 Location

Name of the village Village group.....
 Township.....

State/division..... Miles to nearest town..... Miles to main highway route.....

Area..... (Sq miles) Farms area..... (Sq miles) Irrigated farm land area..... (Sq miles)

1.2 Demography

No. of people Household..... Ethnic diversity (% of total population by ethnic groups) Age composition..... Gender composition..... Major occupation..... (% of population)

1.3 Economy

Percentage of farm family..... Non-farm family.....

Average size of land area per-household..... Main economy of the village..... Main products of the village.....

The percentage of youth population working at abroad....., the average monthly remittance from them.....

Part B. Present State of Rural Development**1 Economic Well-being**

1.1 Income

Employment rate of people in total population..... % of people who earns more than 2 USD a day..... % of households that earn more than 5 USD a day.....% of people who earns less than 1 USD a day..... Annual average

growth rate of income of adult person..... Average daily spending per household.....

1.2 Wealth

% of households that live houses in good condition..... % of households that own farm equipments or other productive equipments..... % of households that own some types of transportation vehicles (Bicycles, motorbike, car etc.)/...../..... % of households that have TV at home.....% of people that have mobile or fixed phone possession.....

2. Social Well-being

2.1 Education

Literacy rate.....% of people who passed matriculation..... % of people who already graduate..... % of children over five attending basic education..... no. of schools in the village..... No. of any other education programs in the village (describe type of program).....

2.2 Religious

% of religion of the village population (Buddhist, Hindu, Muslim, Christian and other)/...../...../..... Number of Monastery/Pagoda/Church/Temple in the village...../...../..... /...../.....

Number of monks in the village monasteries.....Number of donation ceremonies made per year

2.3 Infrastructure

% of household that access electricity....., % of people who access safe water..... Condition of village roads (too narrow, moderate, wide) access to main road(all seasons, dry season only)time taken to reach nearest town.....hrs

2.4 Health

No. of doctors in the village.....No. of other medical staffs Time taken to reach hospital.....hrs, Death rate per thousand of birth.....Infant mortality rate..... (Per year)

2.5 Communication

No. of days delay to receive national newspaper or Journals.....Routes of all seasons access to city..... (Car, river, rail- tick at relevant) No. of public phonesno. of internet shop.....

3. Environmental Sustainability

3.1 Forest area and wildlife

Forest area within 10 square miles of the village....., types and number of wild animals can be found within 10 square miles of the village.....

3.2 Pollution

No. of industries that utilize more than 5 horse power in the village....., No. of motorcar/motorbike/ machine transport equipments in the village...../...../.....Usage of plastic bags (high/moderate/low)..... Level of water pollution (high/medium/low)..... Availability of water supply near village (high/medium/low).....

Part C. Efforts toward Improvement of Rural Development

1. Achievement towards Foundation for Rural Development

A. How do you think the condition of roads/bridges and/or other transportation routes within last five years? (Tick at where you think most relevant)

Better than before No Change Worse than before

B. How do you think the level of housing condition in the village within last five years?

Better than before No Change Worse than before

C. How do you think the level of electricity access in the village within last five years?

Better than before No Change Worse than before

D. How do you think the development of education level in the village within last five years?

Better than before No Change Worse than before

E. How do you think the improvement of health level in the village within last five years?

Better than before No Change Worse than before

F. Which institution or party leads the effort of development for the above factors in the village? (Tick at relevant)

Government () Private company or individual () NGO (), political party ()
 Villagers ()

Please state the name of institution (Except government)

G. What extent the parties that mention at (F) cooperate each other.

Highly cooperate moderately cooperate No cooperate

2. Achievement towards Improvement of Economic Well-beings of the Village

A. What extent do you think on the progress of income generation activities within last five years?

Better than before No Change Worse than before

B. How do you think the average progress of wealth of households in the village?

Better than before No Change Worse than before

C. How do you think the availability of agriculture credit or other form of credit within last five years?

Better than before No Change Worse than before

D. How do you think the number of wealthy families in the village?

More than before No change Less than before

E. How do you think the progress of training for income generation or business development in the village within last five years?

