

The Myanmar JOURNAL

Labour Force and Employment Opportunities
in Myanmar **Thet Lwin · Khin May Than**

The Impact of Internal Corporate Social
Responsibility on Employee Commitment of
Private Banks in Myanmar **Than Soe Oo**

A New Interpretation of the Global Business
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Satisfaction **Yee Yee Thein**

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Proximate Determinants of Fertility in Myanmar
Maw Maw Khin · Sanda Thein

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Osung**

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on ITU Discussion Issues **Shinwon Kang**

Participants' Intention and Satisfaction of HRD
Programs in Myanmar - A Case Study in Yangon
University of Economics - **Mya Thandar · ZawKhin**

Letter from the Editor-in-Chief

The Korea Myanmar Research Institute (KOMYRA) has supported the ongoing projects on the mutual development of Myanmar and Korea in the entire field of society, economy, culture, education, science, and related industry. As a part of our efforts to provide convenient access to understand Myanmar and Korea worldwide, KOMYRA has co-published the Myanmar Journal with Yangon University of Economics (YUE) since August 2014, and now we release the Myanmar Journal Vol. 5, No. 2.

This issue features various topics that may be of international interest, such as academic and industrial researches mainly concerning economic and social changes, FDI, education, welfare, culture, renewable energy, mobile finance, etc.

We hope this journal continues to promote understanding about the present status and the potential capacities of Myanmar and Korea, and facilitate in-depth international exchange and cooperation.

I would like to express my deep gratitude to the Editorial Board and the Staff of KOMYRA who have contributed their valuable supports towards the publication of this issue of the Myanmar Journal.

August 30, 2018

Youngjun Choi *yj choi*

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INFORMATION ABOUT The Myanmar Journal

The Myanmar Journal (ISSN 2383-6563) is the official international journal co-published by Yangon University of Economics (YUE) and Korea Myanmar Research Institute (KOMYRA).

This journal aims to promote the mutual cooperation and development of Myanmar and Korea through intensive researches in the entire field of society, economy, culture, and industry.

It will cover all general academic and industrial issues, and share ideas, problems and solution for development of Myanmar.

Articles for publication will be on-line released twice a year at the end of February and August every year on the Myanmar Journal webpage.

CONTENTS

Articles

1. Labour Force and Employment Opportunities in Myanmar
Thet Lwin · Khin May Than
14. The Impact of Internal Corporate Social Responsibility on Employee Commitment of Private Banks in Myanmar
Than Soe Oo
31. A New Interpretation of the Global Business Model : Focusing on the Fourth Industrial Revolution
Shinwon Kang
39. Border Trade between Myanmar and Neighboring Countries
Khin Thida Nyein
63. A Study on the Structure of Myanmar's Industry in the Era of the Trump Administration
Young kyu Jeong
71. Motivation Factors Influencing on Employee Satisfaction
Yee Yee Thein
91. The Influence of emotional labor and self- control perceived by child care women on job stress.
Shin-Sook Lee
106. Proximate Determinants of Fertility in Myanmar
Maw Maw Khin · Sanda Thein
115. A Study on the Educational Conditions in Myanmar - Focusing on early childhood education -
Gwon Osung
123. The Role of Social Media in Political Change: The Case of Tunisia and Egypt
Vikash Kumar
142. Dating Violence of College Students
Sunghee Kim
149. Mobile Finance and Financial Inclusion : Focusing on ITU Discussion Issues
Shinwon Kang
156. Participants' Intention and Satisfaction of HRD Programs in Myanmar - A Case Study in Yangon University of Economics -
Mya Thandar · ZawKhin

Labour Force and Employment Opportunities in Myanmar

*Thet Lwin** · *Khin May Than***

Yangon University of Economics

ABSTRACT: Myanmar is fully aware of the fact that human factor plays a decisive role in social and economic progress, and that the development of the full potential of human beings stands at the center of economic and social development process. It has continuously increased the level of investment in human resources for it is a proven fact that investment in human capital would not only raise productivity. Myanmar is committed to bringing about a sustainable relationship between human resources and natural resources. Myanmar is implementing the National Education Strategic Plan, 2016-21. New education policies are aimed at strengthening the teaching profession and providing lifelong learning in carrier development opportunities. The higher education institutions will be reformed to enable greater knowledge production and to develop highly skilled human resources needed to support social and economic development.

Key words : Labour Force, Employment, Human Resource, Education, Economic Development,

I. Introduction

Myanmar has a very favourable land-man ratio and has a competitive advantage in agricultural production over other countries in Southeast Asia. Up to 1980, economic plans in Myanmar placed a relatively greater emphasis on manufacture rather than on agriculture. The change created a modest industrial base, and provided an opportunity

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for expansion and diversification in the economic structure. In the early 1990's, the strategy for development placed greater emphasis on agriculture.

Myanmar is fully aware of the fact that human factor plays a decisive role in social and economic progress, and that the development of the full potential of human beings stands at the center of economic and social development process. It has continuously increased the level of investment in human resources for it is a proven fact that investment in human capital would not only raise productivity. Myanmar is committed to bringing about a sustainable relationship between human resources and natural resources.

Myanmar with the adoption of the market oriented economic system the reform measures eventually created a business environment. A higher involvement of the private sector in economic activities led to an excess demand for labor with specific skills. Efforts are being made to make the education sector more responsive to the changing needs of the economy in transition.

The population owing to climate, terrain, soil type, sources of irrigation etc. is not evenly distributed. The degree of population concentration varies with the differences in the opportunities for economic activity. Agriculture is the predominant economic activity; it accounts for about 29.9 % of GDP and provides employment to almost 51.7 % of the total work force.

II. Working Age Population

An attempt has been made in this paper to provide a brief account of the current and the probable courses of labour force and employment opportunities in Myanmar. Development indicators are also provided wherever deemed necessary. Myanmar has vast potential for marine and fresh water fishing opportunities; a sizable surplus of agriculture produce particularly cereals like rice, beans, pulses etc. is available for export. Crude oil reserves have been estimated at 4,706,000 U.S. barrels, and natural gas at 695,591 million cubic feet, metals like tin, tungsten, lead, zinc, copper, gold, iron, industrial minerals like gypsum, clay, coal, and non-metallic minerals like jade, ruby, sapphire etc. are also found.

III. Demographic Profile

The 2014 Myanmar Population and Housing Census showed a total population of 51,486,253. The population size from the 2014 Census puts Myanmar at number five

in the region behind Indonesia, the Philippines, Vietnam, and Thailand. For details, see Annex 1.

The 2014 Census shows that the proportion of children under 15 years per 100 people in the working age population (ages 15-64) have declined. The total dependency ratio in 2014 is 52.5; it is much lower than 73.9 in 1983. The decline in the total dependency ratio may be attributed to the decline in the child dependency ratio, from 67.1 in 1983 to 43.7 in 2014, a reduction of about 35 percent. See Table 1.

Table 1. Proportion in Broad Age Groups and Dependency Ratios, 1983 and 2014

	1983			2014		
	Union	Urban	Rural	Union	Urban	Rural
Broad Age Group						
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Under 15 years	38.6	35.7	39.5	28.6	24.1	30.6
15-64 years	57.5	60.5	56.5	65.6	69.9	63.8
65+ years	3.9	3.8	4.0	5.8	6.0	5.7
Dependency Ratio						
Total Dependency Ratio	73.9	65.3	76.9	52.5	43.0	56.8
Child Dependency Ratio	67.1	59.0	69.9	43.7	34.4	47.9
Old Dependency Ratio	6.8	6.3	7.0	8.8	8.5	8.9

Source: 2014 Myanmar Population and Housing Census Report Volume 2 (Union)

Table 1 shows dependency ratio; it was 73.9 percent in 1983 and then it declined to 52.5 in 2014. The Distribution of Population by Age and Sex is given in table 2.

Table 2. Population by Age and Sex 1983, 2014

Five-year age groups	Total population					
	2014			1983		
	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female
0-4	4,472,130	2,262,783	2,209,347	4,501,934	2,267,826	2,234,108
5-9	4,819,077	2,438,372	2,380,705	4,389,041	2,216,323	2,172,718
10-14	5,108,362	2,595,745	2,512,613	4,268,670	2,178,956	2,089,714
15-19	4,625,989	2,290,998	2,334,991	3,735,435	44,414	1,891,021
20-24	4,331,069	2,091,525	2,239,544	3,286,324	1,610,144	1,676,180
25-29	4,146,134	1,995,465	2,150,669	2,763,545	1,363,835	1,399,710
30-34	3,898,861	1,884,549	2,114,312	2,152,965	1,067,173	1,085,792

35-39	3,563,480	1,705,630	1,857,850	1,668,631	835,177	833,454
40-44	3,283,073	1,548,942	1,734,131	1,479,520	716,619	762,901
45-49	2,946,148	1,375,041	1,571,107	1,413,759	695,833	717,926
50-54	2,559,232	1,182,341	1,376,891	1,299,152	634,222	664,930
55-59	2,051,937	935,979	1,115,958	995,400	489,815	505,585
60-64	1,576,845	712,040	864,805	830,334	398,942	431,392
65-69	1,064,493	466,618	597,875	1,607,795	747,220	860,575
70-74	713,170	301,679	411,491	416,223	192,715	223,508
75-79	553,298	228,315	324,983	214,808	98,978	162,527
80-84	335,576	130,875	204,701	120,466	52,281	115,238
85-89	158,069	56,979	101,090	35,851	15,334	20,517
90+	72,957	24,834	48,123	17,369	7,044	10,325

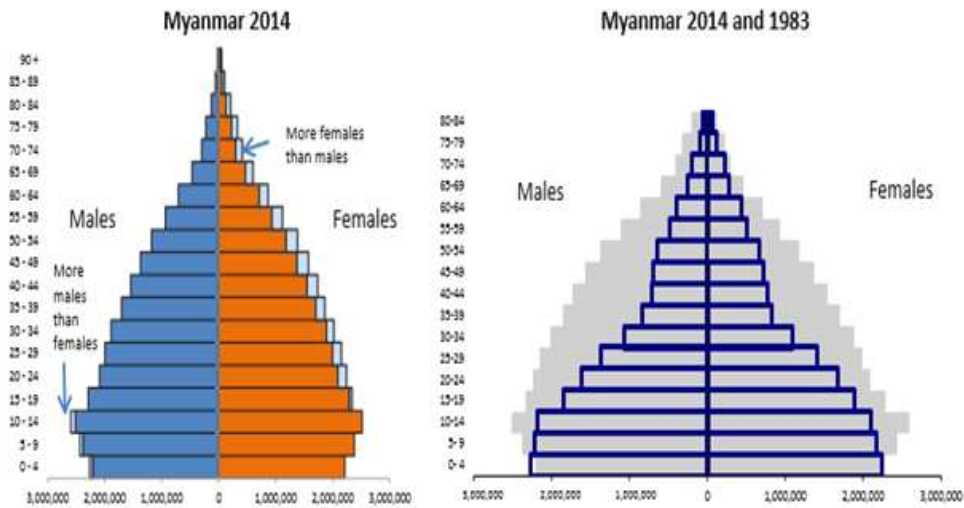
Source: 2014 Population and Housing Census Report Volume 2 (Union), 1983 Population Census

IV. Three General Population Profiles

Population of countries can differ markedly as a result of past and current patterns of fertility, mortality, and migration. However, they all tend to fall into three general profiles of age-sex composition.

- 1) **Expansive.** (Rapid growth) Large numbers of people in the younger ages.
- 2) **Constrictive.** (Slow growth) Small numbers of people in the younger ages.
- 3) **Stationary.** (Near zero growth) Roughly equal numbers of people in all age ranges, tapering off gradually at the older ages.

Figure 1: Population Pyramid of Myanmar, 2014 and 1983



Source: 2014 Myanmar Population and Housing Census Report Volume 2 (Union), p19

Age is seen in the figure 1, Myanmar population could be said to be expansive, despite the falling rates of birth.

V. Employment and Labor Force

The location of Myanmar has a great geographic significance. The country has long contiguous borders with China and India, each having a billion plus population, and Lao PDR and Thailand, two members in the ASEAN community. Myanmar still has abundant natural resources yet to be tapped; rich forests, fresh water fisheries in 4 river systems and marine fisheries along sea coasts, vast stretches of arable land, oil and gas on-land and off-shore, minerals and metals, etc. With the opening up of the country to trade and FDI, the growth of extractive and light manufacturing industries is imminent. As Myanmar engages in a series of political and economic reforms, interests of countries like Japan, Malaysia, Singapore, India, China, Thailand, etc. have increased in the fields of Infrastructure, Electricity, Financial Institutions, Banking, and Telecommunications. Myanmar has established 18 industrial zones. In addition, it is developing 3 huge special Economic Zones: Thilawa, Dawai, Kyauk Phyu.¹⁾

The labor force participation rate was 67 per cent; however, the rate for males was

85 per cent, and that of females 51 percent. Employment totaled 15.03 million, with female accounting for only 5.91million and for male was about 9.21million. About 38.5 per cent of all persons in employment were wage employees, 3.8 per cent were employers 45.9 per cent were own account workers and 11.8 per cent were contributing family workers. labor force participation rate by sex are given in Table 3.

Table 3. Age-specific participation rates by sex, 2014 Census

Age groups	Males	Females	Total
10 - 14	13.0	11.4	12.2
15 - 19	60.2	44.4	52.2
20 - 24	86.4	59.9	72.7
25 - 29	92.6	57.9	74.6
30 - 34	93.8	55.1	73.8
35 - 39	94.0	54.0	73.1
40 - 44	93.6	52.4	71.9
45 - 49	92.6	50.1	69.9
50 - 54	89.7	45.4	65.9
55 - 59	84.0	39.4	59.8
60 - 64	66.9	28.0	45.6
65 - 69	52.0	20.2	34.2
70 - 74	33.7	12.2	21.3
75 - 79	22.7	8.0	14.0
80 - 84	15.2	5.4	9.2
85+	13.2	4.8	7.7

Source: 2014 Myanmar Population and Housing Census Thematic Report on Labour Force Census Report Volume 4-G

VI. Employment to Population Ratio

Employment is a critical factor in the production of goods and services. Thus, it is the imperative to the quality of labour. In terms of industrial structure, agriculture, hunting and forestry is by far the biggest employer accounting for half of total employment. Manufacturing is very small, employing around 6% of the economically

1) Dr. Thet Lwin: A Glimpse at the Projected Myanmar School-age Population, 2010-2021 (Unpublished)

active population. The remainder of employment is mainly in the low-end service sector.

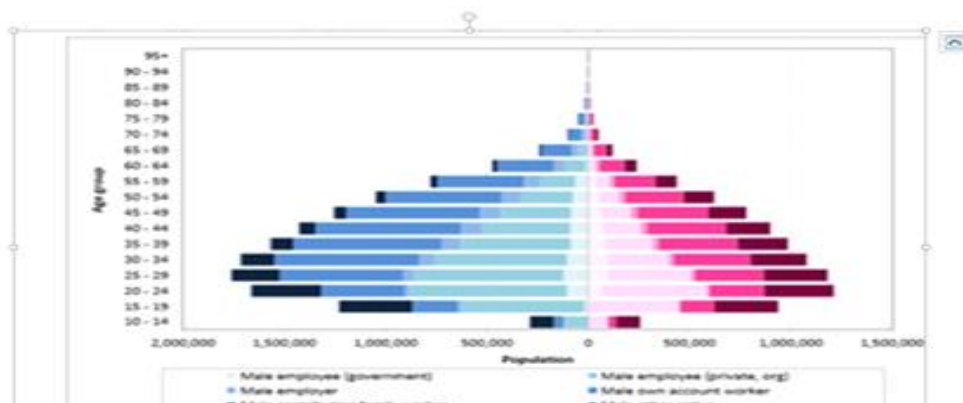
Table 4. Age-specific participation rates by sex, 2014 Census

Age groups	Males			Females			Both sexes		
	Employed	Unemployed	Inactive	Employed	Unemployed	Inactive	Employed	Unemployed	Inactive
10 - 14	289,950	47,259	2,258,540	256,169	30,023	2,226,421	546,119	77,282	4,484,961
15 - 19	1,231,575	147,980	911,443	939,021	96,724	1,299,246	2,170,596	244,704	2,210,689
20 - 24	1,665,199	141,750	284,576	1,213,318	127,260	898,966	2,878,517	269,010	1,183,542
25 - 29	1,764,054	84,641	146,770	1,182,733	62,650	905,286	2,946,787	147,291	1,052,056
30 - 34	1,716,969	51,132	116,448	1,078,751	31,164	904,397	2,795,720	82,296	1,020,845
35 - 39	1,570,540	32,619	102,471	986,201	16,121	855,528	2,556,741	48,740	957,999
40 - 44	1,428,456	22,128	98,358	899,736	9,019	825,376	2,328,192	31,147	923,734
45 - 49	1,257,538	16,305	101,198	780,753	5,702	784,652	2,058,291	22,007	885,850
50 - 54	1,049,464	10,948	121,929	622,073	3,704	751,113	1,671,537	14,652	873,042
55 - 59	779,844	6,814	149,321	437,077	2,357	676,524	1,216,921	9,171	825,845
60 - 64	473,234	3,300	235,506	240,740	1,110	622,955	713,974	4,410	858,461
65 - 69	241,389	1,426	223,803	120,205	599	477,071	361,594	2,025	700,874
70 - 74	101,237	487	199,955	49,805	280	361,406	151,042	767	561,361
75 - 79	51,542	263	176,510	25,719	200	299,064	77,261	463	475,574
80 - 84	19,728	144	111,003	10,882	147	193,672	30,610	291	304,675
85 - 89	7,096	68	49,815	4,702	68	96,320	11,798	136	146,135
90 - 94	2,204	43	15,448	1,463	32	32,192	3,667	75	47,640
95+	1,145	22	5,772	836	17	13,583	2,181	39	19,355
Total	13,651,364	567,329	5,308,866	8,850,184	387,177	12,223,772	22,501,548	954,506	17,532,638

* According to the ILO, the lower age limit to calculate unemployment rates is 15 years of age. However, as the Census also provides information on the age group 10-14 years, it was decided to include this information in this table.

Source: 2014 Myanmar Population and Housing Census Thematic Report on Labour Force Census Report Volume 4-G

Figure 2. Population Pyramid of employed persons by type of employment, 2014 Census



Source: 2014 Myanmar Population and Housing Census Thematic Report on Labour Force Census Report Volume 4-G

About 51.7 per cent of the employed persons were working in the agriculture, forestry and fishing sector, followed by the wholesale and retail trade, repaired of motor vehicles and motorcycles at 14.3 per cent, manufacturing 10.9 per cent, transportation and storage 4.4 percent, other service activities 9.1 per cent and construction 4.7 percent. All other sectors account for less than 3 per cent.

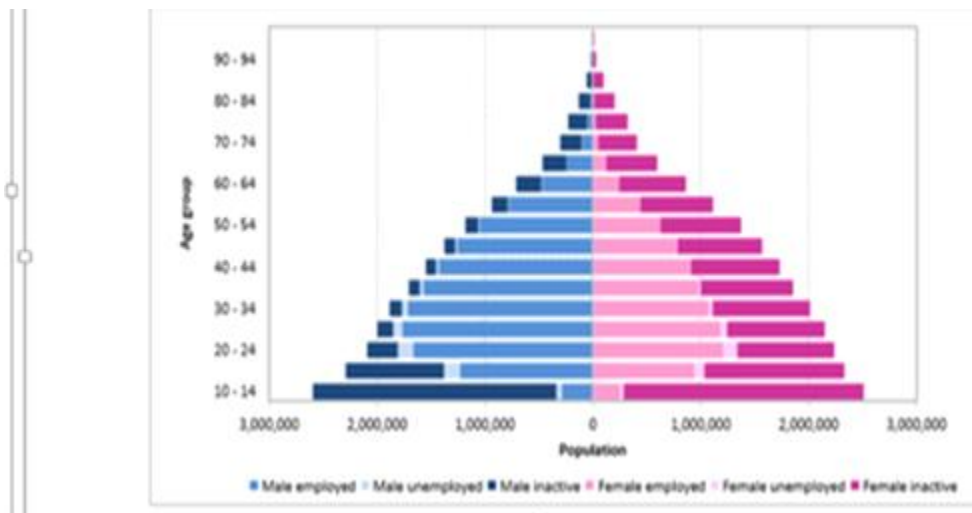
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	Employed	Unemployed	Inactive	Employed	Unemployed	Inactive	Employed	Unemployed	Inactive
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Source: 2014 Myanmar Population and Housing Census Thematic Report on Labour Force Census Report Volume 4-G

Figure 3. Population Pyramid activity status, 2014 Census



Source: 2014 Myanmar Population and Housing Census Thematic Report on Labour Force Census Report Volume 4-G

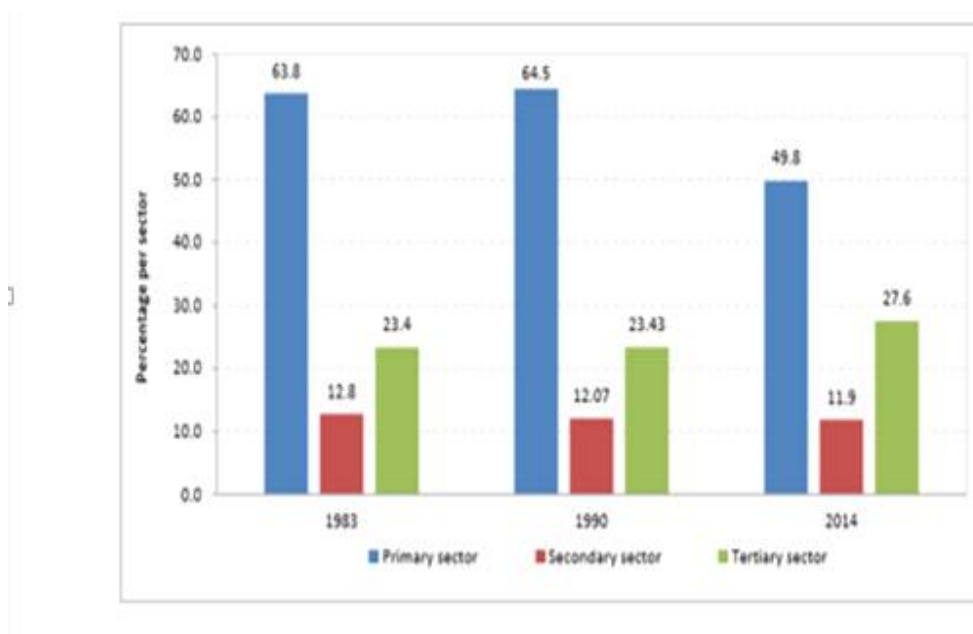
The employed population figures are given in Figure 4 by economic sectors, viz., primary (agriculture), secondary (industry) and tertiary (services). Each of these sectors were made up of the following industries:

Sector	Major Groupings
1) Primary (A)	· Agriculture, Hunting, Forestry & Fishing
2) Secondary (S)	· Mining & Quarrying, Manufacturing, Construction, Electricity
3) Tertiary (T)	· Gas, Water & Sanitary Services, Wholesale & Retail Trade, Restaurant & Hotels, Transport, Storage & Communication, Social Services, Activities not adequately defined.

Around 49.8% of the employed population was engaged in the primary sector, 11.9% in the secondary and 27.4 % in the tertiary sector.²⁾

2) Myanmar Labor Force, Child Labor and School-to-work Transition Survey, 2015 p7

Figure 4. Percentage of employed population by industrial sector, 1983 Census, 1990 LFS, 2014 Census



Source: 2014 Myanmar Population and Housing Census Thematic Report on Labour Force Census Report Volume 4-G

VII. Gross Domestic Product (GDP)

GDP is commonly used as an indicator of the economic health of a country, as well as to gauge a country's standard of living. The monetary value of all the finished goods and services produced within a country's borders in a specific time period is called GDP, and is usually calculated on an annual basis. It includes all of private and public consumption, government outlays, investments and exports less imports that occur within the country's defined territory.

$$GDP = C + G + I + NX$$

Where,

C is equal to all private consumption, or consumer spending, in a nation's economy;

G is the sum of government spending;

I is the sum of all the country's business spending on capital; and
 NX is the nation's total net exports, calculated as total exports minus total imports.
 (NX = Exports – Imports)

If the per capital income of a worker were taken as a proxy to earnings, the earnings of a worker engaged in non-agricultural activities was more than 3 times that of a worker engaged in agricultural activities. The existing earning differential is likely to increase further and to influence the mobility of labor between rural and urban areas despite rising levels of productivity in agriculture.

In 2015, GDP was 60,913 million kyats with per capita GDP of 1.39 million kyats based on an estimated population of 52.48 million people. Of that population, some 4.76 million were over the age of 60. Myanmar's unemployment rate is low; there is significant under-employment, in part due to the seasonality of agricultural work. The Myanmar Labour Force, Child Labour and School-to-work Transition Survey - 2015 estimates that the number of under-employed people plus unemployed is about 0.17 million.

Table 5 . GDP share of Major Group of Economic Sectors, 2014 (in percent)

ASEAN Country	Sector			
	Agriculture (A)	Industry (I)	Service (S)	A+I+S
Brunei Darussalam	0.8	62.0	37.2	100.0
Cambodia	24.9	32.9	42.3	100.0
Indonesia	13.2	41.8	45.1	100.0
Lao PDR	18.9	35.7	45.4	100.0
Malaysia	9.3	39.3	51.4	100.0
Myanmar	29.9	29.7	40.5	100.0
Philippines	10.0	33.3	56.6	100.0
Singapore	0.0	27.4	72.6	100.0
Thailand	7.2	36.7	56.1	100.0
Vietnam	18.9	37.6	43.5	100.0

Source: ADB (2017) ASEAN Statistical Yearbook 2016/2017, Table 3.8

Industry has become the prominent sector in the economic structure of Myanmar, yet the importance of the Agriculture Sector still persist.

VIII. Conclusion

Countries in Southeast Asia vary in resource endowment including population, and in the levels of socio-economic development. They hold different views on population change. For economic viability a certain size of population is desirable so as to exploit natural resources, to ensure a sufficiently large domestic market, and to provide adequate manpower for defending the country. According to Canon, "At any given time increase of labor up to a certain point is attained by increase in proportionate returns and beyond that point further increase of labour is attended by diminishing proportionate returns. The per capita income is the highest at the point where the average product of labour starts falling. This point of maximum returns is the point of optimum population. In short, the optimum population is that ideal size of population which provides the maximum income per head.

Myanmar is implementing the National Education Strategic Plan, 2016-21. New education policies are aimed at strengthening the teaching profession and providing lifelong learning in career development opportunities. The higher education institutions will be reformed to enable greater knowledge production and to develop highly skilled human resources needed to support social and economic development.

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Annex 1. Selected Summary Measures, 1983, 2014

Summary Measures	1983 Census	2014 Census
Household Size (Persons)	5.1	4.4
Broad Age Group (percent)		
Less than 15	38.6	28.6
15-59	55.0	62.5
60+	6.4	8.9
Median Age (years)	20.2	27.1
Dependency Ratio (percent)	73.9	52.5
Sex Ratio (percent)	98.6	93.0
Marital Status (percent)		
Male		
Never married/single	45.0	32.2
Married	50.6	61.4
Widowed	3.4	3.1
Divorced	1.0	1.4
Female		
Never married	40.0	29.5
Married	49.1	57.8
Widowed	9.2	10.4
Divorced/Seorated	1.7	2.0

The Impact of Internal Corporate Social Responsibility on Employee Commitment of Private Banks in Myanmar

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ABSTRACT : The main objective of this study is to analyze the effects of internal corporate social responsibility practices on employee commitment in private banks in Myanmar. Each of the five components of internal corporate social responsibility practices namely: compensation and benefits, training and development, health and safety, work-life balance, and employee autonomy were analyzed in relation to the three components of employee commitment: affective, continuance and normative commitment. The primary data was gathered through the administration of self-completion questionnaire to 380 employees from ten private banks. Data analysis was conducted using SPSS software. Results showed that compensation and benefits, and employee autonomy had a significant effect on employee commitment while training and development, health and safety, and work-life balance have no significant association with employee commitment.

Key words : internal CSR, employee commitment.

I. Introduction

The banking sector now plays a vital role in improving the social-economic well-being of the country through mobilizing funds from saving to investment, setting the price and value of financial assets, monitoring borrowers, managing financial risks, and organizing the payment system in the economy (Greenbaum, & Tahakor, 2007). Thus, the prosperity of the banking sector requires human resource interventions. The banking sector seems to be the most responsive industry to the emerging trend of

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corporate social responsibility. The banking sector is subjected to more diverse and complex stakeholders than any other sector of the economy (Achua, 2008). Banking sector needs to be socially responsible to build their reputation, which impact on the ability to attract high-quality employees (Achua, 2008) as well as on the employee intention to stay within organization. Undeniably, corporate social responsibility becomes prominent in building of corporate image among the various stakeholders of the banks including employees.

In respect of corporate social responsibility practices, there are only very few empirical studies that have been conducted regarding internal corporate social responsibility and its implication on people working in organizations and the performance of organizations. Thus far, scholars are interested to investigate the impact of internal corporate social responsibility on employees and their particular work attitude. Although their findings sometimes produce mixed results on the relationship between internal corporate social responsibility and employee's attitude towards their work and organizations, most of the respondents found that there is a strong relationship between internal corporate social responsibility and employees' attitude towards organization, thereby contributing to improve organization's performance (ALshbibel & AL-Awawdeh, 2011). In Myanmar's private banking sector, most of the researches on corporate social responsibility practices have less focus on the internal stakeholders such as employees. Therefore, there is a need to examine the effect of internal corporate social responsibility on this important stakeholder group-the employee. It is crucial to understand how employees respond to internal corporate social responsibility. Researchers have found that corporations that engage in social responsibility reap significant benefit. Employees are important stakeholders and they play a key role in organization success. Employee perceptions of the organization's ethics and social responsibility may influence their attitudes, commitment and performance, which in turn will have an effect on their organizations' performance. Therefore, research on the effect of corporate social responsibility on employees has been paid high attention in Myanmar.

The relationship between internal corporate social responsibility and employee commitment to their organizations has not yet been explored in developing countries like Myanmar. Majority of private banks in Myanmar currently tend to accept the importance of internal corporate social responsibility in relation to employee commitment to their organization. Therefore, they are interested in practicing internal corporate social responsibility activities. This can be seen in the vision, mission and value statement of the banks. Most of the bank tends to give more emphasis on external aspect of corporate social responsibility. However, some banks with large numbers of employees are practicing internal corporate social responsibility.

It can be seen that insufficient investment in internal corporate social responsibility

activities, attitude and behavior of employees may lead to negative results. This may lead to poor employee commitment to their organizations and negative impact on the employee intention to stay in private banks. Thus, the current study expects to provide comprehensive and clear information on how well internal corporate social responsibility practices are relevant for commitment and loyalty of current employees for improving the performance and thus on competitive advantage of local banks.

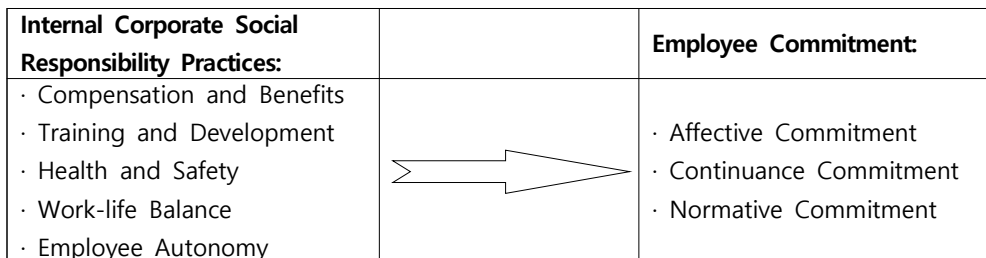
1. Objective of the Study

This study is conducted with the following objectives:

- 1) To identify the employee perception of internal corporate social responsibility practices of private banks in Myanmar.
- 2) To analyze the effect of internal corporate social responsibility practices on employee commitment in private banks in Myanmar.

The conceptual framework of the study is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework of the Study



Source: Own Compilation

2. Scope and Limitations of the Study

The role of internal corporate social responsibility has become an important driver for increasing employee commitment. Better organization effectiveness can be maintained when it keeps employee satisfied and productive. The scope of the study is limited to internal corporate social responsibility practices. It covers practices such as compensation and benefits, training and development, health and safety, work-life balance, and employee autonomy. There are other factors which may relate to employees' satisfaction and commitment directly or indirectly but they are beyond the scope of the study.

Although the current study offers some new insights about internal corporate social responsibility, there are several limitations to be acknowledged in the current

study. First of all, one important limitation may be the employee responses on the questions. Some employees may be confused with the questions asked in the study. Although a pilot test and revision to the questions had been made, some employees still cannot comprehend what the question filling.

Secondly, financial and time constraints are other limitations of the study. Due to the time constraints, the sample size had been small because considerable time had been required to collect the sample data. Thus, only ten banks had been selected in the study. However, the sample size meets the requirement for analysis although the sample size may not be representative to the whole banking sector. The respondents' opinion could not accurately represent the employee perception for the whole population in the private banking sector of Myanmar.

Another important limitation is the data collection method. The study used only the survey method with questionnaire. This would limit some important information because of the limited responses to the questionnaire. Thus, the study supplemented with interview method to collect more accurate and reliable information regarding the perceptions.

Another limitation may be that the study did not explore the ethnic group although the banking sector engages different ethnic employees. Thus, different perspective on internal corporate social responsibility practices by different ethnic should be considerable.

II. Analysis of Internal Corporate Social Responsibility and Employee Commitment

1. Research Design

Quantitative method is applied in this study by conducting employee survey in private banks. In line with this approach, descriptive research and conclusive research is carried out to measure internal corporate social responsibility and employee commitment in private banks. Questions are designed to answer the level of employee perception on variables regarding internal corporate social responsibility and employee commitment. In order to minimize the biasness, questions are developed in a simple and understandable manner for the ease of respondents and the researchers. The five dimensions of corporate social responsibility which include compensation and benefits, training and development, health and safety, work-life balance, and employee autonomy are to be rated with five-points of Likert-scale.

This study uses both descriptive and analytical methods to arrive at conclusion and

recommendation. Secondary data is obtained from literature reviews of previous study in this field, periodic reports and articles, statistical data issued by government agencies and private organizations, and the Internet. Primary data are collected from selected private banks in Myanmar, by observation, personal interview, and telephone interview through questionnaires.

This study is carried out with an intention to understand the nature of the relationship between internal corporate social responsibility and employee commitment of private banks in Myanmar. Hence the population of the study includes all private banks and all employees from these private banks. In Myanmar, there are 4 State-Owned Banks, 24 Domestic Private Banks, and 17 Foreign Banks with Representative Offices. The current study focuses only on 24 domestic private banks which have the population of the 38330 employees.

Choosing banks for data collection was a complex task. Considering various aspects especially the substantial number of employee population is a major concern, the sample is chosen in two stages. At the first stage, it was decided to choose only sample of ten private banks with large number of employees from 24 domestic private banks in Myanmar. The list of selected banks for the study is presented in Table 1. At the second stage, random samples of 380 employees are proportionately selected from the employees of the ten selected banks in the first stage. The proportion of population and sample of private banks are mentioned in Table 1. According to Krejcie & Morgan (1970), the required sample size for this study is 380 employees.

Table 1 Population and Sample of Employees in Selected Private Banks

Sr.	Name of the Bank	Population	Sample
1	Kanbawza Bank Ltd	13302	132
2	Co-operative Bank Ltd	5764	57
3	Ayeyarwaddy Bank Ltd	4455	44
4	Myanma Apex Bank Ltd	3056	30
5	Yoma Bank Ltd	2398	24
6	Asia Green Development Bank Ltd	2277	23
7	Myawaddy Bank Ltd	2218	22
8	Global Treasure Bank Ltd	2084	21
9	United Amara Bank Ltd	1562	15
10	Myanmar Oriental Bank Ltd	1214	12
	Total	38330	380

Source: Current Study

2. Demographic Profile of the Respondents

Ten private banks located in Yangon are the sample of the study. Respondents from these ten banks are listed in Table 2.

Table 2 Respondent by Bank

Sr.	Name of the Bank	Frequency	Percent
1	Kanbawza Bank Ltd	132	35
2	Co-operative Bank Ltd	57	15
3	Ayeyarwaddy Bank Ltd	44	12
4	Myanma Apex Bank Ltd	30	7
5	Yoma Bank Ltd	24	6
6	Asia Green Development Bank Ltd	23	6
7	Myawaddy Bank Ltd	22	6
8	Global Treasure Bank Ltd	21	6
9	United Amara Bank Ltd	15	4
10	Myanmar Oriental Bank Ltd	12	3
	Total	380	100

Source: Survey Data (2016)

Table 2. shows the number of respondents from each bank.

