

**YANGON UNIVERSITY OF ECONOMICS
MASTER OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION PROGRAMME**

**A STUDY ON RESETTLEMENT EFFECTS ON WOMEN
(A CASE STUDY OF MYAINGTHARYAR RESETTLEMENT SITE, THILAWA
SPECIAL ECONOMIC ZONE)**

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EMPA - 27 (15th BATCH)**

AUGUST, 2019

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A thesis submitted as a partial fulfillment towards the requirements for the degree of
Master of Public Administration (MPA)

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This is to certify that this thesis entitled “**A STUDY ON RESETTLEMENT EFFECTS ON WOMEN (A CASE STUDY OF MYAINGTHARYAR RESETTLEMENT SITE, THILAWA SPECIAL ECONOMIC ZONE)**” submitted as a partial fulfillment towards the requirements for the degree of Master of Public Administration has been accepted by the Board of Examiners.

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ABSTRACT

Special economic zones are driving force for socio-economic progress of the society, but it also causes pain to the local people who are resettled from their motherland. Looking at the resettlement through a gender perspective is less common and little is known about the experiences of the women although some studies reveal the resettlement impact on local community. The objectives of the study are to examine the resettlement effects on women living at the resettlement site through gender lens and to address resettlement issues through gender perspective. Descriptive method was used by qualitative approach. The study found that the resettlement had more negative consequences to women in terms of more economic dependence on husband, less capability to support their family with basic food supply, less say on household decision-making and indebtedness. Access to trainings is a positive consequence to women after the resettlement. Thus, the resettlement made women's status weaken.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ADB	Asian Development Bank
IDI	In-depth Interview
IDP	Internally Displaced Persons
IRP	Income Restoration Program
JICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency
KII	Key Informant Interview
MJTD	Myanmar Japan Thilawa Development Limited
MTSH	Myanmar Thilawa SEZ Holding Company
OP	Operating Procedure
OSSC	One Stop Service Center
PAH	Project Affected Household
PAP	Project Affected People
SEZ	Special Economic Zone
TSMC	Thilawa SEZ Management Committee
WB	The World Bank

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Rationale of the Study

People are being displaced by development projects but do not go deeper into the discussion of women and resettlement (IDMC, 2018). Some projects are converting homes into dam-created reservoirs, highways, industrial complexes, tourist resorts and more. International standards state that the developers should improve or restore the livelihoods and living standards for the resettled households that are being moved due to development infused projects (Cornish, 2018). The standards and principles are rarely met, and developers give households cash compensation instead. Cash compensation put pressure on the families trying to rebuild their social and economic assets for their survival (Cornish, 2018). The world has seen more demonstrations against World Trade Organization and International Monetary Fund projects planned.

Myanmar government has given priority to Foreign Direct Investment as a key factor in the development of the nation. In particular, the Government expects Thilawa, Dawei, and Kyaukphyu Special Economic Zone to play an important role in economic development and in generating job opportunities for the Myanmar people. Thilawa Special Economic Zone which covers approximately 2,400 ha, has started development in the three SEZ since 2013. As the development area is too large to develop all at once, Thilawa SEZ was implemented in two development stages: a smaller Phase I on 400 ha and a larger Phase II on 2,000 ha of land. Even though the measures to minimize relocation impacts have been taken into consideration, physical and economic displacement is unavoidable for the development of the 2000ha Development Area. Massive displacement and resettlement for 1,123 households with a total population of 4,313 people inevitably occurred. A significant number of the displaced people were the economically marginalized rural people who have depended upon the natural resource base for their livelihood. Majority of residents living in the Phase 1 and II areas of the SEZ were relocated to Myaing Thar Yar

relocation site in Kyauktan Township.

Many researches have found that gender plays a role in how women and men affect women and men after a resettlement (Tulsi, 2009). UN women in Myanmar has identified women's role in the society which shows the different amount of work males and females do in the household. This raised the questions of how the resettlement was carried through and if there is a gendered perspective in the implementation of the resettlement. It is argued that men and women are affected differently by being displaced. If resettlement is affecting gender differently, international guidelines need to be informed about this issue and be aware of the effect's women face in the shadow of men.

Although special economic zones are driving force for socio-economic progress of the society, it causes sufferings to the local people who are forced to displace from their motherland. Many studies are being done to analyse the impacts of Thilawa SEZ on the resettled communities. However, looking at displacement and associated resettlement through a gender perspective is less common and little is also known about the experiences of resettled women from affected households in the development of special economic zones. Therefore, the issues of resettlement need to be identified from gender perspectives in Myanmar when SEZs are being implemented. This study is focused on assessing the resettlement effect on women living at the Myaing Thar Yar resettlement site in Thilawa SEZ with a particular emphasis on their livelihoods and gender issues.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

This study aimed to identify the resettlement effects on women through gender perspective. It described the specific challenges they face in accessing livelihoods and the perspectives of resettled women. The specific objectives are:

1. To examine the resettlement effects on women living at the relocation site
2. To address resettlement issues through gender perspective

1.3 Method of Study

Descriptive Method was used by qualitative approach. Primary data have been collected through focus group discussions (FGD), in-depth interviews (IDI) and key informant interview (KII) with three types of semi-structured interview questionnaires. The FGDs intended to gain insights in women's and men's perception

of significant changes of certain factors over a specified period of time. These focused on gathering a picture of the overall resettlement effects. The KIIs were conducted with some representatives living at the relocation site to get socio-economic information and the profile of relocation site. In-depth interviews with specific women provided a deeper understanding of resettled women's experiences and perceptions.

1.4 Scope and Limitations of the Study

The specific concern of the study is that it reflects the voices of women living at the resettlement site due to Thilawa SEZ. The study relies in-depth interviews and FGDs conducted with resettled women to identify their experiences regarding their socio-economic conditions and their status in resettlement site. It seeks to provide the insights into how SEZ-caused resettlement has affected the position of women and their survival through gender perspective. The study also aims to offer the suggestions on how resettled women can be better supported in enhancing their socio-economic status.

This study does not seek to assess the aspects of land acquisition, compensation, resettlement process and legal framework for Special Economic Zone against international standards and guidelines. In addition to this, the study focused on SEZ-affected people who lost their houses and was assisted by providing a substitute house at Myaing Thar Yar Resettlement site. At the time of the study at the resettlement site, majority of the households already sold their houses and moved out of the resettlement site although there were previously over 150 households at the resettlement site.

1.5 Organization of the Study

The study is organized as follows. Chapter 1 begins with the rationale of the study, objectives of the study, method of study, scope and limitations and organization of the study. Chapter 2 presents literature review of SEZs and its impacts to deeply understand and support in the study. Overview on special economic zones was described in Chapter 3. Empirical findings were analysed and discussed in Chapter 4 which is followed by conclusion, key findings and suggestions in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Resettlement Theoretical Review

In supporting infrastructure development projects, international development agencies recognize and accept the inevitability of displacement of some households and communities, although the key principle of involuntary resettlement policies is to “avoid involuntary resettlement wherever possible” (ADB, 2009).

2.1.1 Involuntary Resettlement

Involuntary displacement of persons occurs when a state agency acquires private property or limits access to public land. Such displacement affects not only the physically displaced, but also those who lost their livelihoods and the host population that eventually accommodates them. Loss of property and access to common land, community disintegration, and loss of income sources and livelihood are the common outcomes of involuntary displacement. Involuntary resettlement is a process that assists the displaced persons to replace their lost land, housing, and access to resources and services to restore and improve their socioeconomic and cultural conditions. Since the 1980s, international development agencies have developed their own policies on involuntary resettlement, indigenous peoples, and environment to identify, prevent, minimize, and mitigate the social and environmental harm of the development interventions they support. Such policies were labeled “safeguard” or “do-no-harm” policies (ADB, 2014).

2.1.2 Voluntary Resettlement

If a resettlement is voluntary, then it is likely to produce better outcomes for those displaced. However, what is labelled voluntary may involve manipulation and prior deprivation of the affected population. Free, prior, and informed consent may have not been gained (Wilmsen and Wang, 2015). Voluntary resettlements result in more favourable outcomes for the resettlers (Eriksen 1999; Li, Haihong, and Suhong

2011). It is said that voluntary resettlement does not have the same disruptive effects as involuntary resettlement (Baird and Shoemaker, 2007). Key features of voluntary resettlement are i) central focus and treated as an integral part of a long-term regional development process ii) Costs internalised as line items in project budgets iii) More financial and physical resources iv) More flexible to resettlement problems and unconstrained by time V) Primarily sponsored by government agencies Vi) Resettled population is not forced to move by government Decree vii) Aimed at solving pressures and conflicts over scarce resources and as an instrument of poverty reduction (Wilmsen, 2014).

National governments, international development banks, and aid organizations still subscribe to the voluntary– involuntary dichotomy. There are enormous benefits to labelling a resettlement voluntary. For one, it is more likely to attract backing from international aid organizations as they can justify their involvement as altruistic (Soltau and Brockington, 2007). The label also obscures more secondary motives for land acquisition such as securing a contested border or private investment. Whereas involuntary resettlement triggers a whole range of international and national policies and regulations that are supposed to protect the interests of the affected population, voluntary resettlement does not. Meeting these directives requires much commitment, planning, and funding from the state and its counterparts. It seems it is in the interest of state and non-state actors to maintain the voluntary/involuntary dichotomy (Baird and Shoemaker, 2007).

2.1.3 Overview on International Policies on Resettlement

Most international funding organizations and donors have developed policies and guidelines for environmental social considerations including relocation and resettlement occurring in development projects. In principle, international practices on relocation and resettlement are conducted based on these policies and guidelines.

According to the involuntary resettlement policy of the World Bank, “Involuntary resettlement may cause severe long-term hardship, impoverishment, and environmental damage unless appropriate measures are carefully planned and carried out.” Therefore, the overall objectives of its policy on involuntary resettlement are i) Involuntary resettlement should be avoided where feasible, or minimized, exploring all viable alternative project designs. ii) Where it is not feasible to avoid resettlement, resettlement activities should be conceived and executed as sustainable development

programs, providing sufficient investment resources to enable the persons displaced by the project to share in project benefits. Displaced persons should be meaningfully consulted and should have opportunities to participate in planning and implementing resettlement programs. iii) Displaced persons should be assisted in their efforts to improve their livelihoods and standards of living or at least to restore them, in real terms, to pre-displacement levels or to levels prevailing prior to the beginning of project implementation, whichever is higher.

The policy covers direct economic and social impacts that both result from Bank-assisted investment projects and are caused by the involuntary taking of land resulting in: (i) relocation or loss of shelter; (ii) loss of assets or access to assets; or (iii) loss of income sources or means of livelihood, whether or not the affected persons must move to another location. It applies to all project activities that result in involuntary resettlement, regardless of the source of financing.

According to Asian Development Bank (ADB) Safeguard Policy (2009), the aim of ADB Policy on Involuntary Resettlement is to avoid or minimise the impacts on people, households, businesses and others affected by the acquisition of land and other assets, including livelihood and income. Where resettlement is not avoidable, the overall goal of the ADB policy is to help restore the living standards of the affected people to at least their pre-project levels by compensating for lost assets at replacement costs and by providing, as necessary, various forms of support. The objectives of the involuntary resettlement policy are: (i) avoid involuntary resettlement wherever possible; (ii) minimize involuntary resettlement by exploring project and design alternatives, if involuntary resettlement is unavoidable; (iii) enhance, or at least restore, the livelihoods of all displaced persons in real terms relative to pre-project levels; and (iv) improve the standards of living of the displaced poor and other vulnerable groups.

ADB involuntary resettlement policy includes the following principles:(i) Screen the project early on to identify past, present, and future involuntary resettlement impacts and risks. Determine the scope of resettlement planning through a survey and/or census of affected persons, including a gender analysis, specifically related to resettlement impacts and risks (ii) Improve, or at least restore, the livelihoods of all affected persons through (a)land-based resettlement strategies when affected livelihoods are land based where possible or cash compensation at replacement value for land when the loss of land does not undermine livelihoods; (b)

prompt replacement of assets with access to assets of equal or higher value; (c) prompt compensation at full replacement cost for assets that cannot be restored; and (d) additional revenues and services through benefit sharing schemes where possible.

(iii) Provide physically and economically affected persons with needed assistance, including the following: (a) if there is relocation, secured tenure to relocation land, better housing at resettlement sites with comparable access to employment and production opportunities, integration of resettled persons economically and socially into their host communities, and extension of project benefits to host communities; (b) transitional support and development assistance, such as land development, credit facilities, training, or employment opportunities; and (c) civic infrastructure and community services, as required.

(iv) Improve the standards of living of the affected poor and other vulnerable groups, including women, to at least national minimum standards. In rural areas provide them with legal and affordable access to land and resources, and in urban areas provide them with appropriate income sources and legal and affordable access to adequate housing.

(v) Develop procedures in a transparent, consistent, and equitable manner if land acquisition is through negotiated settlement.

(vi) Ensure that affected persons without titles to land or any recognizable legal rights to land are eligible for resettlement assistance and compensation for loss of non-land assets.

(vii) Prepare a resettlement plan elaborating on affected persons' entitlements, the income and livelihood restoration strategy, institutional arrangements, monitoring and reporting framework, budget, and time-bound implementation schedule.

(viii) Prepare a resettlement plan elaborating on affected persons' entitlements, the income and livelihood restoration strategy, institutional arrangements, monitoring and reporting framework, budget, and time-bound implementation schedule.

(ix) Disclose a draft resettlement plan, including documentation of the consultation process in a timely manner, before project appraisal, in an acceptable place and a form and language(s) understandable to affected persons and other stakeholders. Disclose the final resettlement plan and its updates to affected persons and other stakeholders.

(x) Conceive and execute involuntary resettlement as part of a development project program. Include the full costs of resettlement in the presentation of project's cost and benefits. For a project with significant involuntary resettlement impacts, consider implementing the involuntary resettlement component of the project as a stand-alone operation.

(xi) Pay compensation and provide other resettlement entitlements before physical or

economic displacement. Implement the resettlement plan under close supervision throughout project implementation. (xii) Monitor and assess resettlement outcomes, their impacts on the standards of living of affected persons, and whether the objectives of the resettlement plan have been achieved by taking into account the baseline conditions and the results of resettlement monitoring. Disclose monitoring reports.

According to JICA guidelines (2010), the key principle of JICA policies on involuntary resettlement is summarized as: a) Involuntary resettlement and loss of means of livelihood are to be avoided when feasible by exploring all viable alternatives. b) When, population displacement is unavoidable, effective measures to minimize the impact and to compensate for losses should be taken. c) People who must be resettled involuntarily and people whose means of livelihood will be hindered or involve losses must be sufficiently compensated and supported, so that they can improve or at least restore their standard of living, income opportunities and production levels to pre-project levels. d) Compensation must be based on the full replacement cost as much as possible. e) Compensation and other kinds of assistance must be provided prior to displacement. f) For projects that entail large-scale involuntary resettlement, resettlement action plans must be prepared and made available to the public. g) In preparing a resettlement action plan, consultations must be prompted in the planning, implementation, and monitoring of resettlement action plans. h) Appropriate and accessible grievance mechanisms must be established for the affected people and their communities.

In addition to the above policies, JICA also applies the following policies stipulated in WB OP 4.12. a) Affected people are to be identified and recorded as early as possible in order to establish their eligibility through an initial baseline survey (including population census that serves as an eligibility cut-off date, asset inventory, and socioeconomic survey), preferably at the project identification stage, to prevent a subsequent influx of encroachers of others who wish to take advantage of such benefit. b) Eligibility of benefits cover the PAPs who have formal legal rights to land (including customary and traditional land rights recognized under law), the PAPs who don't have formal legal rights to land at the time of census but have a claim to such land or assets, and the PAPs who have no recognizable legal right to the land they are occupying. c) Preference should be given to land-based resettlement strategies for displaced persons whose livelihoods are land-based. d) Provide support for the

transition period (between displacement and livelihood restoration). e) Particular attention must be paid to the needs of vulnerable people among those displaced, especially those below the poverty line, landless, elderly, women and children, ethnic minorities etc. f) For projects that entail land acquisition or involuntary resettlement of fewer than 200 people, abbreviated resettlement plan is to be prepared.

2.1.4 Gender and Development Policy

The Gender and Development Policy (1998) adopts gender mainstreaming as a key strategy for promoting gender equity, and for ensuring that women participate and that their needs are explicitly addressed in the decision-making process for development activities. For projects that have the potential to cause substantial gender impacts, a gender plan is prepared to identify strategies to address gender concerns and the involvement of women in the design, implementation and monitoring of the project. The ultimate goal of mainstreaming is to achieve gender equality.

The needs and problems of women are likely to be different from those of men, particularly in terms of social support, services, employment and means of subsistence for survival. Relocated women might face greater difficulty than relocated men in reestablishing markets for home industry produce or small trade items if they are constrained by lack of mobility or by illiteracy.

It is essential to ensure that appropriate mechanisms are established to enable for women. Resettlement process often remains blind or unresponsive to gender inequality because gender is not integrated throughout the process. This causes marginalization to women from the opportunities and benefits of the process. And their issues are often not reflected in the process. As a result, women are heavily affected by displacement.

According to the Research by the World Bank, significant improvements are possible for women workers and employers if gender-inclusive assessments are conducted, policies established and implemented, dedicated services provided, and steps taken to ensure the representation of women in governance through dedicated committees and grievance mechanisms. (OXFAM, 2017)

Gender inequality in livelihoods can contribute to inequality in other domains. Women's lower incomes and more limited access to other resources required to secure a livelihood such as land, credit and assets reduce bargaining power within households. As such, women experience restricted ability to exercise their preferences

in the gender division of unpaid/paid labour, the allocation of household income and their ability to exit harmful relationships. Employment is a key mechanism for promoting gender equity and that gender equality in this domain can leverage change in other domains (Seguino, 2007; Ridgeway, 2011; Kabeer et al., 2013). It is not just access to employment or livelihoods, but also the relative quality of jobs that matters for economic empowerment. Segregation of women in low-wage insecure jobs will do little to improve their bargaining power if male household members have disproportionate control over good jobs. (UNDP, 2013)

2.2 Special Economic Zones

Special Economic Zones (SEZs) have become an increasingly popular instrument to promote economic development as policy-makers across developing countries are implementing special economic zones (SEZs) with the policy objectives to attract foreign direct investment, to create jobs, to increase household incomes, to increase economic activity in lagging regions within countries and to enable export diversification and economic transformation. Special Economic Zones are areas specially designated for commercial and supposedly export-oriented activities, under which private companies are able to take advantage of a platter of exemptions from taxation and from national laws on such matters as workers' rights. The first industrial zone was established in Ireland in 1959 and prior to the 1970s, the majority of zones were located in industrial countries. Developing countries, particularly those in Asia, began to integrate SEZ policy into their strategy for economic development. (Khandelwal and Teachout, 2016)

On the other hand, land acquisition is a major priority and cost for investors as well as a major source of conflict, human rights violations and negative social impacts for communities. SEZs have often been established by claiming large amounts of agricultural land. Millions and millions of people around the world are also being displaced from their homes, natural habitats, from their lands, from their living places and livelihoods. Thus, SEZs are highly controversial with the criticisms whether they make economic sense for the government and the country, through concerns about environmental impacts, to the negative impacts they have on local communities through displacement.