More than before No change Less than before

F. Which institution or party leads the effort of development for the above factors in the village? (Tick at relevant)

Government () Private company or individual () NGO (), political party ()
 Villagers ()

Please state the name of institution (Except government)

G. What extent the parties that mention at (F) cooperate each other.

Highly cooperate Moderately cooperate No cooperate

3. Achievement towards Improvement Social Well-beings of the Village

A. What extent do you think on the cooperation of people in social activities within last five years?

Better than before No Change Worse than before

B. How do you think the average progress of health of households in the village?

Better than before No Change Worse than before

C. How do you think the average progress of education of the village's people within last five years?

Better than before No Change Worse than before

D. How do you think the number of people in the village who go abroad for the jobs?

More than before No change Less than before

E. How do you think the progress of training for health or social activities in the village within last five years?

More than before No change Less than before

F. Which institution or party leads the effort of development for the above factors in the village? (Tick at relevant)

Government () Private company or individual () NGO (), political party ()
Villagers ()

Please state the name of institution (Except government)

G. What extent the parties that mention at (F) cooperate each other.

Highly cooperate Moderately cooperate No cooperate

4. Achievement towards Improvement of environmental sustainability of the Village

A. What extent do you think the level of air pollution within last five years?

More than before No Change Less than before

B. How do you think the level of noise pollution within last five years?

More than before No Change Less than before

C. How do you think the level of soil erosion within last five years?

Morethan before No Change Less than before

D. How do you think the level of water pollution within last five years?

Morethan before No Change Less than before

E. How do you think the situation of forest area near the village within last five years?

More than before No change Less than before

F. How do you think the level of wastes near the village within last five years?

More than before No change Less than before

F. How do you think the level of wildlife diversity near the village within last five years?

More than before No change Less than before

H. Which institution or party leads the effort of development for the above factors in the village? (Tick at relevant)

Government () Private company or individual () NGO (), political party ()
Villagers ()

Please state the name of institution (Except government)

I. What extent the parties that mention at (H) cooperate each other.

Highly cooperate Moderately cooperate No cooperate

Part D. General Opinions and Suggestion for Rural Development

1. Please mention how you feel about the present state of rural development in your village

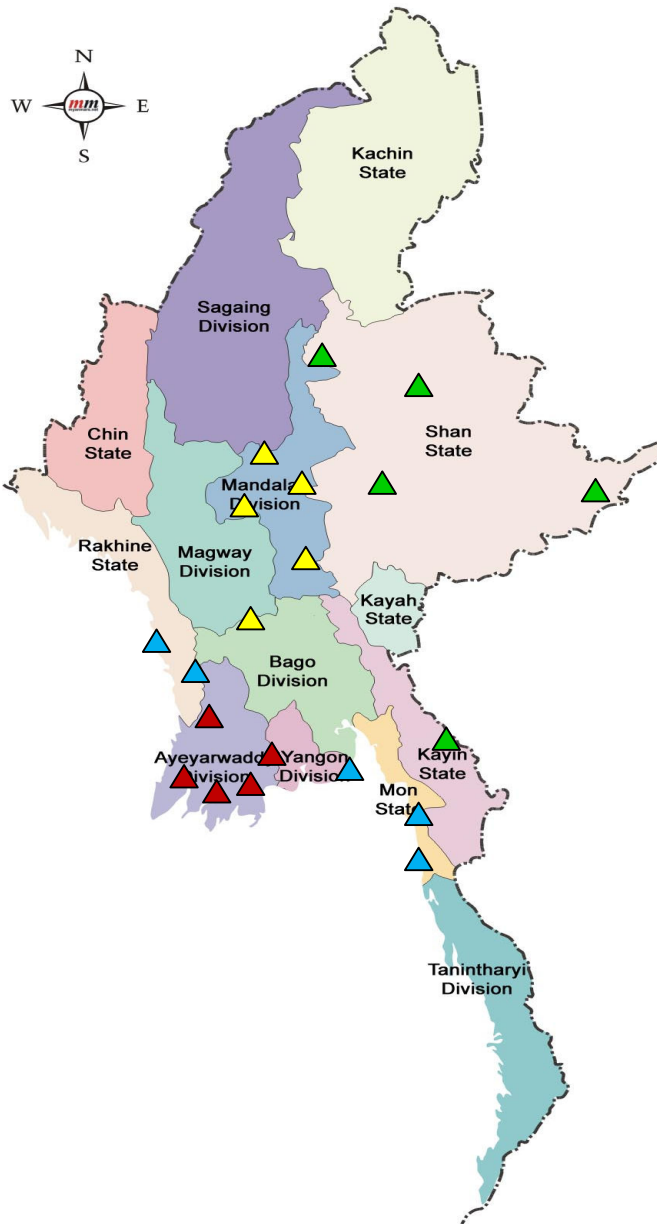
2. Please mention what should be done to improve the present situation of your village