Table 3 Demographic Variables of Respondents

Attribute	Characteristics	Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	104	27
	Female	276	73
Position	Executive Level	126	33
	Non-Executive Level	254	67
Education Level	Middle School	1	1
	High School	2	1
	University Graduate	332	87
	Other (Master)	45	11
Working Experience	1-3 years	214	56
	4-6 years	108	28
	7-9 years	10	3
	10-12 years	8	2
	More than 12 years	40	11

Source: Survey Data (2016)

According to Table 3, total 380 respondents from the private banks participated in the study. In terms of gender composition, male respondents represented 27 percent

and female respondents constituted the majority, i.e 73 percent. Because of the job nature in banking industry, female workers are more demanded than the male workers and thus the proportion of the former is higher than the latter in a typical branch. In terms of position, 67 percent of the respondents are non-executive level including Junior Bank Assistance, Senior Bank Assistance, Junior Clerk, Senior Clerk, Supervisor, Assistant Supervisor, Officer, System Engineer and Network Engineer, and 33 percent of the respondents are from the executive level such as Manager, Assistant Manager and Deputy Manager. This reflects the hierarchy of work structure in most organizations in which there are large number of staff in the lower level of hierarchy.

In terms of education level, 87 percent of the respondents have got a bachelor degree, 11 percent of the respondents are master degree holders and only a tiny 2 percent are not university graduate. This is because that university graduate is threshold qualification of the banking industry. Thus majority of the respondents in the study hold their bachelor degree due to the requirement of the banking industry. In terms of working experiences, more than half of respondents have been working at their banks for 3 years or less, just over a quarter of them has between 4 and 6 years, 11 percent more than 12 years, 3 percent between 7 and 9 years and 2 percent between 10 and 12 years. The study shows the majority group of respondents with less than three years experience since the sample group consists of non-executive level. Another reason is most of the banks make new recruitments because of the growth of the banks.

3. Reliability and Validity Test

Reliability analysis is conducted by computing the Cronbach's alpha. The result of the study is presented in Table 4.

According to Table 4, compensation and benefits is measured with seven items but to strengthen the reliability of the factor in the study two items were deleted and have got Cronbach's alpha value of 0.77. Training and development is measured with nine items but to strengthen the reliability of the factor in the study two items were deleted and have got Cronbach's alpha value of 0.85. Health and safety is measured with eight items and have got Cronbach's alpha of 0.90. Work-life balance is measured with nine items but to strengthen the reliability of the factor in the study three items were deleted and have got Cronbach's alpha value of 0.74. Employee autonomy is measured with seven items but to strengthen the reliability of the factor in the study two items were deleted and have got Cronbach's alpha value of 0.81. Affective commitment is measured with eight items but to strengthen the reliability of the factor in the study three items were deleted and have got Cronbach's alpha value of 0.71. Continuance commitment is measured with eight items but to strengthen the

reliability of the factor in the study three items were deleted and have got Cronbach's alpha value of 0.80. Normative commitment is measured with eight items but to strengthen the reliability of the factor in the study two items were deleted and have got Cronbach's alpha value of 0.60. In summary, most of the items in the study would strengthen the reliability of the study according to their Cronbach's alpha value.

Table 4 Reliability Test

No.	Variables	Cronbach's Alpha	No. of Item	Items Retained
1	Compensation and Benefits	0.77	7	5
2	Training and Development	0.85	9	7
3	Health and Safety	0.90	8	8
4	Work-life Balance	0.74	9	6
5	Employee Autonomy	0.81	7	5
6	Affective Commitment	0.71	8	5
7	Continuance Commitment	0.80	8	5
8	Normative Commitment	0.60	8	6

Source: Survey Data (2016)

Factor analysis was done on the five dimensions of internal corporate social responsibility. Principal components analysis with varimax rotation was used to assess the dimensionality and uniqueness of the variables. The data was appropriate for factor analysis since the KMO's value was 0.709 for compensation and benefits, 0.900 for training and development and 0.898 for health and safety, 0.804 for work-life balance and 0.821 for employee autonomy exceeding the recommended value of 0.60. The overall significant of correlation among all items was also sufficient with Bartlett's test of sphericity achieving a p-value of less than 0.01. The Eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were maintained.

In this study, confirmatory factor analysis with varimax rotation was performed. For each measure variable, the value of factor loading of each variable above 0.50 was retained to do the final analysis. In this analysis, all items have factor loading value of 0.50 above. Thus, all factors are retained in the final analysis. Then factor analysis was done on the three components of employee commitment. Principal components analysis with varimax rotation was used to assess the dimensionality and uniqueness of the variables. The data was appropriate for factor analysis since the KMO's value was 0.60 for normative commitment, 0.67 for affective commitment and 0.76 for continuance commitment. The overall significant of correlation among all items was also sufficient with Bartlett's test of sphericity achieving a p-value of less than 0.01.

4. Employee Perception on Internal Corporate Social Responsibility

In this study, five-point Likert scale is used to indicate the level of respondent to all items (1= strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Thus, the mean values of all variables were further categorized into three levels of perception on internal corporate social responsibility. Mean value of less than 2.00 was categorized as low level perception; mean value between 2.00 and less than 3.50 was moderate level perception and mean value of 3.50 or above was categorized as high level of perception. This categorization is based on Sekaran (2010).

Table 5 Employee Perception on Internal Corporate Social Responsibility

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	Level of Perception
Training and Development	3.58	0.54	High
Employee Autonomy	3.56	0.66	High
Compensation and Benefits	3.31	0.69	Moderate
Work-life Balance	2.99	0.65	Moderate
Health and Safety	2.94	0.73	Moderate
Total	3.28	0.65	Moderate

Source: Survey Data (2016)

According to Table 5, most of the respondents agree upon the fact that their banks use the training and development as highest internal corporate social responsibility, representing 3.58 overall score. Another, internal corporate social responsibility practices that employees perceived they received from the bank are employee autonomy. Thus, it can be concluded that the private banks in Myanmar focuses the most on training and development, followed by, employee autonomy. Other internal corporate social responsibility practices such as compensation and benefits, work-life balance, and health and safety are perceived as moderately offered. On average, from the employee point of view the private banks in Myanmar adopt internal corporate social responsibility practices to a moderate level.

5. Effects of Internal Corporate Social Responsibility Practices on Employee Commitment

In this study, the dependent variables (affective commitment/ continuance commitment/ normative commitment) are explained by five independent variables (compensation and benefits, training and development, health and safety, work-life balance, and employee autonomy). This method is used to predict the change in dependent variable in response to changes in the independent variable. Employee commitment (Y) was expressed as a function of internal corporate social responsibilities

practices specified in the following regression equation:

$$Y = b_0 + b_1 X_1 + b_2 X_2 + b_3 X_3 + b_4 X_4 + b_5 X_5 + e$$

whereby,

Y	= Employee Commitment
b ₀	= Constant
b ₁	= Regression Coefficients for Independent Variables Xi
X ₁	= Compensation and Benefits
X ₂	= Training and Development
X ₃	= Health and Safety
X ₄	= Work-life Balance
X ₅	= Employee Autonomy
e	= Standard Error Term

Table 6 shows mean and standard deviations for the three components of commitment; affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Commitment is measured by five-point Likert scale.

Table 6 Employee Perception on Employee Commitment

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	Level of Commitment
Affective Commitment	3.43	0.62	Moderate
Normative Commitment	3.18	0.52	Moderate
Continuance Commitment	3.04	0.77	Moderate
Total	3.22	0.64	Moderate

Source: Survey Data (2016)

According to Table 6, respondents from private banks in Myanmar have the highest on affective commitment, followed by normative commitment, and then continuance commitment. Overall, the employees from the private banks in Myanmar have moderate level of commitment.

Multiple regression analysis was conducted to test the effect of internal corporate social responsibility practices on employee commitment in private banks in Myanmar. In the regression analysis, three components of employee commitment were regarded as the dependent variables and five dimensions of internal corporate social responsibility practices as independent variables.

Results of Internal Corporate Social Responsibility Practices on Affective Commitment.

$$Y = 0.985 + 0.316 X_1 + 0.096 X_2 + 0.002 X_3 - 0.014 X_4 + 0.306 X_5$$

(0.000) (0.000) (0.107) (0.958) (0.769) (0.000)

Results of regression analysis indicate that much of the variation in the dependent variable is explained with adjusted R² of 0.381 and F-value 47.736 (p<0.01) with five independent variable. Adjusted R² of 0.381 reveals that 38 percent of total variance of affective commitment is explained by internal corporate social responsibility practices.

According to results, compensation and benefits, and employee autonomy emerged as the most significant variables in explaining the variables in affective commitment. Training and development, health and safety, and work-life balance are insignificant variables in explaining the variance in affective commitment. It is of interest to note that only two dimensions of internal corporate social responsibility practices emerged as significant predictors of affective commitment in the case of private banks in Myanmar. They are compensation and benefits, and employee autonomy. In addition, multiple regression results indicated the ranking of the sources to understand the important and greater impact of sources on affective commitment. The higher the standardized coefficient beta brings the higher the effect and contribution on affective commitment. Compensation and benefits had the strongest effect on affective commitment with standardized coefficient beta of 0.316.

Results of Internal Corporate Social Responsibility Practices on Continuance Commitment

$$Y = 0.404 + 0.469 X_1 - 0.083 X_2 - 0.055 X_3 + 0.066 X_4 + 0.370 X_5$$

(0.077) (0.000) (0.259) (0.252) (0.276) (0.000)

Results of regression analysis indicate that much of the variation in the dependent variable is explained with adjusted R² of 0.373 and F-value 46.145 (p<0.01) with five independent variables. This figure reveals that 37.3 percent of total variance of continuance commitment is explained by internal corporate social responsibility practices.

According to results, compensation and benefits, and employee autonomy emerged as the significant variables in explaining the variance in continuance commitment. Training and development, health and safety, and work-life balance are insignificant variables in explaining the variance in continuance commitment. It is of interest to note that only two dimensions of internal corporate social responsibility practices emerged as the predictor of continuance commitment in the case of private banks in Myanmar. Compensation and benefits had the strongest effect on continuance commitment with a standardized coefficient beta of 0.469.

Results of Internal Corporate Social Responsibility Practices on Normative Commitment.

$$Y = 1.655 + 0.313 X_1 + 0.028 X_2 - 0.038 X_3 + 0.002 X_4 + 0.141 X_5$$

(0.000) (0.000) (0.598) (0.276) (0.956) (0.001)

Results of regression analysis indicate adjusted R² of 0.271 and F-value 29.119 (p<0.01) with five independent variables. Adjusted R² of 0.271 reveals that 27.1 percent of total variance of continuance commitment is explained by internal corporate social responsibility practices. That is five independent variables in the model accounts for 27.1 percent of total variance independent variable : normative commitment.

According to results, compensation and benefits, and employee autonomy emerged as the most significant variables in explaining the variance in normative commitment. These two practices are significant at one percent significant level. Training and development, health and safety, and work-life balance practices are insignificant variables in explaining the variance in normative commitment in private banks in Myanmar. It is of interest to note that two dimension of internal corporate social responsibility practices emerged as the predictors of normative commitment in the case of private banks in Myanmar. They are compensation and benefits, and employee autonomy. Compensation and benefits has the strongest effect on normative commitment with a standardized coefficient beta of 0.313.

III. Conclusion

1. Findings and Discussion

The findings of the study supported the importance of internal corporate social responsibility practices to increase the employee commitment in the private banks in Myanmar. The study identifies the most influential internal corporate social responsibility practices on employee commitment in private banks in Myanmar.

As part of preliminary analysis, demographic factors of the respondents in the study are explored according to the variables such as gender, education level, position, and working experience. Among the respondents in the study, the majority of respondents are employees from Kanbawza Bank Ltd. This is because Kanbawza Bank Ltd is the largest bank in Myanmar in terms of number of employees. Thus, higher proportion of the sample comes from Kanbawza Bank Ltd. Then, the second largest group is employees from Co-operative Bank Ltd, then followed by Ayeyarwaddy Bank

Ltd, Myanmar Apex Bank Ltd, Yoma Bank Ltd, Asia Green Development Bank Ltd, Myawaddy Bank Ltd, Global Treasure Bank Ltd, United Amara Bank Ltd, and Myanmar Oriental Bank Ltd. Regarding gender, it is found that more female respondents participated than the males do. This is not surprising since the nature of the work of banking sector demands more female workers than male workers and thus the proportion of the former is higher than the latter in a typical branch.

According to education level, majority of respondents are university graduates. This is because that university graduate is threshold qualification of the banking industry. Thus, majority of the respondents in the study are bachelor degree holders. According to the position of the respondents, majority of the respondents are non-executive level. Regarding their working experience, majority of the respondents have less than three years' service, following by respondents who have four to six years' services. Respondents with seven years and more services are only a little proportion of the sample in the study. This is because that the private banking industry is emerging industry in Myanmar. Most of the staff in the banks has short service years in their respective banks.

By using the Statistical Packages for Social Science 22, the collected data are checked for reliability and validity. Some of the items are deleted in the final analysis to strengthen the reliability of the instrument in the study. Regarding the validity, all the independent items in the study have factor loading value of 0.5 and above. Thus, all the items are retained in the final analysis. And the KMO value suggests that the data was appropriate for factor analysis in the study. The overall correlation between all the items was significant in the study.

Then, the study explores perceived internal corporate social responsibility practices in the private banks in Myanmar. In the current study, five main dimensions namely; compensation and benefits, training and development, employee autonomy, work-life balance, health and safety are included as the internal corporate social responsibility practices. These practices are measured from the employee point of view in the study. Thus, focus of the study is the employee perception on internal corporate social responsibility practices of the private banks. These practices are measured by using five-point Likert scale item (1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree). The higher mean value upon each item suggests that the employees have high perception on internal corporate social responsibility practices.

According to the data, the employees from private banks in Myanmar perceived that their banks are conducting high level of training and development, high level of employee autonomy, moderate level of compensation and benefits, moderate level of work-life balance, moderate level of health and safety. Thus, the private banks in Myanmar have moderate level of internal corporate social responsibility practices. This implies that the private banking sector in Myanmar makes fair investment in internal

corporate social responsibility.

After that the study measures the employee commitment level of private banks in Myanmar. Here, the commitments are divided into three components; namely affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment. To measure the commitment level, the study uses the five-point Likert scale assessing the agreement degree on the given statements (1=strongly disagree to 5 =strongly agree). Thus, the study suggests that the higher mean value, the higher commitment of the employees in the private banks. In comparison of the three components, it is found that continuance commitment is the highest among the employees from private banks in Myanmar, followed by affective commitment and then normative commitment. It implies that most of the employees in private banks have the fear of losing their jobs thus they have to stay with the current organization. Accordingly the study suggests that the private banks should also encourage their employees to experience greater affective commitment to feel more positive and more motivated and experience greater job satisfaction and increase intention to stay. When converting the numerical mean value to level of commitment, all three components of commitment are moderate level in the private banks in Myanmar.

The study explores the influential factors on three components of commitment in private banks in Myanmar using multiple regression analysis. Regarding the affective commitment, compensation and benefits, and employee autonomy are significant influential factors in the current context. Among them, compensation and benefit is the most influential factor. According to this result, it can be interpreted that affective commitment of employees in private banks in Myanmar is largely depend on compensation and benefits, and employee autonomy. This finding coincides with the previous literature on commitment of the employees. Thus, if the private banks have best practices for these two factors, their employees will have high level of affective commitment.

Regarding the continuance commitment, compensation and benefit, and employee autonomy are significant influential factors in this context. Among them, compensation and benefit is the most influential factor. According to this result, it can be interpreted that continuance commitment of employees in private banks in Myanmar was largely dependent on compensation and benefits, and employee autonomy. This finding coincides with the previous literature on commitment of the employees. Thus, if the private banks have best practices for these two factors, their employees have high level of continuance commitment.

Regarding the normative commitment, compensation and benefits, and employee autonomy are significant influential factors in the context of private banks in Myanmar. Among them, compensation and benefits is the most influential factor. According to this result, it can be interpreted that normative commitment of employees in private

banks in Myanmar was largely dependent on compensation and benefits, and employee autonomy. This finding coincides with the previous literature on commitment of the employees. Thus, if the private banks have best practices for these two factors, their employees have high level of normative commitment.

2. Suggestion and Recommendation

The results of this study have important implications both for theoretically and practical perspectives. From the theoretical perspectives, this study contributes to the impact of internal corporate social responsibility on the employee commitment in the Myanmar context. This impact and influences are tested in other context, but for Myanmar context this is the first attempt in this field of internal corporate social responsibility. Thus, this could stimulate further study in the area.

From a practical perspective, this study provides practitioners in private banking sector with key information that makes helpful for human resources management decisions and social responsibility decisions in Myanmar context. According to result, it can be interpreted that internal corporate social responsibility practices such as compensation and benefits, and employee autonomy largely determine the employee commitment of private banks in Myanmar. Thus, banks managers are suggested to improve the compensation and benefits practices to increase the employee commitment. Thus, they need to explore what types of compensation and benefits are important for their employees.

Another practice the banks manager must consider is employee autonomy which is the key determinant of employee commitment of employees in private banks in Myanmar. According to data, employees in the private banks perceived that they have high employee autonomy. If the employees have the chance to participate in decision making process and problem solving process in the work place to some extent, they have more attachment to the work place. Employee autonomy refers to the working cultures in which employees can make some decisions without referring higher authorities, employees can control work schedule by themselves, and they can give some opinions to higher management level. Thus employee autonomy would lead employees feel more empowerment and thus would support to strengthen the employee commitment. According to job characteristics model, employee autonomy is the one of the core job dimensions which increases the employee satisfaction and then employee commitment. Thus autonomous working culture for employees in private banks is important to increase employee intention.

The results of the study contributed to the recommendations for the improvement of the literature on internal corporate social responsibility and employee commitment, especially in private banking sector. These proposed factors are required to consider

by the firms and also the future studies should test these factors to create a more complete model of internal corporate social responsibility and employee commitment. In the current study, employee commitment is divided into three components.

It is important for every organization in different sectors to conduct a study on employee perception on internal corporate social responsibility practices and relationship between internal corporate social responsibility practices and employee commitment. Highly committed employees are the destiny of the organization including private banks in today competitive business environment. Therefore it is the need of the time to be watchful of their components of commitment and which factors are related with this level of commitment. Thus, the human resources department and compensation executives of private banks in Myanmar should take consideration practically the findings of the study as a guideline for them to provide a better working environment and increase their level of commitment. The suggestions and recommendations made in this study can be taken by the banks for further investigation on elements that are related with employee commitment. This may help the banks in enhancing their reputation and increased employee intention to stay, competitiveness and profitability in the long-run since committed employees are the most valuable resources for the banks in today world.

This study is considerably important since the banking industry now is interested in internal corporate social responsibility to attract and retain high quality employees because of the potential movement of employees from one bank to another. By practicing internal corporate social responsibility, employee confidence can be enhanced and this in turn helps them improve their work performance.

3. Needs for Further Study

The limitations in the current study may have some impact on generalization of the findings for the whole context of banking industry of Myanmar. Commercial banks and other banks run by government still plays important role in Myanmar banking sector. The internal corporate social responsibility field is relatively new for banking sector. This would lead some suggestions for further studies. The recommendations for future researches would provide several advantages in the exploration of new model or modifying the proposed model to gain a better understanding of the relationship between internal corporate social responsibility practices and employee commitments.

Further researchers are recommended to find out further on why the employee perception on internal corporate social responsibility practices is so important in an organization and why organizations wish to put so much effort in doing internal corporate social responsibility. For example, future researchers can expand the scale used in questionnaire (up to seven or ten point scales) and can enlarge the sample

size to get the more representative responses.

Further researchers are recommended to compare the commitment level between private banks and public banks in Myanmar, private banks in Myanmar and private banks in other cities to draw the conclusions on the whole banking sector.

Further researchers are recommended to compare the private banking sector with other service sectors to assess the level of commitment. This would provide the benchmarking for internal corporate social responsibility practices.

The study focuses only on survey and quantitative measurement which would limit the wider and rich information on target area. A greater depth of information can be obtained by integrating qualitative and quantitative methods in further researches on internal corporate social responsibility practices. For example, interview method, focus group methods for this kind of the study will elicit deeper information.

Finally, it is important for organization to understand what actually the employees wanted and needed in order to improve the employee commitment. This is because employees from different industries have different expectations based on the nature of their job.

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A New Interpretation of the Global Business Model : Focusing on the Fourth Industrial Revolution*¹⁾

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ABSTRACT : Until now, the industrial revolution has led to the development of technology, resulting in improved productivity and new employment. However, it is expected that the 4th Industrial Revolution will be accompanied by technological development and productivity improvement through this, but it is expected to reduce employment rather than job creation. In addition, in the existing economics, demand and supply are determined based on the scarcity of resources, and the price and quantity based on this are dominant. Based on the scarcity of resources, we set demand forecasts, supply price estimates, and business models based on them. However, due to the very high productivity that is characteristic of the Fourth Industrial Revolution, economics and business models based on the scarcity of resources in various fields have failed. The time has come for resources to set economics and business models based on infinity rather than scarcity. Under the Fourth Industrial Revolution, many economic and social changes are expected, and it is difficult to apply theories such as the demand and supply based on the scarcity of existing resources and the determination of the price and quantity. Also, it is difficult to apply the business model based on the scarcity of existing resources to reality. In this article, we have examined the changes in economic principles and business models that are changing under the fourth industry.

Key words : New Economics, New Business Model, Shared Economics, Industrial Revolution,

I. Introduction

The term industrial revolution was first used by economist Arnold Toynbee in his book, *Lectures on the Industrial Revolution*, in 1884, in which "technological innovation in the history of mankind and the transformation of the social and economic structure

* This paper is a revised paper from the 2nd ICOFIS international conference.

that accompanied it". It is not a technology that shines and disappears, but a revolution that changes the technology and the social structure so that the related technologies develop in a chain.

The Fourth Industrial Revolution is an extension of the tertiary industrial revolution based on information and communication technology (ICT), but it is very different from the existing industrial revolution. If the past 1, 2, and 3 industrial revolutions were the process of automation and connection enhancement by replacing mainly manual labor such as human hands and feet, the 4th Industrial Revolution represented by AI would be replaced by the human brain . As a result, it is expected to be a turning point that will bring enormous changes both economically and socially.

Under the Fourth Industrial Revolution, many economic and social changes are expected, and it is difficult to apply theories such as the demand and supply based on the scarcity of existing resources and the determination of the price and quantity. Also, it is difficult to apply the business model based on the scarcity of existing resources to reality. In this article, we have examined the changes in economic principles and business models that are changing under the fourth industry.

II. What is the Industrial Revolution?

The Industrial Revolution refers to major changes in society and economics that have arisen from the mid-18th century to the early nineteenth century, the transformation of technology from the UK in the period 1760 to 1820 and the shift to new manufacturing processes, . The term "industrial revolution" was first used in 1844 by Friedrich Engels in "The Condition of the Working Class in England," and later on by Arnold Toynby in 1884, "Lectures on the Industrial Revolution of the Eighteenth Century in England".

1. 1st, 2nd and 3rd industrial revolutions, productivity and employment

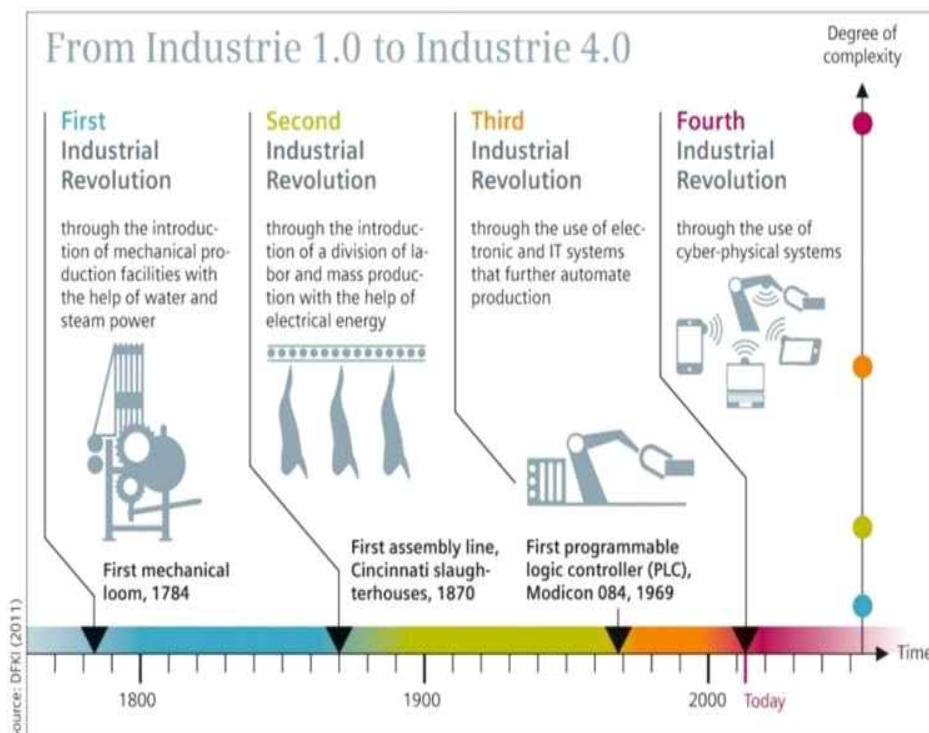
The lessons of the history of the first, second and third industrial revolutions were that technology innovation changed the form of industry but did not reduce the overall job. With the advent of machines and IT, productivity has increased, but market demand has increased faster. As a result, technological advances and opposing jobs have disappeared, and new jobs have been created in new markets where technology advances. In the traditional industrial revolution, the development of technology has led to an increase in productivity, and the employment of new fields has expanded.

1) The first industrial revolution

The first Industrial Revolution (the first industrial revolution) took place in Europe and America from the 18th to the 19th century. We saw the transition from agricultural society to rural society to industry and city. The steel industry played a key role in the industrial revolution with the development of steam engines.

2) The Second Industrial Revolution

The Second Industrial Revolution took place between 1870 and 1914, just before the First World War. It was the growth phase of the existing industry and used electricity for expansion and mass production of new industries such as steel, petroleum and electricity. Major technological advances during this period included motor, telephone, light bulb, phonograph, internal combustion engine.



Source : <https://techburst.io/>

3) The Third Industrial Revolution

The Third Industrial Revolution or Digital Revolution refers to the development of technology from analog electronic and mechanical devices to digital technologies currently available. This era that began in the 1970s is continuing. The development of the Third Industrial Revolution includes personal computers, the Internet and information and communication technology (ICT).

2. The Fourth Industrial Revolution, Productivity and Employment

The Fourth Industrial Revolution refers to the revolutionary era of convergence of Information and Communication Technology (ICT). The Fourth Industrial Revolution is a term advocated by the World Economic Forum (WEF) in 2016, chaired by Klaus Schwab.

The Fourth Industrial Revolution is a new innovation in six areas: Big Data Analysis, Artificial Intelligence, Robotics, Internet of Objects, Unmanned Vehicles (Unmanned Aerial Vehicles, Unmanned Vehicles), 3D Printing, and Nanotechnology.

Will the fourth industrial revolution also increase productivity and employment? Artificial intelligence is innovating the domain of experts through machine learning. Professional analysts say that professions such as lawyers, lawyers, accountants, doctors, journalists, and financial professionals disappear.

In other words, the fourth industrial revolution is expected to improve productivity due to technological progress, but it is hard to expect the creation of new employment such as the existing industrial revolution. It is expected that the productivity improvement due to the development of technology, but the reduction of employment in existing fields due to artificial intelligence will be serious

According to the World Economic Forum's Future of Jobs Report released last year, about 7.1 million jobs are likely to disappear from sectors like manufacturing and office jobs by 2020 in 15 major countries in the world. The report said 2 million new jobs will be created in areas like computers and mathematics, which means a net loss of 5.1 million.

"People in the past worried about losing their jobs and, in fact, some of the basic manufacturing jobs have disappeared," said Ahn Sang-hoon, director and vice president of industry and service economy department at the Korea Development Institute. "But one interesting thing is that there were a lot more new jobs created from going through industrial revolutions. The employment rate has not been dragged down due to the revolutions."

III. Traditional Economics and Business Models

1. Existing Economics

- o The scarcity of resources
- o Based on perfect competition (Price taker, fair profit)

2. An existing success concept?

- o High price
- o Increase revenue per unit
- o Increase in profit / short-term profit

3. An existing business model?

- o Cash Flow
- o NPV, IRR, B / C

IV. Economics and Business Model in the Age of the Fourth Industrial Revolution?

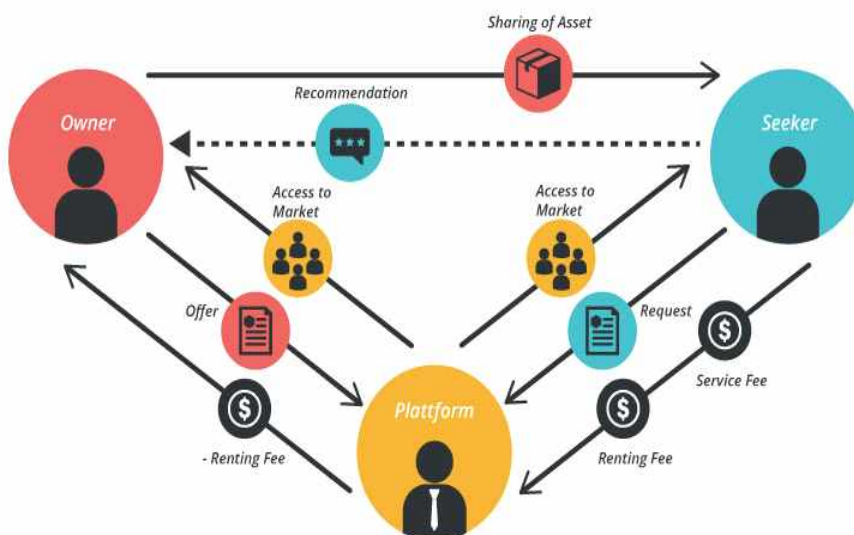
1. Economics

- o Unlimited Resources
- o Shared economy (Uber, Airbnbi, Eudubu, Facebook,)
- o Collective intelligence (Uber, Airbieni, Eudubu, Facebook,)
- o Win-Win
- o consumer-oriented price setter, minimum profit

2. Concept of success?

- o Sustainability
- o Continuous customer expansion
- o Maintain low prices

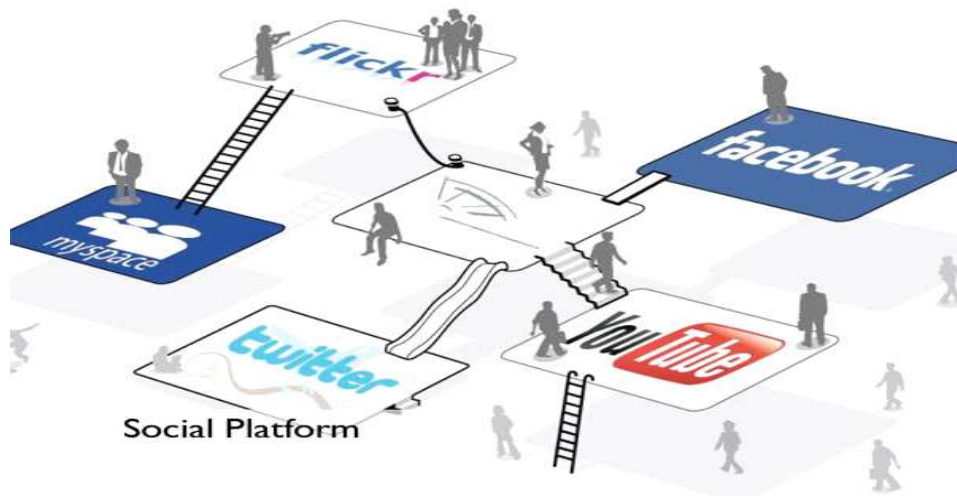
Sharing Economy



Business Model **Toolbox**

3. Business model?

- o Consider long-term cash flow
- o Securing long-term sustainability
- o Secure the platform
- o Expanded lock-in effect by expanding continuous benefits to customers
- o Exclusive competitiveness secured by low price (high benefit expansion)



V. Conclusion and implications?

Until now, the industrial revolution has led to the development of technology, resulting in improved productivity and new employment. However, it is expected that the 4th Industrial Revolution will be accompanied by technological development and productivity improvement through this, but it is expected to reduce employment rather than job creation.

In addition, in the existing economics, demand and supply are determined based on the scarcity of resources, and the price and quantity based on this are dominant. Based on the scarcity of resources, we set demand forecasts, supply price estimates, and business models based on them.

However, due to the very high productivity that is characteristic of the Fourth Industrial Revolution, economics and business models based on the scarcity of resources in various fields have failed. The time has come for resources to set economics and business models based on infinity rather than scarcity.

In other words, in order to acquire monopoly power in a resource-rich state, prices should be continuously lowered, and consumers should benefit.

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Border Trade between Myanmar and Neighboring Countries

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ABSTRACT: This study examines border trade between Myanmar and its neighboring countries, namely China, Thailand, Bangladesh and India from 2005/06 to 2016/17. The volume of border trade between Myanmar and China is the largest among trade relation between Myanmar and its neighboring countries such as China, Thailand, India and Bangladesh. According to the balance of trade between two countries, it is found that Myanmar is favorable in trade relation between Myanmar and China except 2008/09 and 2009/10. In addition, it is seen that the value of trade between two countries gradually increases during the study period. The amount of border trade between Myanmar and Thailand is the second largest among these four neighboring countries. The relationship between Myanmar and Thailand becomes larger and larger. However, it is found that Myanmar is unfavorable in trade with Thailand as trade balance between the two countries is negative. Trade flow between Myanmar and Bangladesh takes the third place during the period from 2005/06 to 2011/12. Myanmar is favorable in trading with Bangladesh. However, it is found that the amount of border trade between the two countries becomes lesser and lesser. Regarding trade with India, it is found that trade flow between the two countries becomes the third place beyond the year 2011/12 due to the political conflict between Myanmar and Bangladesh. Based on the balance of trade between the two countries, it is found that Myanmar is favorable in trading with India.

Key words : Border Trade, Myanmar, Thailand, India, China, Bangladesh,

I. Introduction

1. Background

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Based on a number of literatures, trade plays an essential role in economic growth of a country. Accordingly, countries in the world are trying to achieve foreign exchange through trade with other countries for their economic growth. By trade with each other, countries can achieve all goods and services what they need although they cannot produce in their countries. At the same time, countries can achieve their income by selling their products what they produce. Therefore, countries are always trying to expand international trade in the globalization age.

Myanmar transformed economic system from centrally planned economic system to market-oriented one in late 1988. Since then, a number of structural reforms including trade sector reforms have been introduced in order to encourage participation of private sectors in various areas. Aiming at promoting international trade, Myanmar has modified export/import policy and procedures based on the principle of liberalization in line with the economic system of the country. Accordingly, this study examines how Myanmar trades with neighboring countries through border trade channel.

2. Objective of the Study

The objective of the study is to analyze the trade flow between Myanmar and its neighboring countries; namely China, Thailand, India and Bangladesh.

3. Method of Study

Descriptive analysis is used to describe the amount of export and import, and the flow of goods between Myanmar and each neighboring country.

II. Trade Environment in Myanmar

After changing a centrally planned economic system to a market-oriented economic one in late 1988, a number of structural reforms have been started in the context of trade, investment and each and every sector. In line with market-oriented economic system, the government encouraged the private sectors to participate actively in foreign trade. In addition, Myanmar introduced trade liberalization measures³⁾ as follows;

1. To be in line with the changing economic system, the private individuals or enterprises were allowed to carry out the export import business which was

3) Ministry of Commerce

- previously monopolized by the state.
2. Border Trade was regularized in order to develop and strengthen the bilateral trade relations with the five neighboring countries. Department of Border Trade was established and its 11 branch offices providing one - stop service for border trade matters in collaboration with various departments concerned.
 3. Export and Import procedures were realigned.
 4. Lowered the technical barriers to trade and simplified export/ import procedures; geared towards trade facilitation and promotion.
 5. Incentives were given to exporters by allowing 100 % retention of export earnings for importation of goods.
 6. Trade notifications were issued by specifying necessary rules in conformity to the changing internal and external business environment.
 7. Exempted commercial tax and customs duty on the imported items like fertilizers, agricultural machineries and implements, insecticides and pesticides, medicines and raw materials.
 8. The role of Chambers of Commerce and Industry reactivated and reorganized the Union of Myanmar Federation of Chambers of Commerce and Industry - UMFCCI for the promotion of trade and industry of the private sector.

Regarding the registration of exporter and importer, the Directorate of Trade under the Ministry of Commerce lay down as follows⁴⁾;

- (a) The following enterprises to register under Myanmar Companies Act and Special Company Act of 1950
 - Limited Companies (inclusive of foreign companies /branches)
 - Joint Venture Corporation.
- (b) Co-operatives societies to register under the Co-operative Societies Law.

Regarding the rights of the registered exporter and importer, the Directorate of Trade under the Ministry of Commerce lay down as follows⁵⁾;

- (a) In compliance with the prescribed rules and regulation, to export all products except those which are prohibited by the state and the products prescribed to be solely undertaken by the state-owned economic enterprise;
- (b) In compliance with the prescribed rules and regulation, to import all products with the foreign exchange (earned on export) or using any other permitted methods of import;
- (c) In compliance with the prescribed rules and regulation, to do border trade

4) op-cit

5) ibid

- business but registered exporter/importer should not be a foreign firm;
- (d) To distribute by whatever means available in the local market;
 - (e) To apply for issuance of business pass-port;
 - (f) To receive the foreign guests for business negotiation.