2.3 Displacement

Displacement mainly occurs due to men-made disaster and natural disaster. Men-made disasters include armed-conflict situation and large-scale development projects. Three types of displacement are common namely internal displacement, disaster-induced displacement and development-induced displacement. A disaster was defined as “a serious disruption of the functioning of a society, causing widespread human, material, or environmental losses which exceed the ability of the affected society to cope using its own resources” (UN). Large-scale development projects carried out by states, often with the assistance of the international community, often result in massive displacement of population from home. The World over “approximately fifteen million people each year are forced to leave their homes due to massive development projects.” (Terminski, 2012). According to the United Nations Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, the term Internally displaced persons (IDPs) were defined as “Persons who have been forced to flee their homes suddenly or unexpectedly in large numbers, as a result of armed conflict, internal strife, systematic violations of human rights or natural or man-made disasters, and who are within the territory of their own country.

2.4 Development-caused Resettlement

Development and displacement are interlinked with each other. Development is seen as both bringing benefits and imposing costs. Among its greatest costs has been the involuntary displacement of millions of vulnerable people. Causes of development projects causing displacement include water supply (dams, reservoirs, irrigation); urban infrastructure; transportation (roads, highway, canals); energy (mining, power plants, oil exploration and extraction, pipelines); agriculture expansion; parks and forest reserves; and population redistribution schemes; special economic zones, etc.

According to World Bank data to derive estimates of global figures, in the early 1990s, the construction of 300 high dams (above 15 meters) each year had displaced 4 million people. Urban and transportation infrastructure projects accounted for 6 million more displaced each year. Within one decade, according to a 1996 assessment, “at least 80 to 90 million people have been displaced by programs in only two development sectors. Population displacement by development programs is now a worldwide problem, of a magnitude previously unsuspected. Moreover, ongoing

industrialization, electrification, and urbanization processes are likely to increase, rather than decrease, the number of programs causing involuntary population displacement over the next 10 years.” Not only is development-induced displacement a widespread, and growing, phenomenon, but evidence suggests that while the beneficiaries of development are numerous, the costs are being borne disproportionately by the poorest and most marginalized populations.

According to the case studies of Three Gorges Project Resettlement, the living conditions at the Three Gorges Project Resettlement were also challenging. It is common for infrastructure conditions, particularly housing, to improve after resettlement even when resettlers are struggling to recover their livelihoods. The resettlers said their houses were bigger, were constructed from sturdier materials and had improved sanitation and communication infrastructure. The cost of the new houses, however, was a heavy burden for resettlers at both sites. The resettler stood on substantial debt to construct their new homes, despite receiving compensation. Most resettlers interviewed borrowed money from friends or relatives to meet the shortfall in compensation. This carries with it not only a hefty financial responsibility but also a social one. The new housing also altered the productive activities of the affected population. The resettlers lost their backyard economies. Backyard space was typically reduced from per household to an area inadequate to support sheep or cows or even to produce vegetables. The resettlers responded to the loss by locating their pigs and vegetables under the immature foliage of the orange trees. Corn and potatoes were mainly produced to feed the pigs. Eight years on, the orange trees have matured and light conditions are no longer conducive to growing vegetables. Unable to afford to buy feed, most farmers no longer raise pigs. In this sense, at both sites productive activities have become less diverse (Wilmsen and Wang, 2015).

2.5 SEZ-caused Resettlement Effects on Women

Special Economic Zones are areas specially designated for commercial and supposedly export-oriented activities, under which private companies are able to take advantage of a platter of exemptions from taxation and from national laws on such matters as workers' rights. They are seen as enclaves of quasi-foreign territory and are promoted as a way of attracting foreign direct investment and fostering the growth of export oriented foreign-exchange earning industries. Although they facilitate mainly private and profit-seeking enterprises, they are argued to contribute to “public

purpose” through the creation of jobs and, in general, through promoting economic development.

SEZs are, however, highly controversial. Criticisms range from questioning whether they make economic sense for the government and the country, through concerns about environmental impacts, to the negative impacts they have on local communities through displacement. Even within government circles there seems to be a concern that SEZs simply do not make economic sense. It has been suggested that the far-reaching tax and regulatory advantages given to companies in SEZs will simply lead to the relocation of existing production from normal “domestic” locations to tax exempt ones, leading to a huge loss of revenue to the state and loss of employment to the people that may outweigh any increase in investment and employment that would not otherwise have taken place.

Due to displacement, most big farmers become medium and the medium farmers become small and marginal. Those who were small marginal farmers become landless. Also support mechanisms such as the number of ponds, wells, poultry, cattle and draft animals that supplement agricultural income decline (Bharali, 2007).

Displacement not only results in physical dislocation, but also in women's disempowerment. Project authorities also failed to acknowledge women as a group that deserved specific attention in the resettlement and rehabilitation process. In the planning, execution and management of R&R activities, women rarely found place as decision makers. Most women in rural and tribal areas shoulder a tremendous burden in collecting fuel, fodder and water, contributing to household income. Women's interests are bound up with the collective interests of the household (Kabeer, 1990).

Michael Cernea has been identifying risks and why resettlement fail since 1980. Projects financed by public or private sector is a common trigger for forced displacement. He stressed how these development-induced projects fail to create sustainable resettlement and instead cause impoverishment at the displaced families. He further identifies that there are reasons for this misconception of how sustainable displacement are implemented and states believe that cash is a sufficient compensation for loss of income and livelihood. He acknowledges that development projects will continue, but the risks remain. He points out that when displaced, impoverishment is the risk and that the risks should be prevented if possible. The components of the risks are; 1) Landlessness 2) Joblessness 3) Homelessness 4) Marginalization 5) Food insecurity 6) Increased morbidity 7) Loss of access to

common property resources and 8) Community disarticulation (Cernea, 2004).

To restore land, or families land basis is crucial. Land itself is considered as natural and man-made capital that one loose when being resettled. Losing one's land can destroy family's foundation to their productive systems and if it is not restored accordingly, with new income possibilities, families become impoverished (Cernea, 2004).

Joblessness is the second risk caused to the resettlement after some time. It usually takes sometime before people are without employment because many has work during the resettlement and the project. However, the displacement will end and at this time people will be unemployed. There are three ways to be exposed to the risk: Unemployment in urban areas, loss of access to work on land owned by others and loss of assets under common property regimes (Cernea, 2004).

Joblessness is higher among women than among men. Women who want to work have to be satisfied with unskilled daily wage labour. It reduces women to being housewives alone depending on the man's single salary. But men spend a part of their salary on alcohol. It also deprives women of the resource that met the family's food, water and other needs that are traditionally their responsibility. Their role does not change but they have fewer resources to attend to it (Ganguly Thukral and Singh, 1995).

Loss of land or livelihood can result in loss of self-esteem in men, which in turn sometimes leads to violence against women and children. Alcoholism, prostitution, and gambling resulting from displacement affect the lives and status of women. Women are sometimes forced to face new forms of violence such as sexual abuse and prostitution. Gender disparities embedded in social practice and tradition render women vulnerable to sexual and physical violence. Social and cultural factors exclude women for actively participation in planning, implementing and executing resettlement activities.

While they are deprived of their sustenance, their role of catering to the nutritional, health and other needs of the family remains unchanged. Men become the only or main income earners since most jobs go to them. However, it is not certain that women get all the income or enough money to run the household. Men and children often absorb the value system of the dominant culture to which they are exposed through the workers from outside the region coming to the new industrial townships. So they spend more than in the past on clothes, entertainment and other trivia, thus making a

relatively small amount available for the woman to run the household. In other words, social factors like such cultural contact affect women more than men (Muricken et al. 2001).

The insecurity of not having a steady home or worrying about the standard of the new home can create loss of the groups cultural space which can create alienation and status deprivation. When governments force people to resettle they create new villages that might not satisfy families which create a sense of placelessness. Families have attachments to their homes and leave memories and capital and it usually take time before they move in to their new home (Cernea, 2004).

Economic marginalization occurs when families lose economic power from being displaced and find their skills no longer of use in their new location. Psychological marginalization has signs of anxiety and decline of self-esteem because of their deprivation of economic possibilities. Predicting that during resettlement, food crops and income will decline which could potentially create food insecurity. Furthermore, rebuilding the food supply and production for families can take years, which lead to long insecurity (Cernea, 2004).

When a large amount of people is displaced, the risks of illness and psychological traumas increase. The most vulnerable among the displaced are children and elderly. Outbreaks such as diseases from unsanitary water and malaria can occur and people are more prone to the risks after the resettlement than before. Examples from earlier displacement show different types of outbreaks that are a direct danger to resettlers. Other dangers include risks of drowning, especially when infrastructure-induced projects are being implemented and people are not aware of the new dams because of lack of information (Cernea, 2004).

Loss of Access to Common Property and Services: Common property refers to common land use such as forest, water bodies, burial grounds and school etc. For people with low income or families whom are landless, the loss of these common properties could inflict possibilities to a dignified life (Cernea, 2004) the loss of these commons is rarely compensated for by the government when displaced. Families may get lower social standing and the life get though as families have new struggles (Cernea, 2004).

Being forced to move tear communities apart and can destroy bounds between neighbors and social capital for individuals. Social patterns in the communities are notably changed and the stigma around resettlers might cause isolation. A study on a

dam project conducted by Behura and Nayak in 1993 showed that the loss of intimate bonds, alienation and loss of control for social patterns and behavior. Decreased participation in group activities such as feasts and pilgrims were a clear indication that alienation lowered the social status for the resettled people (Cernea, 2004).

Social impact of dislocation tends to affect women more than men. Breakdown of community and other social networks as a direct result of dislocation can affect women more than men because women rely and depend on community and other social networks for emotional and practical support, such as distance from workplace, physical safety, availability of facilities, taking care of children, proximity of kin. Dislocation can be traumatic if these networks break down. Because of displacement, increase of social evils and violence against women could increase.

Compensation payments are generally part of legal domain and women may not be formally eligible to receive them. Compensation payments to households are not always equitably distributed within households. Experience has shown that men and women use compensation money differently and that compensation paid to male household heads is not necessarily solely used for rehabilitation and restoration of livelihoods. Instances of injudicious use of compensation payments by males such as for personal consumption or to gain prestige and status within the community are not known.

Also experience indicates that some affected persons spend cash compensation quickly and become impoverished. Often the needs of women and children are not met if cash compensation is paid to the male head of household. Security of tenure is also important. It can be more important for displacement women because they could become disenfranchised. Single women, widows, and women-headed households could potentially be divested of land and property by family members. (ADB, 2013)

Restoration of livelihood and income is equally important to women and men. Women are largely engaged in the informal sector; gathering forest produce, working in the fields, or selling produce. Women's economic activities can be an important source of income for households. Dislocation can result in loss of livelihood, adding to women's economic activities in planning and executing resettlement programs. Low levels of training and education among women limit the choice of alternatives. Rehabilitation packages include compensation opportunities for alternative occupations. Choices for exploring alternatives and livelihood options for women are limited because of their low level of skills, education, and exposure. Planning for

occupational and livelihood options for women is crucial. Women are responsible for food, fuel and fodder in the family. Due to displacement, fuel and fodder can become scarce. This can have direct impact on women because they are responsible for gathering fuel and fodder. Unless this impact is addressed in resettlement planning and execution, it could result in women spending more time and resources accessing these basic needs. Loss of grazing areas could also result in sale of livestock. The first to be hit will be the females. There is likelihood that nutritional and health status of women is lower than men (ADB, 2013)

A mode of coping with it is drunkenness. One of its results is rise in domestic violence. Both drinking and domestic violence existed before displacement but they increase enormously after displacement as a coping mechanism meant to deal with the trauma. It becomes a coping mechanism even of many women. Since they have no work, many of them spend their time gossiping or drinking as we noticed even in a rehabilitation colony in Orissa (Fernandes and Raj, 1992).

A second coping mechanism is internalisation of the dominant ideology. For example, influenced by the consumerist values that enter their area with the outsiders coming to the township, men spend much of their income on clothes and entertainment. Hence, even those who earn a higher monetary income than in the past leave women with a relatively little share of their salary to attend to their role in the family. Thus, women have to find economic alternatives in order to deal with the reality of catering to family needs with reduced resources. In the absence of other alternative many of them sell their body since that is the only asset they own (George, 2002).

Women too often internalise the dominant ideology as a coping mechanism. For example, when less food is available than in the past, many take to the dominant custom of the woman eating last after feeding the elders, men, boys and girls in that order. As stated above, most women are forced to take up unskilled daily wage jobs since they do not have other alternatives. Some men whom the project employs as maintenance staff in their offices do not want their wives to do domestic or other unskilled work because “it is against an office worker’s dignity to have his wife doing menial work”. Many women internalise the ideology of their place being in the kitchen and of not being intelligent enough for skilled work (Menon, 1995). It closes the vicious circle against them.

2.6 Review on Previous Studies

The applicant reviewed some previous studies on research papers and thesis. Preview studies reviews are namely i) A study on foreign direct investment in Thilawa Special Economic Zone (2014 -2018)” submitted by Chu Myat Thu (2018) ii) “A study on the Land Management of General Administration Department of Thanlyin and Kyauktan Townships” submitted by Khin Htar New (2018) iii) “Analysis of Land Use Policy Reform in Myanmar (2003-2013)” submitted by Aimee Zaw (2016).

According to Chu Myat Thu (2018) “SEZs were implemented to create job opportunities, get a transfer of technology, and improve FDI in serving to develop the economy in Myanmar. She found that Thilawa SEZ contributes advantages such as good connectivity from Yangon, good alternative site from Yangon, proximity to manpower and ready labor, and generally regular-shaped boundary. All necessary infrastructures for investors were made available in the Thilawa SEZ. As establishing Thilawa SEZ, many opportunities were created for Myanmar citizens.”

Khin Htar Nwe (2018) stated that “the lack of checking/monitoring of business operation by respective ministries or departments, also leads to the said form of monopoly and cause of intentionally getting lease with another purpose other than the business they applied for. She also mentioned that standard values used for calculation are outdated, and it is an unreasonable value for the present time and current market value. With the exception of Master Plan of Government or any other SEZ project, the lease of a huge plot should not be granted for private interests by means of Industrial and Commercial purpose.”

Aimee Zaw (2016) mentioned that “as poor management agriculture, urban expansion, the land tenure and its rights were unclear, land conflicts over land in a suitable ratio occurred in Myanmar. Thus land reform based on land distribution is not really a critical condition for Myanmar up till now. But existing land law should be viewed and revised for more secure rights for the land holders. Land policies and land laws are influencing the behavior of holders in Myanmar. Besides, transparent land government is needed for the new paradigm of pro-poor land access to succeed and to include specific approaches and modules to reach out to particular stakeholders like ethnic minorities, families living in conflict zones (and thus affected by land mines), women, and disadvantaged groups.”

It is found that the above previous studies were done from the perspectives of foreign direct investment by Thilwa SEZ, Land management and land use policy reform. As earlier mentioned in the rationale of my study, there are few previous studies from the perspective of women affected by SEZ-induced displacement. Thus, the issues of SEZ-induced displacement need to be understood from different perspectives in Myanmar particularly when SEZs are being developed.

CHAPTER III

OVERVIEW ON RESETTLEMENT

3.1 Overview on Relevant Laws and Policies

The Constitution identifies that state is owner of all lands as well as all natural resources above and below the ground, above and beneath the water and in the Union's atmosphere. Citizens and organizations are allocated land use rights, but do not own land. The Ward or Village Tract Administration Law (2012) provides the formation of wards or villages, assigning administrator for security, prevalence of law and order, community peace and tranquility and carrying out the benefit of the public.

The Vacant, Fallow and Virgin Lands Management Law (2012) governs the allocation and use of virgin land and vacant or fallow land. The law establishes the Central Committee for the Management of Vacant, Fallow and Virgin Land which is responsible for granting and rescinding use rights for such lands. This also outlines the purposes for which the committee may grant use-rights; conditions that land users must observe to maintain their use rights; and restrictions relating to duration and size of holdings. The Central Committee is also empowered (Chapter VII, Section 19) to repossess the land from the legitimate owner, after payment of compensation calculated based on the current value to cover the actual investment cost, for infrastructure and other special projects in the interest of the State.

Under the Farmland Law 2012 the State remains the ultimate owner of all land. Both the Farmland law and the Vacant, Fallow and Virgin Lands Management Law result in farmers lacking land tenure security and being required to follow government's crop prescriptions and production quotas. The main concerns include protection for farmers from losing land to locally approved investment projects, and the efficient use of land and water resources. The government recognizes the need for Myanmar to have comprehensive sustainable land use and management policies in order to develop and improve living conditions and incomes in rural communities.

The Land Acquisition Act of 1894 establishes the basis for the state to acquire land for public use and is yet to be superseded by more recent legislation. The law

specifies a systematic approach for acquisition and compensation of land and other properties for development Projects. It stipulates actions related to notifications, surveys, acquisition, and compensation and entitlements, along with disputes resolution, penalties and exemptions. The law also provides for disclosure of information on surveys to affected persons Environmental Law.

There are environmental related laws that can affect land use and its conservation. The Environmental Law (2012) promotes ecosystem and biological resources services to ensure sustainable development not only for present but also for future generations. Regulations and standards related to the Law are close to being completed.

3.2 Establishment of Special Economic Zones

Myanmar is a developing country that ranks among the most difficult markets in the world to operate a business. Since 2010, the Myanmar government has implemented political and economic reforms aimed at spurring growth and increasing the country's participation in the global economy. One objective of these reforms is to bring about structural change that makes Myanmar more reliant on the manufacturing sector. Efforts to advance this objective centre on the creation of Special Economic Zones (SEZs), designated enclaves that facilitate imports, exports and foreign direct investment.

The Special Economic Zone Law, enacted by the Union Parliament in January 2014, establishes the legal framework for developing and governing SEZs in Myanmar. The SEZ Law and SEZ Rules are designed to attract investment in the zones by providing beneficial arrangements to investors, including extendable 50-year land leases as well as tax and customs benefits. The SEZ Law establishes special governance bodies to facilitate the development, operations and investments in the zones. This sets out the key institutions of decision making and management. "Special economic zone" means a specified zone, notified and established as special economic zone under this law by the central body by demarcating the land area; "Central body" means the central body, formed by the Union Government under this law, for the administration of the special economic zones in Myanmar;" Central working body" means the central working body, formed by the central body under this law, in order to support the central body;" Management committee" means the management committee formed under this law to manage, administer and supervise the relevant

special economic zone;" Responsible ministry" means the Union ministry charged by the Union Government with being responsible for implementing the necessary functions and duties under this law.

The objectives of this law are (a) To support the main goals of the national economic development project; (b) To increase job opportunities for the people, to ameliorate their living standard, to promote the production of commodities, to increase export and to earn more income in foreign exchange; (c) To encourage, promote and entice the harmonious development of the industry, economy and society; (d) To promote industrial, economic and commercial enterprises, cooperation in services and finances between the state and other countries and to provide opportunities to citizens to learn vocational skills; (e) To encourage and entice local and foreign investment by constructing infrastructure for developers and investors;(f) To promote local and foreign investments in the special economic zones, to create new employment opportunities and to create industries next to the special economic zones.

The Union Government for the establishment and operation of special economic zones, form a central body for the administration of the special economic zones in Myanmar, composed of a suitable person as chairman and suitable persons from the relevant ministries, government departments and organizations as members; The central body shall, with the approval of the Union Government: (a) in order to administer special economic zones, form a central working body, composed of relevant personnel from government departments and organizations; (b) when forming the central working body according to sub-section (a), determine the duty of, and assign duty to, its chairman, vice-chairman, secretary and joint-secretary; The Ministry of Home Affairs shall arrange for the confiscation or transfer of land that is located in the area where a special economic zone is specified and intended to be established by the central body in accordance with the existing laws.

Central Body is a single committee appointed at Union level, which has ultimate responsibility and decision making power over the implementation of SEZs, including related policy making. Central Working Body is appointed at Union level, will assist in the implementation of SEZ activities, including scrutinizing proposals and submitting recommendations to the Central Body for decision making. SEZ Management Committee is appointed by the Central Body for each SEZ development,

responsible for implementing and supervising the development and investment, coordinating with relevant central government ministries, and establishing a one-stop shop service for investors. It must include one representative from the state or regional government. The chairperson is responsible to the president, through the Central Body. The SEZ Law explicitly requires investors to abide by the Myanmar Environmental Conservation Law and international standards, although it does not specify which standards. However, the 2015 EIA Procedure, enacted under the Environmental Conservation Law, requires that complex projects conform to the World Bank Policy on Involuntary Resettlement. (ICJ, 2017)

3.2.1 Thilawa Special Economic Zone

Among the three SEZs, Thilawa Special Economic Zone is one of the first most successful SEZ in Myanmar. The allocated land for Thilawa SEZ zone is approximately 5027 acres (approximately 2400 hectares) located in Thanlynn and Kyauktan townships in Yangon Region. Thilawa SEZ is positioned in geographically strategic location on the bank of Yangon River and about 38 kilometers away from Mingaladon International Airport and 23 kilometers from downtown area of Yangon Commercial District.

Thilawa SEZ project was realized by the close cooperation between Japan and Myanmar with Public Private Partnership format by forming Myanmar Japan Thilawa Development Limited MJTD as the developer of the zone where Thilawa SEZ Management Committee (TSMC) on behalf of the Government of Myanmar, Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) on behalf of the Government of Japanese, Myanmar Thilawa SEZ Holdings Company as Myanmar private consortium and Mitsubishi, Marubeni, Sumitomo as Japanese private consortium have stakes. Therefore, Thilawa SEZ has easy transport access to maritime, air and road for both domestic and international business.

Thilawa SEZ Management Committee (TSMC) and the zone developer MJTD signed the agreement on the 5th June 2014 for the development of the Zone (A) plan comprising the area of 405 hectares as the first phase approving the right to lease the land for the total period of total period of 75 years with the initial 50 years of lease when signing agreement that is extendable for another 25 years. The inauguration of the grand opening of Zone (A) was held on the 23th September 2015. The sale of the industrial areas was faster than expected as more than 95% of the land in Zone (A) are

reserved and leased by 90 investors from 17 countries. The development of Zone (B) for 101 hectares was implemented on the 24th February 2017, an early completion of the internal basic infrastructure is expected to be accomplished before the end of June, 2018.

Thilawa SEZ Management Committee (TSMC) has established the One Stop Service Center (OSSC) from various government departments under its close supervision in order to provide efficient and fast services to customers and investors. Thilawa SEZ Management Committee (TSMC) together with its One Stop Service Center (OSSC) team comprised of designated officers from 13 relevant ministries are providing quick and reliable, predictable services to all investors by maximizing use of advance technology and best practices, and minimizing use of direct communication among people to people approach. Road and Transportation Administration Department and Food and Drug Administration Department are not directly stationed but are on call whenever investors required services. (DICA, 2016)

3.2.2 Dawei Special Economic Zone

Dawei is located in Myanmar's southern Tanintharyi Region. The Dawei SEZ was launched in 2008. The initial phase of Dawei SEZ includes constructing a two-lane road (138km), a wharf to accommodate 15,000-40,000 tonne vessels, an industrial zone for labour intensive industries, a power plant, residential buildings and a water supply system. Future plans include a motorway linking Dawei SEZ with Thailand's Kanchaburi province, as well as a railway and links to oil and gas pipelines. The Italian-Thai Development Public Company Limited was initially announced as the successful bidder. However in 2013, the Government invited other international investors to submit fresh bids, with a final decision yet to be announced. (Myanmar Investment Guide, 2018)

3.2.3 Kyauk Phyu Special Economic Zone

Kyauk Phyu SEZ is located in the western region of Rakhine State. The first phase comprises the development of 100 hectares of industrial park, a deep-sea port with a container handling capacity of 80,000 20-foot equivalent units. The SEZ has Expressions of Interest from local and international developers for the development of a deep-sea port, an industrial park and an integrated residential area. A Singapore-based consortium has been assigned to develop the master plan, in close cooperation

with the Bid Evaluation and Awarding Committee of Kyauk Phyu SEZ. The Kyauk Phyu SEZ Management Committee was newly assigned in October 2016 and negotiating a transaction document is underway with CITIC Consortium which was winner of the international bid as developer of the SEZ.

3.3 The Effects of Special Economic Zones

Regarding the effects of Thilawa SEZ, while the new houses for displaced people were often better than their old ones and compensation was also on an acceptable level, they were left without jobs and livelihood. Most of them used to work as farmers but after the relocation, they were not given any farmland. In the SEZ, they could only be hired as cleaners or security guards which did not pay well enough to sustain a family. Even though the companies in the SEZ provided trainings for more qualified jobs, local people were mostly not educated enough to be allowed to attend these trainings. Thus, once the compensation money had run out after about a year, it was difficult to sustain a living as there were no jobs for them. This often prompted them to incur debts for which they pawned their houses. In this process, 18 out of the 68 displaced households were not able to repay the money and thus lost their home to money lenders. Compared to non-relocated households, relocated house-holds in Thilawa had significantly higher risks of falling into debts. This is mainly due to the fact that they have less or no farmland and are thus in need of buying food. While resettlement houses were often of better qualities as they provided better roofing or better access to water, the lack of sustainable income had many people spiral into debt. These experiences from Thilawa show that compensation should not only be paid in monetary terms but must also include the possibility to find jobs and thus livelihoods after resettlement. (Sternage, 2018)

According to Earth rights International's report with regard to Dawei Special Economic Zone, that men are more likely than women to have access to project information; that livelihoods associated with women, such as collecting and selling shellfish, may be particularly vulnerable if the SEZ project resumes; that boys are more likely than girls to finish their education, leaving them better prepared for a changing livelihood situation; that men have more power and influence over matters relating to land acquisition and financial compensation; and that men are more likely than women to gain employment opportunities if jobs emphasize technical skills and capacities. Positions of power in these villages are almost exclusively held by men in trade, administration,

social welfare networks and activities, and religious activities. For community members in SEZ project areas, the SEZ stands to reinforce and exacerbate existing gender hierarchy.

In Kyaukphyu, at the site of the prospective SEZ, opinion is divided. While urban residents are optimistic that the industrial park will bring much needed jobs, rural people also see this possibility but they are a lot more skeptical and fear that their land will be taken away without any proper compensation in the form of new jobs. Bearing in mind previous megaprojects, there is a general fear that projects like in Kyaukphyu will eventually not benefit the local population. If land is taken away without sufficient compensation, if waters are polluted, if trainings are not provided and jobs are not suitable for local people, then the Kyaukphyu SEZ will heavily harm local residents. The uncertainty about jobs mainly stems from the fact that there is no clear path how the Kyaukphyu SEZ will contribute to Kyaukphyu's local development. The only clear thing is that jobs will be created in the construction of the SEZ which is, however, not enough to make up for the loss of livelihood because construction work will only be temporary. CITIC, the Chinese firm with the most stakes in developing the SEZ, claimed in its original feasibility study that 100,000 jobs will be created in the area. However, as Arakan Oil Watch argues, the lack of skills among the local population will most likely lead to a lot of these jobs being filled by people outside Kyaukphyu. (Sternage, 2018).

Women in Kyauk Phyu have a lower socioeconomic status than men because of gender discrimination. They are not represented in key positions of authority in local administration, religious institutions or on the SEZ Management Committee. This makes women less likely to receive relevant and timely information about the SEZ, and to participate in decision-making processes affecting them. Economic and demographic transformations associated with big infrastructure projects can have significant impacts, for better or worse, on women. Experiences in Myanmar and in Asia indicate that women are more likely than men to be employed in textiles, which may be a key entry point for local employment in the SEZ. However recent studies show that conditions in Myanmar's garment factories are often exploitative. If jobs materialize, these may be insufficient to restore the livelihoods of persons displaced by the SEZ.

3.4 The Effect of Upper Paunglaung Dam

Upper Paunglaung dam was executed for hydro power in Shan State in 2015. This infrastructural development project is financed by foreign firms from China, Switzerland and Britain and implemented by the Myanmar government (PHR, 2015). This project forced 2,524 households and 9,755 people to resettle due to the rising reservoir (Spectrum, 2017). The resettlement in the Upper Paunglaung dam affected men and women differently. Women face more barriers than men. They had difficulties to restore the families living standards before the resettlement and they felt stressed and despair. The productivity and main income come from agriculture and farming. After resettlement, there is more likely that the households are a cash-based economy which is different from before (Cornish et al. 2018).

The dam was launched in 2014 when 23 villages had been resettled which was 2,524 households and 9,755 people (Spectrum, 2017). The resettlement therefore left the households with a great concern, the economic future, and the loss of economic opportunities. As earlier farmers, the economic downfall has been the biggest concern. Households have been experiencing economic stress because of the new location, forcing people to change their lifestyles to go around. Finding income has been the major problem with adjusting to the settlement. For the households to maintain their land and house, the men in the households seek employment elsewhere, abroad or in larger cities. The women also said that they want to leave the Upper Paung Laung Dam settlement and live with their husbands, but they waited for their children to grow older. Spectrum therefore saw that the women did not see a future in the settlement, especially without agricultural opportunities. Because of their previous knowledge in farming, the only option to continue is to move.

Another change that affects women greatly is the changes in household dynamics after the resettlement. Women suffer from stress because of the economic uncertainty and struggle to buy necessities, even if their husbands are sending remittances to cover expenses. Moreover, the failed economic opportunities for the households are reportedly the most dramatic change they encountered. This cause worry and distress among affected groups and especially women. Women have to find work that generates more income than the remittances their husbands send. The economic stress experienced by women. If women could have been a part of the information sharing, they would want job security, better compensation, guaranteed agricultural land and cultivation of the agricultural land before the relocation

happened (Spectrum, 2017).

The resettlement in the Upper Paung Laung dam in Myanmar affected men and women differently. The mechanism accounted for the gendered effect was the exclusion for them to get the same information about the resettlement as men did. This meant a loss of power and isolation in the community. They did not get the same advantages as men to discuss compensation from a female perspective which made the compensation angled to what the men in the community demanded. Women are not the main wage earner in the household, but they still suffer from economic stress. They are forced to rely on the husband's remittances to be able to have enough income each month for necessities. If the income each month is not enough, the women might need to do labor work, alongside the other duties Myanmar women have, such as domestic work and caretakers for elderly and children. Suicides and depression have become more common after the resettlement. The mentioned above put pressure on women as the effects of the resettlement and they create stress and worry to women. However, women indicate that community development has become better. Children can go to school and there are health care centers nearby, creating a security for the household (Wistbacka, 2018).

CHAPTER IV

SURVEY ANALYSIS

This chapter includes two parts; one presents overview on the survey area as well as profile of the respondents. Another part presents in details how the resettlement affected to women living at the relocation site that has been displaced by Thilawa Special Economic Zone Development.

4.1 Survey Profile

The Thilawa SEZ was implemented in two development stages: a smaller Phase I on 400 ha and a larger Phase II on 2,000 ha of land. Majority of residents living in the Phase 1 and II areas of the SEZ were relocated to Myaing Thar Yar relocation site, Kyauktan township where they were provided with replacement land on which to build new homes. As for Phase I area development, 68 project affected households were being relocated at the relocation site by late 2013. The number of project affected households to be affected by the development of Phase II area was 91 in December 2016. The common livelihoods of project affected people were farming, casual labour/odd jobs, some livestock production and small enterprises.

Due to the loss of house, a substitute house was provided at the resettlement site or the equivalent money to cover house construction costs for those who prefer to construct their own house at the resettlement site. Monetary assistance was also provided for losses of other fixed assets (livestock barns), large livestock (buffalo and cow) and agriculture machines. As for land-based income sources, monetary assistance was calculated based on crop yield by referring to national regulations. As for non-land-based income sources, monetary assistance was paid in the form of an allowance of wages for the period of disrupting income generating activities due to relocation. Assistance for vulnerable groups was provided since relocation affects vulnerable groups more severely than others. Vulnerable groups include a household headed by a woman, disabled person or an elderly person (over 61 years old), a household including a disabled person or a household below the poverty line.

As part of income restoration program, households living in or engaged in income generating activities inside the Phase I area whose livelihoods were affected due to implementation of the project are eligible to participate in the Income Restoration Program (IRP). The IRP is in-kind assistance provided to PAPs in order to restore and stabilise their livelihoods and income sources. The IRP focuses on diversified economic activities for PAPs to generate income for three years after resettlement, to enable them to cover their basic needs after relocation. In order to restore their livelihoods, with an assistance package through the IRP, this includes vocational training and other support measures.

At the time of the study, many of project affected people have sold out their houses at the relocation site and approximately half of project affect people were found living at the relocation site.

4.2 Survey Design

4.2.1 Methodology

Descriptive method was used by qualitative approach with primary data collection tools namely in-depth interview, focus group discussion, key informant interview and observation. Non-probability purposive sampling was applied. 22 female respondents living at the relocation site were selected based on their age group, marital status and occupation. Focus Group Discussions with women specific groups and men specific groups were also done. In the FGDs, 15 male respondents and 15 female respondents participated. Key informant interviews were conducted with two representatives from the resettlement community at the relocation site. As secondary collection data collection, various relevant research papers, articles, documents, reports was reviewed.

4.2.2 Questionnaire Development

Two sets of semi-structured questionnaires were developed for in-depth interview and focus group discussion with the categories namely i) Respondents' characteristics, ii) Gender division of labour, iii) Decision making on household expenditures, iv) Access to and control over resources, v) Income, saving and debt, and vi) barriers and coping strategies to obtain detailed information on the perception of resettled women from affected households. Guide questions were also prepared for key informant interview to find out the general information of the relocation site and

their perception on socio-economic conditions of women and men living at the relocation site.

4.3 Survey Result

Data collected through semi-structured questionnaires was used for qualitative analysis to get deeper insights into how the resettlement affected women living at the relocation site and their coping strategies. Obtained data from In-depth interviews, Key informant interviews and FGDs was categorized into key categories namely i) Respondents' characteristics, ii) Gender division of labour, iii) Decision making on household expenditures, iv) Access to and control over resources and v) Income, saving and debt, and vi) barriers

4.3.1 Characteristics of Respondents

The table shows distribution of respondents by sex and type of interview. The survey had 52 respondents in total with 15 male respondents and 37 female respondents respectively. There were 30 respondents in Focus Group Discussions (FGD) and 22 respondents in In-depth Interview. FGDs were equally held to 15 male respondents and 15 female respondents. There was no male respondent in in-depth interviews and all 22 respondents were females.

The respondents were categorized into six groups: 20 – 30, 31 – 40, 41 – 50, 51 – 60 and 61 above. Majority of the respondents (33%) fell into 41 – 50 age group, followed by those who were between 31 and 40 years old (29%), and 20 – 30 age group (17%). The respondents who were over 61 contributed with 13%. The smallest portion of the respondents belonged to 51 – 60 age group at 8%.

In this study, three categories of marital status can be seen: single, married and widow. Of the respondents, there was only one respondent who was single (3%). 47 respondents (90%) were under the married category and 4 respondents belonged to the category of widow at 8%.

Over half of respondents (56%) are dependents with 6 males and 23 females who are housewives and depend on their husbands' earning, followed by 19% of wagers where 3 males and 7 females, respectively. Among respondents, 5 men and 3 women work casual and this contributes to 15% of respondents. There are 10% of respondents who run their small-scale home businesses such as small shops.

Table (4.1) Characteristics of Respondents

SN	Description	Male	Female	Total
1	Age Group			
	20 – 30	2 (13%)	7 (19%)	9 (17%)
	31 – 40	4 (27%)	11 (30%)	15 (29%)
	41 – 50	4 (27%)	13 (35%)	17 (33%)
	51 – 60	0	4 (11%)	4 (8%)
	> 60	5 (33%)	2 (5%)	7 (13%)
	Total	15 (100%)	37 (100%)	52 (100%)
2	Marital Status			
	Single	0	1 (3%)	1 (3%)
	Married	15 (100%)	32 (60%)	47 (90%)
	Widow	0	4 (11%)	4 (8%)
	Total	15 (100%)	37 (100%)	52 (100%)
3	Occupation			
	Dependent	6 (40%)	23 (62%)	29 (56%)
	Wage worker	3 (20%)	7 (19%)	10 (19%)
	Casual worker	5 (33%)	3 (8%)	8 (15%)
	Home business	1 (7%)	4 (11%)	5 (10%)
	Total	15 (100%)	37 (100%)	52 (100%)

Source: Survey, 2019

4.3.2 Gender Division of labor

The table indicates that the engagement of men and women in gender division of labour including domestic activities, productive activities and community activities and the resettlement affects gender division of labour. Domestic activities include cooking, washing, child care, cleaning houses, collecting firewood, fetching water, feeding animals and caring elderly people. Productive activities include farming, livestock raising, casual labour and vendors. Community activities include attending committee meeting and involvement community affairs.

The resettlement has not changed much on the engagement of women and men in domestic activities. As women are occupied with domestic activities due to the fact men are considered as household heads as well as breadwinners while women are traditionally regarded as care takers like their engagement in cooking, washing, cleaning, child-care and water collection. Some women who joined income earning

activities after resettlement mentioned that these tasks remain under women's responsibilities. Women received some supports from their male counterparts only when they were sick.

Due to the resettlement, the engagement of both men and women in productive activities has decreased. Before resettlement, men and women did farming and livestock activities together in farmlands as their main livelihood. Women took responsibilities for selling agricultural produces. After the resettlement, loss of lands made their livelihood disrupted. At the relocation site, there were no surplus land to do farming related activities for women and men; particularly most of the women were jobless.

The involvement in community activities increased after the resettlement as their previous living places were located far from main road and not like the type of ward composition, meetings were not held in their community before the resettlement. After relocation, almost all women attended community meetings to discuss relocation related matters at the relocation site. Majority of participants who attended the meetings were women as men were occupied with their jobs. Their participation in the meeting was passive as they seldom discussed.

If compared before and after resettlement situations of women regarding division of labour, women's involvement in community role like attending meetings after resettlement was seen significantly. Women's productive role in earning income from farming and livestock related activities totally disappeared and some started to engaged in either garment factories or helpers/cleaners at company offices located in Special Economic Zone (SEZ). As husbands' income alone was not enough for the survival of the entire family, borrowing money fell under women's responsibilities.

Table (4.2) Gender Division of Labour

Description	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Domestic activities				
Male	3	6%	0	0%
Female	42	81%	47	90%
Productive activities				
Male	21	40%	12	23%
Female	11	21%	2	4%
Community activities				
Male	3	6%	9	17%
Female	2	4%	25	48%

Source: Survey, 2019

4.3.3 Decision Making on Household Expenditures

The table shows decision making on household expenditure of the respondents. All respondents were asked whether resettlement affected women's decision making power on household expenditures which were categorized into small food items, non-food items and important matter. Food items consist of expenditure on rice, oils, meat/fish, vegetable, etc. while Non-food items consist of expenditure on buying fixed assets, education, health care, clothes, etc.

Almost all women respondents usually made decisions on small items such as buying and cooking meal independently. The resettlement did not occur any changes related with decision-making on small items.

Regarding non-food items, women's decision making power totally related with their status such as a dependent or an income earner. Before resettlement, both men and women made joint decisions as majority of women were engaged in family farming related activities. After the resettlement, as majority of women lost their income emerged from farming related activities, their voices to make such decisions were not as louder as before resettlement. Traditional norms had also rooted within the households; household heads were breadwinners as well as decision makers.

According to some respondents from In-depth interviews and from the process of women focus group discussion,

“We were not in the position of making decisions on important matters after resettlement because we became dependents, staying at home while only men earned income and they made decisions”

The above quote highlighted that when women were lost their income source, they have to depend on their husbands and they have less say on decision makings related with non-food items and important matters. Men mostly decided. In women headed households, these types of women had to undertake all the responsibilities of households and made decisions as their husbands had passed away.

The findings of the study reveal that the resettlement reduced women’s decision making power to some extent. Before the resettlement, they also could earn income and contribute for household expenditure especially in meal consumption and they had more say on decision making. Now they were in the position of being a dependent status and there were no alternatives but to rely on their husband’s income alone. Therefore, the resettlement has negative effect on decision making power of women. It has also been observed that traditional norms had influence on decision making power of women and men in a strong patriarchy society.

Table (4.3) Decision Making on Household Expenditure

Description	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Food item				
Both	2	4%	2	4%
Men	0	0%	0	0%
Women	47	90%	47	90%
Non-food item				
Both	30	58%	20	38%
Men	14	27%	21	40%
Women	5	10%	8	15%
Important matter				
Both	32	62%	18	35%
Men	12	23%	23	44%
Women	5	10%	8	15%

Source: Survey, 2019

4.3.4 Access to and Control over Resources

The table reveals the respondents' perception on access to and control over resources in terms of better housing type, access to water availability, electricity supply and vocational training compared with before resettlement. Almost all the respondents generally perceived that current living conditions at the resettlement site were better than previous condition before resettlement as they were easy access to water and electricity supply. Almost every household become accessible electric fans and TVs as electricity power supply was available in the relocation site. Some households used fridges and washing machines. Before resettlement, their locations were not accessible the power supply.

Two third of respondents from in-depth interviews and FGDs mentioned that the higher their living standard was, the more expenditures they cost at the relocation site.

“Our living conditions were higher than before resettlement for the fact that we were more accessible electricity and water here living at the relocation site after resettlement. But on the other hand, we were worried that we had to pay the bill for everything we utilized at home. In previous place before resettlement, as we did not have electricity supply, there was not much spending on household expenditures such as electric stoves, rice cookers, Karaoke, TVs, fans and fridges, etc.”

The respondents further mentioned that previously the distance between one house to another were so far as they could grow agricultural produces in their large compounds. Although their previous houses were not good enough as current ones, they used to live the sheds with large compounds as they could grow vegetables and raise livestock for home consumption and also gain additional income for women. They were resettled at the plots of 25 x 50 feet wide at the relocation site, they had to experience the proximity of houses and lost their lands for agricultural related activities.

One respondent women who was 48 years old, Buddhist, farming, and married with one child said that

“I was happier in living previous place although the living standard was not so high as now.”

Throughout the process of FGDs and In-depth interviews, all respondents had similar voices that their living standards before resettlement were not high but they

did not need to worry for food, clothing and shelter as they had regular income from selling vegetables they planted and livestock.

Regarding access to vocational trainings, some women reported that they accessed sewing training and food processing training delivered by income restoration program after resettlement. However, these trainings did not support the women well to enter to the workplace not because they did not learn how to sew and how to process food but because the employers were demanding skillful and experienced workers. In addition, there was an age limitation for women who are over the age of 30 years to enter the garment factory in Thilawa Special Economic Zone as the factory. Therefore, majority of women became jobless, staying at home.

The findings revealed that the resettlement made positive and negative effects to the living conditions of women at the relocation site. As a positive effect, women living at the relocation site became accessible to enjoy basic infrastructure in doing household chores within their houses after the resettlement. But on the other hand, they were stressed due to the respective charges occurred to the household and their stress on higher living standard was one of the negative effects to all most every household, particularly women headed households although their current houses at the relocation site were equipped with basic infrastructure.

Table (4.4) Respondents' Perception on Access to and Control over Resources

Description	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Better housing condition	3	6%	47	90%
Access to water availability	50	96%	50	96%
Access to electricity supply	0	0%	52	100%
Access to vocational training	0	0%	33	63%

Source: Survey, 2019

4.3.5 Income Source

Income source of most women came from on-farm related activities such as growing a different variety of vegetables and breeding livestock before the resettlement. They could earn to contribute for their household consumption from selling agricultural produces and livestock. The whole family members could make a living from agricultural land and livestock raising. After the resettlement, many

women who relied on farming related activities had disappeared and they had to depend on the sole income of their husbands. Their husbands had no alternatives but to do odd jobs which could not guarantee for regular income for the family as they had no working experiences to be engaged in other skill jobs. The households that had two income sources from on-farm and non-farm experienced less financial hardship than the households depended on only farming Income sources were vital for their livelihood survival and support regular income.

4.3.6 Income and Expenditure

The table shows that Average annual income and expenditure of the respondents. Average annual income was 1,962,482 MMK before resettlement and 3,051,923 MMK after resettlement respectively. Average annual expenditure was 1,246,506 MMK before resettlement and 4,341,877 MMK after resettlement. Although average income amount after resettlement seemed higher than the income amount before resettlement, the expenditures incurred by the respondents also outweighed the income after resettlement.

Majority of respondents mentioned that

“Our expenditures were higher than income in many households as we had to buy everything to eat and higher living conditions also added to more spending on expenditures like electricity charges. No matter how high our living standard was. We were not happy to live at the resettlement site due to lack of regular income and feeling of being congested within small compound. We preferred to the previous living place before resettlement mainly because we gained regular income from farming and had good financial condition of the family.”

The above quote highlighted that regular income plays a pivotal role for their survival to cope with increasing expenditure.

Table (4.5) Average Annual Income and Expenditure

Description	Before resettlement (MMK)	After resettlement (MMK)
Average Annual Income	1,962,482	3,051,923
Average Annual Expenditure	1,246,506	4,341,877

Source: Survey, 2019

4.3.7 Saving and Debt

Nearly half of the respondents answered that they could save money and most of them were not in the position of taking debt for household consumption before resettlement. Many women had to borrow money to fulfill the basic needs and health care of the family as the entire family had to depend on their husbands' income alone which did not meet all of the expenses they occurred after the resettlement.

As for women headed households, they had to face more financial hardship after the resettlement. This was the vicious cycle of their poverty and eventually ended with the sale of their houses to pay back their debt. It is learned that about half of the houses at the relocation site had already been sold and some moved out from the relocation site.

Table (4.6) Saving and Debt

Description	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Saving	22	42%	0	0%
Debt	0	0%	35	67%

Source: Survey, 2019

4.3.8 Barriers

Lack of regular income: As majority of women living at the resettlement site traditionally depended on the agricultural land, they were lack of alternatives to the livelihood lost. They were deprived of the source of the family's income.

Scarcity of Employment opportunity: From the process of FGDs, women and men interviewed expressed their hopes that the development of Thilawa SEZ would ensure livelihood opportunities for them, particularly for women who potentially may have access to jobs in garment factories after they were moved to the relocation site. They did believe in these commitments and hopes provided by public administrative bodies before the resettlement. After resettlement, skilled jobs went almost exclusively to resettled men and women since their literacy and skill were somewhat low to get skilled jobs at Thilawa SEZ. A few resettled women and men got were unskilled ones, often temporary or on daily wages. Majority of men were engaged in odd jobs.

Respondents from FGDs further mentioned that before the resettlement, one farmer who owned agricultural land was able to employ two casual labors. When farmers were landless, labours who relied on them were also unemployment and they all had the sufferings for the scarcity of employment.

Unbalanced income and expenditure: In addition, women had to buy every food that was used to get earlier from its lands after the resettlement, there were a substantial amount of their spending on living condition such as charges of electricity supply and water to cope with new environment. Due to higher expenditures, they had to experience unbalanced income and expenditure. One respondent mentioned that they did not need to worry for food before resettlement and they found it difficult to make both ends meet after resettlement. A coping mechanism they adopted was that borrowing money from moneylenders to covers their food supply. Eventually, some of their houses were sold out and their status was deprived from house owners to renters at the relocation site.

Table (4.7) Barriers due to Resettlement

Description	Frequency	%
Lack of regular income	35	67%
Scarcity of employment opportunity	17	33%
Unbalanced income and expenditure	40	77%

Source: Survey, 2019

Major barriers that women faced were absence of alternative livelihood, scarcity of employment opportunity, unbalanced income and expenditure after the resettlement. As a coping strategy to fulfill their basic food, they borrowed money. When they could not afford to repay the debt, their houses were sold out and their status has changed as a renter at the relocation site.

Due to the absence of an investment plan for SEZ affected people, a lump sum amount of money compensated to local people was so risky for them that they can fall as vulnerable victims under any circumstances over time as they are lack of capacity to manage the money properly. The investment plan is a critical part of resettlement program for their survival in the long run. This plan should be prepared together with the consultation and collaboration of local people since the planning stage.

The above findings indicate that the resettlement have induced more negative consequences in regard to disappeared agricultural lands, disrupted primary livelihood, absence of alternative employment, decreased income, indebtedness, less say on household decision making, higher living condition with higher expenditure. Overall, the resettlement made women's status weaken.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

5.1 Findings

Women are reduced to being housewives alone from their earlier role of being contributors to the family economy. They are deprived of the agricultural land that was earlier the source of this basic food supply. Accordingly, they cannot grow or collect the food that the family needs. Thus, the resettlement affects the woman's sphere in terms of less economic role and capability to support their family.

As women's income source was totally lost, they had to depend on the sole income of their husbands after resettlement. In this sense, resettlement had negative effect to women in terms of more economic dependence on their husbands and thereby they had less voice on decision making power within the households.

Their husbands did not have regular income. On the other hand, their expenditures were higher the incomes they could earn as they had to buy everything to eat and higher living conditions also added to more spending on expenditures like electricity charges. Many women had to borrow money to cover all the expenses they occurred as a coping strategy. It is learned that about many of the houses at the relocation site had already been sold and moved out. This is the vicious cycle of their poverty and eventually ended with homeless by selling their own houses to pay back the debt.

Most women had low education level and lack of adequate skills to entry to the existing employment market at SEZ. As majority of women have low literacy level and limited skill, there is a wide gap between job requirements and their education and skill level for them. There was also age constraint for women over 30 years to get employment at some garment factories when they tried to apply for. Women headed households with children had to experience more financial hardship after the resettlement. It can be said that majority of women do not enjoy the benefits from the employment at SEZ.

This project is expected to support sustainable economic development for Myanmar, contributing to improved living standards for its people and the development of industries that can meet rising domestic demand.

It is found that checking quality in building the housings at the relocation site was weak as a lot of respondents complained that the foundation of their houses were not strong enough. There is in need of check and balance system to make sure the quality check for every basic infrastructure provided to the local people displaced at the relocation site.

Like some studies in the literature review, the study finds that it is local residents, particularly women who bear the brunt of negative consequences outweighed positive ones due to the establishment of SEZ although SEZ is expected to support sustainable economic development, to improved living standards and the development of industries in Myanmar.

Policy makers and public administrative bodies should not give any prior commitments and hopes which will not be able to support for local residents after the resettlement in order to reach their consensus in implementing the resettlement program.

The study strongly revealed that the resettlement results the women at the relocation site in unfavorable condition. It is also learnt from this research that local community's trust on commitments of policy makers and public administrative bodies become fruitless.

5.2 Suggestions

In planning stage, investment plan should be developed with the consultation of local people so that they can properly manage lump sum amount of compensated money for their survival in the long run. Throughout the consultation process, the meaningful participation of women should be emphasized.

Gender Impact Analysis is recommended to conduct at the very beginning of Special Economic Zone Development so as to identify the different needs and experiences of women and men at the local residents.

Basic Infrastructure of the Relocation Site: Full exemption in electricity duty should be provided to the local people who have been resettled for SEZ development as long as they have been living at the relocation site. It is a must for public administrative bodies to abide by the proposed basic infrastructure provision at the

relocation site to the local people. Check and balance system is also needed to maintain the quality check for every basic infrastructure including water, sewage disposal and the like and to take corrective actions wherever necessary.

Capacity Building: In relation to trainings, it is needed to consider the needs of women. e.g women may need special support to enhance their capability, to enter the potential workplace and to reduce their socio-economic vulnerability.

Non-farm Employment: Policy makers are to generate non-farm employments to access alternative livelihoods and restore their income especially for women headed households, the elder women and disabled women, narrowing down the gap to enter the labour market between job requirements and their limited skill and low literacy level. In this way, women's economic dependence on their husbands can reduce and this has enabled them to improve their wellbeing.

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APPENDICES

Appendix - 1

I. Semi-structured Questionnaire for In-depth Interview

1.1 Respondent's Demographic Information

Name								
Village								
Township								
Date								
Start time					End Time			
Facilitator								
Participant	Gender	Current Occupation	Age	Ethnicity	Religion	Marital status	No. children	No. Family members
Remarks								

2. Division of Labour

2.2 Who usually takes responsibilities for domestic, productive and community work?

Activities	Before Displacement			After Displacement		
	Wife only	Husband only	Both	Wife only	Husband only	Both
Domestic works						
Cooking						
Washing						
Child bearing						
Cleaning						
Collecting fire woods,						
Fetching water						
Feeding animals						
Caring elderly people						
Others						
Productive works						
Farming						
Livestock raising						
Fishery						
Government servant						
Vendors						
Shopkeeper						
Casual labour						
Others						
Community work						
Attending Village meeting						
Leader of VDC						
Committee members						
President of village administrative bodies						
Receptions						
Others						

2.3 Who helps domestic work while doing IGA? (Before and after displacement)

2.4 Who makes decisions in what activities in your household?

Main Activity	Before Displacement			After Displacement		
	Wife	Husband	Both	Wife	Husband	Both
Food items						
Non-food items						

2.5 Can you make your own decision for any important case or do you have to negotiate with your husband or elder household member? Why?

2.6 Do you have any assets in your name? If yes, could you name them, please?

2.7 If no, what factors are influencing to women's control over productive assets?

2.8 Do you think that your roles have changed/ Are there any changes of gender division of labour/ gender roles due to the displacement? How?

3 Decision Making

3.2 What are your practical needs after displacement? Is that common in your surrounding after displacement?

3.3 Who make decisions over the use of received assistance? Why?

3.4 Who controls which type of expenditures?

4 Income, Saving and Debt

4.1 Income sources and income level

Before Displacement			After Displacement			Reasons for changes of income sources
Income Sources	Income level per month	Husband/ Wife/Both	Income Sources	Income level per month	Husband/ Wife/Both	

Before and after displacement:

- 4.2 Does your household income allow you to save? In which way? (Saving at home, bank, etc.)
- 4.3 Did anyone from your household borrow money last year? From whom?
- 4.4 Who took the responsibility to pay back the money?
- 4.5 What was the main purpose of borrowing money?

5 Access to and control over resources

- 5.1 Who is eligible for house ownership at the relocation site after displacement?
- 5.2 What facilities are available at the new site?
- 5.3 When you fall ill, how do you manage before displacement and after displacement? (E.g. go to clinic hospital / self-treatment etc)
- 5.4 Which are the diseases/illnesses that affect women after displacement?
- 5.5 Which diseases affect men after displacement?
- 5.6 Which diseases affect girls/boys/children after displacement?
- 5.7 Is there a need to upgrade women's skills to engage in income generating activities after displacement?
- 5.8 Are the facilities available after displacement?
- 5.9 Did you attend vocational training provided by income restoration program?
- 5.10 Did you find a job after the training?
- 5.11 What kinds of social groups did you participate at the community before displacement and after displacement?
- 5.12 Do you feel secure at relocation site? If yes, why?
- 5.13 If not, what makes you feel insecurity?

6 Barriers and Coping Strategy

- 6.4 What are barriers to women's ability to engage in income generating activities?
- 6.5 What are the main problems identified by men and women in this community?
- 6.6 What solutions have been tried so far to overcome the problems?

II. FGD

Respondents Profile

State/Region			
Township			
Village Tract			
Village			
Date			
Start time	End Time		
Facilitation Team	Facilitator	Note taker	
Participant 1	Occupation	Age	Marital Status
Participant 2	Occupation	Age	Marital Status
Participant 3	Occupation	Age	Marital Status
Participant 4	Occupation	Age	Marital Status
Participant 5	Occupation	Age	Marital Status
Participant 6	Occupation	Age	Marital Status
Participant 7	Occupation	Age	Marital Status
Participant 8	Occupation	Age	Marital Status
Remarks (List here special conditions or circumstances that may affect the discussion e.g. interruptions, lack of privacy etc.)			

1. Respondents' demography (Ethnic, religious, main livelihoods)

- 1.1 What kind of ethnic, religious are belonged to this community before and after displacement?
- 1.2 What is the main livelihood that this community work before and after displacement?
- 1.3 Have you known any of group that exist in your community before and after displacement? What are they doing?

2. Gender Divisions of Labour

- 2.1 Who does what inside the household before and after displacement? (example child raring, fetching water,)
- 2.2 Who works outside the household before and after displacement?
- 2.3 What are their types of work before and after displacement?
- 2.4 After displacement what are you doing? Roles? What about men? What are they doing?

3. Access to and Control over Resources

- 3.1 Any of compensation received due to displacement? What are they? Who used it?
- 3.2 Have you attended any consultation meeting? Why and why not? How often? Have you spoken any issue in the meeting?
- 3.3 Have you attended/ received any of training provided by income restoration program? What training?
- 3.4 How are the trainings useful for you?
- 3.5 Who is eligible for house ownership at the relocation site after displacement?
- 3.6 What kinds of facilities are available at the new site? (health care, education, market, water, electricity)
- 3.7 Which are the diseases/illnesses that affect women and men after displacement?
- 3.8 Do you feel secure at relocation site? If yes, why?
- 3.9 If not, what makes you feel insecurity?

4. Income, Saving and Debt

- 4.1 What are the common income sources for women and men before and after displacement?
- 4.2 Do have a practice to save money before and after displacement? In which way?

4.3 If you had to borrow money from others, what were the main purpose to borrow?

4.4 Who take the main responsibility to pay the loan back in your household?

5. Barriers and Coping Strategy

5.1 Have you seen any of violence in your surrounding? Why do you think it happen?

It was before or after displacement?

5.2 How have they overcome from the violence?

5.3 Any compliant mechanism and the use of that?

5.4 What are the needs of women and men?

5.5 What challenges that women and men faced before and after displacement?

5.6 What challenges that women and men currently face?

5.7 Why do you think that those challenges exist?

5.8 How have they overcome from that challenges? (Why and why not?)

III. Key Informant Interview Guide

1. How do you think that roles and responsibility of women and men in your community (both inside the household and in the community)?
2. Decision making power of women and men after displacement?
3. What types of compensation did displaced people from Resettlement Program?
4. What kind of vocational trainings support to women and men from Income Restoration Program?
5. How many of women get jobs in which activities after the training?
6. Have you seen any kind of violence that women and men faced before and after displacement?
7. What are the main challenges of women and men faced in this area?
8. How have they overcome from that challenges? Any difference between women and men?
9. Is there a strategy or action plan in place to address gender issues at the relocation site?
10. Do you want to add anything on our discussion or do you have any suggestion?

