

CZECH UNIVERSITY OF LIFE SCIENCES PRAGUE

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AgriSciences**

**Assessment of the Development Policy in
Myanmar (the case study of Chin State)**

MASTER'S THESIS

Prague 2018

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Declaration

I hereby declare that I have done this thesis entitled ***Assessment of the Development Policy in Myanmar (the case study of Chin state)*** independently, all texts in this thesis are original, and all the sources have been quoted and acknowledged by means of complete references and according to Citation rules of the FTA.

In Prague 27th April 2018

.....
Laitha Andrew

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Abstract

Although Myanmar is endowed with natural resources, almost six decades of civil war and economic mismanagement has led to it being ranked as one of the poorest countries in Asia. The country has lagged behind its' peers in the Association of Southeast Asia Nations (ASEAN) countries, even as the recent economic and political reforms in Myanmar have opened the opportunity to the poorest and most marginalized inhabitants for improving their livelihoods. Among the seven states and seven regions of Myanmar, Chin state remains the poorest state with 71.5 per cent of the population living in poverty. This is solely due to successive oppressive military rule and basic human rights violations, that has purposely neglected the wellbeing of the people, which has negatively impacted economic opportunities for the poor. This research attempted to evaluate Myanmar's Framework for Economic and Social Reforms (FESR). The research further tried to investigate and determine whether the civil society organizations (CSOs) operating in Chin state are collaborating with the Government in the efforts to implement FESR. This research employed a mix of quantitative and qualitative methods considering the different aspects of the country's development status. The Poverty and Social Impact Analysis (PSIA) was utilized comparing the development progress variation between the Union and Chin from 2012 to 2015. This research concluded that even though there were considerable improvement in the livelihoods of the poor people at the Union level, there was development disparity among the regions. Especially, the Chin state was not able to benefit. At the same time, the study highlights weaknesses in collaboration between the development actors and Chin State Government.

Keywords: *FESR, impact evaluation, poverty social impact analysis, stakeholders, Myanmar*

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List of the abbreviations used in the thesis

ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asia Nations
ADB	Asian Development Bank
CBOs	Community Based Organisations
CSOs	Civil Society Organisations
FESR	Framework for Economic and Social Reforms
FSWG	Food Security Working Group
IHLCA	Integrated Household Living Conditions Assessment
LIFT	Livelihoods and Food Security Trust Fund
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
MIP	Ministry of Immigration and Population
MIMU	Myanmar Information Management Unit
MMSIS	Myanmar Statistical Information Service
MNPED	Ministry of National Planning and Economic Development
MPLCS	Myanmar Poverty and Living Condition Survey
MOPF	Ministry of Planning and Finance
NGOs	Non-Government Organisations
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
WB	The World Bank

1 Introduction

Myanmar has a total land area of 6,53,080 km² (World Bank 2017). The country is bordered by Bangladesh, China, India, the Lao People's Democratic Republic and Thailand, and by 2,800 km of coastline along the eastern side of the Bay of Bengal. According to Myanmar Population and Housing Census Report (MIP 2015), the population of Myanmar is estimated at 53.897 million persons, with an annual growth rate of approximately 0.8 per cent during the preceding five years. Only 30 per cent of the population reside in urban areas whereas the majority of population lives in rural areas, with a relatively low population density of 82 people per km². The people living in Myanmar is diverse with 8 major ethnics and 135 subgroups, with 108 spoken languages. The country's employment-to-population ratio, which is defined as the ratio of the total labour force currently employed to the total working-age population (15 - 64 years) is 64 per cent.

The Myanmar: Unlocking the Potential report has shown that a successfully integrated development policy framework for Myanmar will need to consider comprehensive development and reform planning and phasing (ADB 2014). Under the leadership of President U Thein Sein, the Framework for Economic and Social Reforms (FESR) was introduced prioritising agricultural and rural development as a tool for poverty reduction strategies. This document served as the main pillar to reviving the different sectors of the economy and policy priorities for the period of 2012-2015, which focused on immediate actions or quick wins (FESR 2012).

The Chin state is situated in the western part of Myanmar and shares international borders with India and Bangladesh as well as with Rakhine, Sagaing and Magway regions, with an estimated population of only 4,78,690 (MIP 2015). A snapshot of wellbeing stated that Chin is the poorest state in Myanmar, where 73 per cent of the population are living in poverty (UNICEF 2011). Undeniably, it is because of the previous oppressive military regime's land-grab from agriculture-based livelihoods families, forced labouring of the farmers, and converting subsistence-farm land and tea plantations to government-led programs of jatropha plantations. The Program Director

of Chin Human Rights Organization (CHRO) opined that “Chin people are not poor due to their backwardness, but it is because of bad policy choices by the government” (Hogan 2017). Moreover, unlike the mineral-rich states of Kachin and Shan, Chin state is disadvantaged as it has very limited means of raising revenue within the State and is highly dependent on Union Government funding for its development budget (MIID 2016). As a matter of fact, Chin recorded zero foreign direct investment in the period 1994 to 2018 (Win 2017) because the terrain and agro-ecological dynamics of Chin make it less attractive to agro-capital (Vicol, Pritchard & Htay 2018). There are four UN agencies (UNICEF, UNDP, WFP, ILO) and the main ten INGOs/NGOs such as Maria Stopes International Myanmar, International Rescue Committee, The Lutheran World Federation, Triangle Generation Humanitaire, Care International, GRET Myanmar, Myanmar Red Cross Society, Shalom Foundation, Ar Yone Oo Social Development, Agency for Basic Community Development. In addition, there are less than ten local community-based organisations are operating in the Chin state (MINU 2017). The number of NGOs and community-based organisations are steadily growing each year. Agriculture is the backbone of the Chin state economy and the most of Chin people depend on agriculture for their livelihoods.

The reason behind choosing this particular state is there is no ex-post evaluation of the reforms policy, which is heavily dependent on central government funding. The purpose of this study is to deeper understand the policy priorities implementation and measure its achievement. The evaluation result would inform the Chin state government as a learning experience of the past reforms policy implementation. Additionally, timely assessment results would give a clearer direction in implementing the subsequent five planning phase for the period of 2016-2022.

2 Literature Review

2.1 Policy Evaluation Concept

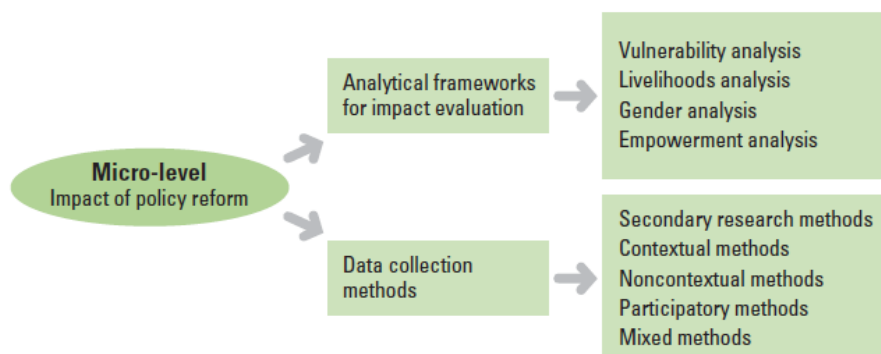
“Policy analysis emerged to both better understand the policymaking process and to supply policy decision makers with reliable policy-relevant knowledge about pressing economic and social problems” (Dunn 2016). The same author continues that policy analysis is “an applied social science discipline which used various method of inquiry and arguments to produce and transforms policy-relevant information that may be utilized in political settings to resolve policy problems”. According to PSIA (2007), policy analysis can address the political economy of reform by assessing the impacts on, and the influence of, institutions and stakeholders in relation to policy design and implementation.

2.2 Methods of Policy Analysis

Different academics have been using various methods of policy evaluation. The existence of multiple evaluation techniques become a challenge for identifying the best system that can be employed for every public policy evaluation. Public policy evaluation methods can be distinguished as ex-ante and ex-post. Dunn (2016) defined ex-ante analysis, while helpful in finding optimally efficient solutions, as often having limited access to information about policy outcomes because it is predictive. While ex-post evaluation is retrospective and occurs after actions have been taken. Development policy analyses were conducted by applying several approaches. For instance, the Computable General Equilibrium (CGE) model (Ulussever 2010; Psaltopoulos et al. 2011; Espinosa et al. 2013; Roland-Hoslt & Park 2015), assesses how the entire economy, including industries and households, is affected by policy changes in areas such as taxation, migration and trade. It is used especially when a proposal becomes official, as policy makers often want to know how it would affect various parts of the economy; the HERMIN model (Herce & Modesto 1995; Bradley, Morgenroth & Untiedt 2003; Bradley

2006) is applied when a structural funds transfer is being assessed for a beneficiary country. It is specially designed to carry out an analysis of the impact of cohesion policy expenditure in European Union (EU) member countries. The model is determined by the given increase in absorption and the assumed long run output and productivity parameters (Varga & Veld 2009). Johansen's model (Doyle et al. 1997), building on Leontief's input-output model, (Psaltopoulos & Thomson 1993; Bednarikova 2015), is a quantitative technique for studying the interdependence of production sectors in the economy and can be used to estimate the indirect effects of a change in the level of final demand (household consumption, government consumption, capital formation, and export) for the output of a particular sector (impact analysis). Maleki (2010) argued that Participatory Policy Analysis (PPA) is the most recurrent method that various academicians have employed in recent years, however, it is also suggested that the lack of the research/framework has a drawback to utilizing it more rigorously.

Poverty and Social Impact Analysis (PSIA) defined as the analysis of the impact of policy reforms on the welfare of different stakeholder groups, with a particular focus on the poor and vulnerable. The technique was developed by the World Bank and intended for development practitioners. PSIA is composed of three levels PSIA (2007): Macro-, Meso- and Micro analysis. The PSIA approach has been successfully used to analyze cotton sector reform in Burkina Faso (Essama-Nssah, Samake & Walliser 2002), school fees and primary school enrollment and retention in Mozambique (Valerio et al. 2004), welfare reform in Sri Lanka (Naraya, Vishwanath & Yoshida 2005), decentralization and water sector privatization in Albania (Beddies & Soto 2005), and agricultural development and marketing corporation reform in Malawi (Kutengule, Nucifora & Zaman 2002) etc.



(Source: PSIA 2007).

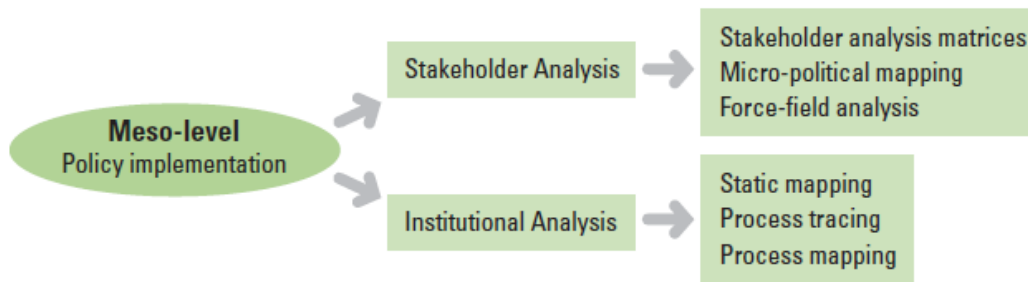


Figure 1. Tools for micro & meso-level analysis.

(Source: PSIA 2007).

Based on above PSIA methods, this study applied the Micro-level impact of policy reform by analyzing the livelihoods of households in the Chin state and comparing them with the development progress at Union level. In addition, this study analyzed the stakeholders to understand and identify the level of coordination and collaboration between the development actors that are operating in Chin state and the State Government in the efforts to implement FSER.

2.3 Policy Development

2.3.1 The Evolution of Development Thinking

The evolution of development and development policy thinking can be traced back to the end of World War II. In the 1950s and 1960s, the previously neglected sub-field of Development Economics was rediscovered. It might be useful to think of the world's development eras in four phases: 1955 to 1980, 1980 to 2000, 2000 to 2015, and 2015 onwards. From the end of World War II to the mid-1970s, the first generation of development economists focused on capital accumulation and growth through big-push development strategies involving government planning and major public investment. This approach proved successful in the development experiences of South Korea and Taiwan, where state-directed investment boosted favoured industries. Nevertheless, India and countries in Africa and Latin America failed to achieve similar success despite replicating the model.

Again, world faced economic turmoil in this period followed by oil price shocks (Kanbur 2005). The second generation of development economists (the neo-classicists) favoured reducing government involvement in economic development activities and supporting market-oriented, non-interventionist, and open trade policies. Trade liberalization had greatly benefited China, especially in the agricultural sector, in the late 1970s and early 1980s. They viewed government intervention as causing distortions in prices and exchange rates. The perception that government failures are more serious than market failure circulated in many developing countries. Because of the above-stated perspective, the Washington Consensus, which was also vigorously pushed by International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank (WB), prevailed.

