THEATER PLANNING CONSIDERATIONS
FOR DISPLACED PERSONS IN THE
USARPAC AOR

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FOREWORD

The Pacific Command Area of Responsibility (PACOM AOR) is home to more than 50% of the world’s population. Immense in size and complexity, the PACOM AOR presents unique challenges for the U.S. military forces who are assigned there. Among those challenges, the issue of displaced population groups continues to surface time and again.

While many of our allies and partner states face internal crises with displaced persons, the U.S. strives to assist and complement the mitigation efforts of those nations in the region to handle this intimately human dilemma. Long-term, durable solutions are often frustrated by political and social instability, and resources are often scarce in facilitating permanent resolutions to the displacement.

Notwithstanding these realities, the U.S. is committed to continuing its engagement and assistance to all parties in the PACOM AOR to resolving the problem of forced displacement and seeks to leverage its unique position within the region to bring about lasting solutions to the large-scale displacement of persons.

Natural and man-made humanitarian disasters within the region will likely require U.S. military forces to respond with agility and flexibility, and will require the concerted efforts of all parties to prevent unnecessary human suffering. To this end, U.S. military personnel within the PACOM AOR must understand the full scope of the problem. This handbook will greatly assist in that endeavor and offers a valuable tool for practitioners to apply in just such an occurrence.
# Theater Planning Considerations for Displaced Persons in the USARPAC AOR

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Introduction

Recent events have reminded U.S. of the criticality and volatility of the Pacific Command (PACOM) Area of Responsibility (AOR). Almost daily, news stories emerge describing potential friction points and warning of grave repercussions if the U.S. and international partners ignore events throughout the Pacific theater. For the U.S. military, constant engagement with multiple partners and players is the norm. In the 21st century, our national interests in the Pacific theater have risen dramatically and continue to resonate in strategic policy decisions. Given this importance, the U.S. military must develop a deeper understanding of the region’s operational environment and prepare to operate effectively throughout the entire PACOM Theater.

One of the most vexing challenges the U.S. military has faced has been large groups of displaced persons. These groups, whether refugees or internally displaced persons, universally share the same needs and vulnerabilities. While some are victims of forced migration due to conflict, others migrate voluntarily due to desperate humanitarian hardships. Regardless of the specifics of their circumstances, all displaced persons are entitled to basic rights and protections. And while there may be uncertainty regarding their long-term prospects for durable solutions, groups of displaced persons will almost certainly occupy physical space where U.S. service members will operate. Knowing what can, should, and/or must be done to protect them will undoubtedly become an operational imperative for units.

Additionally, the multitude of actors within the theater of operations will certainly stretch the bounds of understanding for commanders and staffs. Determining “who’s who in the zoo” will factor largely into the ways and means used to achieve the desired ends of the military’s operation. Hence, military planners, from theater level to tactical units deployed in the Joint Operational Area (JOA) need a deep understanding and appreciation for these variables and absolutely must consider their impact on operations.

In our previous, two editions, we offered a collection of articles highlighting the fundamental challenges associated with the military’s involvement in displaced persons operations. In this volume, we turn our attention to the PACOM AOR and focus on issues that are uniquely a part of the PACOM Operational Environment. This edition addresses several general topics in Section One, which will inform commanders and staffs on “best practices” in dealing with displaced persons. In Section Two, each article offers a closer look at a specific challenge in a particular PACOM country and provides useful lessons learned and recommendations for future operations.

In conjunction with the previous materials, this handbook enhances the body of knowledge in this field and facilitates our collective understanding of how the military can effectively deal with the multitude of challenges caused by large numbers of
displaced persons. So while many of these problems are present around the globe in situations of forced migration, we seek to illuminate issues that are of particular concern within the broad expanse of geography defined as the PACOM AOR. For commanders, staff officers, and leaders at all levels who will potentially deploy to the PACOM AOR, this handbook provides keen insight into the military’s role in dealing with a challenging predicament – displaced persons in the operational environment.

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Chapter 1

The Responsibility to Protect in Southeast Asia

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This article will address the state of the international norm of the "Responsibility to Protect" (R2P) in the Southeast Asia region. The norm will initially be outlined in brief in a form oriented on the military professional. Once the norm has been outlined, the views and policy positions of various states in the region, as well as potentialities for the employment of R2P will be summarized. Finally, the utility of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) as an agent of R2P will be examined. The purpose of this discussion is not to provide a comprehensive understanding of a complex international and regional debate, but rather to act as a primer for the military professional to gain a cursory understanding of and appreciation for some of the dynamics at play in the region in regards to humanitarian military intervention and the problem of refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs) that inevitably accompany such situations.

The Responsibility to Protect

The Responsibility to Protect was born out the problem of mass or systemic violence against civilians as the result of either internal conflict or regime policies. A tension existed between the desire of the international community to intervene in order to prevent or halt cases of mass atrocity and the notion of state sovereignty that would prevent such interventions under international law. The Responsibility to Protect was put forward by the International Commission on Intervention and State Sovereignty (ICISS) in 2001 and was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly (UNGA) in the World Summit Outcome Document in 2005.\(^1\) The Responsibility to Protect put forward a moral argument that redefined the existing notion of state sovereignty in terms of responsibility to a state’s people rather than authority.\(^2\) Under the R2P norm, the primary agent for meeting the responsibility to protect a given population is the sovereign state, however when the state in question proves unwilling or unable to meet that responsibility, a secondary responsibility falls collectively on the international community.\(^3\) In order to create a comprehensive program of national and international responsibility for the protection of civilian populations, that focuses on more than just the use of military force, R2P consists of three primary elements, the responsibility to prevent, the responsibility to react, and the responsibility to rebuild.\(^4\) The possibility of humanitarian military intervention falls under the responsibility to react.\(^5\) To determine when it is appropriate to resort to humanitarian military intervention in the most extreme cases of mass atrocity, R2P adopts the *jus. ad bellum* or "right to war" criteria of the Just War Ethic, relying on moral logic in an effort to overcome potential opposition from either the target state or international law. Accordingly, a humanitarian military
intervention under the auspices of R2P must be a Just Cause, authorized by a Right Authority, with a humanitarian Right Intention, resorting to military force as a Last Resort, employing Proportional Means, and with Reasonable Prospects of success.\textsuperscript{6} The ICISS envisioned a system of tiered Right Authority under R2P with the first authority being the United Nations Security Council (UNSC), and if that failed reverting to the UNGA meeting under the “Uniting for Peace” procedure, and if that failed reverting finally to regional and sub-regional organizations.\textsuperscript{7} Thus, when a mass atrocity is imminent or in progress, military forces may be called upon under R2P to intervene in another sovereign state to prevent or halt the mass atrocity and exercise the international community’s collective responsibility to protect. Additionally, military forces may be called upon in the prevention or rebuilding phases of R2P in order to provide or support critical capability or capacity gaps as part of a broader international effort.

Cambodia and the Responsibility to Protect

Cambodia is a nation with a vivid living memory of the horrors of mass atrocity crimes following decades of civil upheaval and the killing fields of Pol Pot and the Khmer Rouge which resulted in greater than a million deaths and another half million refugees, not to mention innumerable IDPs, or the physical or psychological damage done to millions of survivors.\textsuperscript{8} The horrors of Pol Pot’s bloody rule were only ended by a full scale Vietnamese invasion of Cambodia in late 1978.\textsuperscript{9} Sensitive to this tortured legacy, the modern Kingdom of Cambodia has made concerted efforts to ensure and highlight its development focus and integration into the international community.

The government of Cambodia supported the United Nations’ 2005 World Summit Outcome Document which encapsulated the R2P norm, and has also “expressed tacit support for the idea that responsible and effective sovereignty was the bedrock of international peace and security” and that international organizations have a role to play in this regard.\textsuperscript{10} While Cambodia does not directly invoke R2P language, it has supported numerous policies in areas that are related to and can support the implementation of R2P, such as economic development, disarmament, and peace operations.\textsuperscript{11} Cambodia generally takes a holistic view of security and development issues which can be conducive to the development of R2P related perspectives. The Cambodian government’s focus on economic development aligns with its national interest in long term economic development of an economy stunted by decades of conflict, but could conceivably be leveraged into broader support for the prevention and rebuilding elements of R2P, as Cambodia regularly advocates for development issues in the international community.\textsuperscript{12} Cambodia views disarmament policies as a means of conflict prevention, which could further be used to in concert with preventive strategies in the region under an R2P framework.\textsuperscript{13} Given the United Nations Advance Mission in Cambodia (UNAMIC) from 1991-1992 and the United Nations Transitional Authority in Cambodia (UNTAC) from 1992-1993 and the critical role that these United Nations (UN) peacekeeping missions played in the formation of the modern Cambodian state, the Cambodian government is a strong proponent of strengthening UN peace operations.\textsuperscript{14} Since 2005 Cambodia has contributed troops to UN peace operations abroad.\textsuperscript{15}
Cambodia’s support and participation in UN peace operations could be leveraged to support the reaction element of R2P within the region. From a policy perspective, the Cambodian government supports increasing the ability of the UN to deploy forces more rapidly, strengthening regional peacebuilding capacity, and has even suggested forming an “ASEAN security community”.

Finally, although Cambodia has come a long way since the killing fields of the Khmer Rouge, and the Cambodian economy has made great strides in terms of growth and diversification, corruption, uneven democratization, and troubles consistently feeding their people have the potential to spark localized or generalized humanitarian crises.

Laos and the Responsibility to Protect

The Lao People’s Democratic Republic does not directly reference the Responsibility to Protect, but did support both the 2005 World Summit Outcome Document and the appointment of South Korean diplomat Ban Ki-moon, a vocal supporter of R2P, as Secretary-General of the United Nations.17 Like other nations in the region, Laos supports collaborative approaches to solving international problems.18

Laos has supported a number of policies in areas that are related to and can support the implementation of R2P, such as economic development, arms control, and reform of the United Nations Security Council (UNSC).19 Like Cambodia, the Laotian government’s focus on economic development aligns with its national interest in long term economic development, but could conceivably be leveraged into broader support for the prevention and rebuilding elements of R2P. In a nod to a sense of pooled sovereign responsibility between states, the Laotian government sees development as “a shared responsibility of developed and developing countries”.20 Laos views arms control policies as a means of conflict prevention, a view shared with other ASEAN members, which could further be used to in concert with preventive strategies within the region under an R2P framework.21 Additionally, addressing one of the impetuses for R2P, namely UNSC dysfunction, Laos supports reforms aimed at making the UNSC “more legitimate, representative, effective and demographic”.22 Laos does not currently contribute troops to UN peace operations.

Despite the relative political and economic stability of Laos, the country still struggles with generally low levels of development, problems of hunger and malnutrition, a lack of democratization, and the integration of minority populations, namely the Hmong, which could lead to localized or general humanitarian crises. The issue of the Hmong minority and their alleged targeting by the Lao People’s Army led Amnesty International to criticize the Laotian government for failing to meet its responsibility to protect its citizens, specifically in regard to Hmong children.23 This particular criticism by Amnesty International led to the Laotian government emphasizing traditional notions of state sovereignty and the principle of non-intervention, but the government refrained from attacking R2P in principle.24
Myanmar and the Responsibility to Protect

The Republic of the Union of Myanmar, formerly known as Burma, has been and remains one of the most likely places in Southeast Asia for the Responsibility to Protect to be invoked. The post-colonial history of Myanmar has been marred by uneven economic development, civil wars, military coups, human rights violations, and ethnic strife, particularly between the majority Burmese Buddhists and the Rohingya Muslim minority, Karens, Shans, and Kachins. Military rule formally ended in 2011, and Myanmar has since been engaged in the process of transitioning toward democracy and reintegrating into the international community, although many obstacles still remain.

The 2005 World Summit Outcome Document was adopted while the military junta was in power, and Myanmar very nearly became the first Southeast Asian state to be the subject of a R2P intervention. In 2008 Cyclone Nargis devastated the coast of Myanmar, and the international community feared a second tragedy as the military junta denied foreign aid aimed at stabilizing the situation and preventing a further humanitarian crisis. The circumstances led many Western politicians and leaders to call for intervention, with or without UNSC approval, and even prompted Archbishop Emeritus Desmond Tutu to write a letter to the leaders of France, the United Kingdom, and the United States stating that assistance should be rendered, even “over the objections of the military regime…The refusal of the Burmese military regime to accept full, adequate humanitarian aid from the international community is nothing short of criminal” and that the junta had “effectively declared war on its own population and is committing crimes against humanity”. Due to the inability of the state to meet the emergency needs of the population and the unwillingness of the state to accept international assistance, a second catastrophe nearly occurred, and France went as far as to invoke R2P. Ultimately the impasse was overcome and an escalation averted when, under international pressure, the junta loosened its restrictions on civilian international aid. The following year, the junta’s deputy permanent representative to the UN, while acknowledging the World Summit Outcome Document, made a statement deemphasizing the interventionist components of R2P, and emphasizing that the World Summit Outcome Document had only acknowledged a responsibility to protect populations from “genocide, war crimes, ethnic cleansing, and crimes against humanity”, and not from state inaction in the face of natural disasters, as R2P as conceived by the ICISS could be understood to include.

Since the end of military rule in 2011, Myanmar has made significant progress toward democratization, economic development, and reintegration into the international community; however it still struggles with the legacy of the preceding decades, especially as it relates to the status and treatment of minorities. The most significant ethnic tensions exist between the Burmese Buddhist majority and the Rohingya Muslim minority. Myanmar has a law dating back to 1982 that denies the Rohingyas citizenship, effectively rendering them a stateless people. In 2012, ethnic violence oriented on the Rohingyas minority flared up in the state of Rakhine resulting in approximately 200 deaths, the displacement of 100,000 people, and the destruction of over 4,000 homes and religious buildings. The government responded by imposing a local curfew, using
the military to restore order. In 2013 violence broke out in the state of Mandalay resulting in 42 deaths, 86 injuries, 12,000 IDPs, and the destruction of 2,245 homes and five mosques. The government responded with warnings aimed at Buddhist extremists and dozens of arrests; however, the UN human rights envoy noted the reluctance of state security forces to intervene to end the violence. The violence has also created a refugee problem for Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore, and Thailand. Accordingly, Myanmar has been cited as one of the most likely countries to experience genocide or politicide in the near future. Ethnic tensions are likely to continue to rise in the run up to Myanmar’s general election in 2015. The government has thus far shown a relatively effective response to individual outbreaks of ethnic and communal violence; however the government has done little to address the root causes of the violence or the long term provision of peace and communal order. The employment of the prevention element of R2P could be useful in continuing international pressure on the government of Myanmar to effectively address the nation’s ethnic tensions, using ASEAN in partnership with the UN as a conduit for providing a balanced mix of pressure and assistance to the government of Myanmar, and encouraging an interfaith communal dialogue. The hope is that through a concerted effort at prevention, a humanitarian crisis that would warrant humanitarian military intervention under the auspices of the reaction element of R2P can be avoided.

