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Message from the Director

The Institute of East Asian Studies (IEAS) at Thammasat University, under the patronage of Her Royal Highness Princess, Mahachakri Sirindhorn, was founded in 1981 and has grown from a single-purpose Japanese studies center within Thammasat University, to a complex institution with various missions. Among those missions is building stronger networks in research, academic services, and cultural exchanges so as to serve the needs of communities at both the national and international levels. Based on the Institute’s continuing and increasing global challenges, the numbers of international visiting professor, student, and researcher exchanges are growing. As a result, today’s IEAS practices differ from those of former times, as they have changed to meet the diverse needs of the world. To ensure the highest quality of these changes, it is important that the Institute proceed in the direction of building an innovative collaboration model in terms of integrating academic services and culture through knowledge sharing and research. In this way, it will become a truly integrated, knowledge-based center as well as an internationally-recognized source of information for the East Asian region and ASEAN countries.

This collaboration model not only will better prepare the IEAS personnel for all of its international challenges, but will also help improve the standard of the IEAS quality assurance system, making it ready for national and international benchmarking in the near future. Therefore, the IEAS must play a vital role in building both local and global community partnerships in order to achieve the Institute’s vision congruent with the policy guidelines set forth; that is, to be an excellent and comprehensive research institute in the East Asian region. For this reason, the mission of the IEAS is as follows:

a) To be an excellent research center that initiates research projects in all aspects in relation to East Asian and ASEAN countries. Such a center will be beneficial for the development of these countries;

b) To integrate academic services and cultures through research; and

c) To create networks worldwide while sharing our core value: “The power of dreaming together: connect to the IEAS, connect to Asia, and connect to the world.”

It is hoped that the IEAS will be an integral part of this changing world of globalization, providing and sharing knowledge and values for all of those who are interested in international collaboration and in increasing the vital connection of all the countries of the world. It is also expected that “The International Journal of East Asian Studies will be a connection for helping promote and enhance all publications of those who are interested in sharing knowledge, idea, and experience in this era.”

Dr. Manyat Ruchiwit
Associate Professor & Director
The Institute of East Asian Studies Under the Patronage of Her Royal Highness, Princess Mahachakri Sirindhorn, Thammasat University, Rangsit Center
Pathumthani, 12121 Thailand
The International Journal of East Asian Studies is an international journal that provides a forum for exploring national and international issues related directly to ASEAN and East Asian countries through research and knowledge sharing. The journal invites original papers from multi-disciplinary perspectives in political, social, economic, geographical, legal, cultural, scientific and technological disciplines. The objective is to relate the Institute of East Asian Studies to national and international development wherever possible in order to disseminate knowledge about ASEAN and East Asian countries in all aspects, and to establish a network of scholars, practitioners, journalists, policymakers, and officeholders that will bring their perspectives to bear on knowledge sharing more broadly. All manuscripts, especially research articles, are edited by leading experts at Thammasat University and other renowned academic institutions both inside and outside the country.

As the journal is divided into three sections, Research Articles, Commentary, and Book Reviews, we welcome submissions in all three areas. The Research Articles cover a comprehensive range of topics related to ASEAN and East Asian countries. All research articles in this journal undergo rigorous peer review, based on initial editor screening and anonymous review by two referees. Commentary section includes analytical essays designed to bring fresh perspectives on ASEAN and East Asian issues. These pieces are closely edited by the editorial board but are not peer reviewed and address a broader audience. The Book Reviews include reviews of new books related to all aspects of ASEAN and East Asian issues from academic and highly-respected publishers. It should be noted that all of the views expressed in this journal are the view of the authors only.
Inside the Vol. 16, No. 1 of “The International Journal of East Asian Studies”

The Vol. 16, No. 1 of “The International Journal of East Asian Studies” is the first issue published in English. This issue was meant to be released few months ago. However, because the editorial office located at the Institute of the East Asian Studies within the Rangsit Campus of Thammasat University, Pathumthani, Thailand, was facing the flood disaster and the electric power was cut-off for almost two months, it was not possible for the managing editorial team to finish up the journal issue as expected originally. Late is better than never.

The content of this issue consist of two articles, five original research articles, and one book and two article reviews.

The first article on “Tugboat business in Japan and Asia and the present situation and issues of tugboat business” gives history of tugboats especially in Japan, classification of tugboats and their functions and also the present situations of the tugboat business in Asian countries. Another article entitled “OVOP network toward in East Asia and a case study in Thailand: the authority between the government and the general public” gives outlines of the recent Thailand model of “One Tambon One Product (OTOP)” which was adapted from the Japan One Village One Product (OVOP) originated in Oita Prefecture by the local Japanese government for sustainable development of local communities with self-reliance. Comment on this paper has been included in the article review of this issue.

Because the Thai government has set up a 5-year plan to make Thailand the medical hub of Asia, the first of the five original research articles evaluated the internal and external factors that may affect the clients’ perceptions of the Thai health service system especially when the countries in the Great Mekong Sub-regions have become part of the ASEAN Economic Community. Comments given to this research article has been also included in this issue. In connection, the third research article has elaborated factors that may affect the health status of the health care providers in Thailand while the second research article investigated the economic cooperation between Laos PDR and Thailand which are the two neighboring countries in the Greater Mekong Sub-region. The fourth paper reveals important findings that may overcome the problem in scarcity of the primary care physicians particularly in Thailand and the fifth research article gives accounts on the success of the Japan’s OVOP project and the failure of Thailand’s OTOP project and Indonesia’s Back to Village project.

A review of the eight articles under the title of “China’s Emergence as a Defense Technological Power” which Professor Tai Ming Cheung of the University of California edited in the Strategic Studies special issue, vol. 34, no. 3 June 2011 (Oxan, UK, Hobbs the Printer), has been included. The review suggests that the articles edited by Professor Tai Ming Cheung has given insights into the state of development of the Chinese defense economy and also advises that all Chinese watchers should read this Tai Ming Cheung’s special edited issue in comparison to the article by Robert S. Ross entitled “The Rise of Chinese Power and the Implications for the Regional Security Order”, Orbis, 2010; 54(4): 525-45.

We do hope that the contents of the first English issue of “The International Journal of East Asian Studies” would entertain, more or less, the readers of the journal. We would like also to invite your contribution in the following journal issues.

My regards
Wanpen Chaicumpa
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TUGBOAT BUSINESS IN JAPAN AND ASIA
~ The present situation and issues of tugboat business ~

Takayuki MORI

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Abstract

In a port, tugboats play a vital role for the safety of vessels. Tugboats, however, are rarely present in any study. Tugboat business in Japan is regulated only by the Harbor Act, but by the Marine Transportation Law. And tugboats services are mainly provided by local governments. This is because the tugboats are considered as one of port infrastructure. The situation is similar not only Japan but also a lot of other countries including Asian countries.

These situations have compelled tugboat business to hold back competition and to act in union. That implies tugboat business would run counter to current society that steadily promotes regulatory reform and competition in business. Tugboat business should be managed to supply public functions, though.

This paper has a final aim that clarifies the desirable tugboat business from the perspective of both competition and public. To clarify the issues and show the way, it should be of the tugboat business of Japan indicate the tugboat business in the future in Asian countries. Thus, the current situations and issues on the tugboat business are firstly identified. Some measurements for the activation of tugboat business are also examined.

I Introduction

Tugboats are used in harbors and ports to move ships in and out of berth and to move industrial barges around waterfront business complexes. They also play a role for the safety of ships and harbors. Tugboats and/or tugboat business are rarely present in previous studies or researches. This might be because that tugboat business has some particular properties which will be mentioned afterward in this paper. The limitation of gathering data in tugboats business would be one of the reasons.

Tugboats have a basic function of moving ships in and out of berth. Their functions have been diversified recently into ship docking, towing ships, securing the routes, salvaging ships, and precaution measures for loading/unloading activity.

In Japan there are a few legal systems over tugboat business. The Harbor Act of Japan describes that tugboats are one of port infrastructure (Section 5 Clause 13 of Article 2, Chapter 1). Although the officers and the crews on ships are regulated by the Seaman Law of Japan, the application to the tugboats crews differs by the institutions of tugboat; private companies and public sectors such as cities or port associations. Under the public sectors, tugboats crews are not applied by the Seaman Law. In addition, each port has its own control system of tugboat business. Thus, the nation wide legal systems over tugboat business are not quite functional.

Meanwhile tugboat business in Japan has enhanced its control system of surveillance, so-called a self-control system. That resulted in hindering the competition on the business and pulling back of the industry activation. Japan has been recently privatizing the tugboat business and changing the pilot system. That must have some effects on the tugboat business in Japan.

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Ships have been steadily growing in size. The number of port entry ship has also been increasing rapidly. The training crews could not support these conditions. In these situations, the safety of ships and ports must be one of the most important issues on maritime transport. Thus, the role of tugboats is even more expected than before.

This paper aims at identifying the current situation and the issues on the tugboat business in Japan from the perspectives of the balance of competition and cooperation. This helps other countries, who considering the privatization or competitiveness of tugboat business in their own country.

This paper is thus organized as follow:
- Section 2 reviews the history and function of tugboat.
- Section 3 examines the present situation of the tugboat business in Japan.
- Section 4 roughly examines the present situation of the tugboat business in Asian countries.
- Section 5 identifies the issues on the tugboat business in Japan.
- Section 6 gives the summary of this paper.

It is necessary to note that the word of tugboats is used in private sector and towing boats in public sector. This paper takes the terminology of tugboat representatively. This paper would be the first study on the tugboat or tugboat business in Japan from the economics view point as well as the administrative.

II History and Functions of Tugboats

1. Birth of Tugboats

In the mid of 18th century, a tugboat was born in Europe helping large-sized ships with docking. Before the birth of the “Clermont” of Fulfmont, a steam-engine equipped tugboat of the “Charlotte Danzas” was born in 1802. That means the first steam-engine ship is the tugboat. The “Charlotte Danzas” was made by S. Williams and navigated 19.5 miles pulling two sailing vessels to Glasgow against the wing for six hours.

2. History of Tugboats in Japan

In Japan the first tugboat was born late Edo era to early in the Meiji era. Japan had main ports open in those days. Small-sized ships towed large-sized ships in a harbor. The small ships happened to play a role as a tugboat and tugboat itself did not appeared yet. In the beginning of 20th century, each port started to have government-managed piers and the need of towing ships was increasing. Thus, government established tugboats as a part of port infrastructure. The government-managed tugboats towed ships into a berth after all.

The control system of tugboats in Japan differs by harbors because of the difference of the situation of pier construction. Kobe port, for instance, was supposed to have land facilities by 1914 through the first seven-year government project “construction plan of Kobe port”. The second period project carried the construction of four tugboats from 1915 to 1922. Kobe Customs managed the tugboats.

Meanwhile two private companies possessed and operated piers; Toshin Warehousing (present Mitsui warehouse Inc.) and Tokyo Warehousing (present Mitsubishi warehouse Inc.). The Toshin Warehousing had two tugboats and the Tokyo Warehousing had one tugboat. Mitsubishi Shipbuilding Company and Kawasaki Shipbuilding Company also have two tugboats each. They operated their tugboats in their own piers. Tugboats were operated in each pier basically. On the other hand, tugboat companies took the cooperation strategy during busy period. Toshin ordered a tugboat of “Nunobiki maru” in 1920 to Mitsui Co., Ltd. (present Tamano Shipbuilding Company of Mitsui Engineering & Shipbuilding Inc.). The “Nunobiki maru” had 119.08 gross tons with 805 horsepower and 11.5 knots the highest speed.

Yokohama port shows another situation of tugboat business. According to a book of Inland Sea Pilot Association 100 Years History of Japan, there was not a moorage facility and the access to berths is easy in the beginning of 20 century. There are the demands of sea pilots instead. The training of Japanese pilots was the urgent subject to the Meiji government. That brought the implement of “Pilot Certification Rule for Western Ship” in 1877.

Several pilots had their own tugboats and they had a designation right of a tugboat in Yokohama port. Pilots required the towing service to their tugboats for their advantages. The special relationship between tugboat companies and pilots was formed. Tugboats were generally two-layer structured but three-layer structured tugboats were shown in Yokohama port. A special room for a pilot was there. This relationship had been continued until September 2006. The Association of Japanese ship owners proposed “Realization of the efficiency and
The Ministry of Land, Infrastructure and Transport of Japan explains the general pilot system as below:

“A pilot boards a ship and takes a responsibility of navigation in specified areas (39 areas in Japan) for safety. In cases of special conditions such as bad weather or severe congestion, a pilot on board is compulsorily required (10 areas in Japan).”

Pilot system contributes to marine environment as well as the secure maintenance of harbors and ships. The operation standard of tugboats is settled by Pilot Association nationwide. Pilots boarded 160,000 ships cumulatively in 2002. They are required to board on a more than 300 gross tons ship by The Ministry of Land, Infrastructure and Transport of Japan.

However, the Ministry has tried to mitigate the pilot regulations to increase the efficiency of ships operation and support the upgraded ports. The regulation turned into the application to over 10,000 gross tons ships in Kobe from July 1996 and over 3,000 gross tons ships (excluding dangerous article loading ships) in Yokohama Kawasaki-ku from July 1997. It mitigated over 3,000 gross tons ships in Moji-ku from July 2002 also. As a result, the number in using tugboats in those ports decreased sharply.

3. Functions of Tugboats

Tugboats play a main role of helping large-sized ships go in and out of berths. The functions of tugboats have been diversified in accordance with the enlargement of ships. The increasing volume of dangerous cargo such like LNG and LPG would be one of the reasons.

Exclusive usages of tugboats are shown in recent; exclusive towing, exclusive guiding or guard and so on. The exclusive usages support the reduction of ship building costs. This is because exclusive tugboats are used separately in case of speed-required or power-required.

Followings are the functions of tugboats in recent days;

- Moving ships in and out of berth
- Guiding ships in case of dangerous cargo (LNG/LPG)
- Guarding ships during loading/unloading activity
- Docking
- Towing barges
- Salvaging and towing a wrecked ship
- Ocean towing
- Transporting
- Others

III Present Situation of The Tugboat Business in Japan

1. Tugboat Business in Japan

Tugboats have been considered as a part of port infrastructure by Harbor Act and provided by the local authorities in Japan. However, the operation of tugboats has been diversified by ports and areas. The first trial of privatization in tugboat business appeared in Kobe port in 1966. Yokkaichi, Nagoya and Osaka port are now trying to privatize of tugboat business.
In January 2005, Japan harbor tugboat association has 88 members in it; 9 local authorities or unions and 79 private companies. The local authorities own and operate 860 fleets of 87,658 gross tons. The private companies have 450 fleets of 84,805 gross tons. That means 5.7 fleets of 1,073 gross tons are operated by one company in average. Medium and small companies operate less than 3 fleets, which represent 38% (See figure 1). Large companies that have more than 300 million Japanese yen in their capital stock show only 6% in tugboat business. On the other hand, less than 30 million companies account 49% (See figure 2). That implies that almost half of tugboat companies are medium and small sized.

Data: Japan Harbor Tugboat Association

Figure 1  The number of operation fleets per tugboats company
Figure 2  Tugboat company categories by capital stock

Figure 3  The number of newly entering tugboat companies by year

Data: Japan Harbor Tugboat Association
The estimated tugboat business market in Japan would be 80 billion yen to 100 billion. The foundation year of the tugboat companies is mainly reported until 1980 after the Second World War (See figure 3).

The number of port entry ships in Japan has been almost increasing approximately. The number of tugboats, however, has been decreasing to 432 fleets in 2002 as the same fleets in 1980 after the largest number of 477 fleets in 1995 (See table 1). It might be inferred that there are the reasons in the performance improvement of tugboat companies and the introduction of bow thruster and/or side thruster to the containerships.

Table 1 The Number of port entry ships and tugboats

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Port entry ships</th>
<th>Tugboats</th>
<th>B/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>58,870</td>
<td>416</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>69,867</td>
<td>432</td>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>73,865</td>
<td>465</td>
<td>159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>78,190</td>
<td>449</td>
<td>174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>81,465</td>
<td>477</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>95,349</td>
<td>463</td>
<td>206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>97,010</td>
<td>452</td>
<td>215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>97,836</td>
<td>432</td>
<td>226</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Remark: overseas vessel over 3,000 G/Tons and Inland sea vessels over 6,000 G/Tons
Data: Japan Harbor Tugboat Association

2. Classifications of Japanese Tugboat Companies

Japanese tugboat companies are classified into four groups by main stockholder: shipbuilding companies, large-sized shipping companies, shippers or consignees, and local-based private companies.

Shipbuilding companies had their own tugboats for their advantages of docking and still some companies keep their tugboats, for instance Sasebo Heavy Industries Inc., Ehime shipbuilding Inc., etc.

Large-sized shipping companies such as Mitsui O.S.K. Lines (MOL), Nippon Yusen Kaisha (NYK) and Kawasaki Kisen (KL) have a lot of tugboats by themselves. Mitsui Warehousing Inc., for example, had owed and operated 6 tugboats in Kobe port until September 1989. The next month they established a subsidiary company, Sanso Marine Co., Ltd., to operate tugboat business. They sold the subsidiary to Mitsui O.S.K. Lines in 2005. Sanso Marine Co., Ltd. was renamed to Kobe Tugboat and reincarnated as a member of Mitsui O.S.K. Lines group in June 2006.

In the beginning of tugboat business in Japan, local-based private companies took the biggest share of the business. Some companies were established as a joint venture with a capital stock of major shipping companies. Almost other local tugboat companies were also merged by large-sized shipping companies. That made shipping companies, specifically three major shipping companies or their groups, have the initiatives in tugboat business (See table 2). Warehousing companies and stevedoring companies were the main players in tugboat business from Meiji through Taisho Era. Almost all of them, however, had disappeared and shipping companies have been performing their tugboat business.
3. Tugboats Operation in The Main Ports of Japan

The type of operating tugboats is classified into three categories;

- A type that local governments or authorities possess and operate tugboats
- A type that private companies own tugboats and local governments or authorities operate the tugboats
- A type that private companies have and operate their own tugboats

The type of operating tugboat differs in each port. In Nagoya port and Osaka port, private companies manage the tugboat business. There are also many cases that a tugboat association is organized by private companies to negotiate with local government. In Tsuruga port a single private tugboat company performs its business, which means the monopoly market. Several companies are competing against each other in the inland sea. There is even a particular case in Kawasaki/Yokohama port; a joint company that is cooperated by public sector and private sector. Moreover, some petroleum refining companies and iron/steel companies have the subsidiary company operating tugboats in their own berth (See table 3).

It could be noted that completely competitive market hardly exists in tugboat business in any ports. The local authorities and harbor managing institutions are participating in tugboat associations to exert influences on tugboat business. The competition over the tugboat business is also limited by the compliance among companies. There is the reason in the recognition that tugboat business is a part of port infrastructure and its functions must be provide by public sector such like local authorities.

It does not seem that monopoly market provides the qualified services. That is because market size is not large enough. If many companies compete with each other in a small market, they would not be guaranteed to get their profits. That would result in their failure to provide the qualified service. This posture put the tugboat market into monopoly market. In addition that has blocked a new entry even in the inland sea.
Table 3 Types of tugboat business operation in Japanese main ports

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Operation type</th>
<th>Ports (as examples)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>Controlled by local authorities or port association</td>
<td>Nagoya Port (Nagoya Port Control Association) Yokkaichi Port (Yokkaichi Port Control association) Osaka Port (Osaka harbor Bureau, Osaka Port Tug Center)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Kobe Port (Kobe Tugboat Association) Moji Port (Kannon Tugboat Association) Hakata Port (Hakata Tugboat Association)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Controlled by a tugboat association</td>
<td>Yokohama/Kawasaki Port (Kokohama Kawasaki Tugboat Co., Ltd)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Controlled by particular joint company</td>
<td>Inland Sea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Competition market (private companies)</td>
<td>Tsuruga Port</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Monopoly market (monopolistic company)</td>
<td>Shin Nihon Oil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Others (in private berth)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Remark: Local or port authorities may participate in the tugboat associations

IV Present Situations of Tugboat Business in Asian Countries

The characteristic of Japanese tugboat business would be identified by comparing with other Asian countries as shown in Table 4.

The tugboat business of Hong Kong is being managed by the private companies. It is considered as a complete free competition market. It might be inferred that there is a reason in the history of being managed by U.K. until 1997. Large container ships entering to the Hong Kong port are supported by the lots of strong horsepower tugboats.

In case of other Asian countries, however, governments or port authorities manage the tugboat. Singapore privatized the tugboat business in 1997 and four admitted private companies have been providing tugboat services. The biggest one is PSA Marine, an affiliate of PSA group, managing its own 57 tugboats.

Thailand has a pilot regulation, which blocking the use of tugboats. PAT (Port Authority of Thailand) possesses and manages all tugboats. Dubai has accomplished remarkable economic development in recent years. The tugboat business is under the control of the port authority in Dubai and the harbor master operates the tugboat service.

The pilot regulation of Thailand might lead the special relationship between the pilot and tugboat companies as like the experience of Japan. There are several ports that impose the tugboat charge, even when the number of the tugboats decreased due to the pilot regulation.

China has the type that a company can possess the tugboats. The harbor manager of China, however, possesses and manages them practically. All tugboats in Tianjin Port, for example, belong to Tianjin Port Tug-Boat & Lighter established in 1951 by the Tianjin port authority. As for the charge of the tugboat, there is a tariff of MOC (Ministry of Communication). Tianjin port has its original discount rate, though. Other Chinese ports show the similar situations with Tianjin.

As above, several Asian countries have their governments or harbor managers control the tugboat business. This paper is limited by the gathering data.
TUGBOAT BUSINESS IN JAPAN AND ASIA
~The present situation and issues of tugboat business~

Takayuki MORI

on Asian countries’ tugboat business. It is possible to say, however, that the variety in the type of the tugboat business is a common issue to many Asian countries as well as Japan.

Table 4 The situations of the tugboat business in Asian countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Ports</th>
<th>Situation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>The tugboat business was liberalized in 1997. It was carried out by only PSA before privatization. There are the 4 Tugboat companies which received the official authorization in Singapore. PSA Marine, the biggest company possesses and operates 57 tugboats. Each company has own tariff, but the same level.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Bangkok, Laem Chabang</td>
<td>All tugboats are managed and possess by PAT (Port Authority of Thailand). Using tugboat is obligated by the Pilot Regulation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UAE (Dubai)</td>
<td>Port Lashid, Jubel Ali</td>
<td>All the tugboats belong to port, having exception of tugboats for digging or towing barges. The tugboat is managed by harbor master. The necessary number of fleet is decided by the discussion among the ship captain, pilot and harbor master. It is obligated that the tugboat uses it for in Dubai port. Port authority decides the charge of tugboat in accordance with harbor charge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>Tugboats possess and operate by 3 private enterprises with 28 tugboats. The charge there is an unification tariff and be revised in accordance with the prices rise rate. Also, there is the guideline of Pilot Association the use of the tugboat it is not compulsion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>Tianjin</td>
<td>All the tugboats in Tianjin Port possess and operate by Tianjin Port Tug-boat &amp; Lighter Company, which shareholder is 100% by Tianjin Port authority. There is the tariff by MOC (Ministry of Communication), however, presenting the discount rate and lamp sum charge from the government charge. Tianjin Port Tug-boat &amp; Lighter Company were established in 1951. At present, 16 tugboats are being run/possess. Soon 4 fleets have the horsepower of 5,000BHP. Also, there are the construction plans of 2 tugboats of immediate future 6,000BHP.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>Pusan</td>
<td>Tugboat services are provided by seven private companies with 32 tugboats. Korea tugboat association coordinates the orders from shipping companies. The system is different by the port.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4 The situations of the tugboat business in Asian countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Tugboat Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Taiwan | Kaoshuing, Keelung | <Kaoshuing>
|        |          | ● South/Container berth; Port Authority possess and operates 12 tugboats
|        |          | ● North/Conventional berth; Privatized in 2007. Port authority does outsource tugboat service to two private companies. The companies have 9 tugboats and pay commission to the port authority.
|        |          | <Keelung>
|        |          | ● All tugboats are possessed and operated by Keelung port authority.
|        |          | *All tugboats service will be privatized gradually, which is decided by the government.
| Cambodia | Phnom Penh, Sihanoukville | Government owned agency KAMSAB (KAMPUCHEA SHIPPING AGENCY & BROKERS) as sole agent, and separately there are shipping agency. The order from the ship, firstly comes to shipping agent, then to KAMSAB, who arrange the order from the ship like tugboat, pilot and line handling etc., Tugboat operation are done by Harbor Master. All tugboats belong to the port. The charge is claimed by the tariff. Numbers of tugboat actually used judges the weather and the situation and the pilot decides it. However, even if it uses of how many, the charge is the same by the tariff. In the Phnom Penh port, there are two tugboats. The built year is old and near for 20 years. The horsepower is 350BHP and 55BHP respectively.
|        |          | The Phnom Penh port is a river port, and is enough that only a small ship enters the port. The Taiwanese ship company provide the container service to Ho Chi Minh and Phnom Penh with a small container ship. Numbers of container ships entering port are 35-40 per month.
|        |          | In the Sihanoukville port, there are five tugboats. The horsepower is 800BHP-1600BHP. There are 75-80 per month incoming ships including conventional and the container ship.
| Vietnam | Ho Chi Minh | Each port and the terminal have and operate own tugboat. Tugboat ownership is divided into the following four categories in Ho Chi Minh.　
|        |          | ❑ Government owned shipyard　
|        |          | ❑ Naval forces, New Port　
|        |          | ❑ Government (Ministry of Transport) owned shipping company at Saigon Port.　
|        |          | ❑ Private Terminal company, ex. VICT　
|        |          | VICT has for tugboat and serve the ships coming into VICT terminal. VICT is joint venture company by NOL, Mitsui & Co., and SWATCO. In other ports, tugboats belong exclusively to the port and each terminal.　
Table 4  The situations of the tugboat business in Asian countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>Manila</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tugboat Market in Manila is free competition and four tugboat companies provide tugboat services. However, substantially near the monopoly market is formed by two companies, (SALVTUG,, HARBOR STAR SHIPPING SERVICES, INC.). Recently, MARINEMAX SHIPPING Corp. is growing up rapidly. The possession tonnage of four companies is as follows. SALVTUG (32), HARBOR STAR SHIPPING SERVICES, INC. (20) MARINEMAX SHIPPING Corp. (14) NORTH HARBOR TUG Corp. (4).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data: Interviewing a person who is charged of tugboat business in each port.

V  Issues on Tugboat Business in Japan and Asia


Japanese tugboat business and industry have six properties as below:

- Each port has different structures of the control or operation system in the tugboat business.
- There are few legal restrictions that judge the tugboat business. Loading passenger is managed by Maritime Transport Law. The towing activities of the tugboats are not subjects of Maritime Transport Law, though.
- Self-control and mutual surveillance system are working in the tugboat industry and completely free competition is hardly appeared.
- Tugboat business or industry has rarely enhanced the innovation of its management technologies. Most shipping line companies have been trying to improve their accounting methods in each navigation, contract or client to clarify their profits and losses. Trucking companies in pursuit of their efficient management have been applying new systems such as GPS system and have been trying to reduce the cost by immediately maintaining their trucks. On the other hand, many tugboat companies still have their rule-of-thumb accounting methods. Some tugboat companies are using IT technologies to control and operate their tugboats. AIS (Automated Identification System) could give the reduction of the fuel cost by showing the shortest way to mother ships. However, the efficiency of tugboat business has been behind the shipping companies and the trucking companies.
- Tugboat industry has been keeping its business in monopoly market. The market is too small in size, because the market is separately considered by ports. A company thus manages to have initiatives in each port.
- In a comparatively large market, plural companies are working together in mutual cooperation, which is blocking the entry of a new competitor.

To sum up, Japanese tugboat industry has kept its business from the free competition market and the cooperation concept has been considered to tugboat companies in the reason of the secure supply of towing service.

2. Issues on Japanese Tugboat Business

Most of the issues on the tugboat business have the excuses from its properties mentioned above. Tugboat business has carried out its func-
tions in a restricted market without being managed by the nation wide legal system. The pilot system would be one of the issues. Each pilot association has different standards for using tugboats. It does not depend on the legal system.

In addition, free competition has not appeared in Japanese tugboat industry. A new entry is not reported since 1980s. Moreover many companies in tugboat business have a low degree of management.

Rising fuel cost and shortage of the crews are also pressing the tugboat companies as well as shipping companies. It is conceivable that these issues bring an opportunity of the rationalization and management improvement to the tugboat business.

3. Issues on Tugboat Business in Asia

As for the tugboat business, service has been provided as public service with the hand of the country and the municipality in not only Japan but also a lot of countries. As a result, it is a general situation in many cases that it forms a monopoly market. Then, the management of tugboat business is not efficient in the most of market. It is expected that industry in ASEAN region the hard competition among the enterprises intensify by the birth of ASEAN integration market by 2015. The tugboat business is not an exception. It is forecast that the tugboat is insufficient from the increase of the ship that departs from the development of industry and the increase of the trade. Therefore, it is thought that efficient management of the tugboat business will become an issue in the ASEAN regional nations related to harbors in the near future. However, the tugboat business has not been performed to management and the research in respect of the business up to now. This study of tugboat business in Japan will be an indicator when necessary to review tugboat business in ASEAN in near future.

VI Summary

Japan has performed transport policies from the perspective of free competition market and the policies have regulated transport industry for the safety and environment matters.

The tugboat industry has been kept from the free competition for a long time and now started to move into the free competition with the privatization of the companies. The privatizations shown in Nagoya and Osaka port, however, seem to have still difficulty in finding right direction conditioned to the balance of sufficient services and efficient operations.

The tugboat industry will face a tough period of competition not ever experienced. Some subsidiary companies of major shipping companies will be expected to play as an organization in this industry. The most important thing in the tugboat industry is to show the transparency in the competition and the cooperation.

This paper has clarified the present situations and the issues on Japanese tugboat business and industry in order to help them with their revitalization. The revitalization ways will be examined in other papers. The study on tugboat business and industry is sure to be useful guidance to the authorities and tugboat companies.

Forecasting 2015 of market unification in ASEAN, in all industries including tugboat will be in hard competition. This will show and guide to survive from the hard competition among the surrounding countries.
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OVOP Network toward in East Asia and a Case study in Thailand: The authority between the government and the general public.

Watunyu Jaiborisudhi*

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Abstract

The OVOP concept is a unique approach which has been very successful in the Japanese prefecture of Oita and has attracted and continues to attract wide international appeal, particularly in developing countries such as Thailand. In case of the Thai Model: One Tambon One Product has one main apparent weakness which is the overruling government’s authority of general public. Such the characteristic was caused by the changes in election campaign led by the political party that initiated the OTOP project. In other words, it can be seen that the government’s ultimate goal is to win an election, not local communities’ true sustainable development. Furthermore, it deems to be the government’s nature to consistently have their policies enforced on the general public. This has resulted in the lack of self-reliance of local communities.

Background of the One Tambon One Product (OTOP) project of Thailand

Thailand had already lost a magnificent amount of more than 30,000 million US dollars of foreign reserves to the Hedge Fund in 1997, along came the economic crisis which had inevitably cost the nation its financial economic stability to the First World countries. Consequently, Thailand had to rely on the loans granted from the International Monetary Fund or IMF to restore back and sustain the nation’s financial economic stability. Such the decision came at no cost because the government at the time had to amend 11 national Acts in order to let foreign investments flow into the nation freely. This event had reassured the fact that Thailand at the time had to heavily rely on financial assistance from the United States of America (USA) and the First World countries who had the highest record of the increases in the circulation of currencies in its history. Many people believed that by investing their money, through the hedge funds and international organizations as what was done in Thailand and other less advantage countries by both the USA and First World countries was a new ingenious form of colonization.

After such the aforementioned crisis Thailand came to realize that having to account the nation’s stability and wealth on foreign investment and exchange markets could not be sustainable and rational. Consequently, the ability of Thailand to disengage from such the dependency would have to adhere to the principles of sufficiency as well as surveying and developing natural resources located in each region throughout the nation. In doing so, it would lead to sustainable wealth creation and development fundamentally built from each region’s true strengths and economic advantages. This ideology then was into action by the Thai Rak Thai party-led government under Prime Minister Taksin Shinawatra, of which his party had successfully won the national election and could solely form a government without needing to have other coalition parties. Thereby, this had shifted the power pole in Thai political system which led to PM Taksin’s new campaign called “New Thought, New Action” (Kid Mai Tam Mai in Thai). This campaign procreated a number of significantly famous populism projects designed to manifest substantial results and one of the most outstanding populism projects during PM Taksin which has still been in practice is the One Tambon One Product...
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(OTOP) project. It was firstly initiated in 2001 with the idea originally came from Japan’s One Village One Product project that was developed based on the goal of having local communities sustainably developed so that they could be self-reliant. There are 5 main objectives under the OTOP project as follows:

1) to create employment and increase income as a whole for each community participated in the project
2) to strengthen local knowledge
3) to promote human resource development
4) to reinforce strength and self-reliance in each community participated in the project
5) to promote creativity and initiative among each community participated in the project

It could be said that the OTOP project of Thailand was mainly set off by the government in terms of both related policies and procedures. Moreover, as already mentioned, the project was initiated based on the populism ideology embedded in the Thai Rak Thai party. It could be seen that the party’s regional and community development plan was driven by its goal to win the next national election. Thereby, the OTOP project is characterized as a top-down system, differentiating it from the Japanese OVOP that had the bottom-up system characteristic. This is because Thailand’s OTOP project was mainly initiated by the government, whereas; Japan’s OVOP project was firstly set off and proceeded within the communities themselves. This had led to many questions asked by development study experts of whether or not the OTOP project could sustainably and thoroughly develop communities as promised and of its permanency. Theoretically, in order to have successful sustainable development for communities, it should be initiated and proceeded from the communities themselves since they would be the best to know their comparative advantages in terms of resources and thereby their strengths, rather than by the government.

Problems arisen in the OTOP project regarding the authority between the government and the general public.

The main problem of the OTOP project is the control and management by the government which has more authority than the general public, a characteristic of which is common in Thai society. The government authority is demonstrated through the success attempt to push forward the OTOP project to be monitored and managed by the OTOP Directive Committee under the Prime Minister’s Office, consisting of 16 related government agencies and 5 sub-committees as followings:

1) The Administration Sub-committee chaired by the Finance Minister and has the responsibilities to assure that the works are proceeded in accordance to the policies and strategies approved by the Committee, to coordinate related plans and consider budgets of related agencies and publicize the project’s relevant information.
2) The Production Promotion Sub-committee chaired by the Agriculture and Cooperatives Minister and has the responsibilities to promote and support the development of products and raw materials’ qualities.
3) The Marketing Promotion Sub-committee chaired by the Commerce Minister and has the responsibilities to set out marketing and market promotions policies for both domestic and overseas markets as well as to promote the protection of intellectual property.
4) The Products Quality and Development Sub-committee chaired by the Industry Minister and the responsibility to set out the products quality development to meet the international standards.
5) The OTOP Sub-committee chaired by the Permanent Secretary of Ministry of Interior and has the responsibilities to select the award-winning and outstanding OTOP products of each community, strengthen local communities as well as coordinate and follow related tasks operation at the local level.

The aforementioned sub-committees demonstrate the public sector’s mechanism to push forward the project to be a part of each local community in each region nationwide. This reflects the high importance given to such the project by the government which has strongly hoped to turn the idea into real actions. Having the Committee to be set up under the direct supervision of the central government, namely the Prime Minister’s Office,

is entirely different from the OVOP project of Oita province of Japan. The OVOP project was mainly driven by the local people residing in the communities only with little help from the government of which the main role is to support and promote the project. Therefore, it can be stated that Thailand’s OTOP project does was not truly initiated by the wisdom of local communities as that of the OVOP project.

Consequently, because the project was initiated and directed by the central government from the start, this has made the local communities lack of the realization that the project belongs to everyone. Most local people feel like they are not part of the project since they do not have any involvement with the project’s activities including the project initiatives, discussions and debates of the problems of their own communities. Therefore, the people living in these local communities do not share the responsibility to operate the project together collaboratively. By having the project controlled by the government, it creates the wrong incentives of each community. By and large, they all want to respond to the government’s policy and show the project’s results as promptly as they can, some communities might copy products from other communities nearby. Hence, it is fair to say that a large number of OTOP products were not created using the wisdom of each local community. This is incoherent with the local community development principles that are based on the encouragement to local people to be self-reliant and are able to think for themselves.

Additionally, the Top-down approach to OTOP project has also led to the OTOP products quality control which can be witnessed by the OTOP Directive Committee’s OTOP Product Champion (OPC) initiative instigated to develop and control both quality and standard of exported OTOP products. The products at provincial, regional and national levels are divided into 6 categories including (1) food, (2) drinks and beverages, (3) clothing and apparel, (4) appliances and decorative ornaments (5) artificial art and souvenirs, and (6) non-food and herbal medicine. Then, these products are selected and awarded points based on their quality. By and large, 1 star award refers to low quality products, 2 stars award refers to low quality products that have potential to be further developed, 3 stars award refers to medium quality that can be developed for exports, 4 stars award refers to high quality products but still need some improvement and 5 stars award refer to high quality products ready for exports.

There were 16,000 products that were registered for OPC project and only 6,000 of them passed and were selected in 2003. The number of products applying for the OPC project increased to 37,754 products in 2004, and 539; 2,177 and 4,734 products were selected as 5, 4 and 3 star products respectively. If it is considered on the positive side, quality control implicitly forces OTOP products into raise their quality standards. However, such the control also has a downside. Some products that did not pass the control and were not selected as OPC products were perceived as unacceptable. As a result, many OTOP products of many communities had to cease their production since the government has not imposed a clear measure in dealing with products quality improvement. Moreover, some high quality OTOP products were not originally created by local communities but by some investors who would like to take advantage of both the OTOP and OPC projects in term of economic return. Therefore, this should raise some awareness of the project’s operators to revise the project’s original ideology in order to promptly solve the mentioned problems.