The documents attached for applying import licenses are as follows⁶;

- (a) Import License application letter with company's letter head
- (b) Import License application letter
- (c) The original copy of Proforma Invoice
- (d) Sales contract
- (e) Export Earning recommendation
- (f) Recommendation from relevant government departments (If needed)

The followings⁷ are necessary documents for Applications of the registration

- (a) The original "Memorandum of Association" and "Articles of Association"
- (b) Application Form with Company Letter Head
- (c) Exporter/Importer Registration Form
- (d) The Copy of the letter of the Company Registration Office for the issuing of Certificate of Registration
- (e) Two copies of the Certificate of Company Registration
- (f) The certified copy of Form 26 which is recognized by Company Registration Office.
- (g) The copies of National Registration Card (or) Citizenship Scrutiny Card, Photo and Specimen Signature of Board of Directors
- (h) Certificate of the Membership of UMFCCL

The documents attached for applying import licenses are as follows⁸;

- (a) Application Form with the company's Letter Head
- (b) Online Export Application Form
- (c) Proforma Invoice/Sales Contract
- (d) Copy of Certificate of Exporter & Importer Registration
- (e) Necessary documents to be submitted for the exported commodity
- (f) Recommendations from related ministries concerned

Regarding the licensing process for exporters and importers, the Ministry of Commerce lay down online licensing application procedures as follows⁹;

6) op-cit

7) ibid

8) ibid

- (1) Applying the licence through the website, Myanmartradenet.com, where the application form can be downloaded.
- (2) Applying the licence through Public Access Center (PAC) where soft copy of application form can be available or PAC staff fills application form with the data provided by the exporter/importer in CD/Diskette/Stick.
- (3) Applying license through "Online Service Center" where the staffs will carry out license applying process on behalf of exporter or importer.

All the online applications are then transferred to the respective departments and invoice, contract and other related documents are to be sent through fax for scrutinizing process.

III. Border Trade with Neighboring Countries

Nations in the world trade with each other either normal channel or border trade channel. Border trade is also important for promoting international trade. Historically, Myanmar has been trading with its neighboring countries. Historical records said that Myanmar exported rice, cotton, salt, feather, best nest and ivory to neighboring countries, and imported silk, velvet, gold bars, pepper, species, various types of fruits jam and kitchen utensils from neighboring countries. Among them, Myanmar mainly exports cotton to China and mainly imports silk from China, and mainly exports rice to India and mainly imports spices from India in olden times. Under the period of British colony during the period of 1885 and 1948, Myanmar-China border trade became developed. From the onset of independence in 1948 to 1962 which is taken power by the Revolutionary council, Myanmar's trade with neighboring countries was significant. After that, the monopoly power in trade sector was taken by the government alone till 1988 which is changed from the centrally planned economic system to market- oriented one.

Only after 1988, Myanmar traded with neighboring countries; China, Thailand, India and Bangladesh. Moreover, the Department of Border Trade under the Ministry of Commerce was established in 1996, aiming at strong trade activities between two countries. The Department of Border Trade laid down the main responsibilities¹⁰⁾ as follows:

- To boost bilateral trade with neighbors through formal border trade channels

9) op-cit

10) op-cit

- To issue export and import licenses in accordance with Border Trade Services
- To build up a strong friendship with neighboring countries
- To support private entrepreneurs on border trade
- To facilitate border trade by smoothing commodities flows.

Border trade offices such as Muse (105 mile), Lwejel, Chinshwehaw along Myanmar – China border, Tachileik, Kawthaung, Myawaddy, Myeik (FOB)¹¹⁾ along Myanmar – Thailandborder, Tamu, Rhilalong Myanmar – India border, and Maungtaw, Sittway (FOB) along Myanmar – Bangladeshborder have been opened. The lists of Border Trade Posts¹²⁾ are as follows:

(a) Myanmar - China Border Area

- (i) Muse (105 mile) 21.1.98
- (ii) Lwejel 23.8.98
- (iii) Chinshwehaw 19.10.03
- (iv) Kanpaikktee 25.12.03
- (v) Kyaing Ton 9.4.14

(b) Myanmar - Thailand Border Area

- (i) Tachileik 16.3.96
- (ii) Myawaddy 16.9.98
- (iii) Kawthaung 1.6.96
- (iv) Myeik(FOB) 1.7.99
- (v) Htee Khee 23.2.11
- (vi) Maw Taung 8.5.13

(c) Myanmar-India Border Area

- (i) Tamu 12.4.05
- (ii) Rhi 10.12.03

(d) Myanmar-Bangladesh Border Area

- (i) Sittwe 11.12.98
- (ii) Maungdaw 5.9.95

In fact, Myanmar and its neighboring countries are operating by both the channels of sea-borne trade and border trade. The border trade flow between Myanmar and its neighboring countries is shown in the following table.

11) op-cit

12) op-cit

Table 1. Border Trade Flow between Myanmar and Its Neighboring Countries

S.N	Year	Thailand		India		China		Bangladesh		Total
		Trade	%	Trade	%	Trade	%	Trade	%	
1	2005-06	199.1	27.778	15.411	2.1502	481.36	67.16	20.864	2.9111	716.73
2	2006-07	300.23	27.478	15.772	1.4435	749.76	68.621	26.853	2.4577	1092.6
3	2007-08	304.74	22.92	14.831	1.1155	977.43	73.517	32.537	2.4473	1329.5
4	2008-09	327.35	24.275	9.8811	0.7328	986.6	73.164	24.652	1.8281	1348.5
5	2009-10	274.65	19.849	13.734	0.9926	1076.8	77.823	18.48	1.3356	1383.7
6	2010-11	298.98	14.035	12.801	0.6009	1800.3	84.513	18.125	0.8509	2130.2
7	2011-12	343.31	10.193	15.409	0.4575	2985.4	88.641	23.86	0.7084	3368
8	2012-13	418.55	12.41	12.027	0.3566	2938.1	87.119	3.831	0.1136	3372.5
9	2013-14	650.13	14.17	45.135	0.9838	3870	84.349	22.83	0.4976	4588.1
10	2014-15	825.44	12.162	60.726	0.8947	5886.7	86.733	14.285	0.2105	6787.1
11	2015-16	1119.8	15.653	71.644	1.0015	5950.7	83.181	11.762	0.1644	7153.9
12	2016-17	1381.6	17.764	87.896	1.1301	6297.4	80.97	10.594	0.1362	7777.4

Source: Custom + DOBT

As seen above table, border trade volume between Myanmar and China takes the first place, and trade volume between Myanmar and Thailand is in the second place. Trade flow between Myanmar and Bangladesh takes the third place during the period from 2005/06 to 2011/12. However, trade flow between Myanmar and India becomes the third place beyond the year 2011/12 due to the political conflict between the two countries.

1 Border Trade Flow between Myanmar and Thailand

As Myanmar and Thailand are neighboring countries, trade relationship between two countries via border area has started a long – long ago since after the independence of Myanmar in 1948. However, border trade between the two countries was informal under the Myanmar Socialist Party era from 1974 to late 1988. Only after the economic system was changed from the centrally planned economic system to market-oriented economic system in late 1988, Myanmar began formally trade relationship with Thailand through border area. Border trade flow between two

countries is shown in the following table.

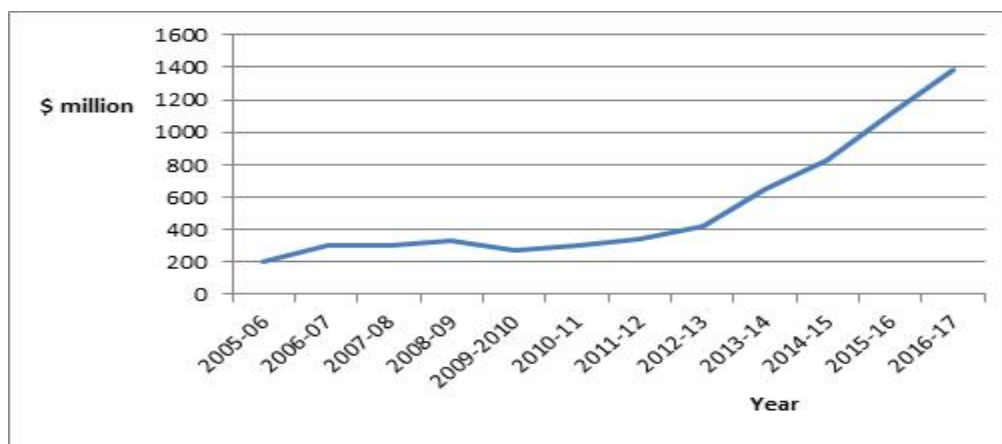
Table 2. Border Trade Flow between Myanmar and Thailand (US \$ million)

S.N	Year	Export	Import	T/B	Trade	Total Trade with Thailand	% of border trade in total trade
1	2005-06	113.763	85.333	28.43	199.096	1593.542	12.494
2	2006-07	157.597	142.63	14.967	300.227	2712.256	11.069
3	2007-08	148.957	155.778	-6.821	304.735	3193.684	9.542
4	2008-09	137.86	189.488	-51.628	327.348	3024.649	10.823
5	2009-2010	139.2207	135.428	3.7927	274.6487	3576.443	7.679
6	2010-11	151.621	147.36	4.261	298.981	3614.267	8.272
7	2011-12	175.162	168.143	7.019	343.305	4514.966	7.604
8	2012-13	224.572	193.973	30.599	418.545	4697.37	8.910
9	2013-14	215.146	434.983	-219.837	650.129	5666.484	11.473
10	2014-15	183.978	641.464	-457.486	825.442	5711.192	14.453
11	2015-16	243.065	876.718	-633.653	1119.783	4866.067	23.012
12	2016-17	314.735	1066.824	-752.089	1381.559	4288.174	32.218

Source: Custom + DOBT

According to the above table, it is found that the value of border trade between the two countries increase gradually year by year. As the balance of trade is negative, it can be said that Myanmar is unfavorable in border trade with Thailand. The pattern of border trade flow between two countries is shown in the following figure.

Figure 1. Pattern of Border Trade Flow between Myanmar and Thailand



Source: Table 2.

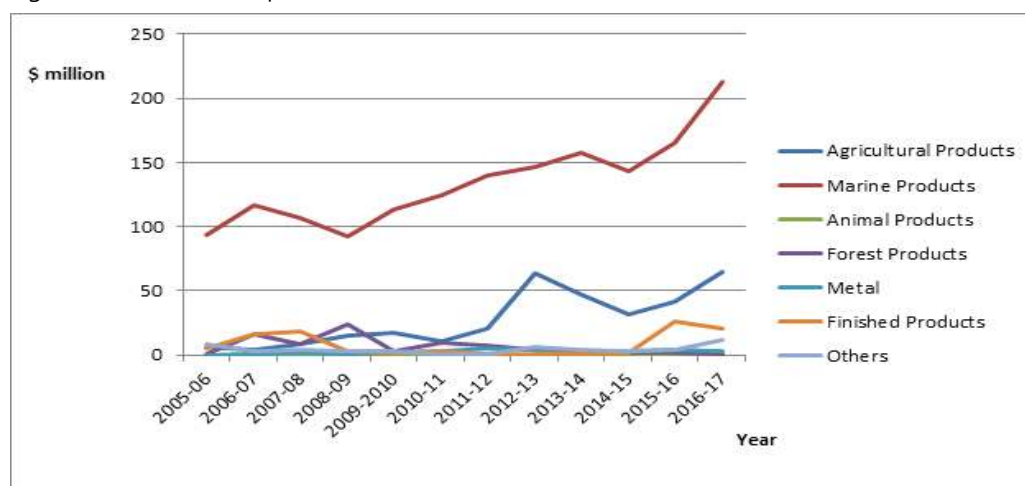
Agricultural products, marine products, forest products, metal, finished products and others are being exported to Thailand. Among them, marine products are main export commodities during the study period. As agricultural products, rice, maize, green gram, fermented soya beans, pea nut, sesame, mango, coconut, raw rubber, rubber latex, orange, cashew nut, turmeric, ginger, onion, garlic, tea leaf (dried), watermelon, betel nut, and coffee (seed) are being exported. Animal products such as leather (raw and finished), marine products such as fish, prawn, crab and eel, metal such as ore, forest products such as hardwood, and finished products such as ready-made clothes are being exported. In order to see obviously, the pattern of Export Commodities to Thailand is shown in Figure (2).

Table 3. Commodities of Export to Thailand US\$ million

S.N	Particulars	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17
1	Agricultural Products	6.008	4418	8.782	14.67	17.08	10.2	20.25	63.14	46.94	31.46	41.75	64.88
2	Marine Products	93.71	116.3	107	92.5	113.1	124.5	140.3	146.3	158	142.9	165.1	213.3
3	Animal Products	0	0.213	0.038	0.055	0.124	0.1	0.034	0.054	0.047	0.159	0.17	0.743
4	Forest Products	1.197	16.09	8.061	24.3	2.581	9.78	7.735	3.537	2.546	1.684	1.312	0.92
5	Metal	0	1.108	2.146	0.298	1.787	3.462	5.092	3.973	2.703	3.409	4.188	3.067
6	Finished Products	4.718	16.17	18.88	2.955	1.751	2.918	0.813	1.285	1.145	1.634	26.22	20.37
7	Others	8.128	3.252	4.011	3.087	2.782	0.652	0.912	6.281	3.804	2.728	4.353	11.46

Source: Custom + DOBT

Figure 2. Pattern of Export Commodities to Thailand



Source: Table (3)

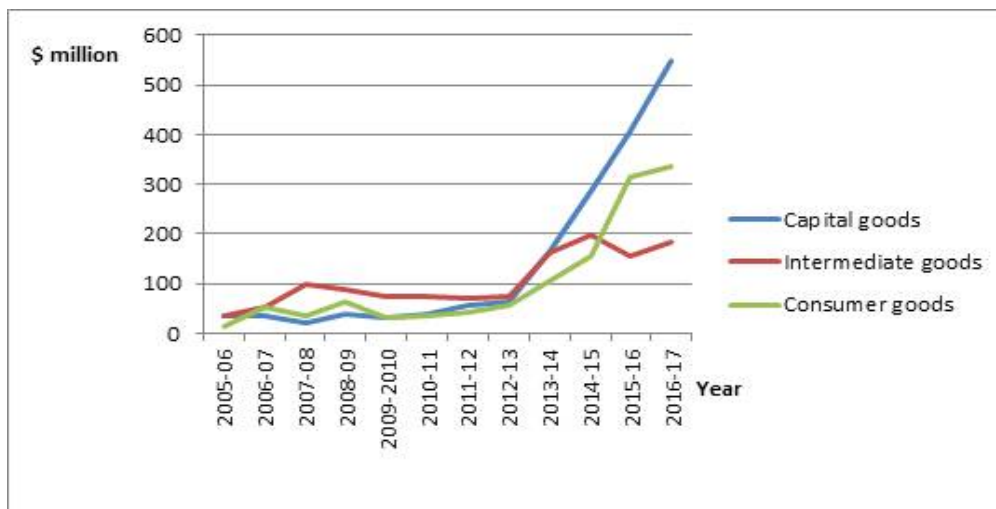
Looking at commodities of import from Thailand, it is found that capital goods, intermediate goods and consumer goods are being imported during the study period. Specifically, cement, net, train and spare parts, aero-plane and spare parts, car and spare parts, ship and spare parts, tractors, agriculture used vehicles and other vehicles, telephone and phone related goods, television, computers and computer related goods, air-conditioned, engine, machine, glass construction goods, mineral construction goods, iron and steel construction goods, wire ropes, motorcycles and related goods, bicycle spare parts, telescope, camera, film machines, chemical instruments, and other goods, wheat and wheat flour, oil related goods, industry used oil, chemical, dye, paint and polish, fertilizer, plastic raw material, commodities made by leather and synthetic leather, rubber raw materials, news papers, printing papers, industry used papers, cigarette papers, other papers, chemical cotton fibre, other cotton fibre, iron and steel goods, raw mineral goods, zinc sheet, tyre and tube, and other goods, sewing machine, battery (dried), electric bulb, condensed milk, milk powder, seasoning powder, condiment, palm oil, cotton cloth, sewing thread, pharmaceutical, soap, tooth paste, furniture, beverage, cosmetics, sports goods, coffee, dried tea leaves, goods which are made by tobacco leaf, lace cloth, ready - made clothes, kitchen utensil, spectacles or glasses and related goods, and other goods are being imported. The pattern of import commodities from Thailand is shown in Figure (3).

Table 4. Commodities of Import from Thailand (\$ million)

S.N	Particulars	2005 -06	2006 -07	2007 -08	2008 -09	2009 -201 0	2010 -11	2011 -12	2012 -13	2013 -14	2014 -15	2015 -16	2016 -17
1	Capital goods	34.33	35.73	21.68	37.32	32.34	37.56	56.57	63.91	165.5	285.9	405.9	547.9
2	Intermediate goods	36.06	54.43	97.75	89.1	72.46	74.09	70.54	73.24	162	199.6	156.9	184.4
3	Consumer goods	14.94	52.48	36.35	63.07	30.63	35.71	41.04	56.83	107.5	156	314	334.4

Source: Custom + DOBT

Figure 3. Pattern of Import Commodities from Thailand



Source: Table (4)

2. Border Trade Flow between Myanmar and India

As India and Myanmar are neighboring countries, trade relation between two countries has been established since loads of years ago. Under the centrally planned economic system, there were informal trade between Myanmar and India in border area. Since the changing market-oriented economic system in late 1988, the two countries have been operating formally trade relation in border area. The border trade volume between two countries increased significantly during the period of 2005/06 and 2016/17, accounts for US \$ 15.411 million in 2005/06 and US \$ 87.896 million in 2016/17. Trade relationship via border between Myanmar and India is shown in Table (5). As shown in table, it can be said that Myanmar trade with India is favorable seeing that trade balance between two countries is positive. Figure (4) shows trade flow between two countries in order to see straightforwardly.

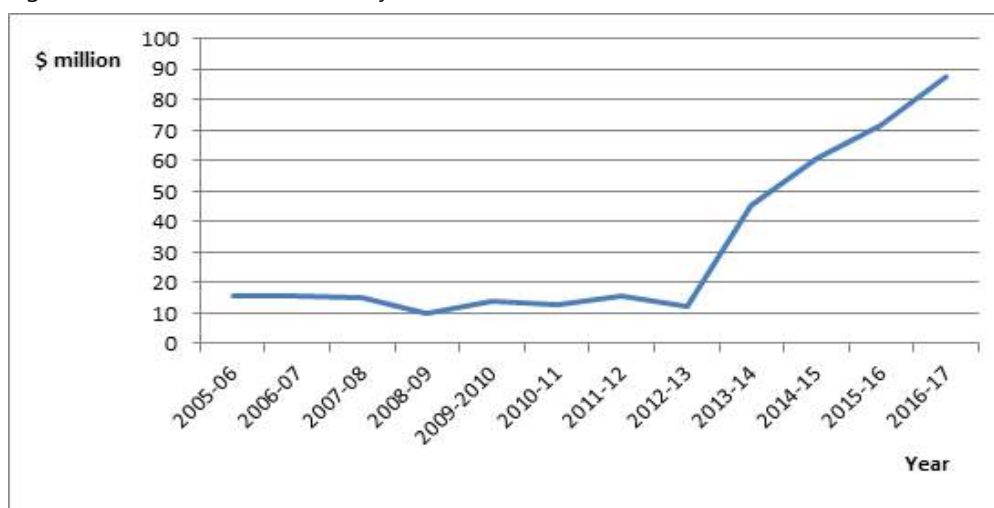
Table 5. Border Trade Flow between Myanmar and India(US\$ million)

S.N	Year	Export	Import	T/B	Trade	Total Trade with India	% of border trade in total trade
1	2005-06	11.277	4.134	7.143	15.411	569.258	2.7072083
2	2006-07	11.0222	4.75	6.2722	15.7722	893.848	1.7645282
3	2007-08	10.9092	3.922	6.9872	14.8312	886.241	1.6734951
4	2008-09	5.4851	4.396	1.0891	9.8811	948.765	1.0414697

5	2009-2010	7.788	5.946	1.842	13.734	1206.682	1.1381623
6	2010-11	8.2805	4.52	3.7605	12.8005	1067.056	1.199609
7	2011-12	8.869	6.54	2.329	15.409	1371.366	1.1236242
8	2012-13	8.857	3.17	5.687	12.027	1320.396	0.9108631
9	2013-14	27.971	17.1644	10.8066	45.1354	1636.933	2.7573151
10	2014-15	42.613	18.113	24.5	60.726	1340.58	4.5298304
11	2015-16	53.027	18.617	34.41	71.644	1711.517	4.1859941
12	2016-17	63.461	24.435	39.026	87.896	1942.854	4.5240661

Source: Custom + DOBT

Figure 4. Trade Flow between Myanmar and India



Source: Table (5)

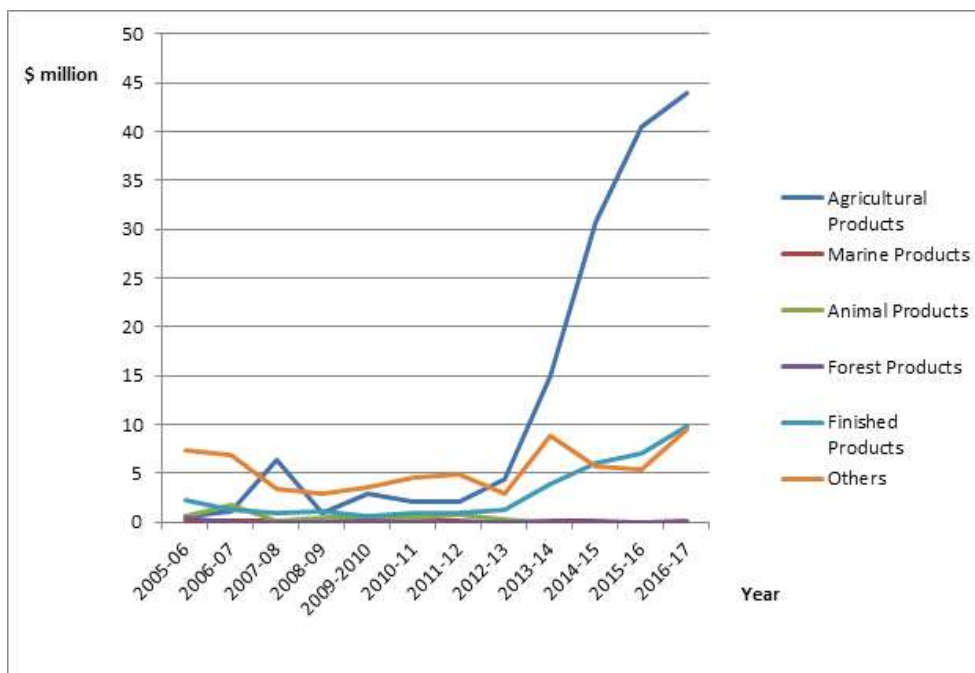
Agricultural products, marine products, animal products, forest products, finished products and others are exported to India. Specifically, fermented soya beans, garlic, tobacco leaf, betel nut, mango, apple, watermelon, plum, coconut and pepper, fish, and ready-made clothes are being exported. Being agriculture based country; Myanmar can mainly export only agricultural products, as seen in the following table.

Table 6. Commodities of Export to India (US \$ million)

S.N	Particulars	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-2010	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17
1	Agricultural Products	0.635 2	1.125	6.441 2	1.012 2	2.842 1	2.041 5	2.111	4.381	15.01 5	30.70 9	40.54 6	43.98 2
2	Marine Products	0.041	0.041	0.044	0.062 5	0.109	0.165	0.066	0.037	0.107	0.075	0.015	0.118
3	Animal Products	0.56	1.759	0.12	0.411 3	0.652	0.478	0.86	0.24	0	0	0	0
4	Forest Products	0.485	0	0.004	0	0.003	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5	Metal	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6	Finished Products	2.264	1.231 2	0.96	1.039 4	0.544	0.963	0.911	1.303	3.915	6.1	7.006	9.797
7	Others	7.291 8	6.866	3.34	2.959 7	3.638	4.633	4.921	2.896	8.934	5.729	5.46	9.564

Source: Custom + DOBT

Figure 5. Commodities of Export to India



Source: Table (6)

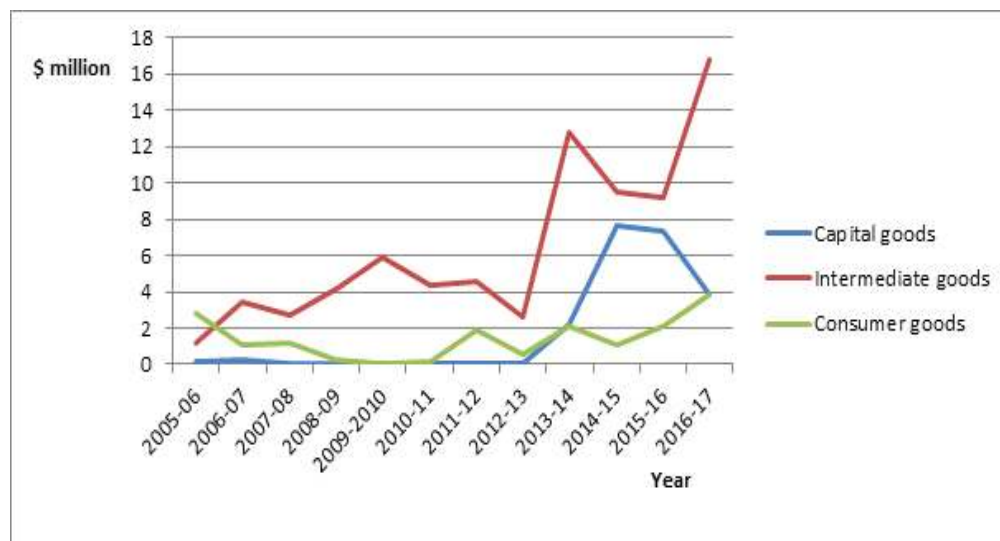
As commodities of import from India, capital goods, intermediate goods and consumer goods are imported from India. Specifically, Myanmar are importing motorcycle, bicycle and spare parts, wheat flour, dye, fertilizer, plastic raw materials, chemical cotton fiber, other cotton fiber, tyre and tube, sewing machine, cotton cloth, pharmaceutical, soap, cosmetics and ready-made clothes from India.

Table 7. Commodities of Import from India (US \$ million)

S.N	Particulars	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-2010	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17
1	Capital goods	0.115	0.225	0.023	0.015	0.014	0.045	0.012	0	2.191	7.602	7.384	3.809
2	Intermediate goods	1.183	3.445	2.721	4.14	5.89	4.32	4.598	2.57	12.8204	9.474	9.181	16.806
3	Consumer goods	2.836	1.08	1.178	0.241	0.042	0.155	1.93	0.6	2.153	1.037	2.052	3.82

Source: Custom + DOBT

Figure 6. Pattern of Import Commodities from India



Source: Table (7)

3. Border Trade Flow between Myanmar and China

China is situated on the northern part of Myanmar. It is also the longest border of the country, accounts for 1384 miles. Since a number of years ago, Myanmar and China has started trade relation via border area. The volume of border trade between two countries is the largest among trade relation between Myanmar and another each

neighboring countries such as Thailand, India and Bangladesh. Based on the China Customs data, the trade volume of coastal areas, such as Shanghai, Shenzhen, Huangpu, Nanjing represents a large amount of the whole China's trade, and the trade volume of Kunming, which is capital city of Yunan Province, is less than one percent of the whole China's trade. The Department of Border Trade under the Ministry of Commerce, Myanmar said that rice, broken rice, sticky rice, maize, green gram, pigeon pea, chick pea, fermented soya beans, butter bean, bitter lablab, peanut, sesame, roasted sesame, cotton, watermelon, melon, mango, cashew nut, raw rubber, coffee (seed), tumeric, ginger, onion, dried plum, roselle cardamom, tamarind, banana, betel nut, tea leaf (dried), fish, prawn, eel, crab, ore, jade, rattan /cane, sugar, ready-made clothes, jewellery, natural gas, re-export(refined sugar), re-export (high speed) re-export (MOGAS 92 Ron), re-export (tyre), re-export (rice), re-export (garlic) and hair are mainly exported to China.

Cement, net, train and spare parts, aero-plane and spare parts, car and spare parts, ship and spare parts, tractors, agriculture used vehicles and other vehicles, telephone and phone related goods, television, computers and computer related goods, air-conditioned, engine, machine, glass construction goods, mineral construction goods, iron and steel construction goods, wire ropes, motorcycles and related goods, bicycle spare parts, telescope, camera, film machines, chemical instruments, and other goods, wheat and wheat flour, oil related goods, industry used oil, chemical, dye, paint and polish, fertilizer, plastic raw material, commodities made by leather and synthetic leather, rubber raw materials, news papers, printing papers, industry used papers, cigarette papers, other papers, chemical cotton fibre, other cotton fibre, iron and steel goods, raw mineral goods, zinc sheet, tyre and tube, and other goods, sewing machine, battery (dried), electric bulb, condensed milk, milk powder, seasoning powder, condiment, palm oil, cotton cloth, sewing thread, pharmaceutical, soap, tooth paste, furniture, beverage, cosmetics, sports goods, coffee, dried tea leaves, goods which are made by tobacco leaf, lace cloth, ready - made clothes, kitchen utensil, spectacles or glasses and related goods, and other goods are being imported from China.

Table 8. Border Trade Flow between Myanmar and China (US \$ million)

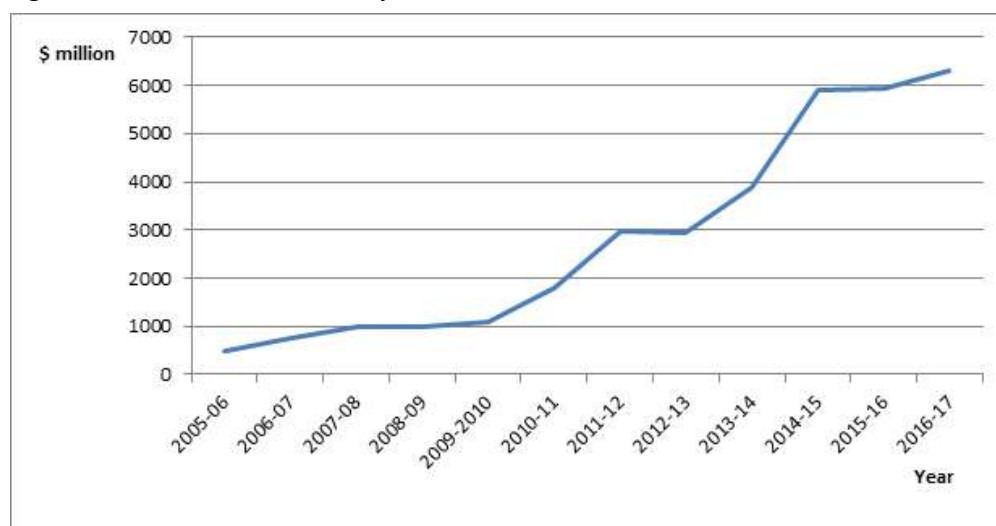
S.N	Year	Export	Import	T/B	Trade	Total Trade with China	% of border trade in total trade
1	2005-06	285.88	195.48	90.4	481	833.63	57.74
2	2006-07	453.12	296.64	156	750	1302.07	57.58
3	2007-08	555.48	421.95	134	977	1693.36	57.72

4	2008-09	490.85	495.75	-4.9	987	1824.90	54.06
5	2009-2010	500.16	576.65	-76	1077	1892.87	56.89
6	2010-11	937.83	862.45	75.4	1800	3372.08	53.39
7	2011-12	1821.9	1163.5	658	2985	5001.15	59.69
8	2012-13	1896.9	1041.2	856	2938	4957.56	59.27
9	2013-14	2502.2	1367.8	1134	3870	7033.12	55.03
10	2014-15	4052.3	1834.4	2218	5887	9712.09	60.61
11	2015-16	4242.1	1708.6	2534	5951	10992.44	54.13
05/06 12	2016-17	4521.2	1776.1	2745	6297	10805.49	58.28

Source: Custom + DOBT

Based on the above table, it can be said that Myanmar is favorable in trade relation between Myanmar and China as balance of trade between two countries are positive except 2008/09 and 2009/10. In addition, it is found that the value of trade between two countries gradually increases during the period of 2005/06 and 2016/17. Therefore, the fact that trade relation between two countries becomes stronger and stronger is rather significant. The pattern of border trade with China can be seen in Figure (7). Table (9) shows the commodities of export to China.

Figure 7. Trade Flow between Myanmar and China



Source: Table (8)

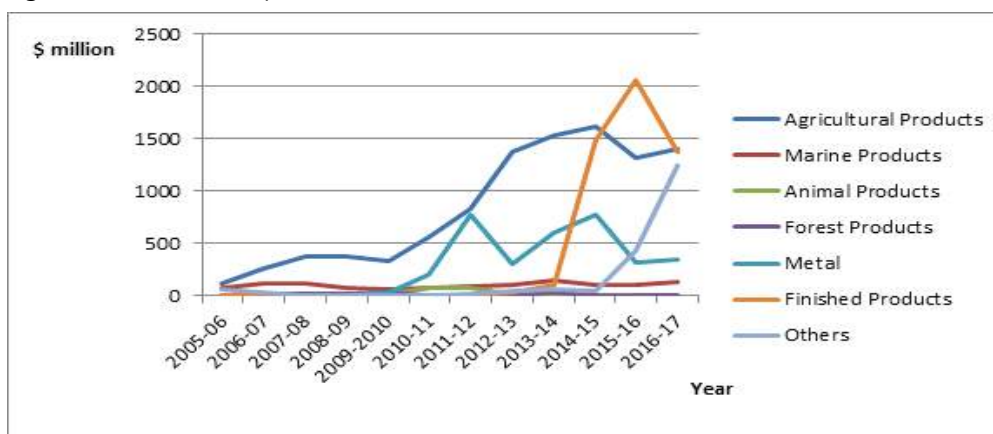
Table 9. Commodities of Export to China (US \$ million)

S.N	Particulars	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-2010	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17
1	Agricultural Products	119	267.9	383.9	372.8	336.7	561	831.4	1378	1536	1618	1318	1408
2	Marine Products	79.14	118.4	121.2	78.34	64.46	73.84	95	103.1	145.9	110.1	110.5	136.8
3	Animal Products	2.54	5.409	9.08	4.943	16.7	80.4	83.12	21.24	4.774	0.699	0.534	2.827
4	Forest Products	6.982	23.7	25.83	19.48	37.62	11.02	4.351	5.516	28.61	2.424	2.012	2.188
5	Metal	3.17	1.863	7.92	4.799	33.52	200.2	779.3	311.5	612.7	782.4	317.5	348
6	Finished Products	8.811	2.973	1.633	1.249	2.684	3.422	7.489	29.95	109.8	1492	2061	1372
7	Others	66.26	32.78	5.879	9.209	8.455	8.015	21.23	47.25	63.99	46.93	432.5	1251

Source: Custom + DOBT

As shown in above table, agricultural products are mainly exported to China. However, marine products, animal products, forest products, metal, finished products and other products are also exported during the study period. Starting from 2014/15 till 2016/17, it is found that the export of finished products becomes larger significantly. In 2015/16, finished products can be exported by the largest amount among export products. Therefore, it can be said that these factors show that Myanmar's export depends on the demand of China. The pattern of export commodities can be seen in the following figure.

Figure 8. Pattern of Export Commodities to China



Source: Table (9)

As Myanmar exports commodities to China, Myanmar also imports capital goods, intermediate goods and consumer goods from China. Commodities of Import from China are shown in the following table.