Thailand and the Responsibility to Protect

The Kingdom of Thailand has experienced strong economic growth combined with periodic political instability in the 21st century. Prior to the most recent wave of political instability from 2006-2007, which saw a military coup followed by a disjointed transition back to democracy, the government of Thailand supported both the Responsibility to Protect and the World Summit Outcome Document. At the time of the World Summit Outcome Document, Minister of Foreign Affairs Kantathi Suphamongkhon stated that Thailand saw “merit in the idea of collective responsibility to protect people from genocide, war crimes, ethnic cleansing and crimes against humanity”. Thailand had also supported the concept of “flexible engagement” within ASEAN which is designed to allow member states to criticize each other on the issue of human rights by relaxing regional norms surrounding the principle of non-interference. Additionally, in the aftermath of Cyclone Nargis in 2008, a Thai Ambassador noted that if ASEAN did not effectively address the potential crisis in Myanmar, it would be risking its credibility as a regional international organization, in effect an acknowledgement of a measure of pooled sovereignty when it comes to the responsibility to protect a state’s inhabitants. However, despite early enthusiasm for R2P, the current Thai government has more recently been much more tepid in its support for the norm.

Thailand supports a number of policies that could be used to build consensus for the Responsibility to Protect within the region to include support for strengthening humanitarian assistance capabilities, human rights, and the role of regional organizations. In reference to the strengthening of humanitarian assistance capabilities and capacities, Thailand views cooperation and integration of national, regional, and UN efforts as the ideal. However, Thailand has limited its advocacy for
humanitarian assistance missions to those humanitarian crises caused by natural disasters. Humanitarian assistance operations are relevant to the reaction element of R2P. Thailand supports policies to further universal human rights in a cooperative manner, while emphasizing that this is primarily a national responsibility. Thailand also advocates for the role of regional international organizations, specifically ASEAN, in contributing to international peace and security, a position that could be leveraged in combination with its support for humanitarian assistance missions and universal human rights to support the use of the third tier of Right Authority under the Responsibility to Protect in extreme cases. Thailand contributed troops to the Australian-led International Force for East Timor (INTERFET) from 1999-2000 and is a regular contributor to UN peace operations.

Despite its positive policies in regard to human rights and humanitarian assistance, Thailand has recently been criticized for its treatment of Rohingya refugees from Myanmar whom the Thai government has chosen to address as illegal immigrants. There have been allegations that the Royal Thai Army has been involved in human trafficking, and the Royal Thai Navy has been accused of employing lethal force to prevent refugees from reaching Thai soil; these allegations have been investigated or denied respectively. The Thai government has allowed humanitarian access to the refugees through the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), but has also pressured the government of Myanmar and the UN to address the repatriation and resettlement of the Rohingyas.

Vietnam and the Responsibility to Protect

The Socialist Republic of Vietnam has a long history of struggling against great powers and external actors to achieve its independence and unification under its communist regime. This legacy of colonization and external intervention has made Vietnam extremely sensitive to maintaining the traditional conception of state sovereignty and the principle of non-inference. Due to this position, Vietnam initially reacted negatively toward the Responsibility to Protect. However, Vietnam eventually supported the 2005 World Summit Outcome Document and slowly began to support some aspects of R2P in conjunction with their election to the UNSC in 2008. Vietnam emphasizes the prevention element of R2P over the reaction element and supports efforts to build the capability and capacity of states to meet their sovereign responsibilities to their people. However, Vietnam is generally against the employment of coercive measures, ranging from diplomatic or economic sanctions to the threat or use of military force. Vietnam is also against the use of preemption in general, which further complicates their support of R2P as the concept of preemption is necessary to a workable doctrine of R2P in order to allow the prevention of mass atrocity crimes before they come to pass.

Vietnam supports a number of policies that can be leveraged in support of the Responsibility to Protect. In support of the prevention element of R2P, Vietnam supports policies aimed at providing early warning of potential humanitarian crises and preventative diplomacy. In support of the rebuilding element of R2P, Vietnam
supports disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration (DDR) programs\textsuperscript{64}, and emphasizes the need for reconstruction and development programs that align with host-nation priorities.\textsuperscript{65} Vietnam supports reform of the UNSC, specifically proposals that the veto wielding permanent members of the UNSC be required to publically explain any veto of a resolution on mass humanitarian crises, or that the permanent members refrain from using the veto in such cases\textsuperscript{66}, the latter being a position also articulated by the ICISS.\textsuperscript{67} Vietnam also supports closer coordination between ASEAN and the UNSC on issues of conflict prevention and peacekeeping, emphasizing that regional organizations are better suited and positioned to address underlying causes of conflict and crisis, and take a leading role in such cases.\textsuperscript{68} Additionally, Vietnam has supported efforts to further integrate elements of R2P in UN peace operations.\textsuperscript{69}

In practice, Vietnam has been reluctant to use force in response to humanitarian crises. Despite Vietnam’s intervention in Cambodia in late 1978, which had a significant humanitarian effect in removing the murderous Khmer Rouge regime of Pol Pot, the impetus for the intervention was Vietnam’s on national security interests, not humanitarian purposes.\textsuperscript{70} Vietnam does not contribute troops to UN peace operations.

Vietnam has a significant minority population, made up of 53 distinct minority groups and accounting for 14% of the population.\textsuperscript{71} Enabled by rapid economic growth, Vietnam has made a significant effort, in terms of both policy and resources, to integrate minority populations into mainstream Vietnamese society.\textsuperscript{72} Vietnam has had recent issues related to religious freedom and those minorities that have resisted the state’s integration policies, specifically the Christian Degar Montangard, and the Buddhist Khmer Krom, who have been subjected to numerous human rights abuses.\textsuperscript{73} This tension between the state and religious minority communities has the potential to devolve into systemic or mass violations of human rights if alternate policies are not considered or implemented.\textsuperscript{74}

**ASEAN and the Responsibility to Protect**

The Association of Southeast Asian Nations is a regional intergovernmental organization (IGO) in Southeast Asia consisting of Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, and Vietnam. Of the members of ASEAN, only Thailand has not experienced colonial domination by a foreign power.\textsuperscript{75} Accordingly, ASEAN member states were naturally resistant to the Responsibility to Protect and it’s watering down of traditional conceptions of state sovereignty and the principle of non-interference, which many states that have emerged from colonization are sensitive to safeguard as a protection of their own independence. ASEAN operates by what is called the “ASEAN Way” where decisions and agreements are reached through consultation and consensus.\textsuperscript{76} Thus, ASEAN agreements are generally non-binding, and far less legalistic in their form and substance than agreements in comparable regional IGOs in the West.\textsuperscript{77} However, within the context of the “ASEAN Way”, those member states that support R2P have, on occasion, engaged those member states who do not support R2P in an effort to convince them to be more open to the norm and its implications.\textsuperscript{78}
To date, the biggest test of R2P and its principles faced by ASEAN was Cycle Nargis in 2008 which left 138,000 dead and resulted in approximately 1.5 million IDPs in Myanmar. After the cyclone, the military junta that ruled Myanmar refused to allow international aid to enter the country and the international community feared that an avoidable second calamity would transpire due to the junta’s intransigence. France attempted to invoke R2P, but this was rejected by China and ASEAN member states Vietnam and Indonesia who, at the time, were temporary members of the UNSC. The opposition to R2P in this case was based on the argument that R2P did not apply to natural disasters, an assertion that cites the difference between R2P as envisioned by the ICISS and R2P as adopted by the UNGA in the 2005 World Summit Outcome Document. While the ASEAN Secretary-General called on all ASEAN member states to “provide urgent relief assistance”, Indonesia’s foreign minister hinted that if Myanmar rejected ASEAN’s attempts to act as an intermediary between the government of Myanmar and the international community for the purposes of alleviating and preventing human suffering, they may not be able to stop the UNSC from acting. Ultimately, ASEAN was able to convince the junta to accept international aid and acted as a go-between and a conduit between the international community and the UN, and the government of Myanmar. Once the aid began to flow, the feared second humanitarian crisis was averted.

In this one recent case, ASEAN acted and performed much differently than it had in previous regional humanitarian crises, in Cambodia and East Timor. On the aggregate, ASEAN nations have shown a gradual and increased willingness to engage with the principles of R2P, to engage with each other on issues of member state sovereign responsibility, and to act as a regional intermediary between the international community and the UN, and member states. The Responsibility to Protect faces many obstacles, both in principle and practice in Southeast Asia, however it is clear that the region has also begun to accept parts of the norm, especially as it pertains to prevention and post-conflict reconstruction after mass atrocities. However, it remains to be seen whether the primary actors in the region will be willing and able to act in the future if or when prevention fails and the world is once again faced with conscience shocking mass atrocity crimes and the accompanying problems of population displacement and human suffering.

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Chapter 2

Understanding the Nongovernmental Organizations (NGOs) in Your Operating Area

MAJ Sally Juarez, U.S. Army

In recent decades, international peacekeeping missions have become more robust and multi-dimensional, involving diverse civilian and military actors. In many cases, civilian peacebuilding and development actors are on the ground throughout the conflict, sharing operational environments with military forces that increasingly engage in civilian activities.¹

This article will assist the military official in learning more about nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) that they will encounter in such operations. First, it will define what a NGO is and provide context to the wide variety that exist. Second, it will discuss the situations in which the military may encounter the NGO and reasons why NGOs may not want to work with the military. Lastly, it will provide a list of resources for individuals who want to learn more about the specific NGOs in their area. Throughout this discussion, this article will provide U.S. Pacific Command (USPACOM) specific resources and data relevant to the countries of: Brunei, Burma (Myanmar), Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, and Timor-Leste.

Figure 2-1

*Picture of child getting tested for Malaria. J. Zuckerman*
What is a NGO?

The Department of Defense characterizes NGOs as “independent, diverse, flexible, grassroots-focused organizations that range from primary relief and development providers to human rights, civil society, and conflict resolution organizations.” This definition provides a good starting point but it lacks the fidelity to paint a clear picture of what the practitioner may encounter on the ground. However, assigning such a broad definition is necessary because of the breadth and variety of these organizations.

While they have some commonalities, NGOs can differ significantly in goals, size, resources, nationality, and experience. By definition they are nongovernmental, sometimes referred to as private voluntary organizations (PVOs) or civilian organizations. They range in size from one or two individuals to thousands, and can include volunteers and paid employees. Their goals and objectives are diverse as well. NGOs go beyond just organizations that provide food and medicine, to include groups with social and political objectives such as equal rights for women or working toward more transparent government. Take for example, Global Bersih 3.0, a NGO based in Geneva, Switzerland, with the primary purpose to “strengthen Malaysia’s maturing democracy” and promote fair and free elections. Likewise, it is important to keep in mind that they are not all based in the United States. For example, many of the humanitarian assistance organizations supporting the refugees and internally displaced persons of Burma (Myanmar), are based out of Thailand and India.

Of course there are organizations that military members may be familiar with because of their size, reputation, or from previous encounters in other operations. Two international examples include the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC), or Medecins Sans Frontiers (Doctors Without Borders), both of which have sub-component organizations or affiliations within the United States. Additionally, there are NGOs who receive funding through grants from the U.S. Department of State, Bureau of Population, Refugees, and Migration, specifically to help fill gaps in humanitarian assistance. Because of the fact that these U.S. Government funded organizations must align their objectives with U.S. government policy, they may be more likely to coordinate with U.S. military forces. Examples of NGOs recently funded by the U.S. Government include International Rescue Committee (IRC), Mercy Corps, and International Medical Corps, all of which conduct work in Southeast Asia.

One final note on the types of organizations that exist – sometimes NGOs with aligned purposes form larger coalitions or associations. This can prove a helpful means for coordination and information sharing. They form these coalitions for their own “unity of effort” and one can hope that they may allow the military into their domain. Military leaders must be aware though that NGOs often are reluctant to cooperate or affiliate with military forces, as this may violate their neutrality, and may very well put them at risk.

Where and how might you encounter an NGO?
NGOs operate in every area where there is a social need. This coincides with areas within the full range of military operations. Whether it is a response to a natural disaster, operations within the Stabilization Phase, or some other mission, there will be NGOs operating in the area. Military leaders may need to know more about an NGO because the mission might require a unit to provide security, transport NGO cargo, or there may simply be a need to know the impact and influence these organizations have in the area. Whatever the reason, there will come a time when military leaders need to know who is operating in their area, and may have a need to know more about them.

The USPACOM area includes nations experiencing political and social transition, as well as being an area that has a high potential for natural and man-made disasters. With these characteristics, one can expect to find a high number of NGOs operating in the area. By way of example, Burma has over 400,000 internally displaced persons (IDPs) and over 500,000 refugees have fled the country to neighboring states to escape ethnic conflict and violence. The situation in and around Burma has drawn numerous NGOs to the area, with one estimate of at least 10,000 NGOs. Furthermore, the recent earthquake in Nepal is a prime example of a natural disaster in the region that has called upon significant numbers of NGOs in response.

How to learn more about specific NGO’s?

The first place to begin research is in the operation plan or order in Annex G, Civil-Military Operations. This annex will generally include a list of known NGOs operating in the area. The J9, operating at the Combatant Command and Joint Task Force level, is responsible for this annex. The J9 also includes the Joint Interagency Coordination Group (JIACG), and is the collective subject matter expert in interorganizational coordination.

The next military source to consider is the Civil-Military Operations Center (CMOC), which resides with civil affairs units from the company level up to the Civil Affairs Command level. “The CMOC serves as the primary coordination interface for U.S. forces and [indigenous populations and institutions] (IPI), humanitarian organizations, [intergovernmental organizations] (IGOs), NGOs, multinational forces, [host nation] (HN) government agencies, and other civilian agencies of the USG” As such, the CMOC may have available knowledge about specific NGOs operating in the area.

Two additional resources, outside of military channels are the local U.S. embassy and the Host Nation (HN). Care should be taken to properly request information through appropriate military channels to these sources, but this resource cannot be overlooked. Many nations have registration requirements for organizations operating in their lands and collect significant information on these organizations. The International Center for Not-for-Profit Law maintains records on what countries have requirements and the specifics on those requirements. Burma, Indonesia, and Malaysia, all have such registration requirements.
Lastly, military leaders can conduct their own research by utilizing tools available on the internet. There are a number of different types of sites and the following is just the beginning. The first type of site is an evaluation site, analyzing the financial management of various organizations and providing them a rating. Charity Watch, available at www.charitywatch.org and Charity Navigator, available at www.charitynavigator.org are two sites that evaluate the operations of various charities from the standpoint of financial management. While financial management may not be the data you are wishing to evaluate, these sites are helpful in getting a general feel for the size, scope, and type of organization you are dealing with.

There are also a number of collaborative type forums. These forums are designed to provide information and collaboration amongst NGOs and NGO workers. Many offer valuable resources and information that can be used by the military member to gain an understanding of the environment and the organizations operating there. The following list provides sites and synopses of data available there:

1. Interaction.org - An alliance organization of over 180 NGOs, providing information to U.S. based organizations operating internationally. One of their most useful sites is their NGO aid map available at www.ngoaidmap.org. An illustration of its usefulness is the list it provides detailing 36 projects currently ongoing in Burma.
2. Voluntary Organizations in Cooperation in Emergencies (VOICE) – A European network of over 80 organizations. VOICE provides a list of its members, and links to their websites, as well as their members’ publications.

3. Reliefweb.int – Provides updated information to humanitarian aid workers, researchable by country, as well as a listing of organizations.

4. Globalhealth.org – A collaborative effort for the global health community. This site provides a section for member engagement, including blogs, as well as listings of symposiums and published resources and reports.

5. World Association of Non-Governmental Organizations (WANGO) – Provides a listing of organizations by country as well as resources for NGOs.

6. Mycitizen.net – A relatively new platform designed to provide a directory and facilitate networking among NGOs operating in Burma (Myanmar). This site is using Burma as a pilot and hopes to expand to other nations.

Conclusion

The full range of military operations involve areas of social need, and therefore will inevitably include the presence of multiple actors. NGOs are but one of the many entities military members can expect to encounter in the operational environment. Knowledge and understanding of these organizations is key to planning and executing operations. Researching these organizations begins internally to the armed forces, but with the use of today’s technology can easily expand to collaborative forums, providing valuable insight into these organizations.

Endnotes


2 Interorganizational Coordination During Joint Operations, Joint Publication 3-08, (June 24, 2011) II-16.


6See http://ngo.mycitizen.net listing only 4 of 43 organizations based out of the United States and Europe, with the remaining 39 primarily from Thailand, India and Burma itself. (accessed April 26, 2015).
10IRC has programs in Burma and Thailand. See www.rescue.org (accessed April 26, 2015). Mercy Corps has programs in Burma, Indonesia, the Philippines, and Timor-Leste. See www.mercycorps.org (accessed April 26, 2015). The International Medical Corps has current programs in the Philippines and Indonesia, and also conducts work in Burma. See www.internationalmedicalcorps.org/where-we-work (accessed April 26, 2015).
11Unity of effort used in the military context, is "coordination and cooperation toward common objectives, even if the participants are not necessarily part of the same command organization." Interorganizational Coordination During Joint Operations, Joint Publication 3-08, (June 24, 2011), I-3.
17Joint Operation Planning, JP 5-0, August 11, 2011.
18JP 5-0 tells you what goes in what annex.
19Joint Operations, JP 3-0 (August 11, 2011); and Interorganizational Coordination During Joint Operations, JP 3-08 (24 June 2011).
Chapter 3

Registration Practices for Refugees and Internally Displaced People in the Asia-Pacific Region

MAJ Claudia Daniel, U.S. Army

"Refugee problems may often seem intractable but they are not insoluble. In our experience there are two basic prerequisites for solution: the political will of leaders to tackle the causes and to settle for peace, and international determination to push for peace and then to consolidate it. Consolidating peace means helping societies emerging from war to reintegrate refugees in safety and dignity, to rebuild their institutions - including in the field of justice and human rights - and to resume their economic development." -- Sadako Ogata, UN High Commissioner for Refugees, 1990-2000

The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) is the organization that is well known for working with refugees and internally displaced people (IDPs) since 1950. Refugees and IDPs have been an ongoing issue for centuries. As of 2012, there were 15.4 million refugees and 28.8 million IDPs around the world.¹ Large percentages are those Refugees and IDPs who have fled to the Asia-Pacific region in search of protection and care and others are a result of war and natural disasters. These Asian-Pacific countries have to organize among themselves and quickly provide assistance to these people who seek refuge in their land. The Asia-Pacific region is currently hosting 8.4 million refugees and IDPs.² How are these numbers gathered? The process of registration is essential in order to build order and provide assistance to refugee and IDP populations in the Asian-Pacific region.

Registration is a very important process since it provide vital statistical data. The process of resettlement can commence when registration has taken place. The current UNHCR database used for the registration process is progress. This program is now used in 70 countries and contains information along with photos for each individual.³ The UNHCR Handbook for Registration (Provisional Release September 2003) offers the official guidelines on how to register refugees and IDPs and can be found on the UNHCR's official webpage. These same references can be used as a guideline when beginning the registration process in the Asia-Pacific region.
The Japanese students stand listening to Hironobu Sugawara speak to the families, children and students after the pool party thanking the Marine Corps and their families for volunteering their time and home to house the Japanese group that is staying on Camp Foster, Okinawa, Japan, Aug. 8, 2011. The twenty-five students and five adults from Oshima Island elementary and middle school are visiting Marine Corps Base Camp Smedley D. Butler where they are staying with volunteer host families, for a four day cultural exchange and community relations event. The children are from the Tohoku Region of Japan where the March 11, 2011 earthquake, tsunami and nuclear incident displaced thousands of families and this event was coordinated and supported in order to enhance the existing spirit of mutual trust and partnership between the United States and Japan. (U.S. Marine Corps photo by Lance Cpl. Jessica Olivas/Released) www.defenseimagery.mil

Figure 3-1

What is the purpose of registering refugees and IDPs in the Asia-Pacific region? Registration according to the UNHCR is defined as, "the recording, verifying, and updating of information on people of concern to UNHCR so they can be protected and UNHCR can ultimately find durable solutions." Registration is highly important to aid the UNHCR or other agencies in planning for proper food, water, housing, and medical aid requirements. This information is also used in statistical data analysis to assist in identifying certain risks such as human trafficking and gender based violence in addition to knowing who and where they are, their issues, needs, and strengths. Registration keeps persons from being invisible to UNHCR and other organizations and focuses on protecting them from refoulement, military recruitment, and keeping families together. In addition, the protecting agency will respect all information given and treat all data as confidential.

There are many types of situations (i.e. natural disaster, war) that can occur in the
Pacific region that may not allow a thorough gathering of information; however, there are identified levels of registration. There are three levels of registration as identified in the UNHCR Handbook for Registration (Provisional Release September 2003). The first level of registration is the “Household Registration.” This level usually occurs in an emergency situation when mass influxes of people arrive at the established campsite and there is not enough time to properly receive sufficient data per person.\(^8\) The type of information gathered from each individual is basic and an example of such required data is:

- Household or family size
- Age broken down by sex by household
- Location and physical address of household
- Names of household or family representative (male and female “heads of household”)
- Country of origin of household
- Special needs of household\(^9\)

The second level of registration is done for basic planning purposes. Data is usually collected continuously and the more information gathered the more support agencies can provide to protect refugees and IDPs. In this stage, the information gathered continues to focus on individual data and adds to level one registration records. For example:

- Name
- Sex
- Date of Birth
- Current location
- Place of origin (address)
- Date of arrival
- Special protection and assistance needs
- Marital status.
- Citizenship
- Education level
- Occupation/Skills
- Religion
- Ethnic origin (tribes/clans/sub-clans)
- Photograph
- Biometric (if needed)
- Permission to share information\(^{10}\)

The third level of registration is considered the standard for collecting sufficient data for organizations to provide planning, protection, services, and solutions for refugees and IDPs to return to their ideal way of life. The suggested timeline to receive level three data is within 12 months after the arrival into the campsite or holding location. The information managed at this level is in addition to data gathered from levels one and two registration:
The issuing of documentation usually occurs after the registration process. At a minimum a registration card or rations card is issued to the head of household or to each member of the family. The Camp Management Toolkit published by the Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC) suggests issuing a camp registration card in addition to the rations card for those residents who are not entitled to food but can use the education and health services.

During the registration process it is very important to identify children and quickly document them. Children are considered those under the age of 18. It should always be a priority to document all children during the registration process as this group is known to be the most vulnerable. The priorities to protect children are against exploitation, abuse, and violence. Most attention should be given to those children who become separated during conflicts. As defined in the Handbook, separated children are those that were separated from both legal parents and guardians. Separated children may be in the company of another family member. Unaccompanied children are those that were separated from both legal parents and guardians and are not in the company of someone who has the authority to care for them. There is a standard registration form for unaccompanied and separated children in Annex 6(d), pages 1-4 of the UNHCR Handbook for Registration (Provisional Release September 2003).

It is very important that women are given the opportunity to register. Women are another high-risk and vulnerable group that should take advantage of the registration process to ensure their protection against exploitation, abuse, and gender-based violence. Due to cultural beliefs and systems, Asian-Pacific women and girls are usually treated as second class citizens and not treated equally to their male counterparts. According to the Asia Pacific Refugee Rights Network (APRRN), women and girls are less likely to have access to economic resources, education, and political rights thus they are subject to harassment, discrimination, and gender-based violence. Great strides have been made for women to have trust in the registration system and for them to understand their rights during the process. New procedures have been
implemented to ensure the protection and assistance of women during registration such as: monitoring of registration process by women leaders; appointment of women officers, interviewers, and interpreters; training of staff in gender-sensitive issues; follow up of special protection concerns; uniformity of individual documentation given to women and girls such that it is the same documentation as given to men and boys; and access to registration procedures.15

Shelter is provided for temporarily displaced residents of flood-affected areas during an assessment by U.S. Marines with the III Marine Expeditionary Force’s humanitarian assistance survey team (HAST) at the Rajamangala National Stadium in Bangkok Oct. 26, 2011. The HAST assessed flood damage in Thailand to determine what assistance U.S. forces could provide to support the Royal Thai Armed Forces. Heavier-than-Usual rains during the monsoon season flooded 61 of Thailand's 77 provinces, affecting 8.2 million people. The Marines were assessing the region in order to develop a plan for a deployment of humanitarian aid and disaster relief. (U.S. Marine Corps photo by Cpl. Robert J. Maurer/Released) [www.defenseimagery.mil](http://www.defenseimagery.mil)

Figure 3-2

Despite the positive outcomes registration does for refugees and IDPs, there are four situations when it is highly discouraged to conduct the registration process. First, it is not wise to register persons that are still moving and have not reached a final destination. Information is at risk of becoming duplicated allowing the situation to be harder to manage. Second, if a location is in close proximity to a border then it becomes likely that armed adversaries will intermingle with refugees. Third, registration should not be conducted when it is determined that it may compromise the safety of
refugees or staff. Finally, the highest priority is to save lives. In emergency situations it is more important to focus on the level of trauma affecting refugees and to forego registration. Once the situation has calmed then, at a minimum, level one registration can occur as stated above.

In conclusion, registration is an event that cannot be taken lightly in Asian-Pacific refugee or IDP camps. Registration helps to identify people’s needs and those who are at risk. Once started, registration needs to be done continuously to properly protect the people and to allow efficient planning for organizations in support of these camps. Registration can ensure people’s rights, assist in legal services, and has helped in the past for family tracing as well as family reunification. Registration is a process that can be systematic and performed the same in Asian-Pacific countries as it has been performed in other locations in the world.

Endnotes

2 Ibid., retrieved on April 24, 2014.
3 Ibid., retrieved on April 18, 2014.
4 Ibid., retrieved April 18, 2014.
6 Ibid, 9.
7 Ibid., 42.
8 Ibid., 43.
9 Ibid., 44.
10 Ibid., 45-46.
12 Ibid., 9.
13 Ibid., 10.
15 Ibid., 13-14.
Chapter 4

Force Health Protection in the PACOM AOR

MAJ Gail E. Raymond, U.S. Army

Vignette

“In the tropical Islands of the Pacific; typhoons, tsunamis, earthquakes, and any other act of disaster Mother Nature can bring, can and will happen at some point. Or it may be a conflict between countries and there is an increase in Internally Displaced Persons (IDP’s). Or there can be an influx of refugees fleeing from their country, crossing over an international border to seek refuge. How can the military support these types of crisis? How can a commander protect his Soldiers from contracting any prevalent disease in the tropical climate?”

Introduction

In the Pacific islands, just like the rest of the world, disasters happen. When they do, the devastation will be crippling and external resources will be in demand. Damage from the disaster will more than likely; destroy infrastructure, create power outages, contaminate water sources, damage crops, and farm land, therefore limiting food supplies. Or an influx of people seeking refuge can put a strain on resources. What does all of this mean? This means there will be thousands of Internally Displaced Persons (IDP) or refugees looking for food, water, and shelter. Regardless of the type of disaster or situation that has caused the increase of people to gather in a location, there will be an overwhelming number of people adding strain on host nation resources. Without proper infrastructure, sanitation, or clean water, this creates ideal conditions for a host of communicable diseases. Once a disaster or event occurs, Non-Governmental Organizations, (NGO’s) will be there to coordinate basic service to the population. At any point during a disaster, the UN Security Council can reach out and request military support. Military and civilian organizations do not have the best working relationships due to a lack of understanding of each other’s mission. Although direct coordination with NGO’s may not always be possible or advisable, having a clear understanding of their mission and how they intend to accomplish it, can help you, as a commander or staff officer, determine the most effective way to accomplish your mission.

Problem Statement

As a unit called to assist with a disaster in the Pacific Command Operational Environment (PACOM OE), your Soldiers will face an environment full of tropical disease that you may not be familiar with or have little knowledge. Protecting your Soldiers from these tropical diseases will prevent loss of work force, allowing you to accomplish your mission.

Figure 4-1

Background

In the past, PACOM has been a region that has endured many natural disasters. As we move forward, if the first portion of this year is any indication of global impact, then we can only expect that disasters will increase in frequency as well as magnitude. Pacific Command needs to be prepared not only in training, but as a healthy force. In the PACOM OE, units at any given time can receive orders to support a mission. Commanders need to make sure their Soldiers are prepared and are mission ready at all times. As leaders, the first thing we think about is being trained and ready to fight. Last thing we think about is being mission ready health wise. Making sure our Soldiers are up to date in dental and medical is very important. Prior to a mission and once we get on ground, we conduct an assessment (PMESII-PT) to get an on the ground assessment of the environment and determine the best way to conduct the mission. While in garrison, it is just as important to conduct an assessment to ensure our Soldiers are ready to deploy at any given time. Making sure Soldiers are up to date on the Army required immunizations is key. As PACOM units train in other countries within the region, it is imperative Soldiers receive the appropriate immunizations to prevent any communicable diseases. Several diseases can be life threatening and/or cause severe illness. Even mild disease can affect mission accomplishment. If commanders, are aware of the common diseases this allow them to plan for risk mitigation strategies, and control measures. Before heading into a region within PACOM, commanders...
should be familiar with the common diseases in the area, transmission of the disease, incubation period, control measures, and treatment.

Figure 4-2

Disease risk by country

This chart provides a quick reference for diseases and the potential risks within specific countries within PACOM.
Chikungunya

Chikungunya is a disease spread by the bite of infected mosquitos. Symptoms can occur 3-7 days after a bite or exposure. Most common symptoms are sudden onset of high fever (over 102 degrees) that can last several days to a week, severe joint pain, often in hands and feet that can be incapacitating. Additional symptoms may include fatigue, headache, nausea, rash, and vomiting. Individuals can have an extended period of weakness lasting weeks to months. Treatment is non-specific but includes fluids, rest, and medicine for pain and fever.

Prevention and control: There currently is no vaccine or preventive drug for Chikungunya. The main prevention is control of the vectors (Mosquitos) that transmit this disease. Some ways to prevent bites is by covering your skin, insect repellent, permethrin treated clothes, stay and sleep in screened or netted areas, and control standing water where mosquitos breed.

Potential impact to mission - loss of work force for a month or more.

Cholera

Cholera is a disease spread oral fecal transmission. Symptoms can occur within 2 hrs to 5 days of consuming contaminated food or drink. Symptoms can range from mild gastroenteritis to severe water diarrhea, nausea and vomiting. In severe cases, individuals can excrete up to 40 liters of diarrhea per day. This loss of fluid can lead to dehydration.

Disease Risk by Country

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disease</th>
<th>Brunei</th>
<th>Indonesia</th>
<th>Malaysia</th>
<th>Myanmar (Burma)</th>
<th>Phillipines</th>
<th>Singapore</th>
<th>Timor-Leste</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chikungunya</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cholera</td>
<td>Low *</td>
<td>Low *</td>
<td>Low *</td>
<td>Low *</td>
<td>Low *</td>
<td>Low *</td>
<td>Low *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dengue</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hand, Foot &amp; Mouth</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hepatitis A</td>
<td>Moderate *</td>
<td>Moderate *</td>
<td>Moderate *</td>
<td>Moderate *</td>
<td>Moderate *</td>
<td>Moderate *</td>
<td>Moderate *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5N1 Avian Flu</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese Encephalitis</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaria</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rabies</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuberculosis</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typhoid</td>
<td>Moderate *</td>
<td>Moderate *</td>
<td>Moderate *</td>
<td>Moderate *</td>
<td>Moderate *</td>
<td>Moderate *</td>
<td>Moderate *</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Low: Disease is rarely seen in specified country
Moderate: Disease is seen only in parts of country or during certain seasons
High: Present in country most of the year
*: More prevalent during disaster conditions

Risk level per country was determined by Major John Hauck, PA-C, US Army, based off CDC yellow book


Figure 4-3
severe dehydration and death within hours. Treatment is rehydration. Oral rehydration is usually effective but in severe cases, IV may be necessary. Antibiotics can help reduce the severity and duration of the dehydration of diarrhea.

Prevention and control: Safe food and water precautions are very important, proper disposal of human waste, and hand washing frequently will help prevent spread of Cholera. Although there are two oral vaccines approved by the World Health Organization (WHO) they have not been approved by the FDA and will not be used by U.S. military personnel. The risk of contracting Cholera is low except for under disaster conditions where human waste can contaminate water sources.

Potential impact to mission – is loss of work force to sickness as well as loss of personnel to take care of sick members of unit.

Dengue

Dengue is a disease spread by the bite of infected mosquitos. Symptoms can occur 4-7 days after the bite or exposure. Most common symptoms are a fever that lasts between 2-7 days. Other symptoms can be severe headaches, pain behind the eyes, muscle, joint and bone pain, rash, and easy bruising or bleeding. Most individuals recover within a few day of fever, however; some will enter a more severe phase of Dengue and can die. Warning signs at the end of the fever and entering into a more severe phase are abdominal pain, difficulty breathing, mucosal bleeding, vomiting, and signs of shock. Treatment is non-specific but should include hydration, and fever control with acetaminophen. Individuals should stay away from any medication that contains aspirin or non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAID) such as Motrin and Aleve. Severely ill patients will require treatment in an intensive care unit (ICU).

Prevention and control: There is no vaccine to prevent dengue fever. The main prevention is control of vectors (Mosquitos) that transmit this disease. It is important to note, that early signs of dengue can be mild and non-specific with rapid progression to severe disease and death. For this reason, at early onset of symptoms, patients need higher level of care that can provide treatment for severe cases. Some ways to prevent bites is by covering your skin, insect repellent, permethrin treated clothes, stay and sleep in screened or netted areas, and control standing water where mosquitos breed.

Potential impact to mission – Can cause serious illness in some patients.
Many displaced people have lost their sources of income to the conflict and are completely dependent on aid. With food hard to come by, children often fail to receive the nutrition they need. Malnutrition among children living in evacuation centres has been on the increase. In cooperation with the Zamboanga City Health Office, the ICRC is running a nutrition programme for children under 5 and women who are pregnant or breastfeeding. The programme includes supplementary feeding, nutrition counselling and close monitoring of the nutrition status of those enrolled. CC BY-NC-ND / ICRC / M. R. Hassan.

Figure 4-3

Hand, Foot, and Mouth Disease

Hand, Foot and Mouth disease spreads by person-to-person contact. Symptoms appear 4-6 days after contact with an infected person. Some of the common symptoms are fever and “feeling ill”, followed by sore throat with blister in the mouth, feet and hands. Some cases rash may develop in other areas on the body. Lesions usually clear in about one week. Treatment is non-specific but includes fluids, rest, medicine for pain and fever, and topical anesthetics for oral lesions.

Prevention and control: There is no vaccine to prevent Hand, Foot, and Mouth Disease. The main prevention is to avoid fluid contact with infected person. This includes kissing, sharing utensils. Hand washing is highly recommend to reduce the spread of the disease. Affected personnel should not be on food handling duties until all lesions are gone and cleared by medical personnel.

Potential impact on mission – transmission is relatively difficult and symptoms are typically mild.
Hepatitis A

Hepatitis A spreads by person-to-person contact, contaminated water/ice, and contaminated food. Symptoms may range from mild lasting 1-2 weeks to severe disabling up to several months. Symptoms occur on average 28 days after exposure. Some of the symptoms are abrupt onset of fever, feeling ill, lack of appetite, nausea, and abdominal discomfort. Days later, jaundice will appear. Treatment is non-specific but includes fluids, rest, and adequate nutrition.

Prevention and control: Vaccination is available. First option is two Doses of hepatitis vaccine six months apart. Second option is one Dose of Immune Globulin (IG), this recommendation is for immunocompromised individuals or people who need to travel in less than 6 months, or before completion of the series. Control measures focus on food and water precautions. Safe food and water precautions are very important, proper disposal of human waste, and hand washing frequently will help prevent spread of Hepatitis A.

Potential impact on mission – vaccine is very effective and part of the basic immunizations.

Highly Pathogenic Asian-Origin Avian Influenza A (H5N1)

H5N1 spreads poorly between people but most cases transmit directly from infected poultry, most commonly waterfowl (ducks, geese, swans). Symptoms are fever, headache, cough, runny nose, aches and pains. Uncomplicated cases usually resolve in 3-7 days, the H5N1 strain can also cause acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS). Pneumonia is a common complication of influenza, especially in malnourished individuals. Symptoms develop 1-4 days after exposure. Individuals can infect others 1 day prior to and up to 7 days after the onset of their symptoms. Treatment includes antiviral therapy, if started within 48 hours of onset of symptoms. Other treatment is primarily non-specific but includes fluids, rest, medicine for pain and fever.

Prevention and control: A vaccine has been developed, but is not routinely used. It is stock piled for use in outbreaks. Since this disease is spread primarily through direct contact with infected birds, avoidance of unnecessary contact is advised. If contact is unavoidable, N95 respirator may help mitigate the risk of disease.

Potential impact on mission – does not usually transmit from person to person.

Japanese Encephalitis

Japanese Encephalitis is a disease spread by the bite of infected mosquitos. Symptoms appear with sudden onset of fever, headache, and vomiting. Over the next few days, there can be changes in mental status, focal neurological deficits, overall weakness, and movement disorders. Symptoms develop 5-15 days after exposure.
Treatment is non-specific and there is no antiviral treatment for this disease, but includes fluids, rest, medicine for pain and fever. Severe cases may require hospital admission to manage complications.

Preventive and control: A vaccine is available. Prior to departure, Soldiers going into the PACOM OE should receive the vaccine. Some ways to prevent bites is by covering your skin, insect repellent, permethrin treated clothes, stay and sleep in screened or netted areas, and control standing water where mosquitos breed.

Potential impact to mission – vaccine is effective but not part of basic immunizations.


**Figure 4-4**

Malaria

Malaria is a disease spread by the bite of infected mosquitos. Symptoms can appear 7 days to several months after exposure, they often occur after the Soldiers return home. Symptoms can include fever, chills, headaches, jaundice. In severe cases seizures, confusion, kidney failure, coma, and death. Treatment should be provided at the onset of the disease, any delay in treatment would increase likelihood of complications, even death. Treatment involves the administration of specific anti-malarial medications, dependent on the geographic location of where the disease was contracted.
Prevention and control: There is no vaccine for Malaria. There are varieties of chemoprophylactic drugs that are effective in preventing malaria. The specific drug is based on the geographic location since different areas have different strains of malaria. Some ways to prevent bites is by covering your skin, insect repellent, permethrin treated clothes, stay and sleep in screened or netted areas, and control standing water where mosquitos breed.

Potential impact to mission – chemoprophylaxis is effective if Soldiers take the medication but many do not because they forget, are worried about side-effects, or do not believe in malaria risks.

Rabies

Rabies is a disease that is spread through the bite or scratch of a rabid animal. Symptoms onset is usually 1-3 months after exposure. It usually begins with fever and vague symptoms and progresses to anxiety, paralysis, spasms, delirium, and convulsions, which are rapidly followed by coma and death. Once clinical symptoms are visible, most patients die within 7-14 days. There is no known cure after the onset of clinical signs. Treatment of exposures should seek medical treatment immediately so the wound site can be cleansed with soap and water, and rabies immune globulin (RIG) can be administered into the wound site and inter-muscularly. Patient should get 5 Doses of rabies vaccine in accordance with standard schedule of administration.

Prevention and control: There is a vaccine available but usually administered to high-risk personnel (dog handlers, veterinarians, Special Forces). Other personnel, control of potential exposure is to minimize contact with animals that may potential carry rabies. This includes so called “mascot” animals in deployed or mission environments.

Potential impact on mission – Often difficult to control since Soldiers like to adopt stray animals that may be host for rabies.

Tuberculosis

Tuberculosis is a disease spread by inhaling bacilli that has been coughed into the air by an infected person. Symptoms included prolonged cough, fever, loss of appetite, weight loss, night sweats, and coughing up blood. Time between infection and onset of symptoms is usually several years. Latent tuberculosis infection (LTBI) can be detected within 8-10 weeks of exposure with a TB skin test (TST). Treatment is administration of specific anti-tuberculosis medications, usually for a prolonged period of 6-12 months.

Prevention and control: A vaccine called Bacillus Calmette-Guerin (BCG) is available outside the U.S. and is administered in many developing countries; however, it is not administered in the U.S. because it interferes with TST. To avoid infections, avoid crowded environments such as hospitals, prisons, and homeless shelters. Risk of exposure can be mitigated with the N-95 respirator. Within 90 days after redeployment, all personnel should be screened with TST.
Potential impact on mission - extremely long period before symptoms show, makes it unlikely that TB will affect mission.

Typhoid

Typhoid is a disease spread by oral-fecal contamination. Typhoid is caused by a strain of salmonella bacteria that is only found in humans. Symptoms develop 6-30 days after exposure, with gradually increasing fatigue, fever (102-104 after a few days of being sick), other symptoms include headache, feeling ill, and loss of appetite. In some cases, little rose colored spots may appear on the individual’s trunk. Typhoid usually clears up within a month without treatment, although it can result in intestinal perforation leading to death. Treatment with antibiotics can reduce duration of disease and risk of death.

Prevention and control: There are two vaccines available in the U.S. but neither one is 100% effective. Safe food and water precautions are very important, proper disposal of human waste, and hand washing frequently will help prevent spread of Typhoid. Some cases individuals are carriers and spread Typhoid but do not show symptoms of the disease.

Potential impact on mission – Disease is present throughout PACOM and becomes more prevalent after natural disasters. Vaccine is not part of basic immunization series and only 50%-80% effective.

Disease characteristics by disease

The chart below provides a quick reference of diseases, modes of transmission, incubation periods, preventive measures, symptoms, treatment, and control measures, within specific diseases within PACOM.
Conclusion

As a deploying unit, there are precautions that you can take in order to prevent your Soldiers from contracting any tropical diseases. First, make sure Soldiers comply with Army standards for their immunizations. Second, as you prepare to deploy make sure your Soldiers receive vaccines specific to the region of operations. Third, educate your Soldiers and make them aware that stray animals can be vectors for different disease, some that can be deadly. Fourth, ensure your Soldiers are familiar with proper wear of uniform during deployment, uses of insecticides, and use of proper use of netting to prevent insect-borne diseases. Lastly, during deployment make sure leadership is enforcing these control measures to include taking anti-malarial medication. While the medical department is responsible for taking care of Soldiers who are ill, it is the leadership’s responsibility to take proper control measures to prevent diseases.

The following pages can provide you with health information pertaining to specific regions mentioned in exhibit 1 and 2 plus, many other locations in the world.
Additional References:

This document will help you understand what you can and cannot do in a humanitarian environment.

http://hiip.wpro.who.int/portal/Home.aspx
This website "World Health Organization" will provide you with statistical data on the areas.

http://www.icrc.org/
This website "International Committee of the Red Cross" can provide humanitarian protection and assistance.

http://www.msf.org/
This website "Medecines Sans Frontieres or Doctors without borders" is an organization that provides medical treatment to those in need regardless of race, religion, political affiliation or gender.

http://www.refugeesinternational.org/
This website "Refugees International" is an independent organization that does not accept government funding. This organization promotes stability for displaced people. Due to their timely response, individuals receive food, shelter and medical care. They have helped the Myanmarese and Malaysians in the past during crisis.

http://www.unicef.org
This website "The United Nations Children's Fund" is a United Nations Program. UNICEF assists mothers and children in underdeveloped countries by providing long-term humanitarian and developmental assistance.

http://www.unocha.org/
This website "Office of the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA)" is the part of the United Nations Secretariat that works globally with affected nations to help coordinate humanitarian response during disasters.

http://www.usaid.gov/
This website "The United States Agency for International Development" is an organization that is the lead U.S. Government agency that works to end extreme global poverty. They work next to the military during active conflicts to build stability.
Chapter 5

Cultural Health Considerations in the PACOM AOR

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Southeast Asian Refugees

Health issues of Southeast Asian refugees can be attributed to inadequate access to 
health care and cultural beliefs toward health and medical care. Cultural beliefs about 
the sources of illness, suffering, predetermined life spans, and treatment methods can 
also create a barrier to seeking treatment from Western medical practitioners or 
healthcare providers (Uba 1992). Cultural awareness of Southeast Asian traditions and 
beliefs about health and medical care significantly enhance Western healthcare 
providers' ability to communicate with patients regarding their medical needs. The 
following is an overview of various factors affecting the medical care of Southeast 
Asian refugees to include, social determinants, access to care, dietary behaviors, 
general health practices and beliefs, religious and spiritual beliefs, views about maternal 
child healthcare and mental health, the prevalence of domestic and sexual abuse, and 
sexually transmitted diseases.

Overview

Southeast Asia consists of the ten independent countries located along the continental 
arcs and offshore archipelagos of Asia - Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, 
Myanmar (Burma), the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam. Life expectancy 
in these countries has increased over the last 60 years and averages about 71 years 
(Statistica 2013). However, in some cases life expectancy rates have been affected by 
Deaths from communicable diseases are most prominent in Cambodia, Myanmar, and Laos (Hashim, et al. 2012). Injuries are a key cause of death in all countries, though 
less so in Singapore and Brunei. Environmental influences continue to be a factor in 
disease and mortality in Southeast Asia and account for about a quarter of all deaths 
(Hashim, et al. 2012). Southeast Asia is one of the most disaster-prone regions in the 
world. Northern countries, such as the Philippines and Vietnam, are affected by 
seasonal typhoons. The Philippines and Indonesia are prone to earthquakes and 
volcanoes. Drought and uncontrolled forest fires are prominent in Indonesia. Haze 
pollution is unprecedented in the region. Climate change worsens the spread of 
infectious diseases, especially vector-borne diseases which are linked to rises in 
temperature and rainfall (Abbato 2011). Intestinal parasites, dental caries, Hemoglobin 
E, Thalassemia Minor, tuberculosis, and Hepatitis B are common health issues among 
Southeast Asian refugees (Abbato 2011).
Social Determinants of Health

“Ongoing internal conflict, military repression of ethnic minorities, forced relocations based on economic strategy, and pervasive poverty have resulted in a constant exodus of political and economic refugees” (Ward 2002). The literacy rates in Southeast Asia vary and average about 71% (Statistica 2013). Burma has a high overall literacy rate (89.9%) as a result of traditional Buddhist monastery schools and government campaigns. The overall literacy for Cambodians is 73.6%. They are considered the most traumatized of all Southeast Asian people due to famine and starvation, witnessed death, and destruction. The Chinese overall literacy rate is among the highest in the regions at about 91.6% (Statistica 2013).

Access to Care

Professional medical care is limited in rural, conflict-ridden areas of Southeast Asia. Basic medical services are routinely provided by nongovernmental organizations in refugee camps. These services include vaccinations, maternal and child healthcare, nutrition programs, family planning, tuberculosis treatment, and HIV/AIDS treatment (Hashim, et al. 2012). Mental health services are uncommon and dental care is rare.

Dietary Behaviors

A traditional diet in this region consists of mostly of rice, salt, chilies, and some vegetables. This diet contributes to protein, vitamin A, and thiamine deficiencies. Pregnant women, post-partum lactating women, and young children in the villages commonly have a thiamine deficiency (Abbato 2011). Medications and foods have hot or cold properties and can adversely or positively affect health conditions and emotions.
Foods that are sour, salty, or high in animal protein are considered hot foods, sweet or bitter foods are considered cold (Abbato 2011).

Drinking whiskey, smoking cigarettes and cheroots, and chewing tobacco and betel nut is common. Betel nut stains the teeth red, causes gum ulcers, and oral cancer. Smoking is part of the culture (Renard 2012). Some males may begin smoking as early as 10 years of age (Hashim, et al. 2012). Some Southeast Asia ethnic groups are traditional opium producers, others produce marijuana mainly harvested to sell for profit or to feed elephants and other animals (Abbato 2011). The prevalence of amphetamine use among Southeast Asian refugees is increasing. Amphetamines are distributed by military factions as part of the ethnic cleansing policy (Abbato 2011).

![Aid worker doing exam on child. C. Baker.](http://www.msf.org/article/south-sudan-bentiu-camp-floodwaters-recede-tension-remains)

**Figure 5-2**

Traditional Health Practices and Behaviors

Refugees from Southeast Asia believe that one achieves optimum health through the right balance of “hot” and “cold” elements. Medications and foods are used to bring the body back into balance (Renard 2012). Thanakha, for example is a paste made from tree bark used to cool the skin. Another traditional health belief for this region is the thought that good health is the result of an adequate supply of healthy blood in the body (Renard 2012). Pregnancy is considered one condition that decreases a woman’s “blood level, therefore “blood medicine” is used to restore the blood levels back to normal (Hashim, et al. 2012). The Karen people have a saying, “Food is medicine and...
medicine is food.” They will avoid certain foods when sick while eating more of the foods that are thought to promote healing (Renard 2012). Health providers must understand and discuss alterations in diets with patients when an illness is diagnosed.

People may justify illnesses in terms of both the natural and supernatural (Uba 1992). Some illnesses are attributed to moral justice by ancestors or deities for misdeeds or negligence, or even cosmic disharmony, which occurs if an individual’s birth year, birth month, birth day and time of birth (the eight characters) conflict with another family member (Abbato 2011). Evil forces, such as malicious spirits or poor Feng Shui can also contribute to disease or illnesses. The sick, elderly, and pregnant women depend heavily on other family members for assistance. The role of the family in discussing health matters of a seriously ill family members with healthcare professionals is very important (Abbato 2011). Traditional Chinese medical treatments include Chinese herbs, acupuncture, and acupressure.

Cupping, pinching or rubbing are traditional healing practices. For example, a heated cup positioned on the forehead or abdomen, creating a vacuum. These treatments often leave red marks or bruising, which can be confused for more serious. Illness or domestic abuse. Surgery or other invasive techniques are viewed as a last resort (Renard 2012). The need for blood tests may create fear as any loss of blood weakens the body making the individual more susceptible to illness or disease (Abbato 2011). Women are more comfortable being examined by female health care providers. Injections are thought to be more effective than oral medications.

Religious. and Spiritual Beliefs

The main religious traditions in Southeast Asia include; Hinduism, Buddhism, Animism and Christianity. Indian Ayurvedic systems, including Alchemy and Chinese medicine highly influence medicine practices of this region (Hashim, et al. 2012). Herbal medicine and folk healing traditions are prominent. Evil spirits that dwell within human body or Hnam cannot be cured by Western medical practices. There is a widespread belief in incantations and black magic in some parts of the Southeast Asian region (Abbato 2011).

Hinduism grants followers freedom to practice his or her religion as they choose. The concepts of prayer, meditation, and purity are important (Queensland Health 2011). Hindus fasting practices vary from complete abstinence to avoiding certain kinds of foods. Astrological beliefs play a major role in health and wellbeing. Hindus believe that all living beings possess a soul which passes through successive cycles of birth and rebirth (Queensland Health 2011). Dying at home has a significant religious connotation. A Pandit (priest) will perform rituals and the deceased body is usually washed by close family members and cremated as soon as possible after death (Queensland Health 2011).

Buddhists believe present events are attributed to past actions. The idea of karma can explain aspects of mental illness as a result of one’s past actions. A person’s health is
determined by the elements of fire, water, air and earth (Abbato 2011). An imbalance in these elements can lead to illness or disease. Buddhists feel that religious verses are important illness curing mechanisms (Hashim, et al. 2012). The verses are either floated over the patient or recited over water for the patient to drink. A Buddhist monk or minister provides chaplaincy services by way of chants when an individual is dying to help release the person’s good energies (Hashim, et al. 2012). Buddhists believe that a person’s state of mind at the time of death is extremely influential in the next rebirth. They perform cremations when someone dies.

Animists believe that an individual possesses many souls called “kla” which may leave the body for various reasons. Kla should be retained because losing them puts an individual at risk for disease or illness (Abbato 2011). The practice of tying a sacred string around the wrist by an elder or religious shaman is one way to retain kla. When a person dies the kla depart the body and reemerge in a newborn (Abbato 2011). Animists perform cremations when someone dies.

Christians bury their dead. The community prepares a feast when someone dies. Chanting, drinking, and storytelling is common at these feasts (Hashim, et al. 2012). There is an idea that one’s body should be kept intact when one dies so organ donation is uncommon. Healing traditions of herbalism are opposed by some Christian ethnic groups in the region. Some try to revive the ancient practices, but access to herbal plants is limited (Hashim, et al. 2012).

The youth population place a decreased value on traditional practices. Local NGOs have contributed to this by not cooperating with local healers or encouraging proven traditional practices, and prohibiting traditional midwifery (Abbato 2011). Trust in modern medicine among the population is about fifty/fifty. One interesting note is the vitamins and other medications are sometimes confused because some groups use the same word for both. Refugees have grown accustomed to accessing health care through a clinic setting in refugee camps provided by non-governmental organizations (Renard 2012).

Maternal Child Health

Infant mortality rates tend to be moderately high, due to a fear of seeking prenatal care or having a child in foreign hospitals. In Thailand, hospitals are reported to have performed illegal sterilizations of refugees. Hepatitis B is common during pregnancy (Hashim, et al. 2012). Home births with the use of traditional midwives was preferred over delivering in the hospital due to shame of vaginal examinations, leg exposure from not being completely covered by their sarongs, and male health staff being present (Abbato 2011). Traditionally, birthdays are not recognized. Many refugees will document their birthday, as January 1 and a year estimated to be the year of their birth (Hashim, et al. 2012).

During the post-partum period, women are expected to rest and not go outside for one month to maintain optimal health. There are restrictions on work and movement. For the
first three days post-partum, the husband of the woman giving birth serve her food and
shower/bathe her twice a day (Hashim, et al. 2012). The birthing mother will often eat
only rice and a soup that is a little bit hot and spicy. Turmeric, or tumeric, is a root found
in the ginger family, and is dried and ground into a yellow spice commonly used in
curries. Tumeric is often placed on the skin of babies, and may be mistaken for
jaundice. Babies are generally breastfed for an average of 1 ½ years, but may go up to
3 years (Hashim, et al. 2012).

Mental Health

There are high rates of psychiatric disorders associated with post-traumatic stress
disorder (PTSD) and depression. Many refugees have experienced numerous traumatic
events including the deaths of family members, prolonged separation from family,
repressive measures, and uncertainty about their future (Abbato 2011). In addition, they
have been impacted in many cases by a lack of food and water and the widespread use
of landmines. Many Karen, Karenni, Mon, and Shan people, persecuted by the military
regime in Burma, have resided in refugee camps along the Thai border for decades
(Renard 2012).

Religious faith is often a substitute for psychological care. Dealing with mental health
issues in a stoic manner, without complaint, is a cultural norm (Uba 1992). Religious
leaders and advisors provide solace and advice to help encourage those experiencing
these issues to move on. Traditional medical treatments for mentally ill patients is
uncommon (Hashim, et al. 2012). Some mental disorders are thought to be due to spirit
possession. Religious advisors are often asked to perform purification rituals in these
incidences.

Domestic and Sexual Abuse

Domestic abuse is an issue in Southeast Asia. Children are often disciplined by physical
means. In Thai refugee camps, intimate partner violence is a raising concern. A
research study conducted in 2002 found that 20% of randomly selected married women
had been abused by their husbands, with 17% sustaining an injury (Renard 2012).
Rape victims are generally treated with sympathy and, if reported, action is taken
against the rapist, depending on the circumstances. Being a victim of rape does not
preclude a women from marriage (Renard 2012). Burmese women fall victim to various
types of abuse in Thailand due to their lack of legal status. They live in harsh conditions
and are often denied labor protection and health services (Renard 2012).

Sexually Transmitted Diseases

The young population does not have accurate information about sexual health or
anatomy, but are receptive to information from healthcare providers. Sexually
transmitted infections prevention and treatment awareness is low. Premarital sex is
unaccepted, yet many young people engage in premarital sex. If their sexual relations
are discovered they are pressured to marry. Girls marry as young as 14 (Renard 2012).
In this cultural environment, unmarried young mothers may require encouragement, support, and education regarding prenatal care and contraception. Abortion is strongly frowned upon, unless a last resort out of desperation. Women may try to terminate a pregnancy through traditional medicines and massage, but will turn to dangerous illegal procedures, if necessary (Abbato 2011). Although not taboo, sex related issues are not openly discussed in the community. Patients may be reluctant to initiate a discussion about a sexual issue, but will often appreciate the opportunity to discuss the issue with their healthcare provider.

Medical Care in the Refugee Camps

Non-Governmental Organizations that operate medical clinics in Southeast Asia are Medicine San Frontiers, American Refugee Committee, International Rescue Committee, and Malteser of Germany (Hashim, et al. 2012). These clinics provide limited healthcare, maternal and child health, family planning information, vaccinations and nutrition programs. People can be tested for TB and HIV/ AIDS. Patients will generally feel more comfortable with same-gender interpreters due to the healthcare issues that may be discussed during their hospital visits (Hashim, et al. 2012).

This is a summary of health issues relating to refugees from Southeast Asia as a whole. Healthcare providers should exercise caution in applying the information to individual patients as refugees in this region are culturally diverse, and their individual experiences, beliefs, and practices vary widely. This information should serve as a baseline understanding of health practices in Southeast Asia. Health providers should take extra time to understand the refugee’s health knowledge and beliefs and explain relevant health issues and needed treatment.

References

Abbato, S. *Community Profiles for Health Care Providers*. Brisbane: Division of the Chief Health Officer, Queensland Health, 2011.


Chapter 6

Refugees and Human Trafficking in the USPACOM AOR: What you should know about these two problems

MAJ John Nonnemaker and MAJ Kristy Wolter, U.S. Army

Figure 6-1

Families fleeing from their homes in Maguindanao as a result of fighting between the Bangsamoro Islamic Freedom Fighters and the Armed Forces of the Philippines. © OCHA/Jeoffrey Maitem.

The United States Pacific Command’s (USPACOM) Area of Responsibility (AOR) is home to 7.7 million people of concern to UNHCR: they include 3.5 million refugees, 1.9 million internally displaced people (IDPs), and 1.4 million stateless people. Of these 7.7 million people of concern, more than 80 percent of refugees are women and children. A large majority are without the protection of their husbands, fathers or other male family members, leaving them vulnerable to becoming victims of trafficking. ¹ See figure 1 below.
This article will focus on how you as a commander can plan, prevent, and react to human trafficking recruitment in a refugee environment. DOD defines human trafficking as using fraud, force or coercion to recruit, harbor, transport or obtain a person for commercial sex or labor services.\(^2\)

At Tham Hin refugee camp on the Thai-Myanmar border, the first Karen refugees to be resettled in the United States board a bus for the start of their journey to a new life.\(^3\)
Know where you are going

Globally it has been estimated that 36 million people are engaged in modern slavery. Of that 36 million people nearly two-thirds (65.8%) are located in the Asia-Pacific region. Each country in the Asia-Pacific Region has its own distinct culture, religion, and views. Due to these unique cultural differences these countries will also have different view on refugees and human trafficking.

According to the Global Slavery Index (GSI), India, China, Pakistan, Indonesia, Bangladesh, and Thailand are in the top 10 countries with the highest number of trafficking victims in the world. The State Department’s annual Trafficking in Persons (TIP) report, which measures countries’ efforts to comply with international human trafficking standards, corroborates many of the GSI findings. The report found that North Korea, Malaysia, Papua New Guinea, and Thailand are all Tier 3 - the worst ranking a country can receive for trafficking violations. Tier 3 countries are subject to international scrutiny and potential sanctions. Burma, Cambodia, China, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka, among others, are under close watch on the Tier 2 Watch List.
Human trafficking is not solely a problem from within the refugee and IDP camps. In the Asia Pacific region there are other unique challenges within the refugee plight. Nearly 63% of the 3.5 million refugees in the Asia-Pacific region live outside of camps. Many of these refugees are more vulnerable than those in camps and their protection and basic needs are often inadequately addressed. Despite not being confined to the boundaries of a camp, freedom of movement is often limited; many lack documentation and risk detention and deportation. Detention practices and other forms of restrictive asylum policies continue to spread, limiting refugees' access to basic services and socio-economic rights. Their lack of status and documentation prevents them from legally accessing the job market. Due to this, they often become victims of human trafficking.7

Child porter in a stone quarry, Nepal. According to the International Labour Organization (ILO), two million people become enslaved annually, many of whom are children engaged in dangerous work. Credit: ILO.8

Figure 6-5

Know how to prevent recruiting at the tactical level

For units at the tactical level understanding, being aware, and early detection is imperative to combat human trafficking. The following are key tasks that commanders need to place emphasis on:

- Undertake a mapping of populations at risk within broader refugee populations, including women without family living in non-group settings. Where appropriate, the “Heightened Risk Identification Tool” should be used to identify individuals in need of enhanced protection services.9
• Be vigilant for people or organizations that may be offering jobs or a better life to camp members. Be aware that human trafficking recruiters may be children within the camps.
• Start an information campaign on how to report and combat human trafficking recruiting.
• Appoint a human trafficking prevention officer and ensure he/she receives advanced training.
• Ensure members of your command receive USPACOM specific mandatory training.
• Ensure commanders and leaders are trained above and beyond the DoD annual training to assist in playing a critical awareness role in prevention.
• Coordinate with local host nation law enforcement; be aware of known traffickers in the area.
• Temper and balance border enforcement policies and migration controls to ensure the protection of the most vulnerable.
• Create education programs for refugees, to inform them of the risks of trafficking and how they can be reduced, target to those at the highest risk.
• Provide programs intended to expand economic opportunities – for refugee women as well as men – are a critical anti-trafficking measure.
• Take special efforts to ensure the protection of women and children, and to maintain gender and age-based analytic frameworks in understanding specific refugee situations, are a critical element of risk reduction. Think about women and kids traveling outside of camps (the routes) going further and further away, ensure these routes are secure.
• Separated children should have “best interest determinations” (BIDs) upon identification, and periodically thereafter, to ensure the safety and security of their placements and appropriate consideration of durable solutions.
• Collaborate and information-sharing between those working on refugee protection and assistance as well as those working on human trafficking. Each sector needs to be educated about the risks each population faces and where these risks intersect. And solutions need to be designed that address the multiplication of risks. Enhanced refugee protection is an anti-trafficking measure and preventing trafficking is an essential element of refugee protection.10

Know How to React Battle Drill

Once a possible crime has been spotted, it is important to know how and where to report. The checklist and chart below are examples of the steps to take. Additionally the chart is broken down by country and the different potential organizations that can be contacted.

• Contact the right people: See Reference list.
• Inform Chain of Command.
• Understand that an UNHCR camp and IDP camp will have a different process to follow.
Know your roles

As the military organization present it is important to understand what your role is in connection with the other organizations present in the AO.

Department of Defense (DOD): DOD endeavors to ensure that the U.S. military, its civilian employees, and its contractors are aware of and adopt the zero tolerance policy on human trafficking.12

Department of State (DOS): DOS represents the United States in the global fight to address human trafficking by engaging with foreign governments, international and intergovernmental organizations, and civil society to develop and implement effective strategies for confronting modern slavery. This occurs through bilateral and multilateral diplomacy, targeted foreign assistance, public outreach, and specific projects on trafficking in persons. DOS chairs the PITF and the SPOG. The Bureau of Population, Refugees, and Migration (PRM) and the Office to Monitor and Combat Trafficking in Persons (G/TIP) fund international anti-trafficking programs. PRM also funds the Return, Reintegration, and Family Reunification Program for Victims of Trafficking. G/TIP produces the annual Trafficking in Persons Report which spotlights modern slavery around the world, encourages the work of the civil sector, and is the U.S. government’s principal diplomatic tool used to engage foreign governments.13
Department of Health and Human Services (HHS): HHS leads the Rescue & Restore Victims of Human Trafficking public awareness campaign, funds organizations to conduct outreach to foreign and U.S. citizen victims, funds comprehensive case management and support services for foreign victims in the United States, and certifies foreign victims of a severe form of trafficking in persons to be eligible to receive federal benefits and services to the same extent as refugees.  

Agency for International Development (USAID): USAID funds international programs that prevent trafficking, protect and assist victims, and support prosecutions through training for police and criminal justice personnel. USAID reinforces successful anti-trafficking initiatives by funding programs that support economic development, child protection, women’s empowerment, good governance, education, health, and human rights. 

In Conclusion

Without attention by the U.S. and Asian governments towards this serious issue, emphasis on detection and prevention, millions of adults and children will continue to be forced into modern slavery, sex trafficking, and child soldiering in Asia. A solution to the problem of trafficking risks for refugees is the need to recognize and support refugees’ strengths, abilities, and to meet basic living standards. Refugees are often treated as disposable people, pawns in larger political games or the unwanted results of conflicts. When refugees are able to participate in peacemaking, contribute to the societies they join, and to support their families, the risk of being trafficked is reduced. Partnering with refugees and refugee communities in a meaningful way to identify and implement solutions is the best way to provide protection that addresses actual need.

Endnotes

1 http://unocha.org/annualreport/2012/year-in-review
5 http://www.unhcr.org/44e5bd72.html
7 Cronk, “Official Reports.”
9 UNHCR, “Regional Operations Profile.”
12 U.S. Department of State, "Combatting Human Trafficking."
13 Ibid.
14 Ibid.
15 Ibid.
16 Wilson, “Trafficking Risks.”
Chapter 7

Sexual and Gender-Based Violence (SGBV) in the PACOM AOR

MAJ Leandro Oliveira Do Amaral, Brazilian Army Group

Introduction

By definition, refugees are those individuals who have left the country of their nationality and crossed an international border, due to a well-founded fear of being persecuted, and that persecution is based on race, religion, and nationality, or being membership in a particular social group or political opinion. It is easy to realize that the condition of a refugee is primarily marked by both a sense of insecurity and a high expectation of rebuilding his life in a new and unknown environment.

It is necessary to understand how hopeless a human being feels to give up of his way of life and forcibly move from his homeland to another place. It can be characterized as a desperate act against his own will in order to preserve his life and his family. The outcome is that the refugee is a person psychologically affected by the fear of dying and struggling in order to survive.

In refugee camps, the basic needs are essential points, which need to be addressed to save lives. The refugee expects to find water, food, medical treatment, rest, and physical security right away. Borrowing Marlow’s Pyramid model, the physiological necessities must be attended to first, and subsequently, the security demands are the next item which must be addressed.

However, the refugees are constantly threatened by the environment that surrounds them. In the refugee camps, there are so many problems regarding security. Poverty, an uncertain legal status, the isolation from their loved ones, lack of resources and infrastructures, the exercise of leadership by the internal refugees groups, cultural traditions, methods of conflict resolution; all of these things result in a climate of fear and increase the sense of insecurity among the people in a refugee camp.

Although all the refugees have been affected by security problems, children and women are a special group living in accentuated insecure conditions in the camps. War and other violent conflicts sometimes produce refugees whose families resent the absence of the male member who is usually in charge of providing some level of security against other refugees or possibly against nationals. The result is that children and women are constantly exposed to all kinds of hazards in the refugee camp.

Quantifying the Problem

Using as reference the data gathering in Thailand’s refugee camps, it is possible to clearly identify the most significant crimes which threaten women and children. According to the report, Sexual and Gender-Based Violence (SGBV) is common in the...
camps; especially the women and children suffer sexual assault, sexual exploitation, and trafficking.²

Domestic violence associated with alcoholism is also reported in a high rate. A study of nine camps in 2006 showed the following results: 35 cases of rape; 122 cases of domestic violence; seven cases of attempted of rape; one case of sexual exploitation; two cases of trafficking; 16 cases of other sexual assault; and nine cases of pre-asylum sexual and gender-based violence. It is remarkable to that this number is probably higher than what was revealed because personal shame, stigmas, taboos and other social conventions contribute to preventing the victim from reporting the crimes to the camp authorities.

Based on this statistic, it is reasonable to conclude that SGBV crime will probably be an important issue to all military commanders who have responsibility for a refugee camp. Also, special attention must be paid to the children and women in order to try to avoid this degrading crime in and around the camp.

Recommendations to Military Commanders

Synergetic Environment

First of all, the military commander has to understand that working in a refugee camp requires a huge effort which must be shared with all agencies available. An overview of the potential and role of Non-governmental Agencies (NGO), Intergovernmental Organizations (IGO), and International Organizations (IO) can maximize the results in all areas regarding refugee camps, including security. For example, controlling the flux of all goods required for the survival of the refugees demands coordination between the military and civil agencies. Also, access to the camps by employees from the different agencies must be managed by the security personnel. The adequate harmonization of all capacities creates a synergetic result which save preciouses resources.

Understanding the Context

Although a military commander has to deal with camps full of thousands of people, understanding the deep the social structure within the refugee group is a challenge that must be pursued. All information about the individual refugee must be collected as soon as possible using an interview process which can be conducted by military personnel or any reliable agency. First, understanding the refugee’s social framework is a fundamental tool to identify orphans, single women without families, teen girls, and families without a male member. All of these groups are at high risk of suffering SGBV in the camps. Second, the interview also contributes to the understanding of the cultural environment that drives the behavior inside the refugee society. Finally, identification of the possible groups at risk and the added knowledge about the social behavior towards these groups, the commandant has a clear vision regarding who is in danger and has an initial idea of how to protect them to prevent inadequate social behaviors.
Congregate the Similar Groups According to Their Needs

When the commander has the cultural understanding about the human groups that he is dealing with, he should congregate the related groups in order to reinforce an environment of security and self-protection. For instance, he should keep members of the same family in the same part of the camp. The right of family unit and family life is internationally recognized, and it must be considered in military planning to leverage a healthy social environment. Also, women or teen girls without families must receive individual attention. This special group can be victimized by sexual assault, rape, sexually transmitted diseases, undesired or teen pregnancy and social isolation. If possible, the recommendation is to locate this group in the same housing to avoid social isolation and use mutual support to reinforce their capacity to survive without being attacked.

Controlling the Movement of Personnel

Although the refugee camp area cannot be totally isolated from the exterior, control the exits and entrances is also important in order to diminish the odds of sex crimes occurring. Controlling movement is a fundamental instrument in maintaining a safe environment. If available, fences can help isolate the refugees from outside threats. By the way, the military commander must not forget that some nationals realize the refugee condition as a great opportunity to take advantage of the refugee’s critical situation. External threats against the refugees can be prevented with rigid control of unauthorized persons and by controlling the main points of access around the camp where gates can be used.

Sometimes, managing the exit of the refugees beyond the limits of the camps, even though it looks like an authoritarian procedure, can mean the difference between being exposed to a sexual crime or being safe. Also, providing water, firewood or fuel to cook, and food consistently, helps keep the women and children safe. Cooking and collecting fuel and water has been seen as a task for women and children. They sometimes need to go far away from the camps to gather these goods, and many cases of SGBV happen outside of the area of the camps.3

Internal Leadership

All social organizations have internal leadership. Identifying this group, which must be recognized as representing all of the refugees, enhances the security system. A correct identification of this group will require a complete understanding of the cultural and social relationships among the refugees. Once the leader is identified, the military commander needs to employ him as a spokesman and to enhance the mentality of security. Taking all necessary measures in strict coordination with the internal leadership contributes to the guarantee of the commitment of most people inside the camp. Also, the leadership must help to implement ethical and legal practices to leverage the security environment within the camp. The leaders can also help identify possible criminals or misfits.
Providing Justice

The military commander has to make every effort to provide justice and answers to the refugee’s complaints regarding crimes. Most of the military commanders have a perfect understanding about the importance of a preventive police system in the camp. Military personnel easily address this part of the solution. However, once a law has been broken by a refugee, all mechanisms necessary to clarify the crime have to be endorsed and promptly executed. Even though the investigative system is not the responsibility of the military, the perpetrators must be prosecuted, and the penalties applied to maintain order and a feeling of security in the camp. The victim also needs to feel protected in order to accuse the criminal, and the military commander has to work in order to provide all required support to refugee access to the justice system. In some cases it may be necessary to provide relocation to another camp for the victim and her family.

Conclusion

Physical security is a fundamental issue for both the military and refugees in the camps. SGBV is a constant menace to the refugees, especially women and children. Avoiding these kinds of crimes in the camp area is a great challenge to all military commanders. The military commander has to use all existing agencies in order to leverage the security system in the camp. This means that all capacities available have to be connected and employed to build a safe environment. Also, identification of the risk group is an important step in protecting them. Moreover, once the natural or similar groups are identified, keeping them together is a powerful tool to enhancing the security system. Only authorized personnel should have permission to enter the refugee camps. If possible, the camp area must be isolated from the exterior threat, mainly malicious nationals. The internal leadership, if recognized by the refugees as legitimate, can be utilized to endorse procedures of security and identification of criminals. The capture and prosecution of criminals also contributes significantly to leveraging the feeling of security and diminishing the number of crimes. If the punishment is adequately executed and the criminal is segregated from society among the refugees, the victim feels more protected.

Endnotes


April 18, 2014), 67.

References


Chapter 8

Contracting Support for Displaced Persons in the PACOM AOR

MAJ Dawn Eakins, U.S. Army

According to the American Refugee Committee International (ARC), 39 million people have been forced to flee their homes due to conflict or natural disaster. Of the 39 million people, 10 million are refugees and 29 million are internally displaced persons.¹ Military units involved in conflict intervention may encounter mass amounts of people on the move in fear of violence from conflict or those attempting to move from unsafe areas. This encounter may be difficult for traditional military units of brigade size to undertake due to the extent of the humanitarian crisis at hand. Although, the solution to a crisis may overreach the capability of a brigade element, it does not alleviate the unit’s requirement to act in order to save human lives. Military units must therefore know how to coordinate combined support elements from various entities that specialize in humanitarian crisis. Thus, this article will display how a Brigade Commander could utilize United States Agency for International Development (USAID) contracting for support of an unexpected refugee or internally displaced persons crisis. USAID utilizes contracts, cooperative agreements and grants to acquire commodities and services in support of its mission: to end extreme global poverty and enable resilient, democratic societies to realize their potential. USAID is an important resource for a brigade commander to establish a relationship prior to the start of a crisis. They have the expertise in dealing with humanitarian crisis. They know where the good contractors are in the area and how to utilize them along with a firm understanding their market price rates.

Know the organizations within the region

It is imperative for brigade commanders to know what organizations are in their region and organizational capabilities in order to effectively leverage the proper expertise to deal with refugee or internally displaced situations. In dealing with a refugee or displaced persons crisis, military commanders will have a number non-governmental organizations, interagency, and the U.S. embassies to assist. Many large non-governmental organizations such as, United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF), Doctors Without Borders, Shelterbox, Care, Islamic Relief USA, and Catholic Relief operate within various regions around the world and have capabilities to provide tents, shelter equipment, medical support and aid, food, water as well as labor support. It is beneficial to know who these organizations are, what they actually do, where are they located, and how to connect with a coordinating organizational representative. Possessing a sound understanding of regional partners will enable the ability to solve problems jointly. Additionally, the synergy created when different government departments, agencies, and non-governmental organizations work together to achieve effects of the DIME (Diplomacy, Information, Military and Economic) approach to solve complex humanitarian problems is essential.
As stated by Ambassador Michael E. Ranneberger, “If you look at it, we are doing precisely the same thing, which is to advance U.S. national security interests by using our different tools,” he said. “I have always seen the work of the military as integral to diplomatic activity. So it is not an ‘either-or’ -- either we have diplomacy or we have military action. Sometimes it is a combination of both, or one that reinforces the ability to achieve the other.”
Define the problem

In the midst of a refugee crisis, several problems and issues will unfold and require the brigade commander to take action. These problems could range from violence, security concerns, serious medical injuries, the lack of life saving equipment or the lack of supplies for basic human survival. A defined problem, one which is prioritized according the capabilities of the military unit, will help the unit to better communicate the situation at hand and coordinate for the actual need beyond unit capabilities. Defining the problem should be based on the immediate needs to sustain human life. It is the basis for understanding and developing the requirements for contracted needs. This means fully understanding why a large mass of people are on the move. Are they fleeing violence or a natural disaster? Does the military unit have the organic capability to provide immediate security of the victimized group? How much food, water and shelter will need to be provided and for how long?

In emergency situations, you could imagine the needs of those displaced or refugees would be identical to the foundational needs displayed in the Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, physiological needs and safety. Physiological needs are those basic needs for human survival such as, air, food, water and shelter. The need for safety includes the desire to be safe and secure, which is an essential element for human survival. In defining the problem within a humanitarian or refugee crisis, the immediate needs must be identified and solved for the preservation of human life. Ultimately, the brigade commander must intricately know what are the immediate needs present and how he/she can obtain additional assistance beyond unit capabilities.
USAID contracting process

USAID provides awards to organizations in compliance with the Federal Acquisition Regulation (FAR), the Code of Federal Regulations (CFR), and Internal Agency regulations, policies, and procedures (USAID Automated Directives System (ADS)). USAID contracted resources could be utilized as a continuum beyond contingency contract support vehicles established using Army contracting teams. USAID contracting procedures are essentially the same as those found in DoD and various defense agency contracting, as both are governed by the FAR. Generally, Department of Army procedures are the following and may overlap: requirements identification/development, market research and acquisition planning, solicitation, evaluation, contract award and contract administration.

An overview of the main steps of the USAID Acquisition & Assistance award process.

Figure 8-3

Where the differences lie are within departmental policies, agency policies, and contracting command policies and also may depend on situational circumstances. For example, in 2010 the Department of Defense launched the “Better Buying Power” initiative. Essentially, it is the department’s mandate to do more without more. Better Buying Power (BBP) is the implementation of best practices to strengthen the Defense
Department's buying power, improve industry productivity, and provide an affordable, value-added military capability to the Warfighter. Launched in 2010, BBP encompasses a set of fundamental acquisition principles to achieve greater efficiencies through affordability, cost control, elimination of unproductive processes and bureaucracy, and promotion of competition. BBP initiatives also incentivize productivity and innovation in industry and Government, and improve tradecraft in the acquisition of services.\(^5\)

This initiative focuses on utilizing firm fixed priced (FFP) contracting to the fullest extent. As described in FAR Part 16.202-1, firm-fixed-price contract provides for a price that is not subject to any adjustment on the basis of the contractor’s cost experience in performing the contract. This contract type places upon the contractor maximum risk and full responsibility for all costs and resulting profit or loss. It provides maximum incentive for the contractor to control costs and perform effectively and imposes a minimum administrative burden upon the contracting parties.\(^6\) Firm fixed priced contracts are cost efficient for the government and puts on us on the contractor to fulfill contract requirements regardless of their own expense. They are just one of a number of contract types utilized by DOD, which may include cost reimbursement type contract, indefinite delivery/indefinite quantity, time and materials, or incentive fee type contracts. USAID Acquisition Regulation (AIDAR), 716 Types of Contracts, lists cost-reimbursement and indefinite delivery type of contracts as primary contract types.\(^7\) Firm fixed price contracts are not mentioned in the AIDAR. Although not mentioned, this does not mean usage of firm fixed price contracts are prohibited as their acquisition regulation does not direct prohibit its usage.

Much like defense agency contracting, USAID also utilizes simplified acquisition procedures and urgent need contracting. These procedures, authorized by FAR Part 13 Simplified Acquisition Procedures, streamlines the contracting process by eliminating the need to conduct formal solicitation procedures for contract requirements $2,500 to $25,000. These types of purchases as normally for commodity purchases and require at least three quotes, verbal or written, from responsible vendors to ensure price reasonableness. Acquisitions of this type are typically committed via simple purchase orders, government-wide purchase card, or blanket purchase agreements. Purchases over this threshold and up to $6.5 million are utilized to satisfy immediate needs by means of a quicker acquisition process. Contracting for requirements using simplified acquisition procedures serves the needs of the people and stimulates quick and positive economic needs within the affected region.

In summary, a brigade commander is not strained for resources in dealing with humanitarian issues if they know and possess a solid understand of regional partners (particularly USAID), able to define the problem, and understand the phases of the USAID contracting process. With this knowledge, military units will possess greater ability to transition responsibility when time for redeployment.
Endnotes


2 Miles, Donna (Oct. 8, 2013). Centcom Advisor Promotes Interagency Synergy in Middle East


4 USAID Grant and Contract Process site accessed 4/21/2015


6 AFLCMC/HIBB-HILL FarSite. Federal Acquisition Regulation.

7 USAID Acquisition Regulation (AIDAR), Part 716.
Chapter 9

Responding to Refugee Requests in a Foreign Country

MAJ Emilee Elbert, U.S. Army

Introduction

On November 23, 1970, Lithuanian sailor Simas Kudirka attempted to defect from the Soviet Union by jumping from the deck of a Soviet factory fishing ship onto the deck of the U.S. Coast Guard cutter Vigilant. In what was later described as a “source of embarrassment for humanitarians of the world,” Vigilant’s skipper allowed Russian sailors to board the ship and forcibly remove Kudirka. U.S. fishing industry representatives aboard Vigilant witnessed the Soviets beat Kudirka as they transported him back to their ship. As a result of his actions, the skipper, Captain Ralph W. Eustis, was relieved of command and issued a punitive letter. The “Kudirka Case,” as it later became known, sparked public outrage and raised professional, military justice, and ethical questions about how the U.S. dealt with requests for political asylum.

Although the incident involving Kudirka happened in U.S. territorial waters off the coast of Martha’s Vineyard, something similar could just as easily occur in the area of responsibility (AOR) of a U.S. Army commander anywhere in the world. Because U.S. Pacific Command (USPACOM) encompasses 36 nations, is home to over 50 percent of the world’s population, and is subject to instability resulting from the destruction and devastation caused by hurricanes, requests for political asylum or temporary refuge may be more common than in other AORs. The purpose of this essay is to summarize U.S. Army policy on dealing with requests for political asylum or temporary refuge and describe the steps a commander should take in the event an individual arrives at his or her installation in a foreign jurisdiction in PACOM with such a request.

Background and Legal Requirements

Although the commander of the Vigilant was more likely the victim of conflicting guidance and a lack of written procedures, he was relieved nonetheless, highlighting the political importance of requests for asylum. Since 1970, the U.S. Government, the Department of Defense (DoD), and the U.S. Army have promulgated detailed guidance on how to treat requests for asylum to ensure the incident is never repeated. The “Kudirka Case” is well known within Navy and Coast Guard circles as a lesson learned and not to be repeated; however, Army commanders may be less acquainted with the applicable laws and regulations regarding asylum and temporary refuge.
Figure 9-1

Although sometimes used interchangeably, it is important to distinguish between “asylum” and “temporary refuge.” Asylum is defined as protection granted by the U.S. Government within the United States to a foreign national who, due to persecution or a well-founded fear of persecution on account of his or her race, religion, nationality, membership in a particular social group, or political opinion, is unable or unwilling to avail himself or herself of the protection of his or her country of nationality.¹³

Temporary refuge, on the other hand, is defined as protection afforded for humanitarian reasons to a foreign national in a DoD shore installation, facility, or military vessel within the territorial jurisdiction of a foreign nation or in international waters, under conditions of urgency in order to secure the life or safety of that person against imminent danger.¹⁴

By its definition and according to U.S. policy, asylum cannot be granted at U.S. units or installations within the territorial jurisdiction of a foreign country or in international waters, to include U.S. Embassies.¹⁵ However, foreign nationals or third country nationals may request asylum or seek temporary refuge in U.S.-controlled areas in foreign countries, to include territorial seas and international waters.¹⁶ Only the Citizen and Naturalization Service of the Department of Homeland Security can process and approve requests for asylum, whether requested overseas or in the United States.¹⁷
Regardless of where the request occurs, U.S. Army commanders are not authorized to grant asylum. Commanders are authorized, and perhaps required, to grant temporary refuge to foreign nationals when requested at Army-controlled installations or facilities outside the United States, its territories, or territorial waters. In appropriate circumstances, "[i]t is U.S. policy to grant temporary refuge in a foreign country to nationals of that country and nationals of a third state." Temporary refuge may be granted if the individual is being pursued or is in imminent danger of death or serious bodily injury.

Any decision to grant temporary refuge must be made by the senior U.S. official present. Once the commander grants temporary refuge, he or she may not withdraw protection unless directed to do so by the Secretary of Defense through higher authority.

As a contracting party to the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) Convention and Protocol Relating to the Status of Refugees, it is U.S. policy to follow the principle of "non-refoulement." As articulated in Article 33, signatories of the convention shall [not] expel or return ("refouler") a refugee in any manner whatsoever to the frontiers of territories where his life or freedom would be threatened on account of his race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion.
Consequently, regardless of whether the commander decides to grant temporary refuge, the commander is prohibited from physically returning the requestor to any territory where he or she fears violence or a threat to freedom unless the requestor’s return has been coordinated through the Secretary of Defense.26

What to Do if You Get a Request for Asylum or Temporary Refuge While Commanding in a Foreign Territory:

1. Consider the Request without Approving a Request for Asylum

Because military personnel are not authorized to grant asylum, do not verbally or in writing state that you are granting a request for asylum. If the individual is requesting temporary refuge, or the request for asylum also meets the definition of a request for temporary refuge, consider the request. If the individual is clearly seeking asylum and the request does not meet the requirements for temporary refuge, refer the individual to the nearest American Embassy or consulate or the local representative of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees. Provide adequate security for the individual while he or she is located on the Army installation, facility, or vessel.

2. Decide Whether to Grant Temporary Refuge

First, identify the appropriate staff member to interview the individual and gather the relevant information required by Army Regulation (AR) 550-1. Depending on your location and the requestor, you may also need a translator. This information will assist you in determining whether to grant temporary refuge as well as in preparing the required report. Second, contact your servicing judge advocate and your political advisor (POLAD), if you have one. Your judge advocate will assist you in determining whether the individual meets the requirements for temporary refuge. Even if you determine the requestor does not meet the threshold for granting temporary refuge, do not forcibly return the requestor to any territory against his or her will; instead, request assistance through your higher headquarters to the combatant commander.27 Likewise, your judge advocate should seek guidance through technical channels or from the International and Operational Law Division, Army Office of the Judge Advocate General (OTJAG).28

3. Prepare and Submit the Report

Given the politically sensitive nature of granting temporary refuge, prompt reporting of the request is extremely important. Regardless of whether you decide to grant temporary refuge or not, a report is required.29 The report must include the following: the name and nationality of the individual requesting temporary refuge; their birthday and location of birth and occupation; a description of any documentation in his or her possession; a list of the foreign authorities that are aware of the request and planned notifications; circumstances surrounding the request; exact location; reason for requesting temporary refuge; description of any criminal charges known or alleged to be pending against the person requesting temporary refuge; any Communist Party
affiliation or affiliation with other political parties; and any other pertinent information.\(^{30}\) The report must be sent personally by the commander by immediate precedence message to the Army Operations Center (AOC) at armywtch@hqda-aoc.army.pentagon.mil (NIPR) or armywtch@hqda.army.smil.mil (SIPR).\(^{31}\) Additionally, the commander should send copies of the message to the appropriate American Embassy, the Secretary of State, and the National Military Command Center, Washington, DC.\(^{32}\)

4. Create a Working Group

The commander’s responsibility for the individual seeking temporary refuge does not end once he or she has made the decision to grant the request and submitted the report to the appropriate agencies. The commander must ensure the requestor is properly cared for until one of several things happens: (1) the requestor voluntarily leaves the U.S. Army facility or installation; (2) through command channels, the Secretary of the Army directs the cessation of temporary refuge and release to a designated authority; (3) higher authority approves and directs the release of the individual to the custody of foreign officials; (4) higher authority directs the transfer of the individual to another U.S. entity and/or facility and provides instructions on how to do so.\(^{33}\)

Given the uncertain timeline for hosting the requestor, commanders should create a working group to address the temporary care of the requestor. If possible, the working group should include a judge advocate, a POLAD, a military police officer, a medical officer, a public affairs officer, and a civil affairs officer. As discussed above, your judge advocate can provide you with the legal requirements and limitations associated with a request for asylum or temporary refuge. While a verbal legal opinion may be sufficient to begin the process, commanders should require the judge advocate to prepare a written legal review for their records. The judge advocate can also assist by reviewing correspondence with higher headquarters, outside agencies, and the host nation government. If the United States has a Status of Forces Agreement (SOFA) with the host country, both the judge advocate and the POLAD can assist you in determining whether the document impacts your decision. Lastly, there may be fiscal constraints or other legal limitations about which the judge advocate can advise.\(^{34}\)
Representatives from military law enforcement, medical, civil affairs, and public affairs are other potential members of the working group. Once the commander has granted temporary refuge, he or she is required to provide protection to the requestor. Consequently, the Provost Marshal or local military law enforcement expert should be involved in the planning for the care of the requestor. The requestor may have emergency medical needs, such as the loss of life, limb or eyesight; this issue can be coordinated by the medical officer. Civil affairs officers and tactical PSYOP units are trained to assist in addressing refugee issues; if these individuals are present, they can provide useful insight into caring for the requestor. Lastly, because the involved Army element may not release an information to the public or the media without prior Headquarters, Department of the Army, approval, a public affairs officer is a valuable member of the team.

Conclusion

While U.S. Army commanders may never be confronted with a situation like Captain Eustis faced in 1970, they should be prepared to properly respond to requests for temporary refuge when commanding installations in foreign territories. Commanders who understand the requirements in advance and rely on the expertise and coordinated effort of their staff will be more apt to make the most informed, legal, and morally correct decision. Not only will sufficient preparation safeguard their career, but doing so will ensure compliance with U.S. policy regarding asylum and temporary refuge.
Endnotes


4 Fidell, How to (Mis)handle a defection, 46.

5 Ibid.

6 Ibid.

7 Ibid.


11 Ibid.

12 Fidell, How to (Mis)Handle a Defection, 44.


14 Ibid.

15 Ibid.


17 Ibid., para. 2-2a(1).

18 Ibid., para. 2-2b(1).


20 AR 550-1, para. 2-1b; AIR FORCE OPERATIONS AND THE LAW, 359.


22 AR 550-1, para. 2-2b(1).

23 Ibid.

24 United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), CONVENTION AND PROTOCOL RELATING TO THE STATUS OF REFUGEES, Art. 33 (1951 & 1967); OPERATIONAL LAW HANDBOOK, 76.

25 Ibid.

26 Ibid.
27 AIR FORCE OPERATIONS AND THE LAW, 570.
28 OPERATIONAL LAW HANDBOOK, 77.
29 AR 550-1, para. 2-3a.
30 Ibid.
31 AR 550-1, para. 2-3b; OPERATIONAL LAW HANDBOOK, 77.
32 AR 550-1, para. 2-3b.
33 AR 550-1, paras. 2-2 & 2-3.
34 JOINT CHIEFS OF STAFF, JOINT PUB. 3-07.3, PEACE OPERATIONS, II-14 (17 Oct. 2007) [hereinafter JOINT PUB. 3-07.3].
36 AR 550-1, para. 2-2(b)2.
37 U.S. DEP’T OF ARMY, REG. 40-3, MEDICAL, DENTAL, AND VETERINARY CARE para. 13-3a(2) (23 April 2013).
38 JOINT PUB. 3-07.3, II-14.
39 AR 550-1, para. 2-4.
Section Two
Country Specific Studies

Chapter 10
Laos

MAJ Melissa Aguilar, U.S. Army

Background

Laos is a landlocked country in Southeastern Asia that is located northeast of Thailand and west of Vietnam. The capital of Laos is Vientiane, which encompasses the Wattay International Airport. The airport is the biggest transportation hub in the country, and is only 3 km from the capital. The terrain of Laos boasts mostly mountain ranges and thick forests, along with the Mekong River that forms a natural border with Thailand. Laos’s climate is generally humid during a normal year, including the tropical monsoon season during the summer and fall months of May to November. However, in the months between December and April, Laos can experience a harsh dry period. This leads to many problems and natural disasters, including flooding and droughts. With all the mountains and thick forests, Laos doesn’t contain land that can be used for agricultural development. The amount of farmable land only amounts to 6% of the entire country, leaving 94% to all other exploits including mining and lumber. The natural resources available in the country range from metals like gold and tin, to precious gemstones and timber. Petroleum resources are practically nonexistent or unavailable to obtain.

Map of Laos
Figure 10-1
The citizens of Laos live mostly in the rural areas of the county. The country has a population of 6.8 million people, with 76% of the population living outside of urban areas. The local religion is Buddhism, with 67% of the citizens claiming they follow the teachings. The male to female ration is 1.04, with male’s slightly edging women. One of the biggest problems that Laos faces when it comes to their people is the access to clean drinkable water. Most of the water is contaminated, leading to a high risk of infectious diseases including hepatitis A and typhoid fever.

While there are still some clean water issues, Laos is slowly achieving a better quality of life for their citizens. Electricity has reached 75% of the country and the road system is slowly improving from being paved. Most of Laos’s economy relies on capital-intensive resource exports. Investments from other countries also help fuel the country’s growth. Poverty rates have reduced drastically from 46% in 1992 to 26% in 2010, making Laos one of the fastest growing economies.

Engineer Planning Considerations

First, we must understand the role of the engineer during joint operations. The capabilities of the engineer are a force multiplier in joint operations. Joint operations can consist of friendly forces, host nations and civilians such as Non-Government Agencies. With the vast possibilities that the engineers can provide, while in Laos, engineers will have to modify, maintain, provide understanding of and protect the physical environment.

The military engineer has many different aspects of the country of Laos to assess before beginning the planning process. Once in the country, the plan is for a contingency camp or temporary camp, which the camp can support up to two years of quality of life. The development of a camp for refugees or displaced personnel engineers may have to refer back to Step 2 of MDMP, Mission analysis. Engineer considerations during this step include but not limited to:

1) Terrain and related weather analysis in support of operational area/environment
2) Host nation infrastructure and facilities assessment
3) Assessment of coalition and Host Nation engineer capabilities
4) Capabilities of assigned engineer forces
5) Threat engineer capabilities
6) Environmentally sensitive areas and other environmental considerations
7) Historic and cultural resources
8) Bed down requirements for the supported friendly force
9) LOCs, APOD and SPOD supportability
10) Clearance of debris and emergency repairs critical Host Nation infrastructure
11) Conduct of Host Nation infrastructure and operational environment damage assessment
12) Repair and construction of MSRs and facilitates to support future retrograde and redeployment operations

In tailoring the engineer support to operations, the joint force engineer should address a number of general considerations for engineer planning, including speed, economy, flexibility, decentralization of authority, and establishment of priorities (see Figure III-4).  

Next and most importantly is the location of the camp. Location selection for refugees and IDPs is needed in a crisis or contingency. Considerations that may impact the camp location during this planning phase may have to look at the operational variables of political, military, economic, social, information, infrastructure, physical environment and time. Some questions you need to consider:

P- What is the political influence on the location site?  
M- Will military considerations (U.S. or HN) affect the site?  
E- What effect will the site have on the economy?  
S- Will social or culture considerations affect the site?  
I- How does the information environment affect the environment?  
I- Is the location affected by available infrastructure?  
P- What is the role of the physical environment?  

Figure 10-2

Figure III-4. Engineer Planning Considerations
T- How will the time required affect the operation?

Additional considerations you must take into account in the initial evaluation of the most appropriate site on which to locate the camp are as shown on the figure below from a common engineer planning reference:

![Figure 10-3](image)

### Table 3-1. Examples of evaluation criteria for site selection, land use planning, and general site planning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Site Selection</th>
<th>Land Use Plan</th>
<th>General Site Plan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Soil Condition</td>
<td>Size</td>
<td>AT/FP Considerations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probability of Natural Events</td>
<td>Security</td>
<td>Population Proximity</td>
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<tr>
<td>Water Availability</td>
<td>Functional and Operational (Affinity) Relationships</td>
<td>Site Access</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sewage</td>
<td>Utilities/Waste Disposal</td>
<td>Terrain, Slope, Drainage</td>
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<td>Power Supply</td>
<td>Environmental Sensitivity</td>
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<td>Environmental Conditions</td>
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<td>Communications Availability</td>
<td>Training Areas</td>
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<tr>
<td>Medical Facility Proximity</td>
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<td>Affinity Relationship</td>
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</table>

EP 1105-3-1 Base Camp Development Planning in the Theater of Operations, 19 JAN 2009

Another valuable resource in planning is the Sphere Project Handbook. According to the 2011 edition, there are minimum standards for refugees and displaced persons. Every single person has the right to live in security, peace and dignity with security of tenure. Here are a few instruments that define adequate housing as ensuring:

- Sufficient space and protection from cold, damp, heat, rain, wind or other threats to health, including structural hazards and disease vectors
- The availability of services, facilities, materials and infrastructure
- Affordability, habitability, accessibility, location and cultural appropriateness
- Sustainable access to natural and common resources; safe drinking water; energy for cooking, heating and lighting; sanitation and washing facilities; means of food storage; refuse disposal; site drainage; and emergency services
- The appropriate siting of settlements and housing to provide safe access to healthcare services, schools, childcare centers and other social facilities and to livelihood opportunities

- That building materials and policies relating to housing construction appropriately enable the expression of cultural identity and diversity of housing.
Definitions

General site planning – finding and plotting, to scale, a logical location for every aboveground area, facility, and infrastructure requirement, along with the portrayal of the various, often invisible, major utility corridors, safety clearance zones and various boundaries that influence and support the base camp development plan.

Land use planning – the process of mapping and planning the allocation of land use areas bases on general use categories, mission analysis, functional requirements and interrelationships, and criteria and guidelines.

Stability operations – (DOD) An overarching term encompassing various military mission, tasks, and activities conducted outside the United States in coordination with other instruments of national power to maintain or establish, or reestablish a safe and secure environment and provide essential government services, emergency infrastructure reconstruction and humanitarian relief. 6

Conclusion

Engineers as well as planners must account for numerous challenges during the planning process for refugee camps. The information gathered from analysis of the overall operation and the mission variables that present themselves provides an effective way of understanding the environment that aids the engineer planners to anticipate these challenges.

Other Sources

When on ground and unable to acquire date for location selection, the following websites can be of enormous value:

1) The United States Army Corps of Engineers has a USACE Reachback Operations Center (UROC). https://uroc.usace.army.mil
2) The Sphere Project at http://www.sphereproject.org/
3) The Norwegian Refugee Council at https://www.nrc.no/

Endnotes

1 Joint Publication 3-34: Joint Engineer Planning, Chapter 3: Engineer Planning, p. III-3 PARA 2-B
2 Joint Publication 3-34: Joint Engineer Planning, Chapter 3: Engineer Planning, p. III-10 PARA 4-A
3 EP 1105-3-1 Base Camp Development Planning in the Theater of Operations, 19 JAN 2009
4 EP 1105-3-1 Base Camp Development Planning in the Theater of Operations, 19 JAN 2009

The intent of this article is to highlight some of the issues and limitations of the country of Laos as it pertains to IDP and/or refugee operations. The article will also highlight challenges to crime, human trafficking and other illegal activities that pose a threat that would hamper IDP or refugee operations if they had to be conducted by U.S. and coalition forces in this region.

Laos is a dynamic country and faces many risks when dealing with potential IDP or refugees operations. According to USAID,

Laos faces many challenges in health, including limited ability to monitor and respond to infectious disease outbreaks, limited coverage for maternal and child health, and an overstretched health care workforce. Laos also faces major environmental challenges, such as expanded commercial exploitation of forests, plans for additional hydroelectric facilities, foreign demand for wild animals, and an expanding population. The country’s economy remains dependent on external demand, particularly in mining, hydropower and forestry.1

Given USAID’s views and insights it would be imperative for forces to plan contingency operations for some of the issues highlighted above.

The country of Laos and the United States has also had a history to include trade and economic aid. According to the U.S. Department of State “Following the 1986 introduction of some economic reforms, Laos' economy is essentially a free market system with active central planning by the government.” The overarching policy goals for U.S. assistance to Laos include improving Lao governance and the rule of law, and increasing the country’s capacity to integrate fully within the Association for Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) and the global economy.

The largest part of U.S. bilateral assistance to Laos is devoted to improving health. The United States also helps improve trade policy in Laos, promotes sustainable development and biodiversity conservation, and works to strengthen the criminal justice system and law enforcement. Unexploded ordnance (UXO) from the war, particularly cluster munitions, remains a major problem. The United States has provided significant support for UXO clearance, removal and assistance for survivors.2 The history between the U.S. and Laos and our interest in the country show that any operations and or support to the country of Laos could have enduring impacts not only politically but economically to both countries.
Another key planning factor that has to be assessed is how the military will influence and support humanitarian aid in a foreign country. As stated in The Handbook for the Protection of IDPs,

> Humanitarian action must be guided by the core principles of humanity, impartiality and neutrality at all times. This requires a clear distinction and division of labor between humanitarian action on one hand, and military or military-related activity on the other. Legitimate armed forces, which respect international humanitarian and human rights law, play a vital role in ensuring a safe and secure environment for all civilians, including the internally displaced. Humanitarian actors often have to interact and liaise with military actors, especially when working in situations of armed conflict and complex emergencies. ³

All these aspects must be considered when planning for humanitarian assistance within the country of Laos. Given these challenges IDP and or refugee operations could still be successfully employed as long as the planners assess and mitigate some of the concerns addressed in this paper. The following paragraphs will examine more specific concerns that could potentially have a negative impact on IDP or refugee operations within Laos.

**Trafficking in Persons**

Compounding the Internally Displaced Persons problem in Lao Peoples’ Democratic Republic (PDR) is the issue of Trafficking in Persons. To understand the issue fully, one must understand the context and know how the Trafficking in Persons (TIP) report is derived. The United States Government uses the TIP report as its principal diplomatic tool to engage foreign governments on human trafficking. Since the United States Government provides the most accurate and up-to-date information on the topic, it has become the world’s most comprehensive resