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Master’s Thesis

An Analysis of Government Reforms in Korea and Policy Implications for Laos

August 2013

Graduate School of Public Administration
Public Administration Major
Seoul National University

LAngsith THANASOUK
Master’s Thesis on

An Analysis of Government Reforms in Korea and Policy Implications for Laos

A Thesis Presented

By

LANGSITH THANASOUK

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Abstract

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Since new theories, ideas and concepts on public service have introduced in first few countries, many countries also followed the trend integrating and developing the public service for their domestic administration. The new government that comes in makes various efforts to reform or change the policies of the previous government.

Due to various obstacles that might have to overcome, bringing about a reformation is not always easy to accomplish. Government reforms should be made or set up in all administrations through official agenda, linking it with other stakeholders, corporate sectors, financial institutions, and labor sectors.

Since its inception, South Korea has gradually stabilized into a liberal democracy and has seen substantial development in education, economy, and culture. Since the 1960s, the country has developed from one of the Asia's poorest to one of the world's wealthiest nations. In education, at the higher level, it has expanded dramatically. It is said to be one of the "Four Tigers" of rising Asian countries along with Singapore, Taiwan and Hong Kong.

There are many social conditions for a successful developmental state in Korea Republic, although, there is a basic have been overthrown of some parties to who didn’t agree with some President’s Administration, but the Republic of Korea under tenures of Presidents led Korea had one of the world's fastest-growing economies from the early 1960s to the late 1990s. South Korea has been still one of the fastest-growing developed countries from 2000s up to the present time.

Governance, or good government, or good governance perception during my study, which enabling those meaning from my basic notion, perception to the insight of good governance which by providing information on policies, strategies, best practices, innovations and use of technology for integrated, interoperable and transformed government services. Therefore, this research would like to focuses mainly on the public organizational development as a whole of governance perspective, including the government restructuring in each era of the Korea Republic and in comparison with Laos.
In order to support, deepen and strengthen the organizational development and ensure system improvement in public sectors, transformation through sustainable development is necessary. Sustainability in all three parts: environmental, economic and sociopolitical have to be accounted.

Thus, Lao Government should learn from history lessons and new lessons on organizational development and related public administration reforms successful countries like Korea have used. Some of the important lessons are: organization analysis, objective of an organization, criteria of selection, benefits to public, constituents of an organization, functioning processes of an organization and using tools and techniques for organizational analysis.

Good and bad lessons on organizational development from other countries can help develop our country alongside with socio-economic development based on the geographical, social and economic characteristics of the country.

That is essentially what organization development is: an educational strategy employing the widest possible means of experience-based behavior in order to achieve more and better organizations choices in a highly uncertain world.

Keywords: Republic of Korea; Reform/Restructuring; Public Organizational Development; Organization Analysis; Theories, Concepts, and Ideas in Public Administration; Government of the Lao People’s Democratic Republic.

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Chapter I. Introduction

1. Background of Research and Key Questions

Since Laos and Republic of Korea had established diplomatic ties in 1995\(^1\) up to the present, both nations always build, maintain and expand the good diplomatic relations, investments and cooperation.

For trading, Laos and Republic of Korea have traded for more than 40 years (since 1970s) the average about only USD 250,000 annually, but after Laos government implement the open-door policy, during which Laos has mostly experienced from trade deficit before 1986, the trade substantially increased at an average more than USD 3 million annually.

2004 the President of Republic of Korea Roh Moo-hyun visited Laos, who remarked visited of the 1\(^{st}\) Korean President which a milestone for official ties visited Laos and the most significant commemorative for Laos, during Lao P.D.R hosted the 10\(^{th}\) ASEAN Summit in Vientiane to participated the meetings which related to ASEAN Regional Forum (ARF), Korea acceded to the Treaty of Amity and Cooperation (TAC), ASEAN+3 (and ASEAN-Korea also) to ensuring peace, security, development and prosperity in the region, particularly to enhance good relationship between Korea-Laos and increase mutual trust, enhance cooperation and proliferation solidarity in the future.

According to the recently official visited of the high ranking official, Lao Prime Minister THAMMAVONG Thong-sing who the head of Lao government on 4-5 July 2012 was praised to the Korean leaders (President Lee Myung-bak who the head of Korean State and Government; Premier Kim Hwang-sik) for the friendly relations and cooperation between the two nations Korea and Laos. Representing the government and people of Laos, Mr. Thongsing THAMMAVONG was expressed gratitude to the government and people of Korea for their valuable assistance to the people of Laos.

The high priority of Lao government after established the new regime for 3 decades is always tried to eliminate poverty and to remove Lao PDR from the list of least developed countries (LDC) members in the year 2020 and utmost to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by 2015\(^2\), coming soon and ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) imminent in 31\(^{st}\) December 2015, and various

\(^{1}\)Establishment of Diplomatic Relations on Oct. 25, 1995.

\(^{2}\)Millennium Development Goals for Laos, there are 9 Goals, e.g. 1) Eradicate Poverty & Hunger; 2) Achieve Universal Primary Education; 3) Promote Gender Equality; 4) Reduce Child Mortality; 5) Improve Maternal Health; 6) Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and Other Diseases; 7) Ensure Environmental Sustainability; 8) Develop a Global Partnership for Development; [and] 9) Reduce the Impact of UXO.
challenges. However, the mean to achieve those objectives is to develop good guidelines and policies of public administration sectors and have to implement those policies properly. Therefore, good guideline and policies makers to carry out of Organization Development (OD) in public administration are urgently needed and also the most important is the implementation of those policies.

According to the 6th NSED plan (2006-2010), in 2006 Lao Government enacted the Government Priority Policy for 5 years term (2006-2010) there are 11 frameworks and 111 Programs, especially to the 11th framework was determined on Improve and enhancement of effectiveness on public administration especially to administrative organizations. To continue on implement government policy, therefore it necessary to my office might formulate soon and every public officer must pay attention and understand clearly on Organizational Development.

According to the 7th National Socio-Economic Development Plan (2011-2015) after initial Achievements of the Implementation of the 6th NSEDP (2006-2010) Lao government had achieved as many goals, which by some indicator, such as The average annual GDP growth has been 7.9%, the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) for five years amounted 219,795 billion Kip, which represents an annual average of 43,959 billion Kip (at constant price). The 7th NSEDP target of GDP growth rate at least 8% annually, reduce poverty, achievement of the MDGs, and construct basic infrastructure for industrialization and modernization in the time to come. A direction of the 7th NSEDP to achieve on public service was stipulated that “Increase enforcement and effectiveness of public administration, reform democratic state in the direction of rule of law, ensure equality and justice in society, fight corruption, increase savings, and reduce extravagance. A pay attention to address social challenges in a timely manner, allocates responsibilities, and identifies clear roles between the central and local levels authorities.”

2. The Purpose of Research

The purpose of this Thesis is to analyze the government organizational development in Korea and Laos since the establishment of the republic establishments respectively. The thesis analyzes on the public organizations and it aims to elicit policy lessons from the Korean experiences and provide implications. After research completed, this research should be explain clearly about the processes of the Public Organizational Development (POD) and from the good experience of Korea to be a guide book or matrix to other countries, particularly to Developing Countries, Landlocked Developing Countries (LLDCs), and Least Developed Countries (LDC) especially to Laos as well.

The Republic of Korea as a nation is typically given high priority for its performance, socio-economic growth and successful despite their leaderships in each term. Many scholars, staffs and I also believe those achievements has been very important from each presidency’s administration.

Korean public administration reform was introduced and implemented aims for POD to establish a more capable government, foster trustworthy civil servants, ensure a safe and secure society, realize an advanced knowledge-based information
3. A Discussion of Theory and Precedent Study Review

Since new theory, idea and concepts which related to the public service introduced, many countries also used, integrated, and developed. As well as, every government also desires to reform its inherited government.

Although facing many obstacles during reforming and it is not easy to accomplish the goal, government reform should be made or set up in all administrations by official agenda, linking it with other stakeholders, corporate sectors, financial institutions, and labor sectors.

From its inception, the Republic of Korea has gradually stabilized into a liberal democracy and has seen substantial development in education, economy, and culture. Since the 1960s, the country has developed from one of Asia's poorest to one of the highly industrialized nations, education, particularly at the tertiary level, and various developments have expanded dramatically. It is said to be one of the "Four Tigers" of rising Asian states along with Singapore, Taiwan and Hong Kong.

There are many radical conditions for a successful developmental state in Korea, although, there is a prior to being overthrown of some parties to who didn’t unanimous or didn’t agree with some President’s Administration, but the Republic of Korea under tenures of Presidents led Korea had one of the world's fastest-growing economies from the early 1960s to the late 1990s, then, South Korea is still one of the fastest-growing developed countries in the 2000s up to the present time.

During 6 decades, Republic of Korea lifted itself from poverty to affluence and developmental state, Korean Public Administration Reformed was introduced and implemented aims for POD to establish a more capable government, foster trustworthy civil servants, ensure a safe and secure society, realize an advanced knowledge-based information society, etc.

Laos is still a poor country; Lao government is stressing the importance of foreign investment (for the nation’s economic development) due to given Laos’ economic condition and policies, it’s also necessary to efficient public management to upgrade Laos to the modern era.

Thus, Lao government should learn from history lesson and new lesson from other countries on organizational development or related to public administration reform such as: Organization analysis, objective, criteria, benefits, content, processes and using tools and techniques for organizational analysis. Good and bad lessons on organizational development from other countries in order to develop our country alongside with socio-economic development based on the geographical, social and economic characteristics of the country.

In the global tendency, all levels of government and state, seeking to reduce the state’s budgets, have begun turning to provided better services, more convenient
in management and developed government organizations, sparked from the central to local authorities.

Organization Development was initiated focuses on identifying the behavioral interactions and patterns that cause and sustain problems; the organization development encompasses the actions involved with applying the study of behavioral science to organizational change. It covers a wide array of theories, processes, and activities, all of which are oriented toward the goal of improving individual organizations. Organization development process aims at creating a behaviorally healthy organization, arranges people and jobs anticipate and prevent problems; from the concept of Organization Development had transformed to the public sectors in particularly organizational restructuring, which refers to the way that public organizations can be determine to established, that assign responsibilities for various functions aims to good performed, problems-solved, and its goals can be met as well.

In the way of research, I’d like to research on Korean public administration reform, which theories were used from the organization development perspective, or any principle for incentive policy of the government was scrutinized, pondered and implemented? In this paper, we will know how the developments in public organizations in Laos, which rare legitimacy since established the republic up to the present, still there is no any legal to determine on setting-up or establish organizations based on standardize or conditions.

In particularly goal of this research, I’m going to analyze on the circumstances in the present time of the Korean administration which consists of 17 ministries (reshuffled in 2013), and the 21 ministries level which belong to the Lao governmental machinery (reshuffled in 2011) up to the present time, which one was the most reorganize in the central agencies of governments.

4. Motivation

When we have learned from the history, observed and researched on the public reform, every administration desires to reform its inherited government and have effort to transform into the reality situation of its countries, to achieve the goals or priorities as the main agenda. When I’ve read and aware to the Korean public organizations was improved, developed and mainly supported to the socio-economic development of as a whole of country. Therefore, I’d like to research, learn and examine in depth to the public affairs or public management. If the government desperately needs to build the competence to tackle even greater future challenges, the government requires is a new map for its future, drawn with coordinates based on the core values that the citizens expect from their government acted.

There are lots of the paradoxes of administration around the world, which also controversial issues related to the failure of government as big government, but lack effective.
This is a great opportunity which the first time for my life in Korea and I have a chance to studied, improved and enhanced my knowledge in public administration matters, although broad studied and short time in Korea, but I’m always impress with many thing about Korea, especially when I’ve known the Korean model on development; from the rags and hopeless in history during colonial by Japanese troop since 1910 (or Japanese domination ‘Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere’), and Korean war 1950-1953. But, after chaos and turmoil Korea was one of the poorest 25 countries in the world in 1960 (which ranked Korea at 101 out of 125 member countries); Its Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita was just $82, in 1960 prices (and according to the World Bank’s statistics, Korea’s per capita GNP was a mere $89 in 1961). After five decades of rapid growth, Korean GDP based on purchasing-power-parity (PPP) per capita estimate in 2013 around $33,000, according to the International Monetary Fund (IMF). The international community called Korea’s remarkable development a miracle on the Han River; Korean economy is heavily dependent on international trade, and in 2010 South Korea were the 6th largest exporter and 10th largest importer in the world; and recently E-Government Survey 2012 (e-Government for the People) Korea maintains its position in the 1st place since 2010 as achieving the greatest e-government both in development and participation indices [1]. But in contrast, Laos economy receives development aid from the IMF, ADB and other international sources; and also foreign direct investment (FDI) for development of the society, industry, hydropower, mining, etc. and also relation to the public administration matters.

The radical motivation for research is the desire to research on Korean public administration reform, since ancient time, humiliation of colonization by Japanese Empire in the early 20th century, and after protectorates in 1945, in addition, turmoil and deconstructed from Korean War, Resurrection the nation, and then affluent to the present-day; which theories were used? Or any Model/factor/principle for incentive strategy of the government was scrutinized, pondered, and implemented? After skimmed SNU Professor Chung In-heung’s Text Book on Public Administration, and his affluences in Korean Public Administration [2], In the one hand, I’d like to learn how to develop public organizations in Laos in the future. Thus, it’s most important for me to learn in-depth on the experiences of Korea on this area.

After research, I’ve utmost and left no stone unturned to find the solution, which vary appropriate directions setting of the reform in Korea, started with the orientation of the reform, which must be aligned within national priorities, basic reform idea was to streamline the roles of the government. Matters such as privatization, regulation reform, and the reduction of government staff and budget were main agendas. Consequent from research, government should utmost to restructuring, or machinery to achieve the national agenda and to strengthen the new administration strengthens government’s capacity by streamlining government organizations; efforts to abolish and eliminate the central administrative agencies (ministries, committees, commissions, boards, councils), try to transform and using
ICT should be implement for convenient administration, transparency and efficiency. Then, try to find the better solution for devolution to the local levels, where services citizens.

5. Research Subjects (Research Hypothesis) and Research Method

The research will use the inductive research strategy. It will collect data related to certain concepts, it will produce limited generalization, and it will search for patterns in the data. Given the nature of the research questions, a choice must be made between the inductive and adductive research strategy. During research, multi-questionnaires, interview face to face and interview through various Medias are also included.

Limitations, due to many obstacles, during I’ve spent my life in Korea quite short and my own knowledge which related to Korea almost rare, thus it’s always challenge and tough for me to learn and collect data on Korean public administration, due to many factors.

Research Feature and Structure, the structure of this paper consists of 6 chapters, within the chapters; structure is kept minimal which makes it at times hard to follow. Historical facts are at times repeated over and over again. Each chapter tried to elaborate, e.g. Following to the introduction in the Chapter I which consists of background of research and key questions; then Chapter II, which Literature Review on POD concept in general, respective Korea and Laos, then organizational development perspective to government restructuring; from Chapter III to Chapter V which summaries of the public organizations restructuring of Korea and Laos since birth of the state (Republic regime) up to the present time; Method, Research Survey, and Result Interpretations in Chapter VI; [and] the last Chapter (Ch. VII) is Conclusion and Recommendations, which the conclusion chapter is repeats the essence of mostly principles which related to the POD characteristics, factors, and various trends.
Chapter II

Literature Review on Public Organizational Development

1. General

Since after World War II in 1945, there are many countries, which tried to rebuild the state to be stable development, secure society, and also aspiration for strong in power. Legitimate states that govern effectively and dynamic industrial economies are widely regarded today as the defining characteristics of a modern nation state. Ever since Western countries developed such political economies a few centuries back, those left behind sought to catch up [3].

Jones and Baumgartner was suggested to the public administration finds itself in an era of government by performance management, which is reflected in the widespread assumption that management is a key determinant of performance, and that it is reasonable to expect managers to measurably improve organizational effectiveness[ 4 ]. The core idea is that management matters in policy implementation, but its impact is often nonlinear. One way that public managers can make a difference is by leveraging resources and buffering constraints in the program context.

Modeling and Measuring Public Management [5] is very interesting and original recent approach to analyzing public sector leadership and management and variations related to it involves the development of a formal model and efforts to test the model with empirical data. Kenneth Meier and Laurence O’Toole have developed and tested a model of the impact of public management on organizational performance. One of their focal questions, whether or not “management matters,” has been a difficult issue in all management settings for a long time [6]. The Public Management is presented as more crucial in networks than in more structured hierarchies. Management influences organization performance by 1) creating structure for the organization and thus system stability, 2) buffering the organization from environmental influences, and 3) exploiting opportunities in the environment.

Shafritz Jay and Russell Edward were reiterated that the Cycles of Administrative Reform also occurs, in accordance to the longshoreman philosopher Eric Hoffer wrote that “the nature of a society is largely determined by the direction in which talent and ambition flow-by the tilt of the social landscape.” Public administration has certainly been tilted about in recent decades. When John F. Kennedy in his 1961 inaugural address told Americans to “ask what you can do for your country,” millions responded by aspiring to public service careers-many of which were made possible by the Great Society programs of the ensuing Johnson administration. This idealistic surge came to a screeching halt with the unpopularity of the Vietnam War and the scandal of Watergate. And when Ronald Reagan was twice elected while effectively running against the federal bureaucracy, there seemed to be little hope for a resurgence of interest in public administration. In his first inaugural address in 1981, Reagan asserted that “government is not the solution to our problem. Government is the problem” [7, p. 29-30].

The Developmental State is shorthand for the seamless web of political, bureaucratic, and moneyed influences that structures economics life in capitalist Northeast Asia. This state form originated as the region’s idiosyncratic response to
a world dominated by the West, and despite many problems associated with it, such as corruption and inefficiency, today state policies continue to be justified by the need to hone the nation’s economic competitiveness and by a residual nationalism (even in the contemporary context of globalization) [8].

According to Kohli's sampled case studies on the type of states was divided by 3 ideal-type categories of states such as cohesive-capitalist states, fragmented-multiclass states, and neo-patrimonial states [3]. Those ideal-type categories (though some have come close to one or another), and, in addition, that states tended at different times with varying governments and regimes to different categories. Nevertheless, another academia pointed 3 types of states in politics comparative perspective consists of centralized state, federal state and confederation state [9].

Up to the present time, Kohli's concept of state categories does not exceedingly differ from Peter Evans's theory of developmental states which classifies states according to their ability to act as agents of societal transformation and growth. The concept of the cohesive-capitalist state seems to be comparable to Evans's developmental state [10]. A developmental state is characterized by having strong state intervention, as well as extensive regulation and planning.

Although differ types, but also developed as in this classic essay, such Alexander Gerschenkron has concluded the “Economic backwardness in historical perspective”, the industrialization of France, Germany and Soviet (Russia)-following “the road which England began to tread at an earlier time” and he says about ‘Ideologies of Displayed Industrialization’: To break through the barriers of stagnation in a backward country, to ignite the imaginations of men, and to place their energies in the service of economic development, a stronger medicine is needed than the promise of better allocation of resources or even of the lower price of bread [11].

Bureaucracy is its severe rational modernism (formally begins with Max Weber 1864–1920), there are multitudes of synonym. These synonyms include public administration, public management, public service, and governance or policy implementation. The rise of the state paralleled the rise of the bureaucracy. One of the philosophers of the modern economizing state and the modern bureaucratic idea is Adam Smith (1723–1790).

Public sector organizations are fundamentally core of a nation approaches to the public interests, due to public organizations is a material of administrators, local authorities, and political leaders uses like instruments for implement government’s agendas, private sectors with social changes’ requirements, and external obligations.

Because public administration is what a state does, it is both created and bound by an instrument of the law. Public Administration is Law in Action: Public administration is inherently the execution of a public law. Every application of a general law is necessarily an act of administration, as well as the administration cannot exist without the legal [7, p. 11-12]. And also Public Administration is implementing the Public Interest; due to the public interest is the universal label in which political actors wrap the policies and programs that they advocate [7, p. 9-10].

Public management is about making sure that the resources available are used as effectively as possible to realize state policy goals. It was only as belief in
hierarchy declined and belief in markets swelled that public management got separated from public administration. As hierarchy fell out of favor, so did a view of public administration as based on external oversight and rule-bound organizations. Policy-makers adopted market-based reforms in an attempt to downsize government and to make what remained more efficient. These market-based reforms coalesced in the new public management and, in the USA, the reinventing government movement [12, p. 59].

The new public management spread unevenly [12, p. 60]. It was most prominent in Anglophone countries—Australia, Britain, New Zealand, and the USA. Even there, however, it did not follow any one pattern. In the USA many of the reforms arose gradually across different states and federal agencies. The reforms then accelerated under President Reagan and the reinventing government movement; the Reagan administration spread the use of contracting to devolve service delivery to third parties. In Britain the reforms were almost entirely the top-down affairs, stemming from legislation and policy initiatives under the Thatcher governments. In both the U.S.A. and Britain the process of reform continued after the neoliberal government of Ronald Reagan and Margaret Thatcher had ended. Elsewhere the introduction of the new public management has generally been more piecemeal and less ideologically driven. Indeed, there is some scholarly debate about the reasonableness of treating the new public management as a global movement as opposed to one limited to Anglophone states.

Since the 1980s the word ‘governance’ has become ubiquitous. Newspapers bemoan crumbling standards of corporate governance. The European Union issues White Papers on Governance. Climate changes and avian flu appear as issues of global governance. The U.S. Forest Service calls for greater collaborative governance. New theories and practices have drawn attention away from the central institutions of the state and towards the activity of governing, and much of the activity of governing now involves private and voluntary organizations as well as public ones [12, p. 1]. Governance refers, therefore, to all processes of governing, whether undertaken by a government, market, or network, whether over a family, tribe, formal or informal organization, or territory, and whether through laws, norms, power, or language. Governance differs from government in that it focuses less on the state and its institutions and more on social practices and activities.

Above the state, there are international relations. Yet ‘global governance’ now challenges ‘international relation’ as the preferred moniker for politics above the state. Here the term ‘global governance’, like ‘governance’ generally, has a broad theoretical and a narrower empirical meaning. In theoretical debates global governance offers a new way of thinking about international relations almost exclusively in terms of sovereign state [12, p. 80].

Global governance also draws attention to the diverse objects that may be subject to rule in world politics. When realists and liberals concentrate on the anarchic nature of the international system, they imply that the more or less sole aim of international relations is to prevent war; the point of international institutions is to secure peace. In contrast, social scientists now suggest that global governance addresses diverse transnational problems. Global governance seeks not only to prevent and limit war but also to manage the global commons, to promote development, and to regulate global financial markets [12, p. 83].
Good governance depends on balancing powers. Not only must separate branches of government keep one another in check. Civil society must be in a position to monitor and challenge state action, and government agencies must limit the influence of big business. Improving governance must remain high on the national and international agendas.

2. Literature review on Korea

Korea has long history, since Gojoseon dynasty in 2333 B.C. \(^{13}\), till Goryeo was replace by the Joseon Dynasty in 1388 by military strength, it was the principal factor that enable Yi Song-gye to established a new dynasty and become its ruler (as King Taejo, 1392-1398). By the late 19th century, the country became the object of the colonial designs of Japan. In 1910, Korea was annexed by Japan and remained a colony, until the end of World War II in August 1945\(^3\).

Korea in the aftermath of the Japanese occupation of Korea which ended with Japan's defeat in World War II in 1945, Korea was divided at the 38th parallel north in accordance with a United Nations arrangement, to be administered by the Soviet Union in the north and the United States in the south.

The U.S.S.R. (Soviet Union) and U.S. (America) were unable to agree on the implementation of Joint Trusteeship over Korea. This led in 1948 to the establishment of two separate governments, each claiming to be the legitimate government of all of Korea. Eventually, following the Korean War, the two separate governments stabilized into the existing political entities of North and South Korea.

After separated, then formally begins with the establishment of the Republic of Korea (South Korea) on 15th August 1948, South Korea's subsequent history is marked by alternating periods of democratic and autocratic rule. Civilian governments are conventionally numbered from the ① Syngman Rhee as the First President of Republic of Korea (1948–1960); ② Yun Bo-seon (1960-1962); ③ Park Chung-hee (1963-1979); ④ Choi Kyu-hah (1979-1980); ⑤ Chun Doo-hwan (1980-1988); ⑥ Roh Tae-woo (1988-1993); ⑦ Kim Yong-sam (1993-1998); ⑧ Kim Dae-jung (1998-2003); ⑨ Roh Moo-hyun (2003-2008); ⑩ Lee Myung-bak (2008-2013) \(^{14, p. 205}\), and Madame Park Geun-hye\(^4\) (February 25, 2013 up to present).

2.1. Developmental state model

Referring to ideal types, Kohli identified 3 historical patterns of how state authority is organized and used in the developing world, neopatrimonial state, fragmented-multiclass states, and cohesive-capitalist states \[^{3, p. 9}\].

The Republic of Korea is an exemplar of cohesive-capitalist state represent, Korea with a strong, centralized government and is organized along a professional and meritocratic bureaucracy. The state in this example is insulated from any elite or popular interests, utilizes nationalism to mobilize support and to overcome fragmentation within the population.

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\(^{3}\)I interviewed Professor Oh Soon-chang, Political History of Korea, Department of Korean History, College of Humanities, Seoul National University on 28 May 2013.

\(^{4}\)President-elect Park Geun-hye, daughter of the late President Park Chung-hee, the third President of the Republic of Korea.
cooperates closely with businesses and investors, and intervenes heavily in the economy to enforce a rapid industrialization process.

The cohesive-capitalist state ideal between understanding of Kohli and Evans's development state as follows: "Political capacities are rooted not in the levels of information exchanged between state and business [as in Evans's developmental state] but in the amount of power the states command to extract resources, to define priority areas of expenditure, and to instill a sense of discipline and purpose in society". The discipline refers to materializes in the "control of labor, downward penetration of state authority so as to silence opposition and control behavior, and nationalist mobilization so as to put a peacetime economy on a war-time footing" [3, p. 385] and becomes more explicit in outlining what it takes to be a cohesive-capitalist state: "systematic labor repression which generally kept wage gains well behind productivity gains as workers were mobilized to work hard in the name of the nation" [3, p. 392].

Melber Henning pointed to the Developing countries in general often were ruled in so called developmental states by colonial countries and later by authoritarian regimes after the independence, that they needed good governance more than those structures [15]. Korea is Cohesive-capitalist states represent as a developmental state and entered to the rich man club OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development) in 1996.

Academic ideas about wicked problems also inspired policy shifts at the global level. In 2005 the OECD established Principles for Good Engagement in Fragile States. The Principles highlighted the importance of developing coherent programs to span the administrative, economic, political, and security domains. The OECD created a new group to develop an explicit ‘whole-of-government’ approach [12, p. 34].

2.2. Administration reform

Administrative reform (AR), or sometimes Administrative Reform Committee (ARC), many scholars have referred to the fact that governments confront multiple internal challenges such as fiscal stress, distrust of bureaucracy, and higher demands for public services [16]. Externally, governments become more sensitive to global issues and tend to be more influenced by international environments [17]. Faced with internal and external challenges, governments seek new paradigms for governance [18] and often initiate AR aimed at enhancing governmental performance and improving the administrative system through technological advances, managerial improvements, administrative innovations and continued enhancement of administrative capabilities [19 and 20]. Administrative reform and its diffusion among Western countries are well documented in the literature [21, 22, 23 and 24].

Although AR are skewed toward Western countries and little attention has been paid to Asia. Many Asian countries (including Republic of Korea) have developed their own AR trajectories to improve public efficiency and productivity [25 and 26]. Administration in a developing society has at least three analytically distinguishable dimensions: (1) technical, (2)
Development administration is primarily concerned with the programmatic dimension, with related interest in the political dimension. Thus, in terms of required knowledge it must cover a broader scope than traditional public administration, which has to operate within a more or less established sociopolitical framework. Development administration must have some distinct operational thrusts in order to initiate and effect desired changes. As the introduction and management of change are the essence of development, the appreciation of innovation and reform becomes the leitmotif of development administration in operational terms. These are cutting edges with which development administration addresses itself to the substantive areas mentioned above: policy formulation and planning, management of development programs and projects, conduct of administrative reforms, and institution building. These are the key functions of development administration. In contrast to traditional administration, in each of the processes emphasis is placed on values and goals, initiative and motivations, resource mobilization, and support cultivation.

Sociologists view society as advancing from a simple to complex state through a process of differentiation and adaptation. The sociology of development concern identifying and analyzing the social, cultural, and psychological changes associated with economic development and industrialization in term of such dimensions as social values (communally oriented values versus individualistic achievement-oriented values), social organization (extended family versus nuclear family), occupational structure, social class and social mobility, urbanization, and communications, these represent a relatively conventional set of dimensions. Another strand of sociological theory has focused more directly on the relations between social groups and between societies, on such issues as social cohesion and social conflict, and on the capacity of society to integrate and organize the interests and pressures of different social groups [28].

The former government of President Kim, Young-sam in 1993 launched government reforms responding to this demand. At that time government reform drives focused on administrative simplification and deregulation on business activities reflecting the progress of democratization and economic liberalization. To do so, several reform bodies, such as the Presidential Commission on Administrative Reform, the Economic Deregulation Committee, the Industrial Deregulation Committee and Meeting on Regulatory Reform were established from 1993 to 1997.