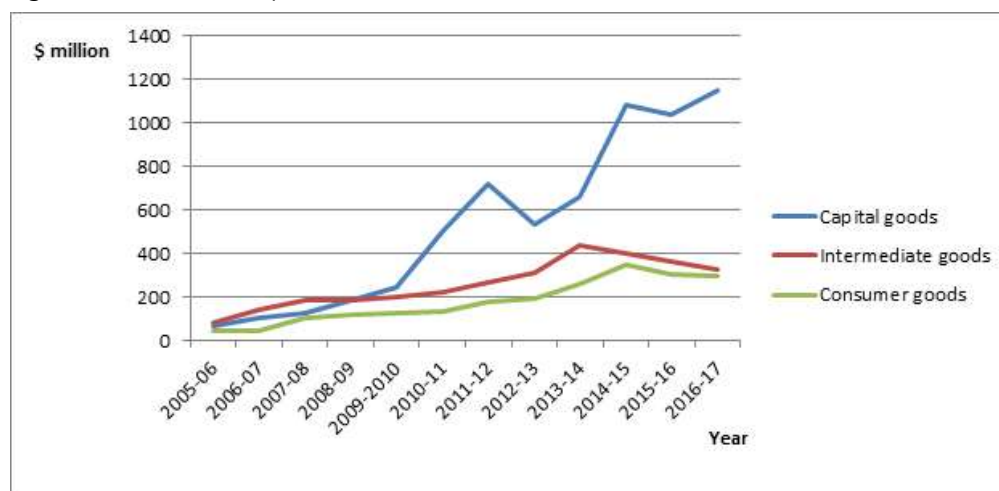
Table 10. Commodities of Import from China (US \$ million)

S.N	Particulars	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17
1	Capital goods	71.53	102.1	130.6	187.1	244.6	505.8	723.8	536.8	664.9	1081	1040	1151
2	Intermediate goods	80	144.6	189.2	190.6	202.7	220.8	265.9	310.5	440.5	400.7	363.1	330.3
3	Consumer goods	43.95	49.92	102.1	118	129.4	135.9	178.6	193.9	262.4	352.9	305.9	294.6

Source: Custom + DOBT

As can be seen in the above table, intermediate goods such as chemicals, fertilizers and pesticides are mainly imported from China from 2005/06 to 2008/09. However, capital goods such as cements, telephone and television are mainly imported during the period of 2009/10 and 2016/17. According to table, it can be seen that the import of consumer goods continuously increase year by year although the amount is smaller than that of capital goods and intermediate goods. The pattern of import commodities from China is shown in Figure (9).

Figure 9. Pattern of Import Commodities from China



Source: Table (10)

4. Border Trade Flow between Myanmar and Bangladesh

The border trade relationship between Myanmar and Bangladesh has formally started on 5 September 1995 in Maungdaw area and on 11 December 1998 in Sittwe area. The volume of trade is not much if it is compared to trade with other neighboring countries. As the balance of trade is positive, Myanmar is favorable in trading of Bangladesh.

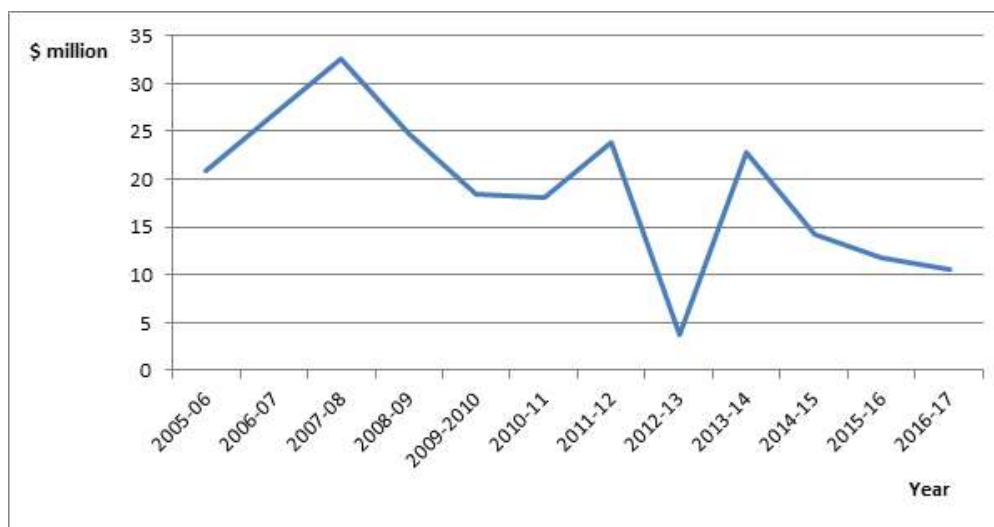
Table 11. Border Trade Flow between Myanmar and Bangladesh (US \$ million)

S.N	Year	Export	Import	T/B	Trade	Total Trade with Bangladesh	% of border trade in total trade
1	2005-06	18.56	2.31	16.25	20.86	60.97	34.22
2	2006-07	25.48	1.38	24.10	26.85	60.63	44.29
3	2007-08	31.33	1.20	30.13	32.54	128.03	25.41
4	2008-09	23.11	1.55	21.56	24.65	117.43	20.99
5	2009-2010	17.18	1.30	15.87	18.48	80.78	22.88
6	2010-11	16.61	1.51	15.10	18.13	136.64	13.27
7	2011-12	22.47	1.40	21.07	23.86	84.81	28.14
8	2012-13	3.66	0.18	3.48	3.83	43.27	8.85
9	2013-14	15.83	7.00	8.83	22.83	75.01	30.43
10	2014-15	14.09	0.19	13.90	14.29	39.23	36.41
11	2015-16	10.72	1.05	9.67	11.76	33.39	35.23
12	2016-17	10.38	0.21	10.17	10.59	43.96	24.10

Source: Custom + DOBT

According to the above table, it is seen that the amount of border trade between the two countries becomes lesser and lesser. The fact that there is a political conflict between the two countries may be a reason why border trade relationship between these two countries is low. The pattern of border trade with Bangladesh can be seen in Figure (10). Table (12) shows the commodities of export to Bangladesh.

Figure 10. Trade Flow between Myanmar and Bangladesh



Source: Table (11)

Agricultural products, marine products, forest products, metal, finished products and others are being exported to Bangladesh. It is found that animal products are not being sold, and metal is also not being sold from 2008/09 to 2016/17.

Table 12. Commodities of Export to Bangladesh (US \$ million)

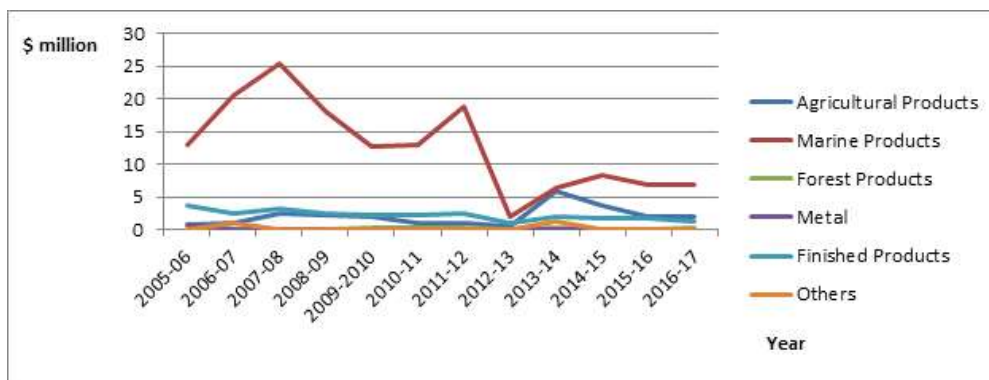
S.N	Particulars	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-2010	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17
1	Agricultural Products	0.8324	1.084	2.5367	2.346	1.9448	1.046	0.919	0.481	5.981	3.816	1.948	1.909
2	Marine Products	12.913	20.664	25.4478	18.075	12.6406	12.968	18.916	2.057	6.446	8.373	6.881	6.965
3	Forest Products	0.169	0.161	0.1245	0.0937	0.4024	0.2792	0.233	0.029	0.259	0.169	0.145	0.233
4	Metal	0.729	0.052	0.002	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5	Finished Products	3.756	2.549	3.2045	2.5793	2.183	2.2613	2.375	0.93579	1.913	1.735	1.735	1.197
6	Others	0.159	0.967	0.0174	0.0132	0.0065	0.0596	0.022	0.153	1.23	0	0.007	0.079

Source: Custom + DOBT

Amongst many kinds of export commodities, rice, chick pea, lablab beans, peanut, tumeric, ginger and dried ginger, mango, dried plum, tamarind, garlic, fish, prawn, other marine goods, cane, bamboo, other forest products, and other finished products are being exported to Bangladesh. The pattern of export commodities to Bangladesh

is shown in the following figure.

Figure 11. Pattern of Export Commodities to Bangladesh



Source: Table (12)

Commodities of import from Bangladesh are shown in the following table. As shown in the table, capital goods, intermediate goods, and consumer goods are being imported from Bangladesh.

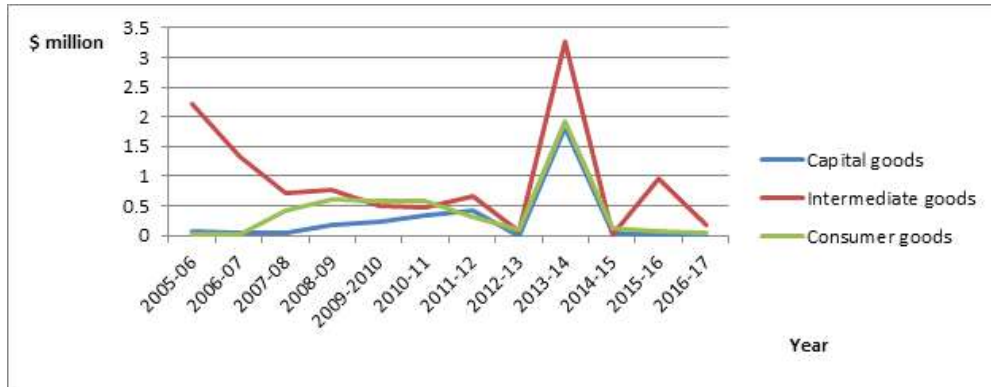
Table 13. Commodities of Import from Bangladesh (US \$ million)

S.N	Particulars	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17
1	Capital goods	0.072	0.035	0.049	0.1813	0.241	0.347	0.423	0	1.804	0.047	0.011	0
2	Intermediate goods	2.228	1.327	0.725	0.7657	0.496	0.472	0.652	0.081	3.262	0.011	0.965	0.163
3	Consumer goods	0.006	0.014	0.43	0.5984	0.566	0.589	0.32	0.094	1.935	0.134	0.07	0.048

Source: Custom + DOBT

However, it is found that capital goods are not being imported from Bangladesh in 2012/13 and 2016/17. The imports of consumer goods are very low compared to that of capital goods and intermediate goods. The pattern of import commodities from Bangladesh is shown in the following figure.

Figure 12. Pattern of Import Commodities from Bangladesh



Source: Table (13)

According to the study, the specific import commodities from Bangladesh are business used raw materials, other commodities, ready-made clothes and other commodities.

IV. Conclusion

This study analyzes export and import situation between Myanmar and its neighboring countries through border area during the period of 2005/06 and 2016/17. Regarding trade with neighboring countries, border trade volume between Myanmar and China takes the first place, and trade volume between Myanmar and Thailand is in the second place. Trade flow between Myanmar and Bangladesh takes the third place during the period from 2005/06 to 2011/12. However, trade flow between Myanmar and India becomes the third place beyond the year 2011/12 due to the political conflict between Myanmar and Bangladesh.

On the subject of trade with Thailand, it is found that the value of border trade between the two countries increase gradually year by year. As the balance of trade is negative, it can be said that Myanmar is unfavorable in border trade with Thailand.

On the topic of trade relation between Myanmar and India, the volume of border trade between two countries increased significantly during the period of 2005/06 and 2016/17, accounts for US \$ 15.411 million in 2005/06 and US \$ 87.896 million in 2016/17. Based on the study, it can be said that Myanmar trade with India is favorable seeing that trade balance between two countries is positive.

Concerning trade relationship between Myanmar and China, the volume of border trade between two countries is the largest among trade relation between Myanmar

and another each neighboring countries such as Thailand, India and Bangladesh. According to the study, it is found that Myanmar is favorable in trade relation between Myanmar and China because balance of trade between two countries is positive except 2008/09 and 2009/10. In addition, it is found that the value of trade between two countries gradually increases during the period of 2005/06 and 2016/17. Therefore, the fact that trade relation between two countries becomes stronger and stronger is rather significant.

On the subject of trade with Bangladesh, the volume of trade is not much if it is compared to trade with other neighboring countries. As the balance of trade is positive, Myanmar is favorable in trading of Bangladesh. It is also found that the amount of border trade between the two countries becomes lesser and lesser. The fact that there is a political conflict between the two countries may be a reason why border trade relationship between these two countries is low.

In short, the export commodities of Myanmar are agricultural products, marine products, animal products, forest products, finished products and others. Among them, Myanmar mainly exports agricultural products to its neighboring countries, being an agriculture based country. Similarly, Myanmar imports capital goods, intermediate goods and consumer goods from its neighboring countries. Among them, it is found that capital goods and intermediate goods are being imported from its neighboring countries.

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A Study on the Structure of Myanmar's Industry in the Era of the Trump Administration

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ABSTRACT : Myanmar has an economic structure that depends on natural resources. Myanmar accounts for most of its natural gas exports. Exports of agricultural products ranked second. And, for the rest of the industry, construction, clothing industries, and fishing are the main ratios. Myanmar's major industries are agriculture, but only 14.8 percent of its arable land is used as farmland by the end of 2016. Myanmar has begun to reform its economy since 1988. Afterwards, it recorded an economic growth rate of 7 % to 10 %. The economic growth rate has risen dramatically due to natural gas development. Natural gas is the center of Myanmar's economy. Trump be president of the United States by 2017. The direction of the Trump Administration's trade policies is to : First, protectionism will be strengthened. Second, it will provide substantial trade remedies to sanction unfair trade practices. Third, it is the renegotiation of the negotiated agreement such as NAFTA. Myanmar will continue to grow very well after 2017. As the economy grows, The economy will grow from natural gas to non-oil manufacturing. Even when the global economy is in recession, Myanmar will continue to grow.

Key words : Myanmar, Economic structure, Myanmar's major industries, Natural gas exports, Trump Administration's trade policies, Myanmar's Industry,

I. Introduction

Myanmar is currently in the spotlight, with its growth rate at a high level. Myanmar has an economic structure that depends on natural resources. Myanmar accounts for most of its natural gas exports. Exports of agricultural products ranked second. And, for the rest of the industry, construction, clothing industries, and fishing are the main ratios.

Myanmar's major industries are agriculture, but only 14.8 percent of its arable land is used as farmland by the end of 2016. Myanmar has begun to reform its economy since 1988. Afterwards, it recorded an economic growth rate of 7 % to 10 %. The economic growth rate has risen dramatically due to natural gas development. Natural gas is the center of Myanmar's economy.

Trump be president of the United States by 2017. The direction of the Trump Administration's trade policies is to : First, protectionism will be strengthened. Second, it will provide substantial trade remedies to sanction unfair trade practices. Third, it is the renegotiation of the negotiated agreement such as NAFTA.

Myanmar will continue to grow very well after 2017. As the economy grows, The economy will grow from natural gas to non-oil manufacturing. Even when the global economy is in recession, Myanmar will continue to grow.

In this paper, I would like to analyze the industrial structure and economic characteristics of Myanmar.

II. Industrial Structure and Economic Characteristics

1. Economic Growth and Characteristics

Myanmar is located between the Indochina Peninsula and the Indian Continent. It borders India, China, Laos and Thailand. Myanmar's ethnic makeup is comprised of 68 percent of Burmese and 30 percent of ethnic minorities. Religious distribution is divided into 89 % of Buddhism, 4 % of Christianity, and 4 % of Islam, with potential causes for conflict. After its independence from Britain in 1948, Myanmar used the Union of Burma as its national name. However, it changed to the federal republic of Myanmar in 2010.

The military regime in power in 1962 oppressed human rights, leading to economic sanctions by the United States and the European Union. However, the civilian government was inaugurated in 2011. And the democratic government started in 2016. As an economic characteristic, it is rich in natural resources such as timber, petroleum, and natural gas. A resource development project is in full swing. It also has cheap labor and geographic advantages. In recent years, due to insufficient infrastructure, such as electricity and roads, economic growth policies have been actively promoted by inducing foreign capital.

2. Industrial Structure and Economic Trends

The industrial structure consists of labor-intensive service industries (41 %), agricultural industries (36 %) and manufacturing (22 %). After Western countries eased sanctions on Myanmar in 2013, economic development projects were underway. So, it achieved 8.6 % growth rate.

Table 1. Economic indicators

(%)	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Economic growth(%)	7.3	8.4	8.7	7.0	8.6
Consumer price increase rate(%)	2.8	5.7	5.9	11.5	9.6
Financial balance/GDP(%)	-1.9	-2.1	0.0	-4.7	-4.7

Source: IMF.

Consumer price growth was significantly affected by the supply of domestic demand, along with changes in the international price of raw materials. In 2016, the devaluation of the Myanmar chars continued. Then, the financial expenditure increased with the issuance of the currency, and the prices were kept high at 9.6 %.

The tax base is weak due to low income levels and a poor tax administration system. Government spending has increased to address infrastructure issues. So, the fiscal balance remains negative. The revision of the tax system, including an increase in income tax rates, was passed in January 2016.

However, it recorded a 4.7 % fiscal deficit compared to GDP in 2016, with an increase in infrastructure investment spending focusing on the Special Economic Development Zone (SEZ).

3. Economic Structure and Characteristics

As an economic characteristic, it is rich in natural resources such as timber, petroleum, and natural gas. A resource development project is in full swing. It also has cheap labor and geographic advantages.

1) Structural weakness

As of 2015, the agricultural proportion is 36.1 % of GDP and about 60 % of the labor force. Myanmar exports products such as rice, beans, and corn. However, irrigation systems, a lack of agricultural technology and the country's military government are losing its agricultural competitiveness due to the nationalization of its

rice industry.

Manufacturing accounted for 22.3 percent of GDP as of 2015. Most of them are simple labor-intensive industries, such as textile and sewing industries and basic processing industries of agricultural and marine products. It has low overall industrial productivity and lacks skilled labor.

According to Doing Business in 2016, Myanmar's business conditions were ranked at the lowest, at 167 among 189 countries. It has a particularly poor business environment, with its low ranking especially in investor protection (184) and contract execution (187). The World Economic Forum (WEF) was ranked at the bottom of the infrastructure (133rd among 140 countries) in its 2015-16 global competitiveness index.

The World Bank ranked the lowest in its logistics competitiveness (145th among 160 countries) in its logistics operations index in 2014

2) Growth possibility

Forest areas account for 52 % of the total land, producing species of plants and trees with high economic value. In particular, it produces 75 % of the world's teak, the world's largest lumber producer.

The southern forest is preserved intact, so it is highly likely to develop in the future. It has energy resources such as crude oil and natural gas, and nonferrous metal resources such as copper, iron ore and zinc. As many areas are undeveloped, it is highly probable that additional oil or gas fields will be discovered in the future.

Among the 53 million population at the end of 2016, the productive population accounts for approximately 67.1 percent.

And that's a lot of work force. According to a December 2014 Jetro survey, manufacturing production workers earn an average of \$ 127 per month, cheaper than China (\$ 403), the Philippines (\$ 249), and Sri Lanka (\$ 176). It borders China, India, Thailand, Laos and Bangladesh and has a large export market.

In addition, the Act was highly productive as a logistics base linking the utilization of production bases to those of the East-West-South South.

3) Policy performance

As part of the reform and opening policy, the New Foreign Investment Act was enforced in November 2012.

Thus, the institutional conditions for the inflow of foreign direct investment and the increase of exports were improved. In other words, investment incentives were provided, such as tax breaks, mitigation of land use conditions, and guarantee of transfer of profits.

In August 2014, foreign investors were allowed to invest exclusively in petroleum refining business.

To facilitate the international capital transactions and to mitigate regulations on overseas remittances, the managed floating exchange rate system was adopted in April 2012. In other words, the multi-currency exchange rate system notified three times a day was switched to a single exchange rate structure. The central bank has allowed nine and four foreign banks to open branches on two occasions, in October 2014 and February 2016. And it allowed transactions with foreign companies and local banks.

Myanmar Securities and Exchange Commission was established in August 2014. In December 2015, the Yangguan Stock Exchange (YSX) was opened with investment by Myanmar's Economic Bank (MEB) and Japan Exchange Group. Starting in March 2016, the stock market officially opened.

III. Trade Status and Characteristics

1. Expanding Current Account Deficit

The increase in natural gas exports, Despite the increase in exports due to the mitigation of economic sanctions by the U.S. and the EU, The deficit widened due to an increase in imports of capital goods and raw materials due to the expansion of infrastructure development projects. So, the current account deficit continues.

The current account deficit as a proportion of GDP was 9.0 % in 2015, as an increase in imports of capital goods and raw materials offset an increase in exports of natural gas and tourism. It also registered 8.4 percent in 2016.

Table 2. Trade Status of Myanmar (Million dollars, %)

	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Current account	-2,391	-2,957	-3,683	-5,943	-6,203
Current account/GDP	-4.0	-4.8	-5.6	-9.0	-8.4
Balance of goods	591	-114	-3,005	-2,241	-3,399
Exports	8,220	9,404	9,083	9,863	10,682
Import	7,629	9,518	12,088	12,104	13,938
Foreign exchange reserves	6,964	8,266	8,714	9,404	9,989
External debt	13,700	10,900	11,900	13,400	14,900
External debt/GDP	22.8	17.5	17.9	20.3	18.1
D.S.R.	2.1	3.0	2.6	2.5	3.9

Source: IMF, EIU, OECD.

2. Increase in foreign exchange reserves

Despite the current account deficit, foreign investment was expanded, focusing on resource development, infrastructure construction, and so on, by mitigation of economic sanctions by the West. Foreign exchange reserves rose from \$ 69.6 billion in 2012 to \$ 99.8 billion in 2016. Under the precondition of a debt write-off by the Paris Club (January 13) : To expand the foreign exchange reserves, the investment environment and the system were prepared.

3. Improved ability to repay foreign debt

In 2013, the Paris Club gave a \$ 5.9 billion debt relief for Myanmar. Then, he adjusted the debt of the remaining debt. In addition, depending on the increase in export volume, the ratio of foreign debt to GDP of 20 % or less, It has improved its ability to repay foreign debt, including registering around 3 % DSR.

However, MDB can use development loans by clearing out debt, Increased the inflow of public funds raised the foreign debt balance.

IV. Conclusion

After the Western lifting of economic sanctions in 2013, Myanmar has adopted an aggressive deregulation policy. Thus, an investment environment was formed to induce foreign capital.

As an economic characteristic, it is rich in natural resources such as timber, petroleum, and natural gas. A resource development project is in full swing. It also has cheap labor and geographic advantages.

Therefore, the inflow of foreign capital investment into Myanmar increased. As a result, 7.0 % economic growth in 2015 was achieved and 8.6 % growth was high in 2016.

Despite the increase in taxes due to economic growth, In 2016, the financial deficit ratio was 4.7 % due to increased investment in infrastructure. Nevertheless, the proportion of current account deficit relative to GDP increased.

First, the increase in import of capital goods and raw materials needed for the development of infrastructure was increased. Therefore, it recorded 8.4 % in 2016. Still, Myanmar has stable economic growth.

In particular, for Trump after the elected president, the United States after 2017, trade policy implementation. However, Myanmar's economy will grow very high in the future.

Trump be president of the United States by 2017. The direction of the Trump Administration's trade policies is to : First, protectionism will be strengthened. Second, it will provide substantial trade remedies to sanction unfair trade practices. Third, it is the renegotiation of the negotiated agreement such as NAFTA.

Myanmar will continue to grow very well after 2017. As the economy grows, The economy will grow from natural gas to non-oil manufacturing. Even when the global economy is in recession, Myanmar will continue to grow.

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Motivation Factors Influencing on Employee Satisfaction

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ABSTRACT : This study attempts to identify the motivational packages provided by Good Brothers' Company Limited and how it affects employee's job satisfaction. The objectives of the study are to identify the employee motivation practices in the manufacturing company and to explore employee's job satisfaction on the motivation factors of manufacturing company. Company should provide to make materials and equipment that will enhance effective performance of employees available. And then, employees are satisfied and motivated with their work as company provides sufficient motivator factors in the workplace. Among them, responsibility factor is slightly satisfied. Therefore, employees should be delegated for participation in decision making in the work. There are positive and significantly correlated both hygiene factors and motivator factors with job satisfaction. This analysis expressed that the most significant factor is motivator factors. Based on the result of this study, the company needs to be implemented in order to receive more and more employee satisfaction by identifying employees' needs and fulfill their needs individually.

Key words : Employee Satisfaction, Motivation Factor, Manufacturing Company, Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory,

I. Introduction

Human resource is one of the most important parts of an organization. Major activities carried out in the organization are controlled and held by the contribution of human resources. It plays important role in the development of organization beneficially. The key role of human resource management in any organization is selection and recruitment, planning, training, development program for its employees and motivation of employees to step for improvement in the organization. Motivation is the key element that impacts the human capitals of any organization. In order to

do so, it is required to understand very well about the motivation factors and which of them could facilitate and result better performance of the employees in the organization.

Nowadays, managers are more interested with keeping talents employees of the company. For managers, employee motivation is one of the basic key tools to raise the efficient and effective management between the organization and employees (Shadier et al, 2009). Employee motivation is a reflection of energy, commitment and creativity that a company's workers bring to their jobs. Then, Employee motivation also describes an employee's basic enthusiasm about work and incentives given to accomplish work. Therefore, successful work performance can appear from a variety of motives. Hence, these are the challenges managers are faced with in designing appropriate motivation tools that will be able to meet with the expected performance within the company.

The challenge for managers today was to keep the staff motivated and performing well in the workplace. In rapidly changing workplaces, motivated employees are needed. Furthermore, motivated employees are required for the survival of the organization and they can help to increase productivity. In addition, Employee performance was directly related to motivational factors. So, the goal of most companies is to benefit from positive employee behaviour in the workplace by promoting a win-win situation for both the company and employees. As a result, motivation development becomes one of the strategies to fulfill higher objectives of an organization.

It is important for an organization to clearly define its objectives, and to know how to do it well with the use of available resources. However, mentioned an organization's resources, it is the human resources that fill all the gaps between each step to success. Personnel are the one who use their competencies and knowledge to provide support to the company as the way of achieving goals. Organizations across the globe that consider their human resources as a central core of the business and continuously increase the level of their employees' motivation and performance tend to be more effectiveness.(Aid, 2000, Anka, 1988, Rothberg 2005)

In this paper, it is mainly focused on how Good Brothers' Company Limited performs to fulfill the needs of employees and how this performance can motivate employees to lead employee satisfaction. By studying the motivation of the employees of the Good Brothers' Company Limited, management level know more about previous situation of their employees and they could decide and handle well for the better situation of the organization in the future. And, these finding will be used by the implementation of more effective human resource management policies concerning motivation in this company. The research study will support to inform Good Brother's Company Limited about the motivational problems and develop strategies to minimize

the problems. The research will also assist the managers and the employees to realize their obligations and responsibility towards, the good performance of the organization.

1. Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are;

1. To identify the employee motivation practices in the manufacturing company
2. To explore employee's job satisfaction on the motivation factors of manufacturing company

2. Scope of the study

This study focuses on case study of influencing factors on employee satisfaction of Good Brothers' Company Limited by using Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory. In Good Brother's Company Limited, there are 27 branches and Head-office around the country. Then, the study will focus on employees from (4) branches and Head-Office in Yangon. Therefore, a sample of 100 employees is taken from the total population of 410 employees of Good Brothers' Company Limited in Yangon Region. It may be about 24% of total population in Good Brothers' Company Limited in Yangon Region.

3. Organization of the Study

The study comprises of four sections. The first section presents introduction, objectives of the study, scope of the study and organization of the study. In section two, the theories related to employee motivation are outlined and explained and background information of Good Brother Co Ltd. In the third section describes the influencing factors on employee motivation in Good Brother Co Ltd. The final section describes the findings and discussion of the study.

II. Background Information

In the beginning of this section the theory of motivation is described. And then, background information of Good Brother Co Ltd is presented.

1. Background of Motivation

The word "motivation" originates from a Latin word "movere". "Movere" means to

move. Thus, it creates a reflection of something going up, keeping us working and helping us to achieve our goals (Korth 2007).

Jeffrey S. Nevid, a professor of psychology, defined “motivation” as: “The term motivation refers to factors that activate, direct, and sustain goal directed behavior ... Motives are the ‘whys’ of behavior – the needs or wants that drive behavior and explain what we do. We don’t actually observe a motive; rather, we infer that one exists based on the behavior we observe.” (Nevid 2013).

The three components of motivation as listed by Arnold et al (1991) are:

- Direction- what a person is trying to do;
- Effort- how hard a person is trying;
- Persistence- how long a person keeps on trying?

People have different needs, establish different goals to satisfy those needs and take different actions to achieve those goals. It is wrong to assume that one approach to motivation fits all. Therefore, the five common underlying ideas that pointed out by Vera (1995) are:

- Motivation has an impact on productivity.
- Motivation is an intrinsic and within oneself phenomenon or process.
- Motivation stimulates people to gain their objectives.
- Motivation connects to psychological, social status and relations and economic satisfaction.
- Motivation refers to creating a working environment that helps employees to achieve work-related goals and gain the maximum personal satisfaction at the same time.

Bartol and Martin (1998) describe motivation as a power that strengthens behaviours, gives route to behaviour, and triggers the tendency to continue. In this approach work motivation has been defined as “a psychological process resulting from the reciprocal interaction between the individual and the environment that affects a person’s choices, effort, and persistence” (Latham & Ernst, 2006). Moreover, people who are well motivated take action that they expect will achieve their clearly defined goals (Armstrong, 2007).

2. Motivation Theory of Herzberg’s Two-Factor

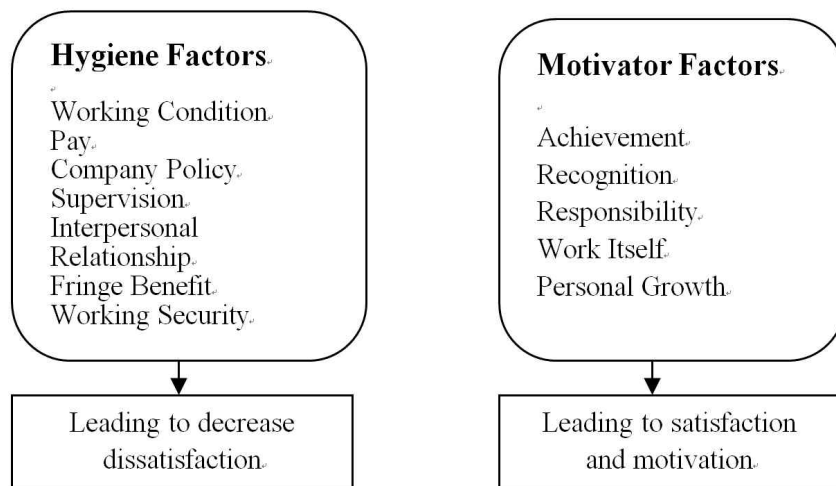
Among the content theories of motivation mentioned above, this study used the Frederick Herzberg’s Two-Factor Theory to explore employee’s job satisfaction on motivation factors of Good Brothers’ Company Limited.

The original study by Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959) involved more

than 200 engineers and accountants working in 11 industries in the Pittsburgh area of the U.S.A in 1959, developed the motivation-hygiene theory to explain the results of his work which is also known as Herzberg's two-factor theory. Psychologist, Frederick Herzberg wondered, "What do people want from their jobs?" He asked people to describe, in detail, situations in which they felt exceptionally good or bad about their jobs. Herzberg discovered that the factors resulting job satisfaction were different from those resulting dissatisfaction. He named the satisfiers motivators and the dissatisfiers hygiene factors also known as maintenance factors.

Herzberg's theory is rooted into two underlined parrel sets of needs namely men need as an animal to avoid pain and as a human the need for psychological growth. Herzberg perceived motivational and hygiene factors to be separated into two dimensions affecting separate aspects of job satisfaction. This belief differed from the traditional approach of viewing job satisfaction and dissatisfaction as opposite ends of the same continuum (Herzberg, 1966).

Figure 1. Two Factor Theory



Source: John Halter, 19.Dec.2010

The motivation theory of employees is shown above in Figure (2.1). The motivational-hygiene model states that employee motivation is achieved when employees are faced with challenging but enjoyable work where one can achieve, grow, and demonstrate responsibility and advance in the organization. That is, when the employees' efforts are recognized, it brings about job satisfaction and motivation. Motivation factors help to increase the job satisfaction of an employee. This increases their efficiency and ultimately leads to an increase in organizational effectiveness.

These have been identified as rewards, or incentives that sharpen the drive to satisfy the wants of an employee (Zimmerman, 1988).

III. Influencing factors on Employee Motivation in Good Brother Co Ltd

In this section, demographic characteristics of respondents, Employee Satisfaction on Hygiene Factors, Employee satisfaction on motivators and influencing factors on motivation of employees are presented.

1. Methodology

To implement the objectives of the paper, the required data were obtained by using sample survey. Random employees of 100 employees were taken from the total number of 410 employees of Good Brothers' company limited in Yangon area. Simple random sampling method is used in this study. The questionnaire consists of two main parts: the first part is concerned with demographic factors of respondents and the second part is related to the influencing factors of job satisfaction on motivational factors. 100 questionnaires were distributed to sampled employees. This questionnaire consists of 51 questions regarding the influencing factors of job satisfaction on motivational factors.

The questionnaire is designed to explore the motivation factors of Good Brothers' Company Limited based on Herzberg's Two- Factor theory. For hygiene factors, job satisfaction are measured by using questionnaires for the company's working condition, pay, company policy, supervision, interpersonal relationship, fringe benefit and working security. For motivators, job satisfaction is measured by using questionnaires for the company's achievement, recognition, responsibility, work itself and personal growth. After conducting the survey, the obtained data are processed and analyzed using the SPSS Software version 22 to conduct descriptive analysis such as frequency distribution, mean, standard deviation and inferential analysis such as correlation analysis, regression analysis.

2. Demographic Characteristics of Respondents.

The situations of employee's basic characteristics are expressed above in Table (1). It is shown in Appendix (A). With the demographic factor of age, this study classifies into six groups. It is found that there are 41percent of employees between 26 and 30 is the large size of respondents. The gender condition of respondent in this study is

30 percent for males and 70 percent for females.

There are the most respondents are graduate persons. Marital status of the sample includes 74 single employees and 26 married employees. Therefore, the most of respondents are single employees. Position of respondent is divided into six groups. Thus, the most of respondents are executive persons. Monthly income of employees is classified into four groups. In percentage of term, employees earning between 150,000 and 250,000 kyats is the largest with 50 percent while employees earning above 450,001 kyat is the smallest with 7 percent.

The final factor is working experience and that is grouped into four. Employees with working experience more than three years is the largest 42 percent while employees with working experience less than one year is the smallest with 17 percent.

3. Employee Satisfaction on Hygiene Factors

According to the Herzberg's Two-Factor theory, hygiene factor includes seven dimensions namely working conditions, pay, company policy, supervision, interpersonal relationship, fringe benefit and working security. Therefore, organization must provide hygiene factors to prevent dissatisfaction of employees within the organization.

Firstly, the respondents were asked four questions concerning working conditions of the employees. Employee satisfaction on working condition is shown in Table (2).

Table 2. Satisfaction Level of Working Condition

Particular	Mean	Standard Deviation
The utilization of equipment and facilities	3.07	.653
Safety and secure in working area	3.1	.705
Proud to work for my company because of pleasant and comfortable working condition and healthy atmosphere such as ventilation system	3.08	.815
The lunch break given in the company	3.06	.844
Overall Mean	3.08	

Source: Survey Data, 2018

By comparing the mean scores of working condition factors, this study found that the highest mean score is 3.1 in which enough safety and secure in working area while the lowest mean score is 3.06 in which the lunch break given in the company. The average mean score is 3.08. For all statements of working condition, employees are prevented their dissatisfaction.

There are five factors to measure pay; it is shown in Table (3).

Table 3. Satisfaction Level of Pay

Particular	Mean	Standard Deviation
Fit salary	3.62	.838
Flexible working hours	3.66	.670
Other benefit program such as Health Care Benefit	3.50	.745
salary is reasonable and fair to those of the same position when comparing with similar organization	3.23	.839
Providing overtime working hours	3.36	1.010
Overall Mean	3.47	

Source: Survey Data, 2018

Based on these five factors, the response of 100 sample employees are shown above in Table (3). The average mean score is 3.47. Therefore, employees are prevented their dissatisfaction with the pay factors of their work. Company policy is the third variable in hygiene factors which includes describes job description and job specification, proud to work this company because of increasing periodically salary, agreeing company's rules for promotion and giving information about policy to employees such as Leave policy. There are four factors to measure company policy. Employee satisfaction on company policy is shown in Table (4).

Table 4. Satisfaction Level of Company Policy

Particular	Mean	Standard Deviation
GBS clearly describes job description and job specification	3.57	.685
I am proud to work this company because of increasing periodically salary	3.35	.903
Company's rules for promotion very clearly specify	3.17	.888
GBS is giving information about policy to employees such as Leave policy	3.60	.778
Overall Mean	3.42	

Source: Survey Data, 2018

According to the Table (4) he average means score is 3.42 .Therefore, employees are also dispel dissatisfaction on company policy factors. Supervision is the fourth variable in hygiene factors which includes satisfying at work because of good leadership skills and abilities, clearing instruction and systematic training to employees by supervisor, mutual respect and understanding with supervisors and discussing work problems with supervisor freely. There are four factors to measure supervision. Employee satisfaction on supervision is shown in Table (5).