Both Thai OTOP and Japanese OVOP projects were initiated mainly based on 3 principles namely (1) Local Yet Global (2) Self-reliance and Creativity and (3) Human Resource Development. The following are an analysis of whether or not the OTOP project of Thailand has been operated incoherent with such the principles as that of the OVOP project of Japan.

1) Local yet global

Almost OTOP projects are still lacking in a cosmopolitan characteristic to a great extent. There are a number of reasons stopping OTOP products from going global. Firstly, the problem of OTOP products’ identity and local uniqueness that cannot yet be recognized worldwide due to the limitation culture adopted among the products’ producers. Therefore, many products are very similar to others. Secondly, the quality of products, a problem of which is caused by the mass production characteristics of most OTOP products which production details are not as emphasized as that of hand made products.

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2) *Self-reliance and creativity*

Since the OTOP project was initiated by the government, which is different from the OVOP project of Japan that was originally initiated by local communities, almost OTOP projects are produced in response to the government’s demands. Consequently, this has created the problem of imitation culture of OTOP products, the main problem preventing local communities to think and design their creatively. On the whole, it can be said that the government’s authority that overrules general public’s authority has made the latter group become the whole system’s bearers. This, hence, implicitly forces the general public to consistently rely on the government’s policy and directions which has prevented them from being able to be self-reliant.

3) *Human resource development*

Japan’s OVOP project has knowledge exchange programs between the project’s participants as well as site visits in order to learn local wisdom from other regions. On the other hand, Thailand’s OTOP project has the government’s authority trying to push the participated local communities to produce as a response to the markets’ demands. Therefore, it can be said that the OTOP project aims to create products more than developing human resources.

**Conclusions**

In summary, the adaptation of Japanese OVOP ideology to Thailand has one main apparent weakness which is the overruling government’s authority of general public. Such the characteristic was caused by the changes in election campaign led by the political party that initiated the OTOP project.

In other words, it can be seen that the government’s ultimate goal is to win an election, not local communities’ true sustainable development. Furthermore, it deems to be the government’s nature to consistently have their policies enforced on the general public. This has resulted in the lack of self-reliance of local communities. Consequently, in order to apply the ideology of Japan’s OVOP project effectively, the OTOP project needs to aim at human resource development, since this factor is a foundation of sustainable local community development from local wisdom and knowledge. Having the government’s authority ordering local communities to produce their products in order to meet its demands has resulted in the production imitation culture, poor quality products and inability to have these products improved to meet international standards.

In conclusion, it can be said that the OTOP project emphasizes on “products creation” rather than “human resource development”. By and large, it seems that the government tries to have the project succeeded rather than local communities sustainable developed under the centralized government’s control and directing. Therefore, Thailand’s OTOP project is different from Japan’s OVOP project in which the OTOP project is run under a top-down management system while the OVOP project is run under bottom-up system. The OTOP project reflects the strength of the Thai government and the weakness of the general public. Consequently, in order for Thailand to move from the dependency stage to the sufficiency stage, it has to start off from building strong local communities that can truely think for themselves and are self-reliant.


The Relationships between the Internal and External Determinants with Clients’ Perceptions of the Health Service System in Thailand*

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Abstract

Background: In assessment of the health service systems, it is crucial to evaluate all aspects including the assessment of external and internal determinants affecting the health service systems. Most importantly for Thailand, there must be an evaluation of the external determinants in context of the Greater Mekong Sub-region (GMS) countries particularly as it becomes part of the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC).

Objective: The objectives of this study are to examine the relationships between the internal and external determinants according to clients’ perceptions of the health service system, as well as to find out the factors which best predict the health service system.

Results: The prediction equations demonstrated that out of the hypothesized predicting variables, clients’ perceptions of the internal determinant and medical information and technology predicted a significant variance in the health service system of Thailand. Those predicted determinants were synergetic effective predicted group that could predict the health service system 19.6 percent ($R^2 = 0.196$) statistically significant at $p < .001$.

Discussion and Conclusions: In Thailand, medical information and technology contributes to health services in the most efficient and effective ways. Medical information and technology is a special and useful application to help strengthen the functional process of the hospital and improve health service system in the country. It becomes a strategic tool of the health service industry to enhance the national and international competitiveness that leads to change the context of health service system in the country.

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Introduction
The health service system in Thailand is one of the major service industries which promotes and develops capacity in competition (Pocock & Phua, 2011). The government of Thailand has set up a 5-year policy and strategy to make Thailand the Medical Hub of Asia. To do this, the government will focus on three aspects: 1) creating an excellence center in medical services, 2) supporting health promotion, and 3) developing health products. The strategies focus on 1) marketing and public relations including survey and needs assessment of client satisfaction in other countries, especially in the Mekong region; 2) strategic development, and health service system development, and 3) health product development covering inspection and certification of its quality (WHO, 2009). Regarding the health service system, it is necessary to improve the entire system including system input, such as health providers, information and medical technology, including budget, and finance; system process, such as out-patient and in-patient services, regarding utilization rate of out-patient service, average length of stay, bed occupancy rate; and system output, outcome, and impact, described as the following: clients’ satisfactions, cost, quality, and access to care (Shi & Singh, 1998). Moreover, it is necessary that the driving force of the health service industry in Thailand should be consistent within the context of the changing environment in the future. To accomplish this, Thailand has developed a ten-year plan (from 2012-2021) of science, technology, and innovation to achieve the ultimate goal to build an immunized quality society focused on promoting healthy people.

In assessment of the health service systems, it is crucial to evaluate all aspects including the assessment of external and internal determinants affecting the health service systems. Most importantly for Thailand, there must be an evaluation of the external determinants in context of the Greater Mekong Sub-region (GMS) countries particularly as it becomes part of the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC). This changing context may result in economic growth, trade and investment in the region, cooperation in information, technology and logistics, and creation of a new environment with utilizing sufficiently natural resources.

It can be said that in previous studies of the relationships and predicted factors in the health service systems are still limited, especially in the aspect of the preparedness to become AEC. This study will help with understanding the determinants affecting the health service systems. The determinants include Thai society and cultural values, trade and investment, medical information and technology, and the Thai living and working environment. The findings of this study may provide the insight of the future trend in health service system management of Thailand. They may be the important information concerning health policy planning and appropriate strategic setting for sustainable development of Thailand in future.

Purpose:
The purposes of this study are to examine the relationships between the internal and external determinants according to clients’ perceptions of the health service system, as well as to find out the factors which best predict the health service systems. The external determinant is the clients’ perceptions of Thai trade and investment, Thai society and cultural values, Medical information and technology, and the Thai living and working environment. The internal determinant is the clients’ perception of strengths and weaknesses of the hospital system.

Research Questions:
1. What are the correlations between the internal determinants and clients’ perceptions of the health service system?
2. What are the correlations between the external determinants and clients’ perception of the health service system?
3. Which of the internal and external determinants best predict the health service system according to clients’ perception?

Materials and Methods
This study investigates one aspect of a larger study to investigate the health systems in the Greater Mekong Sub-region countries, that is, Thailand, Laos, Myanmar, Vietnam, and Cambodia. Perceptions of clients are explored here as they are key indicators in understanding the overall acceptance and use of the health service system.

Sample:
The study recruited participants from three major regions of Thailand including Pathumthani Province in the central region of Thailand, Ang Thong province in the lower North, and Ubon Ratchathani province as the representative of the Northeast Four hundred and two subjects responded to the question-
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Power analysis revealed .80 with an effect size of 0.14 at the p < .05 level (Cohen, 1998; Kraemer & Thieman, 1987).

Participants were selected using multi-stage random sampling. The sampling process started from stratified random sampling with selecting study area including hospitals where was topography similar to the GMS countries. Quota sampling was applied according to the ratio of the number of hospital beds with the proportion of people in the study area. The participants were four hundreds and two; 310 participants from the hospitals, and 90 participants from the communities. And then, simple random sampling was used in hospital and the communities nearby. Participants were given a socio-demographic questionnaire as well as questionnaires concerning their perceptions of their health service system, trade and investment, Thai society and cultural values, medical information and technology, Thai working and living environment, and strengths and weaknesses of the hospital system.

Dependent Variables:
The dependent variable questions were based on the concept of health service system by Donabedian model (Donabedian, 1973; Shi & Singh, 2009).

Independent Variables

External determinants:
The independent variable questions are based on the theoretical framework of Ginter, Swayne, and Duncan (2009) concerning conducting an environmental analysis of healthcare organizations and were used as the independent variables in the analysis. The external environment relates to determinants which impact the hospital and healthcare system and organizations from the outside and at a more general level (Ginter, Swayne, & Duncan, 2009). In Thailand, these factors include Thai governmental policies on trade and investment, the general culture and belief system of Thailand, access and availability to medical information and technology, and the quality of the workplace and living environments.

1. Trade and investment. For these questions, participants were asked about their perception of Thai trade and investment policies, and most specifically on the attitudes of Thailand entering into the new ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) in 2015.

2. Thai beliefs and cultural values.

3. Medical information and technology. Access to medical information and technology is critical for diagnosis and treatment as well as prevention of diseases. Thailand, being a transitional country is faced with populations which are lacking internet access and rural hospitals which are limited in medical technology while more urban and wealthier populations have access to some of the best medical technology in the world.

4. Living and working and environment. As Thailand advances economically, there becomes greater need for regulation to ensure a healthy living and work environment. The government has recently made several initiatives to curb pollution and improve the overall environmental health of Thailand (WHO, 2006).

Internal Determinant:
The evaluation of internal determinant often includes analyses of functional areas affecting the health system and healthcare organizations. For this study, the internal determinant included an evaluation of the hospital system. Participants were asked about the strengths and weaknesses of the functional process of the hospital.

Validity and Reliability of Instruments:
Content validity was proved by five experts, and agreement of the experts was 80%. Item analysis was conducted by means of contrast group analysis and revealed a t-value greater than or equal to 2.00 (LoBiondo-Wood & Haber, 2003). Reliability revealed a Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of .89, .92, and .94 for the three questionnaires, that is—clients’ perceptions of health service system, the external and internal determinants affecting the health service system. The procedures were approved by the Thammasat University Ethics Committee.
Results

Descriptive analyses for socio-demographic data:

Descriptive statistics revealed the sample was 58.7% male and 41.3% female and the mean age was 43.3 years. 34.3% had some primary school education and 56% were married. The average household income was U.S. $585.00 per month. 40.7% opted for the government universal health coverage (Golden Card). Sixty nine percent reported that they had easy access to health services from the hospital and 93.7% preferred to use conventional medicine. Cars were used by 46.7% of the participants and motorbikes were used by 39.6% of the participants to get to the hospital. Participants reported an average of 16.23 minutes to travel to the hospital. Approximately ninety three percent lived less than 50 kilometers from the hospital.

Multivariate analyses:

Table 1 presents the correlation findings and addresses research questions one and two:

1. What are the correlations between the internal determinants and the clients’ perception of the health service system?
2. What are the correlations between the external determinants and the clients’ perception of the health service system?

Table 1 The relationship between the external determinant which mean society & cultural value, trade and investment, medical information and technology, and the living and working environment, including the internal determinant and the health service system (n = 402)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Determinants</th>
<th>Society &amp; cultural value</th>
<th>Trade and investment</th>
<th>Medical information and technology</th>
<th>Living &amp; working environment</th>
<th>Internal determinant</th>
<th>Health service system</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>External Determinant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Society &amp; cultural value</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade and investment</td>
<td>.271**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical information and technology</td>
<td>.252**</td>
<td>.382**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living &amp; working environment</td>
<td>.360**</td>
<td>.160**</td>
<td>.104*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal Determinant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health service system</td>
<td>.490**</td>
<td>.442**</td>
<td>.322**</td>
<td>.424**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results show that two determinants were significantly correlated with the clients’ perception of health service system. These include perceptions concerning the internal determinant as well as the external determinants, that is–society and cultural values, trade and investment, medical information and technology, and living and working environment. Table 2 presents the stepwise regression results regarding research question number three:

- Which of the internal and external determinants best predict the health service system according to clients’ perception?
The Relationships between the Internal and External Determinants with Clients’ Perceptions of the Health Service System in Thailand

Manyat Ruchiwit, Lisa Pawloski, Kampol Ruchiwit, Chayapat Wareenil

Table 2  Multiple Correlation, Predicted Coefficient, Regression Coefficient of Predictor, F-test and t-test of the Predictor, Standard Error of Prediction, and Constant of Predicted Equation as Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis in Health Service System Prediction from the Variables (n = 402)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predicted group</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>R² Change</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internal determinant</td>
<td>.396</td>
<td>.157</td>
<td>.157</td>
<td>74.256***</td>
<td>.450</td>
<td>.328</td>
<td>6.926***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External determinant</td>
<td>.442</td>
<td>.196</td>
<td>.039</td>
<td>48.542***</td>
<td>.729</td>
<td>.209</td>
<td>4.406***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical information &amp;technology</td>
<td>S.E.est = 9.319</td>
<td>a = 27.023</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Predicted Equation:

Equation A  
Y (Health Service System) = 27.023 + .450 Internal Determinant +.729 Medical Information & technology

Equation B  
Z (Health Service System) = 328 Internal Determinant + .209 Medical Information & technology

***p < .001

For the study of multiple correlations between the external determinants including society and cultural values, trade and investment, medical information and technology, and the living and working environment, and the internal determinant, with the health system service, it was found that predicted group of health service system was as follows: The internal determinant can predict the health service system at 15.7% (R² change = 0.157, β = 0.328) and the external determinant of medical information and technology can predict the health service system at 19.6% (R² change = 0.039, β = 0.209). Those predicted determinants were synergetic effective predicted group that could predict the health service system about 19.6% (R² = 0.196) statistically significant at .001 (F = 48.542*** p<.001).

To predict the health service system in terms of internal and external determinants, the linear regression equations and the standardized linear regression equations as shown in Equation A and B in Table 2.

Discussion

The results reveal that the best predictors of the health service system concern clients’ perceptions about the internal determinant and medical information and technology. In Thailand, medical information and technology contribute to health services in the most efficient and effective ways. Medical information and technology is a special and useful application to increase the capacity of health services and improve the health service system in the country. Examples include medical information system management, health personnel administration, and policy making of organizations in the health service industry. Other examples include quality and standards of medical equipments, data mining and communication in hospital units and other health services, process management and information systems increase in patient safety such as for preventing medication errors, and supporting emergency medicine. It can be said that medical information and technology help strengthen the functional process of the hospital and improve health service system to meet both national and international quality and standards (Arunanondchai, & Fink, 2006). In other words, it becomes a strategic tool of the health service industry to enhance the national and international competitiveness that leads to change the context of health service system in the country. The progress of science and medical technology combined with the national plan from the Thai government to be medical hub of Asia thus drive the increased competition in the health service systems. Therefore, the internal determinant and medical information and technology are the best factors to predict the health service systems of Thailand.
Limitations
1. There are various determinants affecting the health service system in Thailand, especially in terms of external environment. It is difficult to measure all external factors. Therefore, this study only explores the factors influence the health service system when becoming AEC in 2015.
2. More large-scaled research needs to be conducted in different settings especially in the GMS countries because previous studies (Korkietpitak & Jaiborisudhi, 2009; Tepchatree, 2003) have shown that there is a great disparity in the size and level of economic development among those countries, and this may play an important role in affecting the health service system in each country and among those in the year 2015.

References
Factors affecting trade and investment relations between Thailand and the LAO People’s Democratic Republic*

Chanin Meephokee1,**, Anuwat Cholpaisal2, Tananat Roopsom3, Dussaneeya Intanuphat4

1 Associate Professor, Faculty of Economics, Thammasat University
2 Lecturer, Faculty of Economics, Dhurakij Pundit University
3 Senior Research Officer, Institute of East Asian Studies, Thammasat University
4 researcher

Abstract

Background: Compare to 2009, the trade value between Thailand and the Laos PDR in 2010 has been increased by 27.16 per cent. So far, Thailand has been the most important trade partner for the Laos PDR with the share of 54.5 per cent, followed by China and Vietnam. The border trade was the main channel of trade with the 95.25 per cent of total trade value between these two countries. For the Laos PDR, the shared of private investment to GDP was greater than this share of public sector, 20 per cent to 9 per cent. Most of the FDI value from 2001-2009 was the projects on electricity generation, accounted for 33.97 per cent of total FDI. The project on mining and services were the second and third most of important in terms of FDI, with the share of 25.86 and 11.47 per cent.

Objectives: To study the cooperation framework and the trade and investment cooperation between Thailand and the LAO People’s Democratic Republic. To study the trend of trade and investment pattern between Thailand and the LAO People’s Democratic Republic cooperation, and to do the policy suggestion for the sustainable development in Thailand and the LAO People’s Democratic Republic’s cooperation.

Result: Currently, Thailand was facing challenging issues concerning trade and investment in Laos market which were the higher competition from other countries in Laos market, lacks of clear-cut Thai trade policies, different custom posts applying different custom procedures which were substandard internationally, and inadequate in number of custom posts and custom facilities at the posts.

Discussion and Conclusion: For the key positive factors affecting trade and investment relations were the rich in the Laos natural resources and the positive Laos investment promotion policies.

Key words: Trading and Investment

Introduction

1. Statement of the Problem

Greater Mekong Sub-region is one of the important economic areas in Asia. This area has showed its potential for economic development because of its abundant natural resources. Territories of countries in the Greater Mekong Sub-region that are connected to each other through the Mekong River, are Thailand, the Laos PDR, Cambodia, Vietnam, Myanmar, and Southern China (Yunnan province). Recently, this region has played an important role economically and culturally in the world, influenced by globalization and integration.

The development in the Greater Mekong Sub-region cannot be done by any individual country,

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so cooperation among these countries is very necessary, such as cooperation in social and economic development, and cooperation in environmental development. Currently, there are the guidelines for these kinds of cooperation such as the principle of good neighbors—involved community in the Greater Mekong Sub-region for sharing and exchanging the natural resources in the most efficient way, the principle on the unity, harmony, and prosperity in this sub-region, including efforts to reduce poverty, and the guideline on promoting sustainable development by encouraging interaction and competition between them.

2. Research Objectives

The objective of this research on Greater Mekong Sub-region Trade and Investment Cooperation was to study the framework of cooperation and cooperative development in trade and investment of the Greater Mekong Sub-region, and also to study the results of the development on cooperation and trends of the development in the trade and investment under the cooperation between the countries in the Greater Mekong Region. From the result of this study, it proposed policy recommendations which led to the sustainable development of the Greater Mekong Sub-region in the future.

This article focused on the current situation of trade and investment between Thailand and Laos PDR, and on factors affecting trade and investment. The article also proposed the policy recommendation for future trade and investment development between these two countries.

3. Scope of the Study

This article was aimed to investigate the economic cooperation between two countries in the Greater Mekong Sub-region which were the Laos PDR and Thailand. The study was on the cooperative development in trade and investment between them. In addition, it show the result generated from this development process and its trends in the development of the trade and investment under the cooperation between these two countries in the Greater Mekong Sub-region.

Research methods of this article were based on the survey primary data, including field survey and in-depth interviews. The secondary data was collected from literature review, government agencies database, and internet.