These reform bodies were on the ad hoc and advisory basis. The Presidential Commission on Administrative Reform dealing with a wide range of reform issues including deregulation was the most active. All members of the Commission were composed of civilian experts from university professors, economic researchers, press media, trade union and civic group. It was a good model to establish a partnership with the private sector in conducting government reform. However, its authority depended on political influence rather than on a legislative authority. A sound institution for regulatory reform was not established yet [29].
Reform bodies handling deregulation were duplicated and divided so that the focus and responsibilities were diffused and inconsistent. The degree of reform on economic regulations was not intensive. Excessive regulatory intervention was not tackled effectively. Regulations on pricing, financial systems, real estate were regarded as sacred, leaving untouched unless national policy objectives were changed. Government capacities to deal with regulatory reform programs, systematically and comprehensively were not good enough. Korea’s public system is based on a merit system wherein recruitment is based on the civil service examination and career advancement through merit-based and length of service as actively pursued [30].

In 2006 the Korean government launched the Senior Civil Service system. Some specified (around 30%) of position under the system are filled by outside appointments or through open recruitment.

Korea has overcome numerous crises has achieved both industrialization and democratization. This can be attributed to the strong will of the people and to Korean people’s passion for learning and education. With this back drop, the Korean government has promoted various personnel policy changes and implemented an improved system for public human resource management.

With regard to public human resource management, first, the Korean government has promoted openness and introduced an element of competition within the public sector. While making for defects in the former rank-in-person system, the new system aims at recruiting outstanding talents and experts from both the private and public sectors. Next, for the promoting and diversity within the public service, emphasis is placed on recruiting socially disadvantage or underrepresented groups such as women and citizens from local areas. Third, the government launched the Senior Civil Service System. Under the new system, senior officials belong to an expanded government-wide pool and more emphasis is placed on competition and performance management. Fourth, the Korean government continues its efforts to link with performance. As parts of these efforts, the government created a performance agreement system and is working hard to nurture a performance culture. In parallel, we plan to increase the performance related portion of total pay. In short, these efforts are directed at incorporating the merit system principle in human resource management.

2.3. Governance

Since the governance concept has been introduced and many developing countries (including Republic of Korea during 1980s) also discussed, applied and succeeded in various states, and of course Republic of Korea was achieved as well.

The question under discussion among countries, regions and international arena such as: What is the governance? The concepts of governance was developed, suggested and promoted by the World Bank in term of good governance which aims at enhance the quality of life in developing countries via healthy and stable governance systems where transparency and accountability are secured and advanced. How is
government different from governance? And, why do people emphasize the notion of governance? There has been a great shift from government to governance as the inter-sectoral collaboration among public, private, and nonprofit sectors become more important and critical to the delivery of public services.

Korean government cannot make policies and deliver public services by themselves. Many social actors such as private companies and nonprofits organizations are inevitably involved in delivering public service. For example, many social programs are not necessarily administered by governments but often outsourced and contracted out to nonprofit organizations [31]. The government was literally the planner of development in Korea (planning and deciding) what, when and how much to produce. Big, businesses have had to come to terms with the expanded role of the state in Korea. Thus, in 1980 Jones and Sakong argued that the crowning function of the private entrepreneur is “lenticular,” meaning “the pure Schumpeterian functions of combination,” and the functions the entrepreneur must combine or coordinate include that of dealing with the government [32].

Korean administrative influence in policy making has remained remarkable, the administrative role was especially crucial in the early days of nation building for the republic of Korea that come into being in 1848, but it has been weakened with the course of social diversification and influence of ever-deepening political clout on bureaucracy. Nonetheless, public administration still remains a dominant force in the process of deciding important policies. In particular, through the course of binding the bureaucracy and private firms together in early industrialization, public administration served as a key force for competitive success to speed up industrialization. Public administration was literally the kingpin in nation building. Major development projects involving private firms occurred within the framework of administrative criteria put forth through public administration, engineered by bureaucratic elites [33].

The role played by public administration in transforming modern Korea was exquisitely portrayed by Amsden in 1989 [34], who documents how Korea has become to be a major factor in the world economy. Referring to the general trend in nation building, in 1997 Cho Yoon-je [35] cites Korea as a country where government intervention in the market, especially in financial markets, was extensive, and where substantial economic rent was created and allocated in the course of economic development.

Korean government restructuring

Since established the Republic of Korea up to the present, the Korean government had changed in the structure, machinery and management (see table below) during each Korean president’s tenure.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>year</th>
<th>Ministry</th>
<th>Authority</th>
<th>Commission</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1948</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1955</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The six decades of institutionalization can be characterized, based on the central agencies’ proportion of the total administrative apparatus, into three phases: high (more than 35 percent, 1948-1961), middle (around 20 percent, 1962-2007), and low (about 10 percent, 2008-present). Regardless of the changing size and organizational configuration of the central agencies, however, their roles and influence as core executive apparatuses have remained largely unchanged, especially since the early 1960s. More than 67 percent, on average, of the heads and deputy heads of CAs have been former public servants, less than 18 percent have been former politicians, and about 15 percent have been former outside experts. This strong bureaucratic background has oriented Korea’s core executive policy direction significantly toward long-term, consistent, and plan rationality rather than short-term, flexible, and democratic responsiveness [36].

The characteristics of the Korean institutions, so-called Korean state administration is the significant development of central agencies (CA). A number of CA, with the title of board, ministry, agency, or office have been organized or reorganized under the president or the prime minister, and have effectively supported presidential leadership since the foundation of the Republic up to the present.

Although, differentiates the central agencies from the Presidential Secretariat, which has also been significantly developed as another important part of Korea’s core function on behalf of the equipment or tool for executive in Republic of Korea.

Since established republic up to the present, there are 3 stages which Korean government reorganized, such as: The first stage is from the late 1940s to the 1950s, when the government sought to institutionalize a ‘modern bureaucratic state administration’, but in reality the goal was difficult to be achieved because of a wide variety of poor surroundings of the time. The second is from the 1960s to the 1980s, when substantial efforts were invested for the institutionalization of a modern bureaucratic state administration, but resulted in being significantly different from the Weberian ideal type [37]. The third is from the late 1980s to the present, when the previous four decades’ efforts both nominal and substantial to institutionalize a modern bureaucratic state administration were revised and replaced by reform efforts to introduce a de-bureaucratized democratic state administration [38].

During the economic crisis, there are well-known about the New public management (NPM) [39] has its root in administrative reform by the Anglo-Saxon
countries in the 1980s, This led to reinventing government in the United States, accepted by international organizations, such as the UN, World Bank and the OECD [40]. Experiences in government reform not only in the U. K. and the U. S., but also in New Zealand and Australia resulted in the NPM or the New Public Management Movement overwhelming major advanced countries, especially the United Kingdom [41]. NPM, which a term was referred by Hood in 1991 [42] and described from scholars in 1996 [43] has affected public sector reform (PSR) in many countries, and in Korea is not an exceptional case in the mounting managerial reform wave, Republic of Korea has partially adopted the NPM philosophy and has taken various reform initiatives for PSR under the Kim Dae-jung’s administration, and he has addressed PSR as one of the four major sectors (financial, corporate, labor, public) where the administration decided to introduce aggressive reforms to cope with the financial crisis which were occurring during his administration.

Summary of Korean government since established republic up to the present is as follow

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Presidents</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Ministry</th>
<th>Agency, Admin, or Outer-Bureau</th>
<th>Commission or Committee*</th>
<th>Total (Number of Cabinet Members)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rhee Syngman (1948-1960)</td>
<td>1948</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18 (13+1**)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1949</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>21 (14+1**)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1955</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>21 (13)</td>
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<tr>
<td>John Myun Chang# (1960-1961)</td>
<td>1960</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20 (13+1**)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military Junta (1960-1961)</td>
<td>1961</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>24 (15)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1962</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>24 (16)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Park Chung-Hee (1963-1979)</td>
<td>1963</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>32 (17+2**)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1966</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>35 (17+2**)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1967</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>36 (18+2**)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1968</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>37 (19+2**)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1970</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>39 (19+2**)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1973</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>41 (19+2**)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1975</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>42 (19+2**)</td>
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<td>1976</td>
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<td>41 (19+2**)</td>
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<td>1977</td>
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<td>43 (20+2**)</td>
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<td>1978</td>
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<td>44 (20+2**)</td>
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<td>1979</td>
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<td>45 (20+2**)</td>
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<td>1981</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>41 (21+1**)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1982</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>17</td>
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<td>42 (22+1**)</td>
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<td>1983</td>
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<td>17</td>
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<td>43 (22+1**)</td>
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<td>1986</td>
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<td>41 (22+1**)</td>
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<td>2007</td>
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<td>2008</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: National Legal Information Center.
http://www.law.go.kr (Korean).

Notes: *: Only law-based ‘administrative committees or commissions’ with independent organizational infrastructure, excluding various types of advisory committees;
**: Ministers without portfolio, and;
#: Prime Minister under the parliament government system.

3. Literature Review on Laos

Laos has been known since ancient times, traces its history of neighboring countries (China, Burma or Myanmar, Thailand[44], Cambodia, and Vietnam)[45]. Laos was once of the ancient state, rulers by Laotians, since before Anno Domini, when Aiy-Lao (Lao)[46], Tai [47], etc. many kingdoms was founded but no longer, till the Kingdom of NanZhao “南詔, or 대리국”[48] was founded by the King Sinulo, and latter flourished during the King Khun Bôrom’s polity [49, 50, and 51], there are 9 Ministries “部, or กระทรวง, or _gain”[52] in palace [53, p. 10-21], but again was invaded by Chinese [54], Aiy-Lao, Tai, and other tribes started migrated to explored the new territory, avoids invasion, and begin the new life with a sophisticated heritage [55], 8th century Laotian King Khun Lô founded the Kingdom of XiengDong-XiengThong (now is Luang Prabang) is often attributed to its crucial role in the region, while the rise of was unified many small cities surrounded became one Lao Realm in 1353 A.D. King Fa Ngum the Great “ພຣະເຈົ້າພຣະອານິນ ສົມມືນະຫາຣາຊ”[56] founded the Kingdom of Lân Xāngh [57] ‘瀾沧王國’ (existed from the 14th to the 18th century)[58] in the, named LaneXang Kingdom or Land of the Million Elephants [59] (米哈尼哈納 in Pali, Royaume du Million d'Éléphants et du
Parasol Blanc in French [60]; พระพุทธเจ้าวันถาวรในลาว in Lao) [61]. King Fa Ngum’s Administration consists of 10 Ministries of Grand Council [53, p. 23-31]. In 1893, it became a French protectorate [62].

After centuries of gradual decline, Laos came under the domination of Siam (or Thailand in present) from the late 18th century until the late 19th century, during Auguste Jean-Marie Pavie, who accompanied by his assistants, would explore the whole Indochinese Peninsula "Missions Pavie", then Laos became part of French Indochina in 1893 [63]. The Franco-Siamese Treaty of 1907, and 1914 defined the current Lao border with Siam [64]. 1930 France officially designates Laos as a French colony, and during 1940-1945 all Lao territories west of the Mekong (17 Provinces) are given to Siam (so-called Isän “ภาคตะวันออกเฉียงเหนือ” up to the present) [65].

It briefly gained independence in 1945 after Japanese occupation during World War II, but returned to French rule until it was granted autonomy, the country declared its independence on 12 October 1945, Kingdom of Laos was a sovereign state under Monarchs (King Sisavang Vong, latter King Sisavang Vatthana) and administrative by the Royal Government of Laos (RGL) [66] with multiple political parties from 15 September 1945 led by Prince Phetsarath Rattanavongsa or Somdej Chao Maha Oupahat Phetsarath Rattanavongsa (Viceroy or Vice-King) [67] who was the First Prime Minister of the Royal Laos Kingdom [68,69, and 70] (since 1942, but officially from 15 September to 14 October 1945) which consists of 11 Ministries [53, p. 45]. But the French under Charles de Gaulle re-asserted control, Laos’ first French-written and monarchical constitution was promulgated on May 11, 1947 and declared it to be an independent state within the French Union [71]. The military defeat of French from the region and was followed by elections under the Lao monarchy. In 1950 Laos was granted semi-autonomy as an "associated state" within the French Union. France remained in de facto control until 22 October 1953, when Laos gained full independence as a constitutional monarchy under King Sisavang Vong.

When the Vietnamese Military defeat of French at Điện Biên Phủ in 1954, then led to French had to withdraw from the region, alongside then, in 1955, the U.S. Department of Defense created a special Programs Evaluation Office to replace French support of the Royal Lao Army against the Pathet Lao.

In 1957, the constitution was revised, but was much the same as the first constitution, and removed reference to the French Union, though the country continued its close educational, health, and technical ties with the former colonial power. Successive national and right wing governments controlled most of the country with US backing in the years that followed, while the revolutionary Pathet Lao gathered strength in the northeastern and eastern regions. The victory of communist forces in Vietnam and Cambodia was followed by the victory of the LPRP, who removed the Lao monarchy and allies from power and established the Lao People’s Democratic Republic in 1975.

On December 02, 1975, Laos gained liberty from the United States protectorate and built a new regime, the so-called People’s Democracy regime, lead by the 1st President SOUPHANOUVONG “พระท ($(Chao) Sουprasün” (former Prince “พระอากาศเจ้าสูนาน”of Laos Realm) and the 1st Prime Minister PHOMVIHANE
Kaysone of Lao PDR “نهائتاوةมีดี ROLSAM มีอิทธิยาท” . A gradual return to private enterprise and the liberalization of foreign investment laws began in 1986 and opened the country to international relations. Then, Laos became a member of ASEAN on July 23, 1997, other parties’ member of the world over the years, and recently the World Trade Organization (WTO) approved Laos as a member in 26 October 2012, then Laos became a WTO member (according to the WTO issued on 26 January) which a notice to declare the Lao PDR as the 158th full member of the WTO which is officially entered to the force on the 2nd February 2013.

As aforementioned, Lao P.D.R was established in 1975 as a sovereign state, the area of land is 236,800 km²; it is a landlocked country in the Southeast Asia, share borders with 5 countries:
– China to the North 417 Km;
– Vietnam to the East 1,957 Km;
– Cambodia to the South 493 Km;
– Thailand to the West 1,835 Km; [and]
– Myanmar to the Northwest 237 Km.

Laos has a multi-ethnic population of 6.38 million (2011) with a Growth rate of 2.1% (2009-2011), Total fertility rate (births per woman) 2.7 (2010), Age dependency ratio 62 (Number of persons aged <15 and ≥ 65 to Number of persons aged 15-54 years, %) in 2010 [72], over 70% of the population resides in rural areas (inhabitants), hence Laos has one of the lowest population densities in the region (27 people per Km²). The population consisting of 3.3 million females and 3 million males grew at 2.1% per annum during the previous decade. The age-pyramid of Lao PDR reflects a young population; about 40 percent of the population was below the age of 14 in 2005. Urban areas take up less than one percent of the total land area. About 70% of the country is mountainous; the rest of the country consists of the Mekong floodplains and other river valleys. Forest covers over a third of the country, making it one of the most heavily forested countries in the region. The population is predominantly located in rural areas (over 70%). The country has a multi-ethnic population; the census classifies them into 49 main ethnic groups [73].

Lao P.D.R (Laos) is also still being one of the Least Developed Countries (LDCs) in Southeast Asia in the present time; it is ranked 107 out of 134 countries in the Global Human Development Index 2011.

The economic status recently, according to the World Bank reported, despite seeing remarkable growth in recent years, the Lao economy was valued at just US$8 billion in 2011 and Laos with other 9 countries which has economic growth rapidly in the world, e.g. Mongolia, Libya, Iraq, Angola, Nigeria, China, Ethiopia, Rwanda and Laos; accordance to the IMF, Laos is on track to post an impressive 8.3 percent growth rate in 2012; and the majors economic and business publication such as the Economist Magazine and Wall Street Journal Magazine also cited Lao economy as fastest growing in the region. The report comes in the wake of the International Monetary Fund's (IMF) projection that economic growth in Laos is on track to reach 8.3 percent in 2012. Asian Development Bank recorded the GNI (per capita Gross National Income) US$ 1,040 by 2010, Annual real growth rate of Laos
7.5% by 2010, and 7.8% by 2011 of GDP; and Value added of Agriculture 1.0%, Industry 15.6%, and Services 7.9%.

Brief history of Lao Government Restructuring

Since established the Lao People’s Democratic Republic in the 2nd December 1975 up to the present, the Lao government had changed in the structure, machinery and management (ministry level as table below) during each Lao Prime Minister’s tenure.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Ministry</th>
<th>Council</th>
<th>PMO</th>
<th>Government’s Office</th>
<th>Committee</th>
<th>BOL</th>
<th>Authority, Agency, Academy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1975-1985</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986-1990</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991-2000</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001-2005</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006-2010</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011-present</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Remark: above number was counted specifically to the ministry level merely.

4. Organizational Development Perspective to Government Restructuring

The Organization Development (OD) emerged out of human relations studies from the 1930s where psychologists realized that organizational structures and processes influence worker behavior and motivation.

OD is a process of continuous diagnosis, action planning, implementation and evaluation, with the goal of transferring knowledge and skills to organizations to improve their capacity for solving problems and managing future change.

Kurt Zadek Lewin (1890-1947) was a German-American psychologist, known as one of the modern pioneers of social, organizational, and applied psychology. Lewin's work in the 1940s and 1950s also helped show that feedback was a valuable tool in addressing social processes; The general model of organizational change consisting of three phases, such as “unfreezing, change, and refreezing”; The results of his research and his team on Organization Development (OD) is a field of research, theory, and practice dedicated to expanding the knowledge and effectiveness of people to accomplish more successful organizational change and performance.

More recently, work on OD has expanded to focus on aligning organizations with their rapidly changing and complex environments through organizational learning, knowledge management and transformation of organizational norms and values.

Although many private sectors was implemented the OD for business improvement purpose, but there are many governments, particularly to the central
government, which spans the nation and therefore exercises more transformed to the reorganization purpose, solve problems in organizations and larger developed those idea to manages resources in government.

5. Public Organizational Development (POD)

The rapid growth in popularity of Organization Development (OD) approaches to planned organizational change has increased the need for assessing their impact. Although a few studies investigating the effects of OD are currently available, little systematic knowledge exists about this body of literature—its size, quality, or generalized findings. Many believe that virtually no research exists and that whatever does exists is not of sufficiently high quality to deserve the title “scientific” \[74\]. Further ambiguity manifests itself in a wide variety of generally unsubstantiated beliefs about the efficacy of OD: some believe that OD makes only people in the organization happier and more satisfied; other note that OD may result in changed individual behavior but will not improve the organization’s performance; others contend that OD’s main effects are felt only on groups, its typical focus.

Are these beliefs accurate or inaccurate? White’s and Mitchell’s \[75\] reviewed of OD literature and development of a system for classifying variables measured in OD research (analyses) since OD is in its infancy as discipline, theoreticians and practitioners have not yet agreed upon a universally acceptable definition. Most admit that it focuses on the “people variable” in organizations.

Since the OD theory was introduced in 1940s by Lewin Kurt (1898-1947) is widely recognized as the founding father of OD, although he died before the concept became current in the mid-1950s up to the present, and was transformed to use in many countries. The transformation process was organized according to Kotter’s Eight-Step Change Model the criteria are revised version of 8 steps of transformation, which was presented by Kotter in 1996 \[76\].

Organizational development is about the pursuit of human development. It is just that we have chosen to pursue this interest in human development in the venue of organizations, collectively in work getting done context. Organization growth likes people as follow: Child, Youth, Midlife and Maturity including many challenges to face and solve problems.

Organizational development is an attempt to increase an organization’s candidness and relevance. This in turn leads to development and reinforcement of strategies and structures that will improve effectiveness of an organization. Organization restructuring happens when the reporting hierarchy of a company changes. After organization restructuring certain groups will report to different departments, and some departments may be newly created or disappear altogether. If the organization chart has changed shape then organization restructuring has occurred. In the private sector: “There is no need for people to be hired or fired for a organization restructuring to happen, though organization restructuring is often a result of large layoffs. Often, organization restructuring is simply a euphemism for large-scale layoffs”.

Organization development does not prescribe any particular “style of leadership” other than an open and confronting one, which is anything but “permissive.” Nor does it imply a group consensus as the only form of decision-
making, though some writers (such as Blake and Mouton) certainly believe that consensus is a natural conclusion given training under the “Material Grid” orientation.

The basic value underlying all organization-development theory and practice is that of choice. Through focused attention and through the collection and feedback of relevant data to relevant people, more choices become available and hence better decisions are made. That is essentially what organization development is: an educational strategy employing the widest possible means of experience-based behaviour in order to achieve more and better organizations choices in a highly turbulent world [77].

In the behavioural science, and perhaps ideal, sense of the term, organization development is a long-range effort to improve an organization’s problem-solving and renewal processes, particularly through a more effective and collaborative management of organization culture with special emphasis on the culture of formal work teams with the assistance of a change agent, or catalyst, and the use of the theory and technology of applied behavioural science, including action research [78].

What is the meaning of organization exactly? But, readers may assume that organization meaning there are: group of people, system, structure, works, involve, duty, task, objective, target-aim, mechanism, relation-cooperation, coordinating, environment, etc.

Almost organizations (my own perception), organizations’ character should contain of various factors which readers may imagined, thought or illustrated of what meanings, when happens and how organization look like, some notions which I was tried to describe some characters, e.g. [79].

+ Division of work: Dividing the total work load in to tasks that can logically and comfortably be performed by individuals or groups;
+ Departmentalization: The grouping of employees and task in logical and efficient manner;
+ Organizational hierarchy: The linking of departments, created through the specification of who reports to whom in the organization;
+ Coordination: Setting up mechanism for integrating departmental activities into the coherent whole and monitoring the effectiveness of that integration;
+ Organizational structure (Organizational chart): Refer to the way in which an activity of organization are divided, grouped, and coordinated in to relationships between managers and employees, managers and manager, and employees and employees;
+ Organization environment learning: All elements outside the boundary of the organization inside country or abroad, that have the potential to affect all or part of the organizations, it can provides or gives that other new ideology, some information resources which also essentials to the public sectors inclusively, their processes, lesson from acting on its past or current operation, and should refreshes in the public administrations’ orbit, and etc.

Organization environment learning is a part of an outgoing process by which an organization adapts to the changing environment; openness to change significantly assists organizational learning by providing new ideas, methods and
multiple for managements. It requires efficient and timely evaluation as well as the management of its results.

Organization setting, Mostly of organization settings are as follow (Should be determined):
- Follow by Laws, rules, and other regulations;
- Follow by Resolution of the Ruling Party’s Directives;
- Follow by Decision of National Assembly, Parliament, or Resolutions;
- Follow by Government, Prime Minister, and Ministerial Committees;
- Follow by Reviewing of Socio-Economic Development of the country are needs;
- Follow by World Trends or Environment, Situation changes are needs.

Overlap which was introduce in 17th century up to the present, there are many governments still facing with the problem when the task or responsibilities was overlapped, overlap occurring in the various organizations, extend over jobs, imbricate work and cover a part of another careers.

Downsizing is means reducing in number or size: a corporation that downsized its personnel in response to a poor economy; dismiss or lay off from work: workers who were downsized during the recession; and to make in a smaller size: cars that were downsized during an era of high gasoline prices, such as To become smaller in size by reductions in personnel: Corporations continued to downsize after the economy recovered.

Bureau-shaping is a rational choice model of bureaucracy and a response to budget-maximization model. It argues that rational officials will not want to maximize their budgets, but instead to shape their agency so as to maximize their personal utilities from their work. For instance, bureaucrats would prefer to work in small, elite agencies close to political power centers and doing interesting work, rather than to run large-budget agencies with many staff but also many risks and problems. For the same reasons, and to avoid risks, the bureau-shaping model also predicts that senior government bureaucrats will often favor either 'agencification' to other public sector bodies (as in the UK 'Next Steps' program) or off-loading functions to contractors and privatization. In the health and social work fields officials will favor 'deinstitutionalization' and 'care in the community'. (The model was developed by Patrick Dunleavy from the London School of Economics in Democracy, Bureaucracy and Public Choice.

Central Agency (CA) is regarded as the organizations that conduct executive or administrative functions that the chief executive is in charge of, or as a “techno-structure” to support the “strategic apex” with standardizing organizational operations. Each CA carries out the standardization of core administrative functions that are essential to the operation of administrative apparatuses such as policy planning and coordination, budgeting, organizing, staffing, and managing the relationship between central and local government, legislation, public relations, controlling, and performance evaluation.

In the Western literature, CA which are defined as the “departments, agencies, and offices [that] perform the functions [which are] essential to co-ordination and control of bureaucracy throughout government” and “perform functions which directly affect all other government departments...often co-ordinate
the interdepartmental development of policy... frequently develop policies which other departments must follow, in fields such as expenditure control and personnel management... [And] often monitor the performance of other departments”. This definition implies that the CA includes all the core executive apparatuses.

Reorganization is the process of changing an organizational structure to meet different purposes or to meet the original purpose of the unit more effectively [82].

Although organization analysis which is important, Organizational development will has no meaning if we have no planning or action plan for implementation, processes and methods for monitoring and evaluation of organizational development various activities.
Chapter III
Public Organizational Development in Republic of Korea

The name "Korea" is derived from Goryeo, a dynasty which ruled in the middle Ages. Its neighbors are China to the west, Japan to the east, and North Korea to the north. At the end of World War II, August 15, 1945 Japan surrendered to the allies and withdrew from the Korean Peninsula, which Korea was then divided into North, and South Korea at the 38th parallel north in accordance with a United Nations arrangement, to be administered by the Soviet Union in the north and the United States in the south. An election was held the U.S. zone in 1948 which led to the creation of the Republic of Korea.

The Soviets and Americans were unable to agree on the implementation of Joint Trusteeship over Korea. This led in 1948 to the establishment of two separate governments, each claiming to be the legitimate government of all of Korea. Eventually, following the Korean War, the two separate governments stabilized into the existing political entities of North and South Koreas.

The Korean War began on June 25, 1950 (the war lasted three years and involved the U.S., China, the Soviet Union, and many other nations), the resulting war between the two Koreas ended with an Armistice Agreement in July 1953 [14, p. 186].

I. Establishment of the Republic

Republic of Korea (Korean: 대한민국, Chinese: 大韓民國, Lao: ສາທາລະນະລັດເທັກຊັ້ນ) or South Korea (남한) was established in the 15 August 1948. Republic of Korea redirects here, it is not to be confused with the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea (조선민주주의인민공화국).

On May 10, 1948, under the supervision of the UN Commission, general elections were held in the South. About twenty parties and independents competed for 200 available seats in the National Assembly. The results of the elections foreshadowed the highly uncertain future of the new nation. (As below)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Party or organization</th>
<th>Leader</th>
<th>Seats Elected</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National Society</td>
<td>Syngman Rhee</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean Democratic Party</td>
<td>Kim Sung-soo</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean Independence Party</td>
<td>Kim Ku</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nation Youth Corps</td>
<td>Lee Bum-suk</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other parties</td>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence</td>
<td></td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: The National Assembly, Kukhoe sipnyonji, 85.

None of the parties captured a majority of seats. Rhee’s National Society emerged as the largest group, but still won only fifty-five seats. What’s more, the

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5The 1948 constitution left 100 seats vacant in the assembly to be filled by North Korean representatives.
National Society was no more than a coalition of many different organizations, lacking the dynamics of a true political party. Although the Korean Democratic Party (KDP), whose base was the landed class and former Japanese collaborators, secured only twenty-nine seats, it was the only cohesive political group capable of exerting political power in the assembly. Many of the KDP members ran as independents: it was estimated that between seventy and eighty of the eighty-five independents elected were associated in some way with the KDP. Therefore, the KDP became the dominant group in the National Assembly. The National Assembly held its first session on May 31, 1948. Rhee was elected chairman by a vote of 189 to 8, with the understanding that he would be elected as the first president of a Republic of Korea [83, p. 39].

As the American military government had planned on vesting the new government with its powers on August 15, the assembly pushed ahead to form an official government with great haste. A draft constitution was prepared on July 12, and on July 17 Chairman Rhee signed the constitution as adopted by the National Assembly and on July 20, 1948 the 73 years old Rhee Syng-man was elected president. The president was given strong, independent powers, including broad emergency powers [83, p. 40].

II. Tasks and Challenges of State Building

In July 1948, shortly after the presidential election, Rhee began the task of forming his cabinet. The KDP asked the president to appoint Kim Sung-soo, the KDP leader, as prime minister and to award the KDP eight out of twelve cabinet posts. Rhee, however, was determined to be a national leader on a nonpartisan basis and for this reason he attempted to build his own power base. Rhee also believed that the KDP had alienated the public and was losing popular support because of its former ties with the Japanese and the American military government [84].

Rhee first choice for prime minister was Lee Yoon-yung, a young Methodist minister from North Korea and acting chairman of the Chosun Democratic Party. Lee was rejected by the National Assembly. A compromise was reached in the selection of General Lee Bum-suk, who has graduated from the Whampoa Military Academy in China and later became a friend of Chiang Kai-shek. General Lee had been head of the military unit that had operated under the Korean provisional government in China. Rhee hoped that General Lee would be able to secure international support for his government.

Most of Rhee’s cabinet appoints were leading figures associated with the independence movement, and all of them had been educated abroad: four in the United States, two in Europe, two in Japan, one in China, and one in USSR (Soviet Union). All had good educational backgrounds, and their qualifications seemed to the posts to which they had been appointed [85]. His cabinet appointments also appeared to be designed to consolidate internal and external support for the new government. To solidify domestic support, he appointed leaders of the National Youth Corps, the Korean Labor Union, and the Women’s Democratic Party. The first two of these groups were politically more powerful than any of political parties at that time. The appointment of a former Communist (Cho Bong-am) as agriculture minister and the attempt to appoint a North Korean
nationalist to the post of prime minister were also made with an eye toward international endorsement.

Only one ministerial position was given to the KDP. This defied the expectations of the KDP, which intended to grab all of the political power to itself, leaving the president as a mere figurehead. The KDP denounced Rhee’s cabinet appointments. The daily Donga Ilbo, representing the KDP, criticized Rhee for having “gathered around him a weak, poorly suited group.” [86] There was no doubt that most of the appointees lacked administrative experience. However, Rhee had virtually no reservoir of human resources from which to draw upon; the Korean who had administrative experience from the colonial period had served largely as low-level clerks.

On August 15, 1948, Rhee Syng-man was sworn in as the first president of the Republic of Korea. But the great goal of his life–restoration of the Korean state–was quite literally only-half-achieved. The president was seventy-three years old, an age that made him ripe for retirements, not leadership.

Despite the chaotic circumstances at the time, the coming of independence had a salutary and calming effect. Newspaper reported the ceremony with eloquence: “the Korean people in every village and hamlet enjoyed fully the glorious celebration of the fifteenth of August in an atmosphere filled with the auspicious signs permanently promising the future of the nation.” [87]

As the Jewish people had once looked to Moses, so now the Korean people looked to their new president for miracles. However, Rhee Syngman inherited a nation unmanageable even for an experienced and capable government. It is unlikely that any government could have adequately dealt with such a set of complex problems. State building in Korea was much more difficult than in other new nations, primarily owning to territorial partition and the consequential ideological confrontation. It was a nearly impossible task for the new and inexperienced government to build a nation out of chaos and dire poverty while at the same time giving “on-the-job-training” to twenty million independent-minded, frustrated, and war-impoverished people.

President Rhee lacked the institution, manpower, and resources to meet these challenges. The colonial institutions had been destroyed or discredited. He had to create new political and administrative institutions. Laws had to be enacted and administrative procedures developed. There was no established tradition to serve as a guide for planning, no procedure for administrative procedure. There were a very limited number of trained Koreans who knew how to manage the government and economy of a country. At that time no more than 25,000 Koreans had received any education beyond middle school. The president could not even secure his own assistants. As newcomers to government, leaders had to sort out their responsibilities and working relationships. Although high-level administrative structures were established, ministers and directors-general did not know how to manage their duties.

Rhee’s immediate focus was on the establishment of a defense infrastructure. On November 30, 1948, the Law for the Organization of the National Army was passed, the Korea constabulary was reorganized as the Army of the Republic of Korea, and the Coast Guard became the Navy. Rhee established and presided over the Military Security Committee, in which the defense minister,
army chiefs of staff, and the chief of the U.S. Military Advisory Group in Korea participated. The committee met every week and Rhee received reports on security matters and provided additional direction [88]. In August 1949, Rhee wrote a letter to American president Harry Truman requesting equipment for a 100,000-man military. Truman rejected the appeal. Thus, the South Korean forces had no heavy artillery, no tanks, no anti-tank weapons, no military aircraft as well as no training. In the opinion of one American military adviser, the Korean army in June 1949 “could have been the American army in 1775.” [89] By June 1950, the South Korean army had exhausted all of its spare parts. American military advisers in Korea estimated that 15 percent of the army’s weapons and 35 percent of its vehicles were unserviceable [90].

South Korea inherited a bankrupt economy. After nearly half a century of exploitive colonial economic policies, eight years of war as part of Japan, and Three years of American occupation, the Korean economy in the late 1940s was in tatters. The division of the country had dealt an additional blow to the economy; the South lost heavy industries, major coal deposits, and almost all power capacity. Mines, factories, and farms were in disorder and disrepair, lacking equipment and technicians. At the time the total power-generating capacity of South Korea was some 80,000 KW, enough to supply electricity to one large factory.

The government had to supply necessities for about 30 percent of its population: three and a half million Koreans, returning from Japan, China, Siberia, or fleeing from the North, were without food, clothing, or shelter. In addition, more than 2.4 million people were in need of assistance in maintaining their livelihoods as of March 1949 [91]. Since rural areas were inhospitable to newcomers, most refugees settled in urban areas, with Seoul receiving about a third of them. Thus, in the cities, shortages of housing and food and widespread unemployment became epidemic. The very survival of millions of people was at risk.

So many things needed immediate attention: roads, railways, and communication facilities had fallen into grievous disrepair; coal mines had to be brought back to production mode in order to supply fuel. The nation had to import food, fertilizer, coal, and petroleum, but it had little to export. The ratio between imports and exports in 1948 was 11 to 1. The fiscal and financial conditions were likewise very serious. The added demands of public security and national defense became unbearable.

Amidst the economic turmoil, the Rhee government embarked on the establishment of economic institutions. There were debates over whether to adopt a free market economy or a planned one, how to implement land reform, and how to strike a balance between state-owned enterprises and private firms. President Rhee, who had lived in the United States for more than forty years, strongly preferred a free market economy. They included the bank of Korea law, the banking law, laws on the establishment of state-run enterprises, tax laws, and capital market laws [92]. The basic stance of the Rhee administration’s economic policy was to eventually minimize government intervention and pursue a free market economy [93].
Among the policies that the Rhee government promoted was land reform, which had crucial economic, social, and political implications. A land reform bill was one of the first changes the age-old land tenure system and appointed Cho Bong-am, who was popular among the leftists and peasants, as his first minister of agriculture. The peasants had suffered so long, especially under Japanese rule, that their frustrations had reached a boiling point.

Rhee was enthusiastic about land reform because it would preempt the KDP and independent assemblymen’s power. Redistribution of landholdings would undercut their power base in rural areas where they had the most clout. Conservative landowners, who preferred a president too weak to work against their interests, controlled the National Assembly and were unlikely to support a land reform bill. Nonetheless, the broad-based popular support for land reform virtually eliminated vocal opposition to it [94]. The Rhee government cleverly offered landlords the opportunity to convert their farmlands into lucrative industrial holdings. Because the bill was financially attractive, the KDP and the independents support it and the Land Redistribution Law was passed and promulgated on June 22, 1949. Land reform radically reshaped the South Korean countryside [95]. With landownership capped at 3 chongbo (7.5 acres), large landlords virtually disappeared. In 1944, the richest 3 percent owned 64 percent of all the farmland; by 1956, the top 6 percent owned only 18 percent. As a result, tendency dropped from 49 to 7 percent among farming households.

Land reform generated support for Rhee, and the government was able to avert social unrest. Had the land remained in the hands of a limited number of landlords-who were considered collaborators with the Japanese and the majority of the population remained as tenant farmers, the social and political stability of South Korea could not have been guaranteed. Like South Vietnam and the Philippines.

The Rhee government also attached a high priority to education. Rhee had emphasized the importance of education since the early 1910s when he was inculcating a national spirit among Korean youths in Hawaii. He believed that a lack of education was one of the main causes for the loss of Korean sovereignty. Under Japanese rule only a small percentage of Korean children were able to attend schools. In 1945, 78 percent of the Korean populace was illiterate because schoolrooms and teachers were available for only a fraction of school-age youngsters [96].

The 1948 constitution provide that “every citizen has an equal right to seek an education appropriate to him.” The Education Law, which stipulated free and universal education up to the sixth grade, was enacted in 1949, and a compulsory education system was installed for the primary level in the very first year of the Republic. Adoption of compulsory education was one of the crucial reforms of the Rhee government. However, resources for compulsory education were extremely scarce. There were “too few teachers, too few books and too few

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61 Chongbo (정보) = 9,917.4 ㎡; See also, krdic.naver.com 정보 (町歩) 단어장 저장; [의존명사] 땅넓이의 단위. 정(町)으로 끝나고 우수리가 없을 때 쓴다. 1 정보는 3,000 평으로 약 9,917.4 ㎡에 해당한다.
Thousands of school buildings had to be constructed, hundreds of textbooks had to be written, and tens of thousands of teachers had to be recruited and trained. In order to offer learning opportunities for eligible children, a rotation system with students receiving only three months of schooling a year was used. The government mobilized all available means, established the basic structure of the Korean educational system, and expanded opportunities at nearly all levels of education. Considering the difficult circumstances of the time, it would have been almost impossible for South Korea to expand its educational system without the strong and active commitment of the president.

To meet these multiple challenges, the new government required enormous financial resources. But when most businesses were closed and people were barely surviving, paying taxes was the lowest of priorities. During the colonial period, tax evasion had been considered a patriotic act. Furthermore, thanks to land reform, taxes from the agricultural sector were reduced significantly. Before the reform, landlords had paid a substantial land tax, but after reform, millions of subsistence-level farmers could not afford to pay anything. With such a background the new government found it very difficult to collect taxes.

A high ranking officials in the finance ministry at the time recalled that there was virtually no economic base from which tax could be collected. For instance, out of a government budget of 211 billion won for fiscal year 1949-50 only 11 billion won (5 percent) was generated through taxation. During the first eight months of the 1949-1950 fiscal years, deficit expenditure by the government exceeded the entire annual budget. Since American officials in Seoul had recommended drastic measures for inflation control, including the balancing of the national budget, the Rhee government could not print money to fill the budget gap. Without enough money, the government resorted to doling out rice as salary to public officials. Managing a country without significant financial resources was one of the serious difficulties in the early phase of South Korea’s state building. Nevertheless, President Rhee had faced some critical internal and external challenge.

III. Governmental Organizations Restructuring in each Presidents’ Administration

Accordance to the Constitution of Republic of Korea since the 1st Constitution on Jul 17, 1948 (now is the revision, issued № 10, October 29, 1987) by the Constitution, the government of Republic of Korea under the President as the head of government, which was determined in the Section 1 (from article 66 to article 85) in Chapter IV (the Executive) has the major roles, such as: Head of the Nation, Head of the Executive Branch, Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces, 5 year single term, cannot be reelected and other responsibilities articles which related.

1. President Rhee Syng-man (이승만)

During President Syn-man Rhee’s tenure (1948-1960) as the new government of the First Republic of Korea, there is 18 Ministries and Organizations Equivalent to Ministries (see table below). The Constitutional changes led to two major administrative reorganizations, after
the Government Organization Law was legislated in accordance with the First Constitution, and in 1954, the Law was revised along with the amendment of the Constitution. The most important norm applied for these administrative reorganizations was the “administrative simplification” for efficiency, and economy. The Rhee’s government was emphasized to the state security, survival and regime security of Republic of Korea [100, p. 99].

1) Office of General Services;
2) State Economic Commission; (Provisional)
3) Commission of Legislative Affairs;
4) State Development Planning Commission;
5) Supervisory Commission;
6) Ministry of Finance;
7) Ministry of Internal Affairs;
8) Ministry of Foreign Affairs;
9) Ministry of National Defense;
10) Ministry of Finance;
11) Ministry of Justice;
12) Ministry of Culture and Education;
13) Ministry of Agriculture;
14) Ministry of Industry and Commerce;
15) Ministry of Social;
16) Ministry of Communications; [and]

2. President Yun Bo-seon (윤보선)

After the student revolution, power was briefly held by an interim administration under the foreign minister Heo Jeong. Since the first presidency of Rhee Syngman 13 years (1948-1960) was ended by resignation, new parliamentary election was held on July 29, 1960. The Democratic Party, which had been in the opposition during the First Republic, easily gained power and the Second Republic was established. The revised constitution dictated the Second Republic to take the form of a parliamentary cabinet system where the President took only a nominal role. This was the first and the only instance South Korea turned to a parliamentary cabinet system instead of a presidential system. The assembly elected Yun Bo-seon as President and Chang Myon as the prime minister and head of government in August, 1960.

Then, before being replaced by the next president, John Myun Chang the Prime Minister under the parliament government system 1960-1961 who has played the key role in state administrative matters as a leader government after the President.

During President Yun Bo-seon’s tenure (1960-1962) as the 2nd President of Republic of Korea, the Yun’s Administration (Central government) comprised of 17 Ministries and Organizations Equivalent to Ministries (see table below) [99, p. 101].

1) Supervisory Commission;
3. President Park Chung-hee (박정희)

President Park Chung-hee have seized power in 1961 through a military coup d'état (coup d'état of May sixteen in 1961) which effectively overthrew the Second Republic of Korea. Park also became Acting President after President Yun Bo-seon resignation in 1962 and then Park Chung-hee ruled as an unelected military strongman until his election as the 3rd President of Republic of Korea. President Park Chung-hee is only one Korean President who has longest on serving republic (18 years).

Republican candidate Park Chung-hee over-whelming victory in the Presidential Election (May 1967), although there is no any candidates had mentioned about the superhighway construction project in their election pledges announced so far. Especially the project was not included even in the 100 proposed projects which the Republican Party pledged themselves to complete by the end of 1971 when they won the election.

Republic of Korea during President Park (May 1961 to October 1979), Park's administration started the Third Republic (by announcing the first Five Year Economic Development Plan, an export-oriented industrialization policy), Fourth Republic, and Fifth Republics were nominally democratic, but are widely regarded as the continuation of military rule. One distinctive feature of the Korean developmental state during President Park Chung-hee’s tenure was strong governmental leadership through centralized economic planning. Economic development policies were based on a series of five-year plans that began in 1962, first 5 years Economic Development Plan (1962-1966), second (1967-1971) and third (1972-1976) Korean economic was growth rapidly.

President Park Chung-hee’s tenure (1963-1979) as the 3rd President of Republic of Korea, the first term in five terms of the Park’s Administration Central government comprised of 17 Ministries and Organizations Equivalent to Ministries (see table below) [99, p.103].

1) Ministry of Foreign Affairs;
During the President Park’s administration, symbolic and typical projects called Expressways as ‘arteries for a modern Korea’, a vision inspired by the Autobahn, during the President’s visit to West Germany in 1964. Although international financial institutions such as the World Bank refused to provide funding for the construction of the Seoul-Busan expressway, Korea mobilized domestic resources and Japanese reparation funds to complete the expressway in 1970 at a fraction of the construction time and cost spent in advanced countries [101]. But, in fact the Superhighway construction plan has since longtime ago been studied by Ministry of National Construction, which the first feasibility studies introduced during the first five year plan implementation in Korea after 1961. The issue of the Seoul-Pusan superhighway construction plan in particular has been discussed since 1965 as a part of the Overall National Construction Plan, but all the successive discussions produced no firm results due principally to lack of available fund source to finance the plan. The Great National Construction Plan and Superhighway Construction (60 billion-wons) the project completed by 1971 [102].

In 1972 President Park Chung-hee declared martial law, suspended the country’s constitution and began with the adoption of Yushin7 Constitution (November 21, 1972) and made credited with playing a pivotal role in the development of South Korea's tiger economy with industrialization and rapid economic growth of South Korea through export-oriented industrialization. South Korea industrialized rapidly during this period, with growth in mining

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7Yushin (Korean: 유신) in Korean means "rejuvenation" or "renewal", but it is also the term used to translate the "restoration", which was borrowed by Park from Japanese history to invoke “a new beginning”, a similar to that initiated by the Meiji restoration (Japanese: 明治維新 “ミツヒメシント”). In practice, however, there was not much of a new beginning, certainly not in the political sphere.
and manufacturing averaging nearly 15% per annum and the overall economic growth averaging some 9% per annum. The political economy that produced this rapid transformation has been well studied, even over-studied. So-called South Korean industry saw remarkable development under Park's leadership. Park’s government in 1973 [99, p. 105] consisted is as below:

1) Economic Planning Board;
2) Ministry of Supervision;
3) Ministry of Science and Technology;
4) Ministry of assistance;
5) Ministry of Foreign Affairs;
6) Ministry of Internal Affairs;
7) Ministry of Finance;
8) State Administration of waves;
9) Ministry of Justice;
10) Ministry of National Defense;
11) Ministry of culture and Education;
12) Ministry of Agriculture;
13) Ministry of Industry and Commerce;
14) Ministry of Construction;
15) Ministry of Health and Social;
16) Ministry of Labor;
17) Ministry of Communications;
18) Ministry of Railways;
19) Ministry of Information Industry; [and]
20) Ministry of Culture Management.

4. President Choi Kyu-hah (최규하)

Choi served as foreign minister from late 1960s to early 1970s; and as prime minister from 1975 to 1979. After the assassination of Park Chung-hee in 1979, then Prime Minister Choi became acting president as the prime minister stood next in line for the presidency under Article 48 of the Yushin Constitution. Due to the unrest resulting from Park's rule, Choi promised democratic elections, as under Park elections had been widely seen as rigged. Choi also promised a new constitution to replace the Yushin Constitution. Choi won an election in December that year to become the country's fourth president.

In December 1979, Major General Chun Doo-hwan and close allies within the military staged a coup d'état against Choi's government. They quickly removed the army chief of staff and virtually controlled the government by early 1980.

In April 1980, due to increasing pressure from Chun and other politicians, Choi appointed Chun head of the Korean Central Intelligence Agency. In May, Chun declared martial law and dropped all pretense of civilian government, becoming the de facto ruler of the country. By then, student protests were escalating in Seoul and Kwangju (or Gwangju). The protests in Kwangju (Gwangju) resulted in the Kwangju uprising in which
about 987 civilians were killed within a five-day period by Chun's military [103].

Choi was forced to resign soon after the uprising; Prime Minister Park Chung-hoon became acting president, until Chun's election as president on September 1, 1980. Choi’s government in 1980 [99, p. 159] consisted as below:

1) Ministry of Supervision;
2) Ministry of Science and Technology;
3) Ministry of Assistance;
4) Ministry of Foreign Affairs;
5) Ministry of Internal Affairs;
6) Ministry of Finance;
7) Ministry of Justice;
8) Ministry of National Defense;
9) Ministry of culture and Education;
10) Ministry of Agriculture;
11) Ministry of Industry and Commerce;
12) Revival Industry and Commerce Office
13) Ministry of Construction;
14) Ministry of Health and Social;
15) Ministry of Labor;
16) Ministry of Communications;
17) Ministry of Railways;
18) Ministry of Information Industry; [and]
19) Ministry of Culture Management.

5. President Chun Doo-hwan (전두환)

In 12th December 1979, Major General Chun Doo-hwan and close allies within the military staged a coup d'état against Choi's government. They quickly removed the army chief of staff and virtually controlled the government by early 1980.

After 12th December 1979 Coup d'état, in May of the following year, a vocal civil society composed primarily of university students and labor unions led strong protests against authoritarian rule all over the country. Chun Doo-hwan declared martial law on May 17, 1980. On May 18, 1980, a confrontation broke out in the city of Gwangju between protesting students of Chonnam National University and the armed forces dispatched by the Martial Law Command. Chun ordered it to be immediately suppressed, sending in military troops to clear the large number of demonstrators from the city. This led to a bloody massacre over the next two days, ultimately leading to the collapse of the Gwangju Democratization Movement and the deaths of several hundred Gwangju activists.

In June 1980, Chun ordered the National Assembly to be dissolved. He subsequently created the National Defense Emergency Policy Committee, and installed himself as a member. In September 1980, President Choi Kyu-ha was forced to resign from president to give way to the new military leader, Chun Doo-hwan. In September of that year, Chun was elected president by
indirect election and inaugurated in March of the following year, officially starting the 5th Republic (from 1980-1988).

A new Constitution was established with notable changes; maintaining the presidential system but limiting to a single 7 year term, strengthening the authority of the National Assembly, and conferring the responsibilities of appointing judiciary to the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. However, the system of indirect election of president stayed and many military persons were appointed to highly ranked government positions, keeping the remnants of the Yushin era.

Chun’s government in 1986 \[99, p. 107\] consisted is as below:

1) Ministry of Supervision;
2) Ministry of Science and Technology;
3) Ministry of Patriots and Veterans Affairs;
4) Ministry of Foreign Affairs;
5) Ministry of Internal Affairs;
6) Ministry of Finance;
7) Ministry of Justice;
8) Ministry of National Defense;
9) Ministry of culture and Education;
10) State Sport General Administration;
11) Ministry of Agriculture;
12) Ministry of Industry and Commerce;
13) Power Resource Department;
14) Ministry of Construction;
15) Ministry of Health and Social;
16) Ministry of Labor;
17) Ministry of Communications;
18) Ministry of Information Industry; [and]
19) Propaganda Department.

6. President Roh Tae-woo (노태우)

With the Sixth Republic (began in 1987 and remains the current republic of South Korea, 2013), It started with the election of ROH Tae-Woo as president for the 13th presidential term in the first direct presidential election in 17 years (Roh was officially inaugurated in February 1988).

Although Roh was from a military background and one of the leaders of Chun’s Coup d’état, the inability of the opposition leaders Kim Dae-Jung and Kim Yong-Sam to agree on a unified candidacy led to his being elected.

Shortly after Roh's inauguration, the Seoul Olympics took place, raising South Korea's international recognition and also greatly influencing foreign policy. Roh's government announced the official unification plan, Nordpolitik, established diplomatic ties with the Soviet Union, China, and countries in East Europe. An historic event was held in 1990 when North Korea accepted the proposal for exchange between the two Koreas, resulting in high-level talks, cultural and sports exchange. In 1991, a joint communiqué on denuclearization agreed upon, and the two Koreas simultaneously became members of the UN.
During President Rho Tae-woo’s tenure (1988-1993) as the 6th President of Republic of Korea, at the beginning of the Roh presidency, the economic situation in many respects was very favorable [83, p. 230]. Economic growth stood at 12.1 percent in 1988, the highest in the world, and exports, which exceeded imports by $9 billion, grew 27 percent [104]. Rho’s Administration (1989) [99, p. 109], the central government consisted as below:

1) Ministry of Supervision;  
2) Ministry of Science and Technology;  
3) State Environmental Administration;  
4) Ministry of Patriots and Veterans Affairs;  
5) Ministry of Foreign Affairs;  
6) Ministry of Internal Affairs;  
7) Ministry of Finance;  
8) Ministry of Justice;  
9) Ministry of National Defense;  
10) Ministry of culture and Education;  
11) Ministry of Culture Management;  
12) Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries;  
13) Ministry of Industry and Commerce;  
14) Ministry of Construction;  
15) Ministry of Health and Social;  
16) Ministry of Labor;  
17) Ministry of Communications; [and]  

7. President Kim Yong-sam (김영삼)

President Kim Yong-sam was elected in the 1992 elections as the 7th President of Republic of Korea. He was the country's first civilian president in 30 years and he promised to build a "New Korea" and relations with the North Korea was improved. During President Kim Yong-sam’s tenure (1993-1998), the KIM’s government also carried out substantial financial and economic reforms, joined the OECD (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development) in 1996. KIM’s Administration (1996) [99, p. 111], the central government consisted as below:

1) Ministry of Foreign Affairs;  
2) Ministry of Internal Affairs;  
3) Ministry of Justice;  
4) National Defense Commission;  
5) Ministry of Education;  
6) Ministry of Culture and Education;  
7) Ministry of Agriculture;  
8) Ministry of Industries and Commerce;  
9) Ministry of Information Industries;  
10) Ministry of Environment;  
11) Ministry of Health and Social;  
12) Ministry of Labor;
13) Ministry of Construction and Transportation; [and]
14) Ministry of Marine Affairs.

President Kim then created a new labor law which retained the Korean Federation of Trade Unions, a large, state-controlled trade union, as the only officially approved labor organization for five more years, leaving the independent Korean Confederation of Trade Unions out in the cold. This new law undercut workers' interests.

In 1997, the "miracle" on the Han River temporarily ended. South Korea again encountered an economic disaster in the form of the 1997 Asian Financial Crisis. Korea's reserves were severely limited with a total of only $6 billion remaining. The majority of this money was allocated for spending in the upcoming term \[^{105}\]. Kim Yong-sam, the first nonmilitary person to become president in thirty years, failed to protect the economy. President Kim Dae-jung (1998-2003) took office after Kim Yong-sam with considerable damage to repair. Kim was openly opposed to the Chaebol (재벌 “Conglomerates” ก๊กสึกสินธุ), and the current system of finance and government, and with the efforts of the citizens, a new president, and $58 billion dollars put together by the IMF, the country paid its debts and surmounted the problem. Through such actions South Korea's financial crisis was severe but relatively brief compared to other countries that experienced similar situations.

8. President Kim Dae-jung (김대중)

President Kim Dae-jung was a champion of inter-Korean reconciliation. The word “first” is often used to describe former President Kim Dae-jung. Kim was the first Korean president elected from the opposition party in 50 years of modern Korean politics; Kim was the first Korean to receive the Nobel Peace Prize.

Kim’s “Sunshine Policy”, a policy of reconciliation, is regarded as a bold initiative to ameliorate relations with North Korea. Kim assumed the presidency in the whirlwind of a financial crisis. Taking over the foreign debt-ridden country, Kim succeeded in leading Korea out of IMF management. President Kim Dae-jung was the first President in Korea that included government reform in his official agenda, linking it with reforms in the corporate sector, financial sector, and labor sector \[^{106}, \text{p. 3}\]. Kim’s appeasement policy culminated in the first-ever inter-Korean summit in Pyongyang in June, 2000. Kim was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in 2000 for his lifelong democratization drive and inter-Korean peace efforts \[^{107}, \text{p. 25}\].

During the President Kim Dae-jung’s tenure (1998-2003) as the 8th President of Republic of Korea, Kim’s Administration (1998) \[^{99}, \text{p. 175}\], the central government consisted as below:
1) Ministry of Finance;
2) Ministry of Unification;
3) Ministry of Foreign Affairs;
4) Ministry of Commerce;
5) Ministry of Justice;
6) National Defense Commission;
7) Ministry of Government Administration and Home Affairs;
8) Ministry of Educations;
9) Ministry of Science and Technology;
10) Ministry of Culture and Tourism;
11) Ministry of Agriculture;
12) Ministry of Health and Social;
13) Ministry of Information Industry;
14) Ministry of Health and Social;
15) Ministry of Environment;
16) Ministry of Labor;
17) Ministry of Communications; [and]
18) Ministry of Marine Affairs.

9. President Roh Moo-hyun (노무현)

President Roh Moo-hyun was an advocate of popular participation. Roh was a self-taught labor activist and human rights lawyer before becoming a National Assemblyman and subsequently, the President \[107, p. 25\].

Roh Moo-hyun was elected to the presidency in December 2002 by direct election. His victory came with much support from the younger generation and civic groups who had hopes of a participatory democracy. President Roh, has also emphasized the importance of the government reform since his inauguration in 2003 \[106, p. 3\] and Roh's administration consequently launched with the motto of “participation government”.

The Roh administration succeeded in overcoming regionalism in South Korean politics, diluting the collusive ties between politics and business, empowering the civil society, settling the Korea-United States FTA issue, continuing summit talks with North Korea, and launching the KTX (high-speed train system)\(^8\).

But despite a boom in the stock market, youth unemployment rates were high, real estate prices skyrocketed and the economy lagged. In March 2004, the parliamentary election held in April, with the ruling party becoming the majority. Roh was reinstated in May by the Constitutional Court, who had overturned the verdict.

During President Roh Moo-hyun’s tenure (2003-2008) as the 9th President of Republic of Korea, President Roh created an unprecedented Secretary of Innovation at the Presidential Office. To disseminate his reform agenda, and to lay the groundwork for spontaneous reform, he had each ministry appoint officers in charge of the reform of its own ministry. Roh’s Administration, the central government consisted as below:

1) Ministry of Finance and Economic;
2) Ministry of Unification;
3) Ministry of Foreign Affairs;
4) Ministry of Law;
5) Ministry of National Defense;

\(^8\)KTX services were officially launched on 1\(^{st}\) April 2004.
6) Ministry of Government Administration and Home Affairs;
7) Ministry of Educations;
8) Ministry of Science and Technology;
9) Ministry of Culture and Sport;
10) Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry;
11) Ministry of Health and Social;
12) Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Energy;
13) Ministry of Health and Social;
14) Ministry of Environment;
15) Ministry of Labor;
16) Ministry of Information and Communications;
17) Ministry of Marine Affairs; [and]
18) Ministry of Construction and Transport.

One of the main reform directions of the Roh’s government has been decentralization. This is a reform that can be a foundation for further innovation. Decentralization does not only mean local devolution, but also the handover of budget allocation and personnel management functions concentrated in central agencies such as the MPB and MOGAHA to line ministries. The decentralization is a very appropriate reform direction that should be much pursued before his term ends [106, p. 11].

The Roh’s administration initiated reform agenda to the Open Position System (OPS), the Personnel Exchange Program (PEP) and the Ministry-wide Job Posting Program (JPP) in April 2003, secured the legal grounds for such reforms by revising the National Civil Service Act in December 2005, and launched the Senior Civil Service (SCS) on July 1st, 2006 for the first time in Asia. The SCS is a government-wide personnel management system for selecting, preparing, paying and managing a differentiated group of senior civil servants, composed of central government officials at the director-general level or higher, covering approximately 1,500 positions. This system is managed by combining the open competition system (20%), the government-wide job posting program (30%) and the agency-level flexible management system (50%) [108].

In September 2006, the Ministry of Government Administration and Home Affairs (MOGAHA) announced a three-stage schedule for the relocation of government institutions from Seoul to the Yongi-Kongju area in South Chungchong province, about 160 km south of Seoul. According to the schedule, the government will first finish relocating 19 entities will follow in 2013, and the twelve remaining entities will be relocated in 2014. The construction work for the new government complex was to start in 2007. Roh Moo-hyun had first voiced his idea to move the South Korean capital in order to diminish regional imbalances when he campaigned for the presidency in 2002. In May 2004, he restarted these plans but immediately ran into opposition from both citizens and political parties. Five months later the constitutional court declared the plans in Toto, the government then opted for an administrative town consisting of 12 out of 18 ministries plus a number of agencies. According to the ‘light’ version of the relocation plan, the Office of
the President, the National Assembly, the Supreme Court and important ministries (inter alia the MOGAHA, the Ministry of Justice and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade) were to remain in Seoul. In late November 2005, the constitutional court affirmed the constitutionality of this plan [109].

10. President Lee Myung-bak (이명박)

Since 2008 to February 2013, President Lee Myung-bak (10th Korean President) supervised directly to the head of state, central administrative agencies, and governmental sectors according to applicable Acts and subordinate statutes [110].

After regulatory and economic reforms, the economy has bounced back, with the country's economy marking growth and apparently recovering from the global recession.

The Korean public administration has also pursued to improve diplomatic relations with active summit talks: the United States; Korea-China-Japan Summits; and the ASEAN-ROK Commemorative Summit to strengthen ties with other Asian countries. The 2010 G20 summit was held in Seoul, where issues regarding the global economic crisis were discussed; Lee’s administration consists of 15 Ministries, which heads by ministers, the ministers are appointed by the president and report to the Prime Minister. Also, some ministries have affiliated agencies (listed below), which reports both to the Prime Minister and to the minister of the affiliated ministry. Each affiliated agency is headed by a vice-minister-level commissioner.

1) Ministry of Strategy and Finance; (기획재정부)
   - National Tax Service; (국세청)
   - Korea Customs Service; (관세청)
   - Public Procurement Service; (조달청)
   - Statistics Korea. (통계청)
2) Ministry of Education, Science and Technology; (교육과학기술부)
3) Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade; (외교통상부)
4) Ministry of Unification; (통일부)
5) Ministry of Justice; (범부)
   - Prosecution Service (검찰청).
6) Ministry of National Defense; (국방부)
   - Defense Acquisition Program Administration; (방위사업청)
   - Military Manpower Administration. (병무청)
7) Ministry of Public Administration and Security; (행정안전부)
   - National Police Agency; (경찰청)
   - National Emergency Management Agency (소방방재청).
8) Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism; (문화체육관광부)
   - Cultural Heritage Administration (문화재청).
9) Ministry of Food, Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries;
   (농림수산식품부)
   - Rural Development Administration; (농촌진흥청)
In February 2012, the United Nations has announced the launch of its Survey on E-Government 2012, e-government for the people, which was assessment conducted by the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, here are 193 member states of the United Nations; the results, Korea still maintains its position in the 1st place since 2010 on achieving the greatest e-government both in development and participation indices, with a special emphasis on expanding online services towards its citizens, reflecting during the tenure of President Lee Myung-bak, which proactive on implementing of the government’s agendas, “Smart Government Strategy as a Next generation of e-Government”, Informatization in line with global community’s attempt to narrowing digital divide, and remarked the strengthening international cooperation; as well as the Korean entertainment movement, e.g. the Mega Hit Song GangNam Style “강남스타일” of Psy (박재상) which was spreads rapidly all around the world via SNS (Social Medias), which everyone can access with no fee for license on expansion or parody. The song was released in July 2012, latter just 3 months (September) this song was recognized by Guinness World Records as the most “liked” Video on YouTube, and debuted at number 1 on South Korea's Gaon Chart (가온차트와). On December 21, 2012 (doomsday), "Gangnam Style" became the first YouTube video to reach a billion views [111].
Chapter IV
Public Organizational Development in Lao P.D.R

After completely liberation, Lao people have together been implementing the two strategic tasks of defending and building the country, especially the undertaking of reforms in order to mobilize the resources within the nation to preserve the people’s democratic regime and create conditions to move towards socialism. It recognizes the great achievements of Lao people in the course of their struggles for national liberation, protection and construction of the country into a country of peace, independence, democracy, unity and prosperity.

I. Establishment of the Republic

Lao People’s Democratic Republic (Lao: ສາທາລະນະລັດ ປະຊາທິປະໄຕ ປະຊາຊົນລາວ, Hanja: 老挝, and in Korean: 라오 인민민주주의 공화국) or Laos (라오스) was established on 2nd December 1975.

Since the 18th century, the Lao people have been struggling for their independence. The multi-ethnic Lao people have carried out difficult and arduous struggles full of great sacrifices until they managed to crush the yokes of domination and oppression of the colonial and feudal regimes completely liberate the country.

The National General People Meeting of the Lao People’s Revolutionary Party in 1975, which unanimously proclaimed the establishment of the Lao PDR, appointed the Supreme People’s Assembly, President of the Republic, Premier, and its Council of Ministers.

II. Culture in administration

The approach to administration in the government is non-confrontational, as in the domestic culture, and civil servants in supervisory positions often pay more attention to performance of their team of colleagues, than on performance of individual staff members. Lao political institutions and public organizations strongly comply with the principles of centralized democracy, when it comes to decision-making. In essence, all relevant stakeholders in the institution get the opportunity to present their opinions and suggestions, giving rise to a collective view or decision. Minor disputes are often addressed through local mediation by village chiefs or district chiefs. When mediation fails, matters come before the courts of law. This approach stems from the tradition to avoid confrontation, the need for individuals in conflict to save face, and limited awareness of the legal system.

After 30 years of struggle revolutions against the U.S. secret war (1963-1973), The Lao People’s Revolutionary Party (LPRP) came to full power in Laos in 1975, from its earliest inception it had promulgated a strong social agenda to mobilize popular support. Promising to improve the living conditions and social well-being of the people, its social agenda was constructed largely around the following points [112]:

1. The eradication of illiteracy and advancement of education and national culture;
2. Expansion of health care for all;
3. Promotion of equality of the sexes;
4. Protection of the interests of all the sexes;
5. Respect for all religions.

Throughout the period of revolutionary struggle and even during the Vietnam War (perhaps more so during the period) the Pathet Lao Leaders were mindful of their promises and made efforts towards meeting some of these goals.

In 1975, with the end of the Indochina war and the establishment of the Lao People’s Democratic Republic (Lao PDR), the Pathet Lao finally gained complete control of a unified Lao state.

According to the party’s theoreticians, Laos’ development depends upon successfully carrying out the “three revolutions”, the attainment of which is considered necessary to enable Laos to progress towards socialism, ‘by passing the stage of capitalism’. This theory of the three revolutions, first expounded by the Party Secretary General, PHOMVIHANE Kaisone at the Fourth Plenum of the Central of the Central Committee of the LPRP in December 1976, was essentially modeled on the Vietnamese theory of the ‘three revolutionary currents’. According to this theory, Laos’ transition to socialism is said to demand concurrently (1) a revolution of the relations of production, (2) a scientific and technological revolution, and (3) an ideological and cultural revolution – with the scientific and technological revolution as the keystone [113].

Though the latter the party believed there will come about the evolution of the ‘new socialist man’ – a new type of man ‘who engages in labor with a spirit of collective mastery, who profoundly loves the country and socialism and who has a clear spirit of internationalism’ [114].

III. Prime Ministers’ Tenures

Since established republic regime up to the present, Lao Prime Ministers there are: Mr. PHOMVIHANE Kaisone (2 December 1975 to 15 August 1991); Mr. SIPHANDONE Khamtay (15 August 1991 to 24 February 1998); Mr. KEOBOUNPHAN Sisavath (24 February 1998 to 27 March 2001); Mr. VORACHITH BounNhang (27 March 2001 to 08 June 2006); Mr. BOUPHAVANH Bouasone (08 June 2006 to 23 December 2010), and Prime Minister THAMMAVONG Thongsing (incumbent since 23 December 2010 to the present-day).

1. Prime Minister PHOMVIHANE Kaisone (ທົນ ໄກສອນ ພົມວິຫານ)

During the proclaiming on establishment of the Lao People’s Democratic Republic on the 2nd December 1975, by then Mr. PHOMVIHANE Kay-sone was elected from the Supreme People’s Assembly (during the Congress of People’s Representative, which was held in Vientiane, on 01-02 December 1975) as the First Prime Minister of Lao P.D.R.

After the People's Republic was proclaimed, the Supreme People's Assembly had abrogated the 1957 Constitution on the 2 December 1975. For the next decade, the country was managed on the basis of revolutionary
socialist principles collectivization, nationalization, re-education, and the like.

The new regime was widespread international recognition, not only from communist bloc states, but also from United States and its allies. Euphoria of victory, mission to fight with obstacles, and gave the vision that the way of country to achieve in the near future, the goal, as frequently stated, was to ‘advance, step by step, to socialism without going through the stage of capitalist development’ \[115\]. During the Phomvihan’s administration (1975-1991), the governmental organizations on this early term, just a little bit reshuffled some ministries, but mostly still continued the old regimes’ structure of government. By then 3 years later, the government organizations was developed as reorganization, new established, merged, combined, and abolished.

I. 1975-1977

Accordance to the first congress of Lao people’s representative whole countries (Dec. 02, 1975), the Supreme People’s Assembly have been approved the Governmental organizations and the members of government of Lao P.D.R e.g.:

1) Machinery of Government, comprised of 12 Ministries and 05 Equivalent Organizations to Ministries
   1. Council of Ministers;
   3. Ministry of Foreign Affairs;
   4. Ministry of Justice;
   5. Ministry of Finance;
   8. Ministry of Media Broadcasting, Culture, and Tourism;
   9. Ministry of Communication and Transport;
   10. Ministry of Public Health;
   11. Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry, and Rural;
   12. Ministry of Post and Telecommunication;
   13. Ministry of Industry and Commerce;
   14. Committee of State Planning;
   15. Committee of Central Multi-ethnic Groups;
   16. Committee of State Bank; [and]
   17. Committee of Information and Newspaper.

2) Member of Government

The members of government consisted of the Prime Minister (the President of the Council of Ministers), Deputies of Prime Minister, Ministers, Heads of the Equivalent Organizations to Ministries, and the Bank Governor.

Names of Provincial level:
1. Vientiane;
2. HuaKhong Province;
3. NamTha Province;
4. PhongSaly Province;
5. SamNeua Province;
6. Luang Prabang Province;
7. Oudomxay Province; *(New province 1976, splits from Luang Prabang Province)*
8. XiengKhuang Province;
9. Xayaboury Province;
10. Borikhan Province;
11. Khammuane Province;
12. Savanhnakheth Province;
13. Saravane Province;
14. Attapeau Province; [and]
15. Champasak Province.

II. 1977-1979

On July 30, 1978 the Standing of the Supreme People’s Assembly approved the Law on Council of Ministers, which the first legal determines on the role, function and rights of the Ministerial Council, Cabinet of Ministers or Government (ຄະນະລັດຖະບານ or ອະນາຄານລັດຖະມົນຕີ), and Changed the name of government became the Council of Ministers (ສະພາລັດຖະມົນຕີ).

1) Members of the Ministerial Council
2) Machinery of the Ministerial Council
   1. Council of Ministers;
   2. Ministry of Interior;
   4. Ministry of Foreign Affairs;
   5. Ministry of Public Health;
   6. Ministry of Justice;
   7. Ministry of Industry and Commerce;
   8. Ministry of Broadcasting, Information, Culture and Tourism;
   9. Ministry of Communication, Public works and Transport;
   10. Ministry of Finance;
   11. Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Irrigation;
   12. Ministry of Post and Telecommunication;
   13. Ministry of Education;
   14. Committee of the State Bank;
   15. Committee of State Planning;
   16. Committee of Ethnic; [and]
   17. Organizations Directed to the Council of Ministers.

On 31 July 1978 the Supreme People’s Assembly enacted the new system of the Local Administrative division, pursuant to the Law on
Local People’s Assembly and People’s Administrative Committee (101/SPA, 31 July 1978), there are 3 tiers:
- Country divided into Province, and City;
- Province divided into District, and Provincial Municipality, and City divided into District;
- District divided into Ta-Saeng (sub-District or Commune “ータソン”), and District Municipality.

III. 1980-1983

In December 1979, Prime Minister Kaisone PHOMVIHAN announced to SPA on a major reorientation strategy for transition to socialism, due to obstacles of attempting to force the pace of social change, which orthodox communist command planning and began examination of different approaches to socialist economic development, thus the cabinet had to change, e.g. Merger Central Party Cabinet with the Ministerial Council; Divided some Ministries, and established new Ministries/Committees/Organs (In total 23 Ministries and equal organizations).

1. Central Party Cabinet and Council of Ministers; (Merger in 1980)
3. Ministry of Interior;
4. Ministry of Foreign Affairs;
5. Ministry of Finance;
6. Ministry of Justice;
7. Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Irrigation;
8. Ministry of Industry and Commerce;
9. Ministry of Broadcasting and Tourism;
10. Ministry of Information and Culture;
11. Ministry of Communication;
12. Ministry of Public works and Transport;
13. Ministry of Industry and Commerce;
14. Ministry of Post and Telecommunication;
16. Ministry of Public Health;
17. Committee of State Bank;
18. Committee of State Planning;
19. Committee of Ethnic;
20. Committee of Social Welfare;
21. Committee of Information and Newspaper;
22. Committee on Lao-Vietnam Corporation; [and]
23. Committee on Lao-Soviet for Economic Corporation and Culture.

In addition, within the pilot model, the central governmental organs was abolished the department level, but still maintained the divisions, sections, and units. And local administration also was shifted from the Governor of Province (Chao Khwaeng), Chief of District (Chao
Müang), Ta-Saeng (သາဆ jsonObject), and Father of Village (部长) system was changed or replaced by the Local People’s Administrative Committee (Symfony Doctrine of each level).

The another chronicles of Laos, during building state is the First Five-Year Plan (NSED plan 1980-1985), so-called Plan I was launched during this period, after the First Legislature (Supreme People's Assembly) adopted the Lao First 5-year plan, regulations, and laws. First five-year plan was implemented followed the main objectives, were to:

- Support the agricultural-forestry production in order to achieve food sufficiency;
- Repair the existing factories for regular operation and create a number of new industrial facilities; Shifted macro-economic to state-owned enterprise, evolution cut-off subsidies from the state, and autonomous [116]; [and]
- Construct basic infrastructure: Road № 9, major bridges along Road № 13.

IV. 1983-1985

After the 3rd Congress of the Lao People’s Revolutionary Party (27-30 April 1982) the state organizations in all levels was reformed in according to the Law on Council of Ministers issued 1982. The size of government was bubbled, e.g.

1) Machinery of the Ministerial Council
1. Council of Ministers;
2. Ministry of Interior;
4. Ministry of Foreign Affairs;
5. Ministry of Justice;
6. Ministry of Public Health;
8. Ministry of Culture;
9. Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry, Irrigation and Co-operative;
10. Ministry of Commerce;
11. Ministry of Industry, Handicraft and Forestry;
12. Ministry of Transportation and Post;
13. Ministry of Economy, Planning and Finance; (Reshuffled in 1983)
14. Ministry of Construction;
15. Ministry of Technique-Equipments Contribution;
16. Committee of Ethnic;
17. Committee of the State Bank;
18. Committee of Social Welfare and Veteran; [and]
2) Organizations under the Council of Ministers

1. Central Privy Committee;
2. Council of Science and Technology;
3. Board of Selecting Students for Study in Internal and Abroad;
4. Committee of Personnel and Wage;
5. Central Committee of Worth;
6. Leading Board on Cooperatives;
7. Central Committee of Propaganda and Training;
8. National Geographic Department;
9. National Archives Department;
10. Committee on Lao-Vietnam Corporation;
11. Committee on Lao-Soviet for Economic Corporation and Culture;
12. Committee on Peace of Asia-Pacific and International;
13. Board on Social Sciences Research; [and]
14. Board on Science and Technology.

3) Members of the Ministerial Council: The Council of Ministers consists of the Prime Minister, Deputies of Prime Minister, Ministers, Heads of the Equivalent Organizations to Ministries and the Bank Governor.

The number of department in central administrative unit since 1975-1986 there are 51 Departments (before abolitions in 1987).

Local administration in this period, the Borkeo Province was created in 1983, when it was split off from Luang Namtha Province (latter in 1992, Paktha and Pha Oudom Districts were reassigned from Oudomxay Province).

In 1984 Sekong Province was created, when it was split off from Salavan Province and Attapeu Province.

V. 1986-1991

In this period, the government has adopted new policy program directions, incorporated in the New Economic Management System (originally is New Economic Policy ‘NEP’, in Russian: Новая экономическая политика, НЭП, and in Lao: ‘ລະບົບກະຊວງຄອງແລະເສດຖະກິດ’ was an economic policy proposed by Vladimir Ilyich Lenin, who called it state capitalism. It was a new, more capitalism-oriented economic policy necessary after the Civil War [117], used in Soviet 1921-1928, but was transformed to use in Laos as NEMS (ລະບົບກະຊວງຄອງແລະເສດຖະກິດລາວ), instituted policies of incremental market liberalization, culminating with the New Policy, which are designed to remove some constraints of hardship in country, and neighbors’ monopoly. Deregulation of pricing and markets has created new incentives for state enterprises (which have also been delegated
greater autonomy) and for the private sector, whose contribution to
development is now more fully appreciated. Laos during transition to a
Market-Oriented System, starts 1986 to the present-day, well-known is
New Imagination Policy, or New Thinking Policy, or Innovative
Thinking Policy 'ເຈັບສະສາດໃຕ້'. Therefore, to adapt with the new era
of movement on economic structure and new management mechanism,
in the fourth Congress of the Lao People’s Revolutionary Party
(November 1986) on 27th November 1986 the politburo issued the
resolution № 37/PBO on the comprising of Council Ministers such as:

1) Machinery of the Ministerial Council
   1. Council of Ministers;
   2. Ministry of Interior;
   4. Ministry of Broadcasting and Medias;
   5. Ministry of Organizing and Inspection;
   6. Ministry of Education and Culture;
   7. Ministry of Foreign Affairs;
   8. Ministry of Justice;
   9. Ministry of Communication, Public Works and Transport;
   10. Ministry of Construction;
   11. Ministry of Technique-Equipment Contribution;
   12. Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Irrigation;
   13. Ministry of Science and Technology; (New in 1986)
   14. Ministry of Commerce and Foreign Economy Relation;
       *(Changed from Committee of Foreign Economy Relation and
       State Commerce in mid-1988)*
   15. Ministry of Finance; *(1991 Split off Ministry of Economy,
       Planning and Finance, which was formed in 1989)*
   16. Ministry of Economic and Planning; *(Splits from Ministry of
       Economy, Planning and Finance)*
   17. National Red-Cross Society and Hygiene;
   18. Bank of Lao P.D.R;
   19. Committee of Ethnic; [and]
   20. Committee of Social Welfare and National Veteran. *(1987-
       1990)*

2) Organizations under the Council of Ministers
   1. Office of the Ministerial Councils;
   2. Central Committee of Worth;
   3. Central Committee of Propaganda and Training;
   4. Lao Committee on World Peace;
   5. Committee of Social Sciences.

Implement the 4th Party Congress Resolution approval the pilot
model, the central governmental organs was abolished the department
level as a whole, but still maintained the Ministry level. Since the
government launched the NEMS in 1986, it is a new vigor into national economic performance. The NEMS also part of the government’s development strategy to introduce economic reforms bringing about greater efficiency and profitability in economic enterprises and thereby helping to achieve the objectives of the five years plan.

In 1989 Vientiane Prefecture “ກາແພງນະຄອນວຽງຈັນ” (Capital City of Laos since 1563) was split from Vientiane Province “ແຂວງວຽງຈັນ” and the capital (municipality) of Vientiane Province moved from Vientiane “ແຂວງວຽງຈັນ” the capital city, to Phông-Hông District (about 60 kilometers from the city to North).

In May 1991, SPA approved of the country’s name changing from Lao Socialist Republic (ສາທາລະນະລັດສັກີນລັດລາວ) to reused the Lao People’s Democratic Republic “Lao P.D.R” (ສາທາລະນະລັດປະຊາທິປະໄຕລາວ); and also motto changed from “Peace, Unity, Independence and Socialism” to “Peace, Independence, Democracy, Unity, and Prosperity (ສັນຕິພາບເອກະລາດເອກະພາບວັດທະນະຖາວອນ)” up to the present-day.

2. Prime Minister SIPHANDONE Khamtay (ທານຄາໄຕສີພັນດອນ)

   During the SIPHANDONE’s Administration (15 August 1991 to 24 February 1998) the governmental organizations was developed as reorganization, new established, merged, combined, and abolished.

I. 1991-1995

   According to the First Constitution of Lao P.D.R (August 15, 1991), then the Council of Ministers was changed the name to became the Government of Lao P.D.R (GOL), with the Presidential Decree on Government and Members (issued number 13/PO, dated 26th February 1993) which determined on the Structure of Government (13 Ministries and 3 Organizations Equivalent to Ministries) comprised of organizational administrative apparatuses as below:

1) Ministries, Organizations Equivalent to Ministries
   1. Prime Minister’s office;
   3. Ministry of Interior;
   4. Ministry of Foreign Affairs;
   5. Ministry of Justice;
   6. Ministry of Finance;
   7. Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry;
   8. Ministry of Commerce;
   9. Ministry of Industries and Handicraft;
   10. Ministry of Communication, Transport, Post and Construction;
   11. Ministry of Education; (changed in 1993)
13. Ministry of Information and Culture;
14. Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare; *(changed in 1993 up to the present)*
15. Committee of State Planning; [and]
16. Bank of Lao People’s Democratic Republic.

2) Organizations under Prime Minister’s Office
   (1) Prime Minister’s Office Cabinet;
   (2) Technical Organization under supervision directly by the Prime Minister:
       1. Science, Technology and Environment Agency;
       2. National Sport Committee;
       3. National Tourism Authority;
       4. State Inspection Agency;
       5. State Audit Agency;
       6. National Geographic Department; [and]
       7. Department of Public Administration and Civil Service.

   The First Constitution of Lao P.D.R (1991) stipulated the local administration as before, and replaced the local people’s committee, which was used in late 1970s to 1980s. The Local Administration in Laos divides by 3 levels (from 1991 up to the present-day) there are:
   1) Province;
   2) District; [and]
   3) Village.

   In central administration, GOL was reused the administrative/technical departments, which was abolished by zero unit in 1987, then the number was increased from 51 in 1986 to 126 Departments in 31 December 1993.

   In local administration also was reused the single ruler as Governor of Province (Chao Khwaeng), Chief of District (Chao Müang), and Chief of Villages (Naiy Baan), its tiers system supervised by a person, stands at the apex of respective level, holds the state or administrative posts, and political position, which was changed or replaced the Local People’s Administrative Committee (under local people’s council system) of each level up to the present-time.

   In addition, the Xaisomboun Special Zone “ເຂດພິເສດໄຊສົມບູນ” was created in 1994 with area split off from the Vientiane province, and XiengKhuang Province. The Xaisomboun Special Zone as the Province of Laos, was originally up of the following districts:
   (1) Hom District;
   (2) Longsaan District;
   (3) Phoun District;
Thathom District; [and]
Xaisomboun District (Central Administrative Division).

During this period, the government was implement the reforming directive from the Resolution on Directive and Principle on Sectoring Management № 21/PBO, dated 08 May 1993 of the Politburo of LPRP to clarified the roles, functions, and responsibilities of central ministries in relation to their field offices and local authorities (so-called the new relation between central “National Ministries” and local “Provinces and Districts” under precisely determined on Vertical and Horizontal Powers) which reattachment of the government to all provincial and district technical officers to their respectively organizations’ mandates.

II. 1996-1997

According to the 6th Congress of the Lao People’s Revolutionary Party guided on continuing to reform executive organizations and staffing, Lao government had reformed and improved the formations to prevented overlapping and mobilized staffs to work in local areas and grassroots.

1) Ministries, Organizations Equivalent to Ministries
   1. Prime Minister’s office;
   3. Ministry of Interior;
   4. Ministry of Foreign Affairs;
   5. Ministry of Justice;
   6. Ministry of Finance;
   7. Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry;
   8. Ministry of Commerce and Tourism;
   9. Ministry of Industries and Handicraft;
  10. Ministry of Communication, Transport, Post and Construction;
  11. Ministry of Education;
  12. Ministry of Public Health;
  13. Ministry of Information and Culture;
  14. Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare;
  15. Committee of Planning and Cooperation; [and]
  16. Bank of Lao P.D.R.

2) Organizations under Prime Minister’s Office
   (1) Prime Minister’s Office Cabinet;
   (2) Technical Organization under supervision directly by the Prime Minister:
      1. Science, Technology, and Environment Agency;
      2. National Sport Committee;
      3. State Inspection Agency;
      4. State Audit Agency;
During the Siphandone’s Administration, a major personnel downsizing policy was implemented in the early 1990’s. The reassertion of central control was highlighted by the Central Bank of Lao PDR taking over the monetary management and the formulation of a national budget covering central and local expenditures which had to be approved by the National Assembly. All recruitments to the civil service had to be proposed to the Department of Public Administration in the Prime Minister’s Office for scrutiny, modification and approval. The economy grew rapidly between 1992 and 1996 when the average annual rate of growth was 7%.

However, which was followed by the Asian financial crisis and much slower rate of growth, the annual economic growth has resumed at a rate of around 6%.

3. Prime Minister KEOBOUNPHAN Sisavath (#error: 忙 ອິນ ສີສະຫວາດ ແກວບຸນພັນ)

During the Keobounphan’s Administration (24 February 1998 to 27 March 2001) still followed to the sixth Congress of the Lao People’s Revolutionary Party guided on continuing to reform executive organizations and staffing, Lao government had reformed and improved the formations to prevented overlapping and mobilized staffs to work in local areas and grassroots. The government organizations there are:

1) Ministries, Organizations Equivalent to Ministries
   1. Prime Minister’s office;
   3. Ministry of Interior;
   4. Ministry of Foreign Affairs;
   5. Ministry of Justice;
   6. Ministry of Finance;
   7. Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry;
   8. Ministry of Commerce and Tourism;
   9. Ministry of Industries and Handicraft;
   10. Ministry of Communication, Transport, Post and Construction;
   11. Ministry of Education;
   12. Ministry of Public Health;
   13. Ministry of Information and Culture;
   14. Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare;
   15. Committee of Planning and Cooperation; [and]
   16. Bank of Lao P.D.R.

2) Organizations under Prime Minister’s Office
   (1) Prime Minister’s Office Cabinet;
   (2) Technical Organization under supervision directly by the Prime
       Minister:
       1. Science, Technology and Environment Agency;
2. National Sport Committee;
3. State Inspection Agency;
4. State Audit Agency;
5. Department of Public Administration; [and]
6. National Geographic Department.

There are 140 Departments in central (31 December 1999) when PM Keobounphan took the office. During this period, the Prime Ministerial Instruction № 01/PM, dated 11 March 2000 on shifting the Provinces were become Strategic planning units, Districts become Planning and Budget units, and shift Villages become the implementation units, (so-called 3 shifts), which were issued as a trend of piloting the decentralization in Laos. This policy guidance defined new systematic, planning, and budgeting frameworks, aims to increase the roles, functions, and responsibilities of the localities (provinces, districts, and villages, especially to KoumBaan “Villages movement” alongside with implementing the national socio-economic development plans “5 and each fiscal years”).

4. Prime Minister VORACHITH BounNhang (ທຸກ ສູນຍັງ ວັລະຈິດ) *

The Constitution of Lao P.D.R was amended after the first Constitution was promulgated for over a decade [118], the new Constitution of Lao P.D.R issued date 6th May 2003 comprised of 11 Chapters and 98 Articles.

The Local Administration Law was enacted (№ 03/NA, dated 21 October 2003).

During this period, the Lao Government was reshuffled in accordance to the Chapter II. (article 5-7) of the revision Law on Government of Lao P.D.R (№ 02/NA, dated 6 May 2003) which was determined that the machinery of the Government of the Lao PDR consists of the Ministries and Ministry-equivalent Organizations, approved by the National Assembly. The Vorachit’s Cabinet (27 March 2001 to 08 June 2006) the governmental organizations consisted of 13 Ministries and 03 Organizations-Equivalent to ministries [119] is as below:

1) Ministries, Organizations Equivalent to Ministries
   1. Prime Minister’s Office;
   3. Ministry of Public Security; (Changed from Ministry of Interior in 2003 up to the present)
   4. Ministry of Foreign Affairs;
   5. Ministry of Justice;
   6. Ministry of Finance;
   7. Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry;
   8. Ministry of Commerce;

*Former Prime Minister has promoted to be Vice President of Lao P.D.R since June 8, 2006 up to the present.
9. Ministry of Industries and Handicraft;
10. Ministry of Communication, Transport, Post and Construction;
11. Ministry of Education;
12. Ministry of Public Health;
13. Ministry of Information and Culture;
14. Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare;
15. Committee of Planning and Cooperation; *(Changed the name to be Committee of Planning and Investment in 2004)* [and]
16. Bank of Lao P.D.R.

2) Organizations under Prime Minister’s Office

(1) Prime Minister’s Office Cabinet;

(2) Technical Organization under supervision directly by the Prime Minister:

1. Science, Technology and Environment Agency; *(ອົງການວິທະຍາສາດ, ເຕັກໂນໂລຊີ ແລະ ສິ່ງແວດລັດ)*
2. National Sport Committee; *(ະປາການກິລາແຫງຊາດ)*
3. National Tourism Authority; *(ອົງການທຽວທຽວແຫງຊາດ)*
4. State Inspection Agency; *(ອົງການກວດກາແຫງລັດ)*
5. State Audit Agency; *(ອົງການກວດສອບບັນຊີແຫງລັດ)*
6. National Geographic Department; *(ກົມແຜນທີ່ແຫງຊາດ)*
7. National Archive Department; *(ກົມສາເນົາແຫງຊາດ)* [and]
8. Department of Public Administration and Civil Service. *(ກົມການປົກຄອງ ແລະ ຄຸມຄອງລັດຖະກອນ)*

In April 2004, DPACS summarized the central executive department during the Vorachit’s administration consisted of 190 department-levels across the ministries and agencies (excluding 2 armed forces Ministries’ organization structure).

Local administration

In 2003 Vientiane Prefecture “วິສາກົດວຽງຈັນ” (Capital City of Laos since 1563) was changed the precisely name to Vientiane, the Capital City of Laos “ນະຄອນຫຼວງວຽງຈັນ” [120, (Chapter 10, Article 95)].

In 2003 Government of Laos launched the National Growth and Poverty Eradication Strategy (NGPES), which result of a process that started in 1996 due to the 6th LPRP Congress defined the long-term development objective as freeing Laos from the status of LDC by 2020, In order to implement the Brussels Programme of Action for the LDCs 2001-2010, as well as in the Millennium Declaration (8 MDGs since 2000) have been incorporated in the Lao Government’s poverty eradication strategy and medium and long-term socio-economic development plans. Latter, Lao government has incorporated all commitments in the meeting the objectives and goals of the Brussels Programme of Action, NGPES, the MDGs into its
Five-Year Socio-economic Development Plans parallel with 3-Shifts and KoumBān Development “Villages movement” direction across the country. And in 2004 the DPACS also reported the progresses, situations, and the future plans on implementation the Strategy on Public Administration Development (2001-2010).

To Commemorated to the late president Kaysone PHOMVIHANE in 85 years anniversary (since birth year in 1920-death in 1991), the government of Laos, National Assembly decided to change the name of Khaṇthaboury District in Savannakhet Province, where the city is birth town of former Prime Minister, and late President of Laos, the city was named after him in December 2005 “ເມືອງໄກສອນ ພົມວິຫານ”.

In 2006 the Xaisomboun Special Zone “ເຂດພິເສດໄຊສົມບູນ” was dissolved in officially on 17 January 2006 (Resolution № 03/NA). Due to the merger of the original 5 districts, such in September 23, 2004 the Hom District and Longsaan were merged. The new district, still named Hom, was reassigned to Vientiane Province; on June 27, 2005 the districts Phoun and Xaisomboun were merged, with the new district still named Xaisomboun, and reassigned to Vientiane Province, while Thathom district went to XiangKhuang Province.

In the other hand, according to the DPACS reported although Ta-Saeng (ຕາແສງ) still maintained in some provinces, which there are 37 Ta-Saengs in 2004.

5. Prime Minister BOUPHAVANH Bouasone (ທົນ ບົວສອນ ບຸບຜາວັນ)

After approved the new government by the National Assembly in the plenary session of the 6th Legislature on 08 June 2006, the President of Laos had ordinance the Presidential Decree No. 52/PO, dated 08 June 2006 on Appointment of Prime Minster and New Cabinet Members of Lao P.D.R, the governmental organizations consists of 13 Ministries and 3 Organizations-Equivalent to ministries.

During the Bouphavanh’s Administration (08 June 2006 to 23 December 2010) the governmental organizations was developed as reorganization, new established, merged, combined, and abolished. The central administrative, governmental organizations consisted of 14 Ministries and 02 Organizations-Equivalent to ministries, and there are 10 Sub-ministry level organizations in the central [121] are as below:

1) Ministries, Organizations Equivalent to Ministries
   1. Prime Minister’s Office;
   3. Ministry of Public Security;
   4. Ministry of Foreign Affairs;
   5. Ministry of Justice;
   6. Ministry of Finance; (There are 3 Vertical Departments directed to Locals)
   7. Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry;
   8. Ministry of Energy and Mine; (Established in 2006)
9. Ministry of Planning and Investment; *(Changed the name in 2007, and upgrade the National Statistic Centre to the Bureau level in 2010)*

10. Ministry of Industry and Commerce; *(Merged in 2005)*
11. Ministry of Public Works and Transport; *(Reshuffled in 2007)*
12. Ministry of Education;
13. Ministry of Public Health;
14. Ministry of Information and Culture;
15. Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare; [and]
16. Bank of Lao P.D.R.

Total: There are 14 Ministries and 02 Organizations equivalent to Ministries. In addition, government was establishedformedfounded and upgraded some organizations/agencies/authorities were become the sub-ministry.

2) Organizations directed to the government *(Tha-Buang)*

There are 10 Authorities/Agencies/Organizations with supported the Bouphavanh’s Administration, those organizations was set up to address specific tasks, under the guidance of the Prime Minister’s Office, such as:

1. Public Administration and Civil Service Authority *(PACSA)* ະບວງການປົກຄອງແລະຄຸມຄອງລັດຖະກອນ;
2. Autorité Nationale Pour les Sciences et la Technologie *(A.N.S.T)* ທິງການຊັບພະຍາດຂອງສາດແລະເຕັກໂນໂລຊີແຫ່ງຊາດ;
3. National Tourism Administration *(N.T.A)* ທິງການທີ່ດິນແຫ່ງຊາດ;
4. Water Resources and Environment Administration *(WREA)* ທິງການຊັບພະຍາກອນນ້ຳແລະສິ່ງແວດລອມແຫ່ງຊາດ;
5. Autorité Nationale des Postes et Télécommunications *(A.N.P.T)* ທິງການໄປສະນີແລະໂທລະຄົມມະນາຄົມແຫ່ງຊາດ;
6. National Land Management Authority *(N.L.M.A)* ທິງການຄຸມຄອງທີ່ດິນແຫ່ງຊາດ;
7. National Sports Committee *(N.S.C)* ທິງການກິລາກາຍະກາແຫ່ງຊາດ;
8. State Inspection Agency *(S.I.A)* ທິງການກວດກາແຫ່ງລັດ;
9. State’s Audit Office *(S.A.O)* ທິງການກວດສອບແຫ່ງລັດ; [and]

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*Tha-Buang (in Lao Language “ທະບວງ”) means Organizations under the direct authority of the government (Sub-ministry level); this term was used since the Royal Lao Government regime to the Republic regime, but abolished after the formation of the National University of Laos in 1996; See the article 17. Organization of the machinery of the Prime Minister’s Office in Chapter V. the Prime Minister’s Office, of the Law on Government of Lao P.D.R issue № 02/NA, dated 06 May 2003. Then 2004 Government of Laos was approved the re-establishment of the Tha-Buang (PACSA) “ທະບວງການປົກຄອງແລະຄຸມຄອງລັດຖະກອນ”.*
10. National Academy of Social Sciences (N.A.S.C) ມະຫານັກສາດສະທິບໍດີ

3) Organizations under Prime Minister’s Office
   1. Government Secretariats; (ຄະນະເລຂາທິການລັດຖະບານ)
   2. Cabinet of Prime Minister’s Office; (ຫອງວາການສັນກາງນາຍົກ
      ລັດຖະມົນຕີ)
   3. And some offices/council/secretariats (department level) were
      attached, there are Such as:
      – National Archive Department;
      – Office of the National Business Promotion;
      – Office of the National Committee for Drug Control and
        Supervision;
      – Office of the National Committee for the Advancement for
        Women;
      – Office of the National Leading Board for Rural Development and
        Poverty Eradication;
      – National Fund for Poverty Eradication; [and]
      – Office of the National Science Council.

While the overall leadership is provided by the Prime Minister
and Deputy Prime Ministers, the work of Ministries is supervised by
Ministers, with the assistance of vice Ministers. Some of the agencies in
the Prime Minister’s Office are headed by Minister’s who are also
designated Chairpersons. The Bouphavanh’s administration comprised of
261 departments (level) across the ministries and agencies (excluding
Ministry of National Defense, and Ministry of Public Security) [121]. There
are 4 districts (Müang Phonthong “LPB”, Müang Xaysathan, Müang
Xaychamphone, and Müang Meaune) was established during PM
Bouphavanh’s serve.

The resignation of Mr. Bouphavanh Bouasone from the post of
prime minister was approval by National Assembly in the 10th ordinary
session of the sixth legislature on 23 December 2010.
Chapter V
Public Organizational Development in the Present Time

Part A. Republic of Korea

The Korean government assumed a key role in the course of country’s transformation with phenomenally high economic growth. Since Korean government planned and executed the development policies in every aspect of the society, the government capacity was inevitably strengthened. The Korean government, however, consistently tried to streamline the government into a smaller and more efficient government.

1. Central Administrative Organizations
   Executive
   The President [14, p. 193]

   Since February 25, 2013 up to the present, President Madam Park Geun-hye (박근혜) the 11th Korean President serves as the first female President of Korea. Accordance to the Constitution, the President was elected by a nationwide, popular vote, and stands at the apex of the executive branch [11, (Chapter II)]. The president as the head of the Government shall direct and supervise the heads of all central administrative agencies according to applicable Acts and subordinate statutes [12].

   The President serves a single five-year term, with no additional terms being allowed. This single-term provision is a safeguard for preventing any individual from holding the reins of government power for a protracted period of time. In the event of presidential disability or death, the Prime Minister or members of the Cabinet will temporarily serve as the President as determined by law.

   Under the current political system, the President plays five major roles. First, the President is head of state, symbolizing and representing the entire nation both in the governmental system and in foreign relations. He receives foreign diplomats, awards decorations and other honors, and grants pardons. He has the duty to safeguard the independence, territorial integrity, and continuity of the state and to uphold the Constitution, in addition to the unique task of pursuing the peaceful reunification of Korea.

   Second, the President is the chief administrator and thus enforces the laws passed by the legislature while issuing orders and decrees for the enforcement of laws. The President has full power to direct the Cabinet and a varying number of advisory organs and executive agencies. He is authorized

11Madame Park was elected President of the country on December 19, 2012, who the first female President in Northeast Asia. She was inaugurated on February 25, 2013.
to appoint public officials, including the Prime Minister and heads of executive agencies.

Third, the President is commander-in-chief of the armed forces. He has extension authority over military policy, including the power to declare war.

Fourth, the President is the nation’s top diplomat and foreign policy maker. He accredits or dispatches diplomatic envoys and signs treaties with foreign nations.

Finally, the President is chief policy maker and a key lawmaker. He may propose legislative bills to the National Assembly or express his views to the legislature in person or in writing. The President cannot dissolve the National Assembly, but the Assembly can hold the President ultimately accountable to the Constitution by means of an impeachment process.

Cabinet

The Korean Government is divided into executive, judicial, and legislative branches. The structure of Korean government is determined by the Constitution of the ROK, some laws, and especially Government Organization Act [123]. The executive and judicial branches operate primarily at the national level, although various ministries in the executive branch also carry out local functions.
The Korean Government Chart

Legislature | Judiciary | Executive | Constitutional Court
---|---|---|---

President

- Office of the President;
- Office of National Security;
- Board of Audit and Inspection;
- National Intelligence Service.

The Prime Minister

- Presidential Security Service;
- Korea Communications Commission;
- National Human Rights Commission of Korea.

Office for Government Policy Coordination

- Ministry of Government Legislation;
- Ministry of Patriots & Veteran Affairs;
- Ministry of Food and Drug Safety.
  (So-called 3 lower-level ministries “처”)

Prime Minister’s Office

- Korea Fair Trade Commission;
- Financial Services Commission;
- Nuclear Safety and Security Commission;
- Anti-corruption & Civil Rights Commission.

Ministry of Strategy and Finance

Ministry of Science, ICT and Future Planning

Ministry of National Defense

Ministry of Education

Ministry of Justice

Ministry of Unification

Ministry of Foreign Affairs

Ministry of Security/Safety and Public Administration

Ministry of Health and Welfare

Ministry of Culture, Sports & Tourism

Ministry of Agriculture, Food, and Rural Affairs

Ministry of Environment

Ministry of Gender Equality and Family

Ministry of Agriculture, Food, and Rural Affairs

Ministry of Environment

Ministry of Maritime Affairs (Oceans) and Fisheries

Ministry of Trade, Industry and Energy

Ministry of Employment & Labor

Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, and Transport.
Local governments are semi-autonomous, and contain executive and legislative bodies of their own.

Under Korea’s presidential system, the President performs his executive functions through a Cabinet made up of 15 to 30 members and presided over by the President, who is solely responsible for deciding all important government policies. The Prime Minister is appointed by the President and approved by the National Assembly. As the principal executive assistant to the President, the Prime Minister supervises the administrative ministries and manages the Office for Government Policy Coordination under the direction of the President. In the present time, Mr. Chung Hong-won serving as the Prime Minister also has the power to deliberate major national policies and to attend the meetings of the national Assembly.

Members of the Cabinet are appointed by the President upon recommendation by the Prime Minister. They have the right to lead and supervise their administrative ministries, deliberate major state affairs, act on behalf of the President and appear at the National Assembly and express their opinions. Members of the Cabinet are collectively and individually accountable to the President only.

In addition to the Cabinet, the President has several agencies under his direct control to formulate and carry out national policies: the Board of Audit and Inspection of Korea, the National Intelligence service, and the Korea Communications Commission. The heads of these organizations are appointed by the President, but the presidential appointment of the Chairman of the Board of Audit and Inspection is subject to the approval of the National Assembly.

The Board of Audit and Inspection has the authority to audit the financial accounts of central and local government agencies, government corporations and related organizations. The board is also vested with the power to inspect abuses of public authority or misconduct by public officials in their official duties. The results of audits are reported to the President and the National Assembly, although the board is responsible only to the chief executive.

The National Intelligence Service is authorized to collect strategic intelligence of internal as well as external origin and information on subversive and international criminal activities. It also plans and coordinates the intelligence and security activities of the government.

The Korea Communications Commission comprises five standing members who run the committee on a consensus-basis. It is the highest-level agency that governs broadcasting, telecommunications and real-time Internet television services or IPTV.

Madame Park’s administration consists of 17 Ministries, which heads by ministers, the ministers are appointed by the president and report to the Prime Minister. Also, some ministries have affiliated agencies (listed below), which reports both to the Prime Minister and to the minister of the affiliated
ministry. Each affiliated agency is headed by a vice-minister-level commissioner.

Article 71 of the Constitution of South Korea states, that “In the event of the president not being able to discharge the duties of his/her office, the Prime Minister and ministers in line of the order of succession shall be the acting president”. Article 68 of the Constitution requires the acting president to hold new elections within 60 days.

According to revision of the Government Organization Act (정부조직법, 시행 2013.3.23 법률 제 11690 호) order of succession follows:

Organizations under President (대통령)
1. Presidential Secretariat (대통령비서실);
2. National Security Service (국가안보실);
3. Presidential Security Service (대통령경호실);
4. National Intelligence Service (국가정보원);
5. Board of Audit and Inspection (감사원);
6. Korea Communications Commission (방송통신위원회); [and]

Ministries (부)
1) Ministry of Strategy and Finance (기획재정부);
2) Ministry of Science, ICT and Future Planning (미래창조과학부);
3) Ministry of Education (교육부);
4) Ministry of Foreign Affairs (외교부);
5) Ministry of Unification (통일부);
6) Ministry of Justice (법무부);
7) Ministry of National Defense (국방부);
8) Ministry of Safety/Security and Public Administration (안전행정부);
9) Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (문화체육관광부);
10) Ministry of Agriculture, Food, and Rural Affairs (농림축산식품부);
11) Ministry of Industry, Trade and Resources (산업통상자원부);
12) Ministry of Health and Welfare (보건복지부);
13) Ministry of Environment (환경부);
14) Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, and Transportation (国土교통부);
15) Ministry of Gender Equality and Family (여성가족부);
16) Ministry of Employment and Labor (고용노동부); [and]
17) Ministry of Oceans/Maritime Affairs and Fisheries (해양수산부).

Organizations under Prime Minister (국무총리)
1. 국무총리비서실 (Prime minister’s secretariat);
2. 국무조정실 (The office for government policy coordination);
3. 공정거래위원회 (Fair Trade Commission);
4. 금융위원회 (Financial Services Commission);
5. 국민권익위원회 (Anti-Corruption and Civil Rights Commission);
6. 원자력안전위원회 (Nuclear Safety and Security Commission);
7. 국세청 (National Tax Service);
8. 관세청 (Korea Customs Service);
9. 조달청 (Public Procurement Service);
10. 통계청 (Statistics Korea);
11. 검찰청 (Supreme Prosecutor’s Office);
12. 병무청 (Military Manpower Administration);
13. 방위사업청 (Defense Acquisition Program Administration);
14. 경찰청 (Korea Nation Policy Agency);
15. 소방방재청 (National Emergency Management Agency);
16. 문화재청 (Cultural Heritage Administration);
17. 농촌진흥청 (Rural Development Administration);
18. 산림청 (Korea Forest Service);
19. 중소기업청 (Small and Medium Business Administration);
20. 특허청 (Korea Intellectual Property Office);
21. 기상청 (Korea Meteorological Administration);
22. 해양경찰청 (Korea Coast Guard); [and]
23. 행정중심복합도시건설청 (Multifunctional Administrative City Construction Agency).

Relocation of Government Agencies

Until recently almost all of the Central government agencies were located in either Seoul or Gwacheon government complex, with the exception of a few agencies located in Daejeon government complex. Considering that Gwacheon is a city constructed just outside of Seoul to house the new government complex, virtually all administrative functions of ROK was concentrated in Seoul. It has been recently decided, however, that the majority of the government agencies relocate themselves to Sejong Special Self-Governing City established in South ChungCheong Province so that the government agencies are better accessible from most parts of ROK and at the same time the concentration into Seoul might be deterred.

So far only the first phase of the project has been finished and the selected agencies will move one by one to the new government complex in Sejong City during the next few years.

However, accordance to a senior official of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs was discussed with me on the governmental organizations still settle in Seoul12, e.g. Ministry of Foreign Affairs; Ministry of Unification, Ministry

12I discussed during the 2013 of Lao New Year Celebration (Pi Mai Lao “ປັດຈ່ວງໄມ້”) in the Lao Embassy in Seoul with Mr. Jeong Woo-jin, Director of Southeast Asia Division, South Asian & Pacific Affairs Bureau, Ministry of Foreign Affairs on 13 April 2013.
State Council

The State Council is made up of the president, the Prime Minister, 19 cabinet-level ministers and 1 Minister for Special Affairs (특임장관, or 特任長官), represent the 17 ministries of the South Korean Government.

The Council is charged with deliberating on major policy decisions. Its meetings are chaired by the president and officiated by the Prime Minister (the Prime Minister chairs the meetings if the President is not present). Although the Council has no power to make final decisions, the Constitution requires that certain matters be brought to it before final decisions are made. These include bestowals of state honors, drafts of constitutional amendments, declarations of war, budget proposals, government restructurings, and emergency orders.

The Prime Minister assisted President in his duties, the Prime Minister is appointed by the president and approved by the National Assembly, and has the power to recommend the appointment or dismissal of cabinet ministers. The Prime Minister is assisted in his duties by the Prime Minister's Office, headed by a cabinet-level minister. In the event that the president is unable to fulfill his duties, the Prime Minister assumes the president's powers and takes control of the state until the president can once again fulfill his duties or until a new president is elected. The ministers are appointed by the president and report to the Prime Minister. Also, some ministries have affiliated agencies, which reports both to the Prime Minister and to the minister of the affiliated ministry. Each affiliated agency is headed by a vice-minister-level commissioner.

Legislative

Legislature power is vested in the National Assembly, a unicameral legislature. After National Election (19th Assembly) was held on the 11th April 2012, the Assembly is composed of 300 members who serving four-year terms.

Out of 300 members, 246 are elected by popular vote from local constituencies (single-member constituencies), and while the remaining 54 members obtain their seats through a proportional representation system in which seats are allocated to each political party that has gained 3 percent or more of all valid votes or five or more seats in the local constituency election. The system is aimed at reflecting the voices of people from different walks of life while enhancing the expertise of the Assembly.

The members of the National Assembly serve for four years; in the event that a member is unable to complete his or her term, a by-election is held. The National Assembly is charged with deliberating and passing legislation, auditing the budget and administrative procedures, ratifying treaties, and approving state appointments. In addition, it has the power to impeach or recommend the removal of high officials.
The Assembly forms 17 standing committees to deliberate matters of detailed policy. For the most part, these coincide with the ministries of the executive branch.

Bills pass through these committees before they reach the floor. However, before they reach committee, they must already have gained the support of at least 20 members, unless they have been introduced by the president. To secure final passage, a bill must be approved by a majority of those present; a tie vote is not sufficient. After passage, bills are sent to the president for approval; they must be approved within 15 days.

Each year, the budget bill is submitted to the National Assembly by the executive. By law, it must be submitted at least 90 days before the start of the fiscal year, and the final version must be approved at least 30 days before the start of the fiscal year. The Assembly is also responsible for auditing accounts of past expenditures, which must be submitted at least 120 days before the start of the fiscal year.

Sessions of the Assembly may be either regular (once a year, for no more than 100 days) or extraordinary (by request of the president or a caucus, no more than 30 days). These sessions are open-door by default, but can be closed to the public by majority vote or by decree of the Speaker. In order for laws to be passed in any session, a quorum of half the members must be present.

Currently, there are 5 political parties are represented in the National Assembly. Such as: Saenuri Party (새누리당 “New Frontier Party”), Democratic Party (former Democratic United Party, 04 May 2013), Unified Progressive Party, Advancement Unification Party, and Independents.

Judiciary

The judicial branch includes the Constitution Court, the Supreme Court, regional appellate courts, and local district, branch, municipal, and specialized courts. All courts are under the jurisdiction of the national judiciary; the judicial branch operates at both the national and local levels. Independent local courts are not permitted. Judges throughout the system are required to have passed a rigorous training system including a two-year program and two-year apprenticeship. All judicial training is provided through the Judicial Research and Training Institute, and is limited to those who have already passed the National Judicial Examination.

The Constitutional Court is the head of the judicial branch of government. The Constitutional Court is charged purely with Constitutional review and with deciding cases of impeachment. Other judicial matters are overseen by the Supreme Court. This system was newly established in the Sixth Republic, to help guard against the excesses shown by past regimes. The Constitutional Court consists of nine justices. Of these, three are recommended by the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, three by the National Assembly, and three by the president; however, all must be appointed by the president. The President of the Constitutional Court is appointed by the national president, subject to the approval of the National
Assembly. The members of the court serve for six-year renewable terms, and cannot be older than 65 (except for the President of the court, who may be as old as 70).

The Supreme Court is the final court of appeal for all cases in South Korean law. The Supreme Court, seated in Seoul, consists of fourteen Justices, including one Chief Justice. The Chief Justice of the Supreme Court has the power over all court administration, and can recommend court-related legislation to the National Assembly. The Justices must be at least 40 years old, and have at least 15 years of experience practicing law. They serve for six-year terms; the Chief Justice cannot be reappointed, but the other justices can.

Below the Supreme Court come appellate courts, stationed in five of the country's major cities. Appellate courts typically consist of a panel of three judges. Below these are district courts, which exist in most of the large cities of South Korea. Below these are branch and municipal courts, positioned all over the country and limited to small claims and petty offenses. Specialized courts also exist for family, administrative, and patent cases.

Independent Organizations

The Independent Organizations in Republic of Korea, there are the Constitutional Court, National Election Commission, and National Human Rights Commission.

The Constitutional Court

The Constitutional Court was established in September 1988 as a key part of the constitutional system. The constitution of the Sixth Republic, based on the Korean people’s deep enthusiasm for democracy, adopted a new judicial review system, the constitutional court to safeguard the Constitution and to protect the people’s basic rights by establishing special procedures for the adjudication of constitutional issues.

The Court is empowered to interpret the Constitution and to review the constitutionality of all statutes, to make judicial decisions on impeachment or
on dissolution of a political party, and to pass judgment in competence disputes and constitutional complaints.

The Court is composed of nine Justices. The term of office for Justices is six years and is renewable.

National Election Commission

In accordance with Article 114 of the Constitution, the National Election Commission was established as an independent constitutional agency on a par with the National Assembly, the administration, courts and the Constitutional Court for the purpose of fair management of elections and national referenda. It also deals with administrative affairs concerning political parties and political funds.

The tenure and status of each Election Commissioner is strictly guaranteed as prescribed in the Constitution so that they can execute their duties without any external inference.

National Human Rights Commission

The Commission was established in 2001 as a national advocacy institution for human rights protection. It is committed to the fulfillment of human rights in a broader sense, including dignity, value and freedom of every human being, as signified in international human rights conventions and treaties to which Korea is a signatory.

The Commission is comprised of 11 Commissioners including the Chairperson, 3 Standing Commissioners and 7 Non-standing Commissioners. Among the 11 Commissioners, 4 are elected by the National Assembly, 4 are nominated by President, and 3 are nominated by the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court and then approved by the President.

Independent Agencies

According to the Constitution, rules and the affiliated laws of the Republic of Korea stipulated, the agencies listed below report directly either to the President or to the Prime Minister.

★ The following agencies report directly to the President:

− Board of Audit and Inspection (감사원);
  ※ the chairperson of the board, charged with general administrative oversight, must be approved by the National Assembly to be appointed.
− National Intelligence Service (국가정보원);
− Korea Communications Commission (방송통신위원회);
− National Science and Technology Commission (국가과학기술위원회);
− National Security Council (국가안전보장회의);
− National Unification Advisory Council (민주평화통일자문회의)
− National Economic Advisory Council (국민경제자문회의); [and]

The following agencies report directly to the Prime Minister:
- Ministry of Government Legislation (법제처);
- Ministry of Patriots and Veterans Affairs (국가보훈처);
- Fair Trade Commission (공정거래위원회);
- Financial Services Commission (금융위원회);
- Anti-Corruption and Civil Rights Commission (국민권익위원회);
  [and]
- Nuclear Safety and Security Commission (원자력안전위원회).

The following agency report to neither the President nor the Prime Minister:
- National Human Rights Commission of Korea (국가인권위원회).

Civil Service Management

The South Korean civil service is large, and remains a largely closed system, although efforts at openness and reform are ongoing. In order to gain a position in civil service, it is usually necessary to pass one or more difficult examinations. Positions have traditionally been handed out based on seniority, in a complex graded system; however, this system was substantially reformed in 1998.

There are 988,755 civil servants in South Korea today. More than half of these are employed by the central government; only about 300,000 are employed by local governments. In addition, only a few thousand each are employed by the national legislative and judicial branches; the overwhelming majorities are employed in the various ministries of the executive branch. The size of the civil service increased steadily from the 1950s to the late 1990s, but has dropped slightly since 1995.

The civil service, not including political appointees and elected officials, is composed of career civil servants and contract civil servants. Contract servants are typically paid higher wages and hired for specific jobs. Career civil servants make up the bulk of the civil service, and are arranged in a nine-tiered system in which grade 1 is occupied by assistant ministers and grade 9 by the newest and lowest-level employees. Promotions are decided by a combination of seniority, training, and performance review. Civil servants' base salary makes up less than half of their annual pay; the remainder is supplied in a complex system of bonuses. Contract civil servants are paid on the basis of the competitive rates of pay in the private sector.
Rank and Hierarchy

SCS (1-2nd) (Launched in July 2006)
Grade 1
Grade 2
Grade 3
Grade 4
Grade 5
Grade 6
Grade 7
Grade 8
Grade 9

← Competency Assessment
← Higher Civil Service Exam
← Grade 7 Civil Service Exam
← Grade 9 Civil Service Exam

![Image of a ranked hierarchy diagram with grade levels and competency assessment]
2. Local Governments

The Constitution of the Republic of Korea determined in the Article 117 (Chapter VIII. Local Autonomy) that “Local governments deal with matters pertaining to the welfare of local residents, manage properties and may, within the limit of laws, enact provisions relating to local autonomy regulations”

Local government heads manage and supervise administrative affairs except as otherwise provided by law. The local executive functions include those delegated by the central government such as the management of public properties and facilities and assessment and collection of local taxes and fees for various services.

Higher-level local governments basically serve as intermediaries between the central and lower-level local governments.

Lower-level local governments deliver services to the residents through an administrative district (동, 읍, and 면) system. Each lower-level local government has several districts with serve as field officers for handling the needs of their residents. Dong, Eup and Myeon officers are engaged mainly in routine administrative and social service functions.

Local autonomy was established as a constitutional principle (Chapter VIII. Local Autonomy in the Constitution 1987) of South Korea beginning with the First Republic; However, for much of the 20th century this principle was not honored. From 1965 to 1995, local governments were run directly by provincial governments, which were run directly by the
national government. However, since the elections of 1995, a degree of local autonomy has been restored. Local magistrates and assemblies are elected in each of the primary and secondary administrative divisions of South Korea, which is, in every province, metropolitan or special city, and district. Officials at lower levels, such as dong (동), eup (읍), and Myeon (면) are appointed by the city or county government.

As noted above, local autonomy does not extend to the judicial branch. It also does not yet extend to other areas, including fire protection and education, which are managed by independent national agencies. Local governments also have very limited policy-making authority; generally, the most that they can do is decide how national policies will be implemented. However, there is some political pressure for the scope of local autonomy to be extended.

Although the chief executive of each district is locally elected, deputy executives are still appointed by the central government. It is these deputy officials who have detailed authority over most administrative matters.

The major administrative divisions in South Korea are provinces, metropolitan cities (self-governing cities that are not part of any province), one special city and one special autonomous city.

1) Provinces (도)
   1. Gyeonggi-do (경기도);
   2. Kangwon-do (강원도);
3. Chungcheong Buk-do (충청북도);
4. Chungcheong Nam-do (충청남도);
5. Cholla Buk-do (전라북도);
6. Cholla Nam-do (전라남도);
7. Gyeongsang Buk-do (경상북도);
8. Gyeongsang Nam-do (경상남도); [and]
9. Jeju-do (Special self-governing province) 제주특별자치도.

2) Metropolitan (광역시)
   1. Seoul (서울);
   2. Incheon (인천);
   3. Daejeon (대전);
   4. Gwangju (광주);
   5. Daegu (대구);
   6. Ulsan (울산); [and]
   7. Busan (부산).

3) Sejong (세종시), the Special self-governing city (세종특별자치시).

3. Government Restructuring Stakeholders
   Government restructuring stakeholders, there are government as a whole to responsibilities, who power in charged directly is the President on behalf of heads of the government, Prime Minister who are the number 2 of government after President, Ministry of Safety and Public Administration (MOSPA), Korea Institute of Public Administration (KIPA), National Assembly, and other organs implications.
Ministry of Safety/Security and Public Administration

Ministry of Security/Safety and Public Administration (안전행정부 or MOSPA) is a ministry of the national government of Republic of Korea. The ministry is in charge of the civil and domestic affairs in the Republic of Korea, including the National Police Agency and the National Emergency Management Agency. Ministry of Public Administration and Security was formed in 2008, the prior to restructuring in 2008, the ministry was known as Ministry of Government Administration and Home Affairs (행정자치부), and during the Lee’s Administration (2008-Feb. 2013), this ministry known as Ministry of Public Administration and Security (행정안전부 or MoPAS = 정부).

MOSPA supports and strengthens government’s capacity, strives for government organization reforms to realize a “smaller and more efficient government” and promptly dynamic administrative environment.[124]

The Ministry of Safety/Security and Public Administration has plays role in Government reorganization or reshuffle issues, MOPAS was integrated the Government Administration, Home Affairs, the Civil Service Commission, the National Emergency Planning Commission and National Informatization Strategy functions of the Ministry of Information and Communication.

MOSPA has introduced flexible personnel management for the purpose of accomplishing special missions such as priority agendas. Under the new policy, each government organization must reserve 5% of its total human resources for reallocation to new tasks.

History of the Ministry of Security/Safety and Public Administration which was established of 2 Ministries in 1948, there are Ministry of Government Administration (MOGA) and the Ministry of Home Affairs (MOHA); in 1991 the National Police Agency was established within the organizational structure of the Ministry of Home Affairs; then 2 ministries (MOHA and MOGA) was merged became one ministry named Ministry of Government Administration and Home Affairs (MOGAHA) in 1998; after that 2004 the National Emergency Management Agency was formed under the MOGHA; in 2008 MOGAHA was reshuffled became the Ministry of Public Administration and Security (MOPAS) and recently the New government under President Madame Park’s Administration was reshuffled recently MOPAS became MOSPA (February 2013) up to the present.

MOSPA, which in charge of government organization and management was renamed, due to the security concern in high priority, the major functions of MOSPA, e.g. Establish more capable, reliable, and efficient government; trustworthy to civil servants; ensure a safe and secure society; realize an advanced knowledge-based information society; grant and
devolution greater local autonomy to local governments; build an accountable fiscal management system to local governments; promotes the stabilization of people’s lives by revitalizing local economy; enhances the government’s organizational capacity, etc.

Presidential Commission on Administrative Innovation (PCAI)

The PCAI was established on April 20, 1993 it is advisory organization since President Kim Yong-sam’s administration until the present, current called the transition team during President Madame Park Geun-hye’s administration before formation the new government.

It is supposed to deliberate and make immediate decisions on all sorts of reform proposals initiated by the ministries, local governments, and the general public. The commission’s final decisions, which are reported to the President periodically, and goes into effect unless the president disagrees with them or the NA would act otherwise. So far, however, there has not been a single case that the President or the national Assembly acted differently.

Korea Institute of Public Administration

The Korea Institute of Public Administration (한국행정연구원 or “KIPA”) is a government-funded (sponsored by government) research institute in Republic of Korea, was established in October 1991 to support the administrative development of the country. They do research not just on current issues of public administration but historical ones as well, as in 2009 when a researcher presented a seminar paper about the effectiveness of public spending during the reign of Sejong the Great in the 15th century. In December 2009, new institute head Bak Yung-gyeok withdrew their labor research group from the Korean Confederation of Trade Unions and dissolved it. In June 2010, they held a seminar on the Lee Myung-bak administration’s regulatory reforms.

The National Assembly

National Assembly (국회) was held under the UN supervision on May 1948, the First Republic of South Korea was established on the 17th July 1948 when the constitution of the First Republic was established by the Assembly.
In 1986 Laos has implemented the open-door policy alongside with undertaking the governance and public administration reform to push up socio-economic growth, new laws and decrees have been adopted and mostly, particularly the new constitution was promulgated in 1991.

2001 the 7th Party Congress has set out the ten year socio-economic development strategy (2001-2010) for the country, Lao party defined that the mandated power of legal system and public administrative agencies must be enhanced; we should carry on the improvement of public organizations both central and local level in order to distinguish responsibilities correctly among government agencies and those local agencies, and makes coordination among them in organized ways; the roles and duties of each level must be clearly defined in order to solve problems transparently, properly, speedily and strictly by following the regulations and laws. Coordination between central sectors and local sectors should be ongoing smoothly.

2003 the Party resolution (issued 118/PPB, 15 December 2003) leads to organisational development to the structure of Government and local authority to be: “Compactness, Strengthen, Effective and Efficiency”.

The sixth five-years National Socio-economic Development Plan (or 6th Plan) covering the five years period 2006-2010 plays a crucial role in implementing the socio-economic development guidelines set out by the 7th and the 8th Party Congresses.

The experience accumulated during the period of restructuring and more particularly during economic crisis, the government and ministries, central and local agencies are ready to seek solution. It is for such reasons that develop resources are strengthened, additional reasons are joined, obstacles are overcome and difference goals are achieved.

The main problems of Laos on administrative development there are:
– Governance system in Laos quite complicated both central and local level, particularly to governmental structure and administrative organizations, some ministries, authorities, agencies were overlap and duplication of roles and functions;
– Many public officers knowledge on public administration development does not high;
– Responsibility in each organizations or local are not link to the rule of law, low decision making, release work to staff who work on this task only;
– World economic changed (crisis) but who work in this task do not adjust, modify or use new techniques to the new condition and others.

Priority in present-time, approaches to development designated at the 9th Congress of the LPRP guides 4 breakthroughs for achieves development goals throughout the country during 2011-2015:
1. Relieving of people’s mind from old stereotype;
2. Human Resource Management (HRD);
3. Public Management Mechanisms; [and]
4. Poverty reduction.
1. Central Administrative Organizations
   Executive Branch
   The Prime Minister

   Since 23rd December 2010 up to the present-time, Prime Minister THAMMAVONG Thongsing (🍬 ທ່ານ ທອງສິງ ທ່າມະວົງ) (the 6th Prime Minister of Lao P.D.R) serving as the head of Lao Government. Prime Minister of Lao P.D.R, accordance to the Constitution (Constitution issued 2003), Article 72. The Prime Minister is appointed or removed by the President of the state after approval of the National Assembly. The Prime Minister is appointed or removed by the President of the Republic after the approval of the National Assembly (Article 13).

   After resignation of the former Prime Minister Boupavanh Bouason, during the 10th ordinary session of the sixth National Assembly on 23 December 2010 by the 101 National Assembly members present for the vote, which was aimed at improving the cabinet by Mr. Thongsing THAMMAVONG’s promotion was approved unanimously. Madame Pany YATHOTU, vice president of the Lao National Assembly, had been promoted to be President of the National Assembly, replacing Mr. Thongsing THAMMAVONG.

   Premier THAMMAVONG Thongsing, new Prime Minister, first day of the inaugural session at the National Assembly Hall, pledged to contribute to the realization of the 7th NESD five-year (2011-2015) plan. He vowed to make the country meets development targets, the economic growth more than 7 percent in each year, government work more effectively, harmoniously, and solidarity. In the one hand, government strictly tackles negative phenomena among civil servants, business sectors, and also continues the constant foreign policy to cooperation with other nations, regions, and international arenas.

Cabinet

   According to the Chapter 7 of the Constitution of Lao P.D.R, the government is the executive branch of the state; the government consists of the Prime Minister, Deputy Prime Minister [s], Ministers and Chairman of the Ministry-equivalent Organizations.

   The term of the government is the same as the term of the President of the State after the approval of the National Assembly.

   The Prime Minister appoints, transfers, and removes Vice-Ministers, Vice-chairmen of the ministry-equivalent organizations, heads of department, deputy governors, and deputy mayors of cities, and promotes and demotes colonels in the national defense and security forces and other ranks as provided by the laws.

   The Deputy Prime Ministers are the assistants of the Prime Minister and execute the tasks assigned to them by the Prime Minister. The Prime Minister may assign a particular Deputy Prime Minister to carry out work on his behalf in the event that he is [occupied on other matters]. The four Deputy-Premiers covered homeland security, economy, international/foreign cooperation, and interior affairs.
Structure of Government

The governmental organizations was determined by the Constitution of Lao P.D.R (2003) and was stipulated by the Law on the Government of Lao P.D.R (issued number 02/NA, dated 6th May 2003) to the structure of the machinery of government.

The out-of-date the Law on Government of Lao P.D.R No. 02/NA, dated 6th May 2003 stipulated or determined in the Chapter II on the structure, duties and responsibilities of government (Article 5) that “the machinery of the government of the Lao People’s Democratic Republic consists of the Prime Minister’s Office, Ministries and Ministry-equivalent organizations, approved by the National Assembly”

Primer of Lao P.D.R serves as the head of Lao Government, in accordance to the Constitution (Constitution issued 2003), Article 72. The governmental organizations was determined by the Constitution of Lao P.D.R (2003) and was stipulated by the Law on the Government of Lao P.D.R to formation of the structure of the government’s machinery, members with the approval by the National Assembly more than two-third of votes [129, (Article 13)].

Structure of the government is composed of the Prime Minister, Deputy Prime Ministers, Ministers and Chiefs of the Committees equivalent to the ministry. In the present, the governmental organizations consist of 21 Ministries level13, such as:

1) Ministries, Organizations Equivalent to Ministries

   According to the Presidential Decree № 107/PO, dated 30th June 2011 on Government Machinery, Appointment of Prime Minster, Deputies Prime Minister and Ministers in Cabinet of Lao P.D.R, Lao government structure in total of 21 Ministries level: There are 18 Ministries and 03 Organizations equivalent to Ministries. In addition, government was established and upgraded some organizations (sub-ministry) such as:

1. Government’s Office; (ຫຼວງການລໍາງວາມ)
2. Ministry of Defense; (ກະຊວງປະຊາຊົນ)
3. Ministry of Public Security; (ກະຊວງປະຊາຊົນການປະຫານ)
4. Ministry of Foreign Affairs; (ກະຊວງການຕິດຕາມປະເທດ)
5. Ministry of Finance; (ກະຊວງການບໍດີ)
6. Ministry of Justice; (ກະຊວງສານ)
7. Ministry of Planning and Investments; (ກະຊວງການແຜນການແລະການລ່ຽມທຳນຽມ)
8. Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry; (ກະຊວງການສາດສານແລະບໍrub)
11. Ministry of Public Works and Transport; (ກະຊວງໂຍທາດທະຍານແລະຂື້ນສ່ງ)</p>

13The 7th National Assembly, First Plenary Session (VII NA Legislature) approved new cabinet members on the 15th June 2011.
12. Ministry of Health; (ສະຖານທໍາລູກສະກ່າສາດ)
13. Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare; (ສະຖານທໍາລູກພະຍາບາດ และ ວັດຖະບາຍໄຊ້ຊັບ)
14. Ministry of Education and Sports; (ສະຖານທໍາລູກສຶກສາຕອບ และ ສະບາຍສາດ)
15. Ministry of Information, Culture and Tourism; (ສະຖານທໍາລູກສາດ, ວັດຖະບາຍຊາດ และ ສະບາຍພູພົນ)
16. Bank of the Lao P.D.R; (ລາວຊາງສາດ ສ.ປ.ປ.ລາວ)

New Ministries and upgrade level to ministries (15 June 2011)
17. Ministry of Home Affairs; (ສະຖານທໍາລູກພາຍໃນ)
18. Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment; (ສະຖານທໍາລູກສາຊາດທະນະເລັດແລະສາພາກ)
19. Ministry of Science and Technology; (ສະຖານທໍາລູກສຶກສາແລະສາດ)
20. Ministry of Post, Telecommunication and Communication; (ສະຖານທໍາລູກສາດ, ວັດຖະບາຍສາດແລະການສາກົນ) [and]

2) Organizations directed to the government (Sub-ministry level)
1. National Academy of Social Sciences (N.A.S.C) ສະຖາບານວັດຖະບາຍຊາດສາດກ່າວ;
2. State’s Audit Office (S.A.O) ສະຖານທໍາລູກສະບາຍສາດ;
3. Lao Red Cross (ອຸກນາການກາແດງລາວ).

3) Government’s Office Machinery
I. Structure of Government’s Office: There are 10 Department, e.g. Personnel; Administration and Protocol; Finance Management; Inspection; Secretariat; Economic Archives; Cultural Archives; Political Archives; Law; [and] Department of Public Relations.
II. Some commissions and committees that also come under Government’s Office jurisdiction
1. Business Improvement Committee; (ຄະນະປັບປຸງທຸລະກິດຂອງຊາດ)
2. National Commission for Drug Control and Supervision; (ຄະນະການການພະຍາບາດແລະຄວບຄຸມຢາເສບຕິດ)
3. National Leading Committee for Rural Development and Poverty Eradication; (ຄະນະຊົມການເກດຕະກາດການດັງການແລະລາວບ້ານຂອງພົນຊາດ)
4. National Committee on Special Economic Zone and Specific Economic Zone; (ຄະນະກຳມະການເສດຖະກິດໃຫ້ເຂດເສດຖະກິດດັງການແລະເຂດເສດຖະກິດປະກວດ).

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5. National Commission for the Advancement of Women; (ແມ່ນະທຳມະນາດັ່ງກ່ວາງສັງຄົມຊາຍຊາດ激光)
6. National Commission for Mother and Child; (ແມ່ນະທຳມະນາດັ່ງກ່ວາງຊາຍຊາດ激光)
7. And some offices/councils/secretariats (departmental level) were attached or annexed.
Legislative

The Lao Parliament is unicameral legislature named the National Assembly (NA) \(^{[120]}\). National Assembly is the representative of the rights, powers and interests of the multi-ethnic people. The National Assembly is also the legislative branch that has the right to make decisions on fundamental issues of the country, [and] to oversee the activities of the executive organs, the people's courts and the Office of the Public Prosecutor \(^{[130]}\).

The term of office of each National Assembly (legislature) is five years from the opening session of the incumbent National Assembly [legislature] to that of the new National Assembly.

The election of a new National Assembly legislature must be completed no later than sixty days prior to the expiration of the term of office of the incumbent National Assembly \(^{[131]}\).

National Assembly Structure following organizational structure:
- President of the National Assembly;
- Vice-President of the National Assembly;
- Standing Committee of the National Assembly;
- Committees of the National Assembly;
- Members of the National Assembly in the constituencies;
- Members of the National Assembly; [and]
- Cabinet of the National Assembly.

The National Assembly Standing Committee \(^{[132]}\) consists of the President, Vice-President and a number of members. The President and Vice-President of the N.A. are also the President and Vice-President of the N.A. Standing Committee (there are 10 in total).

National Assembly Committees consists of:
1) The Law Committee;
2) The Economy, Planning and Finance Committee;
3) The Cultural and Social Committee;
4) The Ethnic Affairs Committee;
5) The National Defense and Security Committee; [and]
6) The Foreign Affairs Committee.

When necessary, the National Assembly may establish additional committees based on the recommendation of the National Assembly Standing Committee.

Members of the National Assembly: National Assembly Members are the representatives of the will and aspirations of the multi-ethnic people. They are elected by the Lao citizens pursuant to the principles contained in the Law on Election of the Members of the National Assembly. After the National Assembly Election as the 7\(^{th}\) Assembly (132 members) which was
held on 30th April 2011 and the election for national assembly member at the 12th constituency of Khammuane province in August 2012.

Judiciary

The Judiciary of Lao P.D.R consists of People’s Court and Public Prosecutor. The Jurisdiction of the People’s Courts: The people’s courts have the judicial power to adjudicate criminal, civil, commercial, family and juvenile cases, and such other cases as authorized by the laws. The Public Prosecutor: The Office of the Public Prosecutor has the duty to monitor the implementation of the laws.

The System of the People's Courts in the Lao PDR: The system of the people's courts in the Lao People's Democratic Republic comprises: the People's Supreme Court, the appellate courts, the people’s provincial and city courts, the people’s district and municipal courts, and the military courts.

In the event that it is deemed necessary, the National Assembly Standing Committee may decide to establish a special court.

Organizational Structure of the People's Supreme Court comprises: The President, vice-presidents, judges, the General Assembly of Judges, the court’s chambers, and the administrative departments.

The Office of the Public Prosecutor is a State organization that has the role to monitor and inspect the proper and uniform adherence to laws by all ministries, ministry-equivalent organizations, and government organizations, the Lao Front for National Construction, mass organizations, social organizations, local administrations, enterprises, and citizens and to exercise the right to prosecute [offenders].

The Office of the Public Prosecutor has the duty to monitor the implementation of the laws. The Office of the Public Prosecutor consists of the Office of the Supreme Public Prosecutor, the Office of the Appellate Public Prosecutor, the offices of the Public Prosecutor at provincial and city levels, the offices of the Public Prosecutor at district level, and the Office of the Military Prosecutor.

Civil Service

The Lao P.D.R is administered by the civil service, since established the republic, late 1989, the GOL embarked the restructuring throughout the country on restructuring of the civil service, aims for moving toward a market-based economy, and after promulgated the Constitution commenced in 1991, public personnel management continued to be directly managed by the party committees (CCOP).

In 1993 the Prime Minister SIPHANDONE Khamtay issued the Decree on Civil Servants, № 171/PM, dated 11th November 1993, and the Decree on the Classification of Grades and Steps of State Employees, №
172/PM, dated 11th November 1993. In April 1994, the retrenchment was accompanied by overhaul of the new salary structure (salary pay structure) for each job categories, which determined by decrees.

In mid-1995, GOL with support by World Bank to established a civil service monitoring unit, which the computerized system was implemented for monitoring the retrenchment program, as a progress in civil service reform in Laos during 1990s.

Then after 2001, the responsibility for personnel management in the civil service was transferred from the CCOP to the Department of Public Administration and Civil Service (DPACS) in the Prime Minister’s Office with the Central Committee of Organization and Personnel (CCOP) or Party Central Committee’s Organization Board (PCCOB) only retaining responsibility for the management of high leadership positions.

In the 2003, the government had issued the Degree on Civil Service of the Lao P.D.R (PM VORACHITH BounNhang), which amended issue № 82/PM, dated 19th May 2003 (effective from 1st July 2003), the Department of Public Administration and Civil Service have subsequent became the PACSA, a sub-ministry level (Tha-Buang) by the Prime Ministerial’ Decree on Organization and Activity of PACSA № 64/PM, dated 17th May 2004 (but official effective in June 2005). The Decree on Civil Service of the Lao P.D.R (82/PM), which was implemented by all governmental organizations with the supervision and inspection by the PACSA. At the provincial and district levels, the Party’s Committees for Organization and Personnel provide guidance on management of the civil service and staff of mass organizations.

Since 2011 up to the present, the Ministry of Home Affairs (was upgraded on Jun. 15, 2011 from the PACSA which was governmental agency level became the Ministry level), on behalf of the Government of Lao P.D.R that is responsible for civil service management and public administration reform in both central and local level throughout the country, considers civil service system reform and the capacity building in the administrative institute as a significant issue for country to release from the underdeveloped country. In order improve the civil service system and capacity building of the Lao civil servants who are the key figures driving the national socio-economic development.

The civil service in Lao P.D.R is classified into 5 grades, and each grade has 15 steps matching respective salary indexes. This classification excludes high-ranking officers (Vice-Minister and above), military, police, employees of State-owned Enterprises, and State employees working on a contractual basis. Civil servants at grades I and II are “Administrative Support Staff” and in grade III, IV and V are “Personal Staff”. Civil servants eligible for grade V is requires to have passed through Grade IV. Each grade is divided further into levels based on the level of education and seniority in the civil service, Application of grades and steps are based principally on the level of education or managerial position. For example, the appropriate step for civil servants in Grade IV with a Doctoral degree or equivalent are
eligible for step 7, those with a High Graduate Diploma for step 6, and those with bachelor’s degree or equivalent for step 2. Article 66 of the Civil service decree provides for grade promotion of civil servants based on certificates/qualifications obtained, level of seniority, and through examination. The Organization and Personnel Department of Ministries manage grade promotion and step advancement annually, with ratification by the Minister, Governor, or Mayor, before recommending the same to the central agency for civil service management.

The norms for administrative positions of Lao civil service also cover civil servants in the organizational structure of the Party, the Government, Lao Front for National Construction, and Mass Organizations at central and local level. Administrative positions in the Lao Civil Service fall into eight classes. The first class position are Vice-Chairperson of designated Agencies and Sub-Ministries, Committee members of the Central Committee for Inspection, President of the Regional People’s Court and the Regional People’s Prosecutor. The second class administrative position covers Department Director-General and equivalent positions such as Head of Cabinet Office of Ministries and Sub-Ministries, Vice-President of the Regional people’s Court and the Regional People’s Prosecutor, District Head and Dean/Rector of the National University.

Lao civil service emphasizes merit and performance management; Given the key role played by the civil servants in delivering services and implementing development programs, the Government of Lao is actively reviewing compensation and allowances for civil servants sent to the work in remote areas. This has become a serious concern because of the significant shortage of staff willing to be places in remote areas; therefore many civil servant positions remain unfilled. All civil servants must spend two of their first five years at a District location, but this is yet to be implemented in a comprehensive manner.
Classification of salary schedule

The classification of salary schedule is based on the academic degree, profession or the job descriptions. There are 3 Classification of Civil Servant (Job or Classes), such as: Administration, Technical staff (Technical official/Technical officer), and Executive positions are differentiated; There are 5 grades and each grade consists of 15 steps.

Civil servant at the grade I and II levels shall be called “Administrative Affairs Assistants”, Civil servants at grade III, IV and V levels shall be called “Technical Officers” and each grade is divided into a further 3 levels based on the level of education attained and seniority in the civil service.

Classification of salary schedule

- Be based on the academic degree, profession or the job descriptions.
  1) Grade 1. General educations;
  2) Grade 2. Professional school of preliminary qualification
  3) Grade 3. Certificate from the professional school of medium qualification, certificate of pre-bachelor’s degree, certificate from school of the high qualification the study period of which less than 3 years.
  4) Grade 4. Certificate of PhD, High graduate diploma, Master degree, Graduate diploma, bachelor degree or equivalent and certificate from school of the high qualification the study period more than 3 years.
  5) Grade 5. Persons who ended of the function of high leadership and who surpassed the grade 4.

For a decade (10 years), the growth of national socio-economic in the new era, the number of servants has been increasing rapidly from 91,070 in 2001 to 142,600 in 2012 in average 5 % per year (accounting for about 2.3 percent of the country's population.). The number of new recruitment officials in last year (2012) was 15,340 posts (intake), both central and local level (ration of female civil service 43% of whole government officials).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fiscal Years</th>
<th>Number of Civil Servant (persons)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2001-2002</td>
<td>91,070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002-2003</td>
<td>91,330</td>
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<tr>
<td>2003-2004</td>
<td>91,953</td>
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<td>2009-2010</td>
<td>120,651</td>
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<tr>
<td>2010-2011</td>
<td>132,451</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011-2012</td>
<td>142,600</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Comparison Number of Civil Servant since 2001-2012**

Remunerations

The remuneration system for Lao civil servants is aligned with the grade and step banding system. The Civil Servants in Lao PDR are classified into 5 grades, from grade I to grade V, and each grade has 15 steps matching respective salary indexes. Indexes and their values shall be determined periodically depending on the GDP of country.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pay steps</th>
<th>Grade 1</th>
<th>Grade 2</th>
<th>Grade 3</th>
<th>Grade 4</th>
<th>Grade 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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Civil Servants, in addition to receiving regular salaries, may receive other allowances, bonuses, pension allowances, and social security benefits.

The low level of remuneration for all grades of civil servants remains one of the biggest challenges currently facing the reform process.

Civil Service Improvement is a main area of Public Service Improvement in Laos, which consists of 4 strategic areas, such as:
1) Improving State Management Regulations;
2) Reforming Organizational Machinery;
3) Improving Civil Service Management;
4) Strengthening Central-Local Relationships.

The civil service in Laos is implementing widespread reform against the backdrop of a demanding internal and external environment, while facing a number of significant challenges. Since 1975, governance reform has played an important role in reaching the country’s goals to consolidate the nation-state, create national unity and establish the basis for sustainable and equitable development. Achieving such goals is impossible without a transparent and accountable public service which is dynamic and responsive enough to adjust over time to reflect the ever-changing realities.

Although we have been requested to share only one innovation in this area, there are many examples of how governance and public administration reform is gradually introducing a stronger culture and practice of transparency and accountability into the Lao PDR public service. These are wide-ranging, and include such critical initiatives as the National Accounting System and the Citizen’s Report Card.

The recent introduction of the National Accounting System (NAS) has significantly changed the process of completing and reporting accounts at
central and local level, resulting in a significant increase in transparency and accountability, in addition to increasing the quality of service delivery in this area. The National Accounting System was initiated by the Department of Treasury in the Ministry of Finance in 1996, and has now been successfully implemented at Central and Provincial levels across Lao PDR. It has had a major impact in accounting, reporting and payment accuracy, transparency and schedules. The tangible results have included monthly reports being produced more quickly, with greater accuracy, leading to quicker submission to the Ministry of Finance, Treasury and Accounting Departments at Central level, and better control and quicker disbursement of funds. The introduction of accounting software, designed in the Lao language, has effectively utilized local expertise and promoted local ownership.

A recent evaluation has revealed that this change in systems has directly resulted in clearer ownership, and that staff now feel more empowered to take full ownership of their jobs, as they can now be held more fully accountable for their successes and failures. Another example of how the Lao Government is developing a more transparent and accountability work culture and institutional framework is through the recent piloting of the Citizens’ Report Card in a number of provinces throughout the country. The first Citizens’ Report Card Survey in Lao PDR was conducted in 2007 in three provinces. This Report is a demand-side survey technique that will allow the Government of Lao PDR to monitor citizens’ level of satisfaction on the services which are being delivered by the government. In this first pilot survey, a number of aspects of service delivery were benchmarked such as accessibility, affordability, transparency and satisfaction in the agriculture, education and health sectors, all of which are essential to increasing the livelihood and well-being of Lao citizens. In Luang Prabang, the survey also probed into issues relevant to small and medium enterprises such as banking, customs, cross-border trade and taxation.

Although the report is currently in the editing stage, the final document will compare the different provinces and services, differentiating on important aspects such as ethnicity and gender. It will highlight the most important opportunities and challenges the provinces and sectors have to deal with, providing initial suggestions. This participatory assessment of public service delivery can be seen as a baseline activity, providing insights into key areas where improvements are of high priority, giving an indication of how such services can further be improved.

As with the National Accounting System, it is envisaged that the Citizens’ Report Card will contribute directly to the reforms in transparency and accountability underway within the Lao civil service. As agencies are made more aware of citizens’ level of satisfaction in their service delivery, organizations will be required to discuss the effectiveness and efficiency of service providers in more detail, and to openly identify the challenges and opportunities for improvement. It will also open up avenues for citizens and the private sector to have a greater voice in service delivery mechanisms.
Other examples of important reform activities underway include the development of a Civil Service Code of Conduct, the increasing use of technology such as the development of a Personnel Information Management System (PIMS). In addition, the Law on Anti-corruption was adopted by the National Assembly in May 2005, which the State Inspection Authority has disseminated at both central and local levels. The organizational structure of anti-corruption agencies has been improved, and the Department of Anti-Corruption Inspection has been established. The State Inspection Authority has also drafted an Instruction of the Prime Minister pertaining to Asset and Debt Declaration and Registration of civil servants at all levels.

In 2006 Lao Government enacted the Government Priority Policy for 5 years term (2006-2010) there are 11 frameworks and 111 Programs, especially to the 11th framework determined on Improve and enhancement of effectiveness on public administration especially to administrative organizations.

The 6th National Socio-Economic Development Plan (NSEDP) 2006-2010 was determined on sound financial management which related to public service such as:

- Development of a sound fiscal policy;
- Development of transparent and accountable practices for revenue collection;
- Development of transparent and accountable practices for expenditure planning and management;
- Modernization of the accounting system;
- Development of a banking sector capable of supporting private sector growth.

Before FY 2009-2010 (2008) the new procedures strengthened the commitment control mechanism and budget control effectiveness. The reengineering the budget execution process cannot be dissociated from the design of the budget control system. A concept note on CMS has been drafted with technical support from the European Commission. Then after, Government developed payment mechanism through ATMs as a salary collection option is being discussed with banks, in order to ensure the remuneration process is more efficient and transparent. The payroll system is limited to basic functions and manages the payment recording and distribution of Finance Ministry salaries. Nowadays, cover throughout the country.

The total regular compensation packages for Lao civil servants are made up of a complex number of components, steps, including base salary, monetary allowances, and in-kind benefits, which was determined by the Decree on Civil Service of Lao P.D.R № 82/PM, 19 May 2003 in the Chapter XIII (Article 69-74), based on Article 40 of Chapter VII. The basic salary equals salary index multiplied by the index value; and recently the new remuneration policy, which was approval the principal system in the First Plenary Session of the VII Legislature in June 2011, and the fundamental
Prime Ministerial’ Decree № 221/GOL, 30 May 2012 (effective on 01 October 2012) on salary hike 3 years (from 2012 to 2015), which government will also grant an allowance of 760,000 kip/person/month to cover the cost of clothing, shoes; resides, water, electricity, gasses, etc.

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2. Local Administrative Organization

According to the Constitution of Lao P.D.R (6th May 2003) in Chapter VIII on the Local Administration was stipulated that The Lao People's Democratic Republic is divided into three levels of local administration, namely provinces, districts and villages.

- The provincial level consists of provinces and cities;
The district level consists of districts and municipalities; [and]
The village level consists of villages.

Provinces are governed by governors, Cities are governed by governors of cities; Districts are governed by mayors, Municipalities are governed by chiefs of municipalities, and Villages are administered by village chiefs. Governors, Mayors, chiefs of municipalities and village Chiefs have deputies to assist them in their work. If it deems it necessary, the National Assembly may decide to establish a Special Zone. The Special Zone is equivalent to a province.

In the present, the country is administratively divided into 17 provincial levels, including Vientiane, the Capital City of Laos, which are further divided into 145 districts (New Districts in 2011; Müang KhounKham in June, and Müang Kwon in December). Provincial governors, who are representatives of the central government, are appointed to the position by the President of State, after being recommended by the Prime Minister. Governors usually hold party positions, and are often elected as the secretary of the provincial party committee, by the local party members.

Province [s]
1. Vientiane, the Capital City; (9 dist.)
2. Vientiane Province; (13 dist.)
3. Phongsaly Province; (7 dist.)
4. Huaphan Province; (9 dist.)
5. Luang Namtha Province; (5 dist.)
6. Borkeo Province; (5 dist.)
7. Oudomxai Province; (7 dist.)
8. Luang Prabang Province; (12 dist.)
9. Xayaboury Province; (11 dist.)
10. Xieng khuang Province; (8 dist.)
11. Borlikhamxai Province; (7 dist.)
12. Kham Muane Province; (10 dist.)
13. Savanhnakhet Province; (15 dist.)
14. Salavan Province; (8 dist.)
15. Xekong Province; (4 dist.)
16. Attapeau Province; (5 dist.) [and]
17. Champasak Province. (10 dist.)

During this period, the government will allocate more than 90 billion kip (US$11.25 million) to launch 400 pilot projects under a policy to build provinces as strategic units, districts as strong units in all regards, and villages as development units (3-builds directive). This movement aims to strengthen local administration and development by allowing provinces, districts and villages to play a more important role in development. Under the project, local authorities will play a key role in formulating, planning and managing the effective use of the state budget to reflect the circumstances of local people.
Meanwhile, the government will define regulations and mechanisms as well as divide up the responsibilities of the provinces, districts and villages towards achieving the projects.

The government will upgrade the skills of local officials, especially in districts, as they work on the pilot projects. The pilot projects will be conducted in 2012-2013 in 51 districts nationwide including 22 focus districts, for rural development and poverty reduction; 3 districts in each province will be selected for the pilot projects; each project will cost less than 5 billion kip. The project is part of the government's socio-economic development plan for 2012-2013.

History: After liberation in 2nd December 1975, local administration level consists of four tiers, such as: Province, District, sub-District or Commune (Ta-Saeng ‘Ta-Saeng’ in Lao), and Village; in 1978 the Standing of the Supreme People’s Assembly approved the Law on Council of Ministers and Local Administration Committee (101/SPA, 31 July 1978) the local administration’ units was under led by the Chair or President of the local administration unit; since 1991 up to the present (followed the Constitution), the local administration was composed of 3 tiers as provinces, districts, and villages. This means, the 1991 Constitution had significantly changed the structure of the local administration; the Provincial People’s Councils were dissolved, as were the local administrative committees. The Ta-Saengs, the intermediate units between the district and village authorities were abolished, thereby reducing the number of administrative levels in the country from four to three, leading to increased and direct responsibilities for districts over a larger number of villages without necessarily having additional resources or improved capacities. District Chiefs are appointed by the Prime Minister on the recommendation of the provincial Governor, to administer the area, implement development plans and coordinate activities of field offices of the line ministries in the district. Provincial governors and district chiefs are civil servants appointed by the state, whereas village chiefs are elected representatives.
3. Government Restructuring Stakeholders

Government restructuring stakeholders, there are government as a whole to responsibilities, who power in charged directly is the Prime Minister on behalf of heads of the government, National Assembly, Government Reorganization/Restructuring Board, and Ministry of Home Affairs (MoHA), and other organs implications (includes local levels).

The National Assembly ( *)&amp; *(*)

December 2, 1975 with the foundation of the Lao People's Democratic Republic and the establishment of the Supreme People's Assembly ( *)&amp; *(*) by a nationwide People's Representatives Congress.

The Supreme People's Assembly First Legislature had 45 members, of whom four were women. The Standing Committee consisted of Prince Souphanouvong who was President of the Supreme People's Assembly, Mr. LOVANXAY Sisomphone, Mr. KOMMADAM Sithon and Mr. LOBLIAYAO Faydang who were Vice-Presidents and Mr. KEOLA Khamsouk who was Vice-President and Secretary General. The First Legislature had three committees: the Constitution Drafting Committee, the Presidential Decrees and Election Laws Drafting Committee and the Planning and State Budget Committee.

In addition, the People's Supreme Assembly, First legislature, adopted the Lao first 5 year Plan of Socio-economic Development (1980-1985) and a number of new laws, such as the Law on the Council of Ministers and Local Administration Committee, and the Law on Foreign Investment. The Assembly also deliberated other important issues for the Nation.

On March 26, 1989 Lao people elected the People's Supreme Assembly Second Legislature, comprising of 75 members, of whom five were women. Mr. PHOUMSAVANH Nouhak was appointed President, assisted by five permanent members in the Standing Committee and five committees: the Constitution and Law Decrees Drafting Committee, the Economy, Planning and Finance Committee, the Foreign Relations Committee, the Cultural and Social Affairs Committee and the Cabinet of the Supreme People's Assembly. People's Assemblies existed at provincial and district levels.

The most important achievement of the People's Supreme Assembly Second Legislature was to fulfill its political role in drafting the first Constitution of the Lao PDR which was adopted on August 14, 1991, by the 6th ordinary session of the People's Supreme Assembly Second Legislature. The Second Legislature adopted 22 new and actively implemented a foreign relations policy, which aimed to enhance cooperation with parliamentary organizations at international and regional level with friendly countries.

On December 20, 1992, members of the Third Legislature were elected and the Supreme People's Assembly changed its name to the National Assembly (Then was used up to the present). The National Assembly, as a legislative organ, implements its rights and duties defined in the Constitution and the Laws on the National Assembly. The Third Legislature did not have regional assemblies and worked only at national level.

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Members of the National Assembly have the right to interpellate the Prime Minister or [other] members of the government, the president of the People’s Supreme Court and the Supreme Public Prosecutor.

Government Reorganization/Restructuring Board (Government Reorganization/Restructuring Board (ຄະນະປ ັ ບປ ຸ ງກ ົ ງຈ ັ ກgaben (ග ກ ັ KK) was formed in 2011 by the Prime Ministerial Agreement, № 55/PM, dated 4th July 2011 on Establishment of Government Restructuring/Reorganization Board. The GRB Chairs by Mr. LAOLY Asang, deputy Prime Minister of Laos.

History of Government Reorganization/Restructuring Board derived from:

The government machinery reform is a major priority of the state, the first committee was formed in the 6th Plenary Meeting of LPRP on 08 June 1998 had resolution to established the Committee of Government Machinery Improvement (CGMI) Chaired by the Prime Minister; a Deputy-Prime Minister charged as Vice-Chairman; with the Members, consisted the Head of Cabinet of PMO; a Vice-Chief of CCOP; and a Vice-Chairman of the Central Party Inspection Committee (CPIC).

CGMI has secretariats, which composed of representatives from various ministries, agencies, and some party’s organizations to supports and helps the CGMI to implement resolutions of the committee. Secretariats of CGMI were appointed by the CGMI Chairman.

The most priority, responsibility, and significant of the CGMI to resettles as the strategic planning of government’s reform for compact, transparent, and convenient; try to mobilizes the central officials to local areas; try to reform the governmental organization to be more effective and efficient; try to advocates, educates, and trains the new blood officials/civil servants/cadres disseminate, aware, and insight to the reform perspectives. The duties and scope of authority of CGMI to review, analyze, and improve decrees, methods, principles, regulations, etc. in roles, functions, and structures of Ministries, Organizations in central level, and sectors in local levels; to coordinate with the CCOP to recruits the officials to the right task in important position, based on merit system; to coordinate with other committees to revise the Constitution (enacted in 1991); to make decisions, suggest warnings, and notifications to the Ministries, Agencies, Organizations, and local authorities throughout the country; to investigates and audits the Ministries, Agencies, Orgs, and Local areas in the targeted of reform, and so on.

In addition, CGMI has supervised to the Ministries’ Machinery Improvement Board (MMIBs) to implements the CGMI agendas on reformation to improve the structure of Ministries, Agencies, and Organs to be shape, active, and more efficiency.
1) Government’s Machinery Improvement Board “GMIB” (กระบวนพัฒนาอุปกรณ์ มีข้อเรียบร้อย)

GMIB was formed in accordance to the Lao People’s Revolutionary Party’s Resolution № 195/PBO, dated 12 April 2005 on Establishment of the Government’s Machinery Improvement Board (GMIB) consists of 5 members:
1. Comrade BOUPHAVANH Bouasone, Politburo, Deputy Prime Minister, Standing Committee, Chief of the GMIB;
2. Comrade OUANELASY Thongsy, Vice-Chief of the Central Party of Organization Board [or] Central Committee for Organization and Personnel (CCOP); Vice-Chief of GMIB;
3. Comrade BOUNPACHIT Chansouk, Vice-Chief of the Central Party of Inspection Board; committee
4. Comrade SOMBOUNKHANH Cheaung, Vice-Chief of Central Party of Propaganda;
5. Comrade VIPHONGXAY Khammoune, Director-General of Department of Public Administration, Prime Minister’s Office.

2) State’s Organization Improvement Board “SOIB” (กระบวนพัฒนาองค์การ มีข้อเรียบร้อย)

Lao People’s Revolutionary Party, Resolution № 248/PBO, dated 13 June 2005 on Establishment of the State’s Organizational Improvement Board (SOIB) consists:

1. Comrade BOUPHAVANH Bouasone, Politburo, Deputy Prime Minister, Standing Committee, Chief of the SOIB;
2. Comrade Madame MOUNPHOXAY Bounpheng, Vice Minister to the Prime Minister’s Office, Chairperson of the Public Administration and Civil Service Authority, Vice and Standing Committee of SOIB;
3. Comrade PHOMVIHANE Xaysomphone, Vice-Chairman of the National Assembly, Vice-Chief of SOIB;
4. Comrade OUANELASY Thongsy, Vice-Chief of the Central Party of Organization Board [or] Central Committee for Organization and Personnel, (committee);
5. Comrade BOUNPACHIT Chansouk, Vice-Chief of the Central Party of Inspection Board, (committee);
6. Comrade SOMBOUNKHANH Cheaung, Vice-Chief of Central Party of Propaganda; (committee);
7. Comrade VIPHONGXAY Khammoune, Director-General of Department of Public Administration, Prime Minister’s Office, (committee).

3) The reshuffling SOIB

Lao People’s Revolutionary Party, Resolution № 15/SPCC, dated 31 May 2005, and Resolution № 41/SPCC, dated 13 June 2005, on committee’s Reshuffle of the State’s Organizational Improvement Board.
1. Comrade CHITMANY Bounthong, Secretariat of the Party Central Committee, Chief of CCOP, Chief of SOIB;
2. Comrade VIPHASOUK Xiengsing, Vice-Chief of the Central Party of Organization Board [or] Central Committee for Organization and Personnel; [and]

3. All the same members of the SOIB by Resolution № 248/PBO, except Mr. BOUPHAVANH Bouasone, who was approval by the First session of the VI Legislature (so-called the Congress of National Assembly) on 08 June 2006 to be the Prime Minister of Laos.

The conference (Highlight) of the State’s Organizations Improvement Board (SOIB) was held on 11 May 2011 (before present the reorganization of government framework to the First session of the 7th Legislature, approval the new machinery of government 2011-2015 by the National Assembly on 15 June 2011). The conference was chaired by Dr. CHITMANY Bounthong, politburo, Chief of the Central Committee for Organization and Personnel, and Chief of SOIB with the members, and 9 officials participated. After hearing from the report represented, discussed, and the Chairman gave conclusion remarked to the new path of reforming in the states’ administration system in the future, cases/feasibility studies, and ongoing sustains, especially to the new cabinet of government with 4 new ministries, 2 reshuffles, and reorganization of some states’ agencies, which those reform plan going to present for approval by the National Assembly Members [135].

Ministry of Home Affairs

Ministry of Home Affairs (MoHA = ສໍາລັບພາສາ) is an organization within the machinery of government, which was formed on the 15 June 2011 during the plenary session of the 7th Legislature approval of the new government.

The Ministry of Home Affairs (ແລະພາສາ) is the upgrading of former Public Administration and Civil Service Authority (PACSA), according to the Presidential Decree № 107/PO, dated 30 June 2011, and № 132/PO, dated 4 July 2011 on Government Machinery, Appointment of Prime Minster, Deputies Prime Minister and Ministers in Cabinet of Lao P.D.R. MoHA pays roles and function by the Prime Ministerial Decree on Organizing and Operation, № 253/PM, dated 19 August 2011. The MoHA has roles, functions, and scopes on advisory (counselor) for the government in the management, reform and structural improvement of government organizations both the central and local levels. It is responsible for advising the government on issues relating to civil service management; rules and regulations; the establishment of civil society organizations; cartographic administration, population and identity records, archiving, ethnic and religious issues, and the conferring of awards, rewards, metrology-survey and administrative research and civil servant training throughout the country, which vertically subordinated departments at the provincial level. It is also a Secretariat of the GRB.

The Organizational Structure of the Ministry of Home Affairs, there are 12 Departments and 3 equivalent offices, center and institute, in depth are as follow:

1. Office;
2. Organizational-Personnel Department;
3. Inspection Department;
4. Planning and Cooperation Department;
5. Department of Public Administration Development;
6. Department of Local Administration;
7. Department of Public Servant Management;
8. Department of Civil Servant Evaluation and Development;
9. National Geographic Department;
10. National Archive Department;
11. Citizenship Management Department;
12. Ethnicity and Religious Department;
13. Rewards Department;
14. Survey, Metrology and Geographic Center; [and]
15. Administration Science Research and Training Institute.

History of PACSA “ woodworking” (before formed MoHA)

The Department of Public Administration and Civil Service (DPACS “ woodworking”) was established by Prime Ministerial № 98/PM, dated 17 December 1992 under PMO, led by Mr. PHOMKHAE Vilayvanh, the former Deputy-Chief of CCOP (now incumbent Minister of Agriculture & Forestry). At that time, it was composed of 12 staffs, (11 from CCOP, and 1 from the National School of Public Administration, latter NOSPA, and lastly NAPPA in the present-day) consisted of 6 divisions.

After 4 years of operation, GOL decided to return civil service to CCOP control directly (Decree № 143/PM, dated 9 August 1996), consequently 7 staffs were transferred to CCOP, then DPACS changed to Department of Public Administration “DPA” (Decree № 69/PM, dated 30 June 1997) consisted of 4 divisions.

In April 2001, the government decided to transfer civil service responsibilities back to DPA again, hence DPA was reorganized to DPACS (№ 124/PM, dated 4 July 2001). The new DPACS was led by Mr. SIBOUNHEAUNG Langsy (now incumbent Vice-President of Public Prosecutor) under supervised by the Vice-Minister to the PMO, and also Vice-Chief of CCOP Mr. VIPHAVANH Phankham (now incumbent Minister of Education & Sports). DPACS in 2004 (DG was Mr. VIPHONGXAY Khammoune, now incumbent Vice-Minister of Home Affairs) has 30 officials, who have worked in 5 divisions, e.g. (Administration Development Division; Local Administration & Municipal Affairs; Personnel Management; Training & Information; and Administrative & Finance Division).

In May 2003, the NA approved the revision Law on Government of Lao P.D.R (№ 02/NA), which was stipulated the organization of Tha-Buang within PMO (Chapter V), alongside with the Decree on Civil Service of Lao P.D.R (№ 82/PM) also determined, therefore in May 2004 the GOL agreed to create a strong authority to covered the administration relating to the national management of civil servants throughout the country, but excludes high ranking officials, armed forces officers, and staffs of state-owned enterprises, which are governed by their respective principles and regulations.
Public Administration and Civil Service Authority (PACSA) was established by a Decree of the Prime Minister № 64/PM, May 17, 2004. The formation of PACSA was officially announced on 01 June 2005. Since then, it has carried out its role and functions under the leadership of Vice-Minister to the Prime Minister’s Office, Madame MOUNPHOXAY Bounpheng Chairperson of PACSA (Had been promoted to Minister to the PMO on 08 June 2006; Latter the Minister to the Government’s Office on 15 June 2011 up to the present).

PACSA Position and Role: It has an advisory role for the government in the management and structural improvement of government organizations at central and local levels; civil service management; study and formulation of regulations on establishment of civil society organizations throughout the country.

Organizational Structures’ PACSA
1. Office;
2. Department of Public Administration Development;
3. Department of Local Administration; [and]
4. Department of Civil Servant Management.
   + Civil Servant Training Center (Establishes out of the Decree 64/PM).

PACSA Functions and Responsibility
- To periodically creates strategic plans, policies, and development plans on public administration and civil service management for Government’s approval and enforcement;
- To periodically formulate plans, work plans and projects in order to improve public administration regulations, organizational structures and civil service management, so that state organizations have simple, effective and rational structure; ensure the provision of appropriate knowledge, skills and the values of honesty and loyalty, to civil servants; to ensure the development of mechanisms for transparent, reliable, and effective administration procedures;
- To study and draft laws and regulations on public administration and civil service management in accordance with its roles, functions, and responsibility, for submission to concerned organizations for approval and promulgation; develop appropriate orders, instruction, and notifications to support the implementation of promulgated laws and regulations;
- To analyze and propose the improvement of government structure; proposals for the establishment, dissolution, or merger of ministries, equivalent organizations, and state organizations at provincial level to be presented for Government’s consideration; proposals to Government for the establishment, dissolution, and merger of government organizations directly attached to the Government or organizations that are within the structure of the Prime Minister’s Office;
− To study, and authorize stamp/seals of state organizations a civil society organizations;
− To advise on proposed changes regarding the role, functions and organization structures of ministries, equivalent organizations, and organizations directly attached to the Government or in the structure of the Prime Minister’s Office; in close collaboration with ministries and organizations mandated to define the structures and activities of local vertical department;
− To assist the government in developing draft regulations for establishing civil society organizations, and provide advice to ministries, equivalent organizations, and local administrations on establishing and managing activities of those organization;
− To study and propose the establishment, division, merger or definition of boundaries of provinces, city, districts, and municipalities for Government’s consideration; coordinate with relevant local administrations to consider the resolution of boundary-related conflicts or to refer the resolution of the conflict to relevant higher authorities;
− To provide advice to local administrations on procedures and methods for the election or appointment of village chiefs in accordance with the law on local administration; collaborate with provincial and district administrations to promote permanent cultivation; to provide advice for the establishment of development communities, and to collaborate with local administrations in solving immigration problems;
− To formulate mechanisms, regulations, and recommendations for the management of civil servants; and to develop and effectively implement guidelines/procedures relating to these regulations;
− To manage civil servants, collect statistic, information, and curriculum vitae of all civil servants; determine quota of civil servants and submits to the government for approval; encourage and supervise ministries, agencies, and local administration on job description, staff deployment and transfer, recruitment process, and updating grades and levels of civil servants, etc.;
− To settle or refer to higher authorities, conflicts, complaints or proposals of civil servants related to restructuring, staffing, appointment, transfer, remuneration or disciplinary actions taken against them;
− To formulate strategies, plans, and programs for HRD for civil servants; organize training, workshops, and research on public administration and civil service matters;
− To periodically study and determine policies on salary, allowances and other benefits for civil servants and submit for government’s approval; supervise and advise ministries, equivalent organizations, and local administrations to implement such policies;
− To monitor and evaluate the implementation of improvements of organization structures, civil service management, and other issues in ministries, organizations equivalent to ministries, and local authorities;
– To cooperate and coordinate with international organizations on public administration and civil service matters.

Scope of PACSA
– To request ministries, agencies, and local governments to improve organization structures, report and provide information of situation of organization improvement, public administration regulations and civil service periodically;
– To propose the government, the Prime Minister to dissolve or cancel rules and regulations on public administration and civil service management which are inappropriately issued by ministries, agencies and local administrations;
– To issue orders, instructions or notifications on public administration and civil service management; to improve structure, nominate, remove, disqualify, upgrade categories and ranks, award and take disciplinary action on personnel within PACSA as specified;
– To sign contracts, sub-contracts and memorandums of project execution on public administration and civil service management with foreign countries and international organizations as authorized by higher authorities;
– To apply other rights and duties as specified in regulations and laws and as assigned by the Government and the Prime Minister; And so on.
Chapter VI
Method, Research Survey, and Result Interpretations

Methodology used in researching is survey by creating various/vary questionnaires which related to the real situation of Lao public service (via e-mail, telephone and interview) and I’d like to focus or emphasis to find out the solution (in case of primary research merely) to understanding the government priorities and tried to find the way to solve the problems or eliminate the barriers due to gathering from researching which based on summarize regulations, data / information from my ① counterparts, colleagues and friends who living in Laos, ② Lao officials who working in Korea, [and] ③ Lao Officials on behalf of Foreigner students who studying in Korea.

Accordance to the conceptualization of survey on Experimental and control groups, which seldom, if ever, involve only the observation of an experimental group to which a stimulus has been administered. In addition, the researchers also observe control group, which does not receive the experimental stimulus.

The need for control groups in social research became clear in connection with a series of studies of employee satisfaction which was conducted by F.J. Roethlisberger and W.J. Dickson in the late 1920s, early 1930s [136] and 1939, then I’ve tried to research from this idea to transform for the development purposes.

The formulas which were used in the analyzing the data [137], such, Probability: \( P(A \cup B); P(A \cup B \cup C); \) Mean, Mean for grouped data \((\overline{x})\); Standard deviation for grouped data \((S)\), etc. In addition, I’ve observed for dependent variables and independent variables.

After gained the answered, then critical and analysis those problem/issues, share idea with the staffs or officials who has task and experiences related to the government careers, reforming, organization development, personnel management, etc.

The research was focused via the rationale analysis, interaction during interview, and mutual logical idea exchanges, including individuals’ unique experiences.

1. General Information
   - There are 17 people who participated in my survey (Samples); 12 and 5 interviews.
   - All Public Officials; Central level such as: Ministry of Foreign Affairs; Ministry of Education and Sports; Ministry of Justice; Ministry of Finance; and Ministry of Home Affairs; Some Provinces Residences, etc;
   - Location: Sampling in Laos, China, and in Korea.
2. Result
   - Status: Single 3, Married 14;
   - Age: 26-34 yrs (6), 35-39 yrs (3), over than 40 yrs (8);
   - Education: Bachelor (1), Master (13), Ph.D/Doctoral (3);
   - Sex: male (13), female (4);
   - Population: more than 40, but I’ve focus to the who working in public service merely;
   - Working experiences: lower than 2 yrs (0), 3-5 yrs (8), over than 5 yrs (9);
   - Knew the size of Lao government: 68% knew, 12% somehow, and 20% nil;
   - Knew the size of Korean government: 10% knew, 41% somehow, and 69% nil;
   - Downsizing checked: knew (6), somehow (9), nil (2).

3. Comments or recommends
   - That’s adequate for Lao government size in this era;
   - As recently, Lao public officers still get too much difficulty in public life, due to low salary. To improve the organization, manpower, to stimulate officer’s mind devoting themselves for public service as well (it is necessary to increase the salary);
   - People can have motivation to work, if we usually reform the public organizations;
   - If we can rise the salary/wage, it will be good for Lao officials and country also, in addition corruption issue may reduced;
   - On behalf of myself, if we would like to increase the capacity of public matters, first we should evaluate in each level, Second, think try to know income for our country in reality (where did income from nation-wide?) then we are looking for the strengthening of resource, how to use that resource become to income? for detail we have to discuss more in depth next time;
   - It’s so difficult to understand government problems, thus, translate it into practical work, in which it bases on specific characteristic cases would be worthwhile;
   - For my point of view, it should be reformed, however, is easy to say, but hard to do. Nevertheless, numbers of work areas, mainly in the area of economic matters, are needed to be taken into account. In addition, legal instruments regarding to this point must be in place as well.
Chapter VII
Conclusion and Recommendations

I. Analysis

It’s quite short and limited, if I’m will analyze for the completely during tight researched the data, information, and related policies.

When you reading this research, you may have a question about me, such as: Why I’m usually mentioned about economic? What is economic important? How is the relation between economic growths with POD “public organizational development”? And others?

The word economy comes from the Greek word oikonomos, which means “one who manages a household.” At first, this origin might seem peculiar. But in fact, households and economies have much in common [138]. Alongside this knowledge, I’ve kept this issue to be the first priority for me to tried for find out all of data, information, statistics, etc. which related to the economics of Korea and Laos, inclusive in the public service, which the core factor of economic growth, solves problems and sustainable development in each country e.g. Public Organizational Development, Public Changes, State’s Organizations Evolution, and so on.

Since the idea of Sustainable development was introduced, developed and defined in 1980s which was focus to 3 constituent parts14, but after than up to the present, the concept of Sustainable Development (SD) was implicated to whole sectors, precisely government. Laos is a poor country in Southeast Asia, landlocked by five other nations, is eying to other countries on good experiences, such as Korea as a key partner for foreign investment15 how Laos can boost the economic growth, meet the MDGs in-beyond 2015 (including the AEC of new epoch), and withdraw from LDCs status in new era, by lift the country from underdevelopment in 2020, and maintain sustainable development in the future.

Some experiences which I’ve learned during research, such as the government restructuring, the President Roh created an unprecedented Secretary of Innovation at the Presidential Office. To disseminate his reform agenda, and to lay the groundwork for spontaneous reform, he had each ministry appoint officers in charge of the reform of its own ministry. Ministry of Government Administration and Home Affairs (MOGAHA) has been designated as a main driving force for government reform. Additionally, the Presidential Committee on Government Innovation and Decentralization (PCGID) was also established to strengthen reform coordination among the Ministries.

There are five conditions for a successful reform leading organization needs to meet: fulltime and permanent organization, direct empowerment by the President, clear focus on reform, flexibility in organizational management, and a mix of career civil servants and specialists from the private sector [106, (p. 7)].

14 (1) Environmental sustainability, (2) Economic sustainability, and (3) Sociopolitical sustainability.
15Laotian Prime Minister addressed to enhance bilateral economic ties and cooperation with Korea, Official Visited in Seoul (4-5 July 2012).
In this respect, the PCGID has had many problems. The Committee will be most likely to be dismissed with the completion of the Roh term. Furthermore, the chairpersonship is not a permanent position. Since most of the staff in the Committee is temporarily dispatched from line ministries, they tend to be inactive or even obstructive in reform agendas that might infringe on their home ministries' interests. Due to shortage of staffs, many important reform projects are reviewed by taskforces that are composed of professors and researchers working part-time. As such, strong ties and devotion are not as apparent within the PCGID, though loyalty is essential element for fighting resistance. Furthermore, the vague division of jurisdiction between the Committee and MOGAHA is also a problem. Those two organizations have often been more competitive than cooperative, slowing down the pace of reform.

After Election 1997\textsuperscript{16}, Mr. Kim Dae-jung was elected President of the Republic of Korea. Reforms in Korea were direct consequences of the foreign exchange crisis in late 1997. Following the inauguration of the new government in February 1998, the Kim Dae-jung's government called for urgent reforms in the following four sectors: business, finance, labor relations, and government administration. At that time, the Korean government was believed to be extremely inefficient due to high centralization, lack of transparency, rigidity, and low competitiveness. According to the IMD World Competitiveness Ratings (1998), Korea was ranked 36\textsuperscript{th} in 1998, behind the Philippines (32\textsuperscript{nd}), Mexico (34\textsuperscript{th}), and Brazil (35\textsuperscript{th}). Of significant concern, the efficiency of Korean government administration was ranked 42\textsuperscript{nd} in 1998 among 46 nations.

The main objectives of the reforming in Korean government were apparently to boost public sector efficiency by introducing the policies on market-oriented, performance-oriented, and customer-oriented principles. The public sector reforms included the central government, local government, state owned enterprises, government-funded research institutes, and other government-affiliated organizations.

The reform was raised from globalization tendency, fiscal stress, and citizen’s growing expectations. With the big challenge, governments everywhere have launched major innovations, there are some countries have chosen fundamental changes in structure. Other countries have reacted with profound changes in service delivery and the administrative process, therefore Korean government is not an exception in the new movement for change in the administration. In order to meet the challenges of globalization and the current economic crises, administrative reform in Korea was driven by the need to create good governance by providing a strong foundation for economic recovery and sustainable growth. As such, current reforms entail the review of the role of almost all government agencies. At the same time, a change in work cultures consistent with the promotion of efficiency, transparency, and accountability was also an integral part of the reform package. This paper is intended to shape both practical and theoretical discussions on Korean government reform enacted after

\textsuperscript{16}Presidential Election in 18\textsuperscript{th} December 1997.
the 1997 economic crisis through specific examples and is not intended to be a comprehensive examination. A fall in foreign currency reserves forced South Korea to seek a rescue loan from the International Monetary Fund (IMF) in November 1997. The IMF’s first step was to drastically reshape Korean economic policies. With these new tasks, Korea has had little choice but to reform its institutions and systems. Korea has undergone many economic and administrative changes, ever since. After years of “Asian miracles,” the Asian crisis brought serious challenges to the Korean government and necessitates the urgency for reform.

In contrast, head of governments of Korea and Laos vary in the system, which basis from the stipulated by the regulations, especially to Constitution. The presidential Korean term has been set at five years since 1988. It was previously set at four years from 1948 to 1972, six years from 1972 to 1981, and seven years from 1981 to 1988. Since 1981, the president has been barred from reelection.

The Prime Minister of Lao P.D.R. is the highest office within the Central Government; Premier is elected by the proposal of the President of Laos to the National Assembly approval (mostly the first session congress of the new legislature), and is responsible to the National Assembly, which elects all ministers to government. Activity reports by the Prime Minister must be given to the National Assembly, while the Standing Committee of the National Assembly supervises the activities of the Central Government and the Prime Minister. Finally, the deputies of the National Assembly have the right to question the Prime Minister and other members of government.

Madame Park Geun-hye was elected on 19 December 2012, became the Korea’s First Female President as well as the first president whose father was also president; her promised by saying: “I believe the people’s passion to overcome crisis and revive the economy has brought this victory”, and also during her campaign, she said: “I will become a president who works to improve the lives of the people, keeps promises and helps bring about great unity in the nation” [139].

Any kind of reform of governments’ respectively also tried to introduce the policies, ideas, and models on approach to meet the improvement, smaller, and more efficient/clean/strong governments.
Governmental Organization Chart of Laos and Korea

Constitutions

LPRP

Unicameral National Assemblies

Executive

Prosecutor

Premier

Government’s Office

- Ministry of National Defense;
- Ministry of Public Security;
- Ministry of Foreign Affairs;
- Ministry of Finance;
- Ministry of Justice;
- Ministry of Planning and Investment;
- Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry;
- Ministry of Industry and Commerce;
- Ministry of Energy and Mines;
- Ministry of Public Works and Transport;
- Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare;
- Ministry of Health; [and]
- Bank of Lao P.D.R.

- Ministry of Education and Sports;
- Ministry of Information, Culture, and Tourism.

- Ministry of Home Affairs;
- Ministry of Natural Resources, and Environment;
- Ministry of Science and Technology;
- Ministry of Post, Telecommunication, and Communication; [and]
- Government Inspection Authority (called, Anti-Corruption Committee).

Legend

Renamed

Reshuffled

New and upgraded

President

Multiple Political Parties

Court

Executive

Prosecutor

Judiciary

Executive

Constitutional Court

Premier

Lao P.D.R.

- Ministry of Strategy and Finance;
- Ministry of Unification;
- Ministry of Justice;
- Ministry of National Defense;
- Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism; [and]
- Ministry of Environment.

- Ministry of Education;
- Ministry of Foreign Affairs;
- Ministry of Gender Equality and Family;
- Ministry of Health and Welfare;
- Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Rural Affairs;
- Ministry of Employment and Labor;
- Ministry of Trade, Industry and Energy; [and]
- Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, and Transportation.

- Ministry of Science, ICT, and Future Planning; [and]
- Ministry of Maritime Affairs (Oceans) and Fisheries.

Peoples, Villagers, Citizens
The Governments’ Ministries in each epoch

The changes of the government’s size above, it’s easy to interpret that my finding, although I’m not guarantee that the twin curves effected from the circumstance or any situations from the Professor Lewin’s idea? But, I’m sure that his theory adequate to the change process in three-stage process (even though in private concept, but it can be used in public sector). The first stage he called "unfreezing". It involved overcoming inertia and dismantling the existing "mind set". It must be part of surviving. Defense mechanisms have to be bypassed. In the second stage the change occurs. The third and final stage he called "freezing". The new mindset is crystallizing and one's comfort level is returning to previous levels. This is often misquoted as "refreezing" $B = f \left(P, E\right)$. Therefore, every organization changed for improvement, which is I transformed his conceptual OD to POD conceptualization of the state management perspective, the agile public organization serving the people and businesses with flexible administration; the shape, smaller, and more effective government for national benefits, more save budget, and up-to-date tendency. Also like Dr. Kotter has proven for changing in organization within 8 steps.

In the past, Lao government had reshuffled frequently, due to the socio-economic environment changes, its needed to improvement, thus whole stakeholders also focused to reviews, pursuer, inspect on roles, rights, duties, avoiding from overlapping, messy regulations, and then reorganization the machinery structure, especially to modified the Decree on Organizing and Operations of each Ministry, Agency, and central Organizations.

Laos and Korea after governmental organizations was remodeling in 2011 and 2013 by order. Consequently, although hugeness between Laos and Korea as a whole, OECDs and LDCs (so-called rich and poor), particularly to the
government structure and local administration, but I’ve tried to summary on my own perception, e.g.

**Summary**

**Governmental Organizations Priorities, Roles, Functions, and Major Administrative Organs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Priorities</th>
<th>Functions</th>
<th>Administrative Organizations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>Strategy and Finance, Financial Services/Supervisory Commission, National Tax Service, Korea Customs Service, Public Procurement Service; Finance, Bank of Lao P.D.R.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hydro Electric,</td>
<td>Energy and Mines, Planning and Investment,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry and Economy</td>
<td>Free Economic Zone; Special Economic Zone.</td>
<td>Natural Resources and Environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
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<td>-----------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry and Economy</td>
<td>Primary Industry, Handicraft, Heavy Industry</td>
<td>Trade, Industry and Energy; Government’s Office, National Committee for Special Economic Zone and Specific Economic Zone.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry and Economy</td>
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<td>Agriculture, Food and Rural Affairs, Rural Development Administration, Industry and Energy, Korea Forest Service; Agriculture and Forestry; Industry and Commerce.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry and Economy</td>
<td>Oceans, Maritime, Coasts (Korea)</td>
<td>Employment and Labor; Labor and Social Welfare.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure</td>
<td>Oceans/Maritime Affairs and Fisheries, Korea Coast Guard.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure</td>
<td>Land, Infrastructure and Transport, Oceans/Maritime Affairs and Fisheries, Multifunctional Administrative City Construction Agency; Public Works and Transport, Planning and Investment.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social and Cultural</td>
<td>Environment</td>
<td>Environment, Agriculture, Food and Rural Affairs, Korea Meteorological Administration; Natural Resources and Environment, Agriculture and Forestry.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local level</td>
<td>Local Administration</td>
<td>(Korea) The Local Governments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local level</td>
<td>Local Administration</td>
<td>(Laos) Provinces, Districts, and Villages.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

II. Conclusion

Actually it too early to criticize the new governments, which have just formed, although I had known to some context the situation in which data sources provided, but look like tinker or amateur on the lacking knowledge, and lacking appropriateness at all.

Looking back accomplishments, evaluate problems, and then look-forward inter-government in the future of Informatization era following the Rule of Law, convenient serves, and accept participation from citizens of all core sectors’ considerations should be involved, due to the complicated problems, which it
could not be solved by an effort of only one sector of society without cooperation central, local, and relies/trusts from citizens, particularly to hierarchies of three branches of powers\(^{17}\), even rulers’ creation/proactive, or the pioneer the new organizations in the governments’ cabinet. I’m neither conservatism nor neoliberalism student, whom support to reducing government size concepts, or expansion of government size respectively (but this idea vice versa in Korean society, concept confusion, and the Koreanization of administration), the smaller government would longer stable, may constrains, and should advocates; I thought, may argue, and strongly believe to, concentrate to, and also emphasize to these aims for maintains/supports/raises the capacity of government, reduce states’ expenditure, increase the national budget, more efficient/effective, higher responsiveness, equitable/inclusive, and also more transparency. However, these days the sustainable socio-economic development should be take place in the first priority to concerned in each rulers’ states, reflection of government size should be organize the opportunities’ channels to gain opinions from other parties, benefits after negotiations, and mutual compromise to prevent, and eliminate unnecessary disputes or controversies among bureaucrats (or within publics)\(^{[140]}\) hearing, question, or interpellation; society blames, and condemnation (it may) from international arenas.

The obvious feature of Korean and Lao governments also differs; government of Korea is presidential system, precedence, and powerful, greater than National Assembly. Contrary to Lao government ruled by Cabinet system.

When we have learn on the reorganization from the history since ancient time, and the last century of struggled, which cause of Asian financial crisis before ends of 20\(^{\text{th}}\) century, 2001 terrorist circumstances, and recently global economic crisis 2007-2012, but many nations still holds the big government and burden huge expenditures.

I have no any expertise on the governments’ policies, due to there is neither case analysis nor case study which concern to the Korean government, including Lao government, and other sophistications. But, in my opinion on the size of government would shape with moderation.

The failure of public sector should be regards, to learn on too big to fail from the Lehman Brothers (Bank) bankrupted and latter other big companies went down likes domino effects; many countries also affected from the collapsed private sectors, consequently the economy downturn, etc. Big or small government, should take scrutinize from pundits, experts, and the sophisticated-administrators concerning to the role of government on the new era of informatization with exercise from campaign, invest for, and also implement in the reality, that’s the fundamental role of the government does for citizens’ interests. In contrast, Korean government carry out on the high quality of citizens’ living under OECD member (rich-men club), but the Lao government have to performs for development from the basic needs of people, infrastructure, and basic

\(^{17}\)In the theory, tripartite of governance consists of the executive, supreme court, and legislature. But, in Laos, pursuant the Constitution of Lao P.D.R. revision in 2003 stipulated; there are four branches of powers (Executive, Legislatures, Public Prosecutor, and People’s Courts).
developments (relying upon ODA). However, each government also requires to save the budget, eliminates luxurious, and inherent administers.

Reforms have become an issue for governments around the world. In Asia, particularly in ASEAN region, Citizens demand smarter and more knowledge-based governments with services that are better, more efficient and more effective. The need for significant change arises in government because citizens, peoples increasingly insist upon similar performance standards in both government and business.

Poverty, chaos, abandons issues, etc. which covers in many countries, although the chords of administrative reform may vary, the underlying theme is quite similar, the problems which was occurred in some countries in the pass, but it may appear or at least it may controversy in other countries.

The new era of development 1980s in the ASIA continent, regions, and international arena, which continuity learning and trying to transform with the new concepts to approach the sustainable development, building upon a partnership between central and local governments to promote stabilzation of people’s lives by revitalizing local economy; every government also aware, further develop into the practice with the way of governance. For the Future of Governance \(^{[141]}\), First, the future, in many ways, is already here. Through incremental reforms and pragmatic adaptations, the government has steadily shrunk as its tasks have grown. The work force has become smaller, and the workers who are left in the government have become responsible for more projects and money. Those who call for the privatization and devolution of the government rarely recognize how much of it has already happened. The current system has already promoted some of the adaptation that must occur. The challenge is ensuring that such adaptation happened as a routine matter, not an exception. Second, the government has not succeeded in developing the new skills and competence needed to oversee such highly leveraged activities.

Lesson learn from other countries is very important, it’s not only my point of view aware, but another one, students, or researchers also tried to gain those kinds of knowledge, but lack of sources. Although, the government functions similar, administrative system, economic boom, etc. However, it is not easy to accomplish or find out the solution, due to vary [huge] mechanism and conditions. Likely, Republic of Korea, during the President Park Chung-hee’s rule in Korea lasted for nearly two decades, he put Korea firmly on the route to cohesive-capitalist development, mainly by re-creating an efficacious but brutal state that intervened extensively in the economy, industrialized growth rapidly during this period, with growth in manufacturing and mining, averaging 15% per annum and the overall economic growth averaging some 9% per annum. The political economy that produced this rapid transformation has been well studied, even over-studied; President Kim Yong-sam was the country's first civilian president in 30 years and he promised to build a "New Korea" and his government set out to correct the mistakes of the previous administrations, people participated on government reform since Local government elections were held in 1995; Korean public administration reform achieved the high indicator, when the President Kim Dae-jung was the first President in Korea that included government reform in his official agenda, linking it with reforms in the corporate sector, financial sector,
and labor sector particularly to administrative reforms from the central governments’ body is the substantial part of the overall reform efforts, solves problems or at least eliminates some controversies on the governments’ dignity, especially to the administration.

The Government Organization Act (enforcement on 17 July 1948) is the fundamental regulation of the Korean government (Act № 1) which was enacted since before the foundation of the Republic of Korea and also the creation of Korean government (15 August 1948), and up to the present time it was mended 50 times (since its enactment) by the latest one on the 23 March 2013 (№ 11690). Contrary, in brief, the Lao PDR has 98 in Effective Laws (by June 2013) “Acts in Administrative and Governing Area, which consists of 26 laws” in the present-day (in total 158 issues “Revision, subdued, and new laws” since establishment the Republic). But, the fundamental law of Lao government is the Constitution of Lao P.D.R determined, and Law on Government of Lao P.D.R determined merely; however, although the Law on Government was stipulated inclusively or general, such as the status, duties, functions, elements, and working methods. But, there is no any part which precisely determines on the structure of government, especially the number, name, and the operations obviously, likes the principles for the establishment, organization, and scope of functions of the national administrative agencies for the systematic and efficient performance of national administrative affairs, which is the main apparatus of society management. Therefore, the structure of Lao government also unstable, denote it may change (flexible) during the term of each Prime Minister’s administration. These lacks of regulation system, during 3 decades of Laos confronted in public organizational restructuring, due to many Ministries, Agencies, and Authorities was increased and messed to the society, then it effected to policy launching were limited both central and local level.

There are many radical conditions for a successful developmental state in Korea, such as: Nationalism (mercantilism), catch-up mentality, Capable and committed bureaucracy, Strong policy tools with allocation of scarce financial resources, Government-business relations by strong Chaebols (State autonomy vis-à-vis Chaebol) during President Park Chung-hee’s tenure, and President Chun Doo-hwan, Cold War with the economic and security are free for riding, Social cohesion which advantaged to the economic equality, and the Confucianism belief which motivated citizens had firm educated and hard work.

2013, which 60 years of Korean War ends, the economy of Republic of Korea still growth during the world economy downturns all around the world, GDP per capita (PPP): $32,400 (2012 est.)

Korean government stimulus and improving global economic conditions grew 1.5 percent from a year earlier as the government gave a fiscal boost by allocating 72 percent of this year’s budget spending to the first half. The yen is down about 20 percent against the dollar for the past 6 months, while the won depreciated by only about 2 percent. The Korean currency rose 0.3 percent to 1,114.48 per dollar as of 10:41 a.m. in Seoul, according to data compiled by Bloomberg. The KOSPI stock index rose 0.6 percent.
III. Recommendation

When we have learned from the history, observed and researched on the public reform, every administration desires to reform its inherited government and have effort to transform into the reality situation of its countries, to achieve the goals or priorities as the main agenda. If the government desperately needs to build the competence to tackle even greater future challenges, the government requires is a new map for its future, drawn with coordinates based on the core values that the citizens expect from their government acted.

There are lots of the paradoxes of administration around the world, which also controversial issues related to the failure of government as big government, but lack effective; a country built upon a partnership between central and local governments, its clear notion on state building, but it does not

After research, I’ve utmost to find the solution, which vary appropriate directions setting of the reform in Korea, started with the orientation of the reform, which must be aligned within national priorities, basic reform idea was to streamline the roles of the government. Matters such as privatization, regulation reform, and the reduction of government staff and budget were main agendas. Consequent from research, government should utmost to restructuring, or machinery to achieve the national agenda and to strengthen the new administration strengthens government’s capacity by streamlining government organizations; efforts to abolish and eliminate the central administrative agencies (ministries, committees, commissions, boards, councils), try to transform and using ICT should be implement for convenient administration, transparency and efficiency. Then, try to find the better solution for devolution to the local levels, where services citizens.

There are several priorities, which is in charge of government organization and management of the government restructuring stakeholders, reforms, solve conflicts, overlap, improvements, or development in public sectors, such as: establish a more capable government; foster trustworthy civil servants; enhance government’s organizational capacity; ensure a safe and secure society; realize an advanced knowledge-based information society; grant greater local autonomy to local governments; build an accountable fiscal management system for local governments; promote stabilization of people’s lives by revitalizing local economy; Research-proposal to the Government consider, scrutiny and ponder to the plans on the government reorganization for the new machinery which improved, problem solved with new mechanism, and public official of all parts of state organizations both central and local got benefits from reorganization; research-improve all rules, regulations, which government, and other heads of administrative organizations all levels had legislated, issued or ordinance which were are not match with the improvement policy, new rule of laws; research to make limiting more new rule that necessary; leads and coordinate with the National Assembly, Reforming/Restructuring stakeholders, Ministries, Organizations, Court, Prosecutor, locals, etc. for operate to improve or reform.

Improvement is needed for every sectors, not only public but also private sectors, and civil society organizations. Improvement is an important work that
organizer have to think, because some laws, regulations, and organization’
structures have to be improved for the new situation.

However, in my point of view, after critically evaluates the administrative
reforms of the Korea aforementioned, the organizational improvement of
governments’ organizations (or machinery restructuring), organization for public
administration or another organizations are very important for Socio-economic
development of the country, supported to infrastructure works, and relation with
activities of other organizations. Some regulations, such as Laws, Acts, Decrees,
etc. which related to the government organizations should be amended, modified
or reviewed for adapting to the real situation of the development of country,
region and international arena, due to the societies was developed, changed, and
already improved, but the regulations related, which does not revise yet, e.g. the
Constitution of Lao P.D.R, Law on Local Administration of Lao P.D.R, Law on
Government of Lao P.D.R, Decree on Civil Service of Lao P.D.R, and so on.

Restructuring/Reform/Improvement will be achieved, which does not up-to
only the government restructuring stakeholders merely. But it also depends on the
spirit, the awareness, and the implementation of all officials in centrals, locals, and
all citizens to gained impetus policies of government, especially to the local
governments or local administrations, where the implementation of the central
policy, and interface to serving citizens; push up, and driving force for
respectively countries met goals.

Endnotes

[1] The e-Government development index of the Republic of Korea is 0.9283 by 2012,
(0.8785 by 2010), Korea ranked first followed by the Netherlands, United Kingdom,
Denmark, United States, and France (the survey was conducted by the UNDESA rates
the e-government performance of countries relative to one another for the 193 member
states of the United Nations, which identifies leading countries in e-government
development since 2003). See the United Nations. “E-Government Survey 2012” E-
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For the concept and institutional characteristics of the de-bureaucratization of the state administration, see Jon Pierre and B. Guy Peters. “Governance, Politics and the State”. 2000.


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[57] Simon de la Loubère's. “A new historical relation of the kingdom of Siam”. 1963


[61] Don Sasorith Katay. “Historical Aspects of Laos” in Kingdom of Laos, (Originally appeared as a special issue in French, Saigon: France-Asie, [1956], and was translated into English in 1959.


Campbell & Szabowski. In the Canadian federal government, there are at least 5 CA: the Prime Minister’s Office, the Privy Council Office, the Federal-Provincial Relations Office, the Financial Department, and the Treasury Board Secretariat. 1979.


In a letter to Robert Olivier, Rhee explained why he rejected Kim Sung-soo: “[I am] opposes to the machinery of North Korea and of the Democratic Party. The last one is as vicious as it can be because money speaks. In the country the people are through with them, and hope there will be a change to the other side.” See Kim, Choong-nam. “the Korean Presidents, Leadership for National Building”. Norwalk: EastBridge, 2007. p. 41; See Olivier, Robert T. “Syngman Rhee and American Involvement in Korea 1942-1960”. Seoul: Panmun, 1978. p. 184.


Donga Ilbo, August 7, 1948.

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“Improvement of Korean Army Logistical Situation” Telegram from Muccio to the Secretary State, FRUS, VII, 1950. p. 93.


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The social policies of the LPRP are contained in political agenda of the LPRP as published in the official documents of the party and its Front organization, the Neo Lao Hak Sat (earlier known as the Neo Lao Issara). For an easy reference to some basic documents of the LPRP, see MacAlister Brown and Joseph J. Zasloff. "Apprentice


[119] Private Document Directory of Lao Government (1st April 2004); Division of Administration Development; Department of Public Administration and Civil Service; Prime Minister’s Office.


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Laws in Laos
Total: 98 Laws in Effective (30 June 2013)
Total: 158 Issues (Bills, Revisions, and in Effectives)

A. Laws on Administrative and Governing Area (Total 26 Acts)

<table>
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<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Law on Oversight by the National Assembly</td>
<td>(2004)</td>
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<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Law on Handling Petition</td>
<td>(2005)</td>
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<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Law on Anti-Corruption</td>
<td>(2005)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>Law on Lawyer</td>
<td>(New 21 December 2011)</td>
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<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Law on Terrorian</td>
<td>(New 11 July 2012)</td>
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<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Law on Legal Drafting</td>
<td>(New 11 July 2012)</td>
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In addition, some laws was repealed and subdued, due to the new constitution was promulgated, e.g. Law on Local People’s Assembly, and People’s Administrative Committees (101/SPA, 31 July 1978)
### B. Laws on Economic Area (*Total 52 Acts*)

<table>
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<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Law on Property</td>
<td>(1990)</td>
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<td>5.</td>
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<td>Law on Secured Transactions</td>
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<td>27.</td>
<td>Law on Plant Quarantine</td>
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<td>29.</td>
<td>Law on Fisheries</td>
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<td>30.</td>
<td>Law on Construction</td>
<td>(2009)</td>
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<td>32.</td>
<td>Law on State Investment</td>
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<td>Law on Statistics</td>
<td>(2010)</td>
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<td>35.</td>
<td>Law on Measurement</td>
<td>(2010)</td>
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<td>45.</td>
<td>Law on Promotion of Small &amp; Medium Enterprises (SMEs)</td>
<td>(New 21 December 2011)</td>
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<td>48.</td>
<td>Law on e-Commerce</td>
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<td>49.</td>
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<td>51.</td>
<td>Law on Stock Exchange</td>
<td>(New 10 December 2012)</td>
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<td>52.</td>
<td>Law on Multiple Logistics</td>
<td>(New 18 December 2012)</td>
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C. Laws on Social and Culture Area (*Total 20 Acts*)

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<td>8.</td>
<td>Law on Trade Union</td>
<td>(2007)</td>
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<td>13.</td>
<td>Law on Tobacco Control</td>
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<td>15.</td>
<td>Law on Lao People’s Revolutionary Youth Union</td>
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<td>Law on Anti HIV/AIDS</td>
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<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Law on Library</td>
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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

ADB  Asian Development Bank
AEC  ASEAN Economic Community
ANPT  Autorité Nationale des Postes et Télécommunications
ANST  Autorité Nationale Pour les Sciences et la Technologie
AR  Administrative Reform
ARF  ASEAN Regional Forum
ASEAN  Association of Southeast Asia Nations
ASEAN-ROK, or ASEAN-Korea Association of Southeast Asia Nations with Korea Republic; Commemorative Summit to strengthen ties with other Asian countries.
ATM  Automatic Teller Machine
CA  Central Administration, Central Agency, or Central Authority
CCOP  Central Committee of Organization and Personnel
CMS  Cash Management System
CPIC  Central Party Inspection Committee
DG  Director General
DPA  Department of Public Administration
DPACS  Department of Public Administration and Civil Service
FTA  Free Trade Agreement
FY  Fiscal Year
GDP  Gross Domestic Growth
GMIB  Government’s Machinery Improvement Board
GOL  Government of Lao P.D.R
GRB  Government Reorganization/Reform/Restructuring Board
GSPA  Graduate School of Public Administration
HRD  Human Resource Development
IMD  International Institute for Management Development
IMF  International Monetary Fund
IPTV  Broadcasting, Telecommunications and real-time Internet Television Services
JPP  Ministry-wide Job Posting Program
KDP  Korean Democratic Party
KIPA  Korea Institute of Public Administration
KDP  Korean Democratic Party
KTX  Korean Train Express
Lao P.D.R  Lao People’s Democratic Republic
LDCs  Least Developed Countries

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<td>LLDCs</td>
<td>Landlocked Developing Countries</td>
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<tr>
<td>LPB</td>
<td>Luang Prabang (District, City, and Province)</td>
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<tr>
<td>MDGs</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
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<tr>
<td>MOFAT</td>
<td>Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade</td>
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<tr>
<td>MOGAHA</td>
<td>Ministry of Government Administration and Home Affairs</td>
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<tr>
<td>MOHA, or MoHA</td>
<td>Ministry of Home Affairs</td>
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<tr>
<td>MOPAS</td>
<td>Ministry of Public Administration and Security</td>
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<tr>
<td>MOSPA</td>
<td>Ministry of Safety/Security and Public Administration</td>
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<tr>
<td>MPI</td>
<td>Ministry of Planning and Investment</td>
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<tr>
<td>NA</td>
<td>National Assembly (Parliament)</td>
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<tr>
<td>NAPPA</td>
<td>National Academy of Politics and Public Administration</td>
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<tr>
<td>NASC</td>
<td>National Academy of Social Sciences</td>
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<tr>
<td>NCSA</td>
<td>National Civil Service Act</td>
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<td>NLMA</td>
<td>National Land Management Authority</td>
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<td>NOSPA</td>
<td>National Organization for Studies in Politics and Administration</td>
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<td>NSC</td>
<td>National Sports Committee</td>
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<td>NSEDP</td>
<td>National Socio-Economic Development Plan</td>
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<tr>
<td>NTA</td>
<td>National Tourism Administration</td>
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<td>OD</td>
<td>Organization Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>ODA</td>
<td>Official Development Assistance</td>
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<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
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<td>OPS</td>
<td>Open Position System</td>
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<tr>
<td>PACSA</td>
<td>Public Administration and Civil Service Authority</td>
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<td>PCCOB</td>
<td>Party Central Committee’s Organization Board</td>
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<tr>
<td>PBO</td>
<td>Politburo’s Office.</td>
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<tr>
<td>PCGID</td>
<td>Presidential Committee on Government Innovation and Decentralization</td>
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<td>PEP</td>
<td>Personnel Exchange Program</td>
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<td>PM</td>
<td>Prime Minister (Premier)</td>
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<td>PO</td>
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<tr>
<td>POD</td>
<td>Public Organizational Development</td>
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<td>PPP</td>
<td>Purchasing-Power-Parity</td>
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<td>RGL</td>
<td>Royal Government of Laos</td>
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<td>ROK</td>
<td>Republic of Korea</td>
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<tr>
<td>SAO</td>
<td>State’s Audit Office/Organization</td>
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<td>SCS</td>
<td>Senior Civil Service</td>
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<td>SD</td>
<td>Sustainable Development</td>
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<td>SIA</td>
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<tr>
<td>SNS</td>
<td>Social Networking Service</td>
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<td>SOIB</td>
<td>State’s Organization Improvement Board</td>
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<tr>
<td>SPA</td>
<td>Supreme People’s Assembly</td>
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<tr>
<td>SPCC</td>
<td>Secretariat of the Party Central Committee</td>
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<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
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<tr>
<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nation</td>
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<tr>
<td>US or USA</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
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<tr>
<td>USSR</td>
<td>Union of Soviet Socialist Republics</td>
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<td>WB</td>
<td>World Bank</td>
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<tr>
<td>WREA</td>
<td>Water Resources and Environment Administration</td>
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### External links Korea

Official web portal (http://korea.net)  
Prime Minister's Office (http://pmo.go.kr)  
Office of the President (http://english.president.go.kr)

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