Table 5. Satisfaction Level of Supervision

Particular	Mean	Standard Deviation
Satisfying at work because of good leadership skills and abilities	3.29	.935
Clearing instruction and systematic training to employees by supervisor	3.28	.933
Mutual respect and understanding with supervisors	3.28	.877
Discussing work problems with supervisor freely	3.46	.881
Overall Mean	3.33	

Source: Survey Data, 2018

According to the Table (5) the average mean score is 3.33. Concerning with all supervision factors, it is found that employees also dispel the dissatisfaction. There are four factors to measure interpersonal relationship. Employee satisfaction on interpersonal relationship is shown in Table (6).

Table 6. Satisfaction Level of Interpersonal Relationship

Particular	Mean	Standard Deviation
Mutual relationship with other employees	3.97	.723
Having co-operation and team work performance	3.91	.723
Sharing information and knowledge within the company	3.76	.771
Mutual respect with supervisors, peers and subordinates	3.66	.846
Overall Mean	3.83	

Source: Survey Data, 2018

According to the Table (6) the average mean score is 3.83. Therefore, employees are prevented their dissatisfaction with the interpersonal relationship factors of their work.

The employees satisfaction on fringe benefit are classified as the following factor; holding staff party and trips arrangement for all staffs. Based on these two factors, the response of 100 sample employees are shown in Table (7).

Table 7. Satisfaction Level of Fringe Benefit

Particular	Mean	Standard Deviation
Staff Party	3.1	1.004
Trips arrangement for all staffs	3.15	1.067
Overall Mean	3.13	

Source: Survey Data, 2018

By comparing the mean scores of fringe benefit factors, this study found that the highest mean score is 3.15 in which making trips arrangement for all staffs while the

lowest mean score is 3.1 in which holding staff party. The averages mean score is 3.13. Thus, employees are not dissatisfied with the fringe benefit factors on their work.

Working security is the final variable of hygiene factors in Herzberg's Two-Factor theory which comprises my job is secure, and guarantee and stability, the retirement program such as general provident fund and locating in an area where I feel comfortable. There are three factors to measure working security. Based on these three factors, the response of 100 sample employees are shown in Table (8).

Table 8. Satisfaction Level of Working Security

Particular	Mean	Standard Deviation
My job is secure, guarantee and stability	3.45	.821
The retirement program such as general provident fund	2.69	.971
Locating area where I feel comfortable	3.28	.780
Overall Mean	3.14	

Source: Survey Data, 2018

By comparing the mean scores of working security factors, this study found that the highest mean score is 3.45 in which my job is secure, and guarantee and stability while the lowest mean score is 2.69 in which the retirement program such as general provident fund. Employees also dispel their dissatisfaction of their work.

Table 9. Overall Satisfaction Level on Hygiene Factors

Sr.	No	Factors	Mean Value
1		Working Condition	3.08
2		Pay	3.47
3		Company Policy	3.42
4		Supervision	3.33
5		Interpersonal Relationship	3.83
6		Fringe Benefit	3.13
7		Working Security	3.14
		Overall Mean	3.34

Source: Survey Data, 2018

It is found that the overall mean scores for the seven hygiene factors are higher than the midpoint of 3, indicating that employees are not dissatisfied to each hygiene factors as a whole at Good Brothers' Company Limited. Among the hygiene factors, working condition scale receives 3.08, pay scale receives 3.47, company policy scale receives 3.42, supervision scale receives 3.33, interpersonal relationship scale receives 3.83, fringe benefit scale receives 3.13 and working security scale receives 3.14. Therefore, it is found that interpersonal relationship receives the highest percentage score, followed by pay, company policy, and supervision, working security, fringe

benefit and working condition respectively.

4. Employee Satisfaction on Motivators

Hygiene factors referred to these job factors that does not positively ensure satisfaction or motivation over a stretch of time, but are those factors when absent causes dissatisfaction and lowering of morale. Thus, organization must also provide motivators factors to employees to meet satisfaction. This increases not only performance of the employees but also organization's effectiveness.

Achievement is the first component variable of motivators and it includes the opportunity to reach own goal, performing variety of tasks made challenging, seniors recognize for my achievement, work is of value in my department and proud of job in society. The respondents are asked five questions of employee achievement. Therefore, employee satisfaction on achievement is shown in Table (10).

Table 10. Satisfaction Level of Achievement

Particular	Mean	Standard Deviation
The opportunity to reach own goal	3.59	.854
Variety of tasks made challenging	3.52	.937
Seniors recognize for my achievement	3.22	1.040
Work is of value in my department	3.84	.801
Proud of job in society	3.82	.744
Overall Mean	3.60	

Source: Survey data, 2018

By comparing the mean scores of achievement factors, this study found that the highest mean score is 3.84 in which work is of value in my department while the lowest mean score is 3.22 in which seniors recognize for my achievement. The average mean score is 3.60. Therefore, employees are satisfied and motivated concerning with achievement factors.

Recognition is the second component variable of motivators and it includes positive recognition, acknowledgement and appreciation when I perform the high quality work, involving in solving problems, good benefit package compared to other company and perceiving of encouragement. There are four factors to measure recognition. Based on these four factors, the response of 100 sample employees are shown in Table (11).

Table 11. Satisfaction Level of Recognition

Particular	Mean	Standard Deviation
Positive recognition, acknowledgement and appreciation	3.30	.916

when I perform the high quality work		
Involving in solving problems	3.20	.841
Good benefit package compared to other company	3.37	.691
Perceiving of encouragement	3.39	.963
Overall Mean		3.32

Source: Survey data, 2018

By comparing the mean scores of recognition factors, this study found that the highest mean score is 3.39 in which perceiving of encouragement while the lowest mean score is 3.20 in which involving in solving problems. The average mean score is 3.32. Therefore, it can be concluded that respondents are satisfied and motivated on all recognition factors.

Employee satisfaction on responsibility are classified as the following factor; taking responsibilities in matching with skills and abilities, delegation for participation in decision making in the work, having an opportunity to take other's responsibility and working voluntarily in weekend or without taking rest. The respondents are asked four questions of employee responsibility. Based on these four factors, the response of 100 sample employees are shown in Table (12).

Table 12. Satisfaction Level of Responsibility

Particular	Mean	Standard Deviation
Taking responsibilities in matching with skills and abilities	3.35	.796
Delegation for participation in decision making in the work	3.16	.783
Having an opportunity to take other's responsibility	3.28	.649
Working voluntarily in weekend or without taking rest	3.35	.716
Overall Mean		3.29

Source: Survey data, 2018

By comparing the mean scores of responsibility factors, this study found that the highest mean score is 3.35 in which taking responsibilities in matching with skills and abilities and working voluntarily in weekend or without taking rest while the lowest mean score is 3.16 in which delegation for participation in decision making in the work. The average mean score is 3.29. Therefore, employees are satisfied and motivated on all responsibility factors.

Employee satisfaction on work itself are classified as the following factor; challenging and stimulating in the work, enjoying at work every day and increasing performance, a greater sense of dignity and safety and the opportunity to give help to other people. Based on these four factors, the response of 100 sample employees are shown in Table (13).

Table 13. Satisfaction Level of Work Itself

Particular	Mean	Standard deviation
Challenging and stimulating in the work	3.85	.796
Enjoying at work every day and increasing performance	3.58	.901
A greater sense of dignity and safety	3.74	.774
The opportunity to give help to other people	3.71	.782
Overall Mean	3.72	

Source: Survey data, 2018

By comparing the mean scores of work itself factors, this study found that the highest mean score is 3.85 in which challenging and stimulating in the work while the lowest mean score is 3.58 in which enjoying at work every day and increasing performance. The average mean score is 3.72. Therefore, it can be concluded that employees are satisfied and motivated with concerning all work it factors.

Personal Growth is the final component variable of motivator and it includes proud to work in my company because of training that received match to do the job well, improving personal skills, experience and performance, encouraging to creativity and own idea and measuring promotion on the performance appraisal. The respondents are asked four questions of employee personal growth. Based on these four factors, employee satisfaction on personal growth is shown in Table (14).

Table 14. Satisfaction Level of Personal Growth

Particular	Mean	Standard Deviation
Proud to work in my company because of training that received match to do the job well	4.05	.783
Improve personal skills, experience and performance	4.15	.702
Encouraging to creativity and own idea	3.86	.914
Measuring promotion on the performance appraisal	3.64	.977
Overall Mean	3.93	

Source: Survey data, 2018

By comparing the mean scores of personal growth factors, this study found that the highest mean score is 4.15 in which improving personal skills, experience and performance while the lowest mean score is 3.64 in which measuring promotion on the performance appraisal. The average mean score is 3.93. Therefore, employees are satisfied and motivated concerning all of factors of personal growth.

Table 15. Overall Satisfaction Level of Motivators

Sr. No	Factors	Mean Values
1	Achievement	3.60
2	Recognition	3.32
3	Responsibility	3.29
4	Work Itself	3.72
5	Personal Growth	3.93
Overall Mean		3.57

Source: Survey data, 2018

It is found that the overall mean scores for the five motivators are higher than the midpoint of 3, indicating that employees are satisfied to each motivators as a whole at Good Brothers' Company Limited. Among the motivators, achievement scale receives 3.60, recognition scale receives 3.32, responsibility scale receives 3.29, work itself scale receives 3.72 and then personal growth scale receives 3.93. Therefore, it is found that personal growth receives the highest percentage score, followed by work itself, achievement, recognition and responsibility respectively. Therefore, employees are satisfied and motivated of all motivators.

5. Influencing Factors of Employees Motivation

Based on the questionnaire factors, employee satisfaction is shown above in Table (16).

Table 16. Job Satisfaction

Particular	Mean	Standard Deviation
I understand the importance of my role to the success of the organization.	3.5	.673
I am satisfied with what I achieve at work.	3.35	.821
I am happy with the way my colleagues and supervisors treat me.	3.42	.901
I feel this organization has created an environment where I can do my best work.	3.41	.743
I feel like I am a part of the company.	3.57	.903
Overall Mean	3.45	

Source: Survey data, 2018

By comparing the mean scores of job satisfaction, this study found that the highest mean score is 3.57 in which feeling I am a part of the company while the lowest mean score is 3.35 in which satisfying with what employees achieve at work. The average mean score is 3.45. Therefore, the high mean score of job satisfaction

scale indicate that employees are, on average, satisfied on their jobs.

6. Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Influencing Factor

1) Hygiene Factors

In this study, relationship between job satisfaction and each hygiene factor such as working condition, pay, company policy, supervision, interpersonal relationship, fringe benefit and working security are conducted. To conduct the analysis and to test the hypotheses, average scale score was calculated for each scales. Table (17) shows the relationship between average scores of job satisfaction and each hygiene factors.

Table 17. Results of Correlations Coefficient for Hygiene Factor and Job Satisfaction

Hygiene Factor	Correlations
Working Condition	.346**
Pay	.423**
Company Policy	.462**
Supervision	.501**
Interpersonal Relationship	.593**
Fringe Benefit	.491**
Working Security	.499**

Source: Survey data, 2018

Note: ** indicates that 0.01 (1%) significance level.

Table (17) demonstrates the correlation coefficient for job satisfaction and hygiene factor. The correlation coefficient between working condition and job satisfaction is 0.346 at significant at 1% level. This shows that there is weakly and directly relationship between working condition and job satisfaction. The correlation coefficient between pay and job satisfaction is 0.423 at significant at 1% level. This shows that there is weakly and directly relationship between pay and job satisfaction. The correlation coefficient between company policy and job satisfaction is 0.462 at significant at 1% level. This shows that there is weakly and directly relationship between company policy and job satisfaction.

The correlation coefficient between supervision and job satisfaction is 0.501 at significant at 1% level. This shows that there is fairly and directly relationship between supervision and job satisfaction. The correlation coefficient between interpersonal relationship and job satisfaction is 0.593 at significant at 1% level. This shows that there is fairly and directly relationship between interpersonal relationship and job satisfaction. The correlation coefficient between fringe benefit and job satisfaction is

0.491 at significant at 1% level. This shows that there is weakly and directly relationship between fringe benefit and job satisfaction. The correlation coefficient between working security and job satisfaction is 0.499 at significant at 1% level. This shows that there is weakly and directly relationship between working security and job satisfaction.

In summary, seven factors of hygiene factors have positive association with the job satisfaction. Among seven factor of hygiene, interpersonal relationship has the strongest relationship with the job satisfaction ($r=0.593$).

2) Motivators

In this study, relationship between job satisfaction and each motivator such as achievement, recognition, responsibility, work itself and personal growth are conducted. To conduct the analysis and to test the hypotheses, average scale score was calculated for each scales. Table (18) shows the relationship between average scores of job satisfaction and each motivator.

Table 18. Results of Correlations Coefficient for each Motivator and Job Satisfaction

Motivators	Correlations
Achievement	.672**
Recognition	.697**
Responsibility	.603**
Work Itself	.619**
Personal Growth	.710**

Source: Survey data, 2018

Note: ** indicates that 0.01 (1%) significance level.

Table (18) demonstrates the correlation coefficient for job satisfaction and motivator. The correlation coefficient between achievement and job satisfaction is 0.672 at significant at 1% level. This shows that there is fairly and directly relationship between achievement and job satisfaction. The correlation coefficient between recognition and job satisfaction is 0.697 at significant at 1% level. This shows that there is fairly and directly relationship between recognition and job satisfaction. The correlation coefficient between responsibility and job satisfaction is 0.603 at significant at 1% level. This shows that there is fairly and directly relationship between responsibility and job satisfaction.

The correlation coefficient between work itself and job satisfaction is 0.619 at significant at 1% level. This shows that there is fairly and directly relationship between work itself and job satisfaction. The correlation coefficient between personal growth

and job satisfaction is 0.710 at significant at 1% level. This shows that there is fairly and directly relationship between personal growth and job satisfaction.

In summary, five factors of motivators have positive association with the job satisfaction. Among five factor of motivators, personal growth has the strongest relationship with the job satisfaction ($r=0.710$).

IV. Conclusion

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory is applied in this study. Thus, hygiene factor consists of working condition, pay, company policy, supervision, interpersonal relationship, fringe benefit and working security. And then, motivator includes achievement, recognition, responsibility, work itself and personal growth.

In hygiene factors, there are two relevant statements for fringe benefit, three relevant statements for working security, five relevant statements for pay and four relevant statements for remaining factors. In working condition, employees are most agreed enough safety and secure in working area while they are less agreed the lunch break given in the company. For pay factor employees are most agreed receiving flexible working hours while they are less agreed in which salary is reasonable and fair to those of the same position when comparing with similar organization.

For company policy component variable, employees are most agreed giving information about policy to employees such as Leave policy while they are less agreed company's rules for promotion. With supervisor factor, employees are most agreed discussing work problems with supervisor freely while they are less agreed clearing instruction and systematic training to employees by supervisor and mutual respect and understanding with supervisors. In interpersonal relationship component variable, employees are most agreed mutual relationship with other employees while they are less agreed mutual respect with supervisors peers and subordinates.

In fringe benefit factor, employees are most agreed trips arrangement for all staffs while they are less agreed holding staff party. For working security factor which is final component variable, employees are most agreed in which job is secure, and guarantee and stability while they are less agreed the retirement program such as general provident fund. Regarding hygiene factors, it can be concluded that all factors reduced dissatisfaction of employees in the work. Therefore, employees are most agreed on interpersonal relationship while employees are less agreed on working conditions factor.

In motivators, there are five relevant statements for achievement and four relevant statements for remaining factors. In achievement factor which is first component

variable, employees are most agreed in which work is of value in my department while they are less agreed in which seniors recognize for my achievement. For recognition component variable, employees are most agreed perceiving of encouragement while they are less agreed involving in solving problems. In responsibility factor, employees are most agreed taking responsibilities in matching with skills and abilities and working voluntarily in weekend or without taking rest while they are less agreed delegation for participation in decision making in the work.

For work itself factor, employees are most agreed challenging and stimulating in the work while they are less agreed enjoying at work every day and increasing performance. In personal growth factor which is the final component variable of motivators, employees are most agreed improving personal skills, experience and performance while they are less agreed measuring promotion on the performance appraisal. Regarding the motivators factors, it can be concluded that employees are satisfied on motivator factors of Good Brothers' Company Limited. Especially, employees are most satisfied on personal growth while they are slightly satisfied responsibility factor. Thus, employees not only are not dissatisfied to the hygiene factors but also are satisfied with motivator factors.

According to the correlation between both job satisfaction and hygiene factors and job satisfaction and motivator factors, the result show that they are positive and significantly correlated with job satisfaction. Based on the regression and correlation result, motivator factors are mainly related to job satisfaction than hygiene factors in the study. Therefore, it can be concluded that the most significant factor is motivator factor provided by the Good Brothers' Company Limited.

The success of the organization depends on motivation of the employees. The motivation comes from within an individual. Under this study, working conditions are less prevents dissatisfaction among hygiene factors. Therefore, management should provide an atmosphere for the attainment of high productivity, which will in turn give employees a feeling of satisfaction. Management should also provide to make materials and equipment that will enhance effective performance of workers available.

And then, fringe benefit factor and working security are less agreed to prevent job dissatisfaction. Thus, they should arrange the retirement program carefully. They should regard welfare of its employee as its first priority. Furthermore, management should make efforts to improve salary; company policy and supervision to certain standard that will make employees feel happy about their job. Interpersonal relationship is the most influential among hygiene factors to decrease dissatisfaction because they built co-operation and team work performance and social relationship properly between subordinates, peers and supervision.

The study has shown that employees are of the say that the hygiene factors are less agreed rather than motivator factors as confirmed by the results of the

regression. Thus, it is recommended that managers prioritize and concentrate less on those factors that will satisfy their employees highly as presented in the study. Moreover, it is also recommended that managers exercise much more emphasis and resources towards the hygiene factors which employees decrease dissatisfaction. The study results suggest that the importance of hygiene factors cannot be ignored since they do have an effect on the job involvement of participants, though the impact level is significantly less than the motivators.

Responsibility is less satisfied and motivated in the motivator factors. Employees should be delegated for participation in decision making in the work. Moreover, Employees should be given the opportunity and responsibility to contribute their ideas to the affairs of the organization as this will boost their morale and consequently lead to higher productivity. And then, recognition is slightly satisfied and motivated among the motivator factors. Therefore, management should give employees positive recognition when high quality of work is complete. This company should offer good benefit package compared to other organization.

Furthermore, management should make efforts to improve achievement, work itself and personal growth. In this motivator factors, personal growth is the highest satisfied and motivated because employees received new knowledge, exposure and experience from the training. Management encouraged employees to set higher own goals.

The study has manifested that employees believe that motivator factors highly influence the degree to which they feel satisfied with their job as confirmed by the results of the regression. Therefore, it is recommended that managers' address and put more resources to those motivator factors which the employees believe highly influence their job satisfaction and motivation.

The influence of variables work motivation and employee's job satisfaction in this study is positive and significant. Therefore, employee performance increases when working motivation increases. Job Satisfactions have positive and significant impact on organizational commitment. If the job satisfaction is high, then it will last longer for workers to continue working in the company and develop a career in the company.

Job satisfaction is a very critical component of performance in all the various industries. In this study, employee motivation is analyzed only by Two Factor Theory. Thus, GBS Company should also study with other motivation theories such as Maslow's Hierarchy Need of Theory, Acquired Need Theory and ERG Theory etc. Next, a replication of this study using different methodology for data collection and analysis, with a similar population of GBS employees, might be made.

And then, motivational factors of GBS Group of Companies should be made for the further study. Therefore, the relationship between motivational factors, employee performance and organizational commitment of GBS Group of Companies should also

be studied. Therefore, the other motivational factors such as leadership style, feedback and on the other human resources management practices should also be studied in similar industry. This sort of study may help to further clarify and to further validate the findings.

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The Influence of emotional labor and self- control perceived by child care women on job stress

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ABSTRACT : The purpose of this study is to understand the impact of emotional labor and self-control on job stress of women participating in child care project in order to foster employment of middle-aged women with career break, ease the burden of child rearing of parents, and further, to provide a practical and basic data for policies regarding low birth rate. The result of this study were as follows: 1) The level of emotional labor of child care women was measured as 52.3(median: 45). Also, the average score of their self-control level was 82(median: 72), the average level of job stress of child care women was 65.4(median; 78). 2) There was a very close positive correlation between the emotional labor and self-control of child care women. There was also an positive correlation between emotional labor and job stress, but a negative correlation between self-control and job stress. 3) Under the condition where self-control variable was considered additionally, the statistically meaningful effect variables were self-control, emotional labor, economic conditions and health conditions in sequence, with the total degree of impact measured as 53%. Therefore, it was concluded that self-control had the greatest impact on job stress level.

Key Words : the child care women, emotional labor, self-control, job stress.

I. Introduction

The increased number of working couples and the emergence of nuclear families due to women's participation in economic activities have created a vacuum in child care of families, which have caused conflicts between work and family life and increased pressure regarding child care, making it difficult for parents to achieve work and life balance. While the function and role of family members in child care is recognized as very important, the current social phenomenon does not provide a stable nurturing environment for children.

Furthermore, despite the continuous expansion of women's social activities, women

are still deemed accountable for childrearing and household labor, thus the difficulties of working mothers' child care are growing even more.

Subsequently, the government felt the need to take measures, as it became troublesome to meet the demand for child care only with the existing facilities-centric care service, and as the demand for care services has come to vary depending on the age and characteristics of children and working conditions of the dual-income parents. That is, the demands for child care support are diverse, e.g. there may be a temporary vacuum in child care or the parents may prefer individual care and want to take care of their children at home, while day-care facility services are not quite able to deal flexibly with those various demands.

In addition, when children are too young, the parents often prefer individual care rather than nursery facilities, so the government has introduced and are practicing policies which support 'child care at home' in various forms.

In order to solve these problems of child care, the 'socialization of child care labor' started off to make people recognize caring labor as a public domain, which was considered that only women are accountable for in the family. In 2006, as the first step, the government implemented the child care project in order to satisfy the needs for social care and ease the child rearing burden of families and ensure child safety, which is operated by 222 institutions nationwide in 2018 currently.

But still, marriage, childbirth and child upbringing are main causes for women's career break, which is why the growing social need for child care women service to support childbirth and nurture for women in economic activities is receiving attention these days.

Thus, the purpose of this study is to understand the impact of emotional labor and self-control on job stress of women participating in child care project in order to foster employment of middle-aged women with career break, ease the burden of child rearing of parents, and further, to provide a practical and basic data for policies regarding low birth rate. Consequently, this study seeks to enhance the self-control of women involved in child care women project and reduce their stress level to induce the participation of middle-aged and elderly women in the project. By doing so, the credibility of the service among users will be increased and the effectiveness of the project will be recognized, thereby invigorating the child care project nationwide.

To achieve the purpose of this study, the following research questions were established:

- Question 1. What level of emotional labor, self-control and job stress do child care women perceive?
- Question 2. How high is the level of emotional labor and self-control depending on the general characteristics of child care women?
- Question 3. What is the correlation between emotional labor, self-control and job

stress of child care women?

- Question 4. How are the relative influences of the three variables (general characteristics, emotional labor, self-control) on the job stress of child care women?

II. Theoretical Background

1. Child care project and child care women

Mostly, women in Korea has been facing double burdens of caring labor due to patriarchal family culture and traditional gender roles. That is why the need for social systems to enable women of the age of marriage, childbirth, and childcare not to give up their desire for work, while being able to give birth and raise their children at the same time. The situation is on the way.

In addition, the reduced family structure, the diminished family function, and the decline of local community function has increased the burden of child care within the home, making it difficult not only for working couples but also for other types of families to take care of their children properly. In particular, the recent rapidly increasing number of international marriage immigrant families is in need of various supports to raise their children; mothers not familiar with Korean culture are having hard time raising their children. However, as discussed above, the weakened function of local community has not been successful in solving the child care difficulties of those families, not to mention the increased burden of child care in other types of families such as single parent families, families in which children are raised by their grandparents, and families of North Korean defectors. So now the burden of child care is no longer seen as a household-problem to be solved and can be solved within the home (Lee Myung Ja, 2015). Moreover, the rapidly changing social structure, such as the increasing number of nuclear families and working couples, and the disconnection of relationships with neighbors, has gradually led to reduced opportunities for children to be cared for in the informal sector, thus the previous existing facilities-centric social care services can be seen as limited (Byun Mi Hee et al., 2007)

Subsequently, the need for social care services for children who are lack of family protection has increased, along with childcare services which support women's care functions (Oh Jung Soo, Jung Ik Jung, 2008). This brought forward the need for one-to-one care services for children on behalf of parents, which led to the implementation of Idolbomi project under the Article 21 (Supports for families), Article

22 (Reinforcement for childcare supports), and Article 30 (Home helpers) of the Framework Act on Healthy Families.

Based on this, the Ministry of Gender Equality and Family selected "the Socialization of Care and Support for Work and Home Compatibility" as the main tasks of family policy in 2006. The 'At-home child rearing support service', which is also an important factor in creating jobs for women, has become a major project supporting families (Ministry of Gender Equality and Family, 2006).

According to the project guidelines of the Ministry of Gender Equality and Family, which is the governing department, the backgrounds for Idolbomi project are as follows:

First, the need for implementation of childcare project has been raised under the inability of the childcare centers in making flexible responses to urgent and temporary care needs because of parents who are working overtime, on business trips or of children's diseases. The growing number of nuclear families and dual-income families has caused a vacuum in family care, thus the existing facility-centric support centers cannot meet those care needs of parents of emergency, such as illness or overtime work. In particular, among low-income women in dual-income families or with temporary and daily jobs, there is a high demand for time spending and day care services for infants, which is not able to be met with the current care services (Jeon Byung Heel, 2009). Especially, certain children may not be appropriate for facility care depending on their health and illness conditions, and in such cases, child care services visiting individual households are needed.

Second, working parents with infants under 2 years of age tend to prefer one-to-one child care for the safety and health of their children, thus the child care project was introduced. 76.2% families with children aged 0, 73.6% with children aged 1, and 60.6% with children aged 2, respectively, was identified to prefer childcare support at home, e.g. by grandparents or relatives (2009, Survey on Child Care Conditions), whereas 130,000 out of 390,000 children under the age of 2 of working parents were shown to be using childcare facilities. In addition, the need for care services has become much diverse depending on the age of children, employment status of parents, lifestyles and so on, thereby it became unable to meet care needs with facility care alone (Jeon Byung Heel, 2009).

Child care project is, therefore, a government-supported at-home care service which is driven by the social need to support, supplement and replace child care within public sector.

As a part of the government's child care, child care women (child care helpers) were employed, with their roles to visit the service user's home in person and take care of the children with the age of 3 months to 12 (elementary school students). Their child caring time is when there is vacancy of parent's nurture, and the child care

woman provides temporary care, playing activities, simple meal/snack services, walks the children to facilities or school, handles child safety and personal cares. Also, the child care women are care service helpers for individual households who provide all-day care services for infants with age of 3 to 12 months who are not appropriate for facility care, including daily routines and personal health cares (Ministry of Gender Equality and Family, 2011).

is to provide temporary care, play activities, simple child care services, childcare facilities and schools, etc., and to handle safety and personal care, etc. until parents come at the time when the care of the parents is empty.

2. Emotional labor and self-control

Emotional labor is a compound word of "emotion" and "labor", which refers to labor involving suppressing and controlling emotions in order to act as part of one's job. Hochschild(1983), a professor at the University of California Berkeley who coined the term "emotional labor," said that emotional labor has a different level of meaning than physical labor and mental labor, as emotional labor is the act of suppressing one's actual feelings and creating feelings different from the original ones. Diefendorff and Gosserand (2003) defined emotional labor as restricting individual emotional expression in response to the rules of expression aiming to ensure the task objectives to be met.

In a domestic study, Kim Min-joo (1998) described emotional labor as an effort to control one's actual feelings in carrying out his or her task or to express certain feelings which seem to be appropriate for work, whereas Huh Ji-Hun (2002) stated that it is an act of laborers of service industry to suppress their own feelings and to express certain socially-appropriate feelings while dealing with customers.

As a prior study of emotional labor, Hochschild (1983) found in his study of Delta Air flight attendants that performing emotional labor led them in an alienation from their actual feelings, resulting in unfavorable effects upon their psychological well-being. In an domestic emotional labor study conducted on social workers, Kang Soo-yeon and Lee Chang-wan (2011) stated that the service industry employees try to show kind and receptive attitudes required by their employer in order to provide best service quality, and their efforts to maintain these friendly expressions and attitudes lowers their self-esteem and sense of accomplishment.

Self-controlling power, meanwhile, means that you are able to control your perceptions, emotions, and actions as you like them to be, and self-control is the continuous control of one's action by oneself, keep performing the target action even if it is painful for the actor. Jung Young-sook (1994) suggested that people tend to control their behaviors and perform target action when they can choose between a

target action which leads to individually and socially desired outcomes and the other action which hinders the implementation of the target action.

The background for self-control study is based on the theory of interactive determinism presented by Bandura (1982), who suggested that human behavior is determined not only by environmental effects but also by self-evaluation responses. This means that individuals can modify their own behaviors by changing and guiding environmental cues through actions such as target setting, evaluation comparison, self-approval, self-criticism, etc.

In the study Lee Seung-hee (2007) on self-control, also, it was found that students with low self-controlling power witnessed feelings of being unsuccessful or rejected due to their lack of cognitive or interpersonal skills.

3. Job Stress

For most people these days, it is very common to have daily jobs and live a work-centered life. Consequently, people get stressed by the burden of importance of their tasks and other various negative factors which arise from them. They tend to be easily adaptive in situations without severe stress but on the other hand, it causes damage to the whole organization not to mention causing impotent feelings and even physical diseases for individuals when they get through lots of stress.

This type of stress is increased among child care service providers, as their job is to deal with infants and children and performed within relationships with their parents in complex interactions. Lee Jee-young (2012) suggested in her study on job stress of childcare teachers that those teachers express negative emotions such as tension, anxiety, anger, depression and frustration over work and educational activities. Choi Sun-kyung (2011) also said that job stress of childcare teachers is not only in the form of stressed caused by individual or the environmental factors but also by physiological and psychological imbalance occurred from the interactions between individuals and the work environment.

These days, with families having fewer children and thus with more attention on children, the demands and intervention of passionate young parents towards Idolbomi women seem to be increasing. Such excessive attention of parents, lack of awareness about childcare, and parental intervention are factors which add to job stress of child care women.

III. Methods

1. Method of subject and data gathering.

The research subjects of this study were child care women living in cities K, S and Y located in the eastern provinces of South Jeolla Province.

The survey period was from August 20th to September 30th, 2017, and the researchers for this study consisted of graduate students. The data collection was carried out by trained researchers who adequately explained the purpose of the study and the contents of the questionnaire to the child care

women, made them fill out the survey in a self-reporting format and then retrieved them in person. The survey questionnaire was distributed to a total of 309 people, whereas the retrieved questionnaire showed a 92% return rate with 285 copies. A total of 270 copies were selected for this analysis, except for 15 copies for which the responses were insincere or inappropriate as data.

2. Measurement

This study examined the survey sheet consisting of four sections to determine the impact of emotional labor and self-control child care women perceive on their job stress level. The specific questions of the survey consisted of 9 questions to identify the sociodemographic characteristics of the person being surveyed, 15 questions to identify the degree of emotional labor, 24 questions to identify self-control level, and 26 questions to identify the degree of job stress. Details of each scale are as follows:

1) Sociodemographic characteristics of the survey participants

The sociodemographic characteristics of the child care women interviewees were measured with 9 questions regarding age, education level, marriage status, residence, religion, family members, monthly average income, health and economic status.

2) Emotional labor scale

The emotional labor scale used in this study was reconstructed in 15 questions, in reference to the survey questionnaire used in the preceding study by Kim Dong-gu (2017). It was a 5 point likert scale (1= not at all, 2= no, 3= moderate, 4=yes, 5 =very much) which was interpreted as a higher degree of emotional labor as the sum of each questions is higher. The reliability of emotional labor scale this study used was high, with Cronbach's $\alpha=89$.

3) Self-control scale

The self-controlling power of child care women was measured with the scale introduced by Ha Chang-soon(2004), a Korean version of the self-control scale system. It consisted of six sub-scales including impulsiveness, preference for simpler tasks, preference for adventures, preference for physical activities, self-centeredness and anger. They were measured from 1 point (very not) to 5 points (very much) for each question, which was considered higher degree in terms of self-control as the sum of each question is higher. The reliability of the self-control scale used in this study was Cronbach's = .85.

4) Job stress measurement

The job stress scale was measured using the scale of job stress of childcare teachers introduced by Cho Gyu-yeon (2012) and Kim Eun-duk (2013). The job stress scale was measured on a 5-point Likert scale with a total of 26 questions. The reliability of the job stress measures used in this study was Cronbach's = .90.

3. Data Analysis Method

The statistical processing of data for this study was performed with the SAS Package Program, in which the detailed analysis methods are as follows.

First, the frequency and percentage data were obtained in order to identify the sociodemographic characteristics of the research subjects.

Second, the average and standard deviation were obtained to identify the level of emotional labor, self-control and job stress of the child care women participants, and Cronbach coefficient was calculated to determine the reliability of the scale.

Third, a correlation analysis was performed to identify the relationship between emotional labor, self-control and job stress among the survey participants.

Fifth, the Multiple regression analysis was performed to determine the relative impacts of the variables (sociodemographic factors, emotional labor, self-control) upon the job stress of the survey participants..

IV. Results

1. The Socio-demographic characteristics of the subjects

The Socio-demographic characteristics of the subjects are show in <Table 1> below

Table 1. The Socio-demographic characteristics of the subjects (N=270)

variable	category	frequency(N)	percentage(%)
age(yr)	30~39 below	5	1.9
	40~49 below	58	21.5
	50~59 below	45	53.7
	60~69 below	62	23.0
education	middle school \leq	49	18.2
	high school	144	53.3
	college \geq	77	28.5
spouse	yes	242	89.6
	no	28	10.4
residence	city	142	52.6
	rural	128	47.4
religion	christian	123	45.6
	buddhism	48	17.7
	catholic	47	17.4
	etc. or no	52	19.3
family members	alone	9	3.3
	couples	104	38.5
	couple+children	157	58.2
monthly income	500,000 \leq	15	5.6
	510,000-1,000,000 \leq	47	17.4
	1,010,000-1,500,000 \leq	47	17.4
	1,510,000-2,000,000 \leq	40	14.8
	2,010,000 \geq	121	44.8
health status	poor	8	2.9
	moderate	128	47.4
	good	134	49.7
economic status	poor	22	8.1
	moderate	187	69.3
	good	51	22.6
total		270	100

2. The Level of emotional labor, self-control, and job stress

As shown in the following Table 2, the level of emotional labor among child care women is measured as 52.3 on average, which is higher than the median of 45. These findings show that there are occurrences of negative emotions and exhaustion of emotions of child care women as they are providing childcare services. In addition, the average score of self-control of child care women is 82, which is higher than the median of 72, showing that child care women generally have the decent self-control. These results are consistent with those of Kwon Jung-ah (2012) and Yoo Soon-ran (2015), where it was found that child care women's level of self-efficacy were high. Lastly, the average level of job stress of child care women was 65.4, which is lower than the median of 78, showing that these child care women are quite proud of their jobs.

Table 2. The Level of emotional labor, self-control, and job stress

category	M	SD	Median
emotional labor	52.3	7.89	45
self-control	82.0	9.02	72
job stress	65.4	5.95	78

3. Relationships between emotional labor, self-control and job stress

The relationship between emotional labor, self-control, and job stress among young women is in the following Table 3. As shown in the table, there was a highly close relationship between emotional labor and self-control, measured as $r = .4931$ ($p < .001$). In other words, women with more intense emotional labor due to childcare tend to enhance their self-control to react to their emotional labor.

Also, the relationship between emotional labor and job stress is measured as $r = .5479$ ($p < .001$), indicating that the job stress level increases as that of emotional labor increases. These results are consistent with studies conducted by Lee In-jae (2018) on the relationship between emotional labor and job satisfaction at social welfare facilities, in which it was suggested that the degree of job satisfaction decreases as the level of incongruity of emotions increases. In addition, the relationship between self-control and job stress was $r = -.6133$ ($p < .001$), indicating that job stress decreases as the self-control level increases.

Table 3. Relationships between emotional labor, self-control and job stress

variable	emotional labor	self-control	job stress
emotional labor	1		
self-control	.4931 (***)	1	
job stress	.5479 (***)	-.6133 (***)	1

4. The influences of variables (socio-demographic characteristics, emotional labor, self-control) according to the job stress

The results of research upon the relative impacts of the socio-demographic characteristics, emotional labor and self-control on job stress of child care women are as follows in Table 4.

Prior to the regression analysis, this study looked at the Durbin-Watson coefficients through the residual analysis and found that all Durbin-Watson coefficients were close to 2, indicating no auto-correlation among residuals. Also there was no linear relationship as the correlation between independent variables were measured as $0.0018 < r < 0.5230$, and neither multicollinearity problem which occurs when VIF is higher than 10 was identified as VIF was measured to be within the range of $VIF < 1.83$, and thus regression analysis was performed.

This study conducted three stages of testing for regression analysis. In Step I, this study looked at the influence of socio-demographic factors upon Idolbomi women's job stress level, and in Step II the influence of emotional labor was added on that, and in the final Step III, this study looked at the influence of self-control added with those to determine the effects of these factors together upon their job stress.