3. Please mention how should be done to improve the present situation of your village

(Thank you very much for your cooperation in this research)

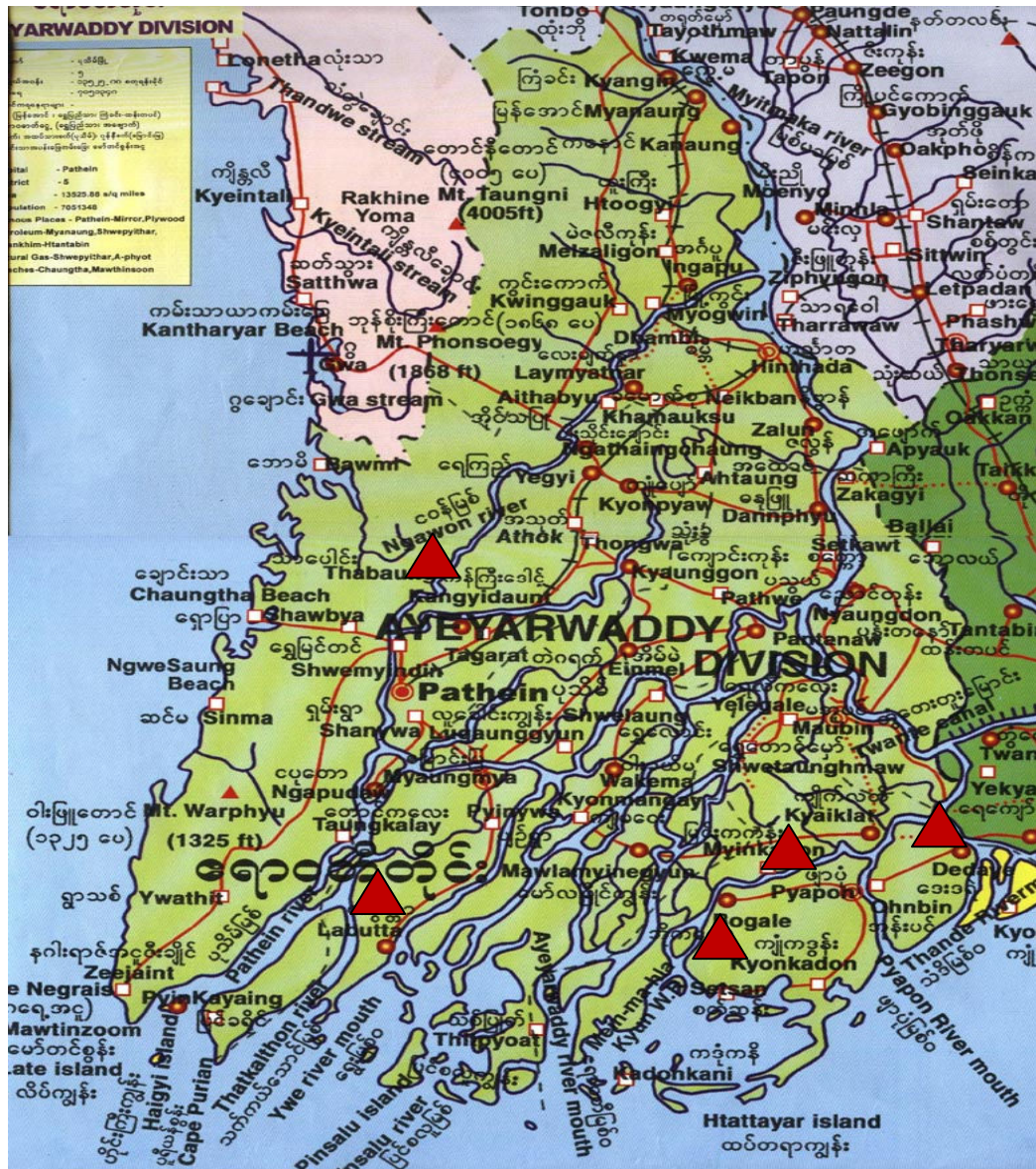
Appendix B- Location Maps

Map (1) - Location Map that Shows Surveyed Regions in Myanmar

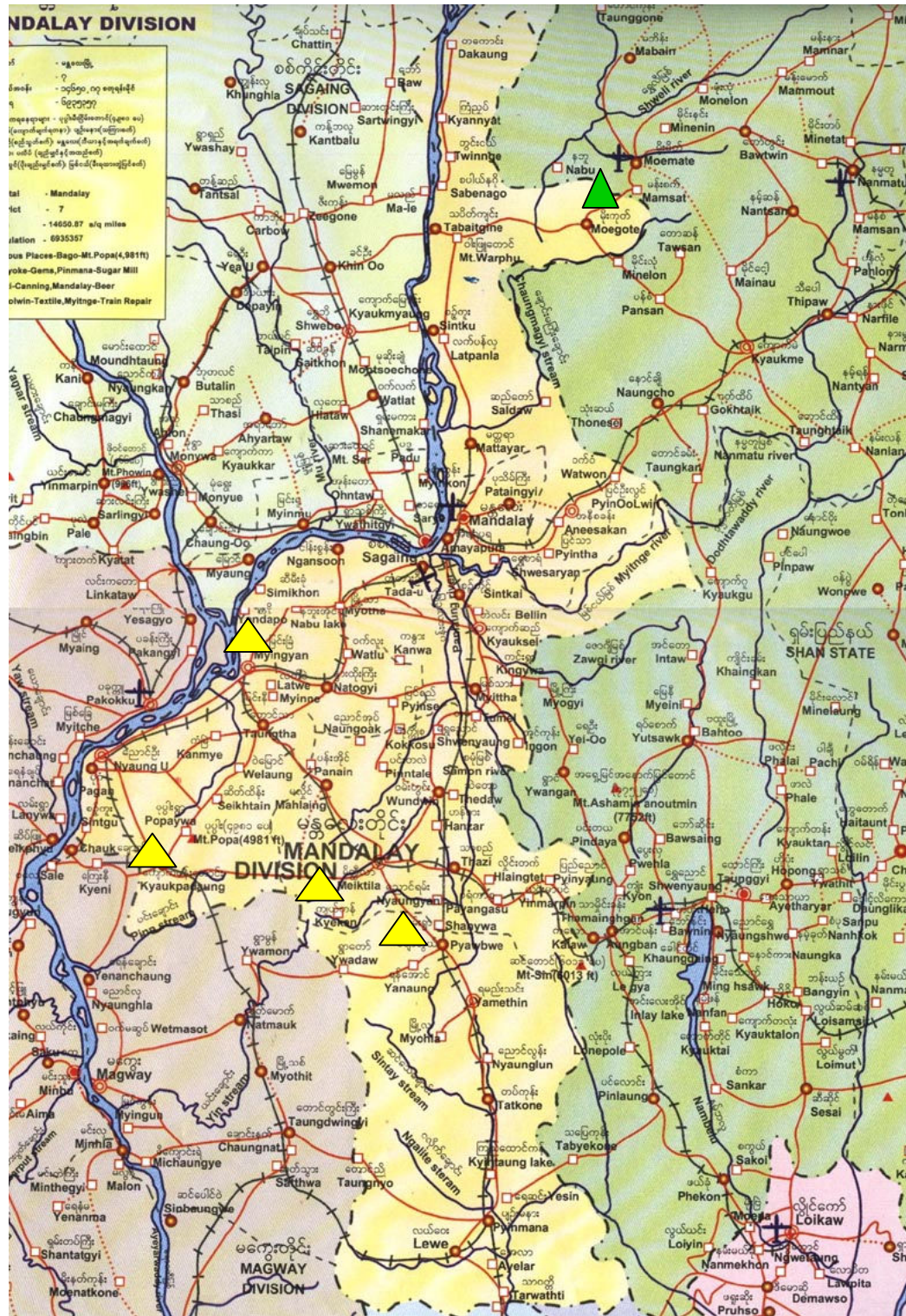


	Delta Region
	Costal Region
	Central Region
	Hilly Region

Map (2) - Location Map that Shows Surveyed Townships in Delta Region of Myanmar



Map (3) - Location Map that Shows Surveyed Townships in Central Region of Myanmar



Map (4) - Location Map that Shows Surveyed Townships in Central Region of Myanmar