4. Theory, Hypothesis and Conceptual Framework

World System Theory of Immanuel Wallerstein from ‘The Modern World-System: Mercantilism and the Consolidation of the European World Economy’ is presented through the development under the stream of global capitalism system, which demonstrates that benefits to all parties and sharing with equality do not exist. Center countries will pull the wealth from periphery or third world countries. In addition, Dependency Theory of Cadoso and Faleto presents the development of capitalism under the guidance of third world countries, and reflects on the development of underdeveloped or economic dependence of the third world countries had to rely on first world countries and the world market consisted of unequal relationship in the trade and investment. As the result of the circumstances, it will be endless dependence, and then most of benefits are belonged to the first world countries.

The article stated that comparative advantage, which was the ability in producing products at lower cost than others, could make one country had advantage in production of some products over others. This created international trade which aimed to exchanges comparative advantage products and services among countries. It can be explained how the trade between Thailand and the Laos PDR occurred with their differences of the comparative advantage in different products and services.

The factors affecting trade and investment relations between Thailand and the LAOS People’s Democratic Republic (Laos PDR)

Laos People’s Democratic Republic (Laos PDR) has been transformed from a socialist economy to a market economy since 1986 under the policy “New Economic Mechanism: NEM)” emphasized on market mechanisms, and it is still in use today.

The Trade Value between Thailand and the Laos PDR

The total trade value in 2010 was 91,542 Million Baht, increased by 27.16 percent from that in 2009. The import value of Thailand from Laos PDR was 23,936 Million Baht, had been increased by 50.12 percent, and the export value of Thai
Factors affecting trade and investment relations between Thailand and the LAO People’s Democratic Republic

Chanin Meephokee, Anuwat Cholpaisal, Tananat Roopsom, Dussaneeya Intanuphat

products to Laos PDR was 67,606 Million Baht, had been increased by 20.63 percent. As a result, Thailand experienced a trade surplus with Laos PDR at 43,671 Million Baht. It had increased by 8.9 percent, compare to that in 2009. (Information and Communication Technology Center, Office of Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Commerce, under the cooperation of the Customs Department, 2011). (see Table 1)

Table 1 The Trade Value between Thailand and the Laos PDR in 2009 - 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Trade Value between Thailand and Laos PDR</th>
<th>2010 (Million Baht)</th>
<th>% change</th>
<th>2009 (Million Baht)</th>
<th>% change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total of Trade Value</td>
<td>91,542</td>
<td>27.16</td>
<td>71,989</td>
<td>-8.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Import</td>
<td>23,936</td>
<td>50.12</td>
<td>15,944</td>
<td>-22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Export</td>
<td>67,606</td>
<td>20.63</td>
<td>56,045</td>
<td>-4.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade Balance</td>
<td>43,671</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>40,101</td>
<td>6.03</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Information and Communication Technology Center, Office of Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Commerce under the cooperation of the Customs Department (2011)

Regarding to the top 5 trade partners of the Laos PDR in 2010, it was found that Thailand was the most important trade partner for the Laos PDR, accounted for 54.5 percent of the total trade value. The second most important trade partner was China with the share of 18.5 percent, and the third was Vietnam with the share of 7.6 percent (LAOS TRADE WITH MAIN PARTNERS (2010), Laos, EU BILATERAL TRADE AND TRADE WITH THE WORLD, 2011, (See Table 2).

Table 2 Top 5 Trade Partners in Imports-Exports of the Laos PDR, 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Main Importing Countries</th>
<th>The Main Exporting Countries</th>
<th>The Main Trade Partner Countries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ranking Ranking Million Euros Proportion (Percent)</td>
<td>Ranking Ranking Million Euros Proportion (Percent)</td>
<td>Ranking Ranking Million Euros Proportion (Percent)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World 2,638.7 100</td>
<td>World 1,571.5 100</td>
<td>World 4,210.2 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Thailand 1,774.0 67.2</td>
<td>1 Thailand 521.2 33.2</td>
<td>1 Thailand 2,295.3 54.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 China 393.2 14.9</td>
<td>2 China 384.7 24.5</td>
<td>2 China 778 18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Vietnam 144.6 5.5</td>
<td>3 Vietnam 175.8 11.2</td>
<td>3 Vietnam 320.4 7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 The European Union 27 74.4 2.8</td>
<td>4 The European Union 27 154.6 9.8</td>
<td>4 The European Union 27 229 5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Japan 52.0 2</td>
<td>5 USA 42.6 2.7</td>
<td>5 Japan 77.7 1.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: LAOS TRADE WITH MAIN PARTNERS (2010), Laos, EU BILATERAL TRADE AND TRADE WITH THE WORLD, DG TRADE, 8 Jun 2011
It can be said that the border trade between Thailand and the Laos PDR is the main channel of trade. According to the statistical data in 2010, it showed that the border trade value was 87,190.97 million Baht with the share of 95.25 percent. (See Table 3)

**Table 3** The Border Trade Value between Thailand and the Laos PDR, 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total (Million Baht)</th>
<th>Border Trade (Million Baht)</th>
<th>Share to Total Trade (Percent)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>91,542</td>
<td>87,191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Export</td>
<td>67,606</td>
<td>64,117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Import</td>
<td>23,936</td>
<td>23,074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade Balance</td>
<td>43,671</td>
<td>41,044</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Information and Communication Technology Center, Office of Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Commerce under the cooperation of the Customs Department, and Thai-Laos Border Trade Statistical Report, Department of Foreign Trade, Ministry of Commerce (2011)

In 2010, Thailand’s total import from the Laos PDR through the border posts was 23,073.60 million Baht. That was 96.4 percent of the total import value in the same year. The main products were copper and products with the import value of 10,122.05 million Baht, or 43.8 percent of the total import value. The industrial machinery and components came in second with the value of 1,861.88 million Baht or 8.07 percent of the total import value. The third one was lumber with the value of 1,536.50 million Baht or 6.66 percent of the total import value. (See Table 4)

**Table 4** Top Five Main Laos Products imported to Thailand in 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Product Items</th>
<th>Value (Million Baht)</th>
<th>Share of the Total (Percent)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Copper and Products</td>
<td>10,122.05</td>
<td>43.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Industrial Machinery and Components</td>
<td>1,861.88</td>
<td>8.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Lumber</td>
<td>1,536.50</td>
<td>6.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Garments</td>
<td>1,293.99</td>
<td>5.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Vegetables and Seasoning of Vegetables</td>
<td>1,017.93</td>
<td>4.41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Thai-Laos Border Trade Statistical Report, Department of Foreign Trade, Ministry of Commerce (2011)

In 2010, Thailand’s total border-export to Laos was 64,117.37 million Baht, accounted for 94.84 percent of the total export value in the same year. The important export items were as diesel fuel, with the value of 9,931.44 million Baht or 15.49 percent of the total export value, and followed by cars, equipments and components with the value of 6,533.72 million Baht or 10.19 percent of the total export value, and machinery for construction and components with the value of 4,004.26 million Baht or 6.25 percent of the total export value in 2010 (Thai-Laos Border Trade Statistical Report (Monthly) (Million Baht), Department of Foreign Trade, Ministry of Commerce, 2011) (See Table 5).
Factors affecting trade and investment relations between Thailand and the LAO People’s Democratic Republic

Chanin Meephokee, Anuwat Cholpaisal, Tananat Roopsom, Dussaneeya Intanuphat

In 2010, the statistical study of the border trade value between Thailand and Laos PDR reported NongKhai Custom Post (RC2) in NongKhai province was the most important custom post with the value of 38,039.96 million Baht or 43.63 percent of the total border trade value. The import value at this post was 2,899.62 million Baht with the share of 12.57 percent compared with the total border import value of the same year.

The top 3 main import items were metal products made of steel (489.29 million Baht in value or 16.87 percent of the total import value), wire and coaxial cable (374.42 million bath in value or 12.91 percent of the total import value), and industrial machinery and components (362.75 million Baht in value or 12.51 percent of the total border import). Compare to the export value of other posts in 2010, the export at Nongkhai Custom Post had the most value at 35,140.34 million Baht with the share of 54.81 percent compared with the total border export value of the same year.

The top 3 main export items were diesel fuel that had value at 5,978.95 million Baht with 17.01 percent of the total export value at Nongkhai Custom Post in 2010. Followed by cars, equipments and components that had value at 4,879.69 million Baht with the share of 13.89 percent, and cloth and yarn that had value at 2,192.61 million Baht with the share of 6.24 percent compared with the total export value of the Custom in the same year.

In addition, Nongkhai Customs got the most trade balance from the Laos PDR at 32,240.72 million Baht with the share of 78.55 percent compared with the total trade balance value of the year 2010 (Thai-Laos Border Trade Statistical Report (Monthly), Department of Foreign Trade, Ministry of Commerce Department of Foreign Trade, 2011). (See Table 6 - 8)

Table 5  Top 5 Main Thai Products Exported to Laos PDR in 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Product Items</th>
<th>Value (Million Baht)</th>
<th>Share of the Total (Percent)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Diesel Fuel</td>
<td>9,931</td>
<td>15.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Cars, Equipments and Components</td>
<td>6,534</td>
<td>10.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Machinery for Construction and Components</td>
<td>4,004</td>
<td>6.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Gasoline</td>
<td>3,626</td>
<td>5.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Iron and Steel</td>
<td>2,695</td>
<td>4.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Thai-Laos Border Trade Statistical Report, Department of Foreign Trade, Ministry of Commerce (2011)

In 2010, the statistical study of the border trade value between Thailand and Laos PDR reported NongKhai Custom Post (RC2) in NongKhai province was the most important custom post with the value of 38,039.96 million Baht or 43.63 percent of the total border trade value. The import value at this post was 2,899.62 million Baht with the share of 12.57 percent compared with the total border import value of the same year.

The top 3 main import items were metal products made of steel (489.29 million Baht in value or 16.87 percent of the total import value), wire and coaxial cable (374.42 million bath in value or 12.91 percent of the total import value), and industrial machinery and components (362.75 million Baht in value or 12.51 percent of the total border import). Compare to the export value of other posts in 2010, the export at Nongkhai Custom Post had the most value at 35,140.34 million Baht with the share of 54.81 percent compared with the total border export value of the same year.

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In addition, Nongkhai Customs got the most trade balance from the Laos PDR at 32,240.72 million Baht with the share of 78.55 percent compared with the total trade balance value of the year 2010 (Thai-Laos Border Trade Statistical Report (Monthly), Department of Foreign Trade, Ministry of Commerce Department of Foreign Trade, 2011). (See Table 6 - 8)

Table 6 The Border Trade between Thailand and Laos PDR at Customs (RC2) in Nong Khai Province, 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Border Trade (Million Baht)</th>
<th>Trade at Nong Khai Custom Post (Million Baht)</th>
<th>Share (Percent)</th>
<th>% change from last year (Percent)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Value</td>
<td>87,191</td>
<td>38,040</td>
<td>43.63</td>
<td>14.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Export</td>
<td>64,117</td>
<td>35,140</td>
<td>54.81</td>
<td>14.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Import</td>
<td>23,074</td>
<td>2,900</td>
<td>12.57</td>
<td>23.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade Balance</td>
<td>41,044</td>
<td>32,241</td>
<td>78.55</td>
<td>13.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Thai-Laos Border Trade Statistical Report, Department of Foreign Trade, Ministry of Commerce (2011)
The Mukdahan Custom Post (RC2) in Mukdahan province was the second most important custom post. Its total trade value was 22,300.97 million Baht or 25.58 percent of the total border trade value in 2010. And in the same year, this Post had record in the highest import value at 13,024.43 million Baht with the share of 56.45 percent compared to the total border import value in 2010.

The important top 3 of import items were copper and products that had the value of 10,120.05 million Baht, accounted for 77.7 percent of the total import value of this Post in 2110. The second most important was industrial machinery and components that had the import value at 1,080.72 million Baht or the share of 8.3 percent. The garments came in third with the import value of 350.91 million Baht or 2.69 percent of the total import value of this customs in the same year.

Compare with other Customs, export value at the Mukdahan Customs in 2010 was 9,276 million Baht with the share of 14.47 percent which was not so high. The important products were machinery for construction and component (1,743.95 million Baht in value or 18.8 percent compared with the total export value of this Customs in 2010), diesel fuel and gasoline that had value at 1,131.11 million and 432.88 million Baht or 12.19 percent and 4.67 percent respectively (Thai-Laos Border Trade Statistical Report (Monthly), Department of Foreign Trade, Ministry of Commerce (2011), (See Table 9 - 11))

### Table 7  The Top 5 Laos Products imported to Thailand at Customs Post in Nong Khai Province, in 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Product Item</th>
<th>Value (Million Baht)</th>
<th>Share (Percent)</th>
<th>% change from last year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Metal Products made of Steel</td>
<td>489.29</td>
<td>16.87</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Wire and Coaxial Cable</td>
<td>374.42</td>
<td>12.91</td>
<td>4.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Industrial Machinery and Components</td>
<td>362.75</td>
<td>12.51</td>
<td>0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Lumber</td>
<td>306.99</td>
<td>10.59</td>
<td>-6.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Garments</td>
<td>202.89</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>-3.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Thai-Laos Border Trade Statistical Report, Department of Foreign Trade, Ministry of Commerce (2011)

### Table 8  The Top 5 Thai Products Exporting to Laos PDR at Customs, Nong Khai Province, in 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Product Items</th>
<th>Value (Million Baht)</th>
<th>Share (Percent)</th>
<th>% change from last year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Diesel Fuel</td>
<td>5,978.95</td>
<td>17.01</td>
<td>1.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Cars, Equipments and Components</td>
<td>4,879.69</td>
<td>13.89</td>
<td>-1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Cloth and Yarn</td>
<td>2,192.61</td>
<td>6.24</td>
<td>-0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Gasoline</td>
<td>2,001.56</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Machinery for Construction and Components</td>
<td>1,651.98</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Thai-Laos Border Trade Statistical Report, Department of Foreign Trade, Ministry of Commerce (2011)
Factors affecting trade and investment relations between Thailand and the LAO People’s Democratic Republic

Chanin Meephokee, Anuwat Cholpaisal, Tananat Roopsom, Dussaneeya Intanuphat

Table 9  The Border Trade Value between Thailand and Laos PDR at Custom Post in Mukdahan province (RC2), in 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Border Trade</th>
<th>Trade at Mukdahan Customs</th>
<th>Share</th>
<th>% change from last year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Million Baht)</td>
<td>(Million Baht)</td>
<td>(Percent)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Total Trade of whole Year</td>
<td>87,191</td>
<td>22,301</td>
<td>25.58</td>
<td>42.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Export</td>
<td>64,117</td>
<td>9,277</td>
<td>14.47</td>
<td>37.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Import</td>
<td>23,074</td>
<td>13,024</td>
<td>56.45</td>
<td>45.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade Balance</td>
<td>41,044</td>
<td>-3,748</td>
<td>-9.13</td>
<td>-72.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Thai-Laos Border Trade Statistical Report, Department of Foreign Trade, Ministry of Commerce (2011)

Table 10  The Top 5 Products of Thailand’s Import Value from Laos PDR at Customs, Mukdahan Province, in 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Product Items</th>
<th>Value (Million Baht)</th>
<th>Share of the Total (Percent)</th>
<th>% change from last year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Copper and Products</td>
<td>10,120.05</td>
<td>77.7</td>
<td>-12.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Industrial Machinery and Components</td>
<td>1,080.72</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>7.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Garments</td>
<td>350.91</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>-0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>250.6</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>1.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Scientific, Medical Equipments, and Other Tests</td>
<td>187.05</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Thai-Laos Border Trade Statistical Report, Department of Foreign Trade, Ministry of Commerce (2011)

Table 11  The Top 5 Thai Products Exported to Laos PDR at Custom Post, Mukdahan Province, in 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Product Items</th>
<th>Value (Million Baht)</th>
<th>Share (Percent)</th>
<th>% change from last year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Machinery for Construction and Components</td>
<td>1,743.95</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>17.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Diesel Fuel</td>
<td>1,131.11</td>
<td>12.19</td>
<td>1.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Gasoline</td>
<td>432.88</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Iron and Steel Products</td>
<td>391.6</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>2.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Cars, Equipments and Components</td>
<td>385.96</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Thai-Laos Border Trade Statistical Report, Department of Foreign Trade, Ministry of Commerce (2011)
Regarding to an observation of the total trade figures of the two Customs, it showed that comparing to 2009 the diversification of products was increased whereas the growth rate of some main products was decreased.

**Foreign Direct Investment in Laos PDR**

For the FDI in Laos PDR, the share of investment by public sector was greater than that by private sector. In 2009 – 2010, the value of private investment project in Laos PDR was 20 percent of GDP while that by public sector was only 9 percent (Department of East Asia, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2011). (See Figure 1)

![The Investment Overview of Laos PDR since 2005 to 2010](source)

Source: INVESTMENT OPPORTUNITIES IN LAO PDR (the landlinked country) : “Laos PDR is ready for business” as of June 10th, 2010

**Figure 1** The Investment Overview of Laos PDR since 2005 to 2010

From 2001 to 2009(at the end of December), consider by investment project type, it was found that the most important investment project was the project on electricity generation which accounted for 47 projects at the value of US$4,153 million or 33.97 percent of total FDI.

The second most important investment projects was mining with the number of projects of 202 approved projects with US$ 3,162 million project value, or 25.86 percent. The third was investment project on services with 226 projects with US$ 1,402 million project value, or 11.47 percent.

The followed investment was agriculture had 211 projects with US$ 1,555 million by the share of 9.45 percent, and the fifth rank was industry and handicraft had 262 projects with US$ 1,025 million by 8.39 percent of total FDI (Mr.Humpeng Sulalai, Investment Promotion Department: MPI, Laos PDR, 2011). (See Table 12 and Figure 2)
Factors affecting trade and investment relations between Thailand and the LAO People’s Democratic Republic

Chanin Meephokee, Anuwat Cholpaisal, Tananat Roopsom, Dussaneeya Intanuphat

Table 12 Top 5 of Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) Projects by Type, from 2001 to 2009 (at the end of December).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Sector Investment</th>
<th>Projects</th>
<th>Investment Value (US$)</th>
<th>Share (Percent)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Electricity Generation</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>4,153,051,585</td>
<td>33.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Mining</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>3,162,124,956</td>
<td>25.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Services</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>1,402,287,005</td>
<td>11.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Agriculture and Handicraft</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>1,155,164,225</td>
<td>9.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Manufacturing and Handicraft</td>
<td>262</td>
<td>1,025,642,679</td>
<td>8.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,387</td>
<td>12,226,000,190</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: INVESTMENT OPPORTUNITIES IN LAO PDR (the landlinked country): “Laos PDR is ready for business” as of June 10th, 2010

Figure 2 Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) Projects Categorized by Type, 2001 to 2009 (at the end of December)

Source: INVESTMENT OPPORTUNITIES IN LAO PDR (the landlinked country): “Laos PDR is ready for business” as of June 10th, 2010
From 2001 to 2009, the most important investors in Laos PDR were investors from Vietnam (252 approved projects with the investment value of US$ 2.77 thousand million), followed by those from China (397 projects with US$ 2.71 thousand million investment project value), and Thai investors (276 projects with US$ 2.68 thousand million investment value).