As is seen in the table, Step I showed that variables with a statistically meaningful effect on job stress were economic conditions ($\beta = -.3106$, $p < .001$), health conditions ($\beta = -.2511$, $p < .001$), and education level ($\beta = .0963$, $p < .01$), with impact degree of these variables to be a total of 26%.

Step II showed that the statistically meaningful effect variables upon job stress were emotional labor ($\beta = .3642$, $p < .001$), economic conditions ($\beta = -.2541$, $p < .001$), and health conditions ($\beta = -.1252$, $p < .01$) where their total impact degree was measured to be 15% increased, as 41% in total.

In Step III, the statistically meaningful effect variables upon job stress were self-control ($\beta = -.2910$, $p < .001$), emotional labor ($\beta = .2547$, $p < .001$), economic conditions

($\beta = -.1754$, $p < .01$), and health conditions ($\beta = -.0712$, $p < .05$) in sequence, and the degree of their relative impacts was measured to be a total of 53%, which was 12% increased from Step II. That is, higher self-control level, lower emotional labor level, and higher economic and health conditions led to lower job stress level.

Table 4. Variables Influencing on job stress

Step	variable	B	β	R ²	Rank
Step I	age	.0238	.0832		
	education	1.3811	-.1963**	0.03	3
	spouse(a)	-.0374	-.0123		
	residence(a)	-.4900	-.0420		
	religion(a)	-.8901	-.0563		
	family members(a)	.1900	.0139		
	monthly income	-.5311	-.0356		
	health status	-1.5853	-.2511***	0.08	2
	economic status	-3.2833	-.3106***	0.15	1

$$R^2 = 0.26$$

$$F = 5.90***$$

Step II	variable	B	β	R ²	Rank
s.d.	age	.3403	-.0332		
	education	.9801	.0414		
	spouse(a)	-.3125	.0167		
	residence(a)	-.2935	-.0253		
	religion(a)	-.6169	-.1252		
	family members (a)	.3245	.0703		
	monthly income	-.3244	-.0476		
	health status	-1.0021	-.1252**	0.06	3
	economic status	-1.9342	-.2541***	0.10	2
emotional labor	-2.5454	-.3642***	0.25	1	

$$R^2 = 0.41$$

$$F = 9.29***$$

		variable	B	β	R ²	Rank
Step III	s.d.	age	.3321	.0229		
		education	.6430	.0854		
		spouse(a)	-.0521	-.0042		
		residence(a)	-.0024	-.0003		
		religion(a)	-.0482	-.0012		
		family members(a)	.0005	.0007		
		monthly income	-.4392	-.0632		
		health status	-1.8540	-.0712*	0.03	4
		economic status	-2.0721	-.1754**	0.07	3
		emotional labor	3.8856	.2547***	0.18	2
	self-control	-4.2731	-.2910***	0.25	1	
			R ² = 0.53 F = 23.67***			

* p<0.5, ** p<.01, *** p<.001

(a) = dummy (The following variables is treated as a dummy variable)

spouse; yes(1), no(0),

residence; city(1), rural(0),

religion; yes(1), no(0),

family members; alone(1), etc.(0),

V. Conclusion and Suggestions

The purpose of this study is to examine the effects of emotional labor and self-control child care women perceive upon their job stress of women, and to make known the adverse effects of emotional labor taking place during the care services and to enhance the level of self-control among child care women to prevent them from getting job stress.

To that end, 270 child care women living in cities K, S and Y located in the eastern province of South Jeolla Province were surveyed.

The statistical processing of data for this study was performed with the SAS Package Program, in which the detailed results were as follows: .

First, the level of emotional labor of child care women was measured as 52.3 on average, higher than the median of 45. Also, the average score of their self-control level was 82, which is higher than the median of 72, indicating that child care women

generally have decent self-control level. Lastly, the average level of job stress of child care women was 65.4, which is lower than the median of 78, showing that their job stress level is relatively low.

Secondly, there was a very close positive correlation between the emotional labor and self-control of child care women. There was also an positive correlation between emotional labor and job stress, but a negative correlation between self-control and job stress.

Third, this study did a research on the relative influence of socio-demographic characteristics, emotional labor, and self-control upon child care women's job stress level, where it was found that statistically meaningful variables upon job stress were economic conditions, health conditions and education level, with total degree of impact measured as 26%. In the regression analysis where variable of emotional labor was added to this, the meaningful variables were identified as emotional labor, economic conditions, and health conditions in sequence, with the total degree of impact 15% increased—41% in total. Finally, under the condition where self-control variable was considered additionally, the statistically meaningful effect variables were self-control, emotional labor, economic conditions and health conditions in sequence, with the total degree of impact measured as 53%. Therefore, it was concluded that self-control had the greatest impact on job stress level.

Based on this result, this study suggests that Idolbomi project be promoted while enhancing the self-control level and lowering the emotional labor and job stress level of child care women. Some of the suggestions are as follows:

First, measures should be taken to provide qualitative and quantitative supports for child care service providers in order to promote the project as a care service for children with demands for social protection and, in the same time, create jobs in a social level. Despite the fact that child care project has already been serving as a social support system to relieve the child caring burden of families, there still seems to be some points to be improved such as regarding the distrust of letting one's child to a third party and the quality of child care services.

Second, various programs need to be developed to increase the number of users of the child care service. Although the service has expanded a lot compared to from the beginning, there are still high demands for improvement of the system and more diverse support. To provide real benefits, it is necessary to develop a playing program which can be provided together with care services.

Finally, it is necessary to study how to introduce a practical system in which families could take care of their children like at-home welfare services. In terms of users with psychological burden of having their children transferred to third parties, it will be much better for their family members who are currently supporting childcare in the household to earn qualifications through Idolbomi education and provide cares. In this

way, the number of service users will increase, the service quality will increase, and also we will be able to make better use of currently idle labor forces due to childcare labor.

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Proximate Determinants of Fertility in Myanmar

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ABSTRACT : Estimation of the total fertility rate (TFR) of Myanmar for the year 2015-2016 is taken into account in the present study. Determination of total fertility rate is very important for a developing country like Myanmar, as it indicates the average number of children, a woman would bear over her lifetime. Bongaarts model was used to determine TFR by estimating the four indices associated with this model. For Myanmar, it has been observed that the marriage and lactational infecundability have the vital role to control fertility, which are about 53.04% and 43.93%, respectively, followed by contraception use (38.17%). It has also been noticed that the TFR of Myanmar for 2015-2016 is close to 2.1, which is the replacement level of fertility.

Key words : Index of marriage; Index of postpartum infecundability; Index of contraception; Index of induced abortion; Total fecundity and TFR

I. Introduction

Fertility is one of the driving forces of population growth in the world today. It is the major components of population dynamics that determine the size, structure and composition of populations in any country of the world. Differentials in fertility behavior and fertility levels in different areas and among population strata or characteristics have been among the most pervasive findings in demography.

Myanmar is a low-income country and the population is around 51.49 million with the annual population growth rate of 0.89 percent. Due to the better condition of health care and raising the health standard of the entire people, and National Health Plans adopted by Government, it is expected that the level of fertility would decline in

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future. During the period 1983 to 2014, the declining pattern of fertility was found in Myanmar. The total fertility rate declined from 4.73 children per women in 1983 to 2.3 in 2014.

Many analyses of the determinants of fertility make a distinction between proximate and background determinants. The former include behavioral factors such as the use of contraception or abortion through which the background determinants (e.g., social and economic variables) affect fertility. These relationships were first recognized by Davis and Blake (1956), who defined a large set of "intermediate fertility variables." In the late 1970s

Bongaarts (1978)[1] identified a smaller set of proximate determinants and developed a relatively simple model to quantify their fertility effects.

The total fertility rate is related to many variables, Bongaarts (1978) termed these factors the proximate determinants of fertility, since they directly affect fertility; all other social, economic and environmental factors affect fertility through these variables. Using data from 41 developed and developing countries, Bongaarts and Potter (1983)[2] further observed that 96 percent of the variation in the total fertility rates could be explained by four proximate determinants of fertility; namely, marriage, contraception, induced abortion and lactational infecundability. To quantify the fertility inhibiting effect of the four major proximate determinants, Bongaarts developed a model which is now widely used in fertility analysis. In this paper, the proximate determinants of fertility of the Bongaarts model for the year 2015-16 of Myanmar have determined and using these indices, the total fertility rate for 2015-16 of Myanmar has been estimated based on the Bongaarts' model.

II. Data and Method

The study was based on analysis of population data from the 2015-16 Myanmar Demographic and Health Survey (MDHS). It was implemented by the Ministry of Health and Sports of the Republic of the Union of Myanmar. The funding for the MDHS was provided by the United States Agency for International Development (USADI) and the Three Millennium Development Goal Fund (3MDG). The MDHS 2015-16 was conducted after the 2014 census and was published in March, 2107. This is a nationally representative survey of Myanmar households with a stratified representative sample of 13238 households. All women aged between 15 and 49 years and in the subsample of one-half of the households, all men aged between 15 and 49 years that were either permanent in the household on the night before the survey were eligible to be interviewed. The survey data collected various data including levels,

patterns, and trends in both current and cumulative fertility and sexual activity as well as family planning which included aspects of contraception including knowledge of specific contraceptive methods, attitudes, and behavior regarding contraceptive use and source of and cost of methods.

1. The Bongaarts Fertility Model

Davis and Blake (1956) first introduced the term intermediate variables of fertility to describe the biological and behavioral mechanisms through which social, economic and cultural conditions can affect fertility. Bongaarts (1978) later developed a model that quantified the fertility inhibiting effect of the four major proximate determinants which is now widely used in fertility analysis. Bongaarts' model estimating the effect of different proximate determinants assumes that the natural reproductive capacity the same for all women, but their actual reproductive performance is modified by four major proximate determinants. In this model Bongaarts' (1978) expressed total fertility rate (TFR) as the product of four indices measuring the fertility inhibiting effect of these four indices and the fecundity rate (TF). The Bongaarts model is as follows:

$$TFR = C_m \times C_c \times C_a \times C_i \times TF \quad (1)$$

where, TFR = Total fertility rates

C_m = index of proportion married

(equals 1 if all women of 15-49 years old are married and 0 in the absence of marriage).

C_c = index of contraception

(equals 1 in the case of no contraception and 0 if all fecund women use completely effective contraception).

C_a = index of induced abortion

(equals 1 in the case of no induced abortion and 0 if all pregnancies are aborted).

C_i = index of postpartum infecund ability

(equals 1 in the absence of lactation and postpartum abstinence and 0 if the duration of infecund ability is infinite.

TF = Total fecundity

2. Estimation of index of marriage

The index of marriage measures the reduction in fertility that is caused by the

marriage. According to Stover (1998) [6], this index is intended to represent the effect of periods during which a woman is not sexually active. Since data on sexually activity are scarce, this index is often approximated by the proportion of women 15-49 that are married. This index can be determined as follows:

$$C_m = \frac{\sum a [m(a) \times g(a)]}{\sum ag(a)}$$

where: m (a) is age specific proportions of women currently married.

g (a) is age specific marital fertility rates.

It takes the value 0 if nobody is married and the value 1, if all women are married during the entire reproductive period.

3. Estimation of index of contraception

The index of contraception in the model measures the inhibiting effect of contraception on fertility in the population. The higher the level of contraception in the population, the higher the inhibiting effect due to contraception and the lower the level of contraception the lower the inhibiting effect. The index of contraception is estimated using the following equation;

$$C_c = 1 - [1.08 \times u \times e]$$

where; u is the proportion currently using contraceptive among married women of reproductive age and e is the average use effectiveness of contraception and 1.08 is the adjustment factor for sterilizing, on an assumption that all the contraceptive users may not be fecund at the time of using contraceptives and a small proportion of sterile women may use contraceptive without knowing their fecundity. If no contraception is practiced, C_c equals 1.0, and if all nonsterile women in their reproductive ages are protected by 100% effective contraception, then C_c equals zero.

4. Estimation of index of induced abortion

The index of induced abortion determines the inhibiting effects of induced abortion on fertility. The index of induced abortion, C_a can be estimated as follows:

$$C_a = \frac{\text{Total Fertility rate}}{\text{Total Fertility Rate} + \text{Births Averted by abortion}}$$

$$= \frac{TFR}{TFR + [0.4 \times TA \times (1 + u)]}$$

where: TA is the total abortion rate

TFR is the total fertility rate

u is the proportion of women of reproductive age currently using contraceptive

0.4 is an estimate of births averted per induced abortion in the absence of contraception.

It takes the value 1 in the absence of induced abortion and the value 0, when all the pregnancies are aborted. In this study, due to lack of data, the value of this index equals 1.

5. Estimation of index of postpartum infecundability

The index of postpartum infecundability measures the inhibiting effects of postpartum amenorrhea and breastfeeding on fertility. It is the ratio of the birth intervals due to the absence of breastfeeding and the presence of the breastfeeding. In the absence of breastfeeding, the birth interval is on an average about 20 months, the sum of 1.5 months of postpartum infecundability due to the absence of breastfeeding, 7.5 months of waiting time to conception, 2 months due to spontaneous intrauterine mortality and 9 months for full term pregnancy. In the presence of breastfeeding, the average birth interval, approximately 18.5 months (7.5 + 2 + 9), plus average duration of postpartum infecundability. This index can be estimated as follows:

$$Ci = \frac{20}{(18.5 + i)}$$

where: i is the average duration of postpartum infecundability caused by breastfeeding or postpartum abstinence.

If the direct estimate of i is not possible, then according to Bongaarts, it can be estimated as follows:

$$i = 1.753 \exp (0.1396 \beta - 0.00187 \beta^2)$$

where β = average duration of breastfeeding.

6. Total Fecundity (TF)

Total fecundity is defined as the total fertility rate in the absence of the fertility inhibiting effects of the proximate determinants. The values of TF in most of the populations fall within the range of 13 to 17 births per women, with an average of about 15.3. Therefore, Equation (1) expressed as:

$$TFR = C_m \times C_c \times C_a \times C_i \times 15.3 \quad (2)$$

7. Results and Discussion

In order to estimate the index of proportion married C_m , the current proportion married among females by age $m(a)$ and age specific fertility rates ($f(a)$) were calculated and the results are displayed in Table (1) and Table (2). Based on these results, the index of marriage was obtained.

$$C_m = \frac{\sum f(a)}{\sum f(a)/m(a)} = \frac{2.49933224}{5.322052} = 1.4696$$

This indicates that 46.96% women were married during their reproductive age in 2015-16 and the proportion of married had 53.04% impact on fertility reduction.

The proportion of contraceptive use (u_m) and the effectiveness of these methods (e_m) were calculated and the results are shown in Table (3). According to these results, the contraceptive prevalence among married women and the average effectiveness of contraception were calculated as follows:

$$u = \text{contraceptive prevalence among married women} = \sum u_m = 0.499$$

$$e = \text{the average effectiveness of contraception} = \frac{1}{u} \sum u_m * e_m = 0.708337$$

$$\text{Therefore, } C_c = 1 - (1.08 \times 0.499 \times 0.708337) = 0.618263$$

This means that according to MDHS 2015-2016 data among total women, about 61.83% were not using contraceptive methods. Hence, it can be said that, contraceptive use had 38.17% impact on fertility reduction. The mean duration (months) of breastfeeding among children ever born in the past 3 years in MDHS 2015-16 is 24.2 months

$$i = 1.753 \exp(0.1396 \beta - 0.00187 \beta^2) = 17.19299$$

$$Ci = \frac{20}{18.5+i} = \frac{20}{18.5+17.19299} = 0.5603$$

It indicates that the lactational infecundability has 43.97% impact on fertility reduction (Table 4). Finally, putting the values of the above indices in the Bongaarts model, the TFR is 2.5 which is a little bit higher than the replacement level of fertility.

III. Conclusion

Fertility has an important role on the change of socio-economic condition of a country. Understanding the level, pattern and nature of fertility, decision makers can make decision and formulate the future policy of a country. The total fertility rate measures the fertility of a country. Achieving the replacement level of fertility is very important for the socio-economic development of a country. In spite of having many socio-economic and political problems, and lack of health conditions and other factors that are essential for fertility decline, the fertility rate of Myanmar is decreasing dramatically. This decline trend has created much interest among researchers, policy makers and academicians. That's why, the current total fertility rate is estimated and needed to check how it far from the replacement level of fertility.

In this work, the total fertility rate of Myanmar for 2015-16 was estimated using Bongaarts model based on the results of four proximate determinants which have a vital role to achieve this fertility rate.

According to the index of marriage, the result reveals that the marriage has 53.04% impact on fertility reduction, which is the largest factor among the other proximate determinants of fertility. Based on the result of contraception index, it was found that the contraceptive use has 38.17% impact on fertility reduction. It is a second largest contribution to the TFR.

The index induced abortion in the model was set at 1.0 due to lack of data as recommended by (Bongaarts, 1983). So the total fertility rate can be computed based on 1 as the value of induced abortion index. The mean duration of breastfeeding in 2015-16 was 24.2 months, and based on this value, the postpartum infecundability index has been determined. The total fertility rate of Myanmar for 2015-16 is 2.5 which is above the replacement level. The results in the Bongaart's model showed that the index of marriage had the highest reducing effect on fertility and the second highest was the contraception.

Based on MDHS 2015-16 data, the following recommendations can be made:

(a) The use of contraception plays an important role in fertility reduction so the

government should give awareness to the women to control the fertility effectively and the campaigning on this issue could be made.

(b) Couples should be encouraged for permanent birth control system after having their desired number of children, in order to avoid further pregnancy.

Table 1: Age-specific proportion of married women.

Age	No. of married women	No. of women	Proportion of married women m(a)
15-19	227	1810	0.125414
20-24	834	1867	0.446706
25-29	1258	1867	0.673808
30-34	1505	2037	0.738832
35-39	1482	1954	0.758442
40-44	1283	1733	0.740335
45-49	1169	1617	0.722944

Table 2: Age-specific fertility rate and proportion of women married

Age	f(a)	m(a)	$g(a) = f(a)/m(a)$
15-19	0.200552	0.125414	1.599119
20-24	0.598822	0.446706	1.340528
25-29	0.711837	0.673808	1.056439
30-34	0.520373	0.738832	0.704319
35-39	0.322416	0.758442	0.425101
40-44	0.137911	0.740335	0.186282
45-49	0.007421	0.722944	0.010265
	2.49933224		5.322052

Table 3: Contraceptive use and its' use effectiveness.

Methods	Proportion use (um)	Use effectiveness (em)	$um \times em$
Pill	0.138	0.46	0.06348
IUD	0.028	0.99	0.02772
Implants	0.009	0.78	0.00702
Injectable	0.276	0.85	0.2346
Sterilization	0.048	0.43	0.02064
	0.499		0.35346

Table 4: Estimate of the proximate determinants from MDHS (2015-16)

Index of proximate determinants of fertility	Estimated value	Impact on fertility reduction
Index of marriage (Cm)	0.4696	53.04%
Index of contraception (Cc)	0.6183	38.17%
Index of induced abortion (Ca)	1.00	0.00%
Index of postpartum infecudability (Ci)	0.5603	43.97%

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A Study on the Educational Conditions in Myanmar - Focusing on early childhood education -

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ABSTRACT: Education in the development of the country is more important than anything else. It is meaningful to look at the educational situation and problems of Myanmar, which is spurring economic development these days. Especially, it is most important for early childhood education which is the most basic form of personality formation. Cooperation in the international community is also a field that is most urgently required. Recently, facilities for early childhood education are increasing. However, it is not known exactly because the statistical survey is not done properly. Mostly uninhabited. It is difficult to get accredited as an educational institution in Myanmar. 90% of children do not benefit from education. Recently, the number of early childhood education institutions is increasing. On the other hand, there is no standard for the qualities of early childhood education institutions and teachers, and there is no governing body. This study aims at the actual condition of Preschool Education in Myanmar.

Key words : Childhood Education, Education System, Preschool Teacher,

I. Introduction

Education in the development of the country is more important than anything else. It is meaningful to look at the educational situation and problems of Myanmar, which is spurring economic development these days. Especially, it is most important for early childhood education which is the most basic form of personality formation. Cooperation in the international community is also a field that is most urgently required.

Myanmar's academic system is 4-4-2. One year kindergarten is K-year (5 years old). Four years of elementary school, four years of middle school, and two years of high school. There is a kindergarten course different from the elementary school course.

Myanmar is not very popular with teachers. Big cities such as Yangon are already occupied by experienced teachers. New entrants must go to the provinces unconditionally. One reason is that wages are low.

There is the Basic Education Department under the Ministry of Education. It operates 13 teacher training universities nationwide. Since 1948, children aged 2-4 are in charge of the Department of Social Welfare. They raise funds for parents. And a teacher education certificate for one month.

There are about 1,300 preschools in Myanmar (Alice, 2007). Most are run by individuals, communities, NGOs, and religious organizations. This is because the Ministry of Social Welfare does not have enough budget.

Recently, facilities for early childhood education are increasing. However, it is not known exactly because the statistical survey is not done properly. Mostly uninhabited. It is difficult to get accredited as an educational institution in Myanmar. 90% of children do not benefit from education.

Recently, the number of early childhood education institutions is increasing. On the other hand, there is no standard for the qualities of early childhood education institutions and teachers, and there is no governing body.

This study aims at the actual condition of Preschool Education in Myanmar. 1. Health Hygiene of Infants. 2. Related organizations. 3. Preschool teacher education system.

II. Main subject

1. Health Hygiene of Infants

Korea and other countries are supporting vaccines to combat infectious diseases. However, the health and hygiene of Myanmar is still insufficient.

Unicef's health hygiene indicators are as follows.

- 1) Safe drinking water rate is 78%
- 2) 1 year old vaccination rate: TB-76%, DPT-76%, Polio-73%, Measles-73%, Hep-B-72%, Hip-62%
- 3) Infant mortality rate (per 4.7 million population under 5 years old): less than 5 years old -105,000 people, under 1 year -75,000 people

Infant mortality rates below 5 years of age are not as secure as the 144th in the world (190 countries). Of these, 50% are waterborne diseases. In other words, death is due to preventable disease (Unicef, 2013). One in three infants under the age of 5 is

malnourished. About 70% of the population lives in the provinces. Children living here are less likely to receive health services. It is difficult to supply clean drinking water, and there is no purification facility. The gap between city and province is very high (Unicef, 2013)

Two things are necessary to ensure healthy health for infants.

- 1) Prevention of hepatitis, malaria and dengue fever in Myanmar
- 2) Support for Essential Vitamin A for Improved Prevention Ability

The early childhood education institutions, three kinds of guidance are needed.

- 1) Wash hands with soap after going out and using toilet
- 2) How to store food in a hot climate
- 3) Clean eating habits

2. Early Childhood Educational Institutions

Except for the government agencies, the Myanmar institutions related to early childhood education include the following. Yinthway Foundation, MPTTS(Myanmar Preschool Teachers Training Seminary), Unicef, Save the Children, World Vision etc. The Yinthway Foundation is a local NGO organization that influences early childhood education. Yinthway is in Myanmar meaning our beloved little children. The Yinthway Foundation and Save the Children introduce community development through early childhood education to Myanmar. It also introduces the concept of Early Childhood Care & Development (ECCD) and plays a pioneering role.

In 1999, there were few early childhood education institutions in Myanmar. A missionary named Alice Mundhenk helped establish the agency at the local request. Now it has grown to the role of ECCD support center. The Yinthway Foundation nurtures trainees to train early childhood teachers.

The work to do is as follows.

- 1) Short-term 5 weeks teacher training (3 weeks - theory, 2 weeks - practice)
- 2) Parent education seminar
- 3) Once a year ECCD
- 4) Holding seminars for people to gather
- 5) Development of early childhood education materials

Specifically, it is as follows.

- 1) Foster ECCD Trainer as a Staff
- 2) Books for infants, teachers' educational CDs, educational posters, children's books and CDs
- 3) Cooperate and distribute sales of education goods made by other organizations

Teacher education CD contents are as follows.

- 1) Importance of early childhood education
- 2) Importance of play in early childhood education
- 3) Permanent development
- 4) Creating a Diocese
- 5) Daily routines of kindergarten

It is in Myanmar. It was made for the kindergarten situation in Myanmar. So the praise is good. Korea is also influencing Myanmar's early childhood education. In 2005, a Korean missionary established a kindergarten teacher training seminary. All students live in a dormitory. It is called MPTTS (Myanmar Preschool Teachers Training Seminary). The curriculum is three years. Two years of theoretical education and one year of on-the-job training.

Teacher education curriculum consists of systematic theology, biblical studies, discipleship training, infant psychology, guitar and church music, games and early childhood arts, Korean language, field practice. It can be seen that there are more theological subjects than the subjects related to early childhood education. So far, many teachers have graduated and are active. After graduation, they work primarily as teachers in church Sunday school and missionaries. Or as a kindergarten teacher. They also produce and distribute songbooks and CDs that can be used in churches and translated songs from Korea.

Unicef offers health-related prevention programs that pose a health risk to children and women. It tells the prevention methods that can protect sanitary life. The details are as follows.

- 1) Allow essential medical services to be provided to effectively deal with the disease.
- 2) Assist in safe birth.
- 3) Help to use clean water and hygienic toilets

The first-year immunization rate also rose by over 90%. They are trying to prevent infants from disease. Among the infant-related projects, the following are effective programs.

- 1) A program that creates a friendly space where children can live safely and brightly in the home, community, and school.
- 2) Protecting children and their maternal rights from threats (exploitation, abuse, dangerous labor, etc.) and community-wide advocacy for them.
- 3) Maintain cooperation with the government

NGOs with activities similar to UNICEF include Save the Children, World Vision and religious organizations. These groups commonly seek to increase the number and quality of early childhood education institutions. By doing so, it aims to develop the community and promote the lives of infants.

3. Preschool teacher education system

Myanmar does not have a university (a degree is accepted) that nurtures kindergarten teachers. There is a monthly seminar for teachers to be recognized by the Ministry of Social Welfare. If complete this, can get a certificate. There is also a five-week course at the Yinthway Foundation. Each seminar is held twice a year.

At a time, an average of 40 students are given teacher certification. The seminar at the Yinthway Foundation covers theories about the importance of preschool curriculum, planning and operation of work arrangements, child psychology, and play. The seminar is a total of 5 weeks. Three weeks are taught, and two weeks are practiced. There are many difficulties in passing the theory in three weeks.

At present, the most difficult thing in operating an early childhood education institution in Myanmar is the lack of teaching materials and textbooks. There is also a need for education on the ability of teachers to appropriately use or operate educational media. The need for improvement in the field of early childhood education in Myanmar is as follows.

- 1) The government lacks awareness of early childhood education. Myanmar does not yet have a specialized educational institution to train pastor teachers. Early childhood teachers are being discharged after a month's seminar. In 2007, the government questioned the quality of in-service teachers and asked UNICEF to re-educate teachers. Win Aung, a UNICEF education specialist, said the government is willing to improve early childhood teacher education but lacks resources. The help is most needed in the field of early childhood teacher education, and there is a high possibility of cooperation.
- 2) There is a lack of local language resources for children's textbooks and teacher education. Many of the children's books produced by the Yinthway Foundation are made of A4 thin paper in black and white. Recently, there are books in color. Printing is low. There is a lack of pre-service training for teachers. There are also less textbooks and parishes that field teachers can refer to.
- 3) The level of early childhood education institutions is very different. There are a lot of bad institutions in the form of a collection of children in a bamboo house.

In conclusion, the demand for support for early childhood education in Myanmar

- 1) Kindergarten teacher education
- 2) Re-education of incumbent teachers
- 3) Local Leadership Development to Teach Teacher Education
- 4) Presenting the model through the pilot kindergarten
- 5) Establishing quality standards for early childhood education institutions
- 6) Development of locally produced teaching materials and teaching materials
- 7) Linking with home to enhance the effectiveness of education
- 8) Systematic Parent Education

III. Conclusion

1. Health Hygiene of Infants

Korea and other countries are supporting vaccines to combat infectious diseases. However, the health and hygiene of Myanmar is still insufficient. Infant mortality rates below 5 years of age are not as secure as the 144th in the world.

Two things are necessary to ensure healthy health for infants. Prevention of hepatitis, malaria and dengue fever in Myanmar. Support for Essential Vitamin A for Improved Prevention Ability

In early childhood education institutions, three kinds of guidance are needed. Wash hands with soap after going out and using toilet. How to store food in a hot climate. Clean eating habits

2. Related organizations

The Myanmar institutions related to early childhood education include the following. Yinthway Foundation, MPTTS, Unicef, Save the Children, World Vision etc.

The Yinthway Foundation and Save the Children introduce community development through early childhood education to Myanmar.

A missionary helped establish the agency at the local request. Now it has grown to the role of ECCD support center. The Yinthway Foundation nurtures trainees to train early childhood teachers. In 2005, a Korean missionary established a kindergarten teacher training seminary(MPTTS). The curriculum is three years. After graduation, they work primarily as teachers in church Sunday school and missionaries. Or as a kindergarten teacher.

Unicef offers health-related prevention programs that pose a health risk to children and women. Allow essential medical services to be provided to effectively deal with

the disease. Assist in safe birth. Help to use clean water and hygienic toilets. Prevent infants from disease.

Save the Children and World Vision commonly seek to increase the number and quality of early childhood education institutions. By doing so, it aims to develop the community and promote the lives of infants.

3. Preschool teacher education system

There is a monthly seminar for teachers to be recognized by the Ministry of Social Welfare. If complete this, can get a certificate.

Each seminar is held twice a year. The seminar is a total of 5 weeks. Three weeks are taught, and two weeks are practiced. At present, the most difficult thing in operating an early childhood education institution in Myanmar is the lack of teaching materials and textbooks.

The need for improvement in the field of early childhood education in Myanmar is as follows. The government lacks awareness of early childhood education. Myanmar does not yet have a specialized educational institution to train pastor teachers. Early childhood teachers are being discharged after a month's seminar.

In conclusion, the demand for support for early childhood education in Myanmar are follows. Kindergarten teacher education. Re-education of incumbent teachers. Local Leadership Development to Teach Teacher Education. Presenting the model through the pilot kindergarten. Establishing quality standards for early childhood education institutions. Development of locally produced teaching materials and teaching materials. Linking with home to enhance the effectiveness of education. Systematic Parent Education.

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The Role of Social Media in Political Change: The Case of Tunisia and Egypt

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ABSTRACT: The popular unrest and demonstrations that started in Tunisia in late 2010 and spread across North Africa and West Asia have become known as the 'Arab spring.' These revolts have directly led to the overthrow of the several decades-old regimes and their leaders: Zine al-Abidine ben Ali in Tunisia; Gaddafi in Libya; Ali Abdullah Saleh in Yemen; and most dramatically, Hosni Mubarak in Egypt. Digital spaces like social media (Facebook, Twitter, Skype), internet, SMS and MMS played an important role to facilitate these protests into broad mobilizations. These platforms allowed protesters to spread their message of revolution at a rate which would have been impossible without them. Social media played a particularly pivotal in Tunisia due to the country's high rate of internet users; at the time of the revolt, one-third of the population used the internet which among the highest usage rates in Africa. This paper investigates the role of social media in Arab spring that has resulted in political change in some North African and West Asian countries. In 2011 there were a number of revolutionary political movements in the Arab world mobilised by social media networks. These networks were also used in a number of ways by authoritarian and repressive Governments and by the opposition movements, which challenged them. Social media networks played a significant role in the fast breakup of at least two regimes in the 2011 "Arab Spring" protests, Tunisia and Egypt, while also contributing to socio-political activation in Syria and Bahrain. Social media became an ideal tool to connect the free networks association, which brings together different groups and individuals for same cause. The news of the self-immolation of Mohammad Bouazizi in Tunisia on December 18, 2010, spread through social media and spread to Algeria, Jordan, Egypt, Yemen and to other countries. But it was in Egypt that the computer-literate working class youth and their supporters among middle-class college students, created a veritable revolution, fanned by a whirlwind of rights activists, trade unionists, professors, lawyers, and unemployed youth. The demonstrations continued in Tahrir Square, until President Hosni Mubarak was forced to resign on February 11, after 18 days of protests, ending his 30-year presidency. Only Tunisia and Egypt have succeeded in overthrowing the previous regimes. This paper examines how the social media succeeded in changing the political regime in Tunisia and Egypt.

Key words : Arab Spring, Social Media, Computer Literate, Political Mobilization, Political Change, Democratization Process

I. Introduction

Over the past decade, a debate has emerged how social media influence social movements and political change. The Arab uprisings of 2011 certainly revived this debate among supporters and detractors of the power of these new media tools as a way of communication, used and misused by both activists and state powers. In Tunisia, hundreds of tireless young cyber activists had been challenging the authoritarian regime's censorship through countless blogs and other forms of online communication, developing into a latent force that eventually led to a street mass mobilization and the fleeing, on 14 January 2011, of President Zine El Abidine Ben Ali. In Egypt, the youth closely followed the Tunisian way and quickly engaged their efforts in establishing strong online social networks that would ignite massive protests and, ultimately, drive President Hosni Mubarak from power on 11 February 2011.

In a globalized era, the use of Internet and the new information and communication technologies has undoubtedly changed the dynamics of social movements and political change. The Arab world has been no exception; there, the new media environment has reshaped the nature of politics and, especially, it has challenged the way authoritarian regimes operate. On the one hand, the rapid proliferation of Arab satellite television and new internet-based media have urged Arab regimes to change the way they perceive and make use of media as a way of state control over public opinion. On the other hand, new media tools such as Facebook, Twitter or YouTube have influenced not only the way the Arab public sphere is being rethought, but also the way the Arab community is perceived internationally (Adai 2012, p. 80).

This paper argues that, while social media can have a prominent role in the coordination and mobilization of grassroots movements and be a useful tool in forging political change, they are neither the actors nor the drivers of a revolution. Additionally, it gives evidence of how new media tools are a double-edged sword that can be used either for overcoming authoritarian regimes or political manipulation. It discusses the need for framing social media within a broader context of media power, in order to better evaluate its effects on the public opinion and public affairs. Finally, it also argues that the level of impact social media can have on collective action may vary depending on the socio-political context of a given country, and that they may not always have the power needed for shaping new democracies.

II. The Emergence of Social Media in Public Affairs

The rise of digital technologies that make social media possible has revolutionized the way civil society and institutions communicate opinions and disseminate information. Social media have allowed for a faster and less costly way of transmitting information among individuals, communities and organizations in a globalized era. The new global public sphere, as argued by Castells (2008), is built around the media communications system and Internet networks: web-based technologies such as blogs, social networks (Facebook or Twitter) or social spaces filled with user generated content (YouTube) are representations of the new technological means by which civil society can exist independently from political institutions and from mass media. Social media have become platforms from where ordinary people are able to influence public affairs (Auer 2011, p. 12). New information and communication technologies have allowed citizens to take part in any of the stages of the communication process: they can create the content of a news item, they can disseminate it, and they can consume from a broad range of sources. Moreover, they have speeded up the course of communication.

One of the main elements that need to be addressed when analysing the impact of social media on social movements is their role in the agenda setting, a power historically in hands of the traditional media. Agenda-setting theory explains how audiences can perceive a given news item depending on the significance that media give to the news story in terms of the coverage and position (McCombs and Shaw 1972, p. 43). With the ascendance of digital media, audiences are open to consume news from wide variety of sources, which allows for a higher degree of freedom in the selection of news, thus avoiding the traditional one-way imposer of what media believes needs to be set on the public agenda. In this way, the agenda-setting function may have been altered, either by diminishing the ability of mainstream media to set the political agenda or by reversing the flow of information (Sayre et al. 2010, p. 25).

III. The Role of Social Media as an Instrument for Political Struggle

The use of social media tools as a means to raise awareness and mobilize the masses against the status quo of a given country or regime is certainly not new. Social and political activism has had very significant episodes throughout the twentieth

century, from non-violent civil disobedience in India to civil right movements in the US among many others, yet social media have given social movements useful tools to coordinate and to undertake collective action. Clay Shirky's analysis on the power of social media in enhancing democracies is probably one of the best attempts at glorifying social media movements (Shirky 2011, p. 42). Shirky believes that social media have a key role in echoing public opinion. To him, access to conversation is far more important than access to information. In the long run, he argues, social media may help increase freedoms as the printing press, postal service or the telegraph did before.

Internet has benefited grassroots movements by providing new possibilities for citizens to organize even under authoritarian regimes. As Yochai Benkler argues, with the inclusion of Internet in the framework of social mobilization, there has been a qualitative change 'represented in the experience of being a potential speaker, as opposed to simply a listener' (Benkler 2006, p. 40). According to him, Internet has not only reduced the cost of producing and publishing media content but it has also decentralized media production, making it much harder for authoritarian regimes to control and censor media outlets.

Nevertheless, there are many detractors of this uncontested role of social media. Malcom Gladwell, whose criticism of online activism became clear in his article *Why the revolution will not be twitted*, disregards of the role of social networking in effecting social and political change. Social networks, he claims, have encouraged an easy activism whereby action has a lower impact. His critics are crystal clear: Facebook activism succeeds not by motivating people to make a real sacrifice but by motivating them to do the things that people do when they are not motivated enough to make a real sacrifice (Anderson 2011, p. 22). Gladwell's argument is also supported by Paul Mason (2012), who agrees with the fact that networks allow people to assemble and protest against a target, but he believes that the commitment levels are much limited. Social media have played a big role overcoming official censorship and propaganda, he says, but the revolutions in the Arab world 'have been social, political and real not virtual'.

In any case, recent history gives us a few examples of how social networks operated in order to benefit activists seeking to expand their efforts, communicate their ideas or make information available in places where traditional communication tools were limited or not even allowed. In authoritarian regimes, different forms of social media can provide alternative sources of news and information (Etling 2010, p. 55). Facebook and Twitter are today among the most commonly known due to the recent events in the Arab world, but cell-phones' text-messaging, video-recording or blogging have been very active in the past decade. New technology tools have strengthened the power of citizens who, often more quickly than professional

journalists themselves, can report news as they happen. Some argue that citizen journalism can be extremely useful in contexts of oppression or state control over mainstream media. According to Khamis, Gold and Vaughn, citizen journalists can function as a proxy free press, a medium that can uncover and challenge falsehoods and misinformation (Beaumont 2011, p. 10).

In 2001, cell phones were central in organizing a massive protest against the government's corruption in the Philippines. Texting messages reading "Go 2 EDSA" was an effective strategy to rapidly convey thousands of angry citizens in one of the major crossroads in Manila, who wanted to raise their voice against an impeachment trial that would have otherwise left President Joseph Estrada free from responsibility (Bishara 2012, p. 26). The protests, commonly known as People Power II, allowed information on the President's corruption to be shared widely. The results came immediately: Estrada resigned only three days after the protests. As Filipino TV journalist David Celdran writes, SMS had become one of the most popular forms of communication in the Philippines, making them a potential tool for mediating political information and accelerating the process of political change. Nevertheless, some studies have shown that their might be no significant relationship between mobile usage and anti-government protests.

There are, however, other examples of new media activism not achieving any political shift, although the use of new information and communication technologies did have an impact in the coordination of protests. The 2007 Myanmar protests, for instance, fuelled by rising gas prices and the country's worsening economic situation, are known for having used multiple forms of social networking for both organizing the demonstrations and communicating the unfolding events live. The country, had long been ruled by a military regime, did not leave space for open and free media and protesters turned to the Internet in search for ways to inform about the situation. The protests caught global attention as citizens secretly filled the cyberspace with images and videos of monks leading large, peaceful demonstrations against the government (Chowdhury 2008, p. 22).

Information about events in Myanmar was rapidly disseminated through the mainstream media and thanks to the use of new information technologies, which had an exponential effect in communicating the events internationally. Even international media accentuated the role that modern communication technologies were having not only in informing about government abuses but also in challenging a repressing regime. Many blogs served not only to transmit information but also to collect news from different sources. Social networking sites also played an important role in engaging people to the cause. While it is difficult to prove a direct causal impact, the awareness and attention created by online activists helped shape international attention and action towards addressing the Myanmar crisis. However, as the protests

resulted in a brutal military crush, it is difficult to conclude that the use of social media leads to any tangible political change (Chowdhury 2008, p. 23).

The debate over whether social media indeed has a direct effect on revolutionary process had a turning point during the 2009 Iranian protests. Following President Mahmoud Ahmadinejad's disputed re-election, protests spread across major cities in Iran in what was called the Green Revolution- it was reflecting the campaign colour of the opposition candidate Mousavi. The international media quickly supported one argument or the other. But as the movement lost momentum, so did the theory of the Twitter Revolution, which for some was no more than a Western fantasy. No significant political change was achieved; after the protests, the Islamic Revolutionary Guards Corps established a cyber-defence command to counter online political activism, making Twitter and Facebook inaccessible to those without filter proxies acquired in the West (Abdo 2011, p. 32). In this regard, social media during the Iranian protests of 2009 is seen only as a tool for reporting the events as they unfolded and nurturing the international press with live tweets from Teheran and videos documenting the protests. As it had happened in Myanmar, there is some evidence that indicates that the greatest amount of tweets about the Iranian protests occurred mainly in the West and it is not proved that they had a causal effect in organizing them (Etling 2010, p. 20).

IV. The Ambivalence of Social Media: Dangers and Opportunities

The use of social media and its effect has many interpretations and it all depends on the context where it is being applied. The potential impact and limitations of social media on political change make new digital applications a powerful tool to those who consciously decide to make use of them. It has vastly been argued that new media tools help social movements in organizing and disseminating information, as seen above. However, much has also been argued about the perverse effects of the social media. Evgeny Morozov may well be one of the leading pioneers of this wave of thought, clearly arguing that technological advance does not translate into democratic transformation. His scepticism is well depicted in his masterpiece "The Net Delusion", in which he holds the argument that social media-Internet, in general-can be as effective in helping political activists achieve their demands as powerful in backing up authoritarian regimes (Morozov 2011, p. 24). This critique of social media is based on the hypothesis that authoritarian regimes can be as quick as activists in using new media tools for their own interest, as a means of monitoring and controlling societies with increasingly improved mechanisms. Recent studies and

extensive evidence also indicate that Internet control mechanisms have improved and that more governments use more sophisticated methods to filter and monitor web-based contents, like targeting local languages and websites of opposition movements (Deibert 2009, p. 23).

As it happens with mainstream media, social media can be a double-edged sword; their use by political activists or by state actors can lead to totally opposite outcomes. It is what Kyriakopoulou calls the 'dyadic nature of social media': on the one hand, they can be a tool for opening up to democracy and challenge authoritarian states. They can become a source of useful information, raising awareness that enable the emergence of social capital. On the other hand, social media can support authoritarian states in their efforts of disseminating propaganda. Some authors have pointed out a major weakness of social media: when used by leaderless movements, they may experience frustration when the time comes for negotiating, as these movements do not have the usual array of party elites. When the time arrives for dealing with the terms of democratic transition, online activists cannot defend their demands, as they do not have a visible leader to participate in the negotiations (Lynch 2011, p. 12).

On the other hand, social media pose another danger yet to be thoughtfully analyzed. New information and communication technologies are basically designed to be open and unlimited in that the length, amount or even the accuracy of what is being transmitted through social media can sometimes lead to misinformation. In this regard, social media's strengths can also create problems. According to Auer, the challenge then is "sorting critical information from junk on social networks" until they gain reputation. Social media though can also bring opportunities beyond their role in accelerating social movements by providing upgraded forms of communication. Authoritarian regimes can indeed learn fast and adapt to new tools and strategies. They can even shut down the Internet as it happened in Burma and Iran but, in doing so, they may have to face economic and political consequences and, what is more, op-position movements may grow more legitimated for their cause. As Bruce Etling, Robert Faris and John Palfrey put it, "Internet may be the only avenue left for citizens in authoritarian regimes to influence government, fight corruption or defend their rights" (Etling et al. 2010, p. 27).

V. The Use of Social Media in the Arab Uprisings

The unexpected democratic uprising that started in Tunisia beginning of 2011 rapidly extended to most of the Arab countries. These social protests set off a chain of unprecedented events that are still having deep effects all across the region. The

outcomes and real impact of these social revolts are still not certain and will need to be accurately addressed and interpreted in historical perspective, in view of the current situation. Nevertheless, there are already many elements that can be considered for analysis in light of the events that have occurred in 2011 and part of 2012 across the Arab region. On 17 December 2010, a young street vendor of the central Tunisian city of Sidi Bouzid set himself on fire in protest of the humiliation and harassment received from a municipal officer after the confiscation of his wares.

Tarek al-Tayeb Mohamed Bouazizi's self-immolation induced the first protests of what ended up being known as the Tunisian Revolution. This fact, albeit symbolically decisive, was just the last straw after long years of repression and torture carried out by Ben Ali's authoritarian regime. Likewise, a wave of unrest spread all over the Arab region soon after the Tunisian case: it first hit Algeria with major protests starting on 28 December 2011, and then it continued in Jordan, Egypt, Yemen, Iraq, Bahrain, Libya, Kuwait, Morocco and Syria, where protests led to either a change of government or some political reforms. To a lesser extent, other countries such as Mauritania, Oman, Saudi Arabia, Sudan or Lebanon have also experienced protests as a result of the revolts that have shaken the region in the past year.

As a result, governments in four Arab countries have been overthrown. Tunisian President Ben Ali fled to Saudi Arabia on 14 January 2011. Egyptian President Hosni Mubarak resigned on 11 February 2011, only 18 days after the start of the protests. In Libya, Muammar Gaddafi was deposed on 23 August 2011 and later killed on 20 October 2011 after the National Transitional Council (NTC) took control of his hometown Sirte. Finally, in Yemen, a presidential election was held and President Ali Abdullah Saleh ceded power to Abd Rabbuh Mansur Al-Hadi on 27 February 2012. In other parts of the regions, the wave of uprisings has forced many leaders to reform their country's constitutions, as it happened in Morocco, or to announce that they would not seek re-election, as it was the case Iraqi Prime Minister Nouri al-Maliki. Following their independence, Arab states went through a series of modernization processes that brought them toward sovereignty (Cottle 2011, p. 24). They would focus on elements of national identities and cultural differences, in order to create national loyalties and, to some extent, to create unity within the newly established independence of the nation-state.

State authorities used the media industry as a platform to propagate the Arab unity approach, making use of the public sphere to shape public opinion to their own convenience (Ayish and Mellor 2011, p. 18). Films, radio stations and music production, among other means of mass communication, were used to promote state policies. Pan-Arab media outlets included radio stations and newspapers, but it was television broadcasting what had the main role in shaping this new identity of global community. The use of new information and communication technologies came as a

challenge to the previously existing media system, creating a totally new media environment (Kraidy and Rinnawi 2006, p. 22). After the 1991 Gulf war, the Arab media industry experienced a deep reform with the launch of many state-owned satellite channels and the opening of a totally new market for privately managed media. The rise of these new policies of proliferation of media outlets was mainly due to the emergence of a new generation of Arab politicians willing to modernize their media institutions (Mellor 2011, p. 21). Simultaneously, the raise and influence of Western-driven media channels such as CNN or BBC-especially when they launched their Arabic versions made Arab states respond by boosting their own global Arab broadcasting systems and many satellite TV channels rapidly developed and gained popularity all over the region.

The peak of this process, however, was achieved when the first Arab all-news satellite channels appeared on the scene. Qatar-based Al-Jazeera was launched in October 1996, altering the Saudis monopoly on Pan-Arab media. Al-Jazeera could be seen as part of Qatar's Emir strategic plan to challenge Saudi Arabian primacy in the Gulf (Rinnawi 2006, p. 43). It has been argued that Al-Jazeera dominated the Arab public discourse until 2002, when other stations like Al-Arabiya, a Dubai-based network mostly funded by Saudi Arabia, emerged to challenge its leadership in the all-news share (Lynch 2011, p. 24). Some others add to that that Al-Jazeera created a somehow new space for critical discourse about Arab politics (Nelson 2008, p. 13), putting in constant tension many Arab governments and Qatar's rulers (Kraidy 2002, p. 26). The only topic that the Arab all-news leading station can leave untouched is internal Qatari politics (Rinnawi 2006, p. 29). The effects of this booming of the new Arab media on the Arab society have been greatly discussed.

According to Benedict Anderson (2006), Arab transnational media have had an important role in today's re-imagination of the Arab community, thus regaining the value of the lost public sphere, much like the role the newspaper had in creating an imagined community of European nations in the 18th century as described by Jürgen Habermas in 1962. In his work on the contribution that the media revolution is making to the emergence of a new Arab consciousness, Lawrence Pintak (2009) also underlines that Pan-Arab satellite TV stations have been able to blur the lines between Arab states in the imagination of the Arab people. He stresses the importance of the role played by communication professionals who perform under this umbrella. Following a comparison of data from a survey of Arab journalists, Pintak argues that they are real active actors of the construction of this "emerging 'imagined' watan (nation). Mark Lynch (2006) believes that the emergence of these satellite television networks, which prioritized politics and a region wide public discourse, was necessary to create a new Arab public sphere. Yet others argue that the appearance and evolution of the satellite Arab media industry, despite its importance and its

efforts to offer new programming, has not developed into a fourth power nor it has any manoeuvre towards encouraging civil society or democracy (Dajani 2006, p. 22). According to this view, Pan-Arab media have mostly played domestic politics, while fostering a collective socio-cultural imaginary.

State control over the media has been continuous and evident in the Arab world, although traditional media regulations vary from country to country. There are common patterns to control the flow of information and the public discourse. As political scientist and Arab media expert, Mark Lynch (2006), declares, censorship “closed down most public avenues of political debate” and reduced the public spheres described above to a non-existing entity that would remain in people imaginary. The press and broadcast media were directly controlled by the leading elites and had no space for political opposition. State officials have strictly controlled broadcasting media in the Arab world, which almost exclusively served Arab regimes’ self-interests. Constantly programming time devoted to political information and propaganda, state intervention was done through censorship, self-censorship, the use of emergency laws and other ways of pressure (Filiu 2011, p. 15). During the 60 years period that preceded the satellite era (1920s-1980s), television and radio systems in the Arab world-what Khalil Rinnawi calls tribal broadcasting system-were literally in the hands of and manipulated by state leaders who deliberately attempted not only to maintain socio-cultural order and cultural religious values, but also to prevent external messages to interfere into their business.

Notwithstanding its severe application, Arab regimes’ censorship has not always gone in line with post-independence constitutions, which paradoxically give high importance to freedom of speech. This has made most of the Arab countries to eventually pass and enforce laws that regulate media, usually diminishing free speech (Mellor 2011, p. 32). Emergency laws, like in the case of Egypt or Syria, and other laws granting governments to prosecute journalists, like in Jordan or Bahrain, normally end up encouraging self-censorship. Orayb Aref Najjar describes some of these restrictive regulations to constrain the media in a comparative analysis between Egypt and Jordan. The analysis reveals that, albeit the instability that these countries have faced over time (as regards terrorism, for example), they have always followed a certain path in the way they regulate the media, especially by directing laws at curbing the enemies and critics of the states’ regimes. Enclosing media regulations within these somehow liberal constitutional frameworks has led to a ‘large degree of informal and indirect censorship’ (Ghonim 2012, p. 25).

Although the Arab media scene and its influence over public opinion and policymaking is very well represented by the broadcasting system (as seen in the previous section), attention should also be paid to the development and role of the print media in the Arab region. Nabil Dajani argues that beyond the role of the state,

the regulation of the Arab press is influenced by socio-political and geopolitical factors contributing to the materialization of the modern Arab states. In most cases, as described by Dajani, the Arab press has been directly or indirectly influenced by two main elements: colonization and post-independence. Egypt, for instance, had enjoyed a significant press freedom up until the 1950s, when the new regime brought about government regulations for the reasons already explained above. The effects of this nationalization of the Egyptian press persisted from Nasser, to Sadat and Mubarak, the latter introducing a slightly more flexible press law only in 2006, although it still allowed some forms of censorship. In the case of Tunisia, its press industry greatly follows a French style in the way newspapers are editorialized. Nevertheless, open criticism of the state's authorities is restricted due to harassment and repression. It is worth highlighting too that Tunisian press has usually targeted the elite.

In terms of regulating the transnational Arab satellite broadcasting, Arab regimes have faced a higher degree of challenge. Rinnawi goes even further and describes it as "the largest and most pervasive media challenge in contemporary history to state regime dominance". May this challenge be geographic, economic or technologic, it has pushed states to create alternative state-sponsored television and to apply specific measures to limit transnational media to enter each country. Examples of these measures were seen in Egypt, where policies against ownership of satellite equipment or cable access were enforced in order to avoid certain radio and television transmissions, and in Tunisia, where a law was passed in 1995 enforcing a licensing regime, although authorities had tried to ban the import and installation of satellite dishes in the early 1990s (Hassan 2012, p. 26). As regards ownership, regimes have opted for either direct state-control or indirect ownership through the ruling elite. While the above is true for many of the Arab countries' internal dynamics, the rise of satellite television systems has indeed posed real obstacles to state control by reducing government's capabilities to use their censorship's tools.

Carola Richter explains how internal pressure from private investors and business lobby groups in most of the Arab world has ultimately resulted in a "guided deregulation of the media sector, opening up spaces for non-regime actors". This has made Arab authorities to somehow modify their media regulations in order to allow commercial interests through independent television channels, such as Dream TV in Egypt (Hijjawi 2011, p. 42). Moreover, the extraordinary amount of revenues that the media business is providing to the investors-this is especially certain in terms of broadcast media-is driving some states to launch the so-called free media zones to encourage more investments. This has been the case mainly in the Gulf countries, although Egypt has also promoted its own media city. The case of Tunisia is significantly different.

Although the Tunisian Constitution grants press freedom, there was an absolute control over the media and criticism of the state's officials was highly discouraged (Dajani 2011 and Filiu 2011, p. 19). Tunisian audio visual media had traditionally been under surveillance of the *Établissement de la Radio diffusion-Télévision Tunisienne* (ERTT), which would oversee both television and radio broadcasting since 1957. The state would have the monopoly on domestic television services and only a very small number of radio stations were in private hands. The Tunisian audio visual scene included a private TV channel only in 2005, when Hannibal TV was launched via satellite and terrestrially. Not surprisingly then more than half of the TV audiences in Tunisia are connected via satellite channels daily, looking for uncensored information.

During the 1990s, while the satellite media industry was experiencing its mushrooming momentum, the Arab countries faced another revolutionary technological development that had a strong impact on the region. Internet entered the homes of the Arab world during the 1990s and some argue that it has even created a new generation of pan-Arabists (Rinnawi 2011, p. 22). Internet was for the first time linked in an Arab country in 1991, in Tunisia, although it was not until 1996 that it became widely used. Interestingly, Egypt came after in 1993, like Algeria and the United Arab Emirates. The rest of the Arab states followed their precursors during the next decade. For the purpose of this paper, it is important to underline that Arab states made huge efforts in making internet available to their citizens from the very beginning, as a means of economic development for their counties. Consequently, Internet penetration in the Arab world rapidly spread across the region: by December 2011, there were over eighty million users of Internet in the Arab world. Internet usage in the region, which represented 24 percent of the total Arab population, was thirty times higher 2011 than in the year 2000.

One of the most popular outcomes of this new online communication revolution in the Arab world has been the blogs: they have become the most effective tool to practice the right to freedom of expression. In 2009, there were approximately 35,000 active Arabic language blogs and several thousand Arabic blogs with mixed use of Arabic, English and French (Etling 2009, p. 22). Again, as it happened with the satellite television, the Arab youth have been the greatest consumers of this new media. The information revolution and social media products allowed Arab youth to develop their own social and cultural codes; they empowered the youth by freeing them from social constraints (Bishara 2012, p. 39).

It is worth mentioning that it is not a simple coincidence that a very young population of Arab activists was in fact the real power that drove the uprisings in 2011. According to the Arab Development Challenges Report (2011), half of the total Arab population is under twenty-five, a youth which is specially suffering from high rates of unemployment (23.8 percent in 2011). This leaves this mass of young

population in a good position to fight for better economic conditions and for a democracy most of them have never experienced. Not only blogs have opened up the access to express one's opinion on public matters, but they have also given the chance to do so in an Arabic colloquial language, which has made this media outlet more attractive to the majority of the Arab population, especially the youth. People do not need to use the formal classical or Modern Standard Arabic used in the traditional media; the street-spoken language is not only accepted but also expected in the Arab blogosphere.

The new media technologies and their role in helping democratization processes have clearly been in the midst of a vivid debate both in the media and in the academic circles since the Arab uprisings begun in early 2011. It has been said, on the one hand, that social media tools, including Facebook, YouTube and Twitter, can increase freedoms the same way the printing press did in democratizing Europe (Alterman, Auer and Beaumont 2011, p. 24). There are also many others who argue, on the other hand, that any forms of cyber-activism are doomed to be simply very good tools for a quicker organization and communication in revolutionary processes but that they are not sufficient for socio-political transformation (Mason 2012, p. 13). It is perhaps too soon to conclude that either one is correct, yet both visions are necessary to understand to what extent and in which way online social networking played a role in the Arab uprisings. In any event, the analysis should come in two phases. First, attention should be paid at the way new media tools had an immediate effect on the uprisings. Afterwards, there should be a careful examination on the impact social media have had-and will have-on the revolution.

During the uprisings, citizen journalists became a major source for mainstream media-i.e. satellite televisions and international media-and also a trusted source of information for the Arab community across the region. They helped raise awareness about the regime's brutal practices that, although widely known by the population, had not had the coverage by traditional media due to censorship and fierce state-control. As Hijjawi points out, citizen journalism "helped alleviate the vacuum of information. Later, and with the help of the new information and communication technologies, activists and opponents could mobilize and recruit a large number of mass populations, whose awareness and concerns about the state's brutality had grown, in a very short time. Social media provided the general population with the necessary means to actually become activists by promoting civic engagement (Alterman 2011, p. 60). It was useful for the awakening of the "largely dormant, unengaged, and marginalized civil societies in the Arab world", as characterized by Khamis, Gold and Vaughn (2012). User-generated content worked as a call to become an activist and when activism went out on the streets, the protests grew exponentially, transforming what had once been small opposition forces to massive grassroots

protests against the regimes.

New media tools did have a role in reducing the costs of mobilization and organization and accelerating the dissemination of information. Yet to what extent social media had an impact in the revolution, especially after the uprisings' momentum beginning of 2011, is a question that should carefully be addressed in perspective. The content editors of the website *nawaat.org*, a collective blog umbrella for many Tunisian activists that was especially relevant during the uprisings, believe that the role of social media has been largely magnified and that it should only be credited for its catalyzing and organizational role, and as a tool for dissemination. Adai consider that the key role for new media could be its "bridging function", which allows them to inform international audiences and mainstream media reporting, more than they do to local audiences. According to Robert Hassan, the events fostered through networkable technologies led to a "power vacuum" because, in fact, there were no roots to back it up.

The online social movement had neither visible leadership nor power for real change. For Hassan, this is central in understanding why this type of grass-roots dynamics cannot achieve any significant changes if isolated. Samin has a similar approach in criticizing the leaderless feature of online movements: while social media served as a spur for the Egyptian revolutionary agitation, it proved invalid as a driver of particular political outcomes Jean-Pierre Filiu would probably have arguments against both Hassan and Samin. In light of his ten lessons learned from the uprisings, he believes that leaderless movements, like those in Egypt and Tunisia, have proved to be effective, and that is why other civilian resistances in other countries such as Libya did not have an easy way: autocrats also learn their lessons well (Filiu 2011, p. 11).

In Hassan's view, the protests "arose out of virtually nothing except a long-standing but unfocussed and largely enacted upon anger and resentment against their oppressors". He supports his discourse by asserting that real social changes, such as achieving democracy, need to be embedded in durable grassroots activism, which in his opinion, was nearly non-existing in the digitally networked society that mobilized the masses through Facebook pages, tweets and by uploading videos on YouTube. Hassan's main argument stresses the fact that democratic culture, as we know it from the liberal point of view, needs time and that the new communication technologies have all but 'created a destabilization of the world that traditionally gave rhythm to democracy'. Thus, Hassan claims that democracy may come with time but that information technologies can only have 'the most peripheral of roles'.

The use of different forms of social media also needs to be considered in the context they are being employed. Underlying social and political dynamics of countries across the Arab region have also led to different outcomes in terms of political

change. Among those where mass mobilizations did happen, only a few were capable of overthrowing the authoritarian regime. Some authors have already compared the political contexts that have led to different outcomes. Khamis, Gold and Vaughn offer a detailed analysis of the similarities and differences between the Egyptian and the Syrian cases. Although in both countries Internet-savvy actors can be seen in all parties of the conflict in what they call a “cyberwar” between the regimes and their opponents, they differ in terms of ‘ethnic, religious, political and communication fabric’.

Concerning the communication arena, the authors bring attention to the numerous differences between the two countries, namely allowing foreign press to report about the uprisings in Egypt from the inside versus banning foreign journalists to enter the country to cover the events in Syria. Syria learned the lesson well: contrary to what both Egypt and Tunisia did before and during the uprising, there were no Internet blackout episodes, which would otherwise have induced further tension amidst the cyber-activist community (Gonzalez and Quijano 2011, p. 77). There have also been comparisons between the Egyptian experience and that of Saudi Arabia. Nadav Samin also argues that socio-political differences between societies largely determine the success of opposition movements. For instance, the Egyptian Facebook campaign was nothing less but the culmination of a long struggle of a collective of online activists seeking democracy, stability and freedom, while in Saudi Arabia, a strong economy along with a culturally conservative society have made most citizens less interested in any political change.

Internet penetration in both Egypt and Tunisia has exponentially grown in the past decade. In the case of Egypt, the number of people using the Internet by the end of 2011 was over twenty-one million (26.4 percent of the country's total population), almost fifty times that of the year 2000. In Tunisia, the increase was also significant: from 100,000 users in the year 2000, the number raised up to nearly four million users by the end of 2011 (36.6 percent of the country's total population), which represents an increase of almost forty times. The increase in the number of Internet users is a worldwide trend (around 600 percent in the past decade). However, the rates at which Internet usage have grown in the Arab world, from North Africa to the Middle East, go far beyond the global average.

In terms of social media usage, the growth rates of usage have also been raising relatively fast. According to the Arab Social Media Report (2011), attention should be paid to the fact that the number of Facebook users in the Arab world increased by 30 percent in the first quarter of 2011, with Egypt constituting nearly a quarter of total Facebook users in the Arab region. However, the Arab states of the Persian Gulf lead the rates of Facebook user penetration. Interestingly, almost two million new users joined Facebook in Egypt between 5 January 2011 and 5 April 2011. According to this report, by April 2011 Egypt had 6.5 million Facebook users, representing a 7.66

percent of the country's total population, as opposed to the 4.5 million of users in January 2011. Tunisia had 2.3 million of Facebook users by April 2011, representing a 22.49 percent of the country's total population. Demographically, 75 percent of Facebook users in both Egypt and Tunisia were found to be twenty-nine years old or younger.

On the other hand, the number of Twitter users was far below the Facebook universe. While Egypt was also among the top five Arab countries in terms of active Twitter users (131,204 in average between 1 January and 30 March 2011), Tunisia was far below this number (35,746 active users). Nevertheless, Twitter was not as broadly used as Facebook neither in Egypt nor in Tunisia. The Twitter penetration rate in Egypt during the first months of 2011 was 0.15 percent and in Tunisia it was 0.34 percent. The most popular trending hashtags across the Arab region in the first quarter of 2011 were #Egypt, #jan25, #libya, #Bahrain, and #protest. The top trending terms in Egypt and Tunisia were #jan25 and #sidibouzyd, respectively. The #Egypt hashtag increased from 122,000 tweets on the eve of the revolution to 1.3 million tweets right after the 25 January demonstration. However, approximately two thirds of all tweets were in English and almost 70 were retweets (Barrons 2012, p. 32).

With regard to the language, Facebook experienced a massive increase in Arabic-speaking users after introducing its Arabic interface in February 2009. In fact, Twitter did not have an Arabic language interface until March 2012, and this seems to have inhibited the growth of its Arabic-speaking user base. As the Arab Social Media Report (2012) points out, Arabic is currently the fastest growing language on Facebook. Looking at the Facebook language preferences during the uprisings, Egypt opted for an equal use of both Arabic (49.88 percent) and English (48.98 percent), while Tunisia clearly preferred to use French (94.60 percent over 1.56 percent Arabic and 2.72 percent English).

The video-sharing platform YouTube is one of the social media tools that have had a greater impact across the Arab countries. YouTube views in the region grew by 120 percent in the first half of 2012. In Egypt, video uploads grew 150 percent and in Tunisia, the number of uploads increased by 420 percent. As far as the use of blogs is concerned, a study by Etling reveals that the Arabic blogosphere is organized around countries. According to this study, Egypt is the largest cluster of active blogs, which are classified by their focus and goals in many different areas of interest. One of the main findings of their analysis is that bloggers in Egypt seem to have traditionally been connected to political movements, showing support for the various active campaigns and using strong signals of political discourse.

The study breaks down the Egyptian network of blogs into five areas of interest: secular reformists (close to the Kefaya movement); wider opposition (with preference for the Tomorrow party); Egyptian youth (mainly young female oriented blogs

focused on women's issues and some politics); Egyptian Islamic (engaged on the discussion of Islam); and Muslim Brotherhood (with a very active online presence). In the case of Tunisia, bloggers are grouped in a cross-country cluster that includes the whole Maghreb area and who are mainly critical of both internal and external politics at large. While Egypt has the highest proportion of female bloggers in the Arabic blogosphere, the Maghreb cluster is extremely represented by men.

VI. Conclusion

This paper has looked at the use of social media in the 2011 uprisings in Tunisia and Egypt, focusing on their complex relationship with grassroots movements and the authoritarian regimes of both countries and bringing to attention the connection between traditional and new media. The study has shown that social media tools had been used in both countries long before the uprisings started. Activists as well as states used new web-based technologies to their own end: the former as a means of breaking the boundaries of the Arab public sphere and seeking freedom of expression; the latter, aiming at controlling the online discourse and going after those who break the boundaries. It has also presented evidence of the relevance of the role of social media vis-à-vis the mainstream media; while Facebook, Twitter or YouTube acted as tools for engaging, coordinating and communicating a relatively small group of activists, Al-Jazeera and other international media amplified the message, attracted the majority of the population to join the revolts and put pressure on the authoritarian states by engaging international audiences.

The analysis of the role that social media have had on the Egyptian and the Tunisian revolts gives evidence of the impact new media technologies can have on social transformation. They are used as a tool for fastening communication and coordination at a lower cost, although they cannot be seen as catalysts of any revolution by themselves. They are part of a broader media environment and they cannot be dissociated from the overall strategy of power control and agenda-setting of mainstream media. However, social media do have an increasing role in the processes of social transformation, as seen in the contexts analyzed in this paper. It is perhaps too early to determine the long term stability of the political change in countries like Tunisia and Egypt and evaluating the real impact of social media on these changes over the long run will need further research. Nevertheless, social media should be seriously taken into account when studying popular revolts and collective action, as they are tools with a clear influence in these movements.

Future research on this topic should include an evaluation of the impact of social

media on social transformation by examining and comparing the structural factors of different forms of social struggle in one specific region from a historical perspective. This would allow identifying social media's impact on social movements. It would also be useful to study how the different actors of social movements make use of the new media tools to forge the snowball effect of revolutions. The complex dynamics between social media, grassroots movements, mainstream media and authoritarian regimes make it necessary to look at and analyze very carefully all the parties involved in a revolution and their use of social media: who is more influential using social media and what kind of information spread by social media becomes more relevant in a revolution.

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Dating Violence of College Students*

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ABSTRACT: Dating violence has been considered as personal problem not social problem in Korea. This study was carried out to clarify the victimization to prevent it and to urge the enacting the related law. Data were collected from 282 students with questionnaire. The results showed that college students experienced almost all types of dating violence approximately 1-2times during the past one year. The influential factors on victimization were alcohol use and the experience of violence at an earlier age by family or peers. This study proposes that the education on use of alcohol, school violence or domestic violence should be enforced and the related law should be enacted for safe dating.

Key words : Dating Violence, College Students, Victimization, Women's Human Rights,

I. Introduction

Dating violence has not been considered as violence for long time but it has been regarded as love affair between lovers. It is widely presumed that dating violence is not as serious as other assaults or violent crime and that it is personal problem not social problem. Although the concept of dating violence has not yet defined definitely in researches, UN (2017) declared that the violence including dating violence broke out between intimate relations, and it should be considered as the problem of women's human rights.

According to the data of public prosecutors' office (2016), one of ten victims of murder cases was murdered by lover during one year 2015. The Hotline for Korean Women (2016) reported that the 79.7% of adult men experienced dating violence over one time. Lee & Kang(2010) who investigated the influencing factors on dating

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violence found that college students who had the stereotyped sex role idea and experienced the parents' violence had the high damage degree. Yoon, j., Yang, S. & Park, B. K. (2012) reported that domestic violence is the important factor influencing on the victim of dating violence.

Considering the seriousness of crime, the offenders committing dating violence get punished by the law of assault and the degree of punishment is so week. Dating violence is dangerous crime because of occurring serious murder, rape or injury (Rye, 2014). But the law preventing the dating violence has not been enacted. So this study investigates the experience of dating violence of college students for the purpose to urge the enacting the related law and to prevent it.

II. Research Method

1. Sample

Data were collected from 282 students of college located in Jeonnam province during November, 2016. The characteristics of the participants are as following table 1. The sample consisted of 41.3% female and 58.7% male. Most students (81.9%) were in age of 20-24. The Family income level of 67.4% students was in average level. The remaining students were in poor (19.2%) and rich families (13.5%).

Table 1. The characteristics of participants
(N=282)

Variable	categories	frequency(%)
Sex	female	165 (58.5)
	male	117(41.5)
Age	20-24	231 (81.9)
	25-28	51(18.1)
F a m i l y i n c o m e level	poor	54(19.2)
	average	190(67.4)
	rich	1(13.5)

2. Measurements

The dating violence victimization during the past one year was obtained via self reporting questionnaire. The items of dating violence were composed with 20 questions about emotional, physical and sexual violence. Participants were asked about the degree of the experience with frequencies on a scale ranging from 1 (never) to 4 (over 5 times). The score of never experience was marked as 1. The score of 1-2 times was 2, 3-4 times 3, and over 5 times 4. The reliability of items, cronbach's α was 0.758.

3. Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using the program of SPSS 22.0. The statistics used for analysis of average difference between groups are t-Test and ANOVA. Multi regression analysis is conducted to investigate the factors influencing the experience of victim.

III. Results

1. Degree of Dating Violence Victimization

Table 2 shows that college students experienced averagely almost all types of dating violence approximately 1-2 times in one year (M=1.310). The highest experience of dating violence was observed in the emotional violence (M=1.715). It was followed by physical violence (M=1.183) and sexual violence (M=1.160).

Table 2. Degree of Dating Violence Victimization

Dating violence	Mean	S.D
emotional violence	1.715	0.343
physical violence	1.183	0.118
Sexual violence	1.160	0.232
All	1.310	0.8018

Table 3 represents the types of dating violence occurring highly. The most frequently occurring type among 'over 5 times' was abusing. The type of highest percentages among 'never' experienced types was 'using weapon' (94.0%). Insulting,

abusing and shouting were experienced by 24~29% students 1-2times, Insulting and shouting were experience by the 11~9% students 3-4 times.

Most students perceived the almost all types of dating violence as violence. Inflicting was perceived highly as violence (99.6%), but shouting was perceived relatively low as violence (67.0%). Although the perception on violence has been improved but still dating etiquette in conversation are demanded to be educated.

Table 3. Frequencies of Dating violence and perception as violence

Type of violence/ Frequency	never (%)	1-2 (%)	3-4 (%)	Over5 (%)	Perception as violence (%)
Insulting	146(51.8)	70(24.8)	26(9.2)	40(14.2)	234(83.0)
Abusing	132(46.8)	82(29.1)	23(8.2)	45(16.0)	226(80.1)
Shouting	138(48.9)	77(27.3)	33(11.7)	34(12.1)	189(67.0)
Threatening	207(73.4)	51(18.1)	11(3.9)	34(12.1)	252(89.4)
Compelling	194(68.8)	51(18.1)	16(5.7)	21(7.4)	212(75.2)
Pushing	212(75.2)	44(15.6)	14(5.0)	12(4.3)	259(91.8)
Pulling hair	231(81.9)	38(13.5)	6(2.1)	7(2.5)	265(94.0)
Throwing	231(81.9)	37(13.1)	7(2.5)	7(2.5)	264(93.6)
Hitting	251(89.0)	20(7.1)	3(1.1)	8(2.8)	275(97.5)
Kicking	240(85.1)	25(8.9)	10(3.5)	7(2.5)	278(98.6)
Choking	260(92.2)	13(4.6)	5(1.8)	4(1.4)	280(99.3)
Clubbing	257(91.1)	17(6.0)	4(1.4)	4(1.4)	277(98.2)
Beating	263(93.3)	10(3.5)	4(1.4)	5(1.8)	280(99.3)
Using weapon	265(94.0)	14(5.0)	3(1.1)	0(0.0)	270(95.7)
Inflicting	263(93.3)	15(5.3)	3(1.1)	1(0.4)	281(99.6)
Obscene Mailing	250(88.7)	26(9.2)	5(1.8)	1(0.4)	263(93.3)
Filthy joking	246(87.2)	21(7.4)	10(*3.5)	5(1.8)	263(93.3)
Unpleasant touching	236(83.7)	34(12.1)	8(2.8)	4(1.4)	270(95.7)
Compulsory petting	258(91.5)	16(5.7)	7(2.5)	1(0.4)	276(97.9)
Compulsory intercourse	254(90.1)	22(7.8)	5(1.8)	1(0.4)	270(95.7)

2. Demographic Characteristics of Victims

There was not significant gender difference in the rates of dating violence experience<table 4>. Although females are victimized by their male partners, males were also likely to be the victim of dating violence as well as females.