Map (5) - Location Map that Shows Surveyed Townships in Costal and Hilly Region of Myanmar



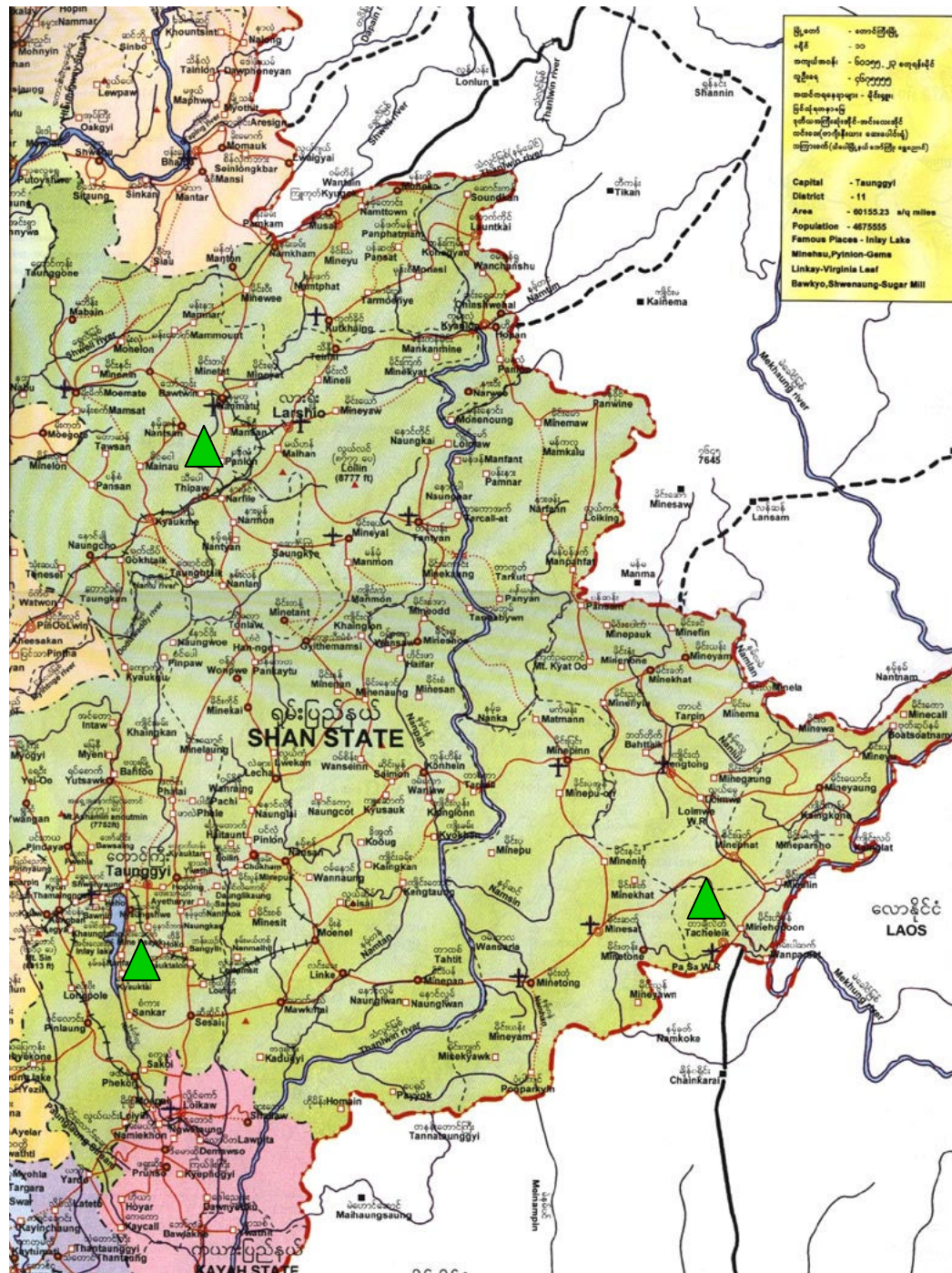
Map (6) - Location Map that Shows Surveyed Townships in Costal Region of Myanmar



Map (7) - Location Map that Shows Surveyed Townships in Costal Region of Myanmar



Map (8) - Location Map that Shows Surveyed Townships in Hilly Region of Myanmar



BIBLIOGRAPHY

- | | |
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