In addition, other countries that reported having significant value of FDI in Laos PDR were South Korea and France with US$ 512 and 459 million respectively. The rest included Japan, India, Australia, Norway, and Malaysia. (www.Business-in-Aisa.com, 2011). (See Table 13 and Figure 3)

Table 13 The Top 3 Most Important Investors in Laos PDR from 2000 to 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Investor</th>
<th>No. of Projects</th>
<th>Investment Value (US$ Thousand Million)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>2.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>397</td>
<td>2.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>2.68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: www.Business-in-Aisa.com

Figure 3 The Most important Foreign Investors in term of Investment Value in Laos PDR, from 2000 to 2010

Source: www.Business-in-Aisa.com
In general, the Laos authorities have allowed foreign investors to invest in any type of industries. The laws have explicitly protected the foreign investors’ assets, including protect foreigners’ assets from government confiscation. The laws applied National Treatment over doing business in the Laos PDR, except for some activities that may be threat to national security or may negative effects on country environment, or those activities may have negative effects on Laos public health and Laos culture (Office of Trade Policy, Lao, Ministry of Commerce, 2011).

However, China has been increasing its role in this country. Currently, China is becoming the most important investors in the Laos PDR, mainly on the investment in infrastructure development projects. Most of these projects were got funding by Chinese government in term of financial assistance. So far, 70 percent of China’s funding was soft loan and the rest 30 percent of the fund was financial support by Chinese government to the Laos PDR. (Data from interviewing Mr Thanin Pha-em (Deputy secretary-general of the National Economic and Social Development) and Ms Piyanuch Wutson (Assistant NESD), National Economic and Social Development Board, June 13, 2011).

The Chinese government financial assistance to the Laos PDR actively has showed that Chinese government would like to increase its role in the Greater Mekong Sub-region, politically and economically. Chinese financial assistance for improving transportation routes especially North-South Economic Corridor: NSEC etc. will be the great benefits for China to increase the trade and investment relations between China and this Sub-region. According to international political aspect, it can be said that containment and balance of power have blocked influence of Japan in this region as well.

Issues on Trade and Investment Relations between Thailand and the Laos PDR

It is necessary to consider negative factors that might create problems and barriers involve trade and investment. The past studies on this issue showed that tendency of trade competition between Thailand and other countries such as China, Vietnam, Singapore, Malaysia and Taiwan in Laos market has been increasing in various forms of trade strategies.

Considering price of products, it was found the products from Thailand set prices higher than those of other competitors about one-fold due to higher cost of Thailand’s product. As the result, Thailand has lost market share in Laos PDR. The increasing in product smuggling across the border of Thailand and Laos PDR, due to the lower prices than the products passed through Customs, lowered down the official record of cross-border trade. Moreover, Thai products have been imitated by other countries such as component parts of cars copied by China and Vietnam, and then they were sold at the cheaper prices than the original Thai products. In some cases, it was found that some Thai exporters destroyed this relation by exporting low quality products such as selling expired products in Laos market. This dishonest trading conduct created negative effects on reputation of Thai products in Laos market. (Manual of Trade and Investment in Laos PDR, under cooperation between the Foreign Trade Promotion Office at Vientiane, Laos PDR and School of Business, University of the Thai Chamber of Commerce, April, 2008, site by Department of Foreign Trade: DFT, Ministry of Commerce). The strict on law enforcement by Thai authorities may be one necessary condition to enhance competitiveness of Thai products in Laos market.

The other problem and barrier on the trade and investment in the Laos PDR is the Laos trade policy. Currently, the trade policies of Laos PDR focus on increased strengthening relationships with China and Vietnam. Thailand is not the country-target for the Laos trade policy. Moreover, the policies on reducing and limiting the number of import-export companies in Laos PDR to be only 150 companies today would affect the new Thai traders who wants to enter this market. In addition, the legal systems concerning international trade of Laos PDR has not met the international standards and, as well, has created uncertainty to traders. So far, the policies and regulations have kept changing frequently. The import tax rates and the processes to collect in each district have been different. These cause exporters confused and could not predict or plan in long term.

Moreover, import measures by setting condition that import companies must hold the proportion of imports to exports of 60:40 percent are hard to follow. The procedure for getting import license is very complicated. The traders must apply for licenses from several agencies such as Postal Department, Ministry of Transport, Ministry of Finance, Trade of Vientiane City, Tax Department, and Taxation Department etc. In order to get import license, the traders are required to put money deposit for
guarantee. Regarding to documents, it is complex and complicated because the import license must be applied after the products have arrived at the port only. Traders are facing the problem of product-delivery delay. In addition, the regulation on limited quota for some import products such as gasoline, all kinds of cement, rice, steel and trucks that have to exchanged to be US dollars, (Manual of Trade and Investment in Laos PDR, under cooperation between the Foreign Trade Promotion Office at Vientiane, Laos PDR and School of Business, University of the Thai Chamber of Commerce, April, 2008).

According to the agreement on ASEAN Free Trade Area (AFTA), ASEAN member countries committed to set zero % import tax rates on some certain products, such as coffee, corn and soybeans etc. However, the Members still levy these products at the rate of 5 percent. Moreover, the Members are still practicing the quota system, in order to protect domestic producers. The quota would be applied to limit the import quantity during the period of high domestic production (Khunrasri Kaewboonpun, Economy and Commercial Counselor, Interview Data, on July 22, 2011, Embassy of the Laos PDR, Bangkok).

The lack in the number of custom posts is one of the problems of the border trade between Thailand and the Laos PDR, as well. It is found that the number of international custom posts along Thai-Laos border today is not enough as the volume of border trade has been increasing. Among these Posts, some of them are reported the lack of trade facilities and some of them are the temporary border posts. To improve the trade relations, the increase in number of 24-hour permanent posts equipped with high standard facilities is the necessary condition. Secondly, to improve the border trade, the international banking system is very important. Currently there is no financial system up to international standards. Therefore, traders need to carry cash for transactions. The payment system for this border trade would smooth the trade transaction and would be the sufficient condition for border trade development (Khunrasri Kaewboonpun, Economy and Commercial Counselor, Interview Data, on July 22, 2011, Embassy of the Laos PDR, Bangkok).

Considering the issues on investment, it is found that the basic infrastructure system cannot meet the demand in the Laos market such as tap water system and telecommunication systems unable to cover all areas. The lack of these public utilities may cause in high investment costs. The sub-standard and inadequate transportation network and logistic system increase the delivery times and percentage of product damage. As a result, operating costs are unnecessarily high. In addition, there is a shortage of skilled labor in the Laos market. Therefore, investors have to spend time and money to train basic work skill to Laos labors as well.

The central government policies and local government policies are not complement in some districts, for example, the policy of central government to promote some industries when the policy of local government has no specified industries in the same direction, and this would affect the approval process of the trader (The Border Trade Thai and Laos PDR, Office of Trade and Investment Cooperation, Department of Foreign Trade : DFT), Ministry of Commerce, 2011).

Factors affecting Trade and Investment Relations between Thailand and the Laos PDR

The trade between Thailand and the Laos PDR are resulted from comparative advantage in different products and services of both countries. It can be explained by the concept of comparative advantage said that any countries who had capacity to produce products at lower cost than any other countries do, had a comparative advantage in producing them. This global division of labor leads them the international trade which countries export their comparative-advantage products and services to each other.

The Laos PDR has advantage in abundant important natural resources such as copper mineral and timber etc. The topography of the Laos PDR that is safe from natural disasters such as Tsunamis, exhibits Laos advantage as well. The country also has positive conditions that can stimulate trade and investment relation between these two countries, such as the similar economic growth rate in 2009 (ADB, 2011), and the political and economic stability in the Laos PDR.

The other supporting factor was the Laos PDR government policy that provided an opportunity for trade and investment. So far, the government has supported and promoted projects on infrastructure development such as the project on development of economic corridor links in the Greater Mekong Sub-region especially the highway number 9 from Thai Friendship Bridge – Laos PDR (Mukdahan – Savannakhet), and projects on the development of
the designated areas for Special Economic Zone and Trade Zone, Savan Seno Special Economic Zone project, for example. The government has supported investment projects relating to construction, machinery and equipment production, power generating, hydropower generating, and textile industry etc.(Kissana Vongsay, Business and Investment Opportunities in Lao PDR, Lao National Chamber of Commerce and Industry by www.laocci.com, online database, June 11, 2011). At the same time the government promoted tourism sector and services sector. The development plan in Zone A of Savan Seno Special Economic Zone focused on services sector i.e. hotels, shops, golf courses and amusement parks etc.(Thoughts in Business and Thoughts from Thai Businessman, Manual of Trade and Investment in Laos PDR, under cooperation between the Foreign Trade Promotion Office at Vientiane, Laos PDR and School of Business, University of the Thai Chamber of Commerce, April, 2008).

Factors Supporting the Trade and Investment in the Laos PDR

Since the Laos PDR is grouped as a less-developed country, the EU provided special privilege to products imported from the Laos PDR. The import tax rates for all Laos products, except firm-arm products, imported to the EU is zero tax rate. In order to apply for this privilege, the exporters must show the proof of original products, according to the rule of origin by the WTO.

To guarantee the foreign interests in the Laos PDR, the domestic laws has protected foreign assets that there is no government confiscation over any property of foreigners. The foreigners who were property-owners or investors in the Laos PDR were under this protection as long as there was no illegal activities against the domestic laws.

In addition, the Laos PDR has signed Bilateral Investment Agreement with 20 countries. As the results, the foreigner investors were able to do business in the Laos PDR. However, their businesses have to be the joint venture with Laos investors and doing business is under the each countries’ agreements.

The abundant natural resources, the country location that can connect to several GMS Members and the improving land transportation network were the supporting factors for development the trade and investment relations between Thailand and the Laos PDR. The complete transportation network of the country in the near future would make this country even more attractive to foreign investors in the near future(Office of Trade Policy, Ministry of Commerce, June, 2011)

Conclusion and Recommendations

At the present, the government of the Laos PDR puts the priority in the development of domestic infrastructure networks, promoting the tourism industry, and giving more incentives to foreigner doing businesses in the country. It can be said that this is a great opportunity for Thai investors to invest and doing business in Laos market, especially small and medium sized business (SMEs). The article showed that business with high potential is service business, such as restaurants and beauty business etc. The nature of this business was small and medium in size that had comparative advantage and Thai investors may have potential enough to compete in the market.

According to the data of FDI in the Laos PDR as the mentioned above, it was found that the investment value of service sector was in the second rank. It is also showed that the size of service business has been increasing continuously in Laos market.

The recommendations are, in order to do business or to invest successfully, Thai investors should looking for local partnership. Secondly, Thai investors must understand the business law and regulation. Third issue is that all kinds of business agreements should be made in writing, especially agreement on accountability and benefit sharing. These written documents may be useful as document in case of trade dispute.

The other important recommendation that the businessman from Thailand should be considered is before doing business in the Laos PDR, they should inform to the government office. All the business negotiations made with Lao businessman should be informed to the Thai Embassy in the Laos PDR at Savannakhet district including the Office of Commercial Diplomacy for getting the movement of information continuously. It will be benefits on before making contact, updating information to support a decision in proceeding business(Thoughts in Business and Thoughts from Thai Businessman, Manual of Trade and Investment in Laos PDR, under cooperation between the Foreign Trade Promotion Office at Vientiane, Laos PDR and School of Business, University of the Thai Chamber of Commerce, April, 2008).
For the government to government relations involving trade and investment, Thai authorities should carry this issue on the basic principle of equal treatment and mutual benefit. The program that may be sensitive to this relation must be conduct carefully under the approval of both parties. The investment projects that may be harmful to the Laos culture should not be promoted. The projects under government support should be able to reduce the economic gap or other differences of these two countries. To avoid conflict that may happen in the future, the development plan should be discussed by both sides on the principle of transparency and mutual understanding. In other words, it can be said that the relationship between Thailand and the Laos PDR especially economic facilities in the trade and investment should be in the form of partnership for the development together on the basis of trust and equality.

References


The Foreign Trade Promotion Office at Vientiane, Laos PDR and School of Business, University of the Thai Chamber of Commerce (2008), *Thoughts in Business and Thoughts from Thai Businessman, Manual of Trade and Investment in Laos PDR*, April, 2008.

Mr Thanin Pha-em and Ms Piyanuch Wutson (2011), the National Economic and Social Development, Interviewed on June 13, 2011.

Khunrasri Kaewboonpun, Economy and Commercial Counselor, Embassy of the Laos PDR Bangkok, Interview on July 22, 2011,
Study of the Determinants Affecting Health Status of Health Care Providers in Thailand*

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2Institute of East Asian Study, Thammasat University, Thailand
3Department of Nutrition and Food Studies, George Mason University, USA

Abstract

Background: Health care providers are one of the important resources of the health service system whereas their health status might be affected by health service system and other determinants related to health. Understanding of the factors/determinants affecting their health status is an important aspect to improve the health service system and the health status of the Thai population. The samples were selected from three hospitals using multi-stage random sampling. The questionnaires included a socio-demographic data form, assessment of internal and external determinants, and a health status assessment during last 4 weeks. Data were collected over a one-month period. Analyses included descriptive statistics, Pearson product moment correlation, and stepwise multiple regression.

Objective: The purposes of this research were to study: 1) the external and internal determinants affecting health status of health care providers in Thailand, 2) the relationship between the external and internal determinants and their health status, and 3) the factors that best predict the health status of Thai health care providers.

Result: The major findings were the following: 1) trade and investment, and the living and working environment were significantly correlated with the health status of health care providers with correlation coefficients equal to .292 and .303, respectively, and 2) an effective determinant for predicting health status of the health care providers was the living and working environment with prediction power equal to 11.0% (R² change = 0.110, β= 0.332), and statistical significance (F = 7.166, p = .010).

Discussion and Conclusion: The results of this study revealed that the external determinant, the living and working environment most greatly affects health status of health care providers in Thailand. This finding may indicate the need to review and expand the policy planning and strategies for improvement of living and working environment, including safety procedures in the Thai workplaces as well as requiring appropriate personal protective equipments. A further comparative study is recommended to determine whether the living and working environment or other effective determinants could affect the health status of health care providers in the Greater Mekong Sub-region countries.

Keywords: Determinants affecting health status, Health care provider, Thailand

* This work was supported by the National Research University Project of Thailand Office of Higher Education Commission
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**Introduction**

Adequate health is critical to the development of a country. The United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP) recognize that adequate healthcare is the major strategic framework for sustainable development in Asia and the Pacific. The government of Thailand realizes the importance of health and has developed a National plan concerning Science, Technology, and Innovation over the next ten years with whose main objectives are to improve the health service system and the health status of the Thai population. These improvements can also assist in improving the economic development of Thailand as health has been shown to significantly affect the productivity and economic capacity of a community and a nation.

It is well known that the health status of a population depends on factors/determinants involving the individual and their environment including health service system. Health care providers are one of the important resources of the health service system because their health status can affect its system. On the contrary, their health status might also be affected by the health service system and other determinants related to health. Better understanding of the factors/determinants affecting health status of health care providers in Thailand is an important aspect to solve problems affecting health service system and also leads to the sustainable development of Thai population. This will also be useful if it has been compared with other countries in the Greater Mekong Sub-region in order to lay out the policy and its strategies together for developing health service system and promote health of population in this region in the future.

In this study, the environmental analyses of healthcare organizations and systems were conducted in terms of Thai society and cultural values, trade and investment, medical information and technology, and living and working environment regarding strengths and weaknesses of the hospitals (Swayne, Duncan, Ginter, 2009). Therefore, the objectives of this research were: 1) to study the external and internal determinants affecting health status of health care providers in Thailand, 2) to examine the relationships between the external and internal determinants and the health status of health care providers, and 3) to find out which factors of the internal and external environment best predict the health status of health care providers in Thailand.

**Materials and Methods**

This study investigates one aspect of a larger study that investigates the health service systems and health status among health care providers and people in the Mekong Region. The larger study used a mixed methods approach to look at perceptions of their health status and health service systems of their respective countries.

**Sample**

The study recruited samples from hospitals in Thailand by selecting study area in provinces that can compare with other countries in the Greater Mekong Sub-region as followings: Thammasat University hospital, Pathumthani province as the representative of the Central of Thailand; Ang Thong hospital, Ang Thong province as the representative of the lower North; and Sappasitprasong hospital, Ubon Ratchathani province as the representative of the Northeast. Sample size of health care providers was 60 subjects estimated from the table of Kraemer and Thieman (1987) with power analysis of 0.80 and an effect size of .36 at the p < .05 level. The subjects from each hospital were selected by using multi-stage random sampling started with stratified random sampling for selecting study areas including hospitals of which topography were similar to those in other countries in the Greater Mekong Sub-region, and then quota sampling for calculating the proportion of number of health care providers in hospitals. Thus, the subjects were 20, 10, and 30 health care providers from Thammasat University hospital, Ang Thong hospital, and Sappasitprasong hospital, respectively. The subjects included health professions as the following: 1) doctor and dentist, 3) pharmacist, 4) medical technologist and physical therapist, 5) nurse, and 6) assistant nurse and other hospital staff, of which experiences in the hospital were more than one year.

Questionnaires were generated to gather information concerning both dependent and independent variables. The dependent variables related to participants’ self-reported health status during the last 4 weeks while the independent variables were developed to examine the internal and external environmental factors which affect health status of health care providers. The assessment of external determinants, internal determinants, and health status was classified into 5 levels ranging from the lowest to the highest represented by percentage of mean of each determinant and health status as the following: percentage of mean greater than or equal to 80 was
at the highest level, 70%-79% was at high level, 60%-69% was at fair level, 50%-59% was at low level, and less than 50% was at the lowest level. These assessments were to allow a subject to express his or her perspectives on the external and internal determinants affecting health status, and health status. For psychometric testing the instrument, the content validity was proved by five experts with the agreement of 80%. The items were analyzed by the Contrast-group approach having t-test greater than 2.00 (LoBiondo-Wood & Haber, 2003). Reliability was evaluated by Cronbach’s alpha coefficient method (LoBiondo-Wood & Haber, 2003; Polit & Hungler, 1999). The reliability of the self-assessments regarding external and internal determinants and health status were 0.92, 0.94, and 0.89, respectively.

Data were collected over a one-month period from April to May in 2011 in the study areas. The data were analyzed using SPSS and included descriptive analyses of the socio-demographic data, the external and internal determinants affecting health status, and health status. Correlation were conducted to examine the relationships between the external/internal determinants and health status and stepwise multiple regression was used to generate the prediction equations of the health status.

The procedures were approved for human right protection in human subjects by the Ethics Committee of Thammasat University, Thailand.

Results

Socio-demographic data

The socio-demographic data showed that 26.7% and 73.3% of health care providers were male and female respectively. Fifty percent of the subjects had an age range from 20 to 40 years. Ten percent of subjects were doctors and dentists, 3.3% were pharmacist, 16.7% were medical technicians and physical therapists, 35% were nurses, and 35% were assistant nurses and other hospital staff. Approximately 82% of subjects had level of education in diploma/bachelor degree and higher (65% diploma and bachelor degree, and 16.7% higher). Most of the participants (77.6%) had household-income more than 10,000 Baht per month and 50% had incomes ranging from 10,000 to 30,000 Baht per month as shown in Table 1.

Table 1 Socio-demographic data from health care providers classified by gender, age, occupation, educational level and household income (n = 60)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Socio-demography</th>
<th>Number of subjects (n)</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>73.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age (years)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 – 40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41– 60</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>48.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 60</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor and dentist</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurse</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pharmacist</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>medical technologist and physical therapist</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant nurse and others</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma and Bachelor degree</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>65.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master degree or Ph. D.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household Income per month*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;10,000 Baht</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>22.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,000 – 30,000 Baht</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30,001 – 50,000 Baht</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 50,000 Baht</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*n = 58
Assessment of External and Internal Determinants and Health Status of Health Care Providers

According to the 5 levels of the assessment of external determinants, internal determinants, and health status, the levels of the external determinant in terms of Thai society and cultural values, medical information and technology, and living and working environment were high at 71.0% (mean = 21.30, SD = 2.58), 74.8% (mean = 22.43, SD = 2.04), and 70.3% (mean = 17.58, SD = 3.04) respectively. The levels of the external determinant in terms of trade and investment, and the internal determinant were fair at 68.1% (mean = 17.02, SD = 2.53), and 67.8% (mean = 37.25, SD = 6.68) respectively, whereas the level of health status of subjects was high at 75.8% (mean = 75.77, SD = 8.47) as shown in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>External Determinant</th>
<th>Score Range</th>
<th>Score Range of the sample</th>
<th>Mean (%)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Socio-culture</td>
<td>6-30</td>
<td>14-26</td>
<td>21.30 (71.0)</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Trade and investment</td>
<td>5-25</td>
<td>10-22</td>
<td>17.02 (68.1)</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>Fair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Medical information and technology</td>
<td>6-30</td>
<td>18-28</td>
<td>22.43 (74.8)</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Living and working environment</td>
<td>5-25</td>
<td>11-21</td>
<td>17.58 (70.3)</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal Determinant</td>
<td>11-55</td>
<td>24-51</td>
<td>37.25 (67.8)</td>
<td>6.68</td>
<td>Fair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Status</td>
<td>20-100</td>
<td>56-99</td>
<td>75.77 (75.8)</td>
<td>8.47</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Correlation between External and Internal Determinants and Health Status of Health Care Providers

The Pearson product moment correlation revealed that there were statistically significance among the external determinants between Thai society and cultural values, and medical information and technology; and Thai society and cultural values, and living and working environment with the correlation coefficient ranging from low to moderate level equal to .326, .386, and .660 (p< .05 and .01), respectively. The correlation between the external determinants and health status— that is, the trade and investment, and living and working environment significantly related with health status with correlation coefficient at low level equal to .292 and .332, respectively as shown in Table 3. No significant correlation was found between the internal determinant and health status.
Prediction of Health Status from the Study Variables

Stepwise multiple regression analysis for finding the effective determinant indicated that only the determinant living and working environment could predict health status of health care providers at 11% (R2 change = 0.110, β = 0.332) with statistical significance (F = 7.166, p = .01). The equation for health status prediction could be created by calculating regression coefficient of predictor and a constant value as shown in equation A and B in Table 4.

Table 4  Stepwise multiple regression analysis in health status prediction from the living and working environment as variable (n = 60)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>R² Change</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Living and working</td>
<td>.332</td>
<td>.110</td>
<td>.110</td>
<td>7.166</td>
<td>.992</td>
<td>.332</td>
<td>2.677*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>environment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Equation of Prediction:

Equation A: Ŷ = 59.548 + .992 Living and Working Environment

Equation B: Ž = .332 Living and Working Environment

Discussion

The study results showed that the health status of health care providers was strongly predicted by those with high education and high income (diploma and bachelor degree or higher and household income approximately 10,000-30,000 Bath/month). It can be explained that such factors may contribute to knowledge and skills which reflect in good self care and health behaviors. In addition, their professions may allow them to earn high incomes which might enable
them the accessibility to various supplements for better health (Butler, 2001; Badura and Kickbusch, 1991).

For the assessment of external and internal determinants affecting health status, it was indicated that the perspective of the health care providers concerning the external determinant of trade and investment, and the internal determinants of strengths and weaknesses were at fair level, whereas the external determinants in terms of Thai society and cultural values, medical information and technology, and living and working environment were at higher levels. The inter-correlations among the external determinants affecting health status indicated that these determinants were related to each other (Shi and Singh, 1998). However, multicolinearity analyses revealed less than .70, indicating correlation among the independent variables were not an issue.

According to the significant correlations between the external determinants in terms of trade and investment, as well as, living and working environment, and the health status of health care providers, only living and working environment could be an effective variable that had power to predict health status of health care providers at 11% with the multiple correlation coefficient equal to 0.332, and regression coefficient equal to 0.992 as shown in Equation A and B in Table 4. This finding supports that the living and working environment of health care providers in Thailand could affect and predict their health status. It is realized that hospitals are health service organizations in which health hazards toward health care providers can be hidden. These hidden health hazards include: 1) chemical hazard from chemicals used for anesthetization, treatment, killing microorganisms, or laboratory analysis (Hoerauf et al., 1999; Pisaniello et al., 1997; Sobaszek et al., 1999), 2) physical hazards from instruments or medical equipment or electric machines such as light, radiation, heat, and noise, including repeated movement of physical activities related to their works (ergonomics) (Nelson et al., 2003), 3) biological hazards such as various microbes from patients (Collins and Kennedy, 1987; Engkvist et al., 2000), and 4) psycho-social hazards causing stress during work (Cox and Griffiths, 1996). It can be said that these can affect not only biological functions of healthcare providers’ health status but also the change of their health status in terms of psycho-social functions as well. In conclusion, the external determinant in terms of living and working environment is one of the important variables with a power to predict the health status of health care providers in Thailand. This finding may indicate the need to review or expand the policy planning and strategies for improvement of living and working environment, including safety procedures in workplaces as well as appropriate tools for personal protection.

**Recommendations**

As the study result reflects the scientific advances that have taken place among health providers in Thailand, a further comparative study is recommended to determine the conditions under which if the living and working environment or other effective determinants could affect the health status of health care providers in the Greater Mekong Sub-region countries.

**Acknowledgement**

This work was supported by the National Research University Project of Thailand, Office of Higher Education Commission.


Cox T, and Griffiths A. Assessment of psychosocial hazards at work. In Schabracq MJ, Winnubst JAM and Cooper CL (Eds.), Handbook of Work and Health Psychology. Chichester: John Wiley and Sons. 1996.


Enhancing Prerequisites for Future Primary Care Physicians via Portfolio*

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1Assistant Professor, Faculty of Medicine, Thammasat University, Program Director, Innovative Health Care Management (Inter’l) College of Innovation, Thammasat University

Abstract

Background Scarcity of primary care doctors worldwide results from low motivation and understanding of primary care in doctors. Enhancing prerequisites needed in primary care is essential, in which portfolio’s effective method might be promising.

Objectives The study aims to increase attitude and understanding of primary care via a newly design portfolio, as well as determine the effect of the portfolio.

Methods The Holistic Healthcare 3 subject committee re-designs the portfolio, which is comprised of knowledge knowledge application skills, values & beliefs and emotional awareness as learning domains. The students complete the portfolio as needed throughout the 4-week course. Analyzed data using descriptive analysis, mean, p-value calculated by non-parametric statistic (Mann-Whitney U test) is performed.

Results Four themes emerged. Theme 1 indicates prerequisites include knowledge, knowledge application skills, values & beliefs and emotional awareness as learning domains. Theme 2 shows that students perceive the portfolio to be a burden, despite better attitude and understanding of primary healthcare. In Theme 3, students show low motivation and appreciation toward primary care, partly from the curriculum itself, in which lecturers as role models are influential in choosing career paths. Theme 4 indicates that students achieve prerequisites of knowledge and problem solving skills while performing the portfolio.

Background

A world-wide need for primary care physicians or generalist doctors is prominent and Thailand also shares this need. Strategies in fulfilling this need includes higher production of medical students by old and newcomer medical schools, developing rules for graduates from governmental medical schools to spend 3 years of internist (with periods of working in government sector primary care system) after graduation as well as increase in salary and other incentives to work in rural areas. Despite these strategies, doctors tend to have an attitude in career development towards being a specialist working in urban area’s hospitals, which may be related to personal motivations, non-holistic medical curriculum and workplace settings preference. Academics can play a crucial role to explore this phenomenon and promptly administer the prerequisites needed by medical students in the area of primary care, expecting higher understanding and interest toward the field.

Objectives

The objectives of this study are the followings

a) Help students explore their own perception and build positive attitude towards being a primary care physician through reflective practice using portfolio.

b) Determine the possible components of medical student’s portfolio in primary health care subjects.

Methods

The design of this study is an experimental study to renovate the use of portfolio in academic settings.

Settings

The setting of this study is operated in the Faculty of Medicine, Thammasat University, Thailand.

* This work was supported by the National Research University Project of Thailand Office of Higher Education Commission
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The curriculum for medical students in Thammasat University is a spiral curriculum, in which students will be introduced to certain areas of body of knowledge repetitively in different depth and perspectives.

Participants

a) Ten faculty members of the Department of Family Medicine & Community Medicine share opinions on designing a new portfolio in the subject’s subcommittee meeting.

b) All 4th year clinical students in the class of 2011 are involved. The students have passed all major specialties, comprised of Medicine, Surgery, OB – GYN and pediatrics before finishing their 4th year (6 year curriculum) with a subject called Holistic Health Care 3 involving primary healthcare and family medicine.

Materials and Methods

a) Subject’s subcommittee meeting

Ten faculty members of the Holistic Health Care 3 Subject share discussion and reach consensus on redesigning the portfolio before the opening of the course.

b) Kolb’s experiential learning model

Learning methods in Holistic Health Care 3 is based on Kolb’s experiential learning model in which students develop their own concepts and hypothesis through direct experience from site visits at primary care units (PCU), which will undergo reflection, concepts formulation and testing of these concepts by wrap up from tutorial groups, lectures and panel discussions during a 4-week period.

c) Portfolio

The portfolio, developed from lecturer’s and student’s feedbacks on previous Holistic Health Care 3 course are divided into 7 parts by subject subcommittee as the followings:

1) Articles on the use of student portfolio.
2) Open – end questions concerning attitudes and perceptions towards working in primary care.
3) Exercise on family assessment tools.
4) Reports on
   4.1) Health care plan for PCU in urban and suburban areas.
   4.2) Health Promotion by PCU and its correlation with Bangkok Charter.
5) Problems during organizing this subject discussed with group tutor.
6) Suggestion by students on component of portfolio that might increase students understanding of primary care.

7) Questionnaires on the effectiveness of portfolio to enhance prerequisites for primary care physicians.

Only the 4th part of this portfolio accounts for grade evaluation. The portfolio is to be hand in at the end of the course.

Data analysis

The data concerning proposed portfolio contents, attitudes and interest towards primary healthcare and evaluation of student’s performance are analyzed using descriptive analysis, while student’s reflection on the use of portfolio are analyzed using mean, p-value calculated by non-parametric statistic (Mann-Whitney U test)

Ethical approval

All students have the rights to complete or not complete certain parts of the portfolio. Only a part is needed to be done for summative evaluation. The use of this portfolio is approved by the Administrative Committee of the Department of Community and Family Medicine after approval by the subcommittee of Holistic Health Care 3 subject.

Results

Four main themes emerged as results of this study.

Theme 1: Lecturers’ preconceived ideas and proposed portfolio’s contents and functions

Ten lecturers share discussion on the possible contents of portfolio and how the portfolio could prove benefits. All of the lecturers agree on extending the so called log book (collections of performed activities) into a more functioning portfolio, which should help in establishing prerequisites for working in the primary care sector. The discussion eventually come to a consensus that group the function of the portfolio into four domain of learning, i.e., knowledge, knowledge application skills, values & beliefs and emotional awareness as shown in Table 1. The portfolio is therefore comprised of 7 parts as mentioned before.
### Table 1 Agreement on contents of portfolio and domains of learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Domain of learning</th>
<th>Level of Agreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kolb’s experiential learning model</td>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>8/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student’s attitude towards primary healthcare</td>
<td>Values and beliefs</td>
<td>10/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family assessment tools</td>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>7/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Healthcare plan for primary care unit</td>
<td>Knowledge application skills</td>
<td>10/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation of portfolio’s effectiveness</td>
<td>Emotional awareness</td>
<td>10/10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 2 Student’s reflections on the use of portfolio

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>GENDER</th>
<th>number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>95% CI lower</th>
<th>95% CI upper</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q1 DOING THIS PORTFOLIO INCREASES KNOWLEDGE IN PRIMARY CARE (INTELLECTUAL DEVELOPMENT)</td>
<td>men</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>0.598</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>women</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2 DOING THIS PORTFOLIO INCREASES UNDERSTANDING OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN PRIMARY CARE.</td>
<td>men</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>0.244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>women</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3 DOING THIS PORTFOLIO CONSUMES A LOT OF TIME AND EFFORT.</td>
<td>men</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>0.263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>women</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4 THIS PORTFOLIO HELPS YOU ANALYSE AND EXPRESS YOUR THOUGHT OF PRIMARY CARE.</td>
<td>men</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>0.838</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>women</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5 THIS PORTFOLIO LET YOUR ADVISOR KNOW YOUR PROBLEM IN STUDYING PRIMARY CARE.</td>
<td>men</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>0.428</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>women</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q6 THIS PORTFOLIO LET YOU PLAN YOUR SELF DIRECTED LEARNING (SDL) IN PRIMARY CARE BETTER.</td>
<td>men</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>0.750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>women</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q7 THIS PORTFOLIO HELP YOU UNDERSTAND THE PURPOSE OF STUDYING PRIMARY CARE.</td>
<td>men</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>0.141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>women</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q8 YOU WILL NOT ATTEND TO THIS PORTFOLIO IF THERE IS NO MARKS AWARDED.</td>
<td>men</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>0.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>women</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q9 STUDENTS SHOULD BE ABLE TO SELECT THEIR FIELD OF INTEREST IN PORTFOLIO.</td>
<td>men</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>0.782</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>women</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q10 YOU FEEL FREE TO REVEAL YOUR PERSONAL DATA.</td>
<td>men</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>0.146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>women</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3.74</td>
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<td>Q11 YOU FEEL FREE TO EXPRESS YOUR FEELINGS AND THOUGHTS.</td>
<td>men</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.55</td>
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<td>women</td>
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*p-value* < 0.05 calculated by Non-parametric statistic (Mann-Whitney U test)
Theme 2: Student’s reflections on the use of portfolio

Students are reluctant to support the portfolio’s benefits due to the efforts and restricted time to complete it, in which this finding does not vary with student’s gender. Students may find the portfolio useful in demonstrating the framework of primary care but these findings show no statistical significance, while students mentioning that they wouldn’t cooperate in doing the portfolio if there is no summative evaluation, reveal statistical significance.

Theme 3: Student’s perception of primary care

Only 4 out of 79 students show interest in being a primary care physician. Most students prefer to be a specialist in Medicine (n=18), Pediatrics (n=14), Surgery (n=12) and OB-GYN (n=9) while some of them prefer to be specialists in minor subjects such as ENT, Radiology, Pathology, etc. Forty-five students point out to their teachers being role models as an important reason for their career choices, including 4 students that prefer Primary Care.

In an open-ended question, many students enter medical school with a concept that primary care is for doctors who can’t get further in their career, while others view primary care’s weak point is identity deprivation. Most students find primary care as well as family medicine subjective, uneasy to understand and boring. The impact of studying Holistic Health Care 3 subject is not promising. Although students develop positive views of the role of primary care physicians, this can’t overcome the interest in other specialties, which occupy a much higher hierarchical perceptions in the medical curriculum.

Theme 4: Student’s performance evaluation via portfolio

All of the students demonstrate a clear understanding of primary care, family medicine and health promotion concepts when they perform their assignments in the portfolio. All of them complete all seven parts of portfolio, despite of the fact that only the 4th part is necessary for summative evaluation.

Discussion

Developing countries are facing the same common problem of healthcare workforce shifts towards specialization. The predisposing factors include the perception, knowledge and expectation of primary care in doctors. In Theme 1 of the results, lecturers have look upon this incidence and add values & beliefs, emotional awareness as well as knowledge and application skills to the portfolio, intending to motivate future doctors towards primary healthcare. This won’t be easy as stated in Theme 3 of the results that higher proportions of medical students prefer secondary healthcare. The medical curriculums are also responsible for this preference. The amount of learning credits for secondary healthcare subjects outnumber the primary healthcare subjects. The sequence of the curriculum that arrange primary healthcare subjects after secondary healthcare subjects also yields bias in preferring secondary healthcare. In addition, students’ likings for their lecturers as role models effect their likings for the subject, which indirectly implies that such role models in primary care lecturers are not so influential. Social norms through mass media and general population’s belief draw pictures of primary care physician as ordinary physicians, the so called not-so-competent, in which, distort the fact that about 80 percent of healthcare visits involve primary health care sector (Thailand Health Report, 2010). Theme 2 indicates that students gain knowledge and application skills by performing the portfolio, although not statistically significant, which might be interfered by the time consuming character of the portfolio. However, emotional awareness is unchanged in the 4-week period. As for lecturer’s view and summative outcomes, this portfolio helps students to qualify for understanding and reflection of primary healthcare, despite the fact that their initial attitudes for primary care is negative.

This study reveals an important findings upon the use of portfolio, which at first intends to elevate student’s knowledge and attitude towards primary care. The portfolio facilitates students to reflect their attitudes, perceptions of primary healthcare, role models and curriculum arrangement openly. Overcoming the problem in scarcity of primary care physicians need to be managed initially at the academic level, i.e., medical schools must involve more in solving the problem by arranging the medical curriculum that serves societal needs, not merely doing benchmarking for center of excellence (COE) as present.
A study on one village one product project (OVOP) in Japan and Thailand as an alternative of community development in Indonesia.

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Abstract

Background: The OVOP concept is a unique approach which has been very successful in the Japanese prefecture of Oita and has attracted and continues to attract wide international appeal, particularly in developing countries such as Thailand and Indonesia.

Objective: The objectives of the study are 1) to study the effectiveness of policies of One Village One Product (OVOP) project in Japan. 2) to study the effectiveness of policies of One Tambon One Product (OTOP) project in Thailand. 3) to study ways of developing communities in Indonesia and 4) to analyze the development options within the communities in Indonesia through One Village One Product (OVOP) project.

Results: The result of study was found that failure of the One village One Product project of Indonesia and Thailand caused by the three elements which are as follows: 1) the problems of not understanding the true philosophy and the approach of the OVOP project 2) The problems of the Top-Down policy, and 3) the quality of human resources. If Indonesia selected to use OVOP approach, it would have developed a community-based on the OVOP project, and then it must be bug the OVOP project in Thailand and Indonesia as a lesson and seriously use the philosophy of OVOP in Japan as a model for community development in Indonesia.