**YANGON UNIVERSITY OF ECONOMICS
MASTER OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION PROGRAMME**

**A STUDY ON RESETTLEMENT EFFECTS ON WOMEN
(A CASE STUDY OF MYAINGTHARYAR RESETTLEMENT SITE, THILAWA
SPECIAL ECONOMIC ZONE)**

**KHIN YU YU WIN
EMPA - 27 (15th BATCH)**

AUGUST, 2019

YANGON UNIVERSITY OF ECONOMICS
MASTER OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION PROGRAMME

A STUDY ON RESETTLEMENT EFFECTS ON WOMEN
(A CASE STUDY OF MYAINGTHARYAR RESETTLEMENT SITE, THILAWA
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A thesis submitted as a partial fulfillment towards the requirements for the degree of
Master of Public Administration (MPA)

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YANGON UNIVERSITY OF ECONOMICS
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This is to certify that this thesis entitled “**A STUDY ON RESETTLEMENT EFFECTS ON WOMEN (A CASE STUDY OF MYAINGTHARYAR RESETTLEMENT SITE, THILAWA SPECIAL ECONOMIC ZONE)**” submitted as a partial fulfillment towards the requirements for the degree of Master of Public Administration has been accepted by the Board of Examiners.

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ABSTRACT

Special economic zones are driving force for socio-economic progress of the society, but it also causes pain to the local people who are resettled from their motherland. Looking at the resettlement through a gender perspective is less common and little is known about the experiences of the women although some studies reveal the resettlement impact on local community. The objectives of the study are to examine the resettlement effects on women living at the resettlement site through gender lens and to address resettlement issues through gender perspective. Descriptive method was used by qualitative approach. The study found that the resettlement had more negative consequences to women in terms of more economic dependence on husband, less capability to support their family with basic food supply, less say on household decision-making and indebtedness. Access to trainings is a positive consequence to women after the resettlement. Thus, the resettlement made women's status weaken.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ADB	Asian Development Bank
IDI	In-depth Interview
IDP	Internally Displaced Persons
IRP	Income Restoration Program
JICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency
KII	Key Informant Interview
MJTD	Myanmar Japan Thilawa Development Limited
MTSH	Myanmar Thilawa SEZ Holding Company
OP	Operating Procedure
OSSC	One Stop Service Center
PAH	Project Affected Household
PAP	Project Affected People
SEZ	Special Economic Zone
TSMC	Thilawa SEZ Management Committee
WB	The World Bank

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Rationale of the Study

People are being displaced by development projects but do not go deeper into the discussion of women and resettlement (IDMC, 2018). Some projects are converting homes into dam-created reservoirs, highways, industrial complexes, tourist resorts and more. International standards state that the developers should improve or restore the livelihoods and living standards for the resettled households that are being moved due to development infused projects (Cornish, 2018). The standards and principles are rarely met, and developers give households cash compensation instead. Cash compensation put pressure on the families trying to rebuild their social and economic assets for their survival (Cornish, 2018). The world has seen more demonstrations against World Trade Organization and International Monetary Fund projects planned.

Myanmar government has given priority to Foreign Direct Investment as a key factor in the development of the nation. In particular, the Government expects Thilawa, Dawei, and Kyaukphyu Special Economic Zone to play an important role in economic development and in generating job opportunities for the Myanmar people. Thilawa Special Economic Zone which covers approximately 2,400 ha, has started development in the three SEZ since 2013. As the development area is too large to develop all at once, Thilawa SEZ was implemented in two development stages: a smaller Phase I on 400 ha and a larger Phase II on 2,000 ha of land. Even though the measures to minimize relocation impacts have been taken into consideration, physical and economic displacement is unavoidable for the development of the 2000ha Development Area. Massive displacement and resettlement for 1,123 households with a total population of 4,313 people inevitably occurred. A significant number of the displaced people were the economically marginalized rural people who have depended upon the natural resource base for their livelihood. Majority of residents living in the Phase 1 and II areas of the SEZ were relocated to Myaing Thar Yar

relocation site in Kyauktan Township.

Many researches have found that gender plays a role in how women and men affect women and men after a resettlement (Tulsi, 2009). UN women in Myanmar has identified women's role in the society which shows the different amount of work males and females do in the household. This raised the questions of how the resettlement was carried through and if there is a gendered perspective in the implementation of the resettlement. It is argued that men and women are affected differently by being displaced. If resettlement is affecting gender differently, international guidelines need to be informed about this issue and be aware of the effect's women face in the shadow of men.

Although special economic zones are driving force for socio-economic progress of the society, it causes sufferings to the local people who are forced to displace from their motherland. Many studies are being done to analyse the impacts of Thilawa SEZ on the resettled communities. However, looking at displacement and associated resettlement through a gender perspective is less common and little is also known about the experiences of resettled women from affected households in the development of special economic zones. Therefore, the issues of resettlement need to be identified from gender perspectives in Myanmar when SEZs are being implemented. This study is focused on assessing the resettlement effect on women living at the Myaing Thar Yar resettlement site in Thilawa SEZ with a particular emphasis on their livelihoods and gender issues.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

This study aimed to identify the resettlement effects on women through gender perspective. It described the specific challenges they face in accessing livelihoods and the perspectives of resettled women. The specific objectives are:

1. To examine the resettlement effects on women living at the relocation site
2. To address resettlement issues through gender perspective

1.3 Method of Study

Descriptive Method was used by qualitative approach. Primary data have been collected through focus group discussions (FGD), in-depth interviews (IDI) and key informant interview (KII) with three types of semi-structured interview questionnaires. The FGDs intended to gain insights in women's and men's perception

of significant changes of certain factors over a specified period of time. These focused on gathering a picture of the overall resettlement effects. The KIIs were conducted with some representatives living at the relocation site to get socio-economic information and the profile of relocation site. In-depth interviews with specific women provided a deeper understanding of resettled women's experiences and perceptions.

1.4 Scope and Limitations of the Study

The specific concern of the study is that it reflects the voices of women living at the resettlement site due to Thilawa SEZ. The study relies in-depth interviews and FGDs conducted with resettled women to identify their experiences regarding their socio-economic conditions and their status in resettlement site. It seeks to provide the insights into how SEZ-caused resettlement has affected the position of women and their survival through gender perspective. The study also aims to offer the suggestions on how resettled women can be better supported in enhancing their socio-economic status.

This study does not seek to assess the aspects of land acquisition, compensation, resettlement process and legal framework for Special Economic Zone against international standards and guidelines. In addition to this, the study focused on SEZ-affected people who lost their houses and was assisted by providing a substitute house at Myaing Thar Yar Resettlement site. At the time of the study at the resettlement site, majority of the households already sold their houses and moved out of the resettlement site although there were previously over 150 households at the resettlement site.

1.5 Organization of the Study

The study is organized as follows. Chapter 1 begins with the rationale of the study, objectives of the study, method of study, scope and limitations and organization of the study. Chapter 2 presents literature review of SEZs and its impacts to deeply understand and support in the study. Overview on special economic zones was described in Chapter 3. Empirical findings were analysed and discussed in Chapter 4 which is followed by conclusion, key findings and suggestions in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Resettlement Theoretical Review

In supporting infrastructure development projects, international development agencies recognize and accept the inevitability of displacement of some households and communities, although the key principle of involuntary resettlement policies is to “avoid involuntary resettlement wherever possible” (ADB, 2009).

2.1.1 Involuntary Resettlement

Involuntary displacement of persons occurs when a state agency acquires private property or limits access to public land. Such displacement affects not only the physically displaced, but also those who lost their livelihoods and the host population that eventually accommodates them. Loss of property and access to common land, community disintegration, and loss of income sources and livelihood are the common outcomes of involuntary displacement. Involuntary resettlement is a process that assists the displaced persons to replace their lost land, housing, and access to resources and services to restore and improve their socioeconomic and cultural conditions. Since the 1980s, international development agencies have developed their own policies on involuntary resettlement, indigenous peoples, and environment to identify, prevent, minimize, and mitigate the social and environmental harm of the development interventions they support. Such policies were labeled “safeguard” or “do-no-harm” policies (ADB, 2014).

2.1.2 Voluntary Resettlement

If a resettlement is voluntary, then it is likely to produce better outcomes for those displaced. However, what is labelled voluntary may involve manipulation and prior deprivation of the affected population. Free, prior, and informed consent may have not been gained (Wilmsen and Wang, 2015). Voluntary resettlements result in more favourable outcomes for the resettlers (Eriksen 1999; Li, Haihong, and Suhong

2011). It is said that voluntary resettlement does not have the same disruptive effects as involuntary resettlement (Baird and Shoemaker, 2007). Key features of voluntary resettlement are i) central focus and treated as an integral part of a long-term regional development process ii) Costs internalised as line items in project budgets iii) More financial and physical resources iv) More flexible to resettlement problems and unconstrained by time V) Primarily sponsored by government agencies Vi) Resettled population is not forced to move by government Decree vii) Aimed at solving pressures and conflicts over scarce resources and as an instrument of poverty reduction (Wilmsen, 2014).

National governments, international development banks, and aid organizations still subscribe to the voluntary– involuntary dichotomy. There are enormous benefits to labelling a resettlement voluntary. For one, it is more likely to attract backing from international aid organizations as they can justify their involvement as altruistic (Soltau and Brockington, 2007). The label also obscures more secondary motives for land acquisition such as securing a contested border or private investment. Whereas involuntary resettlement triggers a whole range of international and national policies and regulations that are supposed to protect the interests of the affected population, voluntary resettlement does not. Meeting these directives requires much commitment, planning, and funding from the state and its counterparts. It seems it is in the interest of state and non-state actors to maintain the voluntary/involuntary dichotomy (Baird and Shoemaker, 2007).

2.1.3 Overview on International Policies on Resettlement

Most international funding organizations and donors have developed policies and guidelines for environmental social considerations including relocation and resettlement occurring in development projects. In principle, international practices on relocation and resettlement are conducted based on these policies and guidelines.

According to the involuntary resettlement policy of the World Bank, “Involuntary resettlement may cause severe long-term hardship, impoverishment, and environmental damage unless appropriate measures are carefully planned and carried out.” Therefore, the overall objectives of its policy on involuntary resettlement are i) Involuntary resettlement should be avoided where feasible, or minimized, exploring all viable alternative project designs. ii) Where it is not feasible to avoid resettlement, resettlement activities should be conceived and executed as sustainable development

programs, providing sufficient investment resources to enable the persons displaced by the project to share in project benefits. Displaced persons should be meaningfully consulted and should have opportunities to participate in planning and implementing resettlement programs. iii) Displaced persons should be assisted in their efforts to improve their livelihoods and standards of living or at least to restore them, in real terms, to pre-displacement levels or to levels prevailing prior to the beginning of project implementation, whichever is higher.

The policy covers direct economic and social impacts that both result from Bank-assisted investment projects and are caused by the involuntary taking of land resulting in: (i) relocation or loss of shelter; (ii) loss of assets or access to assets; or (iii) loss of income sources or means of livelihood, whether or not the affected persons must move to another location. It applies to all project activities that result in involuntary resettlement, regardless of the source of financing.

According to Asian Development Bank (ADB) Safeguard Policy (2009), the aim of ADB Policy on Involuntary Resettlement is to avoid or minimise the impacts on people, households, businesses and others affected by the acquisition of land and other assets, including livelihood and income. Where resettlement is not avoidable, the overall goal of the ADB policy is to help restore the living standards of the affected people to at least their pre-project levels by compensating for lost assets at replacement costs and by providing, as necessary, various forms of support. The objectives of the involuntary resettlement policy are: (i) avoid involuntary resettlement wherever possible; (ii) minimize involuntary resettlement by exploring project and design alternatives, if involuntary resettlement is unavoidable; (iii) enhance, or at least restore, the livelihoods of all displaced persons in real terms relative to pre-project levels; and (iv) improve the standards of living of the displaced poor and other vulnerable groups.

ADB involuntary resettlement policy includes the following principles:(i) Screen the project early on to identify past, present, and future involuntary resettlement impacts and risks. Determine the scope of resettlement planning through a survey and/or census of affected persons, including a gender analysis, specifically related to resettlement impacts and risks (ii) Improve, or at least restore, the livelihoods of all affected persons through (a)land-based resettlement strategies when affected livelihoods are land based where possible or cash compensation at replacement value for land when the loss of land does not undermine livelihoods; (b)

prompt replacement of assets with access to assets of equal or higher value; (c) prompt compensation at full replacement cost for assets that cannot be restored; and (d) additional revenues and services through benefit sharing schemes where possible.

(iii) Provide physically and economically affected persons with needed assistance, including the following: (a) if there is relocation, secured tenure to relocation land, better housing at resettlement sites with comparable access to employment and production opportunities, integration of resettled persons economically and socially into their host communities, and extension of project benefits to host communities; (b) transitional support and development assistance, such as land development, credit facilities, training, or employment opportunities; and (c) civic infrastructure and community services, as required.

(iv) Improve the standards of living of the affected poor and other vulnerable groups, including women, to at least national minimum standards. In rural areas provide them with legal and affordable access to land and resources, and in urban areas provide them with appropriate income sources and legal and affordable access to adequate housing.

(v) Develop procedures in a transparent, consistent, and equitable manner if land acquisition is through negotiated settlement.

(vi) Ensure that affected persons without titles to land or any recognizable legal rights to land are eligible for resettlement assistance and compensation for loss of non-land assets.

(vii) Prepare a resettlement plan elaborating on affected persons' entitlements, the income and livelihood restoration strategy, institutional arrangements, monitoring and reporting framework, budget, and time-bound implementation schedule.

(viii) Prepare a resettlement plan elaborating on affected persons' entitlements, the income and livelihood restoration strategy, institutional arrangements, monitoring and reporting framework, budget, and time-bound implementation schedule.

(ix) Disclose a draft resettlement plan, including documentation of the consultation process in a timely manner, before project appraisal, in an acceptable place and a form and language(s) understandable to affected persons and other stakeholders. Disclose the final resettlement plan and its updates to affected persons and other stakeholders.

(x) Conceive and execute involuntary resettlement as part of a development project program. Include the full costs of resettlement in the presentation of project's cost and benefits. For a project with significant involuntary resettlement impacts, consider implementing the involuntary resettlement component of the project as a stand-alone operation.

(xi) Pay compensation and provide other resettlement entitlements before physical or

economic displacement. Implement the resettlement plan under close supervision throughout project implementation. (xii) Monitor and assess resettlement outcomes, their impacts on the standards of living of affected persons, and whether the objectives of the resettlement plan have been achieved by taking into account the baseline conditions and the results of resettlement monitoring. Disclose monitoring reports.

According to JICA guidelines (2010), the key principle of JICA policies on involuntary resettlement is summarized as: a) Involuntary resettlement and loss of means of livelihood are to be avoided when feasible by exploring all viable alternatives. b) When, population displacement is unavoidable, effective measures to minimize the impact and to compensate for losses should be taken. c) People who must be resettled involuntarily and people whose means of livelihood will be hindered or involve losses must be sufficiently compensated and supported, so that they can improve or at least restore their standard of living, income opportunities and production levels to pre-project levels. d) Compensation must be based on the full replacement cost as much as possible. e) Compensation and other kinds of assistance must be provided prior to displacement. f) For projects that entail large-scale involuntary resettlement, resettlement action plans must be prepared and made available to the public. g) In preparing a resettlement action plan, consultations must be prompted in the planning, implementation, and monitoring of resettlement action plans. h) Appropriate and accessible grievance mechanisms must be established for the affected people and their communities.

In addition to the above policies, JICA also applies the following policies stipulated in WB OP 4.12. a) Affected people are to be identified and recorded as early as possible in order to establish their eligibility through an initial baseline survey (including population census that serves as an eligibility cut-off date, asset inventory, and socioeconomic survey), preferably at the project identification stage, to prevent a subsequent influx of encroachers of others who wish to take advantage of such benefit. b) Eligibility of benefits cover the PAPs who have formal legal rights to land (including customary and traditional land rights recognized under law), the PAPs who don't have formal legal rights to land at the time of census but have a claim to such land or assets, and the PAPs who have no recognizable legal right to the land they are occupying. c) Preference should be given to land-based resettlement strategies for displaced persons whose livelihoods are land-based. d) Provide support for the

transition period (between displacement and livelihood restoration). e) Particular attention must be paid to the needs of vulnerable people among those displaced, especially those below the poverty line, landless, elderly, women and children, ethnic minorities etc. f) For projects that entail land acquisition or involuntary resettlement of fewer than 200 people, abbreviated resettlement plan is to be prepared.

2.1.4 Gender and Development Policy

The Gender and Development Policy (1998) adopts gender mainstreaming as a key strategy for promoting gender equity, and for ensuring that women participate and that their needs are explicitly addressed in the decision-making process for development activities. For projects that have the potential to cause substantial gender impacts, a gender plan is prepared to identify strategies to address gender concerns and the involvement of women in the design, implementation and monitoring of the project. The ultimate goal of mainstreaming is to achieve gender equality.

The needs and problems of women are likely to be different from those of men, particularly in terms of social support, services, employment and means of subsistence for survival. Relocated women might face greater difficulty than relocated men in reestablishing markets for home industry produce or small trade items if they are constrained by lack of mobility or by illiteracy.

It is essential to ensure that appropriate mechanisms are established to enable for women. Resettlement process often remains blind or unresponsive to gender inequality because gender is not integrated throughout the process. This causes marginalization to women from the opportunities and benefits of the process. And their issues are often not reflected in the process. As a result, women are heavily affected by displacement.

According to the Research by the World Bank, significant improvements are possible for women workers and employers if gender-inclusive assessments are conducted, policies established and implemented, dedicated services provided, and steps taken to ensure the representation of women in governance through dedicated committees and grievance mechanisms. (OXFAM, 2017)

Gender inequality in livelihoods can contribute to inequality in other domains. Women's lower incomes and more limited access to other resources required to secure a livelihood such as land, credit and assets reduce bargaining power within households. As such, women experience restricted ability to exercise their preferences

in the gender division of unpaid/paid labour, the allocation of household income and their ability to exit harmful relationships. Employment is a key mechanism for promoting gender equity and that gender equality in this domain can leverage change in other domains (Seguino, 2007; Ridgeway, 2011; Kabeer et al., 2013). It is not just access to employment or livelihoods, but also the relative quality of jobs that matters for economic empowerment. Segregation of women in low-wage insecure jobs will do little to improve their bargaining power if male household members have disproportionate control over good jobs. (UNDP, 2013)

2.2 Special Economic Zones

Special Economic Zones (SEZs) have become an increasingly popular instrument to promote economic development as policy-makers across developing countries are implementing special economic zones (SEZs) with the policy objectives to attract foreign direct investment, to create jobs, to increase household incomes, to increase economic activity in lagging regions within countries and to enable export diversification and economic transformation. Special Economic Zones are areas specially designated for commercial and supposedly export-oriented activities, under which private companies are able to take advantage of a platter of exemptions from taxation and from national laws on such matters as workers' rights. The first industrial zone was established in Ireland in 1959 and prior to the 1970s, the majority of zones were located in industrial countries. Developing countries, particularly those in Asia, began to integrate SEZ policy into their strategy for economic development. (Khandelwal and Teachout, 2016)

On the other hand, land acquisition is a major priority and cost for investors as well as a major source of conflict, human rights violations and negative social impacts for communities. SEZs have often been established by claiming large amounts of agricultural land. Millions and millions of people around the world are also being displaced from their homes, natural habitats, from their lands, from their living places and livelihoods. Thus, SEZs are highly controversial with the criticisms whether they make economic sense for the government and the country, through concerns about environmental impacts, to the negative impacts they have on local communities through displacement.

2.3 Displacement

Displacement mainly occurs due to men-made disaster and natural disaster. Men-made disasters include armed-conflict situation and large-scale development projects. Three types of displacement are common namely internal displacement, disaster-induced displacement and development-induced displacement. A disaster was defined as “a serious disruption of the functioning of a society, causing widespread human, material, or environmental losses which exceed the ability of the affected society to cope using its own resources” (UN). Large-scale development projects carried out by states, often with the assistance of the international community, often result in massive displacement of population from home. The World over “approximately fifteen million people each year are forced to leave their homes due to massive development projects.” (Terminski, 2012). According to the United Nations Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, the term Internally displaced persons (IDPs) were defined as “Persons who have been forced to flee their homes suddenly or unexpectedly in large numbers, as a result of armed conflict, internal strife, systematic violations of human rights or natural or man-made disasters, and who are within the territory of their own country.

2.4 Development-caused Resettlement

Development and displacement are interlinked with each other. Development is seen as both bringing benefits and imposing costs. Among its greatest costs has been the involuntary displacement of millions of vulnerable people. Causes of development projects causing displacement include water supply (dams, reservoirs, irrigation); urban infrastructure; transportation (roads, highway, canals); energy (mining, power plants, oil exploration and extraction, pipelines); agriculture expansion; parks and forest reserves; and population redistribution schemes; special economic zones, etc.

According to World Bank data to derive estimates of global figures, in the early 1990s, the construction of 300 high dams (above 15 meters) each year had displaced 4 million people. Urban and transportation infrastructure projects accounted for 6 million more displaced each year. Within one decade, according to a 1996 assessment, “at least 80 to 90 million people have been displaced by programs in only two development sectors. Population displacement by development programs is now a worldwide problem, of a magnitude previously unsuspected. Moreover, ongoing

industrialization, electrification, and urbanization processes are likely to increase, rather than decrease, the number of programs causing involuntary population displacement over the next 10 years.” Not only is development-induced displacement a widespread, and growing, phenomenon, but evidence suggests that while the beneficiaries of development are numerous, the costs are being borne disproportionately by the poorest and most marginalized populations.

According to the case studies of Three Gorges Project Resettlement, the living conditions at the Three Gorges Project Resettlement were also challenging. It is common for infrastructure conditions, particularly housing, to improve after resettlement even when resettlers are struggling to recover their livelihoods. The resettlers said their houses were bigger, were constructed from sturdier materials and had improved sanitation and communication infrastructure. The cost of the new houses, however, was a heavy burden for resettlers at both sites. The resettler stood on substantial debt to construct their new homes, despite receiving compensation. Most resettlers interviewed borrowed money from friends or relatives to meet the shortfall in compensation. This carries with it not only a hefty financial responsibility but also a social one. The new housing also altered the productive activities of the affected population. The resettlers lost their backyard economies. Backyard space was typically reduced from per household to an area inadequate to support sheep or cows or even to produce vegetables. The resettlers responded to the loss by locating their pigs and vegetables under the immature foliage of the orange trees. Corn and potatoes were mainly produced to feed the pigs. Eight years on, the orange trees have matured and light conditions are no longer conducive to growing vegetables. Unable to afford to buy feed, most farmers no longer raise pigs. In this sense, at both sites productive activities have become less diverse (Wilmsen and Wang, 2015).

2.5 SEZ-caused Resettlement Effects on Women

Special Economic Zones are areas specially designated for commercial and supposedly export-oriented activities, under which private companies are able to take advantage of a platter of exemptions from taxation and from national laws on such matters as workers' rights. They are seen as enclaves of quasi-foreign territory and are promoted as a way of attracting foreign direct investment and fostering the growth of export oriented foreign-exchange earning industries. Although they facilitate mainly private and profit-seeking enterprises, they are argued to contribute to “public

purpose” through the creation of jobs and, in general, through promoting economic development.

SEZs are, however, highly controversial. Criticisms range from questioning whether they make economic sense for the government and the country, through concerns about environmental impacts, to the negative impacts they have on local communities through displacement. Even within government circles there seems to be a concern that SEZs simply do not make economic sense. It has been suggested that the far-reaching tax and regulatory advantages given to companies in SEZs will simply lead to the relocation of existing production from normal “domestic” locations to tax exempt ones, leading to a huge loss of revenue to the state and loss of employment to the people that may outweigh any increase in investment and employment that would not otherwise have taken place.

Due to displacement, most big farmers become medium and the medium farmers become small and marginal. Those who were small marginal farmers become landless. Also support mechanisms such as the number of ponds, wells, poultry, cattle and draft animals that supplement agricultural income decline (Bharali, 2007).

Displacement not only results in physical dislocation, but also in women's disempowerment. Project authorities also failed to acknowledge women as a group that deserved specific attention in the resettlement and rehabilitation process. In the planning, execution and management of R&R activities, women rarely found place as decision makers. Most women in rural and tribal areas shoulder a tremendous burden in collecting fuel, fodder and water, contributing to household income. Women's interests are bound up with the collective interests of the household (Kabeer, 1990).

Michael Cernea has been identifying risks and why resettlement fail since 1980. Projects financed by public or private sector is a common trigger for forced displacement. He stressed how these development-induced projects fail to create sustainable resettlement and instead cause impoverishment at the displaced families. He further identifies that there are reasons for this misconception of how sustainable displacement are implemented and states believe that cash is a sufficient compensation for loss of income and livelihood. He acknowledges that development projects will continue, but the risks remain. He points out that when displaced, impoverishment is the risk and that the risks should be prevented if possible. The components of the risks are; 1) Landlessness 2) Joblessness 3) Homelessness 4) Marginalization 5) Food insecurity 6) Increased morbidity 7) Loss of access to

common property resources and 8) Community disarticulation (Cernea, 2004).

To restore land, or families land basis is crucial. Land itself is considered as natural and man-made capital that one loose when being resettled. Losing one's land can destroy family's foundation to their productive systems and if it is not restored accordingly, with new income possibilities, families become impoverished (Cernea, 2004).

Joblessness is the second risk caused to the resettlement after some time. It usually takes sometime before people are without employment because many has work during the resettlement and the project. However, the displacement will end and at this time people will be unemployed. There are three ways to be exposed to the risk: Unemployment in urban areas, loss of access to work on land owned by others and loss of assets under common property regimes (Cernea, 2004).

Joblessness is higher among women than among men. Women who want to work have to be satisfied with unskilled daily wage labour. It reduces women to being housewives alone depending on the man's single salary. But men spend a part of their salary on alcohol. It also deprives women of the resource that met the family's food, water and other needs that are traditionally their responsibility. Their role does not change but they have fewer resources to attend to it (Ganguly Thukral and Singh, 1995).

Loss of land or livelihood can result in loss of self-esteem in men, which in turn sometimes leads to violence against women and children. Alcoholism, prostitution, and gambling resulting from displacement affect the lives and status of women. Women are sometimes forced to face new forms of violence such as sexual abuse and prostitution. Gender disparities embedded in social practice and tradition render women vulnerable to sexual and physical violence. Social and cultural factors exclude women for actively participation in planning, implementing and executing resettlement activities.

While they are deprived of their sustenance, their role of catering to the nutritional, health and other needs of the family remains unchanged. Men become the only or main income earners since most jobs go to them. However, it is not certain that women get all the income or enough money to run the household. Men and children often absorb the value system of the dominant culture to which they are exposed through the workers from outside the region coming to the new industrial townships. So they spend more than in the past on clothes, entertainment and other trivia, thus making a

relatively small amount available for the woman to run the household. In other words, social factors like such cultural contact affect women more than men (Muricken et al. 2001).

The insecurity of not having a steady home or worrying about the standard of the new home can create loss of the groups cultural space which can create alienation and status deprivation. When governments force people to resettle they create new villages that might not satisfy families which create a sense of placelessness. Families have attachments to their homes and leave memories and capital and it usually take time before they move in to their new home (Cernea, 2004).

Economic marginalization occurs when families lose economic power from being displaced and find their skills no longer of use in their new location. Psychological marginalization has signs of anxiety and decline of self-esteem because of their deprivation of economic possibilities. Predicting that during resettlement, food crops and income will decline which could potentially create food insecurity. Furthermore, rebuilding the food supply and production for families can take years, which lead to long insecurity (Cernea, 2004).

When a large amount of people is displaced, the risks of illness and psychological traumas increase. The most vulnerable among the displaced are children and elderly. Outbreaks such as diseases from unsanitary water and malaria can occur and people are more prone to the risks after the resettlement than before. Examples from earlier displacement show different types of outbreaks that are a direct danger to resettlers. Other dangers include risks of drowning, especially when infrastructure-induced projects are being implemented and people are not aware of the new dams because of lack of information (Cernea, 2004).

Loss of Access to Common Property and Services: Common property refers to common land use such as forest, water bodies, burial grounds and school etc. For people with low income or families whom are landless, the loss of these common properties could inflict possibilities to a dignified life (Cernea, 2004) the loss of these commons is rarely compensated for by the government when displaced. Families may get lower social standing and the life get though as families have new struggles (Cernea, 2004).

Being forced to move tear communities apart and can destroy bounds between neighbors and social capital for individuals. Social patterns in the communities are notably changed and the stigma around resettlers might cause isolation. A study on a

dam project conducted by Behura and Nayak in 1993 showed that the loss of intimate bonds, alienation and loss of control for social patterns and behavior. Decreased participation in group activities such as feasts and pilgrims were a clear indication that alienation lowered the social status for the resettled people (Cernea, 2004).

Social impact of dislocation tends to affect women more than men. Breakdown of community and other social networks as a direct result of dislocation can affect women more than men because women rely and depend on community and other social networks for emotional and practical support, such as distance from workplace, physical safety, availability of facilities, taking care of children, proximity of kin. Dislocation can be traumatic if these networks break down. Because of displacement, increase of social evils and violence against women could increase.

Compensation payments are generally part of legal domain and women may not be formally eligible to receive them. Compensation payments to households are not always equitably distributed within households. Experience has shown that men and women use compensation money differently and that compensation paid to male household heads is not necessarily solely used for rehabilitation and restoration of livelihoods. Instances of injudicious use of compensation payments by males such as for personal consumption or to gain prestige and status within the community are not known.

Also experience indicates that some affected persons spend cash compensation quickly and become impoverished. Often the needs of women and children are not met if cash compensation is paid to the male head of household. Security of tenure is also important. It can be more important for displacement women because they could become disenfranchised. Single women, widows, and women-headed households could potentially be divested of land and property by family members. (ADB, 2013)

Restoration of livelihood and income is equally important to women and men. Women are largely engaged in the informal sector; gathering forest produce, working in the fields, or selling produce. Women's economic activities can be an important source of income for households. Dislocation can result in loss of livelihood, adding to women's economic activities in planning and executing resettlement programs. Low levels of training and education among women limit the choice of alternatives. Rehabilitation packages include compensation opportunities for alternative occupations. Choices for exploring alternatives and livelihood options for women are limited because of their low level of skills, education, and exposure. Planning for

occupational and livelihood options for women is crucial. Women are responsible for food, fuel and fodder in the family. Due to displacement, fuel and fodder can become scarce. This can have direct impact on women because they are responsible for gathering fuel and fodder. Unless this impact is addressed in resettlement planning and execution, it could result in women spending more time and resources accessing these basic needs. Loss of grazing areas could also result in sale of livestock. The first to be hit will be the females. There is likelihood that nutritional and health status of women is lower than men (ADB, 2013)

A mode of coping with it is drunkenness. One of its results is rise in domestic violence. Both drinking and domestic violence existed before displacement but they increase enormously after displacement as a coping mechanism meant to deal with the trauma. It becomes a coping mechanism even of many women. Since they have no work, many of them spend their time gossiping or drinking as we noticed even in a rehabilitation colony in Orissa (Fernandes and Raj, 1992).

A second coping mechanism is internalisation of the dominant ideology. For example, influenced by the consumerist values that enter their area with the outsiders coming to the township, men spend much of their income on clothes and entertainment. Hence, even those who earn a higher monetary income than in the past leave women with a relatively little share of their salary to attend to their role in the family. Thus, women have to find economic alternatives in order to deal with the reality of catering to family needs with reduced resources. In the absence of other alternative many of them sell their body since that is the only asset they own (George, 2002).

Women too often internalise the dominant ideology as a coping mechanism. For example, when less food is available than in the past, many take to the dominant custom of the woman eating last after feeding the elders, men, boys and girls in that order. As stated above, most women are forced to take up unskilled daily wage jobs since they do not have other alternatives. Some men whom the project employs as maintenance staff in their offices do not want their wives to do domestic or other unskilled work because “it is against an office worker’s dignity to have his wife doing menial work”. Many women internalise the ideology of their place being in the kitchen and of not being intelligent enough for skilled work (Menon, 1995). It closes the vicious circle against them.

2.6 Review on Previous Studies

The applicant reviewed some previous studies on research papers and thesis. Preview studies reviews are namely i) A study on foreign direct investment in Thilawa Special Economic Zone (2014 -2018)” submitted by Chu Myat Thu (2018) ii) “A study on the Land Management of General Administration Department of Thanlyin and Kyauktan Townships” submitted by Khin Htar New (2018) iii) “Analysis of Land Use Policy Reform in Myanmar (2003-2013)” submitted by Aimee Zaw (2016).

According to Chu Myat Thu (2018) “SEZs were implemented to create job opportunities, get a transfer of technology, and improve FDI in serving to develop the economy in Myanmar. She found that Thilawa SEZ contributes advantages such as good connectivity from Yangon, good alternative site from Yangon, proximity to manpower and ready labor, and generally regular-shaped boundary. All necessary infrastructures for investors were made available in the Thilawa SEZ. As establishing Thilawa SEZ, many opportunities were created for Myanmar citizens.”

Khin Htar Nwe (2018) stated that “the lack of checking/monitoring of business operation by respective ministries or departments, also leads to the said form of monopoly and cause of intentionally getting lease with another purpose other than the business they applied for. She also mentioned that standard values used for calculation are outdated, and it is an unreasonable value for the present time and current market value. With the exception of Master Plan of Government or any other SEZ project, the lease of a huge plot should not be granted for private interests by means of Industrial and Commercial purpose.”

Aimee Zaw (2016) mentioned that “as poor management agriculture, urban expansion, the land tenure and its rights were unclear, land conflicts over land in a suitable ratio occurred in Myanmar. Thus land reform based on land distribution is not really a critical condition for Myanmar up till now. But existing land law should be viewed and revised for more secure rights for the land holders. Land policies and land laws are influencing the behavior of holders in Myanmar. Besides, transparent land government is needed for the new paradigm of pro-poor land access to succeed and to include specific approaches and modules to reach out to particular stakeholders like ethnic minorities, families living in conflict zones (and thus affected by land mines), women, and disadvantaged groups.”

It is found that the above previous studies were done from the perspectives of foreign direct investment by Thilwa SEZ, Land management and land use policy reform. As earlier mentioned in the rationale of my study, there are few previous studies from the perspective of women affected by SEZ-induced displacement. Thus, the issues of SEZ-induced displacement need to be understood from different perspectives in Myanmar particularly when SEZs are being developed.

CHAPTER III

OVERVIEW ON RESETTLEMENT

3.1 Overview on Relevant Laws and Policies

The Constitution identifies that state is owner of all lands as well as all natural resources above and below the ground, above and beneath the water and in the Union's atmosphere. Citizens and organizations are allocated land use rights, but do not own land. The Ward or Village Tract Administration Law (2012) provides the formation of wards or villages, assigning administrator for security, prevalence of law and order, community peace and tranquility and carrying out the benefit of the public.

The Vacant, Fallow and Virgin Lands Management Law (2012) governs the allocation and use of virgin land and vacant or fallow land. The law establishes the Central Committee for the Management of Vacant, Fallow and Virgin Land which is responsible for granting and rescinding use rights for such lands. This also outlines the purposes for which the committee may grant use-rights; conditions that land users must observe to maintain their use rights; and restrictions relating to duration and size of holdings. The Central Committee is also empowered (Chapter VII, Section 19) to repossess the land from the legitimate owner, after payment of compensation calculated based on the current value to cover the actual investment cost, for infrastructure and other special projects in the interest of the State.

Under the Farmland Law 2012 the State remains the ultimate owner of all land. Both the Farmland law and the Vacant, Fallow and Virgin Lands Management Law result in farmers lacking land tenure security and being required to follow government's crop prescriptions and production quotas. The main concerns include protection for farmers from losing land to locally approved investment projects, and the efficient use of land and water resources. The government recognizes the need for Myanmar to have comprehensive sustainable land use and management policies in order to develop and improve living conditions and incomes in rural communities.

The Land Acquisition Act of 1894 establishes the basis for the state to acquire land for public use and is yet to be superseded by more recent legislation. The law

specifies a systematic approach for acquisition and compensation of land and other properties for development Projects. It stipulates actions related to notifications, surveys, acquisition, and compensation and entitlements, along with disputes resolution, penalties and exemptions. The law also provides for disclosure of information on surveys to affected persons Environmental Law.

There are environmental related laws that can affect land use and its conservation. The Environmental Law (2012) promotes ecosystem and biological resources services to ensure sustainable development not only for present but also for future generations. Regulations and standards related to the Law are close to being completed.

3.2 Establishment of Special Economic Zones

Myanmar is a developing country that ranks among the most difficult markets in the world to operate a business. Since 2010, the Myanmar government has implemented political and economic reforms aimed at spurring growth and increasing the country's participation in the global economy. One objective of these reforms is to bring about structural change that makes Myanmar more reliant on the manufacturing sector. Efforts to advance this objective centre on the creation of Special Economic Zones (SEZs), designated enclaves that facilitate imports, exports and foreign direct investment.

The Special Economic Zone Law, enacted by the Union Parliament in January 2014, establishes the legal framework for developing and governing SEZs in Myanmar. The SEZ Law and SEZ Rules are designed to attract investment in the zones by providing beneficial arrangements to investors, including extendable 50-year land leases as well as tax and customs benefits. The SEZ Law establishes special governance bodies to facilitate the development, operations and investments in the zones. This sets out the key institutions of decision making and management. "Special economic zone" means a specified zone, notified and established as special economic zone under this law by the central body by demarcating the land area; "Central body" means the central body, formed by the Union Government under this law, for the administration of the special economic zones in Myanmar;" Central working body" means the central working body, formed by the central body under this law, in order to support the central body;" Management committee" means the management committee formed under this law to manage, administer and supervise the relevant

special economic zone;" Responsible ministry" means the Union ministry charged by the Union Government with being responsible for implementing the necessary functions and duties under this law.

The objectives of this law are (a) To support the main goals of the national economic development project; (b) To increase job opportunities for the people, to ameliorate their living standard, to promote the production of commodities, to increase export and to earn more income in foreign exchange; (c) To encourage, promote and entice the harmonious development of the industry, economy and society; (d) To promote industrial, economic and commercial enterprises, cooperation in services and finances between the state and other countries and to provide opportunities to citizens to learn vocational skills; (e) To encourage and entice local and foreign investment by constructing infrastructure for developers and investors;(f) To promote local and foreign investments in the special economic zones, to create new employment opportunities and to create industries next to the special economic zones.

The Union Government for the establishment and operation of special economic zones, form a central body for the administration of the special economic zones in Myanmar, composed of a suitable person as chairman and suitable persons from the relevant ministries, government departments and organizations as members; The central body shall, with the approval of the Union Government: (a) in order to administer special economic zones, form a central working body, composed of relevant personnel from government departments and organizations; (b) when forming the central working body according to sub-section (a), determine the duty of, and assign duty to, its chairman, vice-chairman, secretary and joint-secretary; The Ministry of Home Affairs shall arrange for the confiscation or transfer of land that is located in the area where a special economic zone is specified and intended to be established by the central body in accordance with the existing laws.

Central Body is a single committee appointed at Union level, which has ultimate responsibility and decision making power over the implementation of SEZs, including related policy making. Central Working Body is appointed at Union level, will assist in the implementation of SEZ activities, including scrutinizing proposals and submitting recommendations to the Central Body for decision making. SEZ Management Committee is appointed by the Central Body for each SEZ development,

responsible for implementing and supervising the development and investment, coordinating with relevant central government ministries, and establishing a one-stop shop service for investors. It must include one representative from the state or regional government. The chairperson is responsible to the president, through the Central Body. The SEZ Law explicitly requires investors to abide by the Myanmar Environmental Conservation Law and international standards, although it does not specify which standards. However, the 2015 EIA Procedure, enacted under the Environmental Conservation Law, requires that complex projects conform to the World Bank Policy on Involuntary Resettlement. (ICJ, 2017)

3.2.1 Thilawa Special Economic Zone

Among the three SEZs, Thilawa Special Economic Zone is one of the first most successful SEZ in Myanmar. The allocated land for Thilawa SEZ zone is approximately 5027 acres (approximately 2400 hectares) located in Thanlynn and Kyauktan townships in Yangon Region. Thilawa SEZ is positioned in geographically strategic location on the bank of Yangon River and about 38 kilometers away from Mingaladon International Airport and 23 kilometers from downtown area of Yangon Commercial District.

Thilawa SEZ project was realized by the close cooperation between Japan and Myanmar with Public Private Partnership format by forming Myanmar Japan Thilawa Development Limited MJTD as the developer of the zone where Thilawa SEZ Management Committee (TSMC) on behalf of the Government of Myanmar, Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) on behalf of the Government of Japanese, Myanmar Thilawa SEZ Holdings Company as Myanmar private consortium and Mitsubishi, Marubeni, Sumitomo as Japanese private consortium have stakes. Therefore, Thilawa SEZ has easy transport access to maritime, air and road for both domestic and international business.

Thilawa SEZ Management Committee (TSMC) and the zone developer MJTD signed the agreement on the 5th June 2014 for the development of the Zone (A) plan comprising the area of 405 hectares as the first phase approving the right to lease the land for the total period of total period of 75 years with the initial 50 years of lease when signing agreement that is extendable for another 25 years. The inauguration of the grand opening of Zone (A) was held on the 23th September 2015. The sale of the industrial areas was faster than expected as more than 95% of the land in Zone (A) are

reserved and leased by 90 investors from 17 countries. The development of Zone (B) for 101 hectares was implemented on the 24th February 2017, an early completion of the internal basic infrastructure is expected to be accomplished before the end of June, 2018.

Thilawa SEZ Management Committee (TSMC) has established the One Stop Service Center (OSSC) from various government departments under its close supervision in order to provide efficient and fast services to customers and investors. Thilawa SEZ Management Committee (TSMC) together with its One Stop Service Center (OSSC) team comprised of designated officers from 13 relevant ministries are providing quick and reliable, predictable services to all investors by maximizing use of advance technology and best practices, and minimizing use of direct communication among people to people approach. Road and Transportation Administration Department and Food and Drug Administration Department are not directly stationed but are on call whenever investors required services. (DICA, 2016)

3.2.2 Dawei Special Economic Zone

Dawei is located in Myanmar's southern Tanintharyi Region. The Dawei SEZ was launched in 2008. The initial phase of Dawei SEZ includes constructing a two-lane road (138km), a wharf to accommodate 15,000-40,000 tonne vessels, an industrial zone for labour intensive industries, a power plant, residential buildings and a water supply system. Future plans include a motorway linking Dawei SEZ with Thailand's Kanchaburi province, as well as a railway and links to oil and gas pipelines. The Italian-Thai Development Public Company Limited was initially announced as the successful bidder. However in 2013, the Government invited other international investors to submit fresh bids, with a final decision yet to be announced. (Myanmar Investment Guide, 2018)

3.2.3 Kyauk Phyu Special Economic Zone

Kyauk Phyu SEZ is located in the western region of Rakhine State. The first phase comprises the development of 100 hectares of industrial park, a deep-sea port with a container handling capacity of 80,000 20-foot equivalent units. The SEZ has Expressions of Interest from local and international developers for the development of a deep-sea port, an industrial park and an integrated residential area. A Singapore-based consortium has been assigned to develop the master plan, in close cooperation

with the Bid Evaluation and Awarding Committee of Kyauk Phyu SEZ. The Kyauk Phyu SEZ Management Committee was newly assigned in October 2016 and negotiating a transaction document is underway with CITIC Consortium which was winner of the international bid as developer of the SEZ.

3.3 The Effects of Special Economic Zones

Regarding the effects of Thilawa SEZ, while the new houses for displaced people were often better than their old ones and compensation was also on an acceptable level, they were left without jobs and livelihood. Most of them used to work as farmers but after the relocation, they were not given any farmland. In the SEZ, they could only be hired as cleaners or security guards which did not pay well enough to sustain a family. Even though the companies in the SEZ provided trainings for more qualified jobs, local people were mostly not educated enough to be allowed to attend these trainings. Thus, once the compensation money had run out after about a year, it was difficult to sustain a living as there were no jobs for them. This often prompted them to incur debts for which they pawned their houses. In this process, 18 out of the 68 displaced households were not able to repay the money and thus lost their home to money lenders. Compared to non-relocated households, relocated house-holds in Thilawa had significantly higher risks of falling into debts. This is mainly due to the fact that they have less or no farmland and are thus in need of buying food. While resettlement houses were often of better qualities as they provided better roofing or better access to water, the lack of sustainable income had many people spiral into debt. These experiences from Thilawa show that compensation should not only be paid in monetary terms but must also include the possibility to find jobs and thus livelihoods after resettlement. (Sternage, 2018)

According to Earth rights International's report with regard to Dawei Special Economic Zone, that men are more likely than women to have access to project information; that livelihoods associated with women, such as collecting and selling shellfish, may be particularly vulnerable if the SEZ project resumes; that boys are more likely than girls to finish their education, leaving them better prepared for a changing livelihood situation; that men have more power and influence over matters relating to land acquisition and financial compensation; and that men are more likely than women to gain employment opportunities if jobs emphasize technical skills and capacities. Positions of power in these villages are almost exclusively held by men in trade, administration,

social welfare networks and activities, and religious activities. For community members in SEZ project areas, the SEZ stands to reinforce and exacerbate existing gender hierarchy.

In Kyaukphyu, at the site of the prospective SEZ, opinion is divided. While urban residents are optimistic that the industrial park will bring much needed jobs, rural people also see this possibility but they are a lot more skeptical and fear that their land will be taken away without any proper compensation in the form of new jobs. Bearing in mind previous megaprojects, there is a general fear that projects like in Kyaukphyu will eventually not benefit the local population. If land is taken away without sufficient compensation, if waters are polluted, if trainings are not provided and jobs are not suitable for local people, then the Kyaukphyu SEZ will heavily harm local residents. The uncertainty about jobs mainly stems from the fact that there is no clear path how the Kyaukphyu SEZ will contribute to Kyaukphyu's local development. The only clear thing is that jobs will be created in the construction of the SEZ which is, however, not enough to make up for the loss of livelihood because construction work will only be temporary. CITIC, the Chinese firm with the most stakes in developing the SEZ, claimed in its original feasibility study that 100,000 jobs will be created in the area. However, as Arakan Oil Watch argues, the lack of skills among the local population will most likely lead to a lot of these jobs being filled by people outside Kyaukphyu. (Sternage, 2018).

Women in Kyauk Phyu have a lower socioeconomic status than men because of gender discrimination. They are not represented in key positions of authority in local administration, religious institutions or on the SEZ Management Committee. This makes women less likely to receive relevant and timely information about the SEZ, and to participate in decision-making processes affecting them. Economic and demographic transformations associated with big infrastructure projects can have significant impacts, for better or worse, on women. Experiences in Myanmar and in Asia indicate that women are more likely than men to be employed in textiles, which may be a key entry point for local employment in the SEZ. However recent studies show that conditions in Myanmar's garment factories are often exploitative. If jobs materialize, these may be insufficient to restore the livelihoods of persons displaced by the SEZ.

3.4 The Effect of Upper Paunglaung Dam

Upper Paunglaung dam was executed for hydro power in Shan State in 2015. This infrastructural development project is financed by foreign firms from China, Switzerland and Britain and implemented by the Myanmar government (PHR, 2015). This project forced 2,524 households and 9,755 people to resettle due to the rising reservoir (Spectrum, 2017). The resettlement in the Upper Paunglaung dam affected men and women differently. Women face more barriers than men. They had difficulties to restore the families living standards before the resettlement and they felt stressed and despair. The productivity and main income come from agriculture and farming. After resettlement, there is more likely that the households are a cash-based economy which is different from before (Cornish et al. 2018).

The dam was launched in 2014 when 23 villages had been resettled which was 2,524 households and 9,755 people (Spectrum, 2017). The resettlement therefore left the households with a great concern, the economic future, and the loss of economic opportunities. As earlier farmers, the economic downfall has been the biggest concern. Households have been experiencing economic stress because of the new location, forcing people to change their lifestyles to go around. Finding income has been the major problem with adjusting to the settlement. For the households to maintain their land and house, the men in the households seek employment elsewhere, abroad or in larger cities. The women also said that they want to leave the Upper Paung Laung Dam settlement and live with their husbands, but they waited for their children to grow older. Spectrum therefore saw that the women did not see a future in the settlement, especially without agricultural opportunities. Because of their previous knowledge in farming, the only option to continue is to move.

Another change that affects women greatly is the changes in household dynamics after the resettlement. Women suffer from stress because of the economic uncertainty and struggle to buy necessities, even if their husbands are sending remittances to cover expenses. Moreover, the failed economic opportunities for the households are reportedly the most dramatic change they encountered. This cause worry and distress among affected groups and especially women. Women have to find work that generates more income than the remittances their husbands send. The economic stress experienced by women. If women could have been a part of the information sharing, they would want job security, better compensation, guaranteed agricultural land and cultivation of the agricultural land before the relocation

happened (Spectrum, 2017).

The resettlement in the Upper Paung Laung dam in Myanmar affected men and women differently. The mechanism accounted for the gendered effect was the exclusion for them to get the same information about the resettlement as men did. This meant a loss of power and isolation in the community. They did not get the same advantages as men to discuss compensation from a female perspective which made the compensation angled to what the men in the community demanded. Women are not the main wage earner in the household, but they still suffer from economic stress. They are forced to rely on the husband's remittances to be able to have enough income each month for necessities. If the income each month is not enough, the women might need to do labor work, alongside the other duties Myanmar women have, such as domestic work and caretakers for elderly and children. Suicides and depression have become more common after the resettlement. The mentioned above put pressure on women as the effects of the resettlement and they create stress and worry to women. However, women indicate that community development has become better. Children can go to school and there are health care centers nearby, creating a security for the household (Wistbacka, 2018).

CHAPTER IV

SURVEY ANALYSIS

This chapter includes two parts; one presents overview on the survey area as well as profile of the respondents. Another part presents in details how the resettlement affected to women living at the relocation site that has been displaced by Thilawa Special Economic Zone Development.

4.1 Survey Profile

The Thilawa SEZ was implemented in two development stages: a smaller Phase I on 400 ha and a larger Phase II on 2,000 ha of land. Majority of residents living in the Phase 1 and II areas of the SEZ were relocated to Myaing Thar Yar relocation site, Kyauktan township where they were provided with replacement land on which to build new homes. As for Phase I area development, 68 project affected households were being relocated at the relocation site by late 2013. The number of project affected households to be affected by the development of Phase II area was 91 in December 2016. The common livelihoods of project affected people were farming, casual labour/odd jobs, some livestock production and small enterprises.

Due to the loss of house, a substitute house was provided at the resettlement site or the equivalent money to cover house construction costs for those who prefer to construct their own house at the resettlement site. Monetary assistance was also provided for losses of other fixed assets (livestock barns), large livestock (buffalo and cow) and agriculture machines. As for land-based income sources, monetary assistance was calculated based on crop yield by referring to national regulations. As for non-land-based income sources, monetary assistance was paid in the form of an allowance of wages for the period of disrupting income generating activities due to relocation. Assistance for vulnerable groups was provided since relocation affects vulnerable groups more severely than others. Vulnerable groups include a household headed by a woman, disabled person or an elderly person (over 61 years old), a household including a disabled person or a household below the poverty line.

As part of income restoration program, households living in or engaged in income generating activities inside the Phase I area whose livelihoods were affected due to implementation of the project are eligible to participate in the Income Restoration Program (IRP). The IRP is in-kind assistance provided to PAPs in order to restore and stabilise their livelihoods and income sources. The IRP focuses on diversified economic activities for PAPs to generate income for three years after resettlement, to enable them to cover their basic needs after relocation. In order to restore their livelihoods, with an assistance package through the IRP, this includes vocational training and other support measures.

At the time of the study, many of project affected people have sold out their houses at the relocation site and approximately half of project affect people were found living at the relocation site.

4.2 Survey Design

4.2.1 Methodology

Descriptive method was used by qualitative approach with primary data collection tools namely in-depth interview, focus group discussion, key informant interview and observation. Non-probability purposive sampling was applied. 22 female respondents living at the relocation site were selected based on their age group, marital status and occupation. Focus Group Discussions with women specific groups and men specific groups were also done. In the FGDs, 15 male respondents and 15 female respondents participated. Key informant interviews were conducted with two representatives from the resettlement community at the relocation site. As secondary collection data collection, various relevant research papers, articles, documents, reports was reviewed.

4.2.2 Questionnaire Development

Two sets of semi-structured questionnaires were developed for in-depth interview and focus group discussion with the categories namely i) Respondents' characteristics, ii) Gender division of labour, iii) Decision making on household expenditures, iv) Access to and control over resources, v) Income, saving and debt, and vi) barriers and coping strategies to obtain detailed information on the perception of resettled women from affected households. Guide questions were also prepared for key informant interview to find out the general information of the relocation site and

their perception on socio-economic conditions of women and men living at the relocation site.

4.3 Survey Result

Data collected through semi-structured questionnaires was used for qualitative analysis to get deeper insights into how the resettlement affected women living at the relocation site and their coping strategies. Obtained data from In-depth interviews, Key informant interviews and FGDs was categorized into key categories namely i) Respondents' characteristics, ii) Gender division of labour, iii) Decision making on household expenditures, iv) Access to and control over resources and v) Income, saving and debt, and vi) barriers

4.3.1 Characteristics of Respondents

The table shows distribution of respondents by sex and type of interview. The survey had 52 respondents in total with 15 male respondents and 37 female respondents respectively. There were 30 respondents in Focus Group Discussions (FGD) and 22 respondents in In-depth Interview. FGDs were equally held to 15 male respondents and 15 female respondents. There was no male respondent in in-depth interviews and all 22 respondents were females.

The respondents were categorized into six groups: 20 – 30, 31 – 40, 41 – 50, 51 – 60 and 61 above. Majority of the respondents (33%) fell into 41 – 50 age group, followed by those who were between 31 and 40 years old (29%), and 20 – 30 age group (17%). The respondents who were over 61 contributed with 13%. The smallest portion of the respondents belonged to 51 – 60 age group at 8%.

In this study, three categories of marital status can be seen: single, married and widow. Of the respondents, there was only one respondent who was single (3%). 47 respondents (90%) were under the married category and 4 respondents belonged to the category of widow at 8%.

Over half of respondents (56%) are dependents with 6 males and 23 females who are housewives and depend on their husbands' earning, followed by 19% of wagers where 3 males and 7 females, respectively. Among respondents, 5 men and 3 women work casual and this contributes to 15% of respondents. There are 10% of respondents who run their small-scale home businesses such as small shops.

Table (4.1) Characteristics of Respondents

SN	Description	Male	Female	Total
1	Age Group			
	20 – 30	2 (13%)	7 (19%)	9 (17%)
	31 – 40	4 (27%)	11 (30%)	15 (29%)
	41 – 50	4 (27%)	13 (35%)	17 (33%)
	51 – 60	0	4 (11%)	4 (8%)
	> 60	5 (33%)	2 (5%)	7 (13%)
	Total	15 (100%)	37 (100%)	52 (100%)
2	Marital Status			
	Single	0	1 (3%)	1 (3%)
	Married	15 (100%)	32 (60%)	47 (90%)
	Widow	0	4 (11%)	4 (8%)
	Total	15 (100%)	37 (100%)	52 (100%)
3	Occupation			
	Dependent	6 (40%)	23 (62%)	29 (56%)
	Wage worker	3 (20%)	7 (19%)	10 (19%)
	Casual worker	5 (33%)	3 (8%)	8 (15%)
	Home business	1 (7%)	4 (11%)	5 (10%)
	Total	15 (100%)	37 (100%)	52 (100%)

Source: Survey, 2019

4.3.2 Gender Division of labor

The table indicates that the engagement of men and women in gender division of labour including domestic activities, productive activities and community activities and the resettlement affects gender division of labour. Domestic activities include cooking, washing, child care, cleaning houses, collecting firewood, fetching water, feeding animals and caring elderly people. Productive activities include farming, livestock raising, casual labour and vendors. Community activities include attending committee meeting and involvement community affairs.

The resettlement has not changed much on the engagement of women and men in domestic activities. As women are occupied with domestic activities due to the fact men are considered as household heads as well as breadwinners while women are traditionally regarded as care takers like their engagement in cooking, washing, cleaning, child-care and water collection. Some women who joined income earning

activities after resettlement mentioned that these tasks remain under women's responsibilities. Women received some supports from their male counterparts only when they were sick.

Due to the resettlement, the engagement of both men and women in productive activities has decreased. Before resettlement, men and women did farming and livestock activities together in farmlands as their main livelihood. Women took responsibilities for selling agricultural produces. After the resettlement, loss of lands made their livelihood disrupted. At the relocation site, there were no surplus land to do farming related activities for women and men; particularly most of the women were jobless.

The involvement in community activities increased after the resettlement as their previous living places were located far from main road and not like the type of ward composition, meetings were not held in their community before the resettlement. After relocation, almost all women attended community meetings to discuss relocation related matters at the relocation site. Majority of participants who attended the meetings were women as men were occupied with their jobs. Their participation in the meeting was passive as they seldom discussed.

If compared before and after resettlement situations of women regarding division of labour, women's involvement in community role like attending meetings after resettlement was seen significantly. Women's productive role in earning income from farming and livestock related activities totally disappeared and some started to engaged in either garment factories or helpers/cleaners at company offices located in Special Economic Zone (SEZ). As husbands' income alone was not enough for the survival of the entire family, borrowing money fell under women's responsibilities.

Table (4.2) Gender Division of Labour

Description	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Domestic activities				
Male	3	6%	0	0%
Female	42	81%	47	90%
Productive activities				
Male	21	40%	12	23%
Female	11	21%	2	4%
Community activities				
Male	3	6%	9	17%
Female	2	4%	25	48%

Source: Survey, 2019

4.3.3 Decision Making on Household Expenditures

The table shows decision making on household expenditure of the respondents. All respondents were asked whether resettlement affected women's decision making power on household expenditures which were categorized into small food items, non-food items and important matter. Food items consist of expenditure on rice, oils, meat/fish, vegetable, etc. while Non-food items consist of expenditure on buying fixed assets, education, health care, clothes, etc.

Almost all women respondents usually made decisions on small items such as buying and cooking meal independently. The resettlement did not occur any changes related with decision-making on small items.

Regarding non-food items, women's decision making power totally related with their status such as a dependent or an income earner. Before resettlement, both men and women made joint decisions as majority of women were engaged in family farming related activities. After the resettlement, as majority of women lost their income emerged from farming related activities, their voices to make such decisions were not as louder as before resettlement. Traditional norms had also rooted within the households; household heads were breadwinners as well as decision makers.

According to some respondents from In-depth interviews and from the process of women focus group discussion,

“We were not in the position of making decisions on important matters after resettlement because we became dependents, staying at home while only men earned income and they made decisions”

The above quote highlighted that when women were lost their income source, they have to depend on their husbands and they have less say on decision makings related with non-food items and important matters. Men mostly decided. In women headed households, these types of women had to undertake all the responsibilities of households and made decisions as their husbands had passed away.

The findings of the study reveal that the resettlement reduced women’s decision making power to some extent. Before the resettlement, they also could earn income and contribute for household expenditure especially in meal consumption and they had more say on decision making. Now they were in the position of being a dependent status and there were no alternatives but to rely on their husband’s income alone. Therefore, the resettlement has negative effect on decision making power of women. It has also been observed that traditional norms had influence on decision making power of women and men in a strong patriarchy society.

Table (4.3) Decision Making on Household Expenditure

Description	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Food item				
Both	2	4%	2	4%
Men	0	0%	0	0%
Women	47	90%	47	90%
Non-food item				
Both	30	58%	20	38%
Men	14	27%	21	40%
Women	5	10%	8	15%
Important matter				
Both	32	62%	18	35%
Men	12	23%	23	44%
Women	5	10%	8	15%

Source: Survey, 2019

4.3.4 Access to and Control over Resources

The table reveals the respondents' perception on access to and control over resources in terms of better housing type, access to water availability, electricity supply and vocational training compared with before resettlement. Almost all the respondents generally perceived that current living conditions at the resettlement site were better than previous condition before resettlement as they were easy access to water and electricity supply. Almost every household become accessible electric fans and TVs as electricity power supply was available in the relocation site. Some households used fridges and washing machines. Before resettlement, their locations were not accessible the power supply.

Two third of respondents from in-depth interviews and FGDs mentioned that the higher their living standard was, the more expenditures they cost at the relocation site.

“Our living conditions were higher than before resettlement for the fact that we were more accessible electricity and water here living at the relocation site after resettlement. But on the other hand, we were worried that we had to pay the bill for everything we utilized at home. In previous place before resettlement, as we did not have electricity supply, there was not much spending on household expenditures such as electric stoves, rice cookers, Karaoke, TVs, fans and fridges, etc.”

The respondents further mentioned that previously the distance between one house to another were so far as they could grow agricultural produces in their large compounds. Although their previous houses were not good enough as current ones, they used to live the sheds with large compounds as they could grow vegetables and raise livestock for home consumption and also gain additional income for women. They were resettled at the plots of 25 x 50 feet wide at the relocation site, they had to experience the proximity of houses and lost their lands for agricultural related activities.

One respondent women who was 48 years old, Buddhist, farming, and married with one child said that

“I was happier in living previous place although the living standard was not so high as now.”

Throughout the process of FGDs and In-depth interviews, all respondents had similar voices that their living standards before resettlement were not high but they

did not need to worry for food, clothing and shelter as they had regular income from selling vegetables they planted and livestock.

Regarding access to vocational trainings, some women reported that they accessed sewing training and food processing training delivered by income restoration program after resettlement. However, these trainings did not support the women well to enter to the workplace not because they did not learn how to sew and how to process food but because the employers were demanding skillful and experienced workers. In addition, there was an age limitation for women who are over the age of 30 years to enter the garment factory in Thilawa Special Economic Zone as the factory. Therefore, majority of women became jobless, staying at home.

The findings revealed that the resettlement made positive and negative effects to the living conditions of women at the relocation site. As a positive effect, women living at the relocation site became accessible to enjoy basic infrastructure in doing household chores within their houses after the resettlement. But on the other hand, they were stressed due to the respective charges occurred to the household and their stress on higher living standard was one of the negative effects to all most every household, particularly women headed households although their current houses at the relocation site were equipped with basic infrastructure.

Table (4.4) Respondents' Perception on Access to and Control over Resources

Description	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Better housing condition	3	6%	47	90%
Access to water availability	50	96%	50	96%
Access to electricity supply	0	0%	52	100%
Access to vocational training	0	0%	33	63%

Source: Survey, 2019

4.3.5 Income Source

Income source of most women came from on-farm related activities such as growing a different variety of vegetables and breeding livestock before the resettlement. They could earn to contribute for their household consumption from selling agricultural produces and livestock. The whole family members could make a living from agricultural land and livestock raising. After the resettlement, many

women who relied on farming related activities had disappeared and they had to depend on the sole income of their husbands. Their husbands had no alternatives but to do odd jobs which could not guarantee for regular income for the family as they had no working experiences to be engaged in other skill jobs. The households that had two income sources from on-farm and non-farm experienced less financial hardship than the households depended on only farming Income sources were vital for their livelihood survival and support regular income.

4.3.6 Income and Expenditure

The table shows that Average annual income and expenditure of the respondents. Average annual income was 1,962,482 MMK before resettlement and 3,051,923 MMK after resettlement respectively. Average annual expenditure was 1,246,506 MMK before resettlement and 4,341,877 MMK after resettlement. Although average income amount after resettlement seemed higher than the income amount before resettlement, the expenditures incurred by the respondents also outweighed the income after resettlement.

Majority of respondents mentioned that

“Our expenditures were higher than income in many households as we had to buy everything to eat and higher living conditions also added to more spending on expenditures like electricity charges. No matter how high our living standard was. We were not happy to live at the resettlement site due to lack of regular income and feeling of being congested within small compound. We preferred to the previous living place before resettlement mainly because we gained regular income from farming and had good financial condition of the family.”

The above quote highlighted that regular income plays a pivotal role for their survival to cope with increasing expenditure.

Table (4.5) Average Annual Income and Expenditure

Description	Before resettlement (MMK)	After resettlement (MMK)
Average Annual Income	1,962,482	3,051,923
Average Annual Expenditure	1,246,506	4,341,877

Source: Survey, 2019

4.3.7 Saving and Debt

Nearly half of the respondents answered that they could save money and most of them were not in the position of taking debt for household consumption before resettlement. Many women had to borrow money to fulfill the basic needs and health care of the family as the entire family had to depend on their husbands' income alone which did not meet all of the expenses they occurred after the resettlement.

As for women headed households, they had to face more financial hardship after the resettlement. This was the vicious cycle of their poverty and eventually ended with the sale of their houses to pay back their debt. It is learned that about half of the houses at the relocation site had already been sold and some moved out from the relocation site.

Table (4.6) Saving and Debt

Description	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Saving	22	42%	0	0%
Debt	0	0%	35	67%

Source: Survey, 2019

4.3.8 Barriers

Lack of regular income: As majority of women living at the resettlement site traditionally depended on the agricultural land, they were lack of alternatives to the livelihood lost. They were deprived of the source of the family's income.

Scarcity of Employment opportunity: From the process of FGDs, women and men interviewed expressed their hopes that the development of Thilawa SEZ would ensure livelihood opportunities for them, particularly for women who potentially may have access to jobs in garment factories after they were moved to the relocation site. They did believe in these commitments and hopes provided by public administrative bodies before the resettlement. After resettlement, skilled jobs went almost exclusively to resettled men and women since their literacy and skill were somewhat low to get skilled jobs at Thilawa SEZ. A few resettled women and men got were unskilled ones, often temporary or on daily wages. Majority of men were engaged in odd jobs.

Respondents from FGDs further mentioned that before the resettlement, one farmer who owned agricultural land was able to employ two casual labors. When farmers were landless, labours who relied on them were also unemployment and they all had the sufferings for the scarcity of employment.

Unbalanced income and expenditure: In addition, women had to buy every food that was used to get earlier from its lands after the resettlement, there were a substantial amount of their spending on living condition such as charges of electricity supply and water to cope with new environment. Due to higher expenditures, they had to experience unbalanced income and expenditure. One respondent mentioned that they did not need to worry for food before resettlement and they found it difficult to make both ends meet after resettlement. A coping mechanism they adopted was that borrowing money from moneylenders to covers their food supply. Eventually, some of their houses were sold out and their status was deprived from house owners to renters at the relocation site.

Table (4.7) Barriers due to Resettlement

Description	Frequency	%
Lack of regular income	35	67%
Scarcity of employment opportunity	17	33%
Unbalanced income and expenditure	40	77%

Source: Survey, 2019

Major barriers that women faced were absence of alternative livelihood, scarcity of employment opportunity, unbalanced income and expenditure after the resettlement. As a coping strategy to fulfill their basic food, they borrowed money. When they could not afford to repay the debt, their houses were sold out and their status has changed as a renter at the relocation site.

Due to the absence of an investment plan for SEZ affected people, a lump sum amount of money compensated to local people was so risky for them that they can fall as vulnerable victims under any circumstances over time as they are lack of capacity to manage the money properly. The investment plan is a critical part of resettlement program for their survival in the long run. This plan should be prepared together with the consultation and collaboration of local people since the planning stage.

The above findings indicate that the resettlement have induced more negative consequences in regard to disappeared agricultural lands, disrupted primary livelihood, absence of alternative employment, decreased income, indebtedness, less say on household decision making, higher living condition with higher expenditure. Overall, the resettlement made women's status weaken.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

5.1 Findings

Women are reduced to being housewives alone from their earlier role of being contributors to the family economy. They are deprived of the agricultural land that was earlier the source of this basic food supply. Accordingly, they cannot grow or collect the food that the family needs. Thus, the resettlement affects the woman's sphere in terms of less economic role and capability to support their family.

As women's income source was totally lost, they had to depend on the sole income of their husbands after resettlement. In this sense, resettlement had negative effect to women in terms of more economic dependence on their husbands and thereby they had less voice on decision making power within the households.

Their husbands did not have regular income. On the other hand, their expenditures were higher the incomes they could earn as they had to buy everything to eat and higher living conditions also added to more spending on expenditures like electricity charges. Many women had to borrow money to cover all the expenses they occurred as a coping strategy. It is learned that about many of the houses at the relocation site had already been sold and moved out. This is the vicious cycle of their poverty and eventually ended with homeless by selling their own houses to pay back the debt.

Most women had low education level and lack of adequate skills to entry to the existing employment market at SEZ. As majority of women have low literacy level and limited skill, there is a wide gap between job requirements and their education and skill level for them. There was also age constraint for women over 30 years to get employment at some garment factories when they tried to apply for. Women headed households with children had to experience more financial hardship after the resettlement. It can be said that majority of women do not enjoy the benefits from the employment at SEZ.

This project is expected to support sustainable economic development for Myanmar, contributing to improved living standards for its people and the development of industries that can meet rising domestic demand.

It is found that checking quality in building the housings at the relocation site was weak as a lot of respondents complained that the foundation of their houses were not strong enough. There is in need of check and balance system to make sure the quality check for every basic infrastructure provided to the local people displaced at the relocation site.

Like some studies in the literature review, the study finds that it is local residents, particularly women who bear the brunt of negative consequences outweighed positive ones due to the establishment of SEZ although SEZ is expected to support sustainable economic development, to improved living standards and the development of industries in Myanmar.

Policy makers and public administrative bodies should not give any prior commitments and hopes which will not be able to support for local residents after the resettlement in order to reach their consensus in implementing the resettlement program.

The study strongly revealed that the resettlement results the women at the relocation site in unfavorable condition. It is also learnt from this research that local community's trust on commitments of policy makers and public administrative bodies become fruitless.

5.2 Suggestions

In planning stage, investment plan should be developed with the consultation of local people so that they can properly manage lump sum amount of compensated money for their survival in the long run. Throughout the consultation process, the meaningful participation of women should be emphasized.

Gender Impact Analysis is recommended to conduct at the very beginning of Special Economic Zone Development so as to identify the different needs and experiences of women and men at the local residents.

Basic Infrastructure of the Relocation Site: Full exemption in electricity duty should be provided to the local people who have been resettled for SEZ development as long as they have been living at the relocation site. It is a must for public administrative bodies to abide by the proposed basic infrastructure provision at the

relocation site to the local people. Check and balance system is also needed to maintain the quality check for every basic infrastructure including water, sewage disposal and the like and to take corrective actions wherever necessary.

Capacity Building: In relation to trainings, it is needed to consider the needs of women. e.g women may need special support to enhance their capability, to enter the potential workplace and to reduce their socio-economic vulnerability.

Non-farm Employment: Policy makers are to generate non-farm employments to access alternative livelihoods and restore their income especially for women headed households, the elder women and disabled women, narrowing down the gap to enter the labour market between job requirements and their limited skill and low literacy level. In this way, women's economic dependence on their husbands can reduce and this has enabled them to improve their wellbeing.

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APPENDICES

Appendix - 1

I. Semi-structured Questionnaire for In-depth Interview

1.1 Respondent's Demographic Information

Name								
Village								
Township								
Date								
Start time					End Time			
Facilitator								
Participant	Gender	Current Occupation	Age	Ethnicity	Religion	Marital status	No. children	No. Family members
Remarks								

2. Division of Labour

2.2 Who usually takes responsibilities for domestic, productive and community work?

Activities	Before Displacement			After Displacement		
	Wife only	Husband only	Both	Wife only	Husband only	Both
Domestic works						
Cooking						
Washing						
Child bearing						
Cleaning						
Collecting fire woods,						
Fetching water						
Feeding animals						
Caring elderly people						
Others						
Productive works						
Farming						
Livestock raising						
Fishery						
Government servant						
Vendors						
Shopkeeper						
Casual labour						
Others						
Community work						
Attending Village meeting						
Leader of VDC						
Committee members						
President of village administrative bodies						
Receptions						
Others						

2.3 Who helps domestic work while doing IGA? (Before and after displacement)

2.4 Who makes decisions in what activities in your household?

Main Activity	Before Displacement			After Displacement		
	Wife	Husband	Both	Wife	Husband	Both
Food items						
Non-food items						

2.5 Can you make your own decision for any important case or do you have to negotiate with your husband or elder household member? Why?

2.6 Do you have any assets in your name? If yes, could you name them, please?

2.7 If no, what factors are influencing to women's control over productive assets?

2.8 Do you think that your roles have changed/ Are there any changes of gender division of labour/ gender roles due to the displacement? How?

3 Decision Making

3.2 What are your practical needs after displacement? Is that common in your surrounding after displacement?

3.3 Who make decisions over the use of received assistance? Why?

3.4 Who controls which type of expenditures?

4 Income, Saving and Debt

4.1 Income sources and income level

Before Displacement			After Displacement			Reasons for changes of income sources
Income Sources	Income level per month	Husband/ Wife/Both	Income Sources	Income level per month	Husband/ Wife/Both	

Before and after displacement:

- 4.2 Does your household income allow you to save? In which way? (Saving at home, bank, etc.)
- 4.3 Did anyone from your household borrow money last year? From whom?
- 4.4 Who took the responsibility to pay back the money?
- 4.5 What was the main purpose of borrowing money?

5 Access to and control over resources

- 5.1 Who is eligible for house ownership at the relocation site after displacement?
- 5.2 What facilities are available at the new site?
- 5.3 When you fall ill, how do you manage before displacement and after displacement? (E.g. go to clinic hospital / self-treatment etc)
- 5.4 Which are the diseases/illnesses that affect women after displacement?
- 5.5 Which diseases affect men after displacement?
- 5.6 Which diseases affect girls/boys/children after displacement?
- 5.7 Is there a need to upgrade women's skills to engage in income generating activities after displacement?
- 5.8 Are the facilities available after displacement?
- 5.9 Did you attend vocational training provided by income restoration program?
- 5.10 Did you find a job after the training?
- 5.11 What kinds of social groups did you participate at the community before displacement and after displacement?
- 5.12 Do you feel secure at relocation site? If yes, why?
- 5.13 If not, what makes you feel insecurity?

6 Barriers and Coping Strategy

- 6.4 What are barriers to women's ability to engage in income generating activities?
- 6.5 What are the main problems identified by men and women in this community?
- 6.6 What solutions have been tried so far to overcome the problems?

II. FGD

Respondents Profile

State/Region			
Township			
Village Tract			
Village			
Date			
Start time			End Time
Facilitation Team	Facilitator	Note taker	
Participant 1	Occupation	Age	Marital Status
Participant 2	Occupation	Age	Marital Status
Participant 3	Occupation	Age	Marital Status
Participant 4	Occupation	Age	Marital Status
Participant 5	Occupation	Age	Marital Status
Participant 6	Occupation	Age	Marital Status
Participant 7	Occupation	Age	Marital Status
Participant 8	Occupation	Age	Marital Status
Remarks (List here special conditions or circumstances that may affect the discussion e.g. interruptions, lack of privacy etc.)			

1. Respondents' demography (Ethnic, religious, main livelihoods)

- 1.1 What kind of ethnic, religious are belonged to this community before and after displacement?
- 1.2 What is the main livelihood that this community work before and after displacement?
- 1.3 Have you known any of group that exist in your community before and after displacement? What are they doing?

2. Gender Divisions of Labour

- 2.1 Who does what inside the household before and after displacement? (example child raring, fetching water,)
- 2.2 Who works outside the household before and after displacement?
- 2.3 What are their types of work before and after displacement?
- 2.4 After displacement what are you doing? Roles? What about men? What are they doing?

3. Access to and Control over Resources

- 3.1 Any of compensation received due to displacement? What are they? Who used it?
- 3.2 Have you attended any consultation meeting? Why and why not? How often? Have you spoken any issue in the meeting?
- 3.3 Have you attended/ received any of training provided by income restoration program? What training?
- 3.4 How are the trainings useful for you?
- 3.5 Who is eligible for house ownership at the relocation site after displacement?
- 3.6 What kinds of facilities are available at the new site? (health care, education, market, water, electricity)
- 3.7 Which are the diseases/illnesses that affect women and men after displacement?
- 3.8 Do you feel secure at relocation site? If yes, why?
- 3.9 If not, what makes you feel insecurity?

4. Income, Saving and Debt

- 4.1 What are the common income sources for women and men before and after displacement?
- 4.2 Do have a practice to save money before and after displacement? In which way?

4.3 If you had to borrow money from others, what were the main purpose to borrow?

4.4 Who take the main responsibility to pay the loan back in your household?

5. Barriers and Coping Strategy

5.1 Have you seen any of violence in your surrounding? Why do you think it happen?

It was before or after displacement?

5.2 How have they overcome from the violence?

5.3 Any compliant mechanism and the use of that?

5.4 What are the needs of women and men?

5.5 What challenges that women and men faced before and after displacement?

5.6 What challenges that women and men currently face?

5.7 Why do you think that those challenges exist?

5.8 How have they overcome from that challenges? (Why and why not?)

III. Key Informant Interview Guide

1. How do you think that roles and responsibility of women and men in your community (both inside the household and in the community)?
2. Decision making power of women and men after displacement?
3. What types of compensation did displaced people from Resettlement Program?
4. What kind of vocational trainings support to women and men from Income Restoration Program?
5. How many of women get jobs in which activities after the training?
6. Have you seen any kind of violence that women and men faced before and after displacement?
7. What are the main challenges of women and men faced in this area?
8. How have they overcome from that challenges? Any difference between women and men?
9. Is there a strategy or action plan in place to address gender issues at the relocation site?
10. Do you want to add anything on our discussion or do you have any suggestion?