To support efforts to integrate broader social and institutional factors into the development concepts, intuitionists emerged in the late 1980s to early 2000s. They believed that building the capacity of every institution of a country can bring changes and development of the nation's economy by focusing on social factors, institutional design and good governance. According to the World Bank, good governance is defined as being accountable, transparent, follows the rule of law, responsive, equitable and inclusive, effective and efficient, and participatory. Another means of measuring development, the Human Development Index (HDI), was firstly published in 1990 by the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) in collaboration with Amartya Sen and Meghnad Desai. HDI composes of life expectancy at birth, adult literacy rate, combined enrolment rate in primary, secondary and higher education and real income measured in purchasing power parity (PPP). After 1999, the thinking of World Bank (WB) development had changed, with the WB ex-president Wolfensohn's proposal for a Comprehensive Development Framework (CDF) emphasising on a more balanced approach to development. The World Bank encouraged developing countries to formulate Poverty Reduction Strategies (PRS), based on Comprehensive Development Framework (CDF) principles.

Through past history and experience, various stakeholders involved in development work have come to the realization that there needs to be more collaboration and cooperation in terms of mission and vision to take effective action for common goals.

The United Nations (UN) and the World Bank (WB) have gotten closer towards achieving and implementing their respective goals and strategies. The UN Summit in September 2000 by the world's leaders promulgated Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), which has been internationally agreed as a framework of 8 goals and 18 time-bound and quantified targets for addressing extreme poverty, with a deadline of 2015. Based on 15 years' experience, the United Nations initiated Sustainable Development Goals in 2015, comprising of 17 Global Goals with 169 targets, with 2030 as the deadline (Ohno 2015).

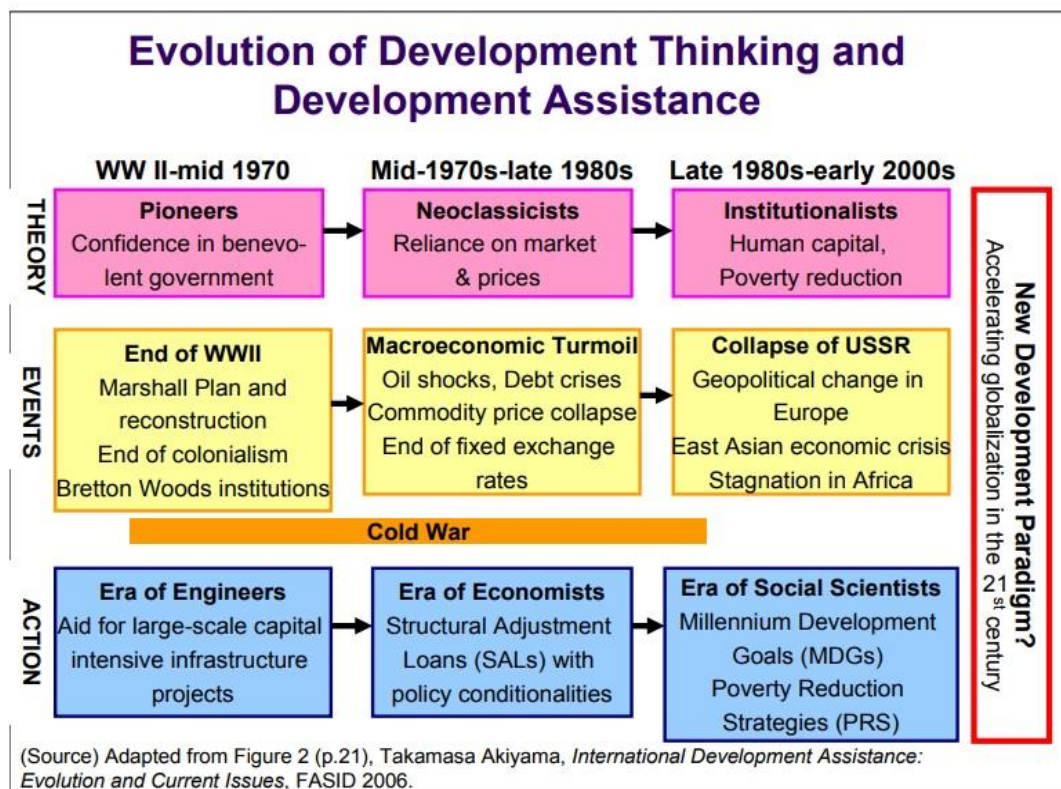


Figure 2. Evolution of development thinking and development assistance.

2.3.2 Policy Formulation and its Process

Different countries have different policy processes. In countries where democratic institutions are established, the policy-making process takes place through parliamentary procedures where every relevant stakeholder is involved during the policy formulation process; however, the government remains as the key player in any policy field. In this context, stakeholders are defined as the public, civil society

organizations, academic communities, experts, influential individuals and any other entity whom the policy might potentially impact, either positively or negatively. The whole process of responding to a chaotic and unordered situation can be observed in the policy cycle (Althaus et al. 2013). The policy cycle and its process were firstly proposed in the seminal work by (Lasswell 1951 & DeLeon 1999).

Policymaking involves a combination of processes, of which the most widely used are identifying policy problems, formulating policy proposals, legitimizing public policy, implementing public policy and evaluating the policy. Fisher et al. (2013) reported that developing a more formalized approach to reporting and evaluating expert involvement exercises would contribute to establishing methodological rigour, as well as to the development of standards or criteria against which individual exercises can be judged as acceptable and transparent in terms of delivering information of relevance to policy development.

In the United States, the policy-making process begins from the existence of a particular problem. Although people may agree the problem exists, they might strongly disagree about how to remedy it. A stakeholder - a Member of Congress, an Executive Branch official, or interest groups etc. - may propose solutions for the identified problem and then have an intense debate in the media and in Congress. Once the majority of Congress members agree on the proposed agenda, new laws are passed to adopt the new policy. The adopted policy is then implemented. In the final stage, evaluation is carried out in order to propose a new policy (if needed) in accordance with past policy success (USHistory.org 2017).

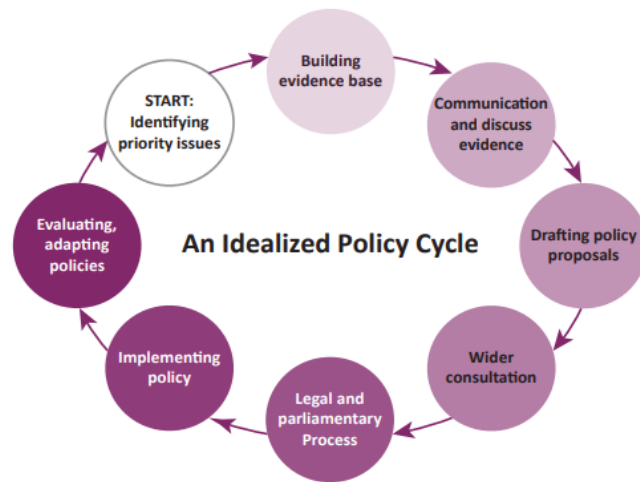


Figure 3. Policy cycle process in Myanmar.

(Source: The Asia Foundation 2016).

In recent year, evidence-based policymaking has been praised by different experts and think-tank institutions. When the policymakers have already decided that government should act and the form that action should take, good evidence can inform tactical choices about program design. Therefore, policymakers would also do well to distinguish between “data,” which informs, and “evidence,” which proves. Having better data helps to define problems and formulate solutions by establishing a shared and accurate view of past experience and the status quo (Cass 2017).

2.3.3 Policy Making Process in Myanmar

The policy process in Myanmar is different from other countries. Before political and economic reforms process, the civil policymaking was mainly carried out by military commanders and a few other individuals. Policy decision was made by a small-group of people. After a quasi-democratic parliament was formed under the leadership of President U Thein Sein (2011-2015), the policymaking process has been more inclusive through consultation with the main stakeholders as well as decentralized policymaking power to state/regions or lower level. The 2008 Constitution that came into effort in 2010 established Pyidaugsu Hluttaw (Union Parliament) that is comprised of two bodies,

i.e. the Lower House (Pyithu Hluttaw) and the Upper House (Amyotha Hluttaw). The Myanmar parliament has three main functions, which are lawmaking, providing oversight of the government, and representing the public interest (The Asia Foundation 2016).

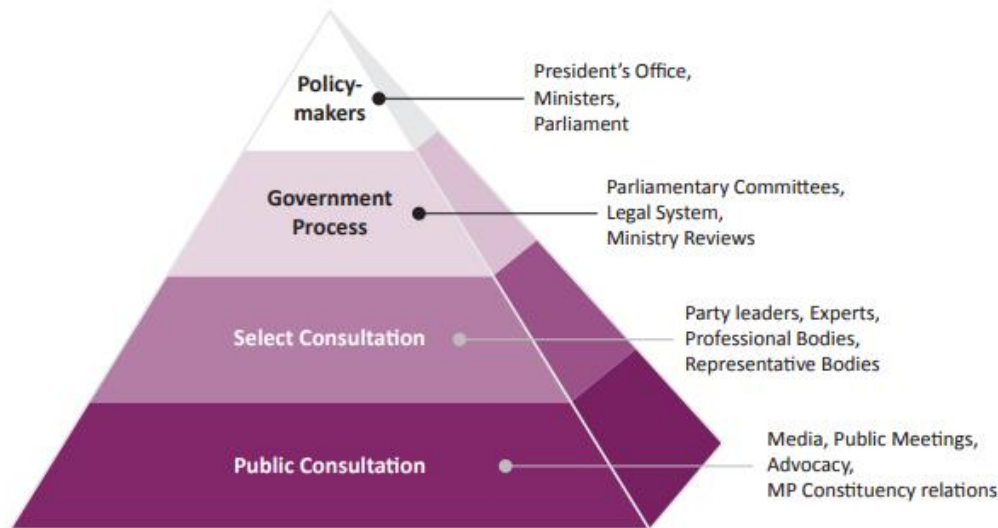


Figure 4. Level of policy making in Myanmar.

(Source: The Asia Foundation 2016).

Although basing policies on evidence now seems to be a well-established approach in international development, the approach does not provide a clear path toward improving development outcomes. It is essential to reckon with the kind of evidence that can be collected and utilized to develop policies. An NGO worker argued that the Myanmar government's information before 2008 is "not reliable and most of the data is not very useful....sometimes the information is purposely manipulated." Another respondent explained that "statistics in Myanmar is nothing, it is unreliable" and, for instance, in agriculture planning, the evidence is "manipulated to suit their purposes." Schomerus & Seckinelgin (2015) concluded from their research that "if the policymakers are presented with the facts of a matter, the decision-making will be faster and lead to the desired solution." In order to obtain factual data, the Myanmar government is conducting a survey on living conditions, which will be used for economic analysis and policy formulation. "The current living conditions survey being carried out can mirror

the actual situation of the residents in Myanmar and based on this result, we can make better decision on how to proceed with development,” said Dr Wah Wah Maung, the Director of Central Statistical Organization (CSO) a wing of the Ministry of Planning and Finance, Myanmar (Tun 2017).

2.3.4 Framework for Economic and Social Reforms (FESR) Review

Framework for Economic and Social Reforms (FESR) serves as the policy priorities for 2012-2015 and is an essential policy tool of the Myanmar government to realize both the short-term and long-term potential development, which have been actualized under the National Comprehensive Development Plan of Myanmar. The economic and development planning of the Myanmar government can be found dating back to the end of World War II and is divided into four chronological segments: 1948 - 1962, 1962 - 1988, 1988 – 2011, and 2011 to present. The period from 1950 to 1962, in retrospect, was a "golden age" of post-war Burma. The eight-year "Pyidawtha" Plan saw solid achievements in infrastructure, agriculture and industry (Kyi et al. 2000). By the early 1970s, all major economic activities except agriculture, small business, some retail trade, and road and river transport had been nationalized. In 1967, the economic situation in the country had deteriorated badly as the private sector involvement in economy activities were nearly prohibited. Began in 1997, the centrally planned economy was transformed into a market-oriented economy (Thein 2004). Nevertheless, the economic opportunities for normal citizens were very limited and there was no significant improvement in social-economic situation of the general population.

After the hybrid-democratic government institution was installed in 2011, the President U Thein Sein embraced reform and openness in his inaugural speech, after six decades of being labelled as a pariah state. Through inclusive consultation with various senior officials of different ministries and government departments, the Framework for Economic and Social Reforms (FESR) was developed in the period of May to October 2012. This document focuses on immediate actions (or “quick wins”) in the following broad ten sectors:

1. Fiscal and Tax Reforms (Budgetary Reforms and Tax Reform)
2. Monetary and Financial Sector Reforms (Central Bank Autonomy and Bank Lending Regulations)
3. Liberalization of Trade and Investment (Import Liberalization and Investment Liberalization)
4. Private Sector Development (Regulatory Reform and Tourism)
5. Health and Education (Health Financing, School Grants, Student Stipends/Conditions Cash Transfers)
6. Food Security and Agricultural Growth
7. Governance and Transparency (National Budget Transparency and Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative)
8. Mobile Phones and Internet
9. Infrastructure (Employment Guarantee Scheme for Public Works, Legal Framework for Public-Private Partnerships, Improve Power Provision, Enhancing Public Transport in Yangon)
10. Effective and Efficient Government

This study basically focuses on broader impacts of the ten points on the household size and total dependency ratio, households' assets ownership, literacy rate and school attendance, access to safe water and sanitation, access to electricity, access to healthcare, poverty and employment, state by comparing the Chin state and at Union Level. Additionally, food security in Chin state from 2013-2015 was studied.