Discussion and Conclusions: In case of the Thai Model: One Tambon One Product has one main apparent weakness which is the overruling government’s authority of general public. It can be seen that the government’s ultimate goal is to win an election, not local communities’ true sustainable development. Furthermore, it deems to be the government’s nature to consistently have their policies enforced on the general public. This has resulted in the lack of self-reliance of local communities. The OVOP project in Indonesia will be success, if it is to keep on going with the original OVOP project.

A study on One Village One Product Project (OVOP): a perspective on Japan and Thailand.

One Village One Product (OVOP) concept.

The OVOP concept is a unique approach to local development which was the brain of the Japanese former governor of Oita prefecture, Hiramatsu, who used his previous experience and exposure in the Japanese Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry (METI) to aim for a solution to Oita’s serious rural economic decline. This approach has been very successful in the Japanese prefecture of Oita and has attracted and continues to attract wide international appeal, particularly in developing countries, because of its potential to reverse local decay and decline. The countries that have embraced OVOP include Thailand, Vietnam, Korea, China, Cambodia, Philippines, Laos, and Indonesia in South East Asia. (Oita International Exchange Promotion Committee, 2006)

The essence of OVOP lies in value addition to local products to generate higher incomes for local communities, as well as in transforming local environments to make them attractive to local residents and tourists. In that regard it runs in line with the new thrust towards local economic development and the value addition being promoted through programme. OVOP is a distinctive approach to rural community development in which latent local community creativity and potential is triggered, through effective local leadership and human resources development, and directed at community revitalisation through

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development of unique products that have strong market appeal. Its overall aim is to develop and consolidate local self-organising capability for sustainable local development and poverty reduction.

There are the three principles as follows: (1) self-reliance and creativity (2) human resources development, and (3) thinking locally but acting globally. Local people take the lead, independent of external prompting and largely on their own creativity and self-reliance, to make unique products from local resources for their own good and to capture markets external to their locality. In the process they develop their expertise through production of competitive products, their livelihoods improve due to enhanced incomes, and their communities develop closer bonds at the same time. The OVOP rural community development concept has been implemented in different ways where it has been introduced, depending on the over all objectives and the unique circumstances of each country. As a result, it was widely adopted by many local governments of Japan (Igusa, Kunio) and spread to the rest of the world.

One Village One Product (OVOP) Concept in Japan.

The concept of One Village One Product (OVOP) was initiated in 1979; it has been a successful model for the development of Oita Prefecture and other parts of Japan. The Oita OVOP model is classic because it is the model that has been emulated in other countries with different variations. The Oita OVOP model developed from locally-led movements’ which aimed at “gradual, long-term and intrinsic community revitalisation, to be pursued through the formulation of local leaders”. (Rika Fujioka, 2006) The impetus for this was the preceding rapid post-war economic growth and transformation in Japan which, while generating tremendous benefits for the country as a whole, concentrated most of these benefits in urban areas leaving rural areas desolate and quite unattractive, particularly for the young. The resultant disillusionment with too rapid industrialisation led to extensive urban congestion and pollution, on the one hand, and, on the other hand, it drew people away from their land and community and left them ‘hanging’ in unfriendly urban centre.

Moreover, Japan is willing to share and promote the initiative to other developing nations through international arena such as bilateral and multilateral cooperation frameworks. To promote the OVOP initiative to other countries, Japan, together with...
World Bank, has been actively cooperating with national and local government in each country through its agencies such as Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA), Japan Bank of International Cooperation (JBIC) and Japan External Trade Organization (JETRO), Japonese Non-governtmental Organizations (NGOs), local governments, and individual volunteers. (Annual World Bank Conference on Development EconomicsGlobal, 2007) The OVOP movement was also included in regional and global forum and institutions. One of them is in Japan’s “New Development Initiative for Trade” which was presented at WTO Ministerial Conference in Hong Kong in 2005 Asian Productivity Organization (APO) also focused on the promotion of OVOP movement in its programme, Integrated Community Development (ICD) 2005-2006 for Mekong region. (Cambodia, Laos, Myanmar and Vietnam) (Asian Productivity Organization, 2007) In addition to the movement, Japan dispatch experts to help explore and improve the potential products and accept trainees from various countries to Japan with the aim of Human Resource Development. (Masaki, Hisane, 2000)

**Background of One Tambon One Product (OTOP) in Thailand.**

Thailand has played a certain level of social and economic progress and integrated into the global economy through modernization since 1960s from the time when the first National Economics Development Plan (1961-1965) began. Being an agriculture-based economy, agricultural development in Thailand, was a strategy in the progress of rural development during the 1960s and 1970s. Then, it was followed by a shift in the mid-1980s away from agriculture to manufacturing and services sectors. There were problems in agricultural/rural sector in those periods. Unequal distribution of income and growth among urban and rural communities drove into poverty, and rural development was given top priority since 1970. Earlier policies on agricultural or rural development emphasized areas with a high concentration of resource allocation and development potential. It was because agriculture was the mainstay of the majority of the Thai population, and development effort was focus mainly on economic growth.

Only from the Fifth Development Plan (1982-1986) that social dimension was officially addressed and integrated into the Plan. Thus, “National Economic Development Plan” was changed to be “National Economic and Social Development Plan”. The government identified rural development as a primary sector in which to target poverty. In the Sixth plan (1987-1991), the poverty reduction policy addressed income distribution and the development in the rural areas. In the Seventh plan, the poverty issue was incorporated in the policy by enhancing the quality of life such as medical care program for the poor and etc. On the contrary, amid the 1997 crisis, the agricultural and rural sector has demonstrated its innate strength of Thai society to respond to the situation in term of increased production and in its ability to absorb high levels of reverse rural-urban migration. The rural sector was the shock-absorber that welcomed millions people from the big cities who, having lost their jobs and choosing to go back to their home town and their families. Even though big business in the urban areas had to close down, the rural sector survived due to its richness in natural resources as well as its social capital deeply rooted in the Thai culture. In addition, the rural sector was able to absorb the influx of great number of jobless people. Many of them turned to activities that their families practiced in everyday life, and perhaps injecting a little more creativity into them. For example, some tried producing bottled fruit juice of snacks from local and indigenous fruits. Some turned to handicrafts such as basketry, weaving and making gift items from silk and cotton. Other helped their families with farming chores. Knowledge in cooking, handicrafts and agriculture was so common in Thai life. The crisis began in the first year of the implementation of the Eighth National Social and Economic Development Plan (1997-2001). Thus, there was a need to revise the plan in order to deal with the national crisis. It was focused to citizen participation and was a major step toward the mobilization of people from all walks of life to play more active role in the process of national development. (Yuwanuch Tinnaluck, 2005)

At the same time that the government was trying to solve the problems in business and financial sectors, the rural sector was also given more importance. The government began to realize the more potential of the rural sector in absorbing jobless people from the big cities. Various projects were initiated to generate jobs and incomes in the rural sector. For example, the Social Investment Fund (SIF)² was a four-year project (1998-2002) funded by a 4.8 billion U.S. dollar loan from the World Bank. The village revolving fund was a national scheme for a one million baht lending fund to each of around seventy-two thousand villages across Thailand. And the famous government’s One Tambon...
(sub-distrito), One Product (OTOP) initiative is the major scheme to promote community or grassroots economy. This OTOP idea was borrowed from Oita a Japanese village that creates unique products for the village as tourists’ attraction in order to generate better income among villagers, but adapted to the Thai context at national scale.

The OTOP (One Tambon One Product) development policy was initiated by the Royal Thai Government (RTG) in 2000, under the leadership of Dr. Thaksin Shinawatra, the Prime Minister of Thailand at that time. The Tambon is an administrative unit in Thailand roughly equivalent to a district. ‘One Tambon One Product’ (OTOP) is Thailand’s version of OVOP. The brain behind it was ex-prime minister Thaksin, a telecommunication business, who visited Oita with his senior officials several occasions to get first hand understanding of the revolutionary changes, and these visits led to coordinated government adoption and adaptation of OVOP to the specific circumstances of Thailand. The legacy of centralised administration in Thailand arising out centuries of absolute monarchism made a centralized approach to OVOP the natural choice. Although OTOP (like OVOP) has adopted a bottom-up implementation modality that hinges on government-community-private sector partnership, and is based on the same three principles (i.e. Think Globally, Act Locally; Independence and Creativity; and Fostering Human Resources), it is formulated and implemented by the Thai central government, with strict guidelines for product development and marketing. OTOP (like OVOP) is not promoted as the only or even main development strategy for Thailand; rather it is part of the Thailand’s dual track development policy of “fostering the nation’s competitiveness, while stimulating domestic consumption and empowerment of grassroots communities”. (Rika Fujioka, 2006) OTOP is directed and coordinated from the top by the National OTOP Administrative Committee (NOAC), with sub-committees comprising officials from line ministries at national, provincial and district levels. OTOP activities are based on an annual project master plan, which is funded directly from the national budget. The budget for OTOP is managed by NOAC and is used to fund activities in the OTOP annual project master plan.

**OVOP project on the success of Japan and failure of Thailand.**

“One of the finding was that OTOP seemed to be different from original OVOP movement. OTOP aimed at poverty reduction in rural areas and also vitalization of grassroots economy and for achieving the goal, the government provided various supports to farmer groups in the form of subsidy as well as trainings.” (JICA, 2008) Thai OTOP is under strong government initiatives, the movement is completely different from Japanese prototype OVOP. The movement was a central government policy not an endogenous movement. It is widely accepted by the product championship system with the five star grading. However, it is changing under the decentralisation process and strongly assisted by ICT including web site based marketing and technology exchange.

While OVOP is based on a gradual, long-term development strategy, OTOP aims at rapid development of community entrepreneurship. Among the measures promoted to achieve this is periodic designation of certain individuals or groups as “OTOP Village Champion” and assigning “number one” or five star status to certain products based on government-set selection criteria for value addition. In its origin and intent OTOP products are aimed at national and external markets rather than local community consumption or use, which is an important distinction from Oita’s OVOP. OTOP focuses primarily on producing outstanding products that can compete successfully in urban and external markets. Community participation in the production of OTOP products is not that much important, unlike in the case of OVOP. Of more significance to OTOP are those individuals and groups that can produce such products. Thus, community self-reliance and creativity which is so central to OVOP is of secondary importance to OTOP. It is value addition that really matters. In short, the essential difference between OTOP and OVOP is that OTOP is primarily economic in outlook and intent, fundamentally targets urban and external markets, and is less concerned with development of the local community.

OTOP movement has its problem from 3 causes as follows: 1) global market concentration. OTOP policy mostly concentrates in global market level in practice. neglect of bases market as local market and national market, the market place of OTOP never been stable. 2) Government reliable. OTOP movement is Top-Down policy from Taksin government but after changing the government OTOP policy was not longer concerned. Individual entrepreneurs who lie on government are suffer from market failure.
A study on one village one product project (OVOP) in Japan and Thailand as an alternative of community development in Indonesia.

Yoopin Claymone, Watunyu Jaiborisudhi

because originally from its start, the government always offer them by finding support market. Without policy support scheme, OTOP movement is freezing. An Individual entrepreneurs should play more role as self-reliance not depended on Government support. 3) lack of suitability knowledge. It seems effected as the following government reliable problem. Since, in order to encourage an individual entrepreneur to play an important role in OTOP movement rather than lie on Government support, individual entrepreneurs must have an appropriate capacity. For example, one of the principles is to bring internet technology to villages and hope that this will be the starting point of the Tambon Internet project. But there are no human resources who know how to use internet in many Tambon. Hence, this kind of phenomena is a problem about suitability Knowledge for using technology.

In conclusion, Characteristics of OTOP project is a Top-Down policy unlike OVOP policy which is Bottom-Up. Moreover, there is a weak point in OVOP concept that adapted to the Thai community enterprise. It’s a government with power over people. This power is based on the transformation policy of the campaign as a concrete political parties that initiated the OTOP. The goal of this project is to acquire the voice in the election next time. The OTOP project is counted as a populist.

A result of the project is not strengthening the community. Instead, focuses on productivity rather than to strengthen the community. Thus, the failure of the One Tambon One Product project of Thailand caused by the three elements which are as follows; the problems of not understanding the true philosophy and the approach of the OVOP project, the problems of the Top-Down policy, and the quality of human resources.

A Perspective on an Alternative of Community Development in Indonesia.

Indonesia was the hardest nation hit by the Asian economic crisis in 1997 in which it was pushed forward by the First World countries to adopt the Financial Liberalization. As a result, Indonesian Rupiah had been made part of the currency speculation’s system which it had a stock market acting as a gambling den or the so called “Casino Capitalism”. Such system has induced upon a great opportunity for the Hedge Fund to take advantage of the Rupiah of which it came under a severe attack. Consequently, Indonesia had lost a significant amount of its reserves resulted in a drastic Rupiah devaluation from 2,000 Rp. to 10,000 Rp. Per 1 US Dollar. (Lamourrex, Florence, 2003) an inflation rate of 77.63 percent (Thai Development Research Institute) a severe contraction of the industry sector by 50 percent and a negative 13.7 GDP. Such economic downturn faced by Indonesia is believed to be a result of its government’s belief in the development process under the free-market capitalism of which the nation’s stability was made to rely on the fragile financial market and unpredictable capital market. Furthermore, the deteriorating Asian economies had contracted the construction businesses leading to less demand of petroleum products in the region. This extensively impacted Indonesia’s economy since it relied on income from petroleum exportation to quite a great extent. Hence, one effective solution to the economic crisis problem found in Indonesia or other development countries is to promote and sustain development in rural areas based on the Bottom-Up development principle. This will lead to less dependency on the First World countries’ supports and assistance and more ability to become self-reliant and developed from their local communities. These three main principles of development are in coherent with the One Village One Product (OVOP) program which has been designed to bring about human capital development, self-reliance and local wisdom.

General description of Indonesia

Indonesia is an archipelago with more than 17,500 big and small islands spread along Sumatera, Java, Kalimantan/Borneo, Nusa Tenggara, Sulawesi, Mollucas and Papua. The Indonesian territory is divided in 33 provinces with more than 250 million inhabitants. Indonesia has around 300 ethnics group, each with cultural differences developed over centuries, and influenced by india, Arabic, Chinese, Malay and European sources. Traditional Javanese and Balinese dances, for example, contain aspects of Hindu culture. As do wayang kulit (shadow puppet) performances. Textiles such as batik, ikat, and songket are created across Indonesia in styles that vary by region. Indonesia’s size, tropical climate, and geography, support the world’s second highest level of biodiversity. Based on exclusive economic-zone, Indonesia covers a territorial of 800 million hectares, the biggest part of it, about 76% hectares is territorial waters and the rest of it is land terrestrial. About 120.2 million hectares of the territorial land is in form of
jungle and the rest of the land with coverage of 70.8 million hectares terrestrially utilized for various farm cultivations such as paddy-field, rain-fed agriculture, estate; and non-farm cultivation such as mining industry, plantation, bush, and savanna.

*Indonesia’s local development method*

Despite of the high average annual economic growth of 7 percent. (Dick, Howard., 2001). After the adoption of new economic and social development policies under the New Order era with the 5-year rolling plans or Rencana Pembangunan Lima Tahun (Repelita) the between 1965 and 1997, the income distribution pattern was somewhat uneven among all population groups throughout the nation. Most of big projects and high profitable companies were owned by either multinational companies or President Soeharto’s family, the so called Crony Capitalism. Additionally, Indonesia was facing with the problem of dualistic economy in which resembled high economic growth only in the urban areas and industrial zones and insufficient economic development in rural areas. This could be evident by the discrepancy of the average income between the urban and rural areas by 42 and 88 percent in 1970 and 1976 respectively. The income gap between the two areas increased to 92 percent in 1993 in which Jakarta had the highest income gap of 205 percent. (Dick, Howard., 2001) Such the unequal income distribution and economic growth resulted in labour immigration from the rural to urban areas.

Indonesia’s community development method was motivated by the government’s interference with local community’s agriculture development as part of the New Order era’s policies based on the prospective of having the agricultural sector as the main growth engine of the nation’s development. This could be reflected in the government’s supports of the local community development under the Green Revolution in 1972 through a number of measures such as insecticide, chemical fertilizer and seeds distributions, loans and credits to agriculturists and direct contacts with raw materials suppliers. (Anlov, Hans., 1996)

Furthermore, Indonesian government had initiated a number of development projects through local agencies or local villages formerly established by the government. It seems fair to say that the course of Indonesia’s local community development policies from the past up to the present has reflected the Top-Down development style. This has implicitly led to the dependent behaviors of the public on the government, in essence, when any problem occurred, local communities would look up to the government for solutions and assistance. The findings from the study on the government’s local community development show that most projects aimed to help agriculturists failed to serve their purpose. Therefore, these local communities have not yet been able to become self-reliant and have to depend on assistance from outsiders. (Muktasam, A., 2000).

Currently, the same development method can still be found in some projects designed to tackle poverty and develop local communities with the attempt by the government in forcing the central government’s policies upon local administrative bodies such as the Middle Term National Development Program (2004-2009) by the Manpower and Transmigration ministry. The project’s goal is not indifferent from any other local community development projects’ goal from the past ranging from to tackle poverty, restore and support the agriculture sector, provide infrastructures and financial support, improve standard of living and promote the sense of community among the public. Under this project, regional governments are allowed by the central government to have authority and roles in their local community development with some major assistance provided by the Central government including financial assistance, infrastructure development and policy planning guidance. (Sri Wredingsih., 2010)

Despite of the attempt made by Indonesian administrative body to decentralize motivated by the idea that regional governments would be able to effectively response to the development’s requirements for their local communities, regional governments are not local governments. Generally, regional governments do have a close relationship with the central government under the chain of command, making them more responsive to the policies given out by the central government than to the local communities’ needs. On the other hands, local governments do have a stronger bond with their local people and are more able to respond to their needs than regional governments. Nevertheless, there are still a couple of challenges for local community development in Indonesia including discontinuity in local government’s policies when there is a takeover of a new government and insufficient coordination between central and regional governments, causing disruption in existing development projects in local communities.
Lessons learnt from the failure of Indonesia’s One Village One Product (OVOP) project.

East Java province of Indonesia deems to be enriched with abundant natural resources. Agriculture, animal farming and fishery remain the prominent occupations of the majority of the locals. East Java province has been blessed with fertility of the soil which makes the province one of the main cultivation areas of Indonesia. The signature crop of the province is Tropical Apples which can only be cultivated in the province. (Wiwit Kuswidiati, 2008). As a result, the OVOP project or the Gerakan Kembali ke Desa project (Back to Village project) of East Java province has emphasized agricultural produce development and agro-tourism based on the province’s existing natural resources.

As for agro-tourism industry of East Java province, it can be stated that the province has quite an outstanding reputation for such the industry. There are about 100 fascinating agro-tourist attractions throughout Indonesia, and 42 of them are located within the province. Consequently, this has made apple farms have the potential in coherent with the agro-tourism development. Additionally, agro-tourism has induced upon other tourism-related business in surrounding areas such as coffee shops, bike rentals and home-stay business. (Wiwit Kuswidiati, 2008)

Despite the East Java’s Back to Village project was a good initiative of local community development, the project was ceased right after the governor Baso Sudirman’s term ended in 1998 owing to the following three reasons. (Wiwit Kuswidiati, 2008)

Firstly, it was the result of the discontinuity of related policy. By and large, usually when the new local government took over the old one, they might not be interested in the existing policies and projects. Consequently, these policies and projects would be interrupted and eventually abandoned. This problem is the so called egocentrism by government staff.

Secondly, the insufficient adequate support from the Central government was also another reason contributed to the unsustainability of the project. There was a lack of coordination from the Central government with local governments with more emphasis on providing assistance through the Top-down system. Additionally, the microeconomic development aspect was ignored by the Central government whose main intention was only paid to macroeconomic development aspect.

Thirdly, the unskilled human capital was also another major problem. The majority of Indonesian locals are generally low educated and there is no apparent incentive attracting them to participate in their community development process. Consequently, this has automatically made the Top-Down approach the main development policy for local communities in Indonesia.

It could be said that Indonesia’s Back to Village project attempted to follow the development pattern of Ōita’s One Village One Product (OVOP) project of Japan. However, such the project was not successfully accomplished in Indonesia due to the aforementioned reasons. Thereby, the Back to Village project of Indonesia was not truly being developed incoherently with the principles and guidelines originally adopted by Japan’s OVOP project leading to such the failure of the Back to Village project witnessed in East Java, Indonesia.

Nevertheless, the current Indonesian government has been showing its efforts in supporting small and medium businesses as reflected in the public speech given by President Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono, the first directly elected president from the public, in 2007 that Indonesia’s economy ought to be developed and driven truly by the economy itself by supporting and developing small and medium businesses with the plan aimed to expand the economy as well as reduce unemployment rate and poverty. (JETRO, 2007) It could be seen that the ideology of having small and medium businesses developed is in coherent with the OVOP project’s principle of local community development that has its main focus directed on household and community businesses.

The One Village One Product (OVOP) project as a crossroad or an option of local community development in Indonesia.

Indonesia is considered to be blessed with a variety of enriched natural resources and endowments that are ready to be utilized and used as fundamental of the OVOP project development. However, when closely looking at the One Village One Product (OVOP) project’s principles of Japan, the pioneer of this type of local community development, the lessons learned from Thailand’s One Tambon One Product (OTOP) project and the failure of Indonesia’s Gerakan Kembali ke Desa project (Back to Village project), it can be seen that the main common flaw of local community development in the Third World countries or Southeast Asian countries such as Thailand and...
Indonesia is the problem of related policy planning and specification. Japanese OVOP projects were initiated mainly based on 3 principles namely (1) Self-reliance and Creativity (2) Human Resource Development and (3) Local Yet Global. The following are an analysis of whether or not the OTOP project of Thailand and Back to Villages of Indonesia has been operated incoherent with such the principles as that of the OVOP project of Japan.

1) Self-reliance and Creativity

Consequently, because the project was initiated and directed by the central government from the start, this has made the local communities lack of the realization that the project belongs to everyone. Most local people feel like they are not part of the project since they do not have any involvement with the project’s activities including the project initiatives, discussions and debates of the problems of their own communities. Therefore, the people living in these local communities do not share the responsibility to operate the project together collaboratively. By having the project controlled by the local government, it creates the wrong incentives of each community. By and large, they all want to response to the government’s policy and show the project’s results as promptly as they can, some communities might copy products from other communities nearby. Hence, it is fair to say that a large number of OTOP products were not created using the wisdom of each local community. This is incoherent with the local community development principles that are based on the encouragement to local people to be self-reliant and are able to think for themselves. For Indonesia, Indonesian government had initiated a number of development projects through local agencies or local villages formerly established by the government. It seems fair to say that the course of Indonesia’s local community development policies from the past up to the present has reflected the Top-Down development style. This has implicitly led to the dependent behaviors of the public on the government, in essence, when any problem occured, local communities would look up to the government for solutions and assistance. The findings from the study on the government’s local community development show that most projects aimed to help agriculturists failed to serve their purpose. Therefore, these local communities have not yet been able to become self-reliant and have to depend on assistance from outsiders.

As for the Gerakan Kembali ke Desa (Back to Village project) of East Java province, Indonesia, it was initiated by the local government of Java province. Such the initiation is different from that of the OTOP project of Thailand in which it was started off by the local government. Nevertheless, despite of its originality, the Back to Village project was still challenged and faced with the problem of the Top-down management approach which came from within the local government itself. Moreover, the project also face with other challenges mainly caused by the lack of commitment and coordination between Central government and Java local government regarding local community development of which eventually led to the failure of the project. On the whole, it can be said that the government’s authority that overrules general public’s authority has made the latter group become the whole system’s bearers. This, hence, implicitly forces the general public to consistently rely on the government’s policy and directions which has prevented them from being able to be self-reliant and self creativity. 

2) Human Resource Development

Besides from the Top-down management approach to local development policy problem that has led local communities not to be developed based on the foundation of local resources, the problem of the quality of human resource is another great challenge faced by the OVOP project in Indonesia, given that human resource development is one of the core three elements of the OVOP’s principles. It could be said that the quality of human resources in the Third World countries such as Thailand and Indonesia still shows quite a big discrepancy from that of human resources in the First World countries such as Japan in terms of education levels, living standards, income as well as public consciousness. As a result, this has made human resources become one of the major obstacles of local community development projects namely the Back to Village project in Indonesia.

Closely looking at the problem of human resources quality in general and human resource development under the OVOP of both Thailand and Indonesia, similar challenges could be found. By and large, the problem arisen from local people residing in remote areas in the two countries is usually from those with low level of education attainment who lack the sense of public consciousness. Therefore, this has led to the lack of incentives for them to take part or participate in the development process of their community. Also, the administrative nature of government in these countries that are unable to continuously push forward related policies and assistance to local
communities and the government’s authority trying to push the participated local communities to produce as a response to the markets’ demands, are another factor contributing to the not-so-successful human resource development. Therefore, it can be said that the projects has problem with human resources quality and the aim to create products more than developing human resources.

3) Local Yet Global

In terms of the Local yet Global aspect of the OVOP’s principles, it is found that Thailand’s OTOP project has been faced with the problem in government’s related policies caused by the Top-down administrative approach, in which it requires local authority’s force to push forward the project so that it can successfully meet the government’s objective. Hence, local communities would rush to finish their product created under the project as quickly as they can, leading to the problem of product limitation between each local community as well as the problem of mass production that does not emphasis on product quality. These have prevented these local products to be developed in such a way that they could meet the global standard. As for Indonesia’s Back to Village project, it also has been faced with the same challenge as that of Thailand’s OTOP product in term of the Local yet Global aspect. The main reason behind such problem is believed to be caused by the lack in adequate coordination and support from the Central government to East Java province’s local government.

Conclusion

Conclusively, the reasons of the failure of the local community development project namely the OVOP in Indonesia and the OTOP in Thailand are contributed to the lack of a true understanding in the project’s principles, the Top-down administrative approach and quality of human resources. Furthermore, the failure of Indonesia’s OVOP project was also caused by the lack of adequate coordination and supports from the Central government in the Back to Village project, making it unable to be fully developed.

Therefore, given the success of Japan’s OVOP project and the failure of Thailand’s OTOP project and Indonesia’s local community development project of the Back to Village project, they are a good set of examples and lessons to be learnt for local community development options and style based on existing resources for each community. If Indonesia is to keep on going with the OVOP project, it has to truly stick with the project’s principles as originally designed by Japan, with more emphasis on human resource development. Local community development project will be a success if human resources are higher quality and the development is truly and willingly driven local people’s wisdom and knowledge, not by the central government’s policies. Therefore, it could be said that both Thailand and Indonesia’s One Tambon/Village One Product project implicitly tries to focus on product rather than human resource development, with more emphasis on pushing forward the project’s success than having local communities sustainably developed. As a result, due to these characteristics found in local community development projects in Indonesia and Thailand, if they can be actually made successful it can truly lead to successful human resources developed as well as stronger local communities and public. This will eventually solve the problem of dependency of local communities on the government leading to the self-reliance and sufficiency among local communities as well as a country as a whole.
References


Social Investment Fund - SIF was born out of the Social Investment Project – SIP that was designed to alleviate social impact due to the economic crisis. SIP was later separated into Social Investment Fund (SIF), and Regional Urban Development Fund (RUDF). The availability of SIP allowed NGOs to acquire fund to create projects aimed at meeting the Poor’s basic needs


The Oita Prefecture One Village One Product 21 Promotion Council, One Village One Product 21: Bringing the Spirit of the Country to the City.


In August 2011, when China introduces its first unfinished aircraft carrier to the world, global major mass medias have flashed out its picture and commend that it represents Chinese assertiveness and power aggrandization.

In June 2011 when U.S. Defense Minister, Robert Gates visited China, the Chinese People’s Liberation Armed Forces also revealed to the public its first stealth fighter, J-20, the fifth generation fighter flying from Chengdu to Beijing. Mr. Robert Gates admitted that the United States has underestimated Chinese armed production development. In early of 2007, Chinese Second Artillery corps which in charge of Chinese missile and ballistic armed forced also shot down one of its old weather satellite to demonstate its anti-satellite capability. On top of these, China has also developed space technology and cyber warfare capabilities that are necessary for the twenty-first century warfare. The Western security and defense watcheres, thus, are concerned of Chinese defense technology development and arms manufacturing industries. How large and modern of the Chinese space and defense industries? How long does it take China to keep up with the United States, the world most advance and innovative arms manufacturing country. Most economists have predicted that Chinese would take over the United States as the world largest economy in the next 10-15 years. What would happen if China could take place the United States as the world top largest economy and arms production nation?

Professor Tai Ming Cheung of University of California has edited a special issue for the Journal of Strategic Studies to answer these timely important security questions under the title of China’s Emergence As A Defense Technological Power for the volume 34, Number 3, June 2011. This special issue composes of 8 articles.

As one of the most authoritative on Chinese defense and security issue, Tai Ming Chueng, in his introduction statement, confesses his uncertainty regarding Chinese strategic objective by saying that “China is beginning to flex its expanding military and strategic clout in the pursuit of its broadening national security interest. ...whether it is a temporary phenomenon or the beginning of a more deep-seated strategic shift are not yet well-understood.” (p.295)

The demonstrations of Chinese modern technologies development in the past few years and its assertiveness against Japan, Vietnam and the Philippines over territorial claims of the Diaoyutai Islands and South China Sea Islands could have been driven by multifactors in Chinese apparatus such as leadership competition, surging nationalistic sentiment needs to protect its core interests and Chinese ambition to play more important role commensurate to its rising status.

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The eight papers in this special volume offer three insight into the state of development of the Chinese defense economy. First, the technological development of the Chinese defense economy since late 1990s has been impressive. Second, the aviation and space industries are leading the way in the Chinese defense economy’s transformation. Third, Chinese military technology capabilities today match or exceed those of Japan, South Korea and India but still lags far behind the US and Europe. Tai Ming Chuan’s findings support Robert S. Ross’s

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conclusion in this latest article on “The Rise of Chinese Power and the Implications for the Regional Security Order” Ross contends that “China’s global economic reach is insufficient to transform regional or global security orders. The transformation of the PLA into a region-wide strategic power will require many decades.... The transformation of the PLA into a global strategic power is an even more distant prospect.” (p. 545) The reason is simply that the United States continues to maintain its maritime power, to modernize its forces and to enhance cooperation with its regional allies. All Chinese watchers should read Tai Ming Cheung’s special edited issue in comparison to Robert S. Ross’s work and Pentagon’s pessimistic assessment of Chinese hi-tech weapon development. (Robert S. Ross, “The Rise of Chinese Power and the Implications for the Regional Security Order,” Orbis, Vol. 54 No. 4, Fall, 2010, pp. 525-545)
Review of:

“OVOP Network toward in East Asia and a Case study in Thailand: The authority between the government and the general public ”

Hiroshi Murayama

1Professor, Ritsumeikan University
President of International OVOP Policy Association

Overview:
This paper examines the Thai Model of One Tambon One Product (OTOP) has an apparent weakness that is the overruling government’s authority of the general public. The paper clarifies this weakness causes the lack of local community’s self-reliance that is conceived to be one of the main purpose of OTOP project by the author. The method in this research seems to be a comparative analysis between OTOP initiated by Thai national government and OVOP (One Village One Product) started originally by Oita prefecture government in Japan as the same policy project to OTOP with the main principles of 1) Local yet global 2) Self-reliance and creativity and 3) Human resource development. This paper focuses on the strong authority by the national government to control and manage the general public on the process of the Thai OTOP model. This authority process is discussed regarding the OTOP Directive Committee under the Prime Minister’s Office, consisting of 16 related government agencies and 5 sub-committees. The author interprets: Consequently, because the project was initiated and directed by the central government from the start, this has made the local communities lack of the realization that the project belongs to everyone. Most local people feel like they are not part of the project since they do not have any involvement with the project’s activities including the project initiatives, discussions and debates of the problems of their own communities. Therefore, the people living in these local communities do not share the responsibility to operate the project together collaboratively. According to this interpretation, the paper suggests the future direction for the Thai OTOP model by emphasizing the original ideology of the above three main principles.

The conclusion is clearly presented on the bases of the well organized discussion with the analysis and interpretation of the control and management in the OTOP project by the government that has more authority than the general public. Therefore the quality of this paper deserves to be published in a journal: my recommendation is that this article will be accepted for publication. However I have some comments to improve the paper as the following. Thank you for allowing me to participate in the editorial process at the International Journal of East Asian Studies.

(My comments to improve the paper)

Title:
The title of this article should be changed because “OVOP network toward in East Asia” is not discussed in the paper.

Introduction:
The introduction may be necessary because the detail of “Background of the One Tambon One Product (OTOP) project of Thailand” is not proper for introduction. In addition it may be possible that an introduction of this article is clearly presented since the paper is well organized towards the conclusion.

Materials & Methods and Result & Discussion:
The comparative approach to Japanese OVOP is suitable to discuss the future direction of Thai OTOP project. In the next article, if the author has a plan to write, an empirical approach will be expected for the discussion of this theme: especially the interpretation regarding the influence of party politic process such as an election campaign and populism projects may be examined by an empirical proof.
References:
There are not may reference articles of this subject regarding OTOP or OVOP. However, there is a possibility to use references with regard to the discussion in the paper such as the attached articles to this review. (For a note of the bottom-up system in Japan) Kyungmi Son (2011) "Qualitative change of a policy as a turning point toward local-oriented policy development", in Hiroshi Murayama (ed.) The new paradigm of policy development in Thailand, Thammasat Printing House.

Recommendation:
The concept of the authority should be defined in a proper part regarding the overruling government’s authority of the general public.
Overview:
This paper examines the relationships between and among a range of determinants of patients’ perceptions of the Thai Health Service System. The introduction explains the motivation for this research and suggests the potential significance of the results. A clear summary of the sampling strategies is outlined along with descriptions of the survey methods. A combination of analytical methods is used including descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, and stepwise regression. The results clearly demonstrate the relationships among the variables that are studied. The limitations of the study are discussed (opening the door for future research) and references are provided.

Title:
The title of this article is clear and concise and accurately reflects the contents of the article. No changes are required to the title of the article.

Introduction:
The introduction is essentially ideal and follows the best formula for this kind of research paper. It begins by introducing the general research area, and gradually narrows to the specific research questions. It relies on previously published research to build a justification for the research being performed in this paper. The research questions themselves are clearly stated. There are no requested changes to this section of the article.

Materials and Methods:
It is important to give a very clear description of the populations used in this kind of a study, and the detail in this section is very good. The description of the sample is very clear, and the fact that there are 400 participants is appropriate for the methods being applied. The descriptions of the dependent and independent variables are also very clear. It is refreshing to see a mix of both well-documented models from the literature combined with information that is clearly pertinent to the Thai government and health system. It is this kind of novel research that should be published in the highest quality journals. It is appropriate to include the information regarding the validity of the instruments. There are no requested changes for this section.

Results:
As appropriate this section begins with descriptive statistics for the data that are being used. This sets the stage for the rest of the results. It is very good that the research questions are presented here immediately above the results. The table is very clear regarding the level of correlation and the strength of the relationship. The step-wise regression results are similarly clear, although the fond is different parts of the table. This could be changed for consistency. Only this minor change is required for this section.

Discussion:
The discussion section really does its job in the right way in this paper. The best discussion sessions tell the readers what the significance of the research is. This discussion section does that by suggesting how the research results (effect of technology in particular) can have a lasting influence on the national health system. This really suggests the potential value of this research for policy and practice. There are no requested changes to this section.

Limitations:
It is refreshing that these authors recognize the limitations in the study. These caveats are appropriate for inclusion to fully inform the readers. This also suggests that there is also room in this area for future research opportunities. No changes are requested for this section.

References:
The references used for this article are an appropriate mix of peer-reviewed journal articles, textbooks (for methodological issues), and recent NGO publications. While more literature review can always be done, this is a perfectly acceptable set of references. No necessary changes are required for the references section.

Recommendation:
After a comprehensive review of this paper it is my belief that this is a high-quality research article that deserves to be published in the International Journal of East Asian Studies. The topic is of interest to the readership of the journal, the methods are appropriate for the research question, and the results provide significant insights into a problem that have not previously appeared in the literature. My recommendation is that this article be accepted for publication. Thank you for allowing me to participate in the editorial process at the International Journal of East Asian Studies.
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7. **Article Main Body**: All text, references, figure legends, and tables should be in single-column, double-spaced format. Place each figure or table on a separate page (one page per figure/table) after the text – please do not insert the figures or tables in the text. In-text citations should be made using the following format: [first author’s last name, et al. (if any), year]. For peer review, it is permissible to send low-resolution images, although the authors will be asked for high-resolution files at a later stage. Main text should not exceed 5,000 words; the maximum numbers of figures and tables are 4 and 2, respectively. **Highlight**: A list of Highlights indicating the most important feature of an article must be given with the maximum of 5 bullets. Each bulletin should not exceed 30 words.
8. **Double-blinded review method**: To allow for such review, the title page and main manuscript should be submitted as two separate files.
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     ▷ Sophisticated searching techniques are important in finding information (Berkman, 1994).
     ▷ Attaching meaning to symbols is considered to be the origin of written language (Samovar
       & Porter, 1997).
     ▷ Alternately, “Language involves attaching meaning to symbols” (Samovar & Porter, 1997,
p.188).
     ▷ It was argued that ... (Johnson et al., 2005).

ii. Format of full bibliographic information for each source:
   a. Journal Article: Author (Year). Title. Journal’s title, Volume (No), Page number(s).
      Cho, Y. (2011). Desperately seeking East Asia amidst the popularity of South Korean pop
      East Asian regionalism. Contemporary Politics, 17(2), 133-149.
      Li, D. et al. (2011). Late holocene paleoenvironmental changes in the Southern Okinawa trough
   b. Book: various formats depending on type of book.
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      Krause, K.-L., Bocher, S., Duchesne, S. (2006). Educational psychology for learning and
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   d. Book: book or report by a corporate author e.g. organization, association, government
      department
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      2007).
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p. A5.
g. Webpage:  Author. (Year page created or revised). Title of page. Retrieved month day, year of retrieval, from web address.


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