There existed significant difference indating violence victimizationbetween the levels

of family income($F=3.846$, $p<0.05$). It depicts that students who live in high or low level of family income experienced more dating violence victimization than those of average income level.

The students who drank alcohol ($F=3.431$, $p=0.018$), who were drunk frequently on alcohol ($F=24.797$, $p=0.000$), who experienced parents' violence ($F=3.846$, $p=0.023$), and who experienced school violence ($F=15.99$, $p=0.000$) were victimized more than other students.

Table 4. Demographic Characteristics of Dating Violence Victims

demographic characteristics	Categories	N	M	SD	t/F	p
Sex	Male	165	26.53	8.30	0.827	0.409
	Female	117	25.74	7.53		
Age	20-24	231	26.19	8.01	-0.033	0.974
	25-28	51	26.23	7.94		
Family income level	Poor	38	27.29	9.73	3.846*	0.023
	Average	190	25.33	7.16		
	Rich	54	28.52	8.95		
Frequency of being drunk on alcohol	Never	131	23.64	5.26	24.797***	0.000
	Often	117	26.96	8.00		
	Frequent	34	33.44	11.24		
Experience of parents' violence	Never	38	27.29	9.72	3.846*	0.023
	Often	190	25.32	7.16		
	Frequent	54	28.52	8.95		
Drinking alcohol	Never	30	23.36	5.71	3.431*	0.018
	Rare	81	24.85	5.77		
	Often	100	26.99	8.67		
	Frequent	71	27.83	9.42		
Experience of school violence	Never	226	25.00	6.74	15.99***	0.000
	Often	42	30.02	10.5		
	Frequent	14	34.21	10.0		
	Rare	100	27.12	8.56		
	Often	88	25.59	7.21		
	Frequent	54	27.70	9.62		

* $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$

3. Factors influencing on dating violence victimization

The results from the multi-regression analyses <table 5> indicate that students who were drunk frequently on alcohol and who experienced parents' violence or school violence were more at risk for experiencing dating violence compared to other students. Especially students who were drunk frequently on alcohol ($\beta=0.308$, $p=0.000$) were at greatest risk compared to students who experienced school violence ($\beta=0.222$, $p=0.000$) and parents' violence ($\beta=0.134$, $p=0.019$). These factors explained 23.5% of the dating violence victimization.

Table 5. Factors influencing on dating violence victimization

variables	B	β	t	p
sex	-1.469	-0.091	-1.578	0.116
age	0.461	0.022	0.398	0.691
Level of family income	0.552	0.039	0.731	0.465
Experience of parents' violence	1.634	0.134	2.364*	0.019
Experience of school violence	3.305	0.222	3.942***	0.000
Drinking alcohol	-0.476	-0.057	-0.703	0.482
Frequency of being drunk on alcohol	3.588	0.308	4.913***	0.000
F	9.278***			
R ²	0.235			

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

IV. Conclusion

This study was carried out to study the real state of dating violence between college students and to explore the factors influencing on the dating violence victimization for urging to enact the related law. The 282 college students who resided in Jeunnam province were sampled. The questionnaire distribution was conducted for November, 2016. The analysis was performed by SPSS 22.0.

The results showed that college students experienced almost all types of dating violence approximately 1-2 times during the past one year. Although the violence using weapon was rare, the types of abusing, insulting and shouting were experienced as

dating violence frequently by approximately 25% students.

The students drinking alcohol or drunk frequently on alcohol or experiencing parents' violence or school violence were victimized more than other students. The students who were drunk frequently on alcohol were at greatest risk compared to students who experienced school violence or parents' violence.

Findings suggest that drinking habit makes adolescents vulnerable to being victimized in dating violence. The experience of school violence is identified as one of the risk factors along with domestic violence experience. Findings of this study recognize that the alcohol use and the experience of violence at an earlier age from family or peers are related to dating violence victimization.

So this study proposes that the education on abstaining from alcohol should be involved in intramural program and the programs for victim of school violence or domestic violence should be enforced. In addition to this, it suggests the law preventing dating violence should be enacted for making safe dating culture.

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Mobile Finance and Financial Inclusion : Focusing on ITU Discussion Issues*)

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ABSTRACT: Mobile financial services(MFS) refers to services provided for financial transactions on mobile devices, and the use of mobile financial services is spreading rapidly in developing countries. The debate over mobile banking is one of the hot issues in international organizations, and ITU-T is also discussing the standardization of mobile finance in recent years. ITU is an international organization responsible for telecommunication, where the recommendations determined here have an important worldwide impact. In this paper, we discussed ITU 's discussions and major issues for spreading mobile financial services, which plays an important role in expanding financial inclusion.

Key words : Mobile Finance, Financial Inclusion, DFS, ITU, ICT

I. Introduction

Mobile financial services refers to services provided for financial transactions on mobile devices, and the use of mobile financial services is spreading rapidly in developing countries. Currently, many companies are offering financial settlement services as they are fighting each other, but there are still many issues that need to be addressed in order to expand services and benefit users. In particular, in Korea, regulatory frameworks are urgently needed, and there is a conflict between existing financial regulations and information and communications regulations on mobile finance, which may hinder the development and dissemination of future services.

The debate over mobile banking is one of the hot issues in international organizations, and ITU-T is also discussing the standardization of mobile finance in recent years. In ITU-T SG3, discussions are being expanded in terms of financial inclusion in developing countries. The ITU-T SG3 has made this recommendation

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development, including issues such as mobile financial services related financial inclusion (Financial Inclusion), the consumer rights expansion, market expansion, cost setting, the competition expanded. At the April 2018 meeting, a decision was made by the recommendation D. MFS, and the recommendations were to be discussed on an ongoing basis.¹⁾²⁾

In this paper, we discussed ITU 's discussions and major issues for spreading mobile financial services, which plays an important role in expanding financial inclusion.

II. Discussions and major issues in ITU

1. Digital financial service focus group

Focus Group on Digital Financial Services (FG-DFS) was created within ITU and the first meeting was held on December 5, 2014. The purpose of FG DFS is as follows.

√ Identify technology trends in mobile financial services and identify the evolution of the role of many stakeholders. The trends include basic frameworks, new business models, and public private partnership arrangements for digital financial services. include

√ Build links with other organizations that can contribute to the standardization activities of mobile financial services.

√ Explain the mobile financial services ecosystem in developed and developing countries and describe their respective roles and responsibilities in the ecosystem.

√ Confirm the actual success stories of secure mobile finance and present future research items to the ITU-T study group.

- Concept, scope, vision and use case of mobile finance
- Requirements for characteristics and mobile finance
- Mobile financial services architecture framework including security of mobile transactions

Four working groups were established in FG DFS.

- √ DFS Ecosystem
- √ Technologies, Innovation and Competition
- √ Interoperability

1) ITU-T D.263 (D.MFS), "Costs, Charges and Competition for Mobile Financial Services (MFS)" 2018.4.

2) ITU-T Draft Recommendation "Principles for Increased Adoption and Use of MFS through Effective Consumer Protection Mechanisms" 2018.4.

√ Consumer Experience and Protection (Quality of service and security and data protection)

2. ITU-T SG3 Rapporteur Group

In March 2015, the Gates Foundation proposed the creation of a rapporteur group for the development of guidelines and frameworks in ITU-T SG3 for digital financial services (DFS), and the rapporteur group was formed accordingly.

The main issues of discussion in rapporteur group are as follows.

- √ Increasing the need for regulatory guidance on regulatory guidance, such as interoperability, security, quality of services, and consumer protection of mobile finance
- √ The cost of mobile money transfers in costing and digital financial transactions.

ITU-T SG3 is undergoing rapporteur of mobile financial services in 2015. The mobile finance service rapporteur group has created two work items: a mobile finance related issue and a transaction cost model. In addition, we are also working with the Digital Financial Focus group, which has been discussed and initiated at the ITU-T level.

As a result of the discussions, the draft of Mobile Financial Services (D. MFS), a mobile financial service advisory draft, was prepared at the 2016 meeting. At the February 2016 meeting, four new work items were created: agent guidelines, consumer protection guidelines, the impact of interoperability on competition, and e-money guidelines. In April 2017, In addition to .MFS, the Recommendation D.ConsumerMFS on consumer protection of mobile financial services is presented.

The situation of D.ConsumerMFS discussion is as follows. Draft Recommendations for Mobile Financial Services D. MFS has been drafted due to conflicting opinions between developed and developing countries. The US, Japan, UK, GSMA, etc. are negative stances because the related services are not in the maturity stage. The position of the developing countries is one of the telecommunication services that are closely related to our lives. It is very important that it be done in SG3, and the approval of the recommendation should be done as soon as possible.

Table 1. MFS Major Issues in April 2018

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|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">o In many African countries such as Egypt, Gambia, Nigeria, Cameroon, and Comoros, the texts related to D. MFS through C170 and C171 have been discussed in depth at the last Rapoport Group meeting and are sufficiently stable. And support to make determinations |
|--|

- o The United States raised the issue of whether it is appropriate to discuss D. MFS work within SG3 through C195.
- o The United States has already pointed out that discussions are under way in other research groups and in international organizations such as GDDFI, FIGI and World Bank, and that the recommendations address domestic issues.
- o D.ConsumerMFS Related In Cameroon, Côte d'Ivoire, Congo, Mali, Togo and Zambia, the C168, C169, etc. suggested that the draft recommendation is sufficiently complete and only amend the title.
- o D.ConsumerMFS Related Canada, the United States, and Japan have argued that the content of the Recommendation is inadequate to be a standard and should be treated as non-standard.

Next, the contents of the D. MFS recommendation are as follows.³⁾ The official title of the MFS is 'Costs, Charges and Competition for Mobile Financial Services', which is currently under development. It is aimed at improving financial inclusion and consumer interest, market development and its dynamics, , And competition is activated.

- √ Member States involved in financial inclusion and enhancement of consumer rights should set up wholesale and retail rates that consumers are able to use, encourage cooperation and collaboration between financial, telecommunications and competition-related regulatory agencies, It should provide consumers with information, education, and consumer protection.
- √ Member States involved in market development and dynamics should lower the barriers to entry into the mobile financial services market and create opportunities to promote collaboration and collaboration among stakeholders in particular.
- √ The principle of mobile finance charges The Member States concerned should establish cost-based retail and wholesale telecommunication charges and the relevant regulatory agencies should be able to request cost information of retail and wholesale telecommunication charges to the telecommunication operators, All cost factors of the service provider should be considered. In addition, in order to spread the mobile finance, it is necessary to consider the cost factors to be taken when making a flat rate. If charges for the mobile financial transaction amount are to be charged, they should be lower than the flat fee based on the cost.
- √ Competition activation Member countries should avoid unfair competition

3) At the ITU-T SG3 meeting in April 2018, the decision of D.MFS and D.ConsumerMFS at this meeting was an issue. There was a taut position on whether the draft Recommendation of D.ConsumerMFS could be treated as a standard. D. The decision of D. MFS has been made, and the recommendation D.ConsumerMFS will discussed continuously.

practices, contracts, and negotiations that heighten market entry thresholds and inactivate competition. In view of this, Member States and regulators should prevent mobile operators from limiting their mobile messaging and mobile payment operator (MPO) access to their Unstructured Supplementary Service Data (USSD) channels for proper pricing, competition and consumer protection, If the dominant operator dominates the domestic market beyond a certain percentage, the network must be provided to other competing MPOs. If the carrier provides mobile transactions, it should reduce the difference between the in-network transaction fee and the other death transaction fee, and provide a non-discriminatory fee. In addition, minimum standards for securing QoS (Quality of Service) should be established and monitored periodically.

D.ConsumerMFS is discussed in more detail as follows. The background of the proposed D.ConsumerMFS recommendation is as follows.⁴⁾ Mobile financial services has become an important tool for socio-economic development and financial participation in many countries. We can not deny that mobile financial services (MFS) has been very successful, especially in low-income countries, and financial support for low-income and low-income populations is in dire need. However, given the growth, importance, and impact of MFS, consumer protection is becoming increasingly important. Particular attention should be paid to the standard terms and conditions (which describe the terms of use), in particular to ensure that the user is able to use the appropriate billing method in a way that is inappropriate or harmful to the user. Effective dispute resolution is more important to MFS users, who were not previously bank depositors and are the first to use official financial services, because they can help consumers overcome issues related to adoption and trust. In general, consumer protection systems for MFS can increase consumer confidence and increase adoption and active use of services.

D.ConsumerMFS Main contents are as follows.

- √ Provide information, contracts and transparency
- √ Network service quality principles
- √ Data Protection and Personal Identification Information (PII)
- √ The role of network providers in dispute resolution and customer compensation
- √ Certification Guidelines
- √ Fraud Prevention

4) Principles for increased adoption and use of MFS through effective consumer protection mechanisms, and principles of the use and diffusion of MFS through effective consumer protection mechanisms, ITU-T SG3, Report of Working Party 2/3, Geneva, 9-18 April 2018.

Table 2. Contribution related to D.ConsumerMFS submitted in April 2018

No.	Source	Title
C168	Central African Republic, Côte d'Ivoire, Gambia, Guinea, Mali, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Sudan, Togo, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe	Proposed title for Draft recommendation on Principles for increased adoption and use of MFS through effective consumer protection mechanisms (D.ConsumerMFS)
C169	Cameroon, Comoros, Côte d'Ivoire, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Guinea, Mali, Niger, Senegal, Sudan, Togo	Support for draft Recommendation ITU-T D.XX on principles for increased adoption and use of MFS through effective consumer protection mechanisms
C207	Egypt , Kuwait , Sudan , Tunisia	Support for draft Recommendation ITU-T D.XX on principles for increased adoption and use of MFS through effective consumer protection mechanisms
C149	Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Korea (Rep. of), Papua New Guinea, Sri Lanka, Vietnam	Proposed texts to be included in the draft Recommendation on Principles for Increased Adoption and Use of MFS through Effective Consumer Protection Mechanisms
C226	Bahamas , Haiti , Trinidad and Tobago	Proposed amended title and support for a Draft Recommendation on the agreed text on "Principles for increased adoption and use of MFS through effective consumer protection mechanisms"
C203	Korea (Rep. of)	Mobile financial services security and consumer protection guidelines
C204	Korea (Rep. of)	A proposal on mobile financial services guidelines for market participants

III. Key Issues and Conclusions

First, the major issues in discussing mobile financial services at international organizations to expand financial inclusion are as follows. First, the proliferation and importance of mobile financial services is expanding. Mobile financial services are rapidly expanding and evolving, and many members of ITU-T are keen to develop policies and develop technology. Second, there is growing competition for the initiative of mobile financial services. There is a disagreement over the provision of recommendations at the ITU-T level fundamentally in accordance with the interests of the countries, and until now this difference seems to be difficult to narrow down easily. On the other hand, it is difficult to discuss the recommendations of mobile

financial services centering on developed countries, while developing countries are strongly promoting standardization for the diffusion of services. Third, elaboration of mobile financial service recommendation is necessary. The current draft Recommendation on Mobile Finance and Competition seems to be lacking in consistency and overall flow of recommendations, and it should be complemented.

In conclusion, mobile financial services in the ITU have a sharp conflict of interest in each country. However, discussions and results are being derived because all member countries are aware of the importance of mobile financial services. In the case of Korea, D.Consumer proposed the recommendation of the MFS recommendation to add the contents of the transaction procedure and cooperation with the financial sector, and to develop guidelines for security technology and consumer protection, The discussion will be reflected in the meeting. Korea is one of the countries that has proposed mobile financial services research. This research is a necessary study for the financial inclusion of industrial and marginalized people in developing countries as well as all Asian countries. It is a good opportunity to foster ICT and financial services industry.

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Participants' Intention and Satisfaction of HRD Programs in Myanmar

- A Case Study in Yangon University of Economics -

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ABSTRACT: Nowadays, organizations are facing challenges in form of acquisition and optimization of human resource. Being valuable and scarce capabilities, human resources are considered as a source of sustainable competitive advantage. Effective development of human resources is a prerequisite for economic growth and improves quality of life. Accordingly, HRD Programs are necessary and important processes in the drive for national economic development and growth. To seek the systematic feedback form the participants, the effectiveness of the HRD programs should be reviewed and it becomes an important part of the training. Hence, this study attempted to analyze the participants' intention and satisfaction of HRD programs in Yangon University of Economics. This study found that majority of the participants intended to apply at their current job as well as to get knowledge and they were satisfied on qualification of lecturers, courses and syllabus, and tuition fees.

Key words : Participant's intention, Satisfaction, Human Resource Development Programs Introduction

I. Introduction

Human resources play an integral role in achieving an innovative and high-quality product/ service. Human Resource Development (HRD) supports the implementation of productivity-driven growth, which required highly skilled, trainable, and knowledge manpower, teaching and learning materials, teachers, training and educational support

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services are increasingly given more emphasis.

It is necessary to review the effectiveness of the programs as a crucial part of the training. Reviewing of the participants' feedback can provide important information regarding institutional effectiveness conducting in which strengths and weaknesses of these programs.

The present study therefore aims to examine and analyze the intention and satisfaction of HRD programs at the stand of perceptions of participants who were attending in the Diploma courses at Yangon University of Economics (YUEco).

II. Basic Information of Myanmar

Republic of the Union of Myanmar is located in the western portion of mainland Southeast Asia. The country is bordered by China to the north and northeast, Laos to the east, Thailand to the southeast, the Andaman Sea and Bay of Bengal to the south and southwest, Bangladesh to the west, and India to the northwest. Its total length from north to south is about 1,275 miles (2,050 km), and its width at the widest part, across the center of the country at about the latitude of the city of Mandalay, is approximately 580 miles (930 km) from east to west, and the total land area is 676,563 sq km.

Myanmar has a population of 51.5 million people, rural 30% and urban 70% (2014 census). The population growth rate is 1.1% and the labour force participation rate is 67%. Largest city, former capital, and the economic center of Myanmar is Yangon. The second major city is Mandalay. Since 2005 Myanmar's new capital is Naypyidaw, a planned city in central. Spoken languages are Burmese (official). Kachin, Kayah, Karen, Chin, Mon, Rakhine, and Shan are regional languages. As economic summary: GDP growth rate, 7% and the exchange rate, 1 US\$ = MK 1527 (25thAugust,2018).

Myanmar is rich in minerals, including metal ores, petroleum, and natural gas, and timber and fishery, and also has significant deposits of precious and semiprecious stones. The main major crops are: rice, beans and pulses, sesame, maize, rubber, fruits and vegetables. The main religions groups are: Buddhist 89%, Christian 4%, Muslim 4%, and Other 3%.

III. Scope and Limitations of the Study

This study explores the participant' intention and satisfaction of HRD programs and

it focuses only on the Post Graduate Diploma programs in YUEco.

IV. Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are

- (i) To find out the participants' intention of HRD programs and
- (ii) To discover their satisfaction on the programs in YUEco.

V. Method of the Study

A descriptive method is used based on available secondary data and information. Moreover, a sample survey was conducted in order to know the participants' intention and satisfaction on HRD programs in YUEco. Sample selection was done in September, 2017 using Stratified Random Sampling. A total of 6 Post Graduate Diploma courses have been offered at YUEco. From each diploma program, 50 sample participants were selected and a total of 300 participants were included in the survey. A structured questionnaire was used and a face-to-face interview was made in data collection process. Participants' satisfaction was determined by 5-point Likert scale.

VI. The Role of HRD for Nation Building

The economy, HRD and nation building are all related to one another. The development of the economy and HRD are interdependent and are the contributing factors in the building a nation. The well-trained personals at the new frontiers of technical, scientific, social and economic knowledge become the forces for the growth and development of the national economy.

For the economy, effective utilization of human resource produces the goods and services that generate the necessary conditions for further investments in human resource, setting in motion a process of sustainable economic growth.

Myanmar needs a bulk of human resources for its economic development and sustainable growth. The following Table (1) shows the estimated requirements of skill labors by sectors in Myanmar.

Table 1. Estimates of Requirements of Skill Labors by Sectors in Myanmar

Sector	Estimated National Demand for Labour		
	2010	2015	2020
Agriculture	18.19	19.63	21.19
Livestock and Fishery	0.63	0.68	0.73
Forestry	0.32	0.35	0.37
Energy	0.04	0.04	0.05
Mining	0.24	0.26	0.28
Processing and Manufacturing	3.18	3.43	3.70
Electrical Power	0.04	0.05	0.05
Construction	0.64	0.69	0.75
Transportation	0.86	0.93	1.00
Communication	0.03	0.03	0.04
Social, Administrative and other Services	2.42	2.61	2.82
Trade	2.84	3.07	3.31
Others	0.27	0.29	0.31
Estimated Total Employed Population	29.70	32.06	34.60

Source: Dr. Thet Lwin (Projection using exponential growth formula), 2015

Table (1) shows that the estimated national demand for labor by sectors in Myanmar. It is estimated that total employed population for 2010, 2015 and 2020 are 29.70, 32.06, 34.60 million respectively. According to this table, the priority should be given to extend and develop the human resources for

- (i) Agriculture, Livestock and Husbandry
- (ii) Electrical and Engineering, Information and Communication Technology
- (iii) Economics and Management, Foreign Languages and
- (iv) Services including Medical and Healthcare

In order to fulfill the requirement of human resources in various sectors, the HRD programs have been offered in Myanmar since 1998.

VII. Origin of HRD Programs in Myanmar

There are 163 higher education institutions in Myanmar. Among them, 66 institutions are under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education while 97 institutions are under 12 other ministries. All the higher education institutions are state-financed

and they specialize in varied fields such as arts and science, law, economics and business education, teacher education, foreign languages, engineering, computer studies, maritime studies, defense, agriculture, forestry, medicine, nursing, veterinary science and culture and fine arts, etc. and offer a variety of programs – undergraduate, postgraduate diploma, master’s degree programs and doctorate programs.

In 1998, National Centers for Human Resource Development (NCHRD) was established by Ministry of Education to diversity human resource needed for the country. Under the NCHRD, the Center Human Resource Development was established at every higher education institution of the Ministry of Education. Centers for Human Resource Development offer re-education and retraining human resource development programs ranging from short-term certificate programs to diploma programs.

Among the universities under the Ministry of Education, HRD programs are launched at only 9 universities. The following table shows the number of participants under the HRD programs at universities under the Ministry of Education for 2016-2017 academic year.

Table 2. Number of Participants under HRD Programs by University (2016-2017)

University	Number of HRD Programs			Total Participants
	Certificate	Diploma	Total	
Yangon University	3	13	16	1097
Mandalay University	-	6	6	742
Yangon University of Economics	5	7	12	1672
Yangon University of Education	-	2	2	210
Yangon University of Distance Education	-	4	4	595
Sagaing University of Education	-	1	1	151
Dagon University	-	1	1	21
Yangon University of Foreign Languages	8	-	8	2297
Mandalay University of Foreign Languages	4	7	11	3783

Source: Department of Higher Education, Ministry of Education (2017)

In 2016-2017 Academic year, the Mandalay and Yangon Universities of Foreign Languages have the largest number of participants due to the increasing demand of foreign languages. YUEco is in the third with a total of 1671 participants and Yangon

University is in the fourth. HRD can provide the achievement of organizational development, community development and nation development. YUEco is delivering the different kinds of training to fulfill the required human resources for the country.

VIII. HRD Programs of the YUEco

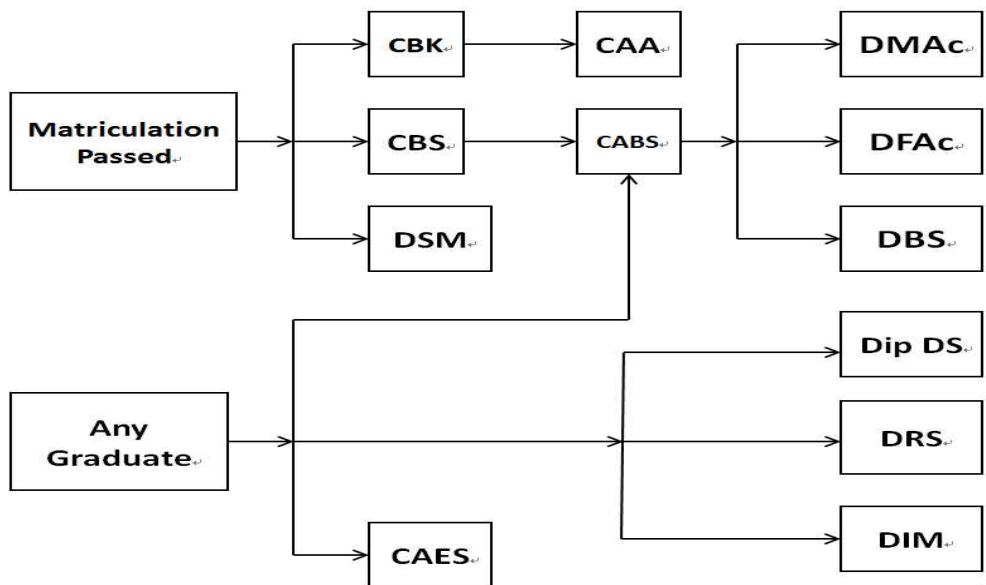
In March 1998, the Center for Human Resource Development of the YUEco has launched a series of courses with the following objectives.

The objectives of the HRD program of the YUEco are:

- (i) To enable the participants who are in workforce and in need of training and retraining to gain new skills, new qualifications
- (ii) To improve career prospects and
- (iii) To promote continuing further education

The following figure represents the different certificate courses and diploma courses offered by CHRD of YUEco.

Figure 1 Flow Chart of HRD Programme at YUEo



The total numbers of participants at HRD Programs of YUEco for 2016-2017 academic year are shown in the following table.

Table 3. No. of Participants at HRD Programs in Yangon University of Economics (2016-2017)

Sr	Programs	Participants
1	Certificate in Book-Keeping - CBK	29
2	Certificate in Advanced Accounting - CAA	59
3	Certificate in Business Studies - CBS	203
4	Certificate in Advanced Business Studies - CABS	159
5	Certificate in ASEAN Economic Studies - CAES	100
6	Diploma in Secretarial Management - DSM	179
7	Diploma in Business Studies - DBS	191
8	Diploma in Management Accounting - DMAc	141
9	Diploma in Financial Accounting – DFAC	187
10	Diploma in Development Studies - Dip.DS	197
11	Diploma in Research Studies – DRS	130
12	Diploma in Marketing – DIM	96
	Total	1671

Source: Department of Academic Affairs, YUEco (2017)

IX. Survey on Participants' Intention and Satisfaction of HRD Programs in YUEco

In order to know the participant' intention and satisfaction of HRD programs in YUEco, a survey was conducted in September 2017. A stratified random sampling was used to select 50 sample participants from each post graduate diploma class such as DBS, DMAc, DFAC, Dip DS, DRS and DIM. A total of 300 participants who are currently attending in HRD programs at YUEco are included in this study.

Table (4) shows the profile of respondents describing gender, age, marital status, educational status, specializations, types of occupation and positions. As shown in table, there are 300 participants in this study. According to gender difference, the percentages of female participants are higher than male participants. Majority of participants are age between 25-29 years, majority are single, mostly have postgraduate diploma, about 50 percent are bachelor in art and science, working in private companies with various positions.

Table 4. Demographic Profile of the Respondents

	Participants	
	Number	Percent
Total Participants	300	100.0
Gender: Male	69	23.0
Female	231	77.0
Age:		
21-24	67	22.3
25-29	125	41.7
30-34	55	18.3
35-39	27	9.0
40-44	16	5.3
45-49	4	1.3
50-54	4	1.3
55-59	2	0.7
Marital Status		
Single	244	81.3
Married	55	18.3
Divorced	1	0.3
Educational Status		
First degree	83	27.7
Postgraduate diploma	164	54.7
Master degree	32	10.7
PhD	1	0.3
Others	20	6.7
Specialization		
Bachelor of art	76	25.3
Bachelor of science	75	25.0
University of Economics	64	21.3
Computer science	12	4.0
University of Technology	11	3.7
Medical/Medicine	20	6.7
Others	42	14.0
Type of occupation		
Private company	144	48.0
Government	37	12.3
Self-employed	19	6.3
NGOs	16	5.3
INGOs	42	14.0
Unemployed	24	8.0
Others	18	6.0
Position		
GM/AGM	23	7.7
Middle level manager	47	15.7
Low level manager	14	4.7
Supervisor	54	18.0
Operational	42	14.0
Others	120	40.0

In this study, the encouragement to the respondents to attend the HRD programs at YUEco is presented in the following table. It is found that the majority (79 percent) of the respondents are encouragement by themselves to attend the HRD program at YUEco.

Table 5. Encouragement to the Respondents to Attend HRD Programs at YUEco

Encouragement	Quantity	Percent
Myself	237	79.0
Parents/Family/Relatives	12	4.0
Friends/Colleagues	39	13.0
Career advisors	11	3.7
Others	1	0.3
Total	300	100.0

Table (6) describes that the participants are pushed into program by many motivating factors. As shown in table, more than 78 percent of the respondents attend the HRD programs at YUEco due to apply in current job (39%) and get knowledge from that program (39.3%).

Table 6. Respondents' Intention to Attend HRD Programs at YUEco

Intention	Quantity	Percent
To apply in current job	117	39.0
To get knowledge	118	39.3
Applicable in new job	44	14.7
Social network	8	2.7
University student's life	6	2.0
Others	7	2.3
Total	300	100.0

The expectations of the participants are also described in the following table. The result of this study supports that almost half (49.3%) of the respondents expect acquire new knowledge from HRD programs.

Table 7. Expectation of the Respondents

Expectation	Quantity	Percent
To get promotion in current job	38	12.7
To get a job	13	4.3
To get a better job	76	25.3
To acquire new knowledge	148	49.3
To get higher salary	15	5.0
Others	10	3.3
Total	300	100.0

The following table displays the distribution of intention of the respondents by occupation. As present earlier, the highest percentage of occupation was reported as

private company and which made up 20.3% and 17.3% of the respondents attend the course to apply in the current job and to get the new knowledge, respectively.

Table (8) Distribution of Intention of the Respondents by Occupation

Type of Occupation	Intention					Total
	To apply in current job	To get knowledge	Applicable in new job	Social network	Others	
Private company	20.3%	17.3%	8.3%	0.7%	1.3%	48.0%
Government	7.0%	3.3%	1.3%	0.3%	0.3%	12.3%
Self-employed	1.7%	3.3%	0.3%	0.3%	0.7%	6.3%
NGOs	1.3%	3.0%	0.7%	0.0%	0.3%	5.3%
INGOs	6.7%	5.3%	1.0%	0.3%	0.7%	14.0%
Unemployed	0.0%	4.7%	2.3%	0.3%	0.7%	8.0%
Others	2.0%	2.3%	0.7%	0.7%	0.3%	6.0%
Total	39.0%	39.3%	14.7%	2.7%	4.3%	100.0%

The following table represents the distribution of intention of the respondents by position. It is found that about 16 % of the respondents are middle level manager, among them, each of 7% of the respondents attend the course to apply in the current job and to get the new knowledge while 18% of the respondents are supervisors, among them, 9% and 6% of the respondents attend the course to apply in the current job and to get the new knowledge.

Table 9. Distribution of Intention of the Respondents by Position

Position	Intention					Total
	To apply in current job	To get knowledge	Applicable in new job	Social network	Others	
GM/AGM	4.7%	2.0%	0.7%	0.0%	0.3%	7.7%
Middle Level Manager	7.0%	7.3%	1.0%	0.3%	0.0%	15.7%
Low Level Manager	2.0%	2.3%	0.3%	0.0%	0.0%	4.7%
Supervisor	9.0%	6.0%	2.3%	0.3%	0.3%	18.0%
Operational	5.0%	5.3%	2.7%	0.0%	1.0%	14.0%
Others	11.3%	16.3%	7.7%	2.0%	2.6%	40.0%
Total	39.0%	39.3%	14.7%	2.7%	4.3%	100.0%

The following table shows the distribution of intention of the respondents by age group. The results of this study provide that the majority of participants are age

between 25 to 29 years and 17.0% of them attend the courses to apply in current job and 18.0% to get knowledge.

Table (10) Distribution of Intention of the Respondents by Age Group

Age Group	Intention					Total
	To apply in current job	To get knowledge	Applicable in new job	Social network	Others	
21-24	5.0%	9.0%	5.0%	0.7%	2.7%	22.3%
25-29	17.0%	18.0%	5.0%	1.0%	0.7%	41.7%
30-34	5.3%	9.3%	2.3%	1.0%	0.3%	18.3%
35-39	4.7%	2.3%	1.7%	0.0%	0.3%	9.0%
40-44	4.7%	0.7%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	5.3%
45-49	1.0%	0.0%	0.3%	0.0%	0.0%	1.3%
50-54	0.7%	0.0%	0.3%	0.0%	0.3%	1.3%
55-59	0.7%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.7%
Total	39.0%	39.3%	14.7%	2.7%	4.3%	100.0%

The following table expresses the distribution of intention of the respondents by educational qualification. The more than half of participants' educational qualification is reported as postgraduate diploma and which made up 21.3% for apply in current job and 24.3% for knowledge.

Table 11. Distribution of Intention of the Respondents by Educational Qualification

Educational Qualification	Intention					Total
	To apply in current job	To get knowledge	Applicable in new job	Social network	Others	
First degree	11.0%	8.3%	5.0%	1.7%	1.7%	27.7%
Postgraduate diploma	21.3%	24.3%	7.7%	0.3%	1.0%	54.7%
Master degree	5.0%	3.7%	0.3%	0.7%	1.0%	10.7%
PhD	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.3%	0.3%
Others	1.7%	3.0%	1.7%	0.0%	0.3%	6.7%
Total	39.0%	39.3%	14.7%	2.7%	4.3%	100.0%

The following table represents the findings for the participants' satisfaction on HRD programs in YUEco.

Table 12. Satisfaction Levels of the Respondents

Particular	Very unsatisfied	Unsatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Very satisfied	Average Score	Standard Deviation
Classroom facility	1.02%	10.20%	42.18%	40.48%	6.12%	3.40	0.79
Qualification of lecturers	0.00%	1.73%	20.76%	64.71%	12.80%	3.89	0.63
Teaching methodology	0.35%	7.61%	28.37%	57.44%	6.23%	3.62	0.73
Teaching aids	1.38%	7.93%	37.24%	48.28%	5.17%	3.48	0.77
Courses & Syllabus	0.00%	1.75%	30.42%	61.54%	6.29%	3.72	0.60
Reference books	1.38%	4.50%	33.56%	56.06%	4.50%	3.58	0.71
Tuition fees	1.12%	3.35%	31.97%	52.04%	11.52%	3.70	0.76
Expense for books	0.35%	5.59%	36.01%	49.65%	8.39%	3.60	0.74
Overall						3.62	0.48

Regarding with satisfaction, more than half of the respondents satisfy with qualification of lecturers, teaching methodology, teaching aids, courses & syllabus, reference books and tuition fees whereas 40% for classroom facility and 50% for expenditure for books. Furthermore, it is observed that average satisfaction score for each factor is 3.4 and above, and overall satisfactory score is 3.62 with 0.48 standard deviation.

In addition, the participants' willingness to attend any course after the completion of courses they are currently attending and their reasons are shown in the following tables.

Table 13. Willingness to Attend any Courses

Willing any to attend courses	Number	Percent
Yes	217	72.3
No	83	27.7

Table 14. Reasons to Attend Other Courses in YUEco

Reasons	Quantity	Percent
To get master degree	32	16.2
To get better knowledge and skills	72	36.4
To get better job	27	13.6

Convenience fees and time	25	12.6
Interesting subject/field	22	11.1
Others	20	10.1
Total	198	100.0

It is found that 72.3% of the respondents willing to attend other courses after the courses they are attending. The reasons are 36% of them would like to get better knowledge and skills, 16 % of them willing to attend master degree at YUEco while about 14% of them expect a better job after the diploma course and 13% of them are convenience with fees and time.

X. Conclusion

Human resource development can provide the achievement of organizational development, community development and nation development. It can be achieved by formal education as well as non-formal education channels. To fulfill the human resources requirement of the country, Yangon University of Economics has delivering the different kinds of training.

Nowadays, Center for HRD of the YUEco has successfully reached a total of 19 years on its academic programs of the certificate and diploma courses. In order to identify the participants' intention and satisfaction, a case study has been done by selecting a sample of 300 participants from six diploma courses under CHRD of YUEco.

According to survey findings, it is found that most of the participants attend the HRD programs due to apply in current job and get knowledge from the programs. The participants who are working at the private companies, the middle level managers and supervisors, age between 25 to 29 years and postgraduate diploma holders intend to get new knowledge from the programs and they would like to apply the knowledge acquired from the programs at their current job.

Dealing with satisfaction, it is observed that the respondents satisfy with qualification of lecturers, teaching methodology, teaching aids, courses & syllabus, reference books and tuition fees, classroom facility and expenditure for books. However, it needs to improve classroom facility and teaching aid.

The HRD programs of YUEco can train the youth to be more mature and to gain broader knowledge. Therefore, the objectives of the CHRD of YUEco have been achieved although there are some weaknesses. In Myanmar, the HRD programs of YUEco stand leading role in human resource development for the different kinds of

training courses.

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