2.4 Food Security and Agricultural Growth

Myanmar is an agricultural country well-endowed with land, a generally favourable climate and plentiful water resources for agricultural production. The agriculture sector plays an extremely important role in the economy and is the main source of income for about 60 per cent of the working population. At the end of July 2015, Myanmar was hit

by Cyclone Komen. It had made landfall in causing extensive flooding of agricultural land. The Government of Myanmar identified agricultural development and food security as one of the country's key pillars supporting and enabling inclusive and sustained economic growth, as promulgated in several publications (GoM 2011). An estimated 19.2 per cent of the country's total land surface is classified as agricultural land, of which 86 per cent is arable, 11 per cent is under permanent crops, and 3 per cent is under permanent pasture. Forests cover 48.2 per cent of the country. Rice is the country's main crop and staple food. Other major crops include maize, pulses, oilseeds, sugarcane, rubber, tea and timber. The rice-cultivated areas increased by more than 20 per cent between 1994 and 2014 (from 5.9 million hectares to 7.2 million hectares), and production increased by 37 per cent, reaching 28.2 million tonnes in 2014. Rice exports have shown an overall increasing trend since 2007, with rice shipments estimated to have increased from around 200,000 tonnes to 1.7 million tonnes between 2004 and 2014, largely due to sharply increased sales to China.

The food security situation of a region or household can be assessed along a set of underlying factors or determinants: availability, accessibility, and utilization. In Myanmar, more than 1 in 3 children under 5 years old are too short for their age (1.5 million or 35 per cent), a reflection of chronic malnutrition. 1 in 13 are too thin for their age (8 per cent), a reflection of acute malnutrition (MICS 2011). Both forms of malnutrition have short and long-term consequences on children's physical and intellectual development. While Myanmar has reported a small positive progress in the reduction of stunting rates since 2000 (0.6 percentage points per year on average), the stunting rates in some areas are still alarming. Specifically, from limited data, the most affected children live in Kachin, Kayah, Chin, Rakhine and Shan states with Rakhine suffering the critical burden of both stunting and wasting. Micronutrient deficiencies are widespread, with non-universal coverage of Vitamin A supplementation, anaemia and thiamine (Vitamin B1) deficiency (FAO & WFP 2016).

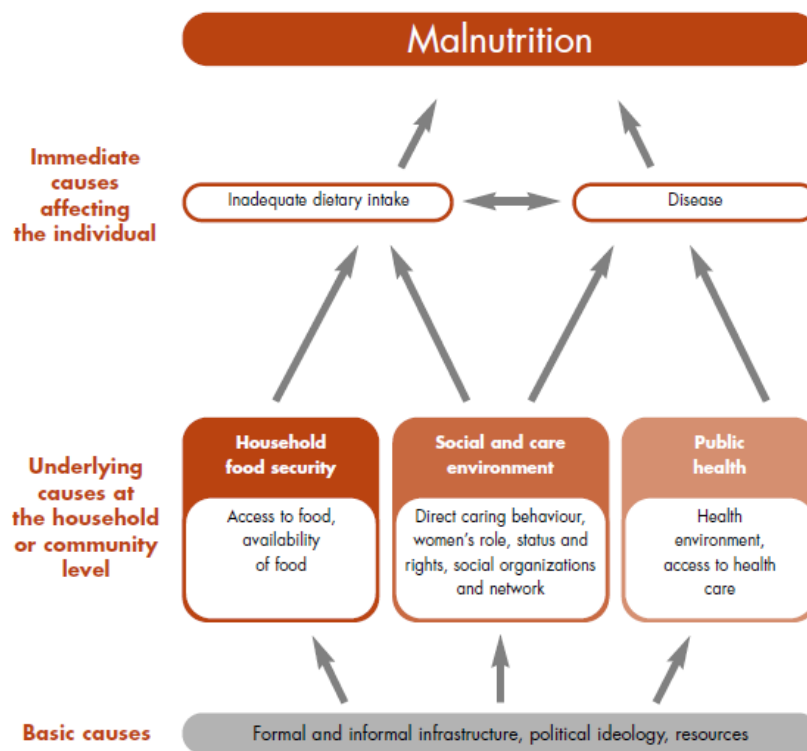


Figure 5. Underlying causes of malnutrition and mortality.

(Source: International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies 2005).

2.5 Roles of NGOs in Development

2.5.1 Activities of NGOs in Myanmar

Since the beginning of the political and economic reforms in 2011, Myanmar is increasingly becoming the world's donor darling, with foreign aid donors and their implementing partners rushing into the country to deliver development assistance. The amount of foreign aid flows to the country has been dramatically increased by 788 per cent from the \$504 million in 2012 to \$4.5 billion in 2013 (Dugya 2015). Transnational Institute (2015) reported that civil society structures in Myanmar traditionally existed at the local level within religious groups, emerging from Buddhist and Christian-led social welfare activities and focusing on poverty, health, and the daily needs of the community. Particularly in areas of weak central government control and armed conflict, civil society

often filled the state's service-delivery role. The CBOs in Myanmar formed voluntarily for social and religious functions, including health, education, and social service. It is estimated that there are more than 2,14,000 CBOs in Myanmar. INGOs are actively playing important roles in responding humanitarian needs and long-term development in various sectors, not limited to environment, health, education, livelihoods, rule of law, advocacy, and building the capacity of CSOs. Only a few INGOs were present in the 1990s; however, in the aftermath of Cyclone Nargis in 2008, the numbers exponentially increased after 2011. According to the Myanmar Information Management Unit (MIMU) 2017, there are more than 1176 offices and 645 entities including UN agencies, INGOs/NGOs, donors and embassies working in the humanitarian and development sectors across the country.

The voluntary sectors are primarily concentrates on implementation of their own projects in many countries (Fowler 1992), improving the situation in microregions but doing little to bring its experience to bear on the government's service delivery or policymaking. This is unfortunate, as civil society and the State stand to gain from cooperation and dialogue. The State can contribute to the strengthening of NGOs devoted to the implementation of the development activities (Dragos & Apostu 2014).

2.5.2 Level of Collaboration between CSOs and Myanmar Government

According to Asian Development Bank (2015) civil society briefs for Myanmar, there are increased local, national, and internal partnerships; civil society and government are beginning to interact more openly and constructively, and legal frameworks for participation are liberalizing in some areas.

After the 2010 elections, political avenue has continued to open around the country, particularly in urban areas. The government increasingly acknowledges the vital role civil society organization can play. Consequently, the resources are consolidated through networking and coalition by various stakeholders (GoM 2013). However, the ADB (2015) report further indicates that a limited number of programs are carried out in partnership

with the government by large international NGOs and a limited number of local development NGOs, either through registration with the government or Memorandum of Understandings (MoU). Increasingly, a number of local and international NGOs are entering into MoU with government ministries, primarily around development work and social welfare related to agriculture, health, and education.

At the state and regional levels, civil society is beginning to engage authorities on policies and around specific development projects and doing so on its own terms (rather than following government agendas). Furthermore, at the local level, the relations between CSOs and the Government is rapidly changing. Despite the increasing civil society participation in important policy areas, certain issues remain off-limits, or at least risky to civil society participation, including proposals to amend the 2008 Constitution and formal inclusion of civil society representation in the ongoing peace negotiations with non-state ethnic armed groups (Norwegian Peacebuilding Resource Center 2014). Despite this, while the State may not currently be regarded as the ideal partner, respondents argued that the long-term benefits of working with the state outweigh the short-term costs; cooperation can institutionalize a project and allow the state to continue benefitting from it after an NGO withdraws (Asad & Kay 2014). On February 23, 2017, the launching day of new programmes to improve the nutrition, incomes and resilience of the people living in Chin state, European Union Ambassador His Excellency Roland Kobia said “this is an ambitious programme and a necessary programme (LIFT 2017). It comes at a time when Livelihoods and Food Security Trust Fund (LIFT) should continue to work closely with Government and in support of Government programmes and policies”. By looking at the experiences of development actors and other stakeholders’ stances, it can be judged that the level of collaboration between the Myanmar government and development actors are lacking in achieving common goals.

3 The Aim of the Thesis

The main goal of the thesis is to determine the achievements of development policy implementation in the Chin state of Myanmar.

Specific Objectives

1. To analyze the development progress from 2012-2015 and measure the development disparities in Chin state and the rest of the country.
2. To investigate how the development agents' works fit into the government's policy.
 - 2.1 Are the different development actors, the government included, collaborating and coordinating in achieving common goals?

4 Methods

4.1 Study Site Description

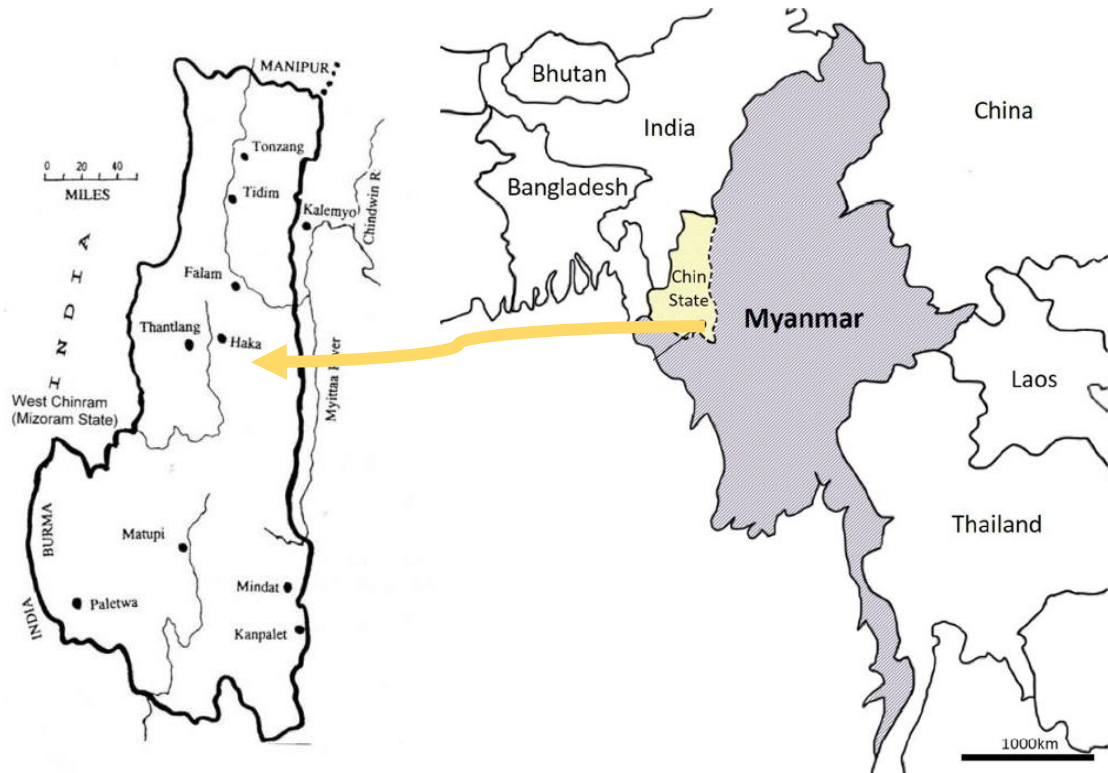


Figure 6. Map of study location.

(Source: Nikonghong 2011).

Chin state is in the western part of Myanmar, 22°0'N 93°30'E. It has an area of 36,018.9Km². Sharing a long northern border with India and a western front with Bangladesh, Chin state is the poorest among Myanmar's state/regions, and among its most diverse. Ethnic groups living in Chin state are demographically diverse, with six main ethnic groups (Asho, Cho, Khum, Laimi, Mizo and Zomi) and dozens of sub-groups represented in this predominantly Christian area of the country (UNDP 2014). With an estimated population of 4,78,800 people, Chin state is the second smallest (by population size) of all states/regions (MIP 2015). Geographical disadvantages, low population density, mountainous terrain are main barriers to improving basic infrastructure development. The ceasefire agreement of 2012 between the Government

of Myanmar (GoM) and the Chin National Front (CNF), a non-state armed group, has removed what was previously a serious bottleneck for development. The region as a whole is not vested with valuable natural resources and favourable agro-climatic conditions. Nevertheless, most of the inhabitants grow maize and rice as their staple food crops, usually by practising traditional shifting cultivation system under rain-fed conditions. Their year-round efforts in shifting cultivation barely suffices for the consumption of subsistence farmers themselves. While most households in the region were originally already food-insufficient, the food security situation became much worse due to a rodent outbreak in 2008 which left most households in short supply of food.

4.2 Data Collection

First Objective

The data for the first objective was gathered from various secondary sources. Before the sources were used, they were checked to ensure validity for this research purpose. It was verified whether the surveys were utilized by other researchers from published articles on academic websites such as, Web of Science, ScienceDirect, and well-known research organizations such as the Myanmar Development Research Institute/Centre for Economic and Social Development (MDRI/CESD) and Myanmar Institute for Integrated Development (MIID) including the Asian Development Bank (ADB) and the World Bank (WB). It was found several well-known authors, for instance, Haggblade et al. 2014, Vicol et al. 2018 & Tun et al. 2015 had used these surveys. Most importantly, apart from these survey results, there is no other more comprehensive and large survey that was conducted by technically well-equipped organizations during the past ten years in Myanmar. Thus, we decided to utilize the following surveys.

Table 1. Baseline data (pre-Implementation)

No.	Source Name	Description
1	Livelihood and Food Security Trust Fund (LIFT) ¹	Baseline Survey Results 2012. LIFT sample size contains randomly selected 4,000 households and 252 villages from three zones: Coastal/Delta, Hilly and Dry zones in Myanmar where Chin state is considered as being in the hilly zone.
2	Integrated Household Living Conditions Survey in Myanmar (IHLCS) ²	Selected Poverty Relevant Indicators. The IHLCS survey includes a nationwide representative sample of 18,660 households.
3	Myanmar Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey 200-2010(MICS) ³	MICS sample contains 29,238 households, 38,081 individual women aged 15-49, and 15,539 children under five. The survey monitors the situation of children and women.

Table 2. Post-implementation

No	Source Name	Description
1	Department of Population Ministry of Immigration and Population (MIP)	Myanmar Population and Housing Census main report 2015.
2	Ministry of National Planning and Economic Development (MNPED)	Myanmar Statistical Yearbook 2011 and 2015. The Yearbook was developed by Central Statistical Organization (CSO). It is the statistics compiled mainly from administrative records of 98 government agencies and 30 ministries and

¹ LIFT is a multi-donor fund established in 2009 to improve the lives and prospects of smallholder farmer and landless people, working to ensure that Myanmar's rural economic transformation is inclusive.

² IHLCA survey was undertaken in close cooperation with the Planning Department of the Ministry of National Planning and Economic Development (MNPED), the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (sida).

³ MICS survey was carried in collaboration with Ministry of National Planning and Economic Development (MNPED), Ministry of Health (MoH) and United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF).

		partly from the censuses and /or surveys conducted in the country.
3	Myanmar Poverty and Living Conditions Survey (MPLCS)	A trend analysis of poverty in Myanmar between 2004/05 and 2015. MPLCS is a nationally representative with a sample size of 3,648 households. Households are selected based on the census report and the survey was conducted through a close collaboration between the Ministry of Planning and Finance (MOPF) and The World Bank (WB).
4	Food Security Working Group (FSWG)	Food security monitory statistical information of Chin state (2013-2015). The FSWG has a diverse membership consisting of 187 local CBOs, NGOs, INGOs, associates and interested individuals focused on innovative livelihood and food security initiatives.

Seven main indicators plus one indicator for food security status in Chin state have been chosen to compare the interstate/regional development disparity. These variables enable us to compare and determine whether there was development progress during the period of 2012-2015. At the same time, they are able to show if there were uneven development levels between the Union and the Chin state level. The selected indicators and sources of data are shown in the following table.

Table 3. Sources of data for indicators

No.	Chosen Indicators	Pre	Post
1.	Household size and dependency ratio	LIFT 2012	MIP 2015
2.	Households' assets ownership	LIFT 2012	MIP 2015
3.	Literacy rate and school attendance ratio	IHLCA 2011	MPLCS 2017
4.	Employment and poverty	IHLCA 2011	MPLCS 2017 & MIP 2015
5.	Safe water and sanitation facilities	MICS 2011 and	MIP 2015

6.	Access to electricity	LIFT 2012	MPLCS 2017 & MIP 2015
7.	Access to healthcare	YB 2011	WHO 2010, YB 2015
8.	Food security situation	FSWG 2013	FSWG 2015

Second Objective

For the second objective, the information was gathered from key development stakeholders. The stakeholders include government officers, INGOs/NGOs, political parties, media and publication, think-tank organizations and academic institutions. The email addresses of INGO/NGOs and CBOs were collected from the Myanmar Information Management Unit (themim.info). The email addresses of political parties and the Development Affairs Minister of Chin state were obtained via personal networks. A Google survey that comprised of eleven questions (Appendix 2) was also developed. Official email requests to participate in Google survey was sent to 15 identified stakeholders, which are actively involved in implementing several development projects and have some level of policy influences in the Chin state. Out of 15, 11 organizations participated, with 4 organizations' emails being invalid. New email addresses for unreachable organizations were furthermore requested from the respective country directors' offices, unfortunately, there was no response. 1 INGO refused to participate as it was against their organization's rules. In addition to the Google survey, among 10 respondents, 3 key INGOs/NGOs were asked to further contribute in terms of providing comments and opinions that were not included in survey questions.

The participating organizations and positions of subsequent respondents are shown in the following table.

Table 4. Data sources for stakeholders' analysis

No.	Stakeholders	Position
1	Chin State Business Institute (CSBI) ⁴ The Chin State Government, Myanmar	Chairperson of the Board of Directors Minister of Development Affair, Electricity and Industry (including tourism)
2	GRET ⁵	Project Manager
3	International Labour Organization (ILO)	Network Focal
4	Thantlang Liaison Office (Chin National Front)	Office Head
5	Chin Center for Peace and Reconciliation (CCPR)	M & E Coordinator
6	The Chin Journal (TCJ)	Editor-in-Chief
7	Community Agency for Rural Development (CAD)	Director
8	Chin National Democratic Party (CNDP)	Secretary
9	Centre for Development and Ethnic Studies (CDES)	Research Director
10	Chin Human Rights Organization (CHRO)	Project Coordinator

Note: Number 1 is the government. Number 2 to 10 are NGOs and other stakeholders

4.3 Data Analysis

For the first objective, since the enormous amount of statistical information was gathered from various secondary sources, there was an attempt to extract as much information as was useful. For instance, the existing data provides the indicators only for States and Regions. To have data for Union level, the average values were calculated. Respective variables were keyed into Microsoft Excel and basic descriptive statistical analysis performed. The results of analysis were presented in several methods, such as comparison tables and graphs, with a baseline year of 2012 and a research cap year of 2015. At the same time, the development differences for some of the selected variables were compared to indicate the disparity of development progress between the Union and Chin state level. In some cases, the development progress in the whole Myanmar, are shown in various tables and figures for the academic audience. For the second

⁴ The survey question was sent to the Development Affair Minister of Chin State, but it was responded by CSBI's Chairperson of the Board of Directors. CSBI is a newly established public institute.

⁵ GRET is an international development NGO from France that provides durable and innovative answers to the challenges of poverty and inequality. For further information: www.gret.org

objective, the respondents' answers were thoroughly checked before carrying out the analysis. Any incomplete survey was annulled. Only surveys that contain full information were used for the purpose of analysis. USAID's Collaboration Mapping Excel worksheet was utilised for the stakeholder analysis.

4.4 The Limitations of Research

For the problem of internal validity, it is difficult to conclude that the changes in the trend of chosen indicators are only caused by the government's program. This is because there are other factors and third/missing variables that we did not consider in the study, such as development program carried out by the other development actors (NGOs, UN). For instance, the income of households might have increased because of remittances from the family members working abroad or decreased due to flood and landslides that occurred during monsoon season. To ensure construct validity, the types of variables for development progress measurement are basic needs of the households and populations. It is theoretically believed that the promulgation reform steps taken by the Myanmar government expanded the opportunity to improve the livelihoods of the poorest members of society but also open-door friendly to organizations that are willing to serve them. The Civil Society Organisations may not speak up their actual perceptions towards the government when it comes to criticising the government treatment on them, which can reduce the reliability of data in stakeholder analysis. The five organisations which did not participate in the survey could have affected the result for the Stakeholders analysis.

5 Results

5.1 General Description of Myanmar's Economy

Table 5. Comparison of Myanmar's economy between 2011-2015

S. N	Particulars	2011	2015	Change
1.	GDP Growth rate	5.6	8.7	3.1
2.	Per capita GDP	4.5	7.6	3.1
3.	Per capita consumption	1.5	10.9	9.4
4.	Per capita investment	30.9	12.8	-18.1
5.	Sector distribution to GDP			
	Agriculture	36.8	27.9	-8.9
	Industry	26.5	34.4	7.9
	Service	36.7	37.7	1
7.	Labour force by occupation			
	Agriculture	70	52.7	-17.3
	Industry	7	16.8	9.8
	Service	23	31.5	8.5
8.	Average consumer price inflation	0.7	10.2	9.5

(Source of data: MSIS 2015).

To explain the overview of the country's economy, since the implementation of FESR, we can observe positive change nationally in different sector of the economy. Evidently, the structure of the economy had shifted from agriculturally based to more industrial as the country's economy was diversified. We could observe the rapidly growing rate of employment creation in secondary and tertiary sectors of the economy as the above table illustrated.

5.2 Household Size and Total Dependency Ratio

According to the Myanmar Census Report (2015), there are 10,889,348 households in Myanmar, of those, 91,121 households are in the Chin state. On average, 4.4 people live in each household in the country. Moreover, the report indicates that Chin state along

with Kachin has the highest household size at 5.1. For the whole country, the people in household numbers were steadily decreasing from 4.8 persons in 2012 to 4.4 persons in 2015.

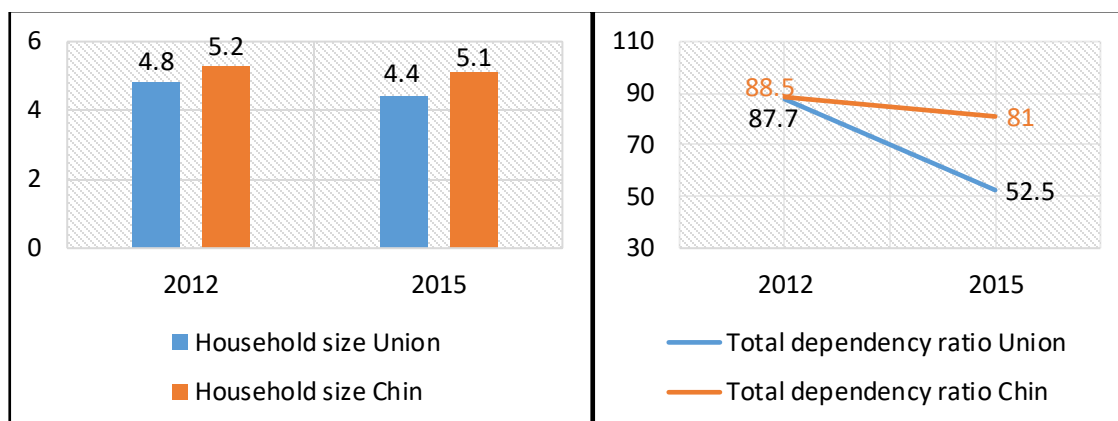


Figure 7. Average household size and total dependency ratio.

(Source of data: LIFT 2012 & MIP 2015).

Table 6. Differences in average household size and total dependency ratio

Indicators	Union	Chin	Difference
Household size	-0.4	-0.1	0.3
Total dependency ratio	-35.2	-7.5	27.7

(Source of data: LIFT 2012 & MIP 2015).

The household size can be related to the health condition of the mother, poverty, education, awareness on family planning, maternity facilities accessibility and migration. Moreover, there is a positive relationship between poverty and household size according to the study conducted by (Meyer & Niyimbanira 2016). Backward farming households in Chin might not have received a proper family planning and access to sexual-reproductive health information and services. Therefore, having more children is seen as a means owning higher labour for farming activities. As can be seen in the figure, the household size in the Chin state has not been reducing at a slower pace in comparison to the Union level.

When it comes to total dependency ratio, there is a huge disparity between the Chin state and the Union level. The dependency ratio in Chin reduced only by 7.5 points as opposed to 35.2 points at the Union level. This is due to the fact that the population of children and old people in Chin state is significantly higher than productive working-age adults that are between 15-65 years old. Employment is crucially important to determine the level of dependency in the household, because the household income contributed by employed members translates directly to poverty reduction. This will specifically be discussed in the following chapter, as this is also linked to the lack of conducive legal environments for private sector participation which is a bottleneck to influx investment. This is a hindrance in the area of improving basic infrastructure, as constructing infrastructure will generate employment for the country's population. As discussed above, due to lack of family planning knowledge, the Chin families would have likely to have more newborn in the past three years.

5.3 Housing Unit and Households' Assets Ownership

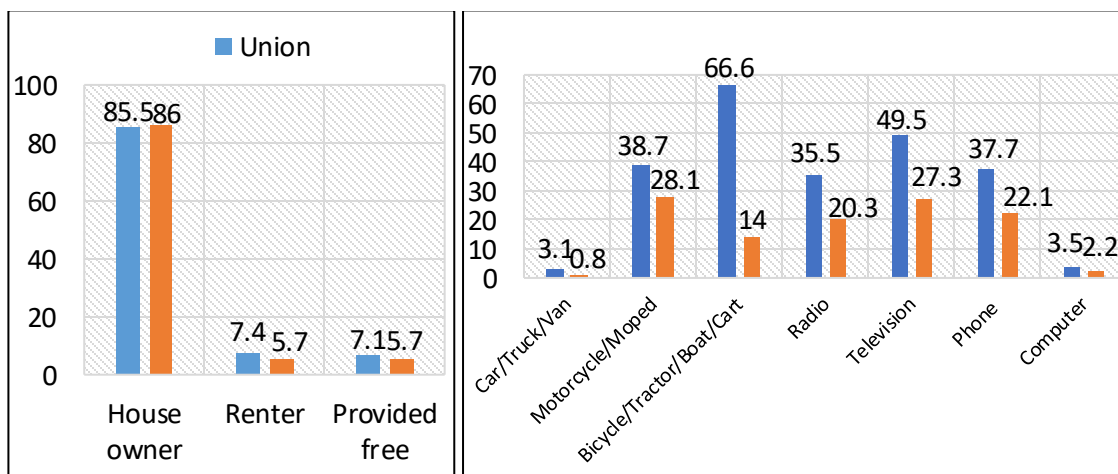


Figure 8. Comparison of households' assets ownership.

(Source of data: MIP 2015).

Table 7. Differences in households' assets ownership

Indicators	Union	Chin	Difference
House ownership	85.5	86	0.5
Other assets	33.5	16.4	17.1

(Source of data: MIP 2015).

As shown in the above graph and table, the rate of house ownership in the Chin state is slightly higher than the rate at Union level by 0.5 points. In contrast, the number of households living in rented houses are higher at the Union level by 1.7 points. Nevertheless, the construction material for housing, i.e. for the wall, floor and roof, should also be acknowledged. The conditions of housing units are important characteristics which indicate the quality of life of the population (MIP 2015). Furthermore, the assessment found that 51.2 per cent wall made of bamboo, 50.8 per cent wooded floor and 61.5 per cent corrugated sheet roof in Union whereas 60.1 per cent wall and 74 per cent floor are made of wooded and 72 per cent corrugated sheet roof in the Chin state. This tells us, in overall, Chin households have better quality housing.

One can arguably say that households in rural areas are more likely to own housing unit because the lands are cheaper. In these areas, one can be build private property in empty plots without government permission since the majority of the lands are communally owned. The right figure further demonstrates the households' ownership of conveyance equipment and communication amenities. Nationally, many households are able to access to information communication technology (ICT) after the liberalization of telecommunication that has attracted foreign direct investment in this sector. In 2012, the mobile SIM card cost \$ 300 but, at the end of 2014, it cost only \$ 1.5. The digital leapfrogging which happened just in two years made it possible for many millions of households and individuals to own communications tools. However, there is a huge disparity in assets ownership between Chin state and at the Union level. Moreover, right figure reflects that basic transportation methods such as bicycle, tractor, boat and cart (bullock) are the most popular and affordable ways for the transporting system both

throughout the Union and in the Chin state. Filmer & Pritchett (2001) argue that the physical assets ownership of households is highly correlated with household expenditure. It is clear that household income in Chin state are far lower compared to the Union level, therefore, ownership of the assets is reasonably lower than households in the rest of the country.

5.4 Literacy Rate and School Attendance

In order to measure the improvements in education, we measured the literacy rate and school attendance. For literacy rates, we looked at data in two categories, adult literacy (aged 25 years old and above) and youth literacy (aged between 16-24 years old). The study purposely did not include children less than 15 years old because according to the education law in Myanmar, it is compulsory for them to be attending school and they are obliged to do so. However, this study did not take into account the quality of education and the competitiveness of teaching methods.

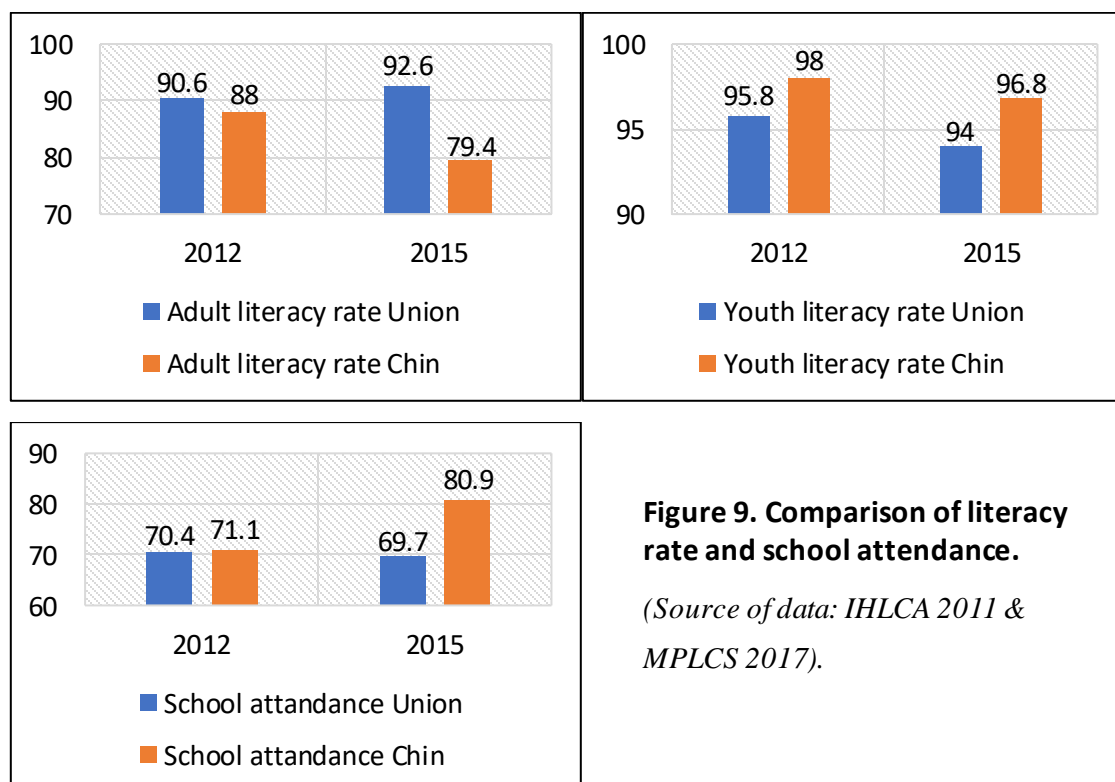


Figure 9. Comparison of literacy rate and school attendance.

(Source of data: IHLCA 2011 & MPLCS 2017).

Table 8. Differences in literacy rate and school attendance

Indicators	Union	Chin	Difference
Adult literacy rate	2.0	-8.6	-10.6
Youth literacy rate	-1.8	-1.2	0.6
School attendance	- 0.7	9.8	10.5

(Source of data: IHLCA 2011 & MPLCS 2017).

The reforms in Myanmar include the elimination of primary and secondary school fees, the introduction of compulsory primary education, the hiring of more school teachers, the expansion of a stipend program to over 1,00,000 poor students and the provision of block grants to schools to support school needs. It is questionable whether the reforms process in education sector has been implemented in line with the framework during this span of time. Figure 9 and Table 8 shows a significant drop in the adult literacy rate in Chin state and slight decrease in youth literacy rate for both Chin and Union. This could be explained as the accumulation of the children and youth who did not have opportunity to go to school during the military ruling period. In contrast, there is an abrupt rise in the school attendance rate in the Chin state, this is as a result of Myanmar military regime deserting from force labour practice and prohibition of CSOs activities especially educational centers run by faith-based organization. After abandoning such practice and restriction by the regime, the children do not have to shoulder household chores for their parents. Thus, it gives opportunity them to go to school by choice. Therefore, the children are retained in the school without any disruption. The MPLCS (2017) report articulated that school dropout at the secondary level in Myanmar is closely linked to costs, despite substantial increases in the budget for schools. Despite the increase in Chin state, the Myanmar government could not deliver educational needs for all ages and was subsequently unable to enhance the school attendance rate for the children nationally. The literacy goals in the Myanmar Government's National Education for All was to achieve noteworthy improvement in the levels of functional literacy and continuing education for all by 2015. The target was to increase both the adult and youth literacy rate by 99 per cent by 2015. However, the government was unable to deliver as targeted. Rockett (2013) mentioned that schools are currently poorly equipped, with educational material often of low quality and outdated. Although primary school

enrollment is compulsory, enrollment drops to 50.5 per cent for both boys and girls by the time they reach secondary school, according to UNICEF (2013).

5.5 Employment and Poverty Dimension

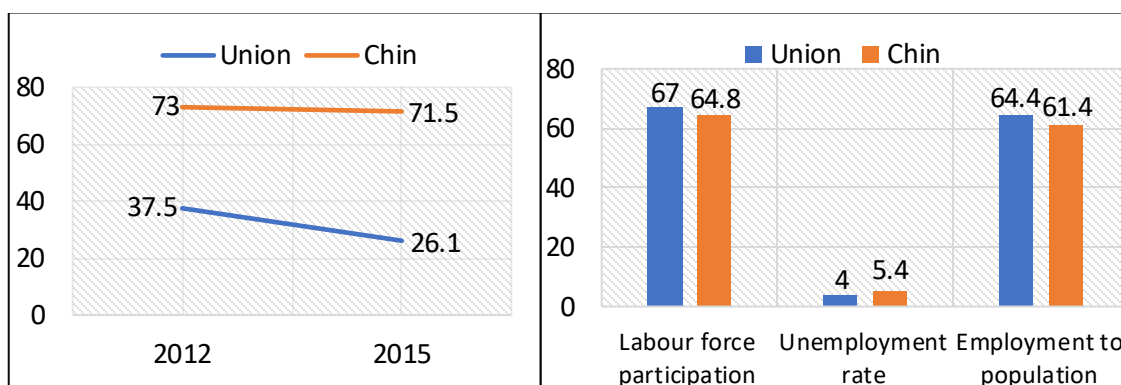


Figure 10. Poverty⁶ rate 2010-2015 and employment rate in 2015 (age 15-64) in %.

(Source of data: IHLCA 2012, MPLCS 2017 & MIP 2015).

Table 9. Differences in poverty rate and employment dimensions

Indicators	Union	Chin	Difference
Poverty rate	11.4	1.5	9.9
Labor force participation	67.0	64.8	2.2
Unemployment	4.0	5.4	1.4
Employment to population	64.4	61.4	3.0

(Source of data: IHLCA 2012, MPLCS 2017 & MIP 2015).

The above figure 10 measures the trend of the headcount poverty rate. The national poverty rate had declined from 37.5 to 26.1 per cent over the last three years, however, the poverty rate in the Chin state has remained relatively constant, decreasing only by 1.5 points. This further indicates that despite the poverty reduction strategies carried

⁶ The above poverty rate measurement method is the World Bank. According to the Government of Myanmar living conditions measurement, the rate poverty was 25.6 per cent in 2012 and 19.4 per cent in 2015.

out by the Myanmar government partially succeeding at the national level, it has not managed to increase welfare conditions in Chin state. Moreover, as the figure on the right depicts, in terms of labour force participation between ages 15 to 64, Chin state measures in at 64.8 per cent whereas the Union clocks in at 67 per cent. In regard to the unemployment rate, Chin state has the higher rate by 1 point (at 5.4 per cent) in comparison to the Union (4 per cent). When it comes to the employment-to-population rate, Chin state has a lower rate at 61.4 per cent as opposed to 64.4 per cent in the Union.

The reforms process opened doors for investors and increased the confidence level of the business community. However, poor regions like Chin state were not able to attract investors due to the poor transportation system and inadequate electricity supply. These are the bottlenecks the government intended to address. According to Win (2017), there was zero foreign direct investment in Chin state till 2018. Additionally, the government failed to create policy initiatives targeting employment generation such as work for food programmes. Job creation has increased substantially in urban areas where there is basic infrastructure, such as access to good roads for logistic purposes and regular electricity supply for manufacturing industries. Consequently, the resulting increase in employment increased household income. The ongoing reforms are reflected in the vigorous growth of manufacturing and service sectors, but it has yet to be entirely unleashed in the primary sector, where the majority of the poor people are making their livelihoods (MPLCS 2017). As long as the Myanmar government cannot revitalize the agricultural sector, implementation of poverty reduction strategies and rural development cannot be achieved as planned. As stated above, the labour force participation is very low for both at the Union level and Chin state.

5.6 Access to Safe Water and Sanitation Facilities

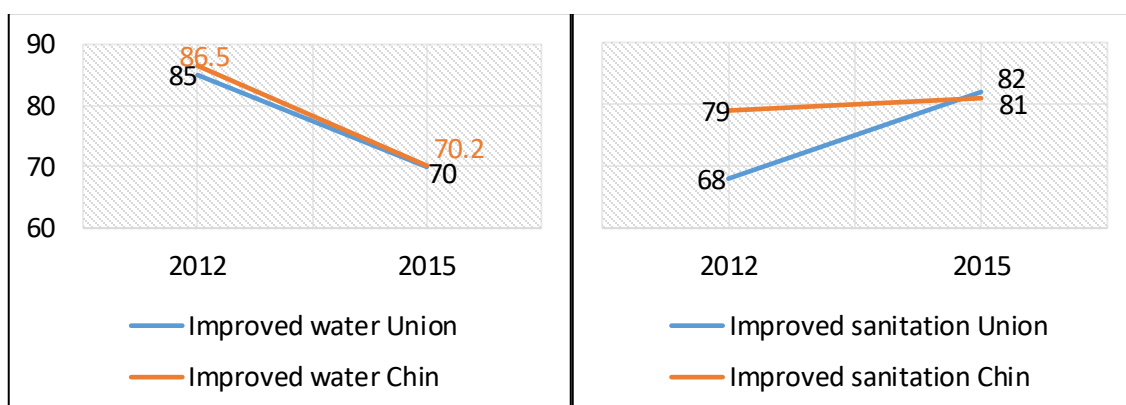


Figure 11. Accessed to Improved water⁷ and sanitation⁸ in %.

(Source of data: MICS 2011, IHLCA 2011 & MPLCS 2017).

Table 10. Differences in access to improved water and sanitation

Indicators	Union	Chin	Difference
Improved water	-15.0	-16.3	1.3
Improved sanitation	14.0	2.0	12.0

(Source of data: MICS 2011, IHLCA 2011 & MPLCS 2017).

Accessing clean water is essential for hygiene issues and health at village, regional and national levels. Safe and sustainable access to sanitation is fundamental for a healthy life and well-being. The absence of proper sanitation facilities at households levels leads to major diseases such as diarrhoea, cholera and trachoma. Since the beginning of 2012, the Department of Rural Development has mainly been responsible for the rural drinking water supply. Furthermore, the department pointed out issues relating to the adequacy and quality of safe drinking and insufficient purification system, which led to them

⁷ Improved water includes: a public tap or pipe, tube-well or borehole, a protected well or spring and bottle or purified water. Unimproved water includes: unprotected well or spring, pool or pond or lake, river or stream or canal and waterfall or rain water.

⁸ Improved sanitation facilities include: a flush toilet connected to the sewage system or septic tank; a pour flush toilet with water seal; a covered pit latrine with footstep lid and a direct and indirect covered pit latrine without foot step lid. Unimproved sanitation facilities includes: pit (traditional pit latrine), bucket (surface latrine), other type and none.

recommending the legislation of a Ground Water Policy. The new ruling party, National League for Democracy (NLD) government came out with the National Strategy for Rural Water Supply, Sanitation and Hygiene in March 2016. However, it is in mid-implementation. MPLCS (2017) stated that nearly 3 in 10 people lack access to year-round improved drinking water, and 1 in 4 lacks access to improved sanitation. This research expected that there should have been an expansion of tap water/piped water supply across the country over this period. Nevertheless, it was found that many households remained unable to access improved water supplies. This might be partially attributed to natural disasters and unpredictable weather impacting the source of clean water supply. Myanmar regularly experiences cyclones, storm surges, floods, landslides, earthquakes, drought and forest fires. The United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (2016) report gives additional affirmation that between 2011 and 2016, Myanmar experienced the highest frequency of these events. Approximately 1.7 million were displaced and many towns were affected by floods, including water supply system and crops in their agricultural land (UNOCHA 2016). Although the Myanmar government could not have managed the risk and responded to all disaster impacts effectively, it was found that access to the improved sanitation among the population was increased by 13 points at the Union level and 3.6 points in the Chin state - hitherto there was considerable difference in the level of betterment.

5.7 Access to Electricity

The source of energy for cooking and lighting is critical to determining the living standard of the households as energy plays a very important role for economic development and for alleviating rural poverty. Chronic electricity shortages and uneven electricity supply hinder the advancement of households living condition. Additionally, energy consumption and accessibility are more related to gender, health, employment, environmental issues and children education. If there is undisrupted energy supply for lighting in households and in local government service facilities, schoolchildren can study at night and utilize their time effectively. Concurrently, the healthcare centres can

operate and provide 24/7 services to the populace without any hurdles. As the research findings of Brenneman & Kerf (2002) argue, there are linkages which exist between increased access to infrastructure services specifically electricity for employment generation and poverty alleviation.

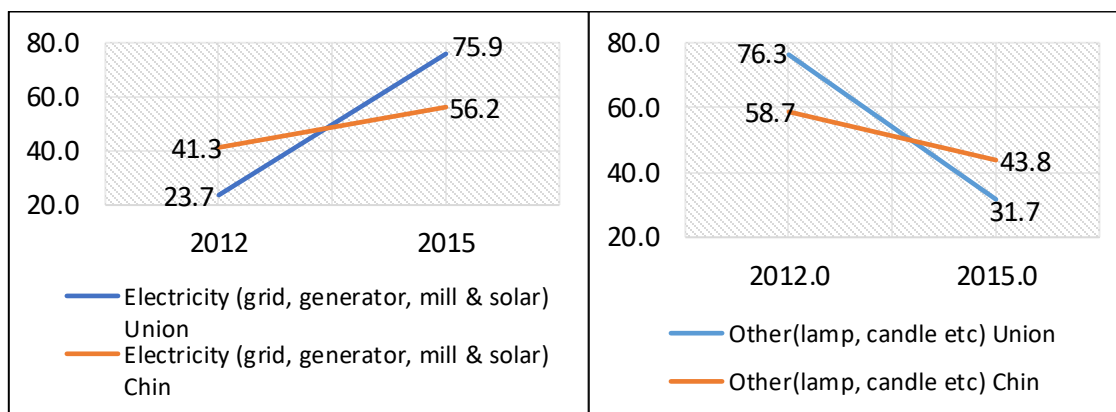


Figure 12. Comparison of source of energy for lighting

(Source of data: LIFT 2012 & MIP 2015).

Table 11. Comparison of households' source of energy for lighting in %

Indicators	Union			Chin		
	2012	2015	Change	2012	2015	Change
Electricity	23.7	43.3	19.6	41.3	31.0	-10.3
Solar system & battery	0	32.6	32.6	0	25.2	25.2
Lamp (kerosene/oil)	26.4	8.1	-18.3	15.5	5.9	-9.6
Candle	26.8	20.7	-6.1	24.3	29.4	5.1
Other (coal etc)	23.1	2.9	-20.2	18.9	8.5	-10.4

(Source of data: LIFT 2012 & MIP 2015).

The above table illustrates the variation of the source of energy that households consumed for lighting purposes. As found in this assessment, there was a tremendous increase in electricity supply at the Union level by 19.6 points from 2012 to 2015. On the contrary, there was a 10.3point reduction of electricity supply in Chin state. This main

reason could be the government’s incapability to hastily adopt the electric power regulatory framework’s implementation guidelines and standards that are still under development, which generates uncertainty in regard to the legality and feasibility of investment for the private investors (Ross 2015). Interestingly, his study found that there was rapid growth in solar energy supply in both at the Union level and the Chin state, partly because of promoting renewable energy distribution solutions to provide lighting and electricity to rural communities spearheaded by nongovernmental organisations (NGOs). The renewable energy sources such as solar energy brought about a major shift in the energy sector and shared one of the largest sources of energy for lighting not only in Chin state but also nationwide.

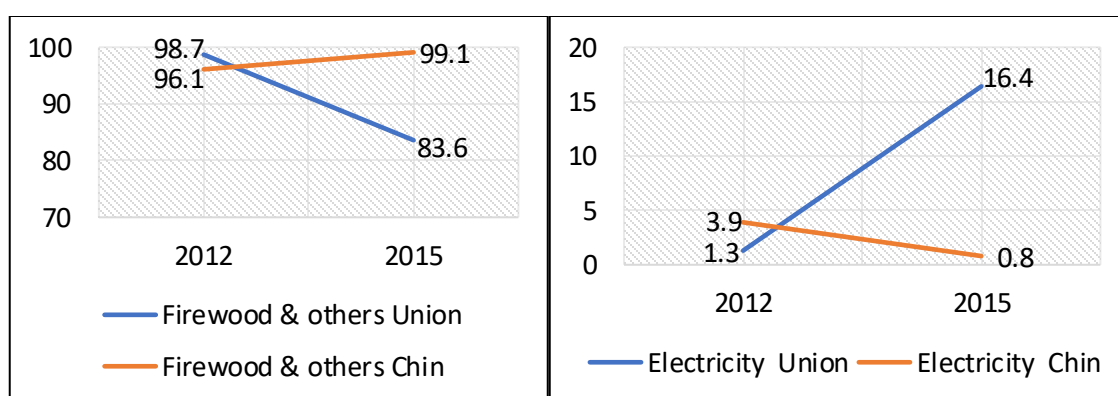


Figure 13. Comparison of source of energy for cooking.

(Source of data: LIFT 2012 & MIP 2015).

Table 12. Comparison of households’ sources of energy for cooking in %

Category	Union			Chin		
	2012	2015	Change	2012	2015	Change
Electricity	1.3	16.4	15.1	3.9	0.8	-3.1
Firewood	95.1	69.2	-25.9	94.6	93.7	-0.9
Other (coal, etc)	3.6	14.4	10.8	1.5	5.4	3.9

(Source of data: LIFT 2012 & MIP 2015).

Sources of cooking energy play an essential role in gender issues and labour division in rural poor communities. The majority of rural women spend a portion of their time collecting firewood for cooking. Community Agency for Rural Development (2012) survey found that the time spent daily for collecting firewood is about 2 ± 0.5 hours per day on average, with 87.9 per cent of the task done by women. In addition, the collection of firewood contributes to the potential rate of deforestation. This also negatively affects household health, due to health issues caused by the inhalation of smoke from firewood or charcoal. As this research found, in direct contrast to the growth in electricity supply at the Union level, there was a decline in supply in Chin state. Chinland Guardian (2013) reported that there was electric supply reduced in Chin state amidst government's promises. Moreover, a Hakha resident claimed that the State government deduct the hours of the electric supply to households and provide 24-hours power supply to high-ranking government officials instead. Nevertheless, there were positive effects brought about by the reform process resulting in the increased availability of alternative energy sources for cooking. This is shown in the above table the significant decrease in the number of households using firewood from 2012 to 2015 by 25.9 points at the Union level, in direct contrast to a meagre 0.9 points decrease in Chin state. Here again, there is a big gap in the developmental progress variation between Chin and Union.

5.8 Access to Healthcare

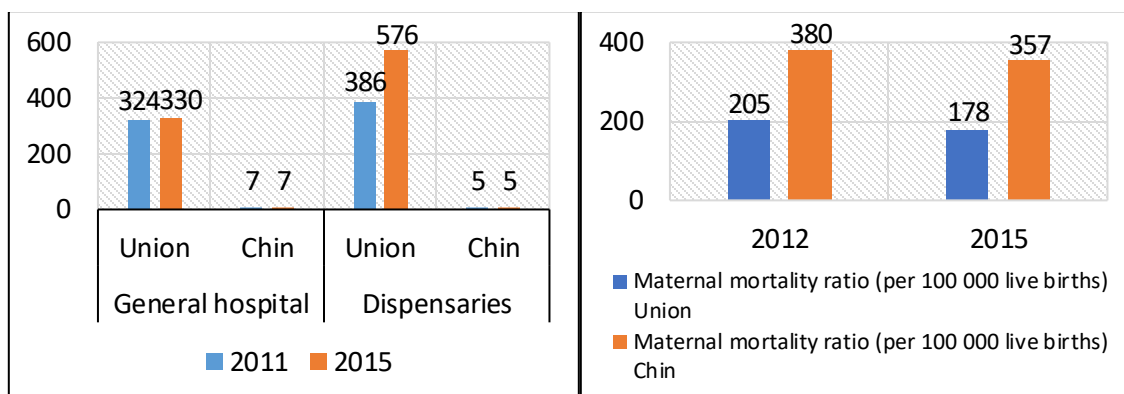


Figure 14. General hospitals, dispensaries growth and maternal mortality ratio.

(Source of data: Yearbook 2011-2015, WHO 2010-2015).

Table 13. Differences in healthcare centres and maternal mortality ratio

Category	Union	Chin	Difference
Health facilities (hospitals & dispensaries)	196	0	196
Maternal mortality ratio	-27	23	4

(Source of data: Yearbook 2011-2015, WHO 2010-2015).

The research attempted to understand healthcare developments in the public healthcare sector. As discussed earlier, access to safe water and sanitation are central to prevent preventable diseases and other health issues. At the same time, it is indispensable to consider the availability of public healthcare centres, and medical and health personnel. In Myanmar, especially in the rural areas, most of the population rely on the healthcare provided by the government hospitals and dispensaries. As described by the above graph, 6 extra hospitals and 190 dispensaries were built at Union level, but there no additional health care centres were provided in the Chin state.

Furthermore, the MIP (2015) report stated out of every 100 children born in Myanmar, 6.2 die before their first birthday and 7.2 before their fifth. This fact further confirms

insufficient implementation of maternity care for mother and infants' health supports. As shown by the maternal mortality ratio in Figure 14, there a huge disparity between the Union level and the Chin state. Some of the contributing factors to maternal mortality rate are due to transportation issues, low level of education that encouraged abortions, according to Police Commander Ye Win Tat Kyaw. To tackle these causes, he proposed that “we should do health education and clinics in every region” as a start (Hogan 2017). There are 64 doctors for 342 posts, which means around 8 out of 10 doctor's posts are vacant across the state, and out of 349 posts for midwives, 108 are vacant a 30 percent shortage, according to UNICEF (2013).

The region's human capacity also plays a vital role in the construction of new public healthcare facilities. This is because, in a geographically disadvantageous and fragile region like Chin state, project implementation is hampered by the undersupply of medical and health personnel. Another interesting factor that this study found is that there was a growth rate in medical and health personnel as shown in Figure 15 during this period; however, the new personnel were not utilized in the regions most in need of immediate health services. According to Pan (2013), Chin state has sufficient hospitals with a total of 750 beds, with 9 maternal and child health centres; however, the facilities remain seriously understaffed.

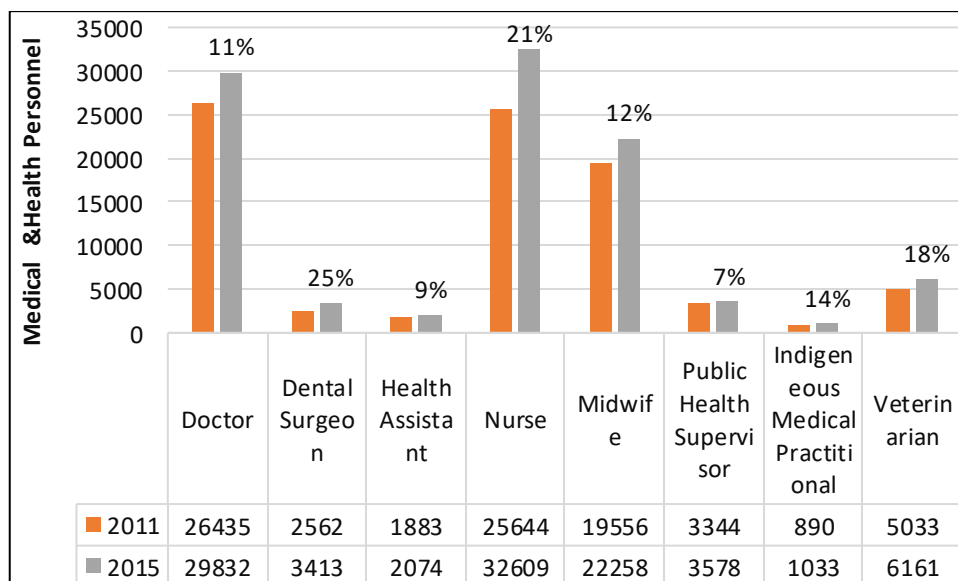


Figure 15. Medical & health personnel 2011-2015.

(Source of data: Yearbook 2011 & 2012).

5.9 Table for All Main Indicators

Table 14. Comparison of development disparity between Union and Chin

No.	Indicators	Unit	Union	Chin	Difference
1.	Household size	per	-0.4	-0.1	0.3
	Total dependency ratio	%	-35.2	-7.5	27.7
2.	House ownership	%	85.5	86	0.5
	Other assets	%	33.5	16.4	17.1
3.	Adult literacy rate	%	2	-8.6	10.6
	Youth literacy rate	%	-1.8	-1.2	0.6
	School attendance	%	-0.7	9.8	10.5
4.	Poverty rate	%	11.4	1.5	9.9
5.	Improved water	%	-15	-16.3	1.3
	Improved sanitation	%	14	2	12
6.	Energy for lightning	%	52.2	14.9	37.3
	Energy for cooking	%	15.1	-3.1	18.2
7.	Health facilities	no.	196	0	196
	Maternal mortality ratio	per	-27	-23	4

As above table depicts, the development disparity between Union and Chin can be observed based on selected main indicators. Total dependency ratio, household assets ownership, access to electricity and health facilities are the major difference where Union have faster improvement and Chin state is still lagging behind. Nevertheless, in school attendance, Chin state surpasses the Union's performance. As discussed previously, total dependency ratio is much higher because there are more unproductive children and old people in Chin state. If the income of the households is higher, households will have higher purchasing power and expenditure. As Filmer & Pritchett (2001) found that there is correlation between assets ownership and household expenditure. And since 71.5 per cent of Chin people are living in poverty that means households income will be spent for basic human needs, thus lower assets ownership. Households accessed to energy for lighting have improved both at Union level and Chin state, as a result of promotion of solar energy by NGOs. Nevertheless, the decline in

electricity supply for both lighting and cooking is observed in Chin. This is because of the government officials in Chin state intentionally cut electricity supplies to households and redirect them to their offices. In terms of healthcare, there is no additional facilities built in Chin state despite many more hospitals and dispensaries are constructed in the rest of the country. This indicates the Myanmar government inability to delivering public goods impartially for all population regardless of geographical advantages and disadvantages.

5.10 Food Security Situation in Chin State from 2013 to 2015

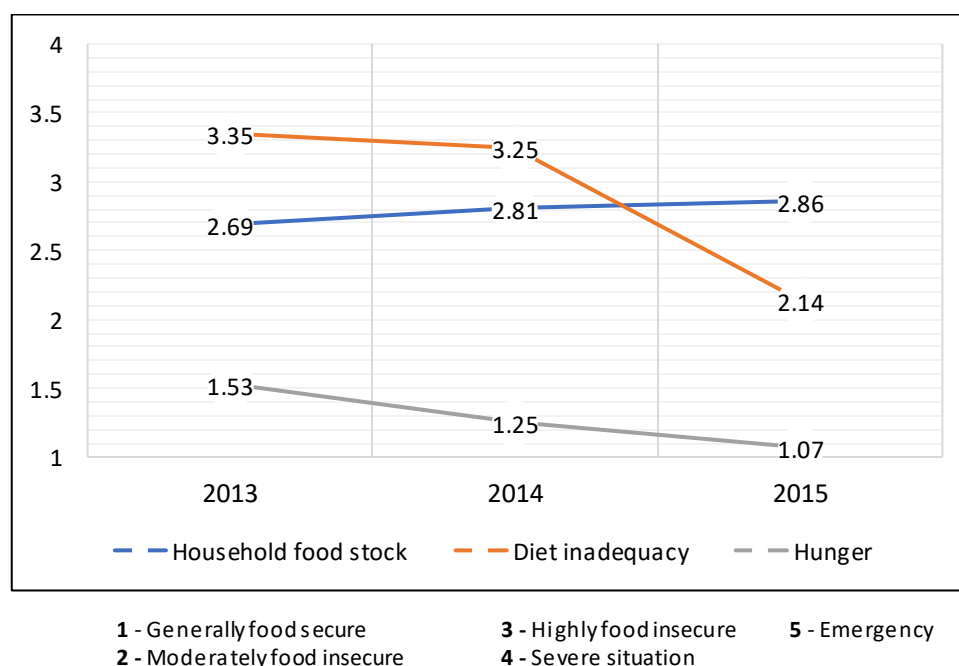


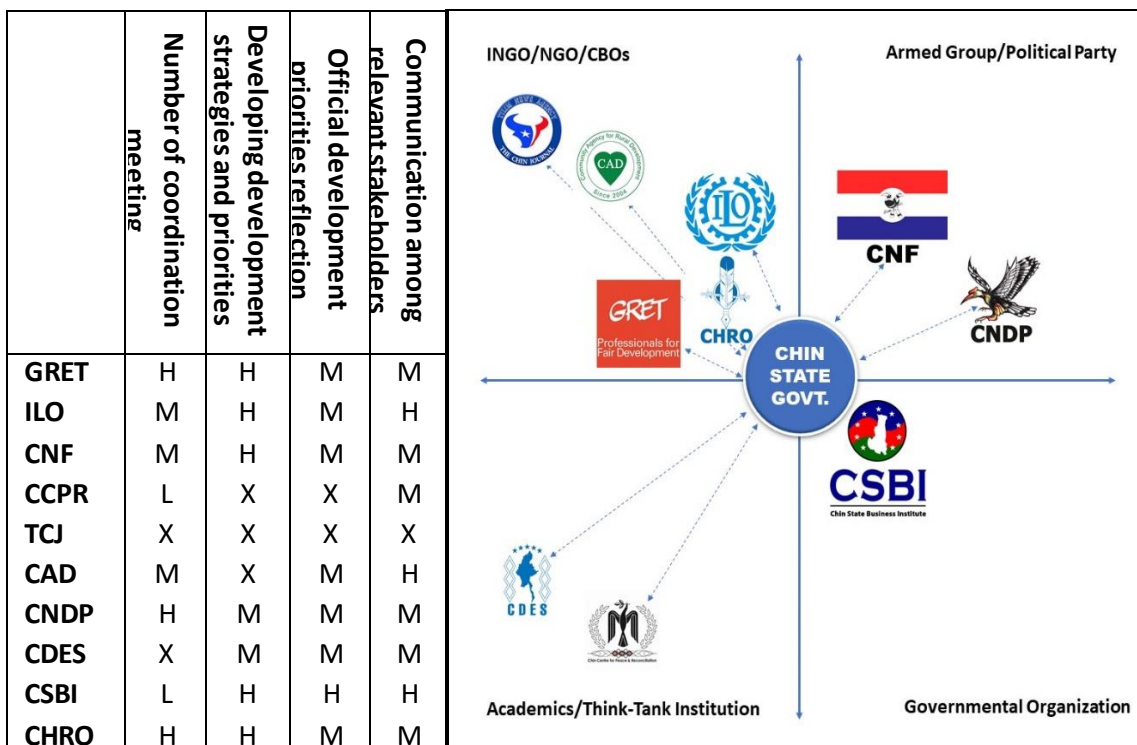
Figure 16. Comparison of food security situation in Chin state.

(Source of data: FSWG 2015).

The growth of agriculture has direct linkages to food security and nutrition of the poor as the majority of the population in rural areas earn their livelihoods from farming. Although this study did not attempt to evaluate agricultural growth, it is believed that the new policy must have supported farming communities to improve their levels of production. Therefore, it is crucially important to look at the food security situation in

the Chin state during the observed period. Historically, Chin experiences a serious rat infestation every once in 50 years, caused by fruiting bamboo. This led to a famine in 2008 as crops were damaged severely and even stocked food was lost. Apart from the consequences of this event, Reliefweb.int (2012) reported that monsoon heavy rains washed away roads and bridges, preventing area accessibility and devastating the entirety of Chin State's maize crops. As clearly explained in Figure 16, despite the fact the government trying to overcome the food insecurity and nutrition challenges, many Chin families were not getting an adequate diet due to the depletion in household food stocks. This led to a majority of households experiencing high levels of food insecurity. The FAO Food Security Assessment (2015) concluded that flooding during the annual monsoon season had a moderate impact on child nutritional status and exacerbated vulnerability towards malnutrition in Chin and Rakhine states. The Rammohan & Pritchard (2014) analysis indicates that landholding has a positive relationship to the ability of households to meet their food and nutrition security. Unfortunately, according to the Myanmar Constitution, private land ownership is restricted, which directly hinder farmers' abilities to produce sufficient food crops for their survival.

5.11 Stakeholders' Analysis Matrix



(The left box describes the participated organisations and the scale of collaboration and coordination with the government which indicated by the representation of H - High, M - Medium, L - Low and X - Nothing)

Figure 17. Stakeholders' analysis matrix.

When it comes to collaboration and coordination among different stakeholders in the Chin state, experiences vary for each organization, partially due to the nature of the development work being carried out. In addition, the ability and financial capacity of the organization can easily influence the perception of government officials responsible. The office head of Chin National Front (CNF) stated: "there is no collaboration and coordination body mechanism among Government, CSOs and others organization, even with National Ceasefire Agreement-Ethnic Armed Organizations". The respondent further opines that the Central Government controls everything in the current situation, with State governments worsening the situation by trying to use their limited powers to manipulate local people. The NCA peace accords accede certain power to ethnic armed organizations (EAOs) to exercise in the areas where they base their battalions and implement development projects. However, by looking at the working experiences of

CNF, we could easily see the government has little intention and interest to carry out short or long development programs in cooperation with private actors. CAD's director stated that "information and data sharing is very important" this indicates there is minimal sharing of essential information that would support the work of respective stakeholders. One can have argued that the CSOs have more willingness to coordinate more aggressively, while the government's role has been negatively perceived Yabgud (2014) had a similar finding in delivering curative health services in North Darfur State, Sudan. Somewhat surprisingly, an INGO worker shared different opinion and experience⁹. Despite this, the results of survey and interviews indicate that in general, cooperation remains weak. As commented by one of the research directors, "cooperation and coordination between the civil society in Myanmar are weak. It needs to be improved".

As explicitly shown on the right matrix, it can be determined whichever logo is closer to the mid-point, the level of collaboration and coordination is higher and vice versa. ING/NGOs such as GRET, ILO and CHRO are closely working with the Chin state government. Conversely, one of the largest CBOs, CAD, has a lower level of coordination with the government. It could be also seen that public institution such as CSBI is working accordance with the government's planning and policy priorities. At the same time, the survey result shows that academics and think-tank institution, media and publication organisation, lack cooperation with the Chin State Government. Nevertheless, the political parties and ethnic armed groups are working to gradually extend their working relationship with the government with a view towards more effective implementation of development projects in consultation with the stakeholders concerned.

⁹ "In Hakha, the capital of Chin State, the coordination meeting between Chin State government and NGOs/INGOs and different actors is regular. We have a regular coordination with Govt. quarterly. On the other hand, the coordination among the INGOs/NGOs and the local CBOs/CSOs is also organizing regularly. And, the coordination among Hakha based CBOs/CSOs is also frequent. It sometimes based on the need and demand of the situation but normally it is organized monthly".

6 Discussion

This study sought to assess and measure the impact of Myanmar's Framework for Economic and Social Reforms (FESR) for the period of 2012 to 2015 by comparing the development progress of the country's poorest region, Chin state and the national level in Myanmar. The thesis further attempts to analyse the collaboration and coordination among various development agents in the selected study region.

To answer the first objective, despite there being evidence of significant improvements in the living standards and social welfare of the households, there is a lack of inclusive and equitable development among regions. At the Union level, improvements observed included smaller average household size, rapidly declining in dependency ratio, greater assets ownership, increased in adult literacy rate, higher employment rate, steadily reduction of poverty rate, higher rate of access to improved sanitation and national electricity grid and solar energy, and better access to health facilities. However, the Chin state failed to capture all these benefits. In spite of faster growth in the previously stated areas, there was also school attendance at the Union level showed slower growth. Additionally, food security situation in Chin state did not improve at a satisfactory rate for the period of 2013-2015. As such it can be determined that the implementation of FESR have been less robust in the Chin state, which indicates the failure of the Myanmar government to delivering inclusive and equitable development for all different regions in Myanmar. As long as there is the presence of economic inequalities, it will be very difficult to address social, religious and cultural disparities. Therefore, disparities in development is a great concern that needed to be mitigated urgently - not only interstate/regional unbalance but also rural-urban disparity. This result further explained the Myanmar government economic planning is urban-oriented with regards to basic infrastructures development, job creation, education and health services and thereby many portions of the fruits of development plans and projects are harvested by urban dwellers. Therefore, the government approach needs to change to attain growth with equity and social justice for all. The root causes of disparities from the result of this assessment can be classified as:

Political cause: The first civilian party ruling administration was State Peace and Development Council (USDP). The party was founded by military personnel who swapped their uniform for civilian attire. USDP mostly consisted of Burmese majority and military cronies. For Chins, a few margins of Ethnic Chin parties won in both houses in Union and regional parliament. As most of ethnic parties focus on their ethnic base, the ruling party did not give development priorities to the minority areas. This finding was supported by the study of Goldsmith (1987) on comparative politics. Moreover, the USDP was in the mid of emphasising on reaching ceasefire agreement with Chin National Front (CNF), therefore, the regional development was not a priority. As Esteban & Ray (2017) argued that conflicts and political instability in developing countries are ethnic in nature that hinders social-economic development for the people.

Administration causes: The Myanmar government's civil servants have historically been under the control of the military junta, which were labelled as one of the most corrupted and inefficient governing bodies (Transparency International 2012). Under the new ruling quasi-civilian government since 2010, most of administrators belonged to the group of elites with strong military ties. This hindered the responsiveness and effectiveness of the General Administration Department (GAD). According to Chinbridge Institute's survey report, more than 80 per cent of respondents believed that it is necessary to pay bribe to get a job in public sector (Lian 2018). Lack of integrity in public procurement precisely annual tender process for development projects. And, again the implementation of project progress is not diligently monitored, thus it is difficult to expect a tangible result. Which in term resulted in FESR not being able to attain its goals. As such, good governance remains a grave concern of international community.

Unequal distribution of natural resources: Unlike other states and regions, Chin state has no natural resources to attract investors and incentivize the government to carry out revenue raising projects. As the distribution of natural resources is not equal among different regions, it becomes another hindrance to the path of development in Chin state as similar study done by (Rajalakshmi 2013; Vicol, Pritchard & Htay 2018). However, Paltseva & Roine (2011) counterargued that natural resources are not the main pillar for development unless such wealth is used wisely. Otherwise, it will become

a source of conflict. Moreover, natural resources can tend to impede building of the institutions. As numerous studies have constantly mentioned that the lack of natural resources is the main constraints for development in Chin state. Likewise, as there are barely any industries and business activities where the State can generate revenues from tax, that will be spent for the public, natural resources become justifiable reason in the Chin context.

Social/Cultural factors: Chin state is predominantly Christian (the minority religion in Myanmar) and Chins are also one of smallest ethnic minorities in Myanmar. The Christian beliefs held by Chin prove detrimental to the use of contraceptives for family planning, this finding was supported by the study of (Fehring & Ohlendorf 2002). For instance, as shown in Figure 7, the household sizes and dependency ratio in Chin state remain higher than the Union average. Although Wooldridge (2004) disagrees that cultural diversity slows development, the costs of heterogenous society are one of the key factors cumbersome to faster social-economic development (The Economist 2004). However, the social/cultural factors gap can be narrowed once the public education is improved.

For the second objective, the research also points out the existence of minimal collaboration and coordination among various stakeholders and the Chin state government. This finding was supported by the study of Jelnek (2009) on non-governmental organisation relations with the government in Afghanistan which has similar political and development characteristic to Myanmar. In fact, close collaboration is widely recognised because it can produce remarkable achievements in development projects or policy implementation. However, the same author further argued that the concepts of impartiality and independence are essential in socially and politically complex environment. As this research found that there was some level of consultation with stakeholders to developing development strategies and priorities, specifically with the target groups. Additionally, the majority of non-governmental organisations, ethnic armed organisations and political parties used a participatory approach by collaborating with the regional government whereas media, community-based organisations and

academic/think-tank institutions have very limited collaboration and coordination with the Chin state Government. Lack of consultation among different stakeholders and actors involved in social-economic development can have weakened the implementation of the development policies (Kinyondo & Hestad 2016). Finally, the Chin state government tends to be selective in the development agents it chooses to collaborate and communicate with. As the Chin state Government is weak in collaboration with all concern stakeholders, there is a lack of open and transparent manner during procurement of public goods for the development purpose. Subsequently, meeting the public expectation and achieving the development plans and goals are difficult to attain. However, the civil society organisation are required to maintain institutional independence and political neutrality, that are their major strengths to support an an effort to bring change in the society.

Limitation: It is vital to mention the challenges and constraints encountered in this study that can decrease the validity of the findings. During data analysis, it was identified that there were some limitations in regard to the different measurement, indicators and survey sample used by different organisation that might have had affected the result. As the secondary data were drawn from several surveys such as IHLCA, LIFT, Census and MPLCS, it is difficult to attain absolute comparability of the data. The difference in poverty measurement and its magnitudes practised by the World Bank and the Myanmar government could also have impacted the results. Finally, the chosen period of study can be considered too premature to measure the full effect of the reforms.

Recommendation

Based on the extensive literature review and the result of this study, the following broad points are recommended.

1. Uneven regional development can result in numerous complications such as threats to national integration and social cohesion and unnecessary mass migration. Therefore, this problem needs to be tackled urgently. As Friedman & Alonso (1964) pointed out, the reduction in regional disparities would pave way for greater national integration, economic growth and political stability.
2. In order to narrow the gap of unbalanced development, the Union government should create development progress benchmarks for each State and Region. Based on this, the development policy formulation, economic planning, allocation of resources and execution of development plans can be implemented and measured.
3. It is understandable that the old administration cannot be relinquished immediately and be replaced with the new guard. However, during the reform process, the government can take focus to strengthen the capacity of responsible personnel in different departments involved in rural development.
4. To reduce corruption during development tender process, the government should invite independent observing bodies collaboration with CSOs to monitor the tender process to ensure that decisions are made in a transparent manner.
5. The expectation of the public is huge as they were hoping to have a better life after the end of military regime, especially, in the Chin State where agricultural production continues to decline annually due to monsoon rain and natural disasters. As a result, many households are relying on partial aids from INGOs/NGOs for their livelihoods, which could create dependency in the long run. Additionally, the government has limited capacity to have immediate delivery system for public goods. Thus, to manage public expectations, the central government or region government should build a platform to improve public education through accountable and transparent media.

6. As employment generation needs to be tackled urgently, the government can initiate a work for food programme through comprehensive consultation with all stakeholders including civil society organisations (CSOs) and donors agencies/ foreign governments.
7. The stakeholder analysis matrix indicates the weakness of the government in engaging all responsible parties to improve the lives of vulnerable poor communities. The Chin state government should continue to organise more frequent consultation meetings for all development actors and implement the recommendations from such meetings.
8. Further research is required by collecting the primary data and employing other methodology.

7 Conclusions

Overall, this study found that several signs of progress have been made in terms of the socioeconomic situation of the poor households to a moderate degree, a consequence of the implementation of FESR begin from 2012. The study further suggests that there has been weak collaboration and coordination between the development agents and the Chin state Government.

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9 Appendices

Appendix 1. Major INGOs and their activities in Myanmar.

Name	Since	Operations
Pact	1997	With 3100 staff, provides microfinance loans in Myanmar. Active in 2,636 villages across 30 townships, 5 regions
Médecins Sans Frontières,	1992	With 1300 staff, delivers emergency aid to people affected by armed conflict, epidemics and natural disasters in 4 regions in Myanmar.
Population Services International	1995	With 1280 staff, largely focus on addressing HIV and AIDs, malaria, pneumonia and diarrhoea, and improving reproductive and maternal health. Delivers quality health products and services nationwide through more than 8000 retail outlets, 1500 private doctors, 2000 community health workers, and 17 drop-in centres. Operates in nearly 311 townships.
World Vision	1991	With 950 staff, focus on education, health, economic development, humanitarian and emergency affairs. 129 projects across 11 regions.
Marie Stopes International	1998	With 600 staff, provides integrated sexual and reproductive health care and family planning service. Operate 44 health centres in 10 states and regions.
Save the Children	1995	With 500 staff, provides High-impact initiatives in education, health and economic opportunity for children collaboration with Ministry of Health. Operates in 5 states and regions
Action Contre La Faim	1994	With 450 staffs, works on nutrition, food security and livelihoods, and water, sanitation and hygiene. 3 states
Malteser International	2001	With 350 staff, short-term relief measures with sustainable approaches to relief, reconstruction and rehabilitation; health and nutrition. Operates in 2 states.
Care International	1995	With 255 staff, provides public health and hygiene, HIV prevention and care, food and livelihood security, disaster risk reduction, climate changes and gender. 10 states and regions
Solidarity International	2008	With 220 staff, focused on three areas: improving access to water, sanitation and hygiene; strengthening food security; and building resilience in household most susceptible to natural disasters. Operates in 4 states and regions
International Committee of Red Cross	1986	With 195 staff, works involve visiting detainees, improving prison conditions, organizing relief operations and reunite separated families. Also expanded its activities to include improving access to health care and clean water and restoring livelihood in communities affected by inter-communal violence.
International Rescue Committee	2008	With 175 staff, provide emergency relief, relocates refugees and rebuilds lives in the wake of disasters. Operates in 3 states.

Appendix 2. Stakeholder survey questions.

You are requested to take part in a quick survey. Please, kindly select each answer with your best knowledge. Greatly appreciated for your participation.

***Required**

Please state the name of your organisation.

Your answer

Please select the type of organisation you are working for.

Governmental organisation

Non-governmental organisation (INGO/NGO)

Religious organisation

Academics or think-tank institution

Community-based organisation (CBO) including youth, students and women association

Media and publication

Political party

Other:

The current position you are holding at this organisation.

Your answer

The number of years you have been with this organisation.

Less than one year

1 to 5 years

More than 5 years

The number of coordination meeting organised between government and your organisation or vice versa.

1 to 2 times

3 to 5 times

6 to 11 times

12 times and above

No coordination meeting at all

Other:

The size of coordination meeting.

0-25 per cent of invited organisations

26-50 per cent of invited organisations

51-75 per cent of invited organisations

76-100 of invited organisations

Other:

How did you develop your organisation strategies and development priorities?

Without external consultation

The priorities were shared with some stakeholders

The priorities were shared with all other stakeholders

Strategised collaboration with relevant stakeholders

With through consultation with major stakeholders

Other:

To what extent the Myanmar/Chin State government's official development priorities reflecting on your organisation development plan? *

Not at all

To some extent

Fully following the government's strategies

Other:

Is there any communication among the relevant stakeholders before you implement the project?

No communication

Communicated with identified relevant organisation

Full communication with all stakeholders

Other:

Is there any communication among the relevant stakeholders during the implementation of the project?

No communication

Communication with identified relevant organisation

Full communication with all stakeholders

Other:

Any comment that you think is important for civil society organisation, government and other stakeholders regarding coordination and collaboration among them.
