

THAILAND BURMA BORDER CONSORTIUM

INTERNAL DISPLACEMENT AND VULNERABILITY IN EASTERN BURMA

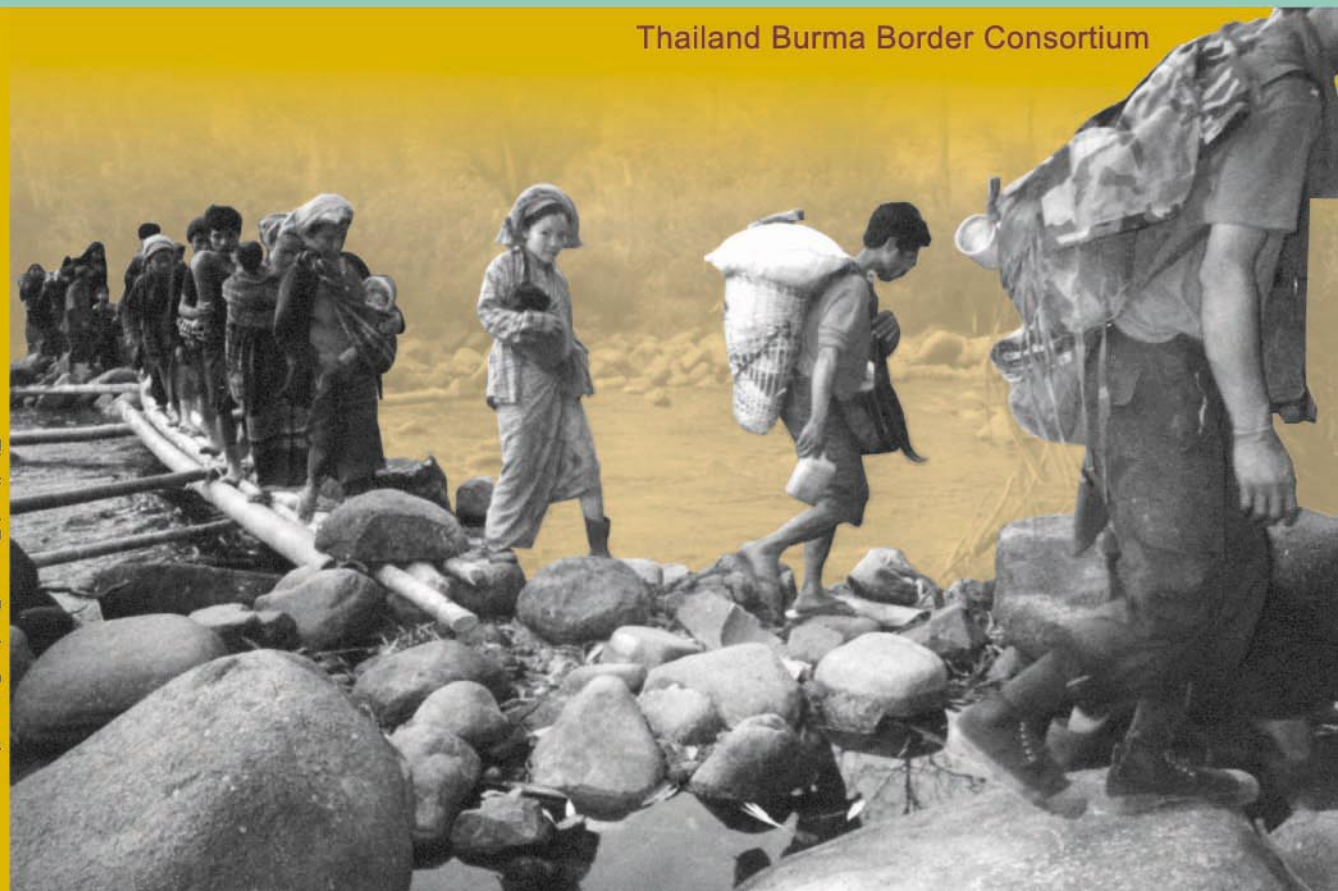


INTERNAL DISPLACEMENT

and Vulnerability in Eastern Burma

Thailand Burma Border Consortium

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October 2004

**With Field Research by :
Committee for Internally Displaced Karen People
Karen Office of Relief and Development
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ACRONYMS

CIDKP	Committee for Internally Displaced Karen People
CSO	Central Statistical Organisation
DKBA	Democratic Karen Buddhist Army
ICRC	International Committee of the Red Cross
IDP	internally displaced person
FSAU	Food Security Assessment Unit for Somalia
KNLP	Kayan New Lands Party
KNPLF	Karenni National People's Liberation Front
KNPP	Karenni National Progressive Party
KnSO	Karenni Solidarity Organisation
KNU	Karen National Union
KORD	Karen Office of Relief and Development
KPA	Karen Peace Army
KSWC	Karenni Social Welfare Center
MIP	Ministry of Immigration and Population
MoH	Ministry of Health
MRDC	Mon Relief and Development Committee
MSF-H	Medicins Sana Frontiers - Holland
MSF-S	Medicins Sans Frontiers - Spain
MUAC	mid upper arm circumference
NMSP	New Mon State Party
ODI	Overseas Development Institute
PNO	Pao National Organisation
SPDC	State Peace and Development Council
SSA-S	Shan State Army - South
SSNPLO	Shan State Nationalities People's Liberation Organisation
SSPC	Shan State Peace Council
SRDC	Shan Relief and Development Committee
TBBC	Thailand Burma Border Consortium
UN	United Nations
UNS	United Nations System
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
UWSA	United Wa State Army
WFH	weight for height
WHO	World Health Organisation

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

In September 2002 the Thailand Burma Border Consortium (TBBC), formerly the Burmese Border Consortium, compiled a report "Internally Displaced People and Relocation Sites in Eastern Burma". The report was written because although the Royal Thai Government was reluctant to accept more refugees and believed repatriation should occur as soon as conditions were judged suitable, new refugees were still arriving in Thailand. Since most of the new arrivals reported that they had formerly been living as internally displaced persons, TBBC considered that it was important to understand what was happening in the border areas before any planning for repatriation could begin.

Since that time, the nature and scale of internal displacement in eastern Burma has been generally acknowledged, and humanitarian agencies based in Burma have been increasingly requesting and gaining access to some border areas. In particular, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) Myanmar has negotiated roving access to a number of townships of 'potential refugee return'. UNHCR Thailand has also been engaging the Royal Thai Government, donors and non governmental organisations (NGOs) in a conceptual planning exercise for the eventual repatriation of the refugees.

Much of Eastern Burma is, however, still inaccessible to international observers from inside the country and the initial steps being taken towards planning for repatriation make it even more important to understand what is happening in these areas. This report draws together the results of new surveys carried out by local community organisations who collectively have broad access to the border areas.

Community organizations conducted field surveys across eastern Burma between April and July 2004.¹ Population estimates have been gathered from key informants in 36 significant townships and cross-checked with estimates from other local humanitarian and human rights agencies wherever possible. Vulnerability indicators were also developed from a multi-stage cluster survey of 6,070 people and 1,071 households in 60 areas spread over six states and divisions. The sample population for this quantitative survey was distributed between internally displaced persons in free-fire areas, government relocation sites, ethnic ceasefire areas and mixed administration areas.

Estimates recorded during this survey in 2004 indicate at least another 157,000 civilians have been displaced by war or human rights abuses since the end of 2002. This includes people from at least 240 villages which have been documented as completely destroyed, relocated or abandoned during the past two years. The current status of villages forcibly relocated prior to 2002 has not been comprehensively assessed, but attempts to return and re-establish more than 100 such villages in Tenasserim Division have been documented as thwarted by further displacement. Civilian displacement has continued at a high rate even though there has been a

¹ Specifically, the Committee for Internally Displaced Karen People (CIDKP), Karen Office of Relief and Development (KORD), Karenni Social Welfare Center (KSWC), Mon Relief and Development Committee (MRDC) and the Shan Relief and Development Committee (SRDC).

significant decrease in the number of villages forcibly relocated since the mid-late 1990s. This trend is indicative of the extent to which government troops had been deployed and villages forcibly evicted prior to 2002. Since then, the military government has been consolidating, rather than expanding, areas of control. High rates of civilian displacement in areas where forced village relocations have decreased are attributed to the harassment of people who had already deserted SPDC relocation sites to attempt returning to their village or resettlement nearby.

States and Divisions	IDPs in Hiding or Temporary Settlements			IDPs in relocation sites (& no. of sites)		Total IDPs	
	2002	2004		2002	2004	2002	2004
		Free-fire areas	Cease-fire areas				
Southern Shan	75,000	9,300	185,000	200,000 (40)	21,800 (37)	275,000	216,100
Karenni	50,000	7,000	75,000	7,000 (9)	6,400 (14)	57,000	88,400
Eastern Pegu	10,500	13,500	0	18,000 (18)	4,500 (25)	28,500	18,000
Karen	75,500	46,900	75,000	54,000 (42)	13,400 (37)	129,500	135,300
Mon	50,500	2,300	25,000	28,000 (28)	3,800 (16)	78,500	31,100
Tenasserim	6,500	5,000	5,000	58,000 (39)	27,100 (38)	64,500	37,100
Overall	268,000	84,000	365,000	365,000 (176)	77,000 (167)	633,000	526,000

The total number of internally displaced persons (IDPs) who have been forced or obliged to leave their homes and have not been able to return or resettle and reintegrate into society as of late 2004 is estimated to be at least 526,000 people. The population consists of 365,000 people in the temporary settlements of ceasefire areas administered by ethnic nationalities, while 84,000 civilians are estimated to be hiding from the military-government in free-fire areas and approximately 77,000 villagers still remain in designated relocation sites after having been forcibly evicted from their homes. This represents a decrease since 2002 when 633,000 people were estimated to be internally displaced in hiding sites, temporary shelters and relocation sites. This decrease can be attributed to a mix of sustainable return or resettlement, forced migration into the fringes of urban and rural communities, flight into refugee and migrant populations in Thailand and methodological differences in data collection. Speculation remains as to how many people on the fringes of rural and urban communities have been obliged to leave their homes and are unable to resettle and reintegrate, but whose status as internally displaced persons can not be verified.

Indicators of vulnerability for the internally displaced population reflect a critical situation. The survey found that more than half of internally displaced households have been forced to work without compensation and have been extorted of cash or property during the past year. While these and other human rights abuses were widespread and a lack of protection was common in all areas, people in relocation sites have reportedly been affected the most.

Livelihoods in free-fire areas are demonstrated as largely dependent on subsistence-oriented slash and burn agriculture, yet still they are undermined by government patrols searching for and destroying crops. Conversely, less households were documented in relocation sites than elsewhere as being involved in any type of rice farming, indicating a lack of access to land and greater restrictions on movement. Yet the survey also found the highest rates of hunting and gathering were in densely populated ceasefire areas, which is indicative of the livelihood constraints of resettlement into these areas.

This report presents indicators which suggest there is a public health emergency amongst internally displaced persons in eastern Burma. A third of households surveyed had not been able to access any health services during the past year, contributing to high mortality rates from infectious diseases which can be prevented and treated, such as malaria. Child mortality and malnutrition rates are double Burma's national baseline rate and comparable to those recorded amongst internally displaced populations in the Horn of Africa.

The population structure shows significantly more children dependent on a smaller proportion of working age adults compared to official data sources for Burma. This working age adult population consists of a high proportion of women representing greater rates of mortality, economic migration, flight from abuse and military conscription amongst young adult men. Low levels of access to durable shelter are recorded and associated not only with limited protection from the climate but also adverse impacts on health and human dignity. Similarly, low levels of educational attainment are likely to restrict the capacity of internally displaced persons to cope and recover from all of these aspects of vulnerability.

The surveys demonstrate that the problem of forced migration in Eastern Burma remains large and complex and that internally displaced populations are extremely vulnerable. As in 2002, TBBC presents this compilation of data without making any recommendations. The intention is that policy makers and humanitarian organisations might be better informed in terms of preparing for refugee repatriation and addressing the situation of internal displacement itself.

SUMMARY OF INDICATORS

Sector	Indicator (and definition)	IDPs, Eastern Burma (TBBC, 2004)	national average, Burma (and sources)
Population Structure	Child Dependency (% population under 15 years)	40%	30% (MIP,2001)
	Elderly Dependency (% population over 60 years)	5%	8% (MIP,2001)
	Crude Birth Rate (annually, per 1,000 population)	40%	26% (CSO,2000)
	Female Population Rates (% population female)	52%	not available
	Extremely Vulnerable Individuals (% population who are widows, orphans or disabled)	5.1%	not available
Protection	Human Rights Abuse Rates (% households forced to provide labour for authorities in past year)	57%	not available
	(% households ordered to pay arbitrary taxes / extortion levies in past year)	52%	
	(% households with travel outside of village restricted by authorities in past year)	23%	
	(% households with crops or food stocks damaged / destroyed by authorities in past year)	17%	
	(% households with a member arbitrarily detained without cause in past year)	14%	
	(% households forcibly evicted in past year)	12%	
	Civilian Casualties of War (% population wounded or killed by military assault in past two years)	1.2%	
	Displacement Frequency (average number of involuntary residential moves per household in past year)	0.7	
Livelihood	Major Livelihood Sources (% households using slash and burn farming)	64%	not available
	(% households breeding small animals)	38%	
	(% households providing labour for wages)	34%	
	(% households with irrigated paddy farms)	30%	
	(% households with fruit gardens)	22%	
	(% households foraging for forest products)	18%	
	Access to Farm tools (average number of tools per household)	3.4	
	Prevalence of Coping Strategies (% households accessing loans to survive disruptions to livelihoods)	71%	
	(% households accessing aid to survive disruptions to livelihoods)	30%	
	(% households migrating for work to survive disruptions to livelihoods)	17%	
	(% households selling assets to survive disruptions to livelihoods)	22%	

Sector	Indicator (and definition)	IDPs, Eastern Burma (TBBC, 2004)	national average, Burma (and sources)
Health, Nutrition and Sanitation	Child Mortality (U5 deaths / 10,000 population under 5 / day)	2.4	0.7 (UNICEF2004)
	Child Mortality (prospective) (U5 deaths / 1,000 live births / year)	286	100 (MIP,2001)
	Acute Malnutrition Amongst Children (moderate plus severe wasting for under 5 year olds, ie < -2 Z scores WFH or <12.5cm MUAC)	16%	9% (MoH,2000)
	Access to Food (% households with 2 meals / day for every month in the past year)	23%	not available
	Access to Sanitary Waste Disposal (% households with sewers, septic tanks, pour/flush latrines or covered pits)	16%	63% (MoH,2000)
	Access to Safe Drinking Water (% households with pipes, rain water tanks or protected wells)	13%	72% (MoH,2000)
	Restrictions on Health Care (% households with no access to government or private clinics, community health workers, or traditional healers in past year)	34%	not available
Education	Adult Literacy (% persons over 15 years who read and write any language)	69%	90% (MoH,2000)
	Access to Primary Education (% households with unrestricted access to primary schools in past year)	53%	not available
Shelter, Clothing and Basic Goods	Access to Durable Shelter (% households with wooden pillars or stronger)	63%	not available
	(% household with wooden floors or stronger)	26%	
	(% households with wooden walls or stronger)	12%	
	(% households with tin roofing or stronger)	10%	
	Access to Domestic Utensils (average number of blankets per household)	5.4	
	(average number of mosquito nets / household)	0.8	
	(average number of pots and pans / household)	3.7	
	(average number of plates & bowls / household)	8.2	
	Access to Clothing (average sets of clothing per person, covering knees to shoulders)	2.9	

Sources for national data

Ministry of Immigration and Population, 2003, *Myanmar Fertility and Reproductive Health Survey 2001*, with UNFPA, Rangoon,

Central Statistical Organisation, 2000, *Statistical Yearbook*, Rangoon

Ministry of Health, 2000, Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey, Department of Health Planning, with collaboration of UNICEF, Rangoon,

UNICEF, 2004, *The State of the World's Children*, New York,

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1. 'Coming out from hiding in free-fire area', Karen State, 2004, CIDKP
2. 'Introductions in mixed administration area', Pegu Division, 2004, CIDKP

1



INTRODUCTION



1.1 PROTRACTED CONFLICT IN BURMA

Burma's post-independence history has been dominated by civil war between the central government and a plethora of armed opposition groups.² Political instability has been partly rooted in ideological conflict between a socialist State and communist resistance, and more recently between military rule and democratic opposition. However, the most protracted armed conflict has been between the Burman controlled State and a loose alliance of non-Burman ethnic nationalities who are fighting for self determination.³

Through these decades of low-intensity conflict, the State Peace and Development Council (SPDC) and its predecessors have based their counter insurgency strategy on targeting the civilian population. The "Four Cuts" policy aims to undermine the armed opposition's access to recruits, information, supplies and finances by forcibly relocating villagers from contested areas into government controlled areas. The policy has aimed to turn "black" opposition controlled areas into "brown" free-fire areas of contested administration and ultimately into "white" areas controlled by Rangoon. Villagers who do not comply with forced relocation orders are considered "rebels" and are liable to be arbitrarily executed if found hiding in free-fire zones.

The Burma Army's negotiation of seventeen ceasefire agreements with various ethnic-nationalist forces reduced the scale of armed conflict in the 1990's. While these ceasefires have led to the establishment of special regions with some degree of administrative autonomy, broader political grievances and human rights abuses are yet to be addressed. Negotiating a ceasefire has proved easier than building peace and conditions in special administrative areas generally remain unsuitable for the return and resettlement of internally displaced persons. In the mid-1990's, Rangoon's ceasefire with the Karenni National Progressive Party (KNPP) lasted only a few months while Khun Sa's surrender of the Mong Tai Army in exchange for an amnesty against drug-related charges led to the Shan States Army reforming around a more genuinely ethnic nationalist cause. The New Mon State Party's (NMSP's) ceasefire has been maintained, but over the past three years its authority has been challenged by Mon splinter groups forming to continue armed resistance.



² The Union of Burma was officially renamed the Union of Myanmar by military decree after a coup in 1988. A number of states and divisions were also renamed, including Karen state (now Kayah), Karenni state (now Kayah) and Pegu Division (now Bago). This report uses historical and colloquial titles.

³ The Arakan, Chin, Kachin, Karen, Karenni, Mon, Shan and others are often described as ethnic minorities or indigenous people, but generally prefer the term "ethnic nationalities".

The international community was cautiously optimistic about prospects for national reconciliation at the beginning of 2004 due to an informal ceasefire between SPDC and the Karen National Union (KNU), and plans for the resumption of a National Convention. However hopes have been dampened by the autocratic nature of SPDC's Convention, the ongoing detention of democratic opposition leaders including Nobel Peace Prize laureate Daw Aung San Suu Kyi, and ongoing violence and abuse in Karen areas. A legitimate process of national reconciliation, incorporating transition to civilian rule and a political settlement about relations between the Burman and non-Burman constituent nations in the Union of Burma, remains elusive.

1.2 MEASURING INTERNAL DISPLACEMENT AND VULNERABILITY

International standards define internally displaced persons as :

*"persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border."*⁴

While there is no specific cessation clause defining the end of internal displacement in international standards, potential solutions are identified as incorporating either return to former areas of residence or resettlement into another part of the country voluntarily, in safety and with dignity. National authorities are obliged to support reintegration by ensuring that internally displaced persons are protected against discrimination, able to participate fully in public affairs and enjoy access to public services. It is stipulated that national authorities' responsibilities include facilitating the recovery or compensation of property which was dispossessed as a result of displacement. Further, international humanitarian agencies are to be granted unimpeded access to assist internally displaced persons during all phases of return or resettlement and reintegration.⁵ These caveats are significant not only for ensuring a sustainable solution, but also for determining who should be counted in population surveys of the internally displaced.

Guided by these standards, this survey has identified three types of internally displaced persons in eastern Burma. Population estimates have been determined for people who :

- have fled from SPDC patrols and hide in free-fire areas
- were evicted and obliged to move into SPDC relocation sites
- were forcibly relocated by non-state actors, OR fled from human rights abuses or the effects of war, OR were formerly refugees in Thailand, and now reside in ethnic administered ceasefire areas.

However, it has not been possible to estimate the number of internally displaced persons who have migrated to the fringes of urban and rural communities. Speculation

⁴ Para 2, Introduction, *Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement*, 1998,

⁵ Principles 28-30, *Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement*, 1998

remains as to whether there are tens or hundreds of thousands of people in these environments who remain in a *state* of internal displacement unable to resettle and reintegrate into society, even if their *status* as internally displaced persons can not be verified. While it is acknowledged that a small number of customary landowners in ceasefire areas may have been inadvertently counted as internally displaced persons, the population estimates in this survey are considered conservative due to perceptions that a greater number of internally displaced persons elsewhere have been excluded.

While estimating the scale of internal displacement is complicated, surveying degrees of vulnerability is even more problematic. The humanitarian imperative to alleviate suffering is increasingly being understood as a call to respond not only to basic material needs but also to vulnerability where there is a lack of human security. Vulnerability is an outcome of political, economic and social processes that neglect, exclude or exploit the livelihoods and human rights of marginalized communities. So while a lack of access to social services is one aspect of vulnerability, a humanitarian protection perspective is also concerned with proximity to a violent environment and the effects of a specific pattern of abuse. An analysis of livelihoods supplements this with the recognition that vulnerability is a limited capacity to cope and recover from stresses and shocks on assets, activities and capabilities related to survival and development.⁶ Further, while sovereign states have the responsibility to respect, protect and promote the human rights of citizens, the reality in many civil wars is that the sovereign power and other belligerent forces ignore humanitarian principles and cause vulnerability.⁷

Given the dynamic complexity of local realities and the difficulty in quantifying powerlessness, qualitative methods have mostly been used to measure vulnerability. UNDP in Burma, however, are establishing a Vulnerability Monitoring and Mapping System which is attempting to integrate quantitative assessment of basic physiological and human needs together with a more qualitative survey of the structural context within which people seek to secure those needs. Given that assessments of vulnerability amongst internally displaced populations are dependent on the capacities of staff from local community organisations and that qualitative assessments are generally more difficult to conduct, this survey of vulnerability has focused on quantitative indicators of vulnerability. Specifically, this survey has assessed indicators of demographic stress; protection; livelihoods; health; education; and shelter.

1.3 SURVEY RATIONALE AND OBJECTIVES

A report compiled by BBC in 2002 assessed villages disbanded since 1996, as well as the scale and distribution of internally displaced persons and relocation sites.⁸ Since then, new groups have been displaced while others have attempted to return to their villages or resettle elsewhere in Burma, and others still have continued their journey

⁶ Narbeth and McLean, 2003, *Livelihoods and Protection : Displacement and Vulnerable Communities in Kismaayo, Southern Somalia*, Humanitarian Practice Network Paper 44, ODI, London, www.odihpn.org

⁷ Collinson (ed), 2003, *Power, Livelihoods and Conflict: Case Studies in Political Economy Analysis for Humanitarian Action*, Humanitarian Policy Group Report 13, ODI, London. www.odi.org.uk/hpg

⁸ Burmese Border Consortium, "Internally Displaced Persons and Relocation Sites in Eastern Burma", Bangkok, 2002. [www.ibiblio.org/obl/docs/BBC_Relocation_Site_Report_\(11-9-02\).htm](http://www.ibiblio.org/obl/docs/BBC_Relocation_Site_Report_(11-9-02).htm)

of displacement across the border into Thailand to become refugees or migrant workers. Previous estimates of the scale and distribution of internal displacement have become out of date. At the same time, UNDP's vulnerability assessment in Burma noted a scarcity of indicators describing the characteristics of internal displacement.

Working objectives for the survey adopted by the community organisations were therefore defined to :

- 1) Estimate the scale and distribution of internal displacement in eastern Burma since 2002 by surveying key informants from at least 30 townships.
- 2) Assess the vulnerability of internally displaced persons through a multi-stage cluster survey of 1,200 households.

1.4 SURVEY METHODOLOGY

This survey consisted of two questionnaires and a series of semi-structured interviews. One of the questionnaires was related to the objective of estimating the scale and distribution of internally displaced persons, while the other collected information about the characteristics of vulnerability to serve the second survey objective.⁹ Semi-structured interviews were conducted by community-based organisations with key informants in regards to both aspects of the survey. Findings are based upon this primary data, while secondary sources were used for comparison and verification.

The questionnaire for collecting population estimates of internally displaced persons was designed for key informants at the township level. Information about large scale changes in communities, such as forced relocation or destruction of villages, and the availability of public facilities such as schools and clinics was also solicited. Data was accessed from thirty six townships spread across six states and divisions, with the main gaps due to security and logistical constraints being in southern and eastern Shan state and central Mon state. Interviewers verified each key informant's estimates with other local sources.

The other questionnaire was intended to solicit information related to vulnerability at the household level. Indicators were grouped into sub-categories related to household structure; shelter, water and sanitation; social services; livelihoods; and child health. A multi-stage cluster sampling method was employed to select households for interviews. Firstly, 200 households from each state and division in eastern Burma were designated for sampling. Secondly, 50 households to be interviewed in each state and division were allocated to be in free-fire areas, SPDC relocation sites, ethnic ceasefire areas and mixed administration areas respectively. Thirdly, within the constraints of ensuring relatively secure access, at least two areas for separate household clusters were randomly selected for each type of location in each state and division. Upon arrival at these areas, surveyors applied interval sampling methods and interviewed no more than 25 households in each cluster.

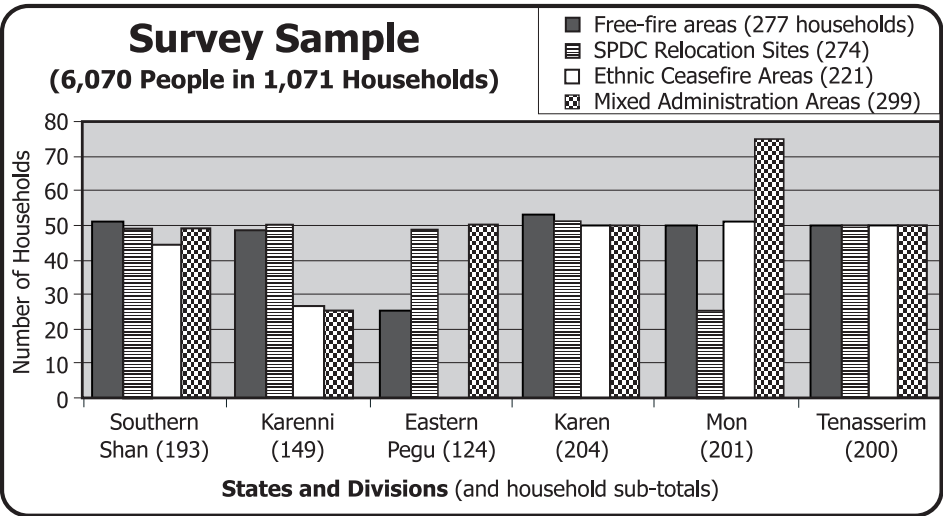
⁹ Appendix 1 contains both questionnaires.

The second stage of the cluster survey required some clarification to ensure a consistent understanding of the different types of locations. Working definitions were agreed to and are reproduced below.

- Free-fire areas were understood as conflict-affected forests or fields where people hide from, or at least do not expose themselves to, SPDC patrols.
- Relocation sites were identified as consolidated villages people where had been ordered to move by SPDC after having been forcibly evicted.
- Ceasefire areas were recognized as special regions with some autonomy for ethnic nationality authorities and provisional guarantees against SPDC attack.
- Mixed administration areas were accepted as rural fringes nominally under SPDC control, but still within the sphere of influence of the armed opposition.

With regards to mixed administration areas, it was accepted that screening internally displaced persons from war-affected residents would be difficult but that responses would be useful for comparisons anyway. While the vulnerability of a sample of internally displaced persons in mixed administration areas has been surveyed, a comprehensive estimate of the overall displaced population in such areas on the fringes of rural communities has not been possible. This report thus only refers to mixed administration areas in the vulnerability assessment and not in the sections on the scale and distribution of internally displaced persons.

The vulnerability indicators have ultimately been derived from a sample of 6,070 people and 1,071 households in 60 clusters evenly spread out over the six states and divisions of eastern Burma. This represents a small discrepancy from the initial plan of interviewing 1,200 households. Less data was collected in Pegu Division due to the absence of ceasefire areas to survey and confusion regarding the demarcation of the border with Karen State. Security constraints were the reason more data could not be collected in the ceasefire and mixed administration areas of Karenni state. Similarly in Mon state, security concerns restricted access into relocation sites which was compensated for by interviewing more people in mixed administration areas.



1.5 COMPARATIVE INDICATORS

Demographic indicators derived from this multi-stage cluster survey have been compared with both national and international data sets to illustrate the vulnerability of internally displaced persons in eastern Burma. The comparability of different data sets is dependent on the relative quality and reliability of concepts and definitions, sampling methods and methods of measurement amongst other variables. Given these variables, some qualifying comments on the comparative indicators are necessary.

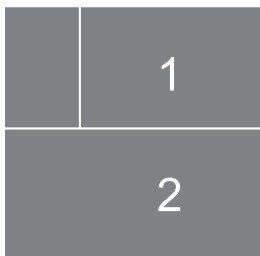
Official demographic data sources for the general population in Burma are generally criticized for relying on unrepresentative sample sizes and lacking a systematic approach to data management. The reliability and quality of government statistics in Burma is thus debatable, even though reasonably comprehensive data sets exist.¹⁰

Health indicators in this report have been compared with statistics derived from surveys amongst internally displaced populations in the Horn of Africa. While these comparisons are considered valid, it should be noted that this survey of the internally displaced in Burma has used a longer recall period and a slightly smaller sample population of children under five than standard practice. Similarly in measuring acute malnutrition, mid-upper-arm-circumference (MUAC) tests were used rather than Weight-for-Height indicators due to logistical constraints in transporting scales.

Estimates for the scale of internal displacement in eastern Burma have primarily been compared to TBBC's approximations from 2002. While TBBC's estimates in 2002 were collated from a mix of recent fieldwork and published data, this report has been based on field research. The only exception is in the UWSA ceasefire areas where estimates are based on the same report as previously cited.¹¹ Religious groups based in Rangoon have also surveyed local leaders to estimate population sizes in the relocation sites of eastern Burma during 2004, and a brief summary of those findings is also mentioned for comparison.

¹⁰ Technologies Development Group, 2000, *Data for CCA Exercise*, with the UN Country Team, Rangoon.

¹¹ Lahu National Development Organisation, 2002, *Unsettling Moves: Tha Wa Forced Resettlement Programme in Eastern Shan State*, Chiang Mai.



1. 'Burnt house in free-fire area', Karen State, 2004, KORD
2. 'Resting from flight', Karen State, 2004, CIDKP

2



SCALE OF DISPLACEMENT



2.1 DISPLACEMENT BETWEEN 1996 AND 2004

In 2002, best available data collated from indigenous humanitarian and human rights groups suggested that more than 2,500 villages had been destroyed, relocated or otherwise abandoned in eastern Burma since 1996.¹² When the population of these villages was combined with smaller groups of people who had also fled from war and human rights abuses, approximately one million people were estimated to have been forcibly displaced during that period. Approximately 633,000 were estimated to be internally displaced in eastern Burma, while another 45,000 had entered refugee camps in Thailand and an estimated 150,000 had fled into Thailand as migrant workers seeking refugee outside of camps. An additional unknown number of people had attempted to resettle elsewhere in Burma.

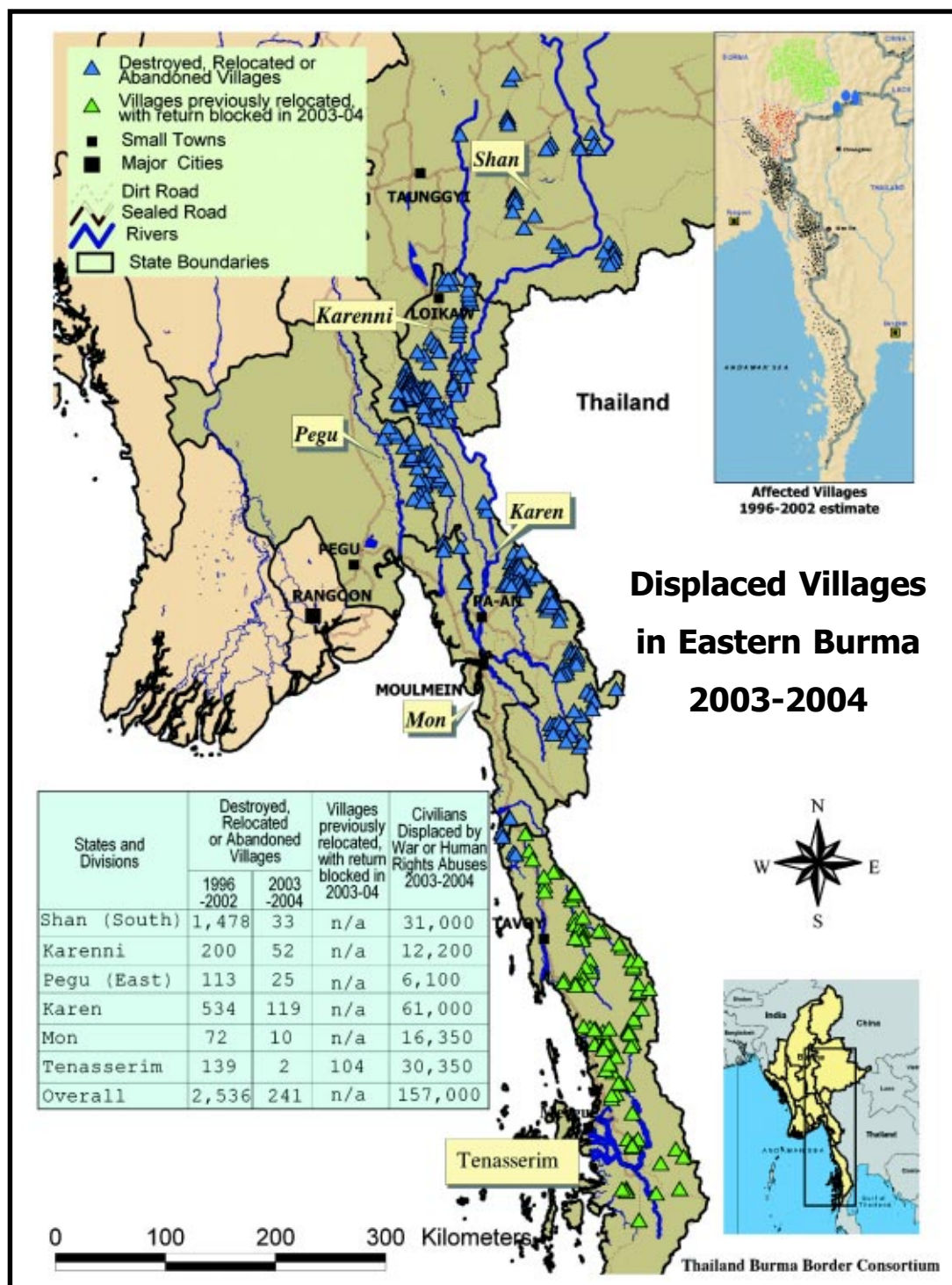
Civilian displacement has continued at a high rate even though there has been a significant decrease in the number of villages forcibly relocated since the mid-late 1990s. Estimates recorded during this survey in 2004 indicate at least another 157,000 civilians have been displaced by war or human rights abuses since the end of 2002. This includes people from at least 240 villages which have been documented as completely destroyed, relocated or abandoned during the past two years.

Systematic displacement has continued to be related to military strategy for control of conflict affected areas. This is reflected in documentation of more villages having been forcibly evicted during the past two years in the conflict-affected areas of the Karen and Karenni States than elsewhere. The subsequent flight of entire villages of villages is directly related to the high rates of recent civilian displacement recorded in these States.

Yet reports of civilians displaced by war or human rights abuses are evenly distributed across eastern Burma, and not only related to forced relocations. Displacement in Mon areas has largely been characterised by the flight of the most vulnerable households rather than the relocation of whole villages. Apart from villages completely dislocated, around half the population in over 20 Mon villages have been displaced as a result of land confiscation, forced labour, arbitrary taxation, restrictions on access to fields and arbitrary arrests during the past two years.

Decreased rates of forced village relocations are indicative of the extent to which government troops had been deployed and villages forcibly relocated throughout these areas prior to 2002. Since then, the military government has been consolidating, rather than expanding, areas of control. However, even though the eviction and relocation of villages has decreased the most in Shan State and Tenasserim Division, both of these areas continue to record high rates of civilian displacement. This can largely be attributed to the harassment of people who had already deserted SPDC relocation sites either to attempt returning to their village or resettlement nearby. The current status of villages forcibly relocated prior to 2002 has not been comprehensively assessed, but attempts to return and re-establish more than 100 such villages in Tenasserim Division have been documented as having been thwarted by further displacement.

¹² Burmese Border Consortium, "Internally Displaced Persons and Relocation Sites in Eastern Burma", Bangkok, 2002. [www.ibiblio.org/obl/docs/BBC_Relocation_Site_Report_\(11-9-02\).htm](http://www.ibiblio.org/obl/docs/BBC_Relocation_Site_Report_(11-9-02).htm)



¹³ Appendix 2 disaggregates 2004 data for displaced civilians and villages into townships. Appendix 3 identifies the names of all villages referenced on this map.

2.2 INTERNALLY DISPLACED POPULATION ESTIMATES IN 2004

The total number of internally displaced persons who have been forced or obliged to leave their homes and have not been able to return or resettle and reintegrate into society as of late 2004 is estimated to be at least 526,000 people. The population is comprised of 365,000 people currently in the temporary settlements of ceasefire areas administered by ethnic nationalities, while 84,000 civilians are estimated to be hiding from the SPDC in free-fire areas and approximately 77,000 villagers have followed SPDC eviction orders and moved into designated relocation sites.

This represents a decrease of approximately 100,000 internally displaced persons since the last border-wide estimates were made in 2002. This decrease can be attributed to a mix of sustainable return or resettlement, forced migration into the fringes of urban and rural communities, flight into refugee and migrant populations in Thailand and methodological differences in data collection.

DISTRIBUTION OF INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS IN 2002 AND 2004¹⁴

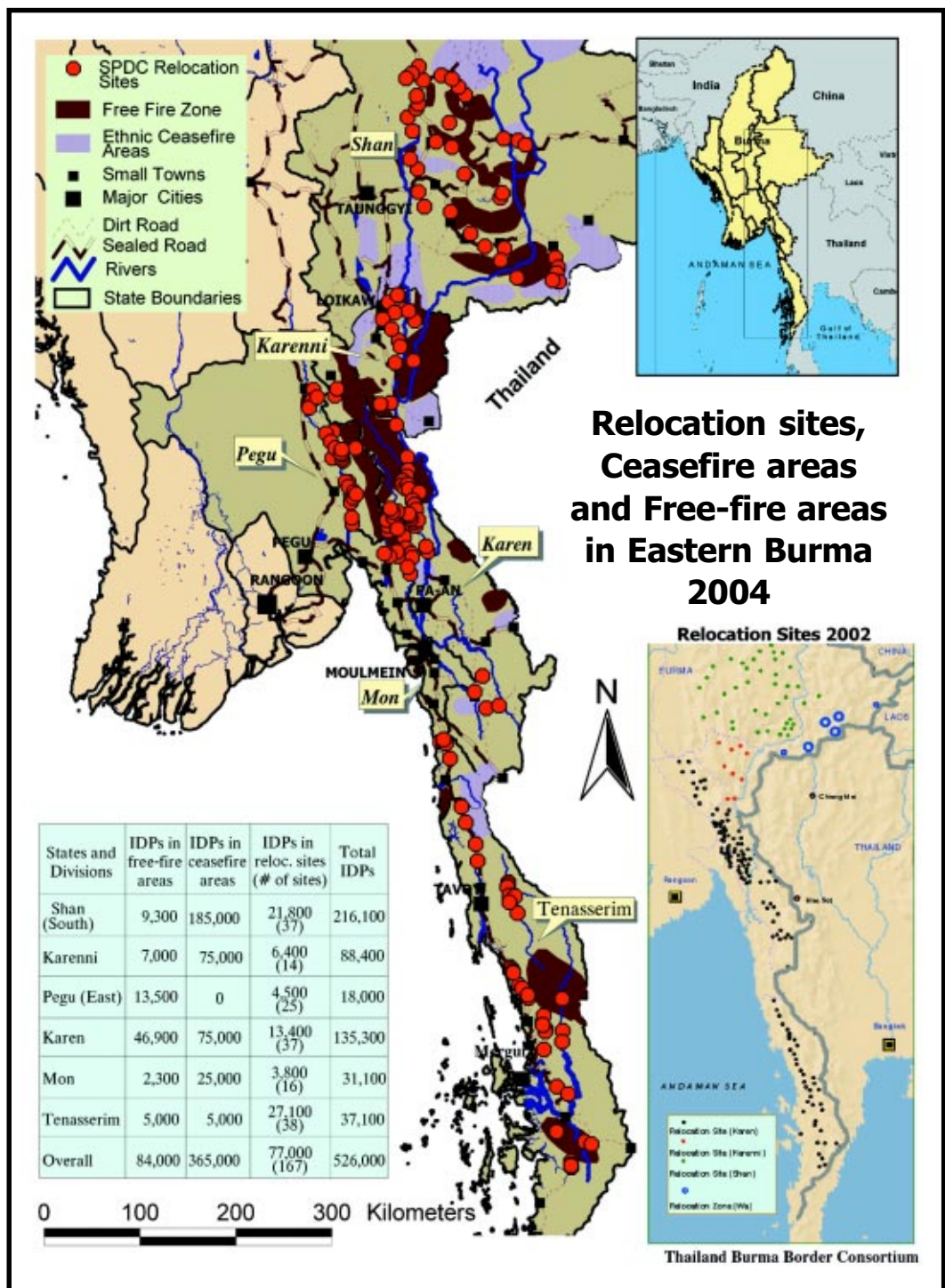
States and Divisions	IDPs in Hiding or Temporary Settlements			IDPs in relocation sites (& no. of sites)		Total IDPs	
	2002	2004		2002	2004	2002	2004
		Free-fire areas	Cease-fire areas				
Southern Shan	75,000	9,300	185,000	200,000 (40)	21,800 (37)	275,000	216,100
Karenni	50,000	7,000	75,000	7,000 (9)	6,400 (14)	57,000	88,400
Eastern Pegu	10,500	13,500	0	18,000 (18)	4,500 (25)	28,500	18,000
Karen	75,500	46,900	75,000	54,000 (42)	13,400 (37)	129,500	135,300
Mon	50,500	2,300	25,000	28,000 (28)	3,800 (16)	78,500	31,100
Tenasserim	6,500	5,000	5,000	58,000 (39)	27,100 (38)	64,500	37,100
Overall	268,000	84,000	365,000	365,000 (176)	77,000 (167)	633,000	526,000

¹⁴ * Appendix 2 disaggregates data for 2004 into townships.

* The 2002 survey combined estimates for IDPs in hiding or temporary settlements whereas the 2004 survey has disaggregated these into IDPs in free-fire areas and cease-fire areas.

* 2002 estimates were originally disaggregated according to KNU boundaries for Karen State, but have been re-allocated according to official demarcations of state and division boundaries for comparison with estimates for 2003-04.

* 2002 population estimates for relocation sites included SPDC and non-State sites, whereas the 2004 survey has counted IDPs in non-State relocation sites in the ethnic administered ceasefire areas category. 120,000 IDPs in UWSA areas of Southern Shan State have thus been reclassified out of the population estimates for relocation sites and into the estimates for ceasefire areas for 2004.



¹⁵ Appendix 2 disaggregates data into townships.
Appendix 3 identifies names of all relocation sites referenced on this map.

INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS IN ETHNIC CEASEFIRE AREAS

People in ethnic administered ceasefire areas represent the largest category of internally displaced persons in eastern Burma. 365,000 people are distributed between areas specially administered by ten ceasefire groups in eastern Burma who have each been granted a relative degree of autonomy by the Burma Army. These authorities can generally be divided into three types. There are former members or allies of the Communist Party of Burma,¹⁶ militias who split from the main political party representing their ethnic group¹⁷ and former members of the armed opposition's National Democratic Front.¹⁸

Over 120,000 people are ruled by the United Wa State Army (UWSA), while the New Mon State Party (NMSP) and the Kayah National People's Liberation Front (KNPLF) each govern 60,000 people and the Shan State Peace Council (SSPC) administer areas for 45,000 people in Southern Shan state alone. Smaller populations are also in other special administration areas governed by Pao, Karen and Karenni leaders. Internally displaced persons in ceasefire areas can be characterised in relation to the causes of their most recent displacement : forced relocation, flight from other human rights abuses, and return from refugee camps.

- **Forced relocation :** The first sub-group is exemplified by conditions under UWSA administration, where people have suffered from mass evictions in northern Shan state and been forced to relocate into southern Shan State for strategic and supposedly drug eradication purposes. Autocratic rule and the ongoing suppression of rights by the UWSA has obstructed opportunities for people forcibly relocated to re-establish their livelihoods. At the same time, further displacement has been induced amongst former land owners whose property has been seized to accommodate the new arrivals. Forced relocations have also been recorded into DKBA and U Goeri's ceasefire areas in Karen and Karenni states respectively. While having a non-state authority in charge is the prime factor differentiating this type of population from those in SPDC relocation sites, the displaced are also generally allowed relatively more freedom of movement.
- **Flight from other human rights abuses :** People who have fled from human rights abuses in SPDC controlled areas or from conflict in free-fire areas to seek temporary refuge comprise the second sub-group of internally displaced persons in ceasefire areas. This population is spread through special administration areas where the ethnic nationality authorities are relatively more respectful of human rights. However these areas can not provide a sustainable solution for the internally displaced due to population density with limited access to suitable agricultural land, SPDC restrictions on travel

¹⁶ United Wa State Army (UWSA), Karenni National People's Liberation Front (KNPLF), and Shan State Nationalities People's Liberation Organisation (SSNPLO)

¹⁷ Democratic Karen Buddhist Army (DKBA), the Karen Peace Army (KPA), the Karenni Solidarity Organisation (KnSO), and U Goeri's splinter group from KNPP

¹⁸ New Mon State Party (NMSP), the Shan State Peace Council (SSPC) and the Pao National Organisation (PNO)

outside of ceasefire areas, and the inability of ethnic nationality authorities to support resettlement or compensate for livelihood assets lost.

- Return from refugee camps : A third sub-group of internally displaced persons in ceasefire areas covers over 10,000 people who have returned from being refugees in Thailand but have not been able to reintegrate into society in Burma. This sub-population primarily relates to people in NMSP areas of Tenasserim Division, Mon State and Karen State but is also relevant for much smaller populations in Karen and Karenni states. Although refugee status has been removed by the movement back into Burma, the causes of displacement remain and opportunities for reintegration are restricted. An ongoing lack of protection from violence and abuse, limited access to public services and property restitution plus the denial of international humanitarian assistance has resulted in these former refugees becoming internally displaced persons.

INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS IN FREE-FIRE AREAS

An estimated 84,000 civilians are hiding from the SPDC in free-fire areas, which are generally located in remote areas with a healthy forest cover or broadly vegetated fields. This type of geography strengthens the ability of the armed opposition forces to move undetected and weakens the logistical advantage of the government forces. Natural growth also provides shelter for the internally displaced and war-affected populations to hide their temporary settlements under.

This population has fled from their homes to avoid contact with SPDC military patrols due to fear of harassment under the pretence of counter insurgency activities. People in this group may not move far from their homes, which is a key motivating factor to remain in free-fire areas despite the risks of being detected by SPDC or paramilitary patrols. These risks range from forced relocation, arbitrary detention or even execution if people are found, to the destruction of shelters and crops or theft of food stocks if settlements are discovered uninhabited. While there may be opportunities for people to return periodically to nearby villages and fields, these dangers prohibit the possibility of a more sustainable return or resettlement.

The civilian population in opposition administered areas has decreased significantly as SPDC has gained territory over the past decade. Proximity to the armed opposition forces leaves internally displaced persons subject to the discretionary authority of local military commanders and possible attack from the SPDC. However, it also provides a greater degree of protection as the armed opposition are obliged by their own needs for survival to defend their constituents. One of the main ways this protection is offered is by supporting early warning systems to monitor the risks of attack. Monitoring systems can be as simple as a rotating network of villagers taking up strategic look-out positions and sending runners to inform neighbours if troops are approaching. However, more advanced early warning systems utilise the radio transmitters of the armed opposition forces to inform villagers to prepare for evacuation.

INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS IN SPDC RELOCATION SITES

The third category of internal displaced persons in eastern Burma consists of approximately 77,000 villagers who currently reside in designated relocation sites after having been evicted from their homes. Government relocation sites are generally situated on barren land near a town or village and in close proximity to roads and SPDC army bases. Relocation sites can result from either the forced transfer of villages from one area to another, of the forced consolidation of dispersed villages into a more densely populated location in the same vicinity.

Residents of relocation sites were generally obliged to dismantle their houses and carry whatever property and food stocks were transportable to the designated area within a few days notice. There is commonly no assistance provided for the reconstruction of shelters and tenancy is usually not officially registered. Restrictions on movement outside of relocation sites vary, with travel passes for between a day to a week generally available for purchase. These passes guarantee passage through checkpoints and into markets but single day passes are often not long enough to enable people to return to their homes and fields.

Apart from the fundamentally coercive nature of population movements into SPDC relocation sites and the loss of property as a result of displacement, possibilities for resettlement and reintegration are also restricted by limited livelihood options. Limited access to suitable agricultural land results either from relocation sites being located close to towns and adjacent to SPDC army bases where lands have been confiscated to support the livelihoods of soldiers, or due to population density and barren soil. Proximity to SPDC bases results in orders to work without compensation, taking time away from earning an income, as well as demands for payment of arbitrary taxes at irregular and short notice.

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF POPULATION ESTIMATES

While it has not been possible to disaggregate changes in the number of IDPs in free-fire areas as distinct from those in ceasefire areas over the past two years, anecdotal evidence suggests a slight decline in the population hiding in free-fire areas. The combined population hiding in free-fire areas and sheltering in ethnic ceasefire areas is estimated to have increased by approximately 20% since 268,000 people were recorded in these conditions in 2002.¹⁹ The implication of these population estimates and anecdotal evidence is that the internally displaced population in ceasefire areas has increased by between 20-30% during the past two years.

While the number of relocation sites has remained stable, the total population in relocation sites has reportedly reduced by over 60% since 2002.²⁰ This decrease is attributed to the unsustainable nature of relocation sites where population density, limited access to fertile land, restrictions on movement, forced labour and arbitrary

¹⁹ This calculation compensates for the re-classification of over 120,000 IDPs from UWSA controlled areas in southern Shan state away from TBBC's population estimate for relocation sites in 2002 and into the estimates for ceasefire areas in 2004.

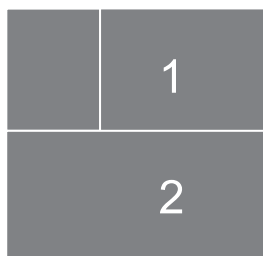
²⁰ This comparison also takes into account the reclassification of UWSA areas from relocation sites in TBBC's 2002 estimates into ethnic ceasefire areas in 2004.

taxes have obliged villagers to attempt resettlement elsewhere. The exodus has been greater than the inflow of new arrivals due to the decreased rate of forced relocations.

However, a survey of local church leaders in 2004 estimated that 120,000 people remain in relocation sites in eastern Burma.²¹ This approximation is for the total population in relocation sites, and not only church members, but does not include any estimates from Shan state. Given that religious organisations with affiliations in Rangoon are likely to have better access to relocation sites than community organisations based along the border, the desertion of relocation sites may not be as significant as the estimates in this report suggest.

Estimates of internal displacement in this report are also likely to be conservative because villagers who have been obliged to drift into the fringes of urban and rural communities have not been included. Possibly tens or even hundreds of thousands of people may have been forced to migrate to the fringes of rural and urban communities. Yet it has been possible to verify how many have resettled and reintegrated into society, nor how many remain in a state of internal displacement.

²¹ source withheld, 2004, Rangoon.



1. 'Temporary shelters in ceasefire area', Tenasserim Division, 2004
2. 'Settlement in free-fire area', Karenni State, 2004, KSWC

3



DISTRIBUTION

OF INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS



3.1 SOUTHERN SHAN STATE

Northern and eastern Shan state has been under the nominal control of Rangoon since soon after the Communist Party of Burma collapsed in 1989, even though that power has partly been administered by a plethora of ethnic ceasefire groups. However despite Khun Sa's surrender of his Mong Tai Army in 1996, the Shan State Army-South (SSA-S) soon reformed and armed conflict has continued in the southern part of the state. This area was thus targeted by the SPDC's forced relocation campaigns during the mid-late 1990's and also includes the areas that UWSA's civilian constituents have been forced to relocate into since 1999.²² Given the vast size of Shan State, estimates of the internally displaced population were only collected from eleven southern townships subjected to ongoing conflict.²³

The largest concentration of internally displaced persons in Shan State is east of the Salween River in the UWSA ceasefire areas of Mong Hsat and Mong Ton townships. It has not been possible to update population estimates for the UWSA ceasefire areas to quantify how many people have sneaked out, but over 120,000 people were relocated into these areas prior to 2002.²⁴ This is also a highly contested area with a major supply route for SSA-S juxtaposed with a strong SPDC army presence and numerous relocation sites along the road leading to the border, not to mention the reported proliferation of methamphetamine and heroin production facilities in UWSA administered areas.²⁵ Eight villages have been destroyed, relocated or abandoned in Mong Ton township during the past two years, resulting in almost 3,000 people residing in SPDC relocation sites while at least 2,000 others are hiding in free-fire areas. On average, 1,400 refugees per month have been reported as fleeing through this area and crossing into Thailand during 2004.²⁶

West of the Salween River, the highest rates of civilian displacement caused by war and human rights abuses as well as the largest populations hiding in free-fire areas were located in Kun Hing, Mong Nai, Laikha and Ke Hsi townships. This can largely be attributed to counter-insurgency activities, as a relatively healthy spread of forest cover in these townships facilitates the movement of SSA-S soldiers which leads to SPDC's punishment of local villagers. Conflict induced displacement in Kun Hing, and even more so to the north in Keh Si, is particularly focused on breaking communication links between SSA-S and its ceasefire counterpart the Shan State Peace Council (SSPC) who have significant special administration areas in these townships. Development-induced displacement is more prevalent in Mong Nai and Mong Pan where SPDC has forcibly relocated at least nine villages in the past two years in an attempt to secure the road access from Taunggyi to Ta Hsang. This is the proposed site for an estimated US\$3 billion project to construct a 3,600 megawatt hydro-electric power station on the Salween River.²⁷

²² For background: Risser et al, 2003, *Running the Gauntlet: The Impact of Internal Displacement in Southern Shan State*, ARCM, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok.

Shan Human Rights Foundation, 1998, *Dispossessed: A Report on Forced Relocation and Extrajudicial Killings in Shan State*, www.shanland.org/HR/Publication/

²³ It has not been possible to estimate the number of IDPs (including people from Karenni state) who have fled into the Pao ceasefire areas of Hsi Hseng and the Kayan ceasefire areas of Pekon.

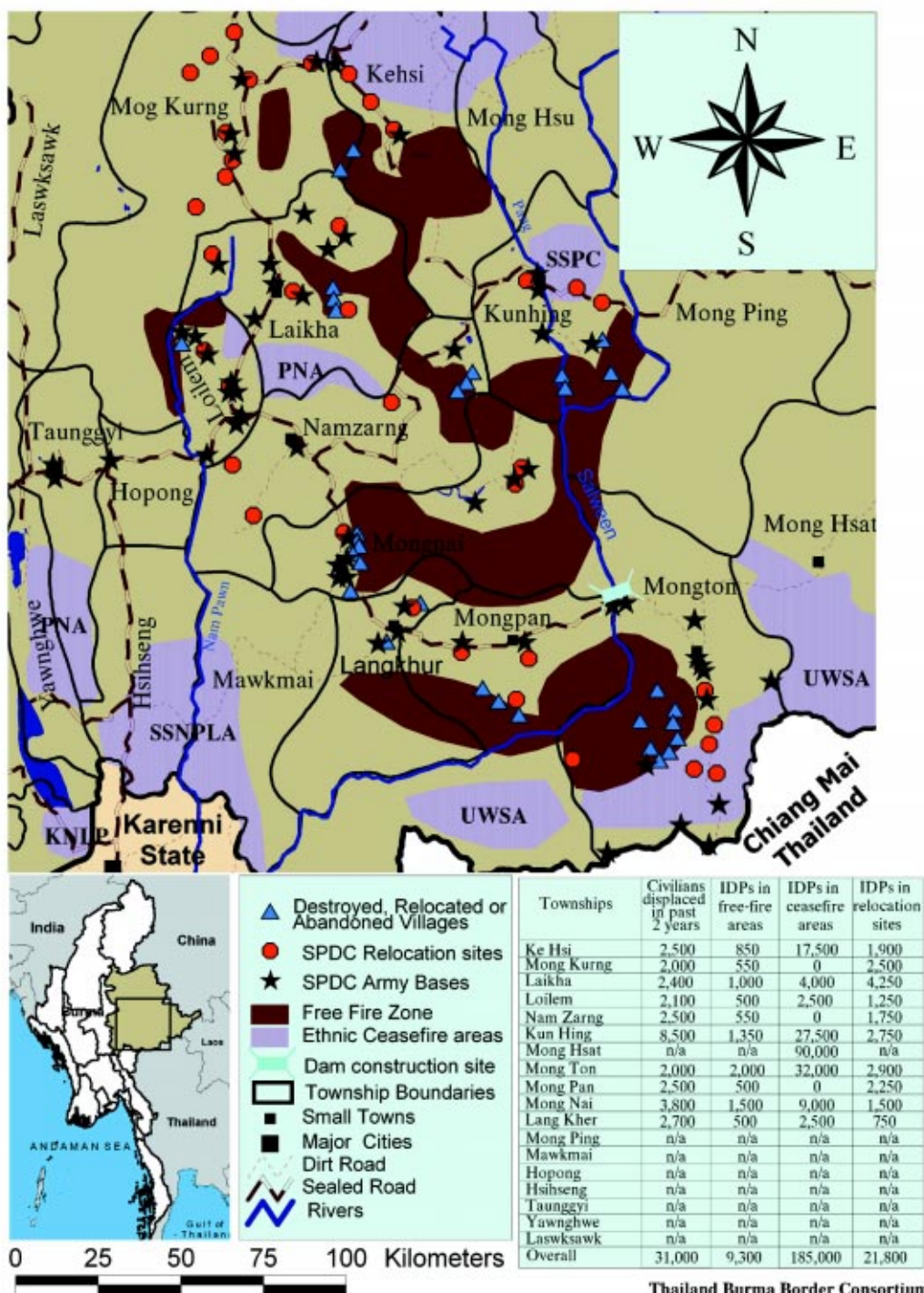
²⁴ Lahu National Development Organisation, 2002, *Unsettling Moves : The Wa Forced Resettlement Program in Eastern Shan State*, www.shanland.org/HR/Publication/

²⁵ Shan Herald Agency for News, 2003, *Show Business : Rangoon's War on Drugs in Shan State*, www.shanland.org

²⁶ BBC, 2004, *Relief Programme : January to June 2004*, Bangkok, August

²⁷ "MDX Plans Dam on Salween", Bangkok Post, 13/12/02. See also www.salweenwatch.org

Internal Displacement in Southern Shan State, 2004



3.2 Karenni State

Karenni State was never formally incorporated into colonial Burma. This remains a source of pride and justification in the struggle for self-determination which has resulted in armed conflict and displacement for half a century. Although ceasefire agreements were signed in 1994 with three factions previously aligned with the Communist Party of Burma, only the Karenni National People's Liberation Front (KNPLF) established special administration areas in Karenni State.²⁸ While the Karenni National Progressive Party (KNPP) also agreed to a ceasefire in 1995, this soon broke down after the Burma Army deployed troops into areas east of the Salween River. This led to the Burma Army enforcing a campaign of forced relocations to separate villagers from KNPP forces, which reportedly displaced over 25,000 people across the state in 1996 alone.²⁹ Since then, the KNPP has been further fragmented by defections in 1999 by a group led by U Goeri in Pruso township and then in 2002 by a splinter calling itself the Karenni Solidarity Organisation (KnSO) in Pasaung township.

Prior to the deployment of Burma Army troops during the ceasefire period of 1996, areas east of the Salween River in Shadaw township had been strongholds of the KNPP. However these forests have been depopulated since the late 1990's due to armed conflict and intense militarization, including the proliferation of landmines. So while the largest free-fire area in Karenni state is east of the Salween River, there are very few internally displaced persons hiding in this area.

Internal displacement in Karenni state has recently been most intense in the south-western township of Pasaung, which borders Karen State. Since the surrender of KnSO, SPDC has initiated another round of troop deployments and forced relocations to clear these mountainous areas which have never been controlled by Rangoon and are strategically important for road access from central Burma through Taungoo and Pasaung to the Thailand border. Approximately 7,000 people have been displaced by war or human rights abuses during the past two years and 4,000 people are estimated to remain hiding in free-fire areas along the Karen-Karenni state border. There has been a high rate of non-compliance against relocation orders, with only 500 people estimated to reside in relocation sites in Pasaung township.

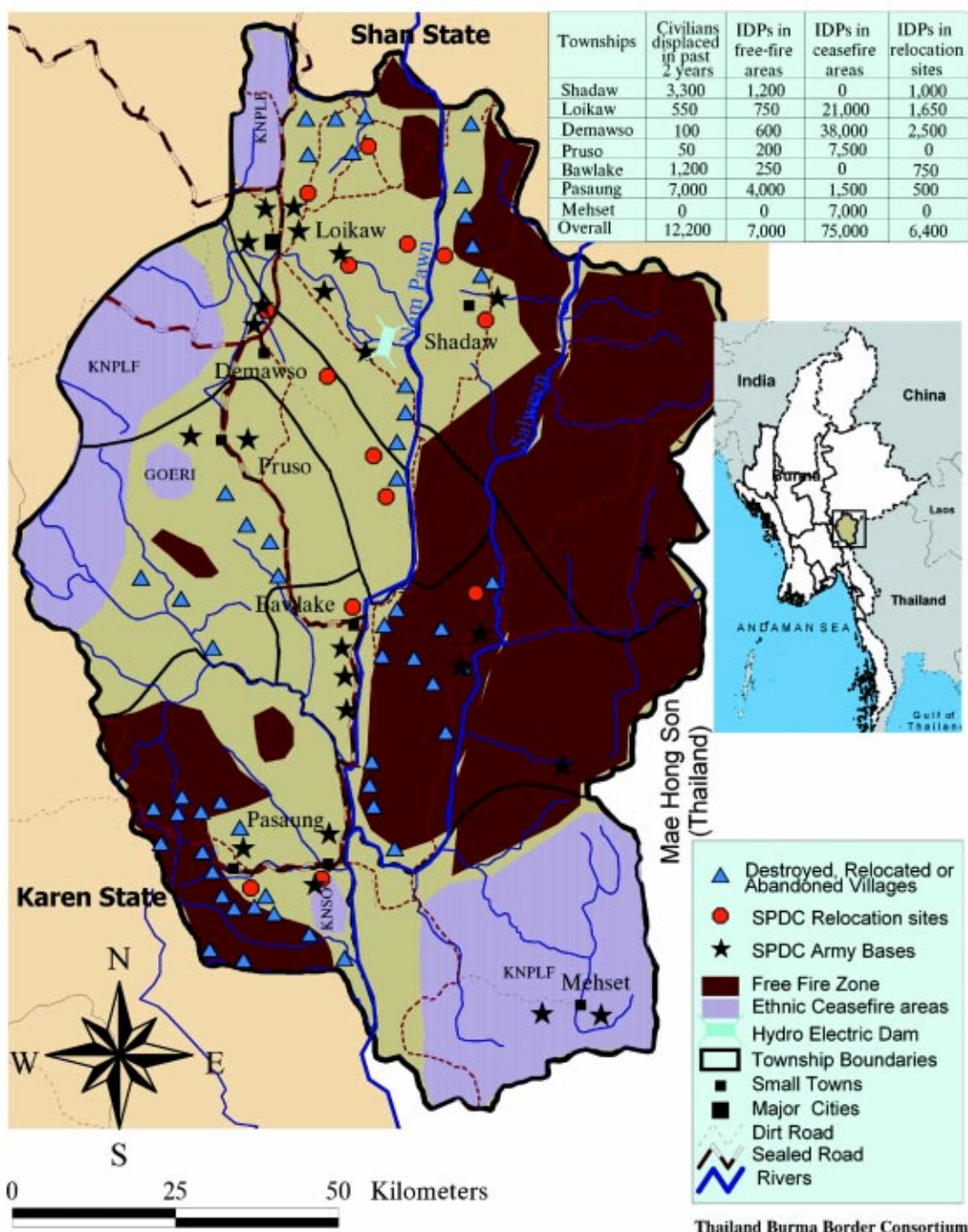
The unsustainable nature of, and population turnover rate in, relocation sites is exemplified by Daw Tama Gyi and Htee Poh Kloh in Demawso township which were established in 1996, abandoned by 2000 and re-populated again in 2004. Reports from Pasaung also suggest that people are increasingly attempting to resettle in KNPLF ceasefire areas in other townships rather than following orders to move to, or remain in, SPDC relocation sites which are not economically viable.³⁰ However the extent to which people have been forcibly relocated by non-state actors into ceasefire areas can not be discounted, especially given that KNPLF and KnSO soldiers reportedly continue to escort SPDC "search and destroy" patrols in the free-fire areas outside of Loikaw and Pasaung respectively.

²⁸ Pao (SSNPLO) and Kayan (KNLP) nationalist groups based themselves in Shan State in Hsi Hseng and Pekon townships respectively. Although it is reported that people continue to flee into these areas seeking refugee from violence and abuse in Karenni state, it has not been possible to estimate the internally displaced population there.

²⁹ Burma Ethnic Research Group, 2000, *Conflict and Displacement in Karenni: The Need for Considered Responses*, Chiang Mai, Nopburee Press, p50

³⁰ Vicary, 2003, "Economic Non-Viability, Hunger and Migration: The Case of Mawchi Township", Burma Economic Watch, www.ibiblio.org/obl/docs/BEW-Mawchi.htm

Internal Displacement in Karenni State, 2004



3.3 Eastern Pegu Division

Since retreating from the Irrawaddy Delta and Pegu hills in central Burma in 1970, KNU's administrative claims have only spread as far as eastern Pegu Division. SPDC has maintained authority over the major towns and armed conflict has predominately been in rural areas. As the conflict-affected area most accessible from Rangoon, villages in eastern Pegu Division have been targeted for forced relocation since the mid 1970's. Forested hills to the east of the Sittaung River generally provided sufficient cover for KNU to maintain administrative structures and for civilians to resist displacement. However, since the fall of KNU headquarters in 1995, SPDC has been able to establish military bases along roads extending towards the Thailand border and relocation sites adjacent to the Sittaung River. Over 6,000 people are estimated to have been displaced during the past two years, contributing to an internally displaced population of over 17,000 people in this Division.

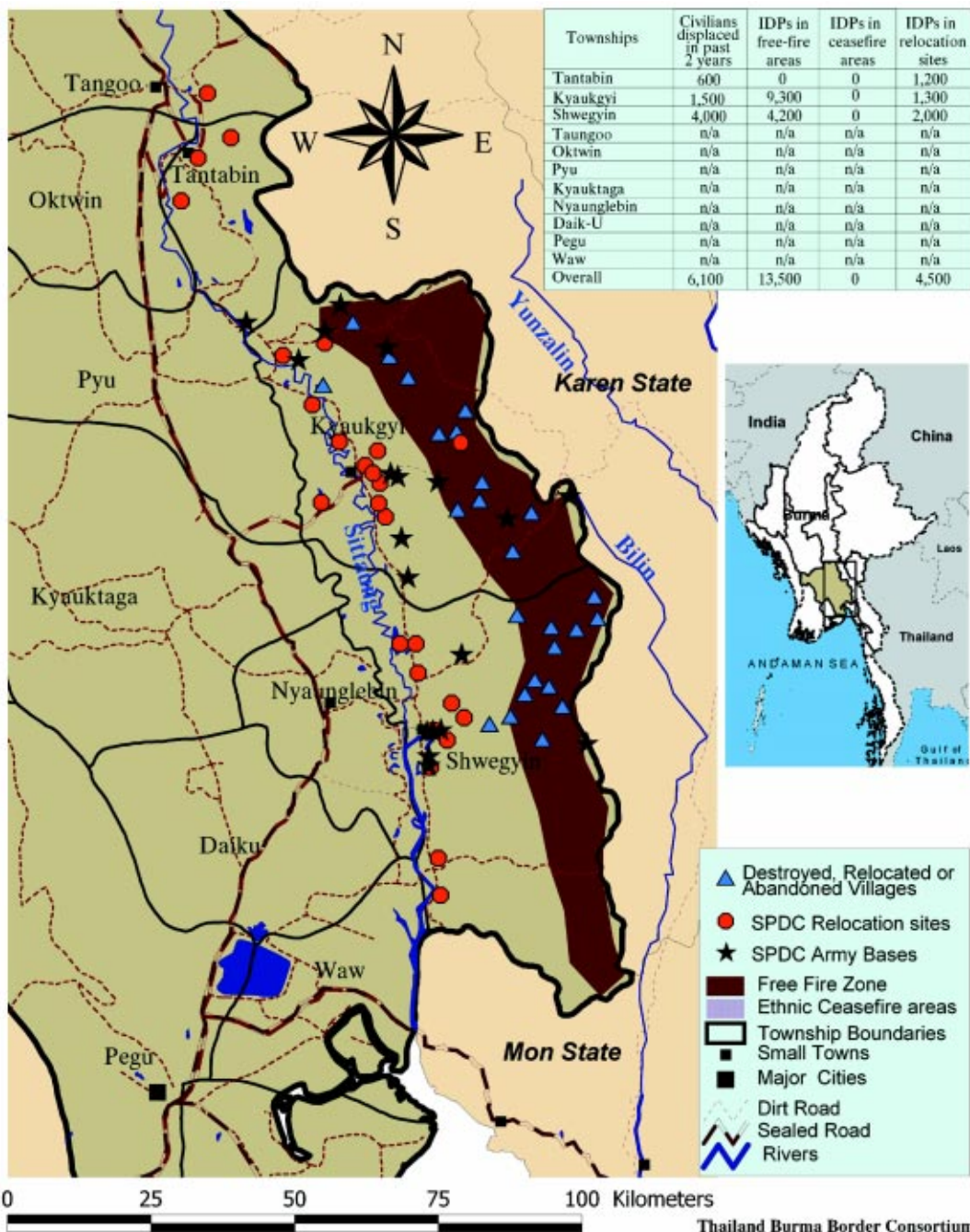
More than 9,000 people are estimated to be hiding east of Kyaukgyi and a further 4,000 are reportedly in free-fire areas east of Shwegyin. The harassment of internally displaced persons hiding in these townships has largely been attributed to a particular government sponsored para-military group, referred to either in regards to their dress as the "short pants" or by their acronym, *Sa Thon Lon*. While such "auxiliary national defence forces" are widespread throughout Burma, their activities in conflict-affected areas have been most prominent in eastern Pegu Division.³¹ While SPDC generally patrol relocation sites and the immediate environs in the plains, *Sa Thon Lon* forces are reported to more commonly patrol upland areas to search for internally displaced persons hiding in free-fire areas and to destroy any crops found along their path.

The displacement of a further 25 villages in this area during the past two years was due in part to *Sa Thon Lon* forces. However, the deployment of SPDC troops to secure two dirt roads reaching out across the north of Papun in Karen State towards the Thailand border has also been a significant factor. Villages in areas deemed beyond SPDC's control have been forcibly relocated along the Shwegyin-Kyaukgyi-Tantabin road. Conversely, villages within close proximity to SPDC bases have been forced to clear and repair bullock cart tracks and subjected to arbitrary taxes. Populations relocated to sites close to Kyaukgyi in 2004 have purportedly not been allowed to transport possessions or construction materials, which represents a degree of harassment not generally associated forced relocations.

Over 4,000 people are estimated to be residing in SPDC relocation sites in eastern Pegu Division, which accounts for only a quarter of the estimated population two years ago. In some cases, the relocation sites have been completely disbanded. However reports suggest there generally remain populations of 30-40 families in each makeshift site which is smaller than elsewhere in eastern Burma. The outflow from relocation sites has been partly induced by close proximity to major towns where agricultural land is scarce and villagers must depend on selling their labour for wages. Increased restrictions on travel back to paddy fields and orchards has also undermined villagers' livelihoods and the sustainability of relocation sites.

³¹ Karen Human Rights Group, 2003, "Expansion of Guerilla Retaliation Units and Food Shoptages in Toungoo District of Northern Karen State", Information Update 2003 #1, www.khrg.org

Internal Displacement in Eastern Pegu Division, 2004



3.4 Karen State

While the Burma Army's offensives have penetrated into Karen state since the 1970's, the mutiny of the Democratic Karen Buddhist Army (DKBA) was key to the fall of the Karen National Union (KNU) headquarters in 1995.³² Conflict-induced displacement has been widespread across Karen state since that time, but has stabilised in the past couple of years. An informal ceasefire between SPDC and KNU has even been established in 2004, with a series of high level meetings held to specify rules for troop locations and deployment and to plan for the return and resettlement of internally displaced persons. However, over 200 skirmishes still occurred in the first six months after the ceasefire was announced.³³ Over 60,000 people are estimated to have been displaced by war and human rights abuses during the past two years and approximately 47,000 internally displaced persons are reportedly hiding in areas that remain de facto free-fire areas.

Recent displacement is most pervasive in the northern townships of Papun and Thandaung adjacent to the Karenni State border. This mountainous area is the largest and most populated area affected by conflict in eastern Burma, with thick forest cover protecting supply routes for the armed opposition and dirt roads restricting the rapid deployment of SPDC troops. Counter-insurgency operations are predominately marked by the destruction of shelters, crops and food stocks, forced relocations into road-side villages, and forced labour to upgrade bullock cart tracks into sealed roads crossing from Pegu Division to the Thailand border. Over 26,000 people are estimated to have been displaced by war and human rights abuses in the past two years, and a comparable number are believed hiding from SPDC forces in free-fire areas, while approximately 10,000 are in SPDC relocation sites.

Further south, population displacement has been more associated with the counter-insurgency efforts of combined SPDC and DKBA forces and development-induced displacement. The complicity of DKBA is most evident in Hlaing Bwe and Myawaddy townships where mortar shells have reportedly been launched onto villages and landmines laid to restrict access to fields during the past year. These attacks have contributed to the displacement of over 20,000 people in the past two years, with approximately 13,000 people estimated to still be hiding in free-fire areas.

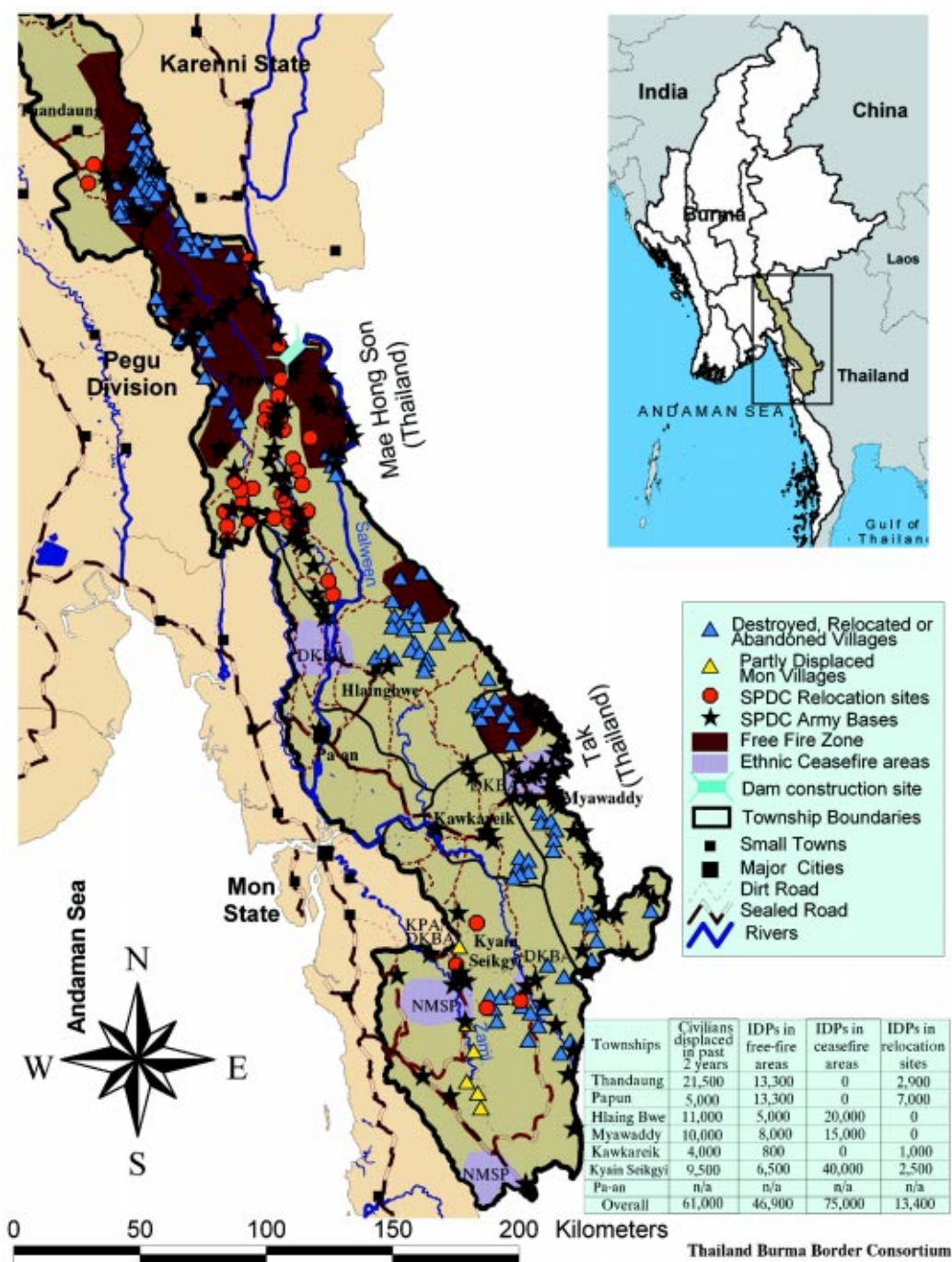
Forced labour and arbitrary taxation have been more prominent causes of displacement in Kawkareik and Kyain Seikkgyi townships. This has been associated with road construction on dirt tracks connecting Kawkareik to Kyain Seikkgyi to Three Pagodas Pass, although the harassment of villagers between the Zami River and Thailand border has also contributed to the displacement of over 13,000 Mon and Karen people in these townships during in the past two years.

New Mon State Party (NMSP) has two ceasefire areas in southern Karen State and both continue to report a steady influx of new arrivals fleeing from human rights abuses in SPDC controlled areas and conflict-affected areas. The southern ceasefire area is based around people who were formerly refugees in Thailand, while the core population of the northern area was originally people who had fled from Mon state. 30,000 people in these areas are still denied humanitarian assistance for their resettlement and reintegration.

³² For background: Burma Ethnic Research Group et al, 1998, *Forgotten Victims of a Hidden War: Internally Displaced Karen in Burma*, Chiang Mai, Nopburee Press

³³ Karen Information Center, 29/7/04, cited in The Irrawaddy, "KNU to Resume Ceasefire Talks with Junta",

Internal Displacement in Karen State, 2004



3.5 Mon State

In the years immediately following the 1995 ceasefire agreement between the NMSP and the Burma Army, conflict induced displacement decreased significantly in southern Mon State. Without a political settlement, development-induced displacement continued with forced labour particularly prominent during the construction of the Ye-Tavoy railway. 10,000 refugees were returned to unfamiliar lands in NMSP ceasefire areas along the border, and did not dare to continue on home. By the late 1990's, grievances about SPDC militarisation in areas formerly controlled by the Mon had led to splinter groups breaking away from NMSP to reclaim their arms. This resulted in a new wave of conflict-induced displacement emerging again in southern Mon State.

The reformed armed resistance in southern Mon State is only small-scale with an estimated fighting force of less than one hundred soldiers. Yet SPDC has reportedly resumed its forced relocation program for villages outside of NMSP ceasefire areas, restricted the travel of farmers to fields, and pursued the splinter groups in ceasefire areas. The impact on villagers has been heightened by human rights abuses committed by the splinter groups, with extortion of cash and food supplies the main act of banditry.³⁴ This conflict-induced displacement has only exacerbated the more fundamental instability caused by the government's land confiscation programme. Over 8,000 acres of land paddy, rubber, betel nut and orchards have been confiscated by SPDC in southern Mon State since 1998. Apart from not being compensated, farmers have often been forced to work on their former properties and construct military barracks to support the resettlement of newly deployed SPDC soldiers and their families.³⁵ The combined effect has contributed to the displacement of approximately 16,000 people in Ye township during the past two years.

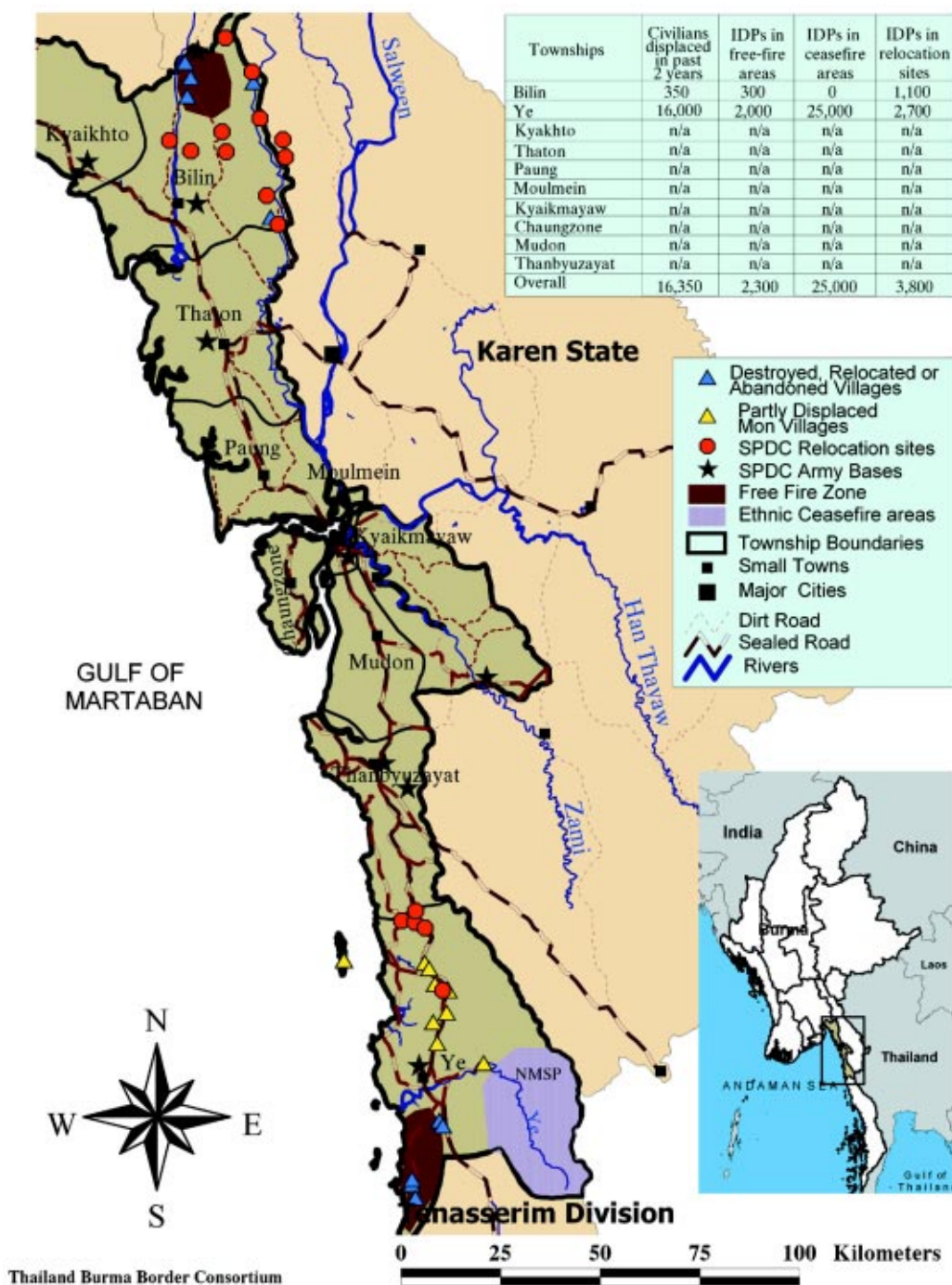
NMSP's ceasefire areas in Mon state can be characterised as offering either greater security in the mountains east of the Ye River or more livelihood opportunities in the fertile low lands west of the Ye river. It is the inability of NMSP to offer both a protective and enabling environment which restricts the sustainability of resettlement in the ceasefire areas. Upland ceasefire areas are not suitable for low land farmers such as the Mon, but SPDC's counter-insurgency campaign restricts the option of searching for fertile fields away from home. Yet without the restoration of rights, people do not feel safe to return to their villages or resettle elsewhere in Burma. Eight years after the refugees returned from Thailand, international humanitarian assistance has still not been able to reach these ceasefire areas via Rangoon. Relief aid from Thailand prolongs the viability of the ceasefire areas as temporary sanctuaries, but there has not been an end to displacement for 25,000 people currently residing there.

Counter-insurgency activities have continued, and even intensified, throughout this time in northern Mon State where there is a large Karen community and KNU remain active. However, the population density in relocation sites diminished as people instead attempted to resettle in villages acceptable to SPDC, but still within KNU's sphere of influence.

³⁴ Human Rights Foundation of Monland, 2003 "Population Displacement is Humanitarian Crisis in Burma", *Mon Forum*, www.ibiblio.org/obl/docs/MF2003-05B.htm

³⁵ Human Rights Foundation of Monland, 2003, "No Land to Farm: A Comprehensive Report on Land, Real Estate and Properties' Confiscation in Mon Areas, Burma (1998-2003)", Bangkok. www.rehmonnya.org/landreport.php

Internal Displacement in Mon State, 2004



3.6 Tenasserim Division

Investment interests in Tenasserim Division had gained sufficient momentum by 1996 for the Burma Army to establish a regional military command headquarters in Mergui. This was related to securing construction sites and environs for the Yadana gas pipeline, the Ye-Tavoy railway and the proposed Bangkao-Tavoy highway which is to link Thailand with a deep sea port. Troop deployment was followed by a concerted offensive into KNU controlled areas complemented with a campaign of forcibly relocating villages beginning in 1997.³⁶ While over 140 villages have been displaced since 1996, and nominal SPDC control now extends through much of the area, recent attempts to return and re-establish more than 100 such villages have been thwarted by further displacement. In total, 30,000 people have been obliged to leave their homes due to war or human rights abuses in the past two years alone.

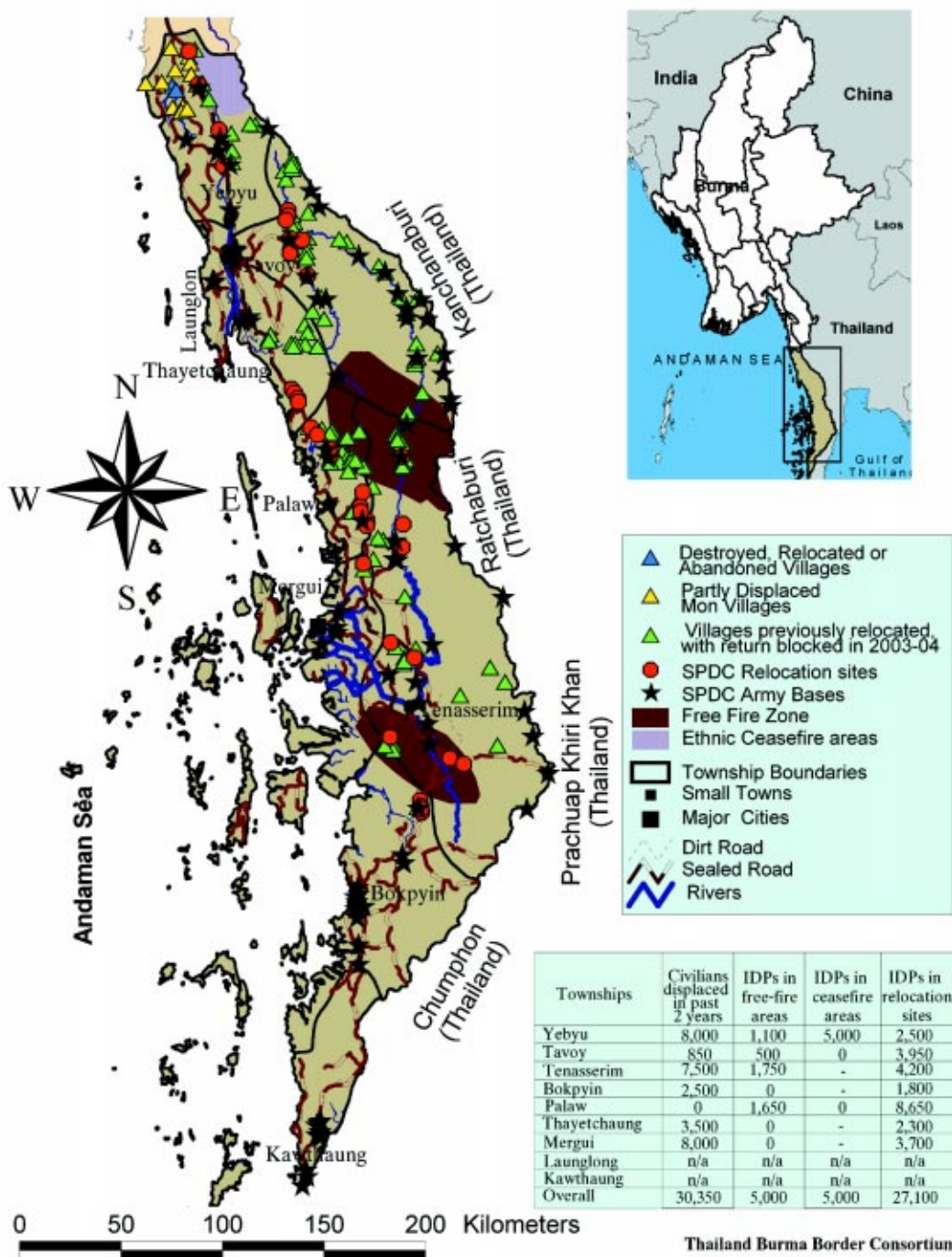
NMSP's ceasefire area in the north of Tenasserim Division has seen an influx of new arrivals in 2004 due to hostilities between SPDC and the Mon splinter group. Even in the ceasefire areas people have not been safe from the repercussions of this conflict, with the splinter group trying to destabilise NMSP's authority and SPDC harassing villages as part of counter insurgency efforts. Houses have recently been burnt, food stocks stolen, cash extorted, movements restricted and civilians killed by both the splinter group and SPDC in this ceasefire area.

KNU controlled the fertile valleys and river banks around Mount Kaserdoh in Tavoy and Palaw townships until villages were forcibly evicted in 1997. Over 12,000 people are estimated to remain in relocation sites further to the west in barren plains, while another 2,000 people are estimated to remain in hiding from SPDC in the foothills. In cases where widespread villages were consolidated rather than completely relocated, farmers have been better able to cope with displacement because they have still had access to their betel nut plantations or rice fields. However, people from over 50 villages have attempted to return to their villages or surrounding areas during the past two years, only to again be displaced upon arrival.

Further south, SPDC has established military base camps along the Tenasserim River and fortified both Bokpyin and Kawthaung. 10,000 people are estimated to have been displaced by ongoing counter-insurgency efforts and demands for forced labour during the past two years. 6,000 people are estimated to remain in SPDC relocation sites along the Tenasserim-Bokpyin road and Tenasserim river, while approximately 2,000 people are hiding in free-fire areas to the west. Reports from relocation sites suggest that after forced eviction in the late 1990's, villagers were not allowed to return to their villages until 2002 when travel passes were introduced with a week long permit costing 1,000 kyat. However leaders of some relocation sites have purportedly been ordered to only issue travel passes for a single day since the end of 2003, which has decreased the opportunities for villages to return to their fields and plantations. Relocation sites can not be sustained without SPDC allowing this access to livelihoods, but the counter-insurgency strategy of separating villagers from the armed opposition remains in force.

³⁶ For background see Burma Issues, 2003, *After the Offensives: The Burma Army's relocation program : Kamoethway Area, Tenasserim Division*, Bangkok, www.burmaissues.org/En/Reports/After1997.pdf
 Pah Paw Klo, 2003, "Survival Within Division", in Burma Issues, *IDPs in Burma*, Bangkok, www.burmaissues.org/En/IDPCampaign/Infobooklet.pdf
 Burma Ethnic Research Group et al, 1998, *Forgotten Victims of a Hidden War: Internally Displaced Karen in Burma*, Chiang Mai, Nopburee Press

Internal Displacement in Tenasserim Division, 2004



	1
2	

1. 'Slates, not school books', free-fire area, Karenni State, 2004, KSWC
2. 'Lack of food security', free-fire area, Tenasserim Division, 2004, CIDKP

4



VULNERABILITY

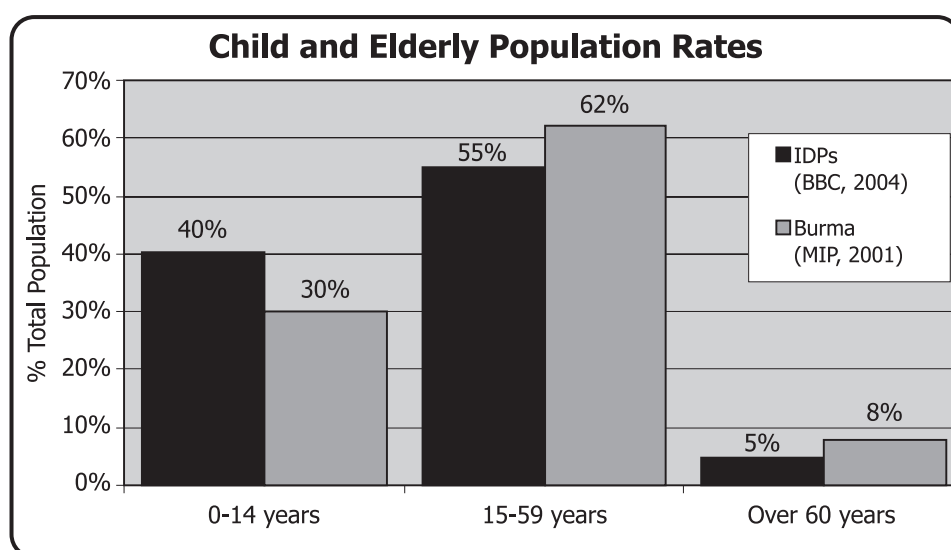
OF INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS



4.1 DEMOGRAPHIC STRESS

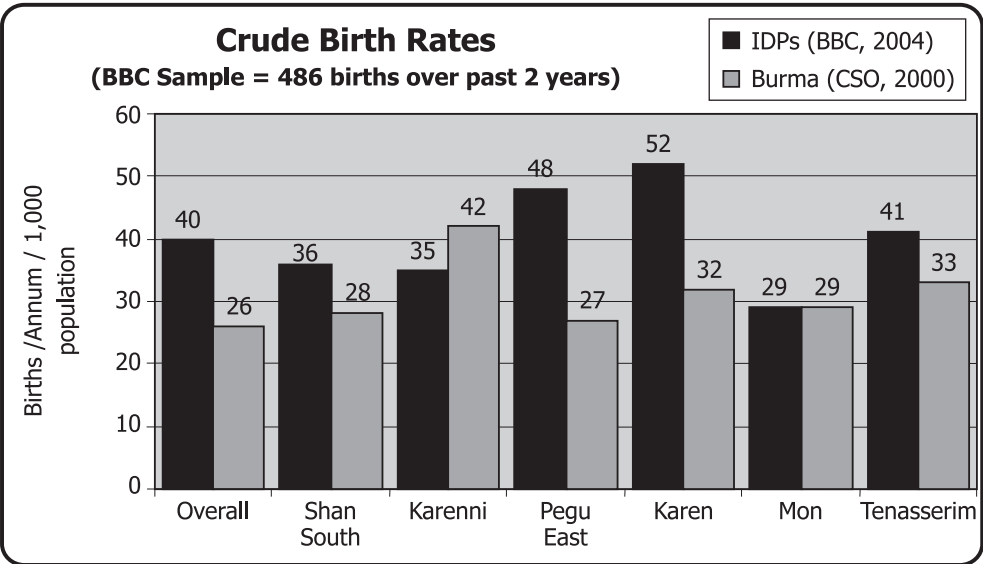
Demographic stress refers to situations when the physiological characteristics of a population reduce collective abilities to cope and recover from livelihood shocks. This survey of internally displaced persons in eastern Burma has analysed demographic stress using indicators of age and sex distribution, crude birth rates and the identification of especially vulnerable individuals.

The documented structure of the internally displaced population consists of a greater proportion of children, lower population rates of working age and a lower percentage of elders compared to the general population in Burma. These higher levels of dependency on a smaller adult population are associated with lower life expectancy and higher birth rates amongst the internally displaced, as well as resettlement of the aged into safer and more convenient environs. Disaggregated by area, the lowest proportion of children amongst the internally displaced population was recorded in Shan state while the highest percentage was in Tenasserim Division. Age distribution was found to be similar for sub-groups in free fire areas, ethnic ceasefire areas, SPDC relocation sites and mixed administration areas.



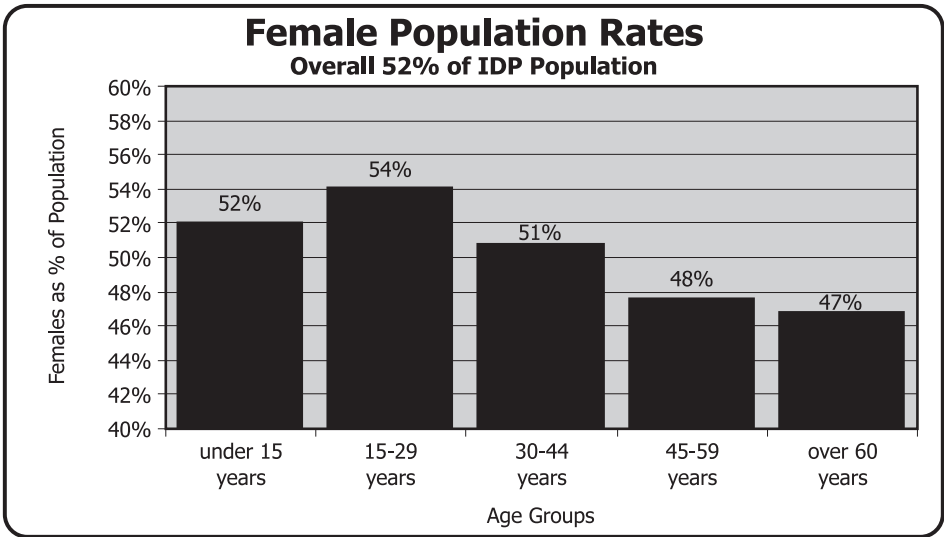
(Comparative Source : Ministry of Immigration and Population, 2001, *Myanmar Fertility and Reproductive Health Survey*, with UNFPA, Rangoon, 2003)

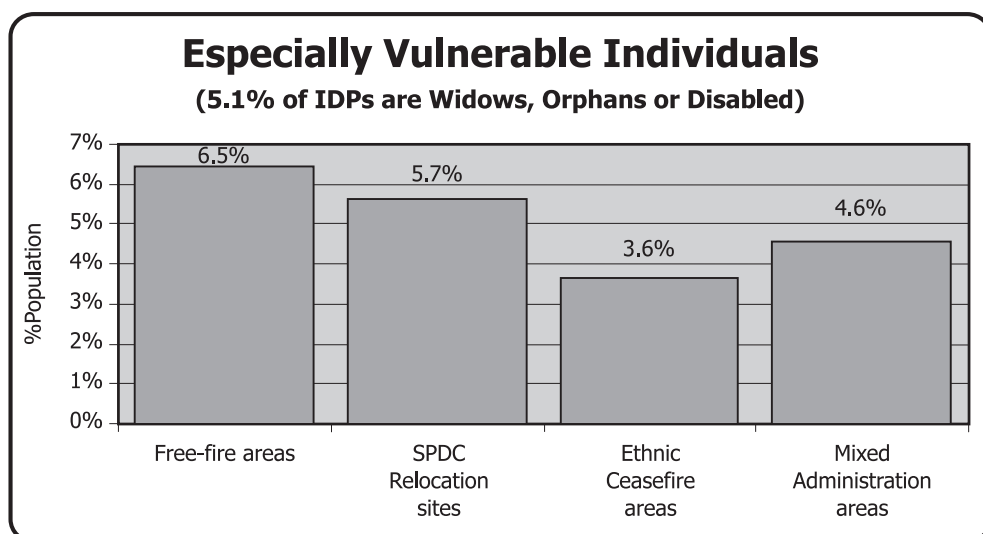
The overall birth rate recorded amongst the internally displaced is significantly higher than government statistics indicate for the general population. This may be partly due to methodological differences, as the government's survey was only in capital townships and only recorded births registered by a hospital or official midwife. However, high birth rates also represent limited access to contraceptives and family planning education as well as potential pressures on livelihoods and the natural resources in the future. High birth rates have also been associated with coping strategies in conflict-affected environments where mortality rates are high and manual labour is essential for survival. Crude birth rates amongst internally displaced persons were highest amongst those hiding in free-fire areas and lowest in ethnic ceasefire areas.



(Comparative source : Central Statistical Organisation, *Statistical Yearbook*, Rangoon, 2000)

Girls and women comprise slightly more than half of the overall internally displaced population. However, when disaggregated by age, females constitute a significantly higher proportion of children and working age adults and a minority of the population in older age brackets. High rates of women in the working age population are associated with conscription of men into the armed resistance, migration of men in search of income for their families, and the flight of men to avoid forced labour and portering duties. Yet, as records of widows also illustrate, the risks of dying from malaria contracted in agricultural fields and being killed as a direct consequence of war are greater for working age men than women. Lower rates of women in the older age brackets are indicative of shorter life expectancy related to the indirect impacts of conflict in terms of malnutrition and generally poor health.





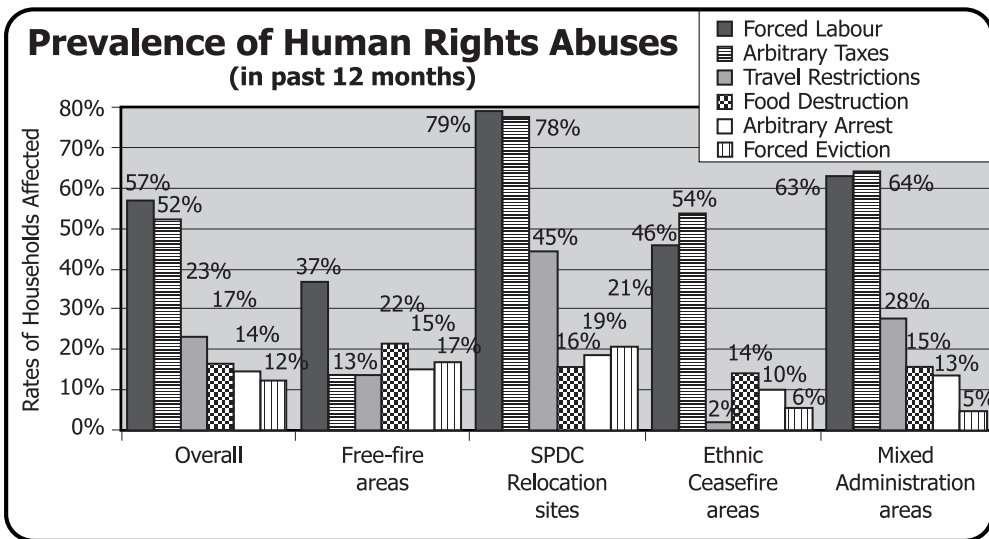
This survey found that over 5% of the internally displaced are widows, orphans or disabled. These people are particularly susceptible to livelihood shocks because of the loss of regular family support structures or physical incapacity. Rates were highest amongst those hiding in free fire areas and lowest in ethnic ceasefire areas. Amongst the especially vulnerable individuals surveyed, 31% were in free fire areas while only 14% were in ethnic ceasefire areas. These findings suggest not only that people are more likely to experience significant personal loss in conflict-affected areas, but also that this loss may actually strengthen the determination of some people to resist further displacement. For other especially vulnerable individuals, opportunities to migrate into relatively safer environments may be limited due to an increased dependency on community support.

4.2 LACK OF PROTECTION

Humanitarian protection relates to any activity “preventing and / or alleviating the immediate effects of a specific pattern of abuse and restoring dignified conditions of life through reparation, restitution and rehabilitation”.³⁷ Levels of protection were assessed in this survey by utilizing quantifiable indicators of human rights abuse, the frequency of forced displacement, and the prevalence of civilian casualties of war.

Ironically, the most effective protection against human rights abuses appears to be hiding from sight in the forest. One out of every three households in free-fire areas reported no abuses of human rights during the past year compared to one in ten households in ceasefire areas and less than one in twenty households in mixed administration areas and relocation sites. The most common human rights abuses identified were forced labour, arbitrary taxation / extortion, restrictions on movement, destruction of food, arbitrary arrest and forced evictions.

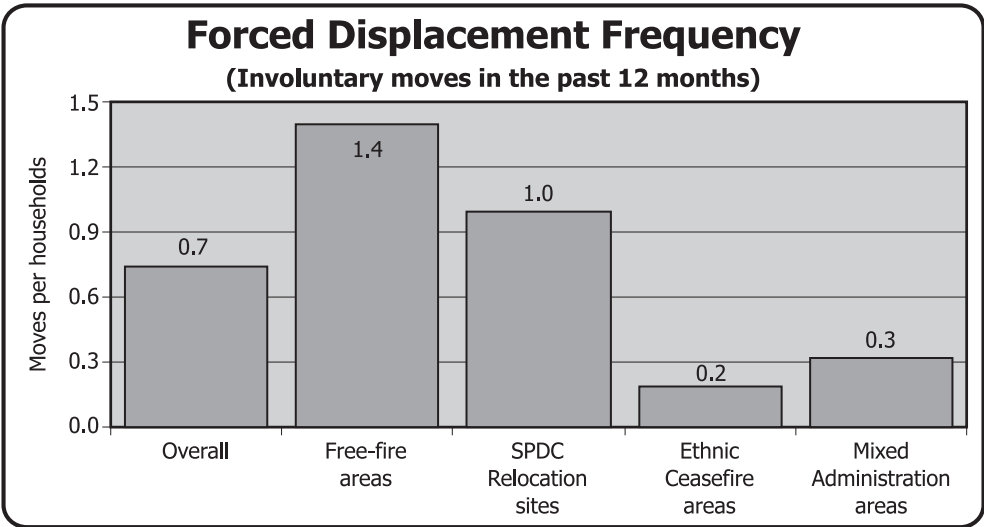
³⁷ Inter Agency Standing Committee, cited in ICRC, 1999, *Workshop on Protection for Human Rights and Humanitarian Organisations : Doing Something about it and Doing it well*, Geneva, 18-20 January, pp21, 25



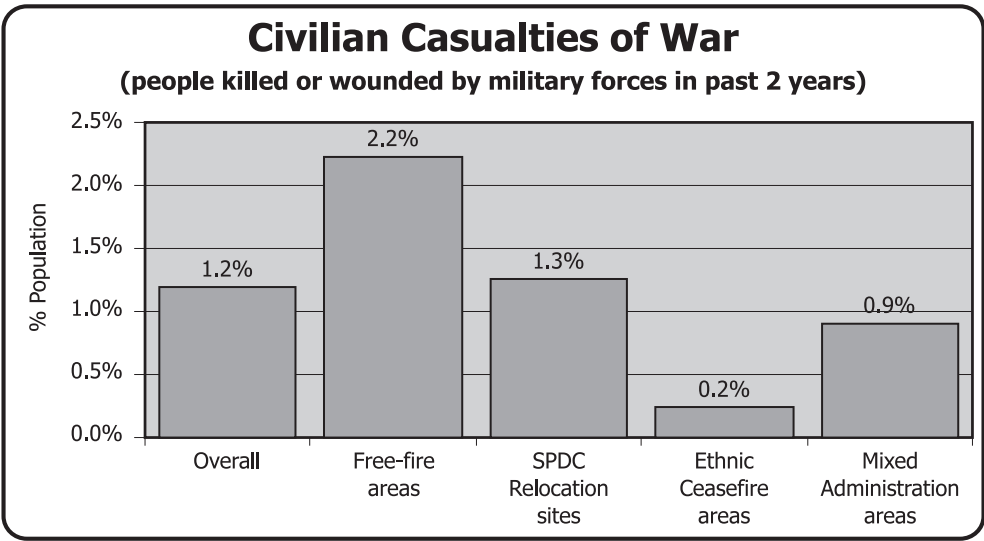
Over half of households surveyed had been obliged to work for authorities and forced to pay arbitrary taxes during the past twelve months. Both of these abuses were recorded as most prevalent in relocation sites and mixed administration areas where villagers must deal with SPDC soldiers on a daily basis, and the least common in free-fire areas where villages are in hiding. Over 20% of internally displaced households had been ordered to restrict local travel in the past year, with rates again highest in relocation sites and mixed administration areas. However, responses from free-fire and ceasefire areas are likely to understate the extent to which movements were restricted by fear rather than specific orders.

Approximately one in every five households from free-fire areas and relocation sites reported suffering from the deliberate destruction of food stocks and forced evictions during the past year. This can be partly attributed to the way that counter insurgency activities split communities with some households fleeing into hiding and some following orders into relocation sites. However, it is also related to unsustainable nature of relocation sites which oblige people to supplement their livelihoods by planting crops outside of designated areas.

When disaggregated by area rather than location type, reports of forced labour were most prominent in Shan and Karenni state where almost four out of every five households had been obliged to work for the authorities during the past year. The highest rates of arbitrary taxation were documented in Tenasserim Division where two thirds of households had been extorted by authorities. Restrictions on travel and forced evictions were most severe in Pegu Division, while the destruction of food stocks and crops was recorded most in Karenni and Mon states. While the survey found that human rights abuses are widespread and a lack of protection is common in all areas, people in relocation sites have been affected the most.



When asked how frequently they had been forced to move or flee from shelter, on average two out three internally displaced households indicated having been forcibly displaced once in the past twelve months. This rate includes responses from ethnic ceasefire and mixed administration areas which are more stable although still not conducive to resettlement. While the average household in free-fire areas was forced to move every 8 months, this is likely to understate the fluidity of displacement because movements between hide-outs in the same general vicinity were not counted. Given that community-based organizations have in recent years reported average displacement rates for households hiding in free-fire areas of three to four moves per year, these findings suggest that average displacement frequency has decreased. However, it should be noted that the rates of displacement reported in this survey for Karenni state remain comparable to previous years. This exception to the trend can be attributed to the intensity of counter insurgency activities in Karenni state during the past twelve months.

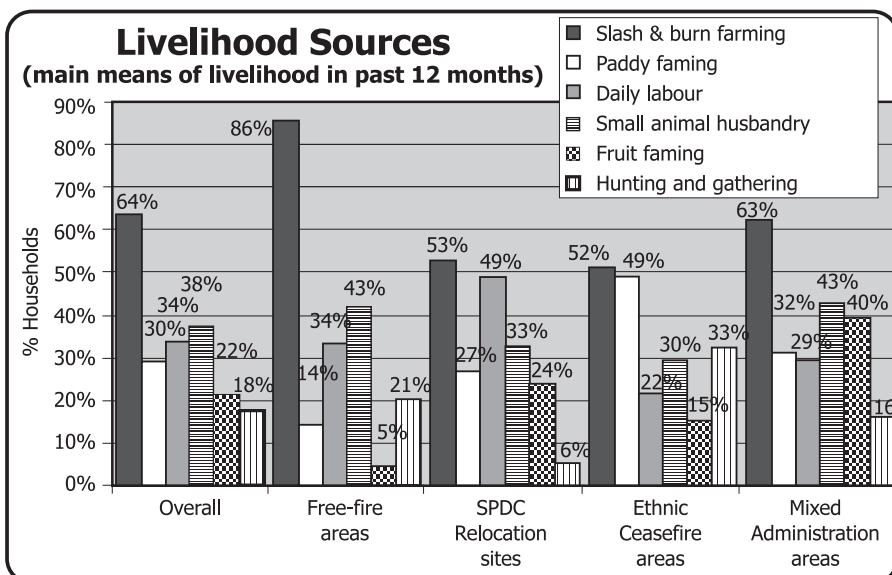


This survey also found that more than 1% of the internally displaced population had been killed or wounded by military assault during the past two years alone. Almost half of the families of these civilian casualties of war remain in free-fire areas, despite the greater risks of being killed or wounded. Indeed, households surveyed in free-fire areas were attacked by military forces and had members forced to sweep for landmines twice as often during the past year compared to internally displaced persons in other types of locations. When the prevalence of civilian casualties was analysed in relation to states and divisions, the highest rates of abuse were documented in Pegu Division. This can be attributed to patrols of the *Sa Thon Lon* para-military forces into upland areas and the intensity of SPDC militarization to shield central Burma from the impact of armed conflict.

4.3 UNSUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOODS

The sustainability of livelihoods depends on coping and recovering from unforeseen stresses and shocks to physical assets and human capabilities. Conversely vulnerability is related to insecure livelihoods where the natural resource base is limited and access to physical, human and social capital is undermined. This survey collected data related to livelihood sources, access to agricultural tools, and coping strategies in order to analyse the sustainability of livelihoods for internally displaced populations.

Subsistence agriculture of one sort or another is the major source of livelihoods for the general population in eastern Burma. Amongst the internally displaced, two thirds of the population are largely dependent on the slash and burn of secondary forests to prepare and cultivate upland plots of rice for harvesting annually in October and November. Dependence on such marginal shifting cultivation practices is greatest in free-fire areas, where this survey found internally displaced persons were least able to afford the longer term investments associated with irrigated paddy fields and fruit plantations. Two out of five households in free-fire areas also reported breeding small animals such as chickens and pigs, which was more than the internally displaced in other types of locations.



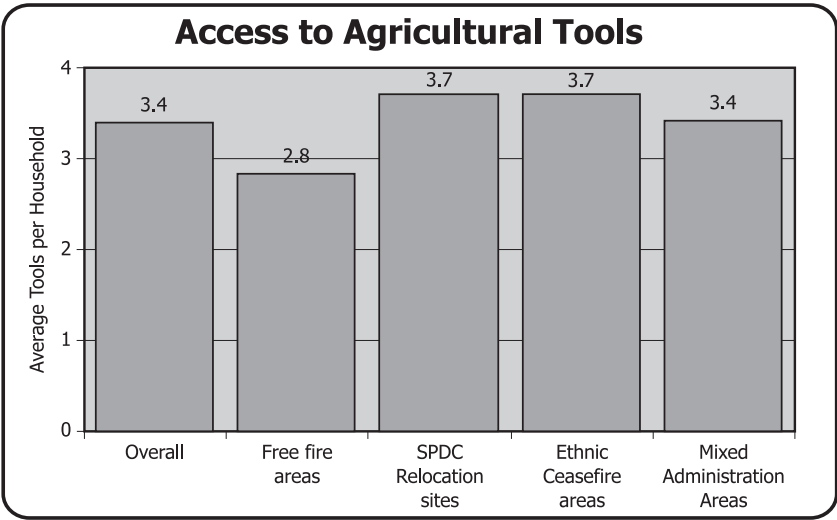
Conversely, half of households in relocation sites were recorded offering daily labour for cash wages as a main means of livelihood which was a higher rate than amongst the internally displaced elsewhere. Less households in relocation sites were documented as being involved in any type of rice farming, whether on irrigated paddy fields or upland plots, compared to anywhere else. This can be attributed to the lack of access to agricultural land and greater restrictions on movement.

While hunting and gathering has commonly been linked to coping strategies for people hiding in free-fire areas, the deterrent of landmines along forest tracks is likely to be associated with the record of higher rates for hunting and gathering in ceasefire areas. However this is also indicative of the unsustainable nature of ceasefire areas, even though half the households have access to paddy fields which is greater than in any other area.

Internally displaced and war affected populations in mixed administration areas reported having the most diversified livelihood sources and the highest rates of longer term investments in fruit plantations. This represents more secure livelihoods, and hence greater possibilities for sustainable resettlement, amongst this sub-population compared to the internally displaced in free-fire areas, relocation sites and ceasefire areas.

Disaggregated by states and divisions, cultural and geographic factors associated with livelihoods become more evident. The practice of slash and burn farming is most common in mountainous Karenni state, but dependence on this as a livelihood source is most significant in Tenasserim Division. Access to irrigated paddy fields was reported most in the plains of Mon and Shan states. Eastern Pegu Division's proximity to central Burma limits access to land for any type of rice farming, and results in more households depending on small animal husbandry, daily labour and the maintenance of insecure tenure over fruit plantations. Despite these regional differences, however, the over-riding trends of insecure livelihoods remain common for internally displaced populations.

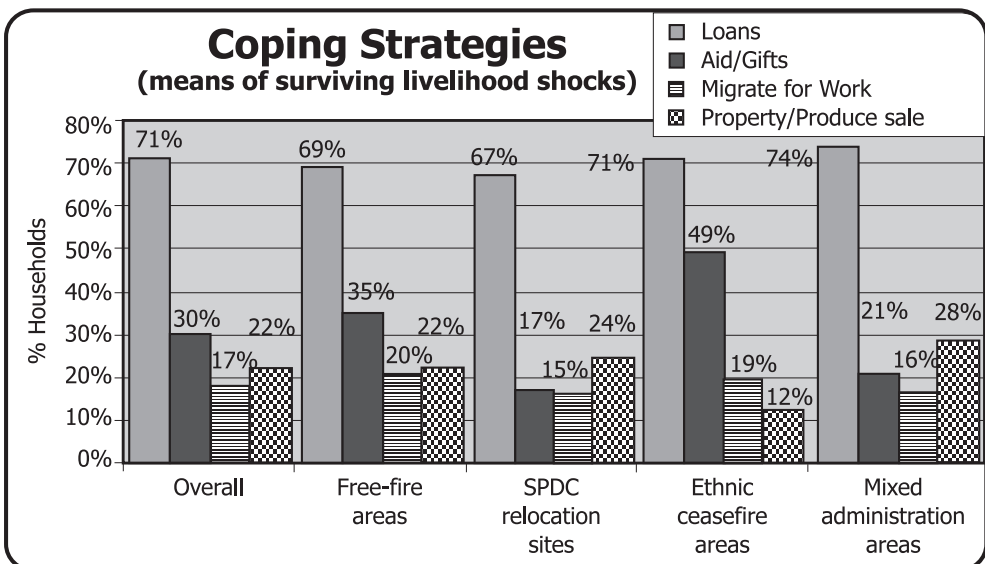
Although the livelihoods of internally displaced persons have been largely dependent on subsistence agriculture, the average household reported possessing only three tools to support their efforts. Capital equipment was most scarce in free-fire areas



amongst different location types, and in Shan state and Tenasserim Division when analysed across states. Such labour-intensive conditions may be indicative not only of poverty, but also of asset stripping as a counter-insurgency strategy to intimidate supposed “rebel sympathisers” into subjugation.

The coping strategies that households had used after livelihoods had been shocked during the past year were assessed by this survey. More than two thirds of internally displaced households were found to have accessed loans to survive food shortages, of which approximately half required interest to be repaid on top of the original debt. Provision of loans, and especially interest-free loans, in such an unstable environment depends upon networks of trust substituting for material collateral. The high utility of such social collateral to access loans is indicative of the extent to which coping strategies are collective and based around maintaining strong relations between communities across the lines of conflict. Similarly, the social nature of coping strategies is reflected in the finding that almost a third of households received gifts from friends or aid from community-based relief organisations. In contrast, more strictly economic coping strategies such as migrating to search for income and selling property or produce were only utilised as coping strategies by approximately one in five households.

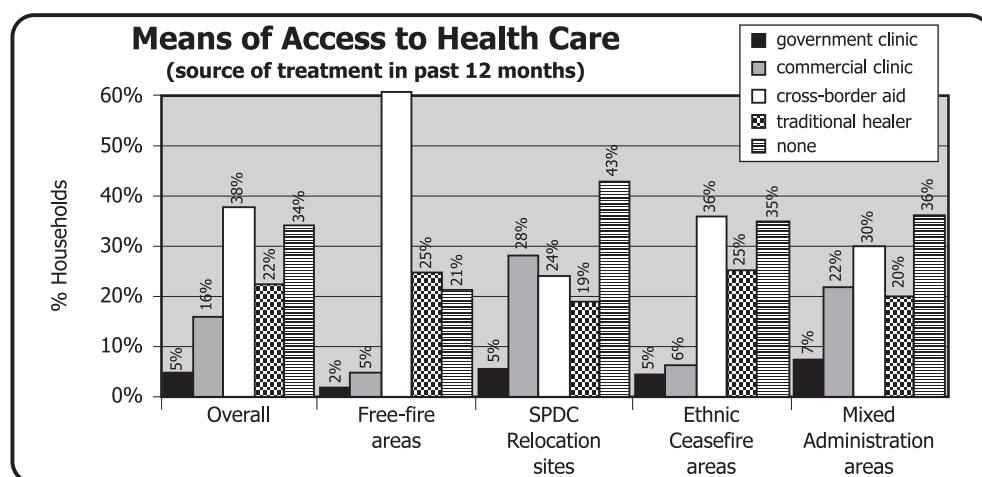
Analysis of coping strategies by location type demonstrates that significantly more internally displaced persons in ethnic ceasefire areas and free-fire areas are assisted by relief aid. Given that international humanitarian access to internally displaced and war-affected populations is negligible in eastern Burma, the vast majority of this relief can be assumed to be provided by community based organisations. These survey results indicate that the ability of community-based organisations to provide relief to internally displaced persons is inversely related to the proximity of SPDC forces. Conversely, the sale of property is more commonly associated with coping strategies in relocation sites and mixed administration areas which are generally more integrated with urban markets.



When coping strategies were differentiated into areas, internally displaced households in Tenasserim Division and Shan state recorded the lowest rates for accessing loans and people in Mon state the highest during the past year. Findings were also that relief aid reached the smallest proportion of households in southern Shan state and the largest in eastern Pegu Division. However, migration and the sale of property were most widely utilised as a coping strategy in Shan state and were least popular in Tenasserim Division. The survey appears to suggest that social networks offer the weakest support for internally displaced persons suffering from livelihood shocks and food shortages in Tenasserim Division and Shan State.

4.4 POOR PUBLIC HEALTH

Public health impacts in emergencies not only relate directly to mortality, injury and trauma but also indirectly to increased rates of infectious diseases and malnutrition. Indirect impacts are often related to deficiencies in food and water supply, breakdowns in sanitation and the disruption of health services.³⁸ This survey monitored access to health care, child mortality, acute malnutrition amongst children, access to food, drinking water sources and means of excreta disposal to analyse health status.

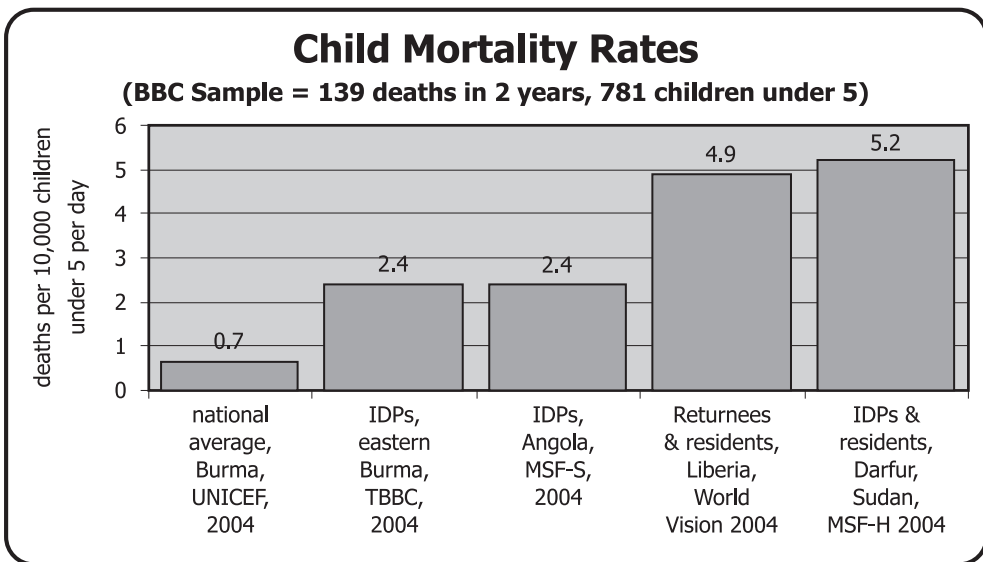


Internally displaced households were asked which type of agencies had provided them with health care services during the past year. While a third of households responded that they had not received any treatment or medicine during the past year, the main means of accessing health care was recorded as via cross-border aid provided by community organizations. This was particularly the case for people in free-fire areas, and suggests that access to health services may actually be greater for internally displaced persons in hiding compared to other groups. The provision of health care was reported as most limited in relocation sites, where dependence on commercial clinics and traders was highest, representing the extent to which forced

³⁸ SPHERE, 2004, *Humanitarian Charter and Minimum Standards in Disaster Response*, SCHR / InterAction, Geneva, p254, www.sphereproject.org

relocations disrupt access to social services. Government clinics were of negligible benefit to internally displaced persons whatever type of location they were residing in. Conversely, traditional healers were widely utilized and provided treatment to one in five households during the past year. When disaggregated by area, Shan state and Tenasserim Division recorded the largest limitations on health care, with over half of the surveyed population not being able to access any medical services during the past year. Lack of access to health care is associated with high mortality rates from infectious diseases which can be prevented and treated, such as malaria.

The daily mortality rate for children under five, expressed in proportion to the relevant sub-population under five, is acknowledged as one of the most specific and useful indicators to monitor the status of public health in an emergency situation. A doubling of the country's baseline child mortality rate indicates a serious public health emergency.³⁹ This survey found the child mortality rate amongst the internally displaced is three times higher than Burma's baseline rate. These child mortality rates are comparable to indicators derived from only slightly larger sample sizes of roughly nine hundred children from internally displaced and war-affected areas in the Horn of Africa. However the recall period from which mortality rates were surveyed in eastern Burma was longer than standard practice, and this may have exaggerated results. It has also not been possible for these results to be disaggregated with confidence into rates for each state and division or location type because the sample size is not significant unless combined.

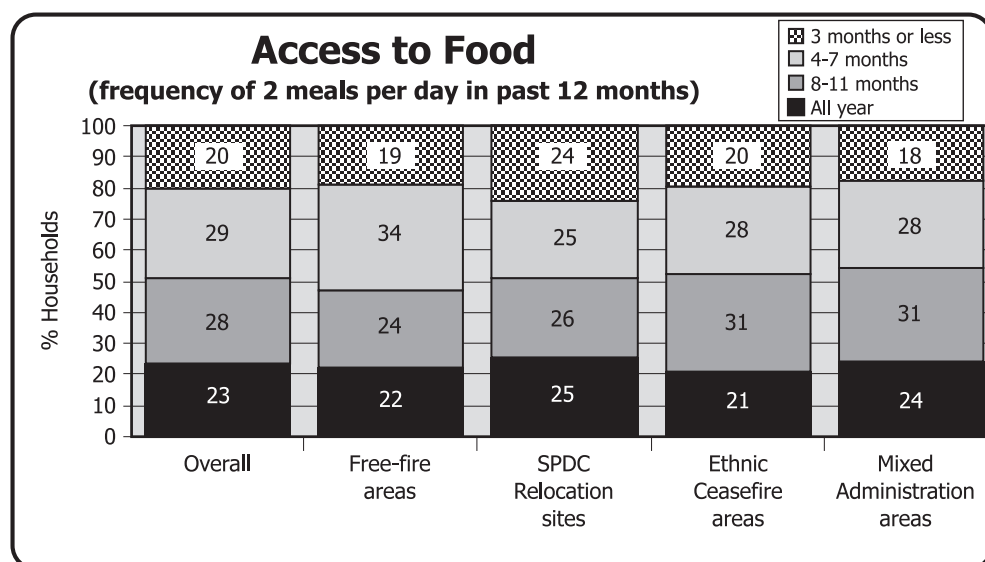


(Sources : UNICEF, 2004, *The State of the World's Children*, New York, pp 104 & 124, www.unicef.org
 UNS Standing Committee on Nutrition, 2004, *Nutrition Information in Crisis Situations*, No.2, Geneva, www.unsystem.org/scn)

³⁹ *ibid*, p260

Prospective mortality rates are measured in relation to the number of live births and indicate the probability of children dying before reaching the age of five. While this indicator is useful for predicting trends, it is complicated by the necessity of collecting birth rates. Government statistics indicate the baseline rate for Burma predicts one in every ten children will die before reaching five years of age.⁴⁰ This survey of internally displaced and war-affected populations found prospective child mortality rates almost three times higher than Burma's baseline data and predicts 286 deaths for every 1,000 children born. These findings are higher than the results of recent survey conducted by community health workers which reported prospective under five mortality rates amongst internally displaced persons at 219 deaths per 1,000 live births.⁴¹ However, even these more conservative findings indicate that child mortality for the internally displaced is more than double Burma's baseline rate.

Internally displaced persons were asked how often they were able to eat two full meals a day during the previous twelve months. Three quarters of respondents estimated that they had suffered food shortages for at least one month, while one in five households replied they had been able to access sufficient food for less than three months of the year. Estimates were comparable across different types of location types, but varied considerably when compared across areas with households in Shan State reporting the most access to food and estimates from Mon state suggesting the greatest food shortages. Given the speculative nature and difficulty in defining and estimating the duration of food shortages, responses to this question need to be treated with caution.



Malnutrition is associated with increased risks of growth failure and mortality, and incorporates states of wasting (thinness or acute malnutrition), stunting (shortness or chronic malnutrition) and micro-nutrient deficiencies. Measuring malnutrition levels

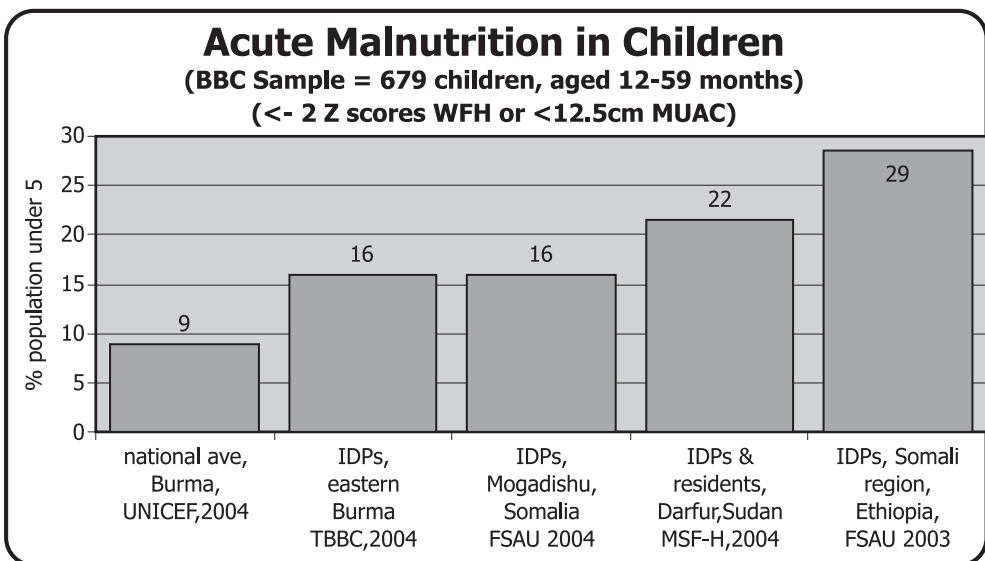
⁴⁰ Ministry of Immigration and Population and UNFPA, *Myanmar Fertility and Reproductive Health Survey:2001*, Rangoon, 2003. (100 under five deaths per 1,000 live births)

⁴¹ Back Pack Health Worker Team, 2004, "Statement by 3rd Conference of Back Pack Health Worker Team".

amongst children aged under five years as a proxy for the population as a whole is widely accepted practice. The generally preferred tool is to compare weight-for-height (WFH) status of children aged between 6 and 59 months and report the prevalence of acute malnutrition in terms of standard deviations (Z scores) from international reference values. Mid Upper Arm Circumference (MUAC) surveys offer a rapid assessment alternative which is often easier to conduct in complex emergencies but in theory should not be used in isolation. MUAC tests are commonly targeted at children aged between one and five years, with a circumference of less than 12.5 centimeters representing a state of acute malnutrition.⁴²

This survey conducted MUAC tests primarily because it was not logistically possible for the community organisations to carry scales into the field. Results indicate that one in six children under five in internally displaced and war-affected populations are acutely malnourished, which is almost double the baseline rate for Burma. This represents a public health emergency according to WHO indicators and points to acute malnutrition rates which are comparable to those recorded amongst internally displaced persons in Somalia, although not as disastrous as the situation around Darfur in Sudan or the Somali region of Ethiopia.

While this survey did not assess rates of chronic malnutrition, it should also be noted that UNICEF have reported one third of children in Burma are stunting.⁴³ It could thus be speculated that more than half of children in the internally displaced population of eastern Burma are likely to suffer from chronic malnutrition.

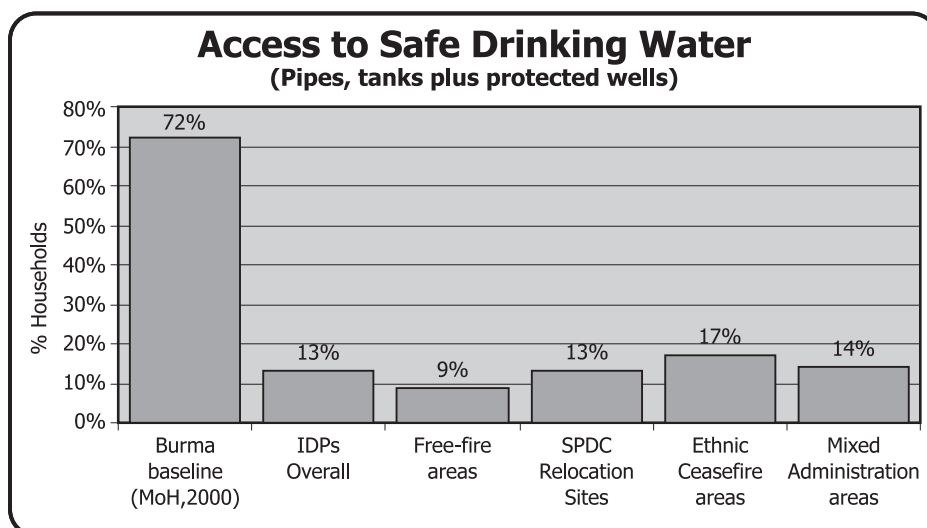


Sources : UNICEF, 2004, *The State of the World's Children*, New York, www.unicef.org
UNS Standing Committee on Nutrition, 2004, *Nutrition Information in Crisis Situations*, No.2, Geneva, www.unsystem.org/scn

⁴² SPHERE, 2004, op cit, pp 108, 183.

⁴³ UNICEF, 2004, *The State of the World's Children*, New York, p 108

Government surveys have defined safe drinking water as that which is accessed through pipes, tanks or protected wells and reported that seven out of ten households are able to consume safe water.⁴⁴ This survey asked internally displaced households where they usually collect drinking water from and found only one out of eight had access to pipes, tanks (and barrels) or protected wells. Rivers and streams were recorded as the main source of drinking water, especially for people in free-fire areas, but engage high risks of transmitting faeco-oral diseases. Uncovered wells were the next most common source, and were even the main source in relocation sites, but these are also associated with promoting vector-borne diseases such as malaria. While low rates of access to safe drinking water in free-fire areas result from political instability, the prevalence of poor water supply in relocation sites, ceasefire areas, and mixed administration areas appears unnecessarily high. When disaggregated by area, internally displaced households in Shan state and Pegu Division recorded significantly higher access to safe drinking water than other states and divisions. These findings reflect not only the low priority placed on public utilities for rural populations by SPDC, but also the limited budgets of the ethnic ceasefire groups and the limited access of international humanitarian agencies.

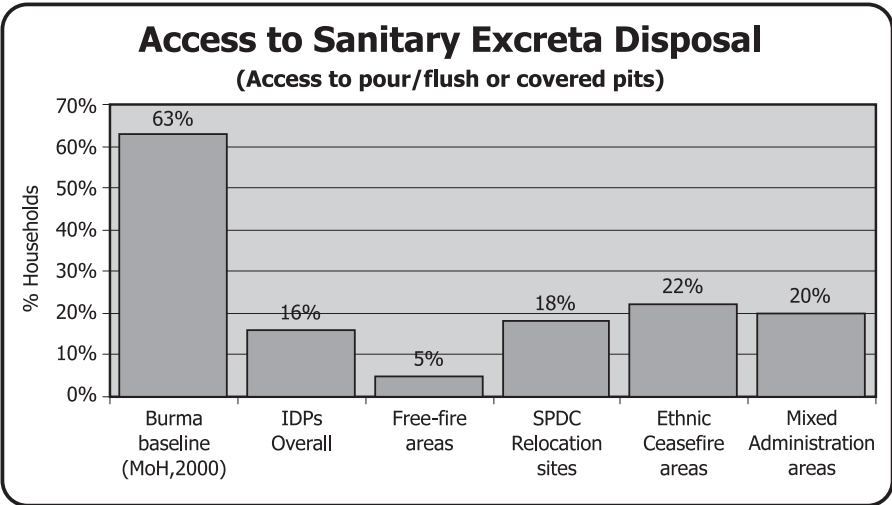


Risks associated with limited access to safe drinking water are exacerbated in areas where the lack of a sanitary excreta disposal system results in contamination by human faeces. Burma's baseline data for sanitary excreta disposal indicates that three out of five households have access to sewers, septic tanks, pour/flush latrines or covered pits.⁴⁵ However, only one in six internally displaced household have access to sanitary means of excreta disposal according to the findings of this survey. This rate reduces even further in free-fire areas, where the vast majority of households had no toilet at all and one in six households used an uncovered pit. Differentiated by area, a third of internally displaced households in Mon state had access to pour / flush latrines or a covered pit which was significantly more than that recorded in any other

⁴⁴ Department of Health Planning, Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey, Ministry of Health, with collaboration of UNICEF, Rangoon, 2000

⁴⁵ *ibid.*

state or division. With defecation areas generally not designated, human faeces are spread widely throughout fields and forests. Due to their lack of anti-bodies, children are most susceptible to excreta related infections.



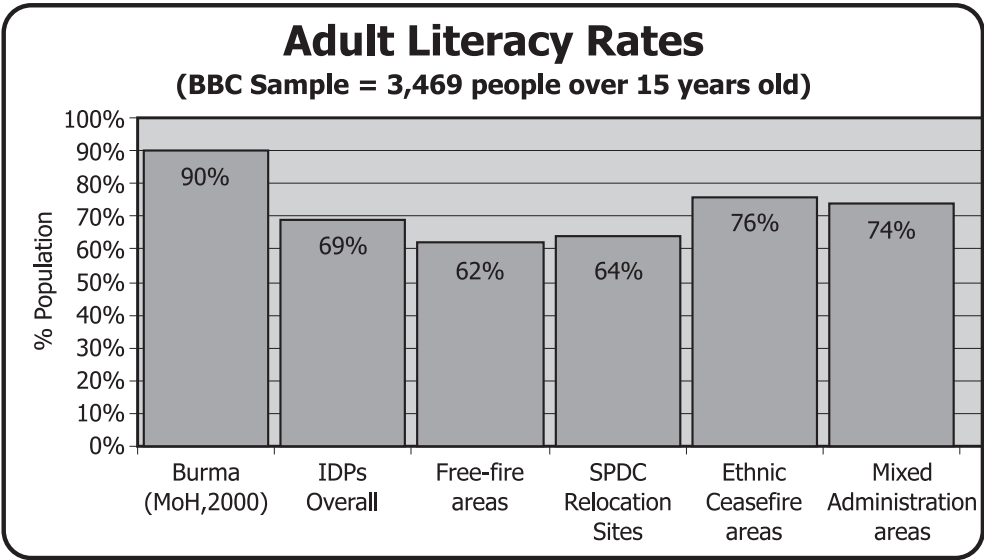
4.5 LIMITED EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

Education reduces vulnerability by empowering people with analytical and technical skills as well as a broader base of information and awareness upon which coping strategies can be developed. Adult literacy rates and the levels of primary school access are the indicators which have been engaged by this survey to measure educational attainment amongst internally displaced persons in eastern Burma.

Best available data from Rangoon indicates that on average across Burma nine out of ten people over fifteen years of age can read and write.⁴⁶ Disaggregated into areas, the government statistics demonstrate that literacy rates were above the national average in Tenasserim and Pegu Divisions, but below average elsewhere in eastern Burma. A 9% discrepancy between the rural and urban literacy rates was also recorded.

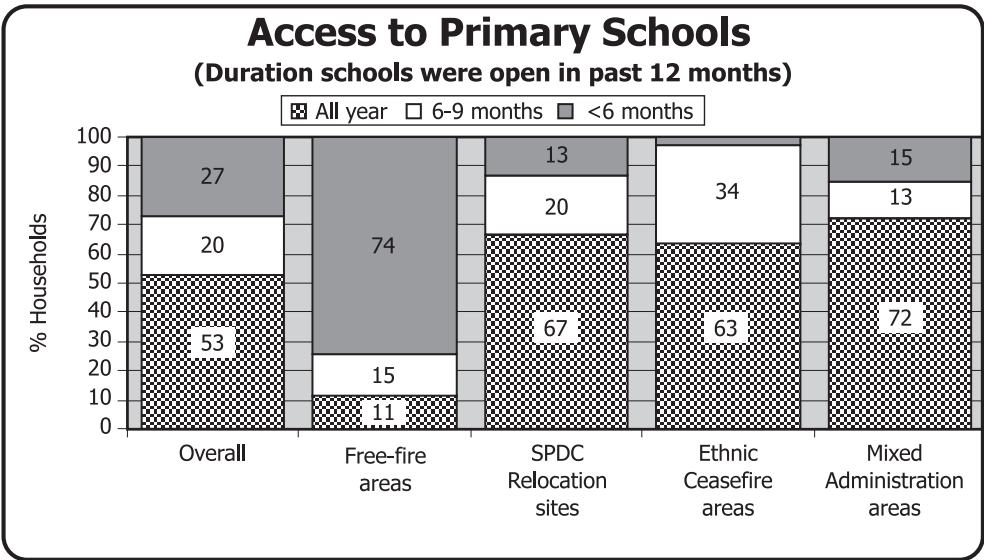
Amongst internally displaced persons, this survey recorded an overall average of seven out of ten adults could read and write at least one language, although not necessarily Burmese. Literacy rates were lower amongst the internally displaced than for baseline averages in all states and divisions, with the lowest rates (six out of ten adults) recorded in Shan and Karenni states. This can be attributed to lower rates of literacy in indigenous languages amongst the Karenni in particular and the Shan to a lesser extent compared to the Mon and Karen. Only a third of internally displaced adults could read and write in Burmese script, which has significant implications with regards to the dissemination of information by national authorities as well as humanitarian agencies.

⁴⁶ Department of Health Planning, Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey, Ministry of Health, with collaboration of UNICEF, Rangoon, 2000



There was a 10% difference in literacy rates recorded between internally displaced persons in free-fire areas and relocation sites compared to those in mixed administration and ethnic ceasefire areas. Although relocation sites are generally located in close proximity to towns, the population has usually only recently relocated from upland environs such as free-fire areas. Low literacy rates in both these areas are indicative of the restrictions on access to schools in free-fire areas.

When the internally displaced were asked how often a primary school had been open in their local community, half of the households confirmed that schools had been open all year. This includes all types of schools, whether administered by the national authorities, ethnic authorities or the local community. Only one in ten households in

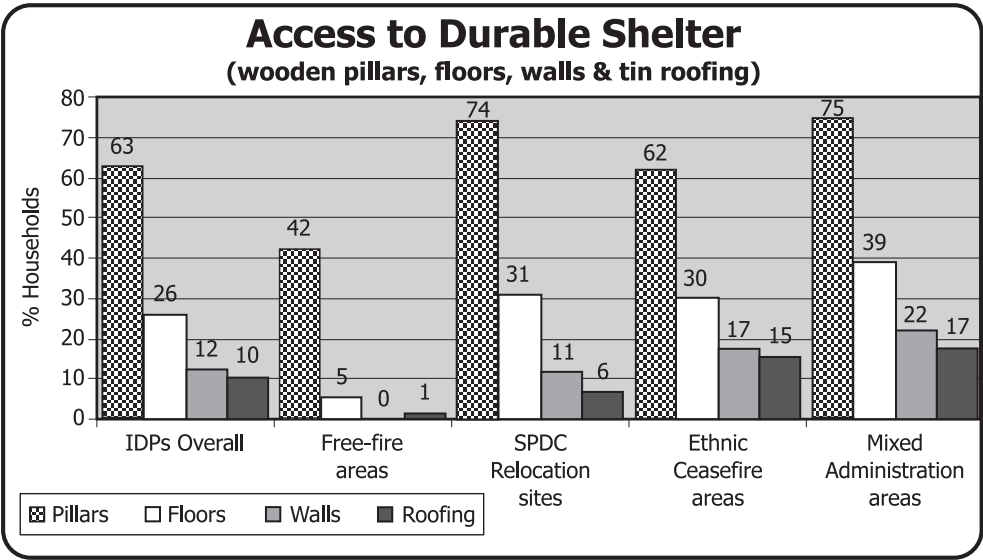


free-fire areas had unrestricted access to primary schools for the whole year, compared to between six and seven households out of ten amongst other internally displaced populations. When results were disaggregated by states and divisions, restrictions were found to be most severe in Karenni state where only one in ten households could access primary schools all year. Conversely, only one in ten households were restricted from sending children to primary school for any length of time in Pegu Division. While the access to primary schools thus varied considerably, the resources available for teachers and students alike can be assumed as negligible across all areas and location types.

4.6 INSUFFICIENT SHELTER AND HOUSEHOLD ITEMS

Shelter and associated household items are essential to provide physical protection from the climate, meet personal hygiene needs, enhance resistance to disease and promote human dignity. Internally displaced and conflict-affected populations, however, often have only the possessions that can be salvaged and carried. Indicators of construction materials, clothing and domestic utensils have been integrated into this survey in order to analyse the levels of shelter and household items.

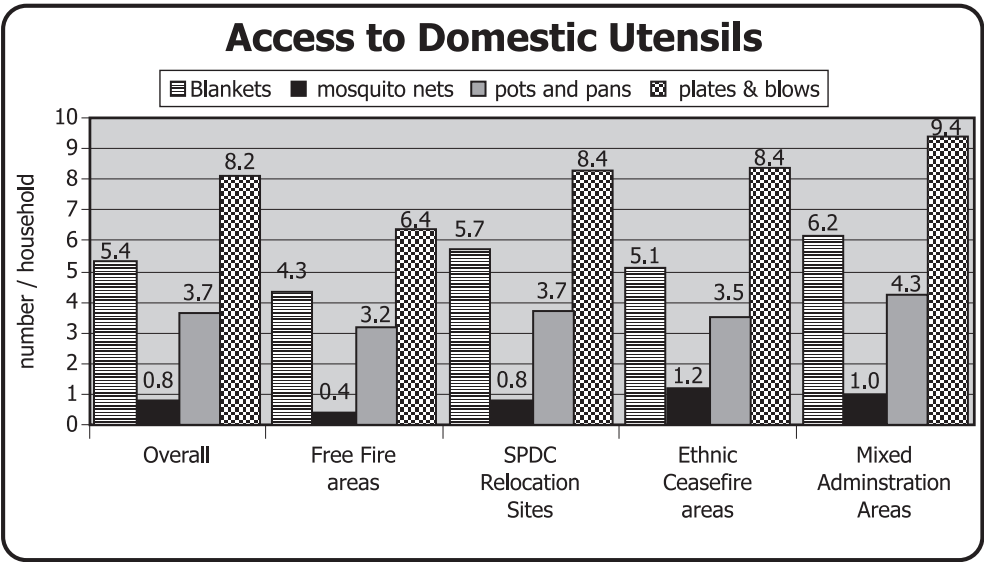
Findings from this survey indicate that only six out of ten shelters are constructed with wooden pillars, although in free-fire areas the majority of shelters are supported only by bamboo pillars. The relative stability offered by ceasefire areas, mixed administration areas and relocation sites is illustrated by a third of shelters in these settlements being constructed with wooden floors. Yet the temporary nature of such settlements is indicated by the finding that five out of six shelters therein still use bamboo walls and thatch roofing. To some extent, the prevalence of bamboo as a construction material can be attributed to cultural acceptability. However if accessible and affordable materials to construct more durable shelters for resettlement were available, it can not be assumed that internally displaced persons would reject these options.





Internally displaced persons were surveyed as to how many sets of clothing they owned, where a set of clothing was defined as covering from knees to shoulders and excluded shoes. Findings suggest that the average internally displaced person has three sets of clothing, with access the most limited in free-fire areas but not significantly higher amongst populations in other types of locations. This lack of thermal comfort is a contributing factor to poor health, especially in the cold season when temperatures can approach zero degrees Celsius at night time. However, a lack of clothing also impacts on perceptions of self and human dignity, especially amongst conflict-affected populations where the sanctity of life has been threatened by military assault. While this survey did not assess the availability of foot-wear, it can be assumed that the majority of internally displaced persons do not commonly wear shoes or slippers. Given the low rates of sanitary excreta disposal, low levels of access to foot-wear is likely to exacerbate risks of infectious diseases particularly amongst children.

This survey has found that the average household consists of six members who have a blanket each, but share just one mosquito net, four cooking pots and pans and eight plates and bowls. When disaggregated by location types, access to domestic utensils is most limited for households in free-fire areas. Internally displaced households in Tenasserim Division recorded fewer domestic utensils on average than any other state or division. Low levels of property can be attributed to loss, confiscation or abandonment of possessions over years of protracted conflict and displacement. The lack of mosquito nets is particularly apparent, and can be considered a contributing factor to high levels of malaria throughout the region. Given the lack of access to medical treatment, malaria is often a fatal infection for internally displaced persons.



	1
2	

1. 'Uncommon livelihood asset', ceasefire area, Mon State, 2004
2. 'Amputee and friends', mixed administration area, Karen State, 2004, CIDKP



APPENDICES



APPENDIX 1 : QUESTIONNAIRES

TOWNSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

Township & State name (on maps of Burma) :
Description of key informant(s) :

Organisation of interviewer :
Date :

- 1. In the past two years in this township, approximately how many villages have been destroyed or relocated by SPDC or abandoned by villagers?
Answer : villages
- 2. In the past two years in this township, approximately how many acres of land have been confiscated by SPDC?
Answer : acres
- 3. In the past two years in this township, approximately how many civilians have been displaced due to war or human rights abuses?
Answer : civilians
- 4. Approximately how many civilians currently hide from SPDC patrols in free-fire areas?
Answer : civilians
- 5. Approximately how many civilians currently stay in areas administered by both the SPDC and the ethnic opposition authorities?
Answer : civilians
- 6. How many relocation sites currently are there in this township?
Answer : relocation sites
- 7. Approximately how many civilians currently stay in these SPDC relocation sites?
Answer : civilians
- 8. Approximately how many civilians currently stay in ethnic ceasefire areas?
Answer : civilians
- 9. How many ethnic nationality primary schools with at least one teacher are currently open?
Answer : primary schools
- 10. How many health clinics with staff and medicines are currently open in rural areas?
Answer : health clinics

Thank you for your cooperation.

HOUSEHOLD QUESTIONNAIRE

Village tract : **Township and State :**
Organisation of interviewer : **Date :**

What type of place is this household currently staying in?

- ☐ Hiding site in forest or fields ☐ SPDC Relocation site
☐ Ceasefire area ☐ Mixed administration area

SECTION A : HOUSEHOLD STRUCTURE AND MATERIALS :

1. Please fill in the table with information about each and every person in this household.

No.	2.2 Sex (male or female)	2.3 Age (years)	2.4 Religion (eg animist, Buddhist, Christian, Muslim, etc)	2.5 Ethnicity (eg Sgaw / Pwo Karen, Kayan, Padaung, Mon, Shan, Lahu, PaO)	2.6 What languages can he or she read and write? (eg none, Karen, Mon, Shan, Karenni, Burmese etc)	2.7 How many sets of clothing does he or she have?
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						
8						
9						
10						

2. What type of relationships are there in this household ? (tick all relevant boxes)

- ☐ Parent(s) and children ☐ Other relatives (eg aunts, nephews, grandparents, cousins)
☐ Friends ☐ Other (please specify).....

3. How many widows, orphans or disabled persons are currently in this household?
 (write in number)

4. How many pieces of each of the following utilities does this household currently have?
 (write in number)
 blankets mosquito nets pots and pans plates & bowls farm tools

SECTION B : SHELTER, WATER AND SANITATION :

5. What materials were used in the construction of the current home or shelter?
 (tick all relevant boxes)

- ☐ bamboo pillars ☐ wooden pillars ☐ bamboo floors
☐ wooden floors ☐ dirt floor ☐ bamboo walls
☐ wooden walls ☐ no walls ☐ wood tiled roof
☐ leaf, grass or bamboo thatch roof ☐ tin roof
☐ Other (please specify)

6. Where does this household usually dispose of human excreta? (mark all relevant boxes)
- | | | |
|--|---|--|
| ☐ Wet latrine | ☐ Covered, dry latrine | ☐ Uncovered dry latrine |
| ☐ Jungle / fields | ☐ River / stream | ☐ Beside the house |
7. Where does this household usually collect drinking water from? (tick all relevant boxes)
- | | | |
|---------------------------------------|---|---|
| ☐ Covered well | ☐ uncovered well | ☐ river / stream |
| ☐ Pond / lake | ☐ spring | ☐ rain water tanks |

SECTION C : ACCESS TO SOCIAL SERVICES :

8. Who has this household received health care from in the past 12 months? (tick all relevant boxes)
- | | | | | |
|--|---|--|---|---------------------------------|
| ☐ government clinic | ☐ private clinic | ☐ ethnic nationalities' clinic or backpack medics | ☐ Traditional healer | ☐ No one |
|--|---|--|---|---------------------------------|
9. In the past 12 months, how often has a primary school been open for the children here? (tick one box)
- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| ☐ All year (9 months) | ☐ most of school time (6-8 months) | ☐ half of school time (3-5 months) |
| ☐ Hardly ever (less than 3 months) | ☐ Did not open | |
10. In the past 12 months, how many times has this household traded with merchants from towns? (tick one box)
- | | | |
|---|--------------------------------------|---|
| ☐ every week | ☐ every month | ☐ once in 2-3 months |
| ☐ 1-3 times / year | ☐ Never | |

SECTION D : LIVELIHOOD AND VULNERABILITY :

11. In the past 12 months, what were this households main means of livelihood? (tick all relevant boxes)
- | | | |
|--|---|---|
| ☐ Cut and burn rice fields | ☐ paddy fields | ☐ Daily labour |
| ☐ Breeding pigs, chickens, fish etc | ☐ Herding cattle | ☐ fruit gardens |
| ☐ Hunting and gathering wild food | ☐ Produce charcoal | ☐ Weaving / sewing |
| ☐ Teacher or medic | ☐ Other (please specify) : | |
12. In the past 12 months, how often was this household able to eat two full meals a day? (tick one box)
- | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|---|---|---|
| ☐ all year | ☐ most of the time (8-11 months) | ☐ About half the time (4-7 months) | ☐ Hardly at all (3 months or less) |
|-----------------------------------|---|---|---|

If the answer was "all year", go to question 14. For all other answers, go to question

13. When this household did not have enough rice, how did they survive? (tick all relevant boxes)
- | | |
|---|--|
| ☐ Borrowing (repay debts later) | ☐ Borrowing (repay debts plus interest) |
| ☐ gifts (may not be repaid) | ☐ aid from organisations |
| ☐ send someone to work elsewhere | ☐ sale of possessions |
| ☐ Other (please specify) : | |

14. In the past 12 months, how many times has this household been forced to move or flee from their shelter?
(write in number) times

15. Has this household experienced any of the following human rights abuses in the past 12 months?

(Interviewers may need to clarify the meaning of each activity. Tick all relevant boxes)

- | | | |
|--|---|--|
| ☐ Forced eviction | ☐ Destruction of shelter | ☐ Land confiscation |
| ☐ Forced labour | ☐ Orders to restrict movement | ☐ Destruction of food |
| ☐ Physical assault | ☐ Military attack on civilians | ☐ Sexual assault |
| ☐ Theft of property | ☐ Conscription into army | ☐ Orders to sweep landmines |
| ☐ Arbitrary Arrest | ☐ Extortion / Arbitrary taxation | ☐ Arbitrary executions |
| ☐ None | ☐ Other (please specify) : | |

16. In the past two years, how many household members have been killed or wounded by landmines or military attack?
(write in number)

SECTION F : CHILD MORTALITY AND NUTRITION :

17. In the past two years, how many babies were born alive into this household?

18. In the past two years, how many children died before they were five years old in this household?

If the household does not have any children under five years old, the questionnaire is finished.

If the household has children between 1 and 5 years old, please continue with question 19 and 20.

19. What was the MUAC test result for each child under 5 years old?

Child 1

- ☐ Normal ☐ Mild malnutrition ☐ Moderate malnutrition ☐ Severe malnutrition

Child 2

- ☐ Normal ☐ Mild malnutrition ☐ Moderate malnutrition ☐ Severe malnutrition

Child 3

- ☐ Normal ☐ Mild malnutrition ☐ Moderate malnutrition ☐ Severe malnutrition

Child 4

- ☐ Normal ☐ Mild malnutrition ☐ Moderate malnutrition ☐ Severe malnutrition

20. How many meals of rice did the child(ren) eat yesterday?

- ☐ One or less ☐ Two ☐ Three ☐ Four ☐ More than four

Thank you for your cooperation.

APPENDIX 2 : TOWNSHIP SURVEY SUMMARY RESULTS

States, Divisions and Townships	Civilians displaced by war or human rights abuses (2003-04)	Destroyed, Relocated or Abandoned Villages (2003-04)	Number of relocation sites (2004)	Estimated IDPs hiding in free-fire areas (2004)	Estimated IDPs in Relocation Sites (2004)	Estimated IDPs in Ceasefire Areas (2004)
SHAN STATE	31,000	33	37	9,300	21,800	185,000
Ke Hsi	2,500	0	3	850	1,900	17,500
Mong Kurng	2,000	2	9	550	2,500	0
Laikha	2,400	3	4	1,000	4,250	4,000
Loilem	2,100	1	2	500	1,250	2,500
Nam Zarng	2,500	3	3	550	1,750	0
Kun Hing	8,500	5	3	1,350	2,750	27,500
Mong Hsat	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	90,000
Mong Ton	2,000	8	6	2,000	2,900	32,000
Mong Pan	2,500	3	3	500	2,250	0
Mong Nai	3,800	6	3	1,500	1,500	9,000
Lang Kher	2,700	2	1	500	750	2,500
KARENNI STATE	12,200	52	14	7,000	6,400	75,000
Shadaw	3,300	5	2	1,200	1,000	0
Loikaw	550	5	4	750	1,650	21,000
Demawso	100	4	4	600	2,500	38,000
Pruso	50	7	0	200	0	7,500
Bawlake	1,200	13	2	250	750	0
Pasaung	7,000	18	2	4,000	500	1,500
Mehset	0	0	0	0	0	7,000
PEGU DIVISION	6,100	25	25	13,500	4,500	0
Tantabin	600	0	3	0	1,200	0
Kyaukgyi	1,500	12	12	9,300	1,300	0
Shwegyin	4,000	13	10	4,200	2,000	0
KAREN STATE	61,000	119	37	46,900	13,400	75,000
Thandaung	21,500	29	2	13,300	2,900	0
Papun	5,000	24	31	13,300	7,000	0
Hlaing Bwe	11,000	23	0	5,000	0	20,000
Myawaddy	10,000	22	0	8,000	0	15,000
Kawkareik	4,000	6	1	800	1,000	0
Kyain Seikgyi	9,500	15	3	6,500	2,500	40,000
MON STATE	16,350	10	16	2,300	3,800	25,000
Bilin	350	5	11	300	1,100	0
Ye	16,000	5	5	2,000	2,700	25,000
TENASSERIM DIVISION	30,350	2	38	5,000	27,100	5,000
Yebyu	8,000	2	5	1,100	2,500	5,000
Tavoy	850	0	7	500	3,950	0
Tenasserim	7,500	0	7	1,750	4,200	.
Bokpyin	2,500	0	4	0	1,800	.
Palaw	0	0	9	1,650	8,650	0
Thayetchaung	3,500	0	4	0	2,300	.
Mergui	8,000	0	2	0	3,700	.
TOTALS	157,000	241	167	84,000	77,000	365,000

APPENDIX 3 : NAMES OF DISPLACED VILLAGES AND RELOCATION SITES

Shan State

Destroyed, relocated or abandoned villages (2003-04)

Kunhing Township

Ho Ha
Nar Khar Oon
Nam Ba Man
Warn Tong
Bang Kher

Laikha Township

Kong Hom
Na Mark Gang
Wan Pan

Langkhur Township

Wan Jid
Wan Hart

Loi Lem Township

Kom Long

Mong Kung Township

Knog Kor
Huay Yok

Mong Nai Township

Jong Koong
Mai Hai
Bang Sar
Hai Ker
Sai Phaw
Wan Hi

Mong Pan Township

Ho Kai
Tong Ju
Hwe Joi

Mong Ton Township

Loi Ke Lek
Yarng Kham
Look Maw Kung
Mark Lu La
Moung Hey
Loi Nok
Mork Kao Deg
Mae Koi Du

Nam Zarng Township

Ha Loi
Moi Tor
PaNgab

SPDC Relocation sites (2004)

Kehsi Township

Murng Kao
Murng Nang
Nong Som

Kunhing Township

Kali
Kun Hing
Nam Mor Ngern

Laikha Township

Mark Lang
Parng Phone
Sam Sen
Wan Yerng

Langkhur Township

Nong Long

Loi Lem Township

Parng Long
Sanen

Mong Kung Township

Bang Kae Tu
Ham Ngai
Kat Pul
Kher Oong Oi
Murng Kerng
Murng Kerng
Murng yon
Nong Yang
Tong Lao

Mong Nai Township

Keng Tong
Kong Mong
Nar Kharn

Mong Pan Township

Hwe Mark Perng
Nar Lor
Nong Lom

Mong Ton Township

Huay O
Mae Ken
Moung Hrng
Na Kon Mu
Nam Hu Kun
Nong Leng

Nam Zarng Township

Hai Neng
Kong Yao
Murng Jid

Karenni State

Destroyed, relocated or abandoned villages (2003-04)

Bawlake Township

Chai Kya
Hall Kham
Leh Way
Loi Way
Mine Then
Saw Lon
Wan Aunge
Wan Lyaw
Wan Nouth
Wan Pala
Wanmalan
Wanpar Kyi
YeNi Pouk

Demawso Township

Daw Kalaw Du
Daw Peh
Daw Pu
Htee Po Kalo

Loikaw Township

Daw Pa Par
Daw Sah
Nai Sa Kwai
Phayah Pyu
Wai Ngu

Pasaung Township

Bwar Do
Ghay Lo
Hso Hsar Kee
Hto Do Lay Ko
Ka Reh Kee
Ka Yawr So
Kaw Kah Daw Ko
Ko Baw Deh
Me Tu Pal
Nu Thu Hta
Pa Choo
Pa Low Htee
Pal Kee

Pal Kee
Saw Kwa Se Deh
Show Daw Ko
Show Lo
You Hah Dwe Ko

Phruso Township

Htee Kee Hso
Kaw Ta Maw
Khu Ku
Khu Pa Ra
Maw Thin Do
Preh Hso Ku
Pu Ka Rah Ku

Shadaw Township

Daw Naw Ka Lu
Daw Ta Naw
Htay Yar Du
Nai Owa Lay
Ta Ree Dar

SPDC Relocation sites (2004)

Bawlake Township

Baw Lar Kae
Ywar Thit

Demawso Township

Daw Ka Light Le
Daw Ta Ngu
Daw Tama Gyi
Htee Poe Kalo

Shadaw Township

Par Long Bride
Shar Daw

Loikaw Township

Daw Ta Keh
Nar La Boe
Par Long
Wai Kah

Pasaung Township

Keh Ma Pyu
Maw Chi

Pegu Division

Destroyed, relocated or abandoned villages (2003-04)

Kyaukgyi Township

Ka Dee Mu Der
Kheh Der
Ko Ni
Ler Kla
Maw Pu
Pa Kaw Khee
Per Kho Der
Saw Htay Der
Ta Kaw Der
Thaw Ngeh Der
Thay Nweh Khee
Wah Mi Lu

Shwegyin Township

Du Pa Leh
Htee Bta
Kaw Mu Der
Kho Peh Khee
Law Klaw Khee
Lo Khee
Mi Ta Nay Der
Saw Ro Kho
Saw Thet Khee
Shaw Oh Hta
Ta Say Der
Thay Kho Hser Der
Toe Thu Khee

SPDC Relocation sites (2004)

Kyaukgyi Township

Aung Soe Moe
Baw Ka Hta
Klaw Maw
Kweh Gyan
Mon
Mu Thet
Noh Nya La
Pi Tu
Sa Leh
Ta Pye Nyut
Thit Cha Zeik
Yan Myo Aung

Tantabin Township

Htaw Ma Aye
Ner K'maw
Tan Tar Bin

Shwegyin Township

Ah Leh Kyo
Done Zeik
East Shwegyin town
Ee Ka Ni
Kwin Zeik
Kyauk Na Ga
Kyaw Gone
Tha Yeh Tha May
Tha Zee
Wa Kho Law Teh

Karen State

Destroyed, relocated or abandoned villages

Hlaing Bwe Township

Deik cha
Hsi pa day khi
Hti ler doh
Hti per khi
Hti po lay khi
Hti the blu hta
Ka law lu
Klaung kyaw
Kwe baw
Kwi law plaw
Kwi they pu
Ma taw kyo
Mae ta wah
Meh kre
Metke
Paw Baw Khi
Paw ta ka kyo
Pay khi
Po keh hta
Ta kaw toe baw
Taung po mo
The awk hpa
They la baw khi

Kawkareik Township

He Thur Pler
Kaw Kau Khee
Keh Law Mah Khee
K'Law Hta
Mae Pleh Khee
Nau Thi Na Khee

Kyain Seikgyi Township

Baw Ta Loe Khee
Htee Yoe Khee
Kwee Taw Thoo
Kweeh Tuh Khee
Mae Ka Thau Khee
Noh Kloh Tic
Pa Au Khee
Pa Wee jungle
Pah Klaw Khee
Paw Naw Khee
Preh Khee
Shoe Hta
Ta Ric Tic Khee
Toh Meh Khee
Wa Koh Law Tai

Myawaddy Township

Bah Hta
Bu way
Gu Pa Doh Khee
He Nwee Pler
Hti wa kale
Kler Law Sai
Paw Bu Lah Hta
P'He Nwee Htuh
Pu Kler Khee
Sgaw Plaw
Ta Bluh Koh Hta
Ta Bluh Koh Khee
Ta Oo Hta
Ta Oo Khee
Taw Auk
The moe pha
The waw kwa kya
They nya ou pwa
Theyu doh kwi
Thi wah pu
Wa klu kla
Wa klu pu

Papun Township

Ber Khaw
He Poe
Hpaw Khee
Kay Mu Der
Ki Nu Kho
K'Leh Lo
Lay Wah Pu
Ma Me Pu
Mamu
Maw Haw
Nu Thoo Hta
Pa Tha
Per Khee Der
Plo Yweh Mu Der
Sher Hti
Ta Paw Der
Tha Lay Gaw Der
Thaw Kwa
Thay Ba Hta
Thay Kho Mu Der
Theh Hsa Khee
Thoo Kler
Wah Ka Der
Yo Poe Law

Thandaung Township

Ber Kah Lay Kho
Bla Khee
Bu Hsa Kee
Bu Khee
Haer Toe Ber
He Daw Kaw
Htee Hsa Ber
Kaw Tu Toe
Klay Khee
Klay Khee
Ko Haw Der
Ko Khee
Ku Ler Der
Maw Kee Der
Maw Tu Der
Oo Ber
Plo Mu Der
Pwee Khee
Sei Keh Der
Shew Kho
Show Ser
S'wah Daw Kho
Tha Aye Khee
Tha Kwe So
Thay Kee Der
Thay Khee Lar
Thay Mer Der
Wah Me Ber Kho
Wah So

Karen State

Partially displaced Mon villages

Kyain Seikgyi Township

Htee K'Pa Areas

Htee P'Nweh

Htee Tha Blu

Khaw Kheh

Shwe Doh

Ywa Thit

SPDC Relocation sites

Kawkareik Township

Tee hu thaw

Kyain Seikgyi Township

Kya-in

Meh T'Kreh

Sisong

Papun Township

Baw Kyoe Len

Baw Tho Hta

Hloe Paw Htee

Hpuay Wen Hta

Hpwei Taw Rue

Htee Tha Blut Hta

Kaw Pu

Khaw Hta

Khu Thu Hta

Kwie Ta Ma

Lay Kaw Hta

Lay Poe Hta

Ma Htaw

Ma Lay Ler

Mae Khu Hta

Mae Kyo Hta

Mae Myen

Meh Way

Mem Khyo

Pah Lo

Paw Hta

Ta Bo Pu

Ta Khaw Hta

Tae Doh Hta

Tha Gaw Play

Thee Mu Hta

Toe Thay Pul

Wa Mu

Wa Ta Moe

Wai Moe

Wi Cha

Thandaung Township

Klaw Me Der

Kler Lar

Mon State

Destroyed, relocated or abandoned villages

Bilin Township

Ka Shal Poe
Klue Htaw Laun
Sea Ko
Ta Paw Khee
Wah Tho Kla

Ye Township

Wekyum
Kyauk
Webop
Kyone nyar
Khawba Channowa

Partially displaced Mon villages

Ye Township

Aleseik
Arutaung
Donphi
Kundo
Kyaungywa
Mawkanin
Sanpya
Sonnatha
Ywathit

SPDC Relocation sites

Bilin Township

East Htee Pah Doh Hta
Htee Chi Bao
Khaw Poe Pleh
Lear Khlaw
Ler Poe
Mae Naw Gaw Hta
Mae Naw Thea Khee
Na Kji
Noe Bus Baw
Ta Paw
Tau Te Htee

Ye Township

Aung Thupyaay
Kundine
Leinmawchan
Sanpya
Weng-zae

Tenasserim Division

Destroyed, relocated or abandoned villages

Yebyu Township: Cha bone, Mae taw.

Partly displaced Mon villages *Yebyu Township*

<i>Yebyu Township</i>		
Ker Ser Kaw Hti	Nwe Lean	Thone Dan Gone
Law Ther	Pauk Lauk Ku	Ya Pu (Yopu)
	Theh Kwet	

Villages previously relocated, with return blocked in 2003-04

<i>Kyun Su Township</i>	T' Ma Wah Ta Reit Plaw Taw T' Lee	Kaw Hser Gay Ke Ker Gaw Kli Thoo K'Meik Koe Say Koe Say Ta Law Per Kone Chaung Kwe Waw Wa Law Aw Ler Ker Ler Mu Ler Ta Poo Met Wah Moo Ko Paw Naw Ta Root Naw T'Mwe Paw Klo Kee Plaw Pa Taw Pler Hta Pra Praw Wah Sar Mu Taw Seh But Kee Si Prauk Hta Siet Ku T' Pe Lay Ko Ta Reit Kee Ta Nay Ler Ko Tha Ko Kwi The Nay Kler	Thu Ka To Ki Poe Noh Toe Teh Hta Way To Ray
<i>Bokpyin Township</i>	Tha May Plaw Tu Maw Wa Tho		
<i>Mergui Township</i>	<i>Tavoy Township</i>		<i>Thayetchaung Township</i>
Kyet Ma Oo Nga Yat Eing Ta Kar Tu Pyaw Wa Thoo Lor	Ah M'la Ah Moe Amay Aye Tha Ya Blao Hta De Mo Haw Ter Hta Hkaw Kee Htee Hgu Thaw Htee Hta Htee Kee Htee Kler Hta Htee Mu Gay Htee Nei Paw Htee O Oo Htee Po Lay Htee Thu Day Htte Law Thi Kee K' Ne Po Sge Ka Hsaw Wah Ka Lek Ki Ka Say Hta Kar Deh		Htee Per Ko See Kwee Ler Kwi Dot Pa Tauk Pa Doh Pe Kee Pe Tauk Poe Petakat Ta Kaut Hta
<i>Palaw Township</i>			<i>Yebyu Township</i>
Au Pu Kee Htee Kli Sar Htee Met Praw Htee Preut Maw Htee Thaw K' Ser Ko Ka Maw Lah Ka Pla Ki Ni K'Say Poe Kee Naw Say Hei Noh Pa Doh Nyar Taw P' Nwe Po Klo Plei Ki Pyi Cha Pyi Cha Maw			Alezakhan Kay Te Kee Kyaukayan Kyethalin Kyoukkadin Kywe-tho-nyima Lowthe Mawgyi Mintha Natkyizin Paukpinkwin Singu Taungzun Yabu

Tenasserim Division

SPDC Relocation sites

Bokpyin Township

Htee Nyar Eu
Ke Chaung
Klaw Thoo Gaw
Sar Yi Plaw

Mergui Township

Ma Saw (Plaw Pah Lei)
Ka Pyaw

Palaw Township

Ka Wert
Mei Kyawn Theit
Myo Haung
Noh Pa Doh
Pa Law Gone
Pa Nar Mee
Pyi Char
Ta Lay Ko
Wa Zwin Oak

Tavoy Township

Hein Dar Mine
Kaw Htee Lor
Kaw Paw (Myekhanbaw)
Kler Poo
Myitta
Paw Taw
Taung Thon Lone

Tenasserim Township

Bu Thaw Plaw
Cha Thar Oo
Le Seit
Ler Pah Do
Mae Wah
Naw Teh Hta
Ta Po Hta

Thayetchaung Township

Htee Per (Tee Per)
Pa Tauk Pa Doh
Pa Tauk Poh
Pe

Yebyu Township

Law Ther (Lawthaing)
Pua Shin Ma
Shwe Ta Pe (Karen Shintabi)
Ya Pu (Yopu)

APPENDIX 4 : HOUSEHOLD SURVEY SUMMARY RESULTS

Table 1 : Distribution of Sample Population (and households)

	Free-fire areas	SPDC relocation sites	Ethnic Ceasefire areas	Mixed Administration areas	Total
Overall	1,485 (277)	1,592 (274)	1,237 (221)	1,756 (299)	6,070 (1071)
Southern Shan	273 (51)	264 (49)	240 (44)	251 (49)	1,028 (193)
Karenni	239 (48)	300 (50)	165 (26)	146 (25)	850 (149)
Eastern Pegu	173 (25)	302 (49)	0	309 (50)	784 (124)
Karen	311 (53)	314 (51)	279 (50)	288 (50)	1,192 (204)
Mon	261 (50)	138 (25)	279 (51)	456 (75)	1,134 (201)
Tenasserim	228 (50)	274 (50)	274 (50)	306 (50)	1,082 (200)

BASIC DEMOGRAPHIC INDICATORS

Table 2 : IDP Age Distribution

Age group	0-4	5-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-54	55-59	60-64	65-69	70+
Total	13%	15%	13%	10%	9%	7%	6%	7%	6%	5%	3%	2%	2%	1%	1%
Males	12%	15%	13%	10%	8%	6%	6%	7%	6%	4%	4%	3%	2%	1%	1%
Females	14%	14%	12%	11%	9%	8%	6%	7%	5%	5%	3%	2%	2%	1%	1%
States and Divisions															
Shan	13%	12%	9%	10%	10%	7%	7%	8%	6%	5%	3%	3%	2%	2%	2%
Karenni	10%	13%	17%	15%	9%	5%	4%	6%	5%	7%	4%	3%	2%	1%	0%
Pegu	15%	16%	11%	10%	10%	6%	5%	5%	6%	4%	2%	2%	3%	1%	3%
Karen	13%	14%	13%	10%	8%	8%	8%	7%	5%	3%	4%	2%	2%	1%	1%
Mon	12%	17%	12%	9%	7%	8%	6%	7%	7%	5%	3%	2%	3%	1%	1%
Tenasserim	13%	17%	14%	11%	8%	7%	7%	7%	5%	4%	3%	2%	2%	0%	0%
Location Types															
Free fire area	15%	14%	12%	9%	8%	8%	8%	6%	5%	4%	4%	1%	2%	1%	1%
SPDC relocation site	12%	15%	14%	11%	9%	7%	5%	6%	5%	5%	4%	3%	3%	1%	2%
Ceasefire areas	11%	15%	11%	11%	9%	7%	6%	9%	7%	5%	3%	2%	2%	2%	1%
Mixed Admin Areas	14%	15%	13%	10%	8%	6%	7%	6%	5%	5%	3%	2%	2%	1%	1%

Table 3 : Distribution of Females

Overall 52%					
States and Divisions		Location Type		Age Groups	
Shan South	57%	Free-fire Areas	52%	under 15	52%
Karenni	50%	SPDC relocation sites	52%	15-29	54%
Pegu East	52%	Ethnic Ceasefire Areas	52%	30-44	51%
Karen	50%	Mixed Administration Areas	51%	45-59	48%
Mon	52%			over 60	47%
Tenasserim	49%				

Table 4 : Crude Birth Rates
(annual birth rate per 1,000 population)

	Sample Size	Sum of births in past two years	Annual Birth Rate per 1,000 people
Overall	6,070	486	40
States and Divisions			
Shan	1,028	73	36
Karenni	850	59	35
Pegu	784	76	48
Karen	1,192	125	52
Mon	1,134	65	29
Tenasserim	1,082	88	41
Location Types			
Free fire areas	1,485	156	53
SPDC Relocation sites	1,592	123	39
Ethnic Ceasefire areas	1,237	62	25
Mixed Administration areas	1,756	145	41

(Note : While the overall sample size is significant, disaggregated samples are too small to provide reliable data for child mortality in specific states, divisions or location types).

Table 5 : Especially Vulnerable Individuals
(% population who are widows, orphans and disabled persons)

	Sum of EVIs	Sample size	EVIs / Population
Total	311	6,070	5.1%
Location Types			
Hiding site	96	1,485	6.5%
Relocation site	90	1,592	5.7%
Ceasefire area	45	1,237	3.6%
Partial SPDC area	80	1,756	4.6%
States and Divisions			
Shan	42	1,028	4%
Karenni	15	850	2%
Pegu	55	784	7%
Karen	62	1,192	5%
Mon	65	1,134	6%
Tenasserim	72	1,082	7%

PROTECTION INDICATORS

Table 6 : Prevalence of Human Rights Abuses
(% of households affected in past 12 months)

	Forced Labour	Arbitrary taxes	Travel Restriction	Food destruction	Arbitrary Arrest	Forced eviction	Military attack on civilians	Forced landmine sweeper
Overall	57%	52%	23%	17%	14%	12%	19%	3%
States and Divisions								
Shan	74%	64%	3%	0%	19%	0%	31%	2%
Karenni	79%	54%	8%	37%	26%	16%	21%	9%
Pegu	55%	55%	46%	6%	14%	22%	27%	2%
Karen	39%	39%	22%	9%	9%	14%	16%	1%
Mon	39%	37%	27%	32%	13%	12%	21%	5%
Tenasserim	61%	67%	36%	18%	9%	15%	1%	1%
Location Types								
Free-fire areas	37%	13%	13%	22%	15%	17%	34%	7%
SPDC Relocation sites	79%	78%	45%	16%	19%	21%	9	3%
Ethnic Ceasefire areas	46%	54%	2%	14%	10%	6%	9	1%
Mixed Admin areas	63%	64%	28%	15%	13%	5%	21	2%

Table 7 : Household Displacement Frequency
(average number of involuntary moves per household in past 12 months)

Overall 0.7			
States and Divisions		Location Types	
Shan South	0.4	Hiding sites	1.4
Karenni	2.9	Relocation sites	1.0
Pegu East	0.2	Ceasefire areas	0.2
Karen	0.5	Partial SPDC areas	0.3
Mon	0.3		
Tenasserim	0.5		

Table 8 : Civilian Casualties of War
(% population killed or wounded by military attack in past two years)

Overall	1.2%
Shan South	0.3%
Karenni	1.3%
Pegu East	2.3%
Karen	1.1%
Mon	0.9%
Tenasserim	1.6%

Overall	1.2%
Free-fire areas	2.2%
SPDC Relocation sites	1.3%
Ethnic Ceasefire areas	0.2%
Mixed Admin. areas	0.9%

LIVELIHOOD INDICATORS

Table 9 : Livelihood Sources
(% households, major means of livelihood)

	Slash & burn farming	Paddy farming	Daily labour	Small animal husbandry	Fruit farming	Hunting and gathering	Produce charcoal	Weaving / sewing
Overall	64%	30%	34%	38%	22%	18%	9%	4%
States and Divisions								
Shan South	73%	53%	48%	21%	31%	27%	21%	7%
Karenni	85%	20%	44%	39%	0%	1%	3%	0%
Pegu East	43%	15%	58%	94%	44%	16%	0%	14%
Karen	64%	29%	22%	46%	22%	7%	3%	5%
Mon	50%	40%	29%	41%	17%	32%	15%	3%
Tenasserim	68%	13%	16%	8%	20%	20%	9%	0%
Location Types								
Free-fire areas	86%	14%	34%	43%	5%	21%	8%	6%
SPDC Relocation site	53%	27%	49%	33%	24%	6%	7%	4%
Ethnic Ceasefire area	52%	49%	22%	30%	15%	33%	19%	4%
Mixed Admin areas	63%	32%	29%	43%	40%	16%	6%	3%

Table 10 : Coping Strategies
(means of surviving livelihood shocks measured as % households)

	Loans	Aid / Gifts	Migrate for Work	Property / Produce sale
Overall	71%	30%	17%	22%
States and Divisions				
Shan South	49%	7%	23%	26%
Karenni	86%	20%	23%	20%
Pegu East	83%	64%	15%	31%
Karen	71%	32%	21%	19%
Mon	93%	33%	15%	30%
Tenasserim	49%	32%	9%	9%
Location Types				
Hiding sites	69%	35%	20%	22%
Relocation sites	67%	17%	15%	24%
Ceasefire areas	71%	49%	19%	12%
Mixed Admin areas	74%	21%	16%	28%

HEALTH INDICATORS

Table 11 : Means of Access to Health Care
(% households accessing treatment in the past year)

	Government clinic	Commercial clinic	Cross-border aid	Traditional healer	None
Overall	5%	16%	38%	22%	34%
States and Divisions					
Shan South	18%	0%	4%	28%	52%
Karenni	5%	56%	58%	46%	7%
Pegu East	2%	0%	45%	5%	48%
Karen	0%	28%	45%	12%	24%
Mon	3%	13%	45%	30%	18%
Tenasserim	1%	2%	36%	10%	55%
Location Types					
Hiding site	2%	5%	61%	25%	21%
Relocation site	5%	28%	24%	19%	43%
Ceasefire area	5%	6%	36%	25%	35%
Mixed Admin areas	7%	22%	30%	20%	36%

Table 12 : Child Mortality Rates

	Sum of live births in past 2 years	Under 5 population sum	Sum of Under 5 deaths in past 2 years	Under 5 mortality rate per 1,000 live births per year	Under 5 mortality rate per 1,000 population per day
Overall	486	781	139	286	2.4

(Note : While the overall sample size is significant, disaggregated samples are too small to provide reliable data for child mortality in specific states, divisions or location types).

Table 13 : Access to Food

(duration of access to 2 meals per day during the past year, measured as % households)

	All year	8-11 months	4-7 months	3 months or less
Total	23%	28%	29%	20%
States and Divisions				
Shan South	40%	41%	11%	7%
Karenni	11%	41%	37%	10%
Pegu East	18%	25%	23%	34%
Karen	27%	22%	33%	18%
Mon	3%	26%	39%	32%
Tenasserim	36%	15%	28%	22%
Location Types				
Hiding sites	22%	24%	34%	19%
Relocation sites	25%	26%	25%	24%
Ceasefire areas	21%	31%	28%	20%
Mixed Admin areas	24%	31%	28%	18%

Table 14 : Source of Drinking Water
(% households)

	Covered well	Uncovered well	River / stream	Pond / lake	Spring	Rain water drums	Pipes
Total	4%	39%	60%	6%	4%	6%	3%
States and Divisions							
Shan	1%	61%	65%	19%	0%	24%	0%
Karenni	1%	17%	49%	10%	21%	6%	10%
Pegu	16%	37%	41%	0%	6%	0%	1%
Karen	5%	35%	63%	0%	1%	2%	0%
Mon	3%	45%	61%	0%	0%	0%	5%
Tenasserim	2%	31%	71%	6%	2%	3%	0%
Location Types							
Hiding site	1%	16%	82%	4%	4%	8%	0%
Relocation site	5%	55%	43%	5%	2%	3%	5%
Ceasefire area	4%	41%	60%	14%	6%	8%	5%
Mixed Admin areas	6%	43%	55%	3%	5%	7%	1%

Table 15 : Acute Malnutrition Rates amongst Children
(MUAC <13.5cm>12.5 cm for mild, <12.5cm>11cm for moderate and <11cm for severe)
Global Acute Malnutrition = moderate plus severe

Sample Size	Normal nutrition	Mild malnutrition	Moderate malnutrition	Severe malnutrition	Global Acute Malnutrition
679	53%	31%	10%	6%	16%

(Note : While the overall sample size is significant, disaggregated samples are too small to provide reliable data for child mortality in specific states, divisions or location types).

Table 16 : Means of Excreta Disposal
(% households)

	Sample size	Wet latrine	Covered, dry pit	Uncovered dry pit	No toilet
Total	1071	8%	8%	37%	59%
States and Divisions					
Shan	193	1%	3%	82%	53%
Karenni	149	0%	9%	36%	75%
Pegu	124	10%	4%	3%	90%
Karen	204	14%	8%	17%	64%
Mon	201	20%	15%	26%	36%
Tenasserim	200	1%	8%	45%	53%
Location Types					
Hiding site	277	2%	3%	17%	92%
Relocation site	274	8%	10%	46%	44%
Ceasefire area	221	12%	10%	41%	56%
Mixed Admin areas	299	10%	10%	42%	45%

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT INDICATORS

Table 17 : Adult Literacy Rates
(% adults over 15 who can read and write)

States and Divisions	Sample size	Literacy Rate	States and Divisions	Sample size	Literacy Rate
Overall	3,469	69%	Overall	3,469	69%
Shan	665	60%	Free-fire areas	844	62%
Karenni	473	60%	Relocation sites	900	64%
Pegu	438	65%	Ceasefire areas	746	76%
Karen	679	72%	Mixed admin. areas	979	74%
Mon	642	69%			
Tenasserim	572	85%			

Table 18 : Access to Primary Schools

(Duration of access in past 12 months, represented as % households)

	All year	6-9 months	< 6 months
Overall	53%	20%	27%
States and Divisions			
Shan South	71%	2%	27%
Karenni	8%	51%	41%
Pegu East	88%	1%	11%
Karen	67%	18%	15%
Mon	45%	30%	25%
Tenasserim	42%	17%	41%
Location Types			
Hiding Sites	11%	15%	74%
Relocation Sites	67%	20%	13%
Ceasefire Areas	63%	34%	3%
Mixed Admin areas	72%	13%	15%

INDICATORS OF SHELTER AND HOUSEHOLD ITEMS

Table 19 : Housing Construction Materials per Household

	PILLARS		FLOORS			WALLS			ROOFING		
	Bamboo	Wooden	Bamboo	Wooden	Dirt	Bamboo	Wooden	No Walls	Wood	Thatch	Tin
Total	49%	63%	69%	26%	9%	79%	12%	5%	1%	88%	9%
States and Divisions											
Shan	65%	82%	62%	36%	12%	74%	27%	0%	2%	84%	19%
Karenni	60%	72%	61%	17%	40%	79%	12%	3%	3%	79%	9%
Pegu	52%	48%	76%	26%	1%	98%	1%	0%	0%	97%	2%
Karen	57%	44%	63%	37%	0%	75%	19%	1%	0%	88%	13%
Mon	43%	55%	73%	22%	1%	80%	7%	6%	0%	87%	7%
Tenasserim	24%	77%	81%	17%	3%	75%	4%	16%	0%	96%	2%
Location Types											
Hiding site	70%	42%	92%	5%	14%	86%	0%	7%	0%	94%	1%
Relocation site	41%	74%	61%	31%	12%	80%	11%	3%	1%	92%	5%
Ceasefire area	59%	62%	70%	30%	3%	73%	17%	7%	1%	86%	14%
Mixed Admin areas	31%	75%	56%	39%	5%	75%	22%	2%	0%	81%	17%

Table 20 : Access to Clothing
(average sets covering knees to shoulders, excluding shoes, per person)

States and Divisions	Average sets of clothing	Location Type	Average sets of clothing
Overall	2.9	Overall	2.9
Shan	2.9	Free-fire areas	2.3
Karen	3.6	Relocation sites	2.9
Pegu	2.2	Ceasefire areas	3.3
Karen	2.9	Mixed admin. areas	3.2
Mon	3.0		
Tenasserim	3.0		

Table 21 : Access to Domestic Utensils
(average per household)

	Blankets	Mosquito nets	Pots and pans	Plates & bowls	Farm tools
Overall	5.4	0.8	3.7	8.2	3.4
States and Divisions					
Shan	5.8	1.5	3.2	7.0	2.8
Karen	5.4	0.6	3.2	7.0	3.9
Pegu	5.9	0.7	4.1	8.7	3.7
Karen	5.8	0.8	3.9	8.5	3.9
Mon	4.8	0.5	3.5	9.3	3.4
Tenasserim	4.7	0.7	4.3	8.3	2.9
Location Types					
Free fire areas	4.3	0.4	3.2	6.4	2.8
SPDC Relocation sites	5.7	0.8	3.7	8.4	3.7
Ethnic Ceasefire areas	5.1	1.2	3.5	8.4	3.7
Mixed Admin. Areas	6.2	1.0	4.3	9.4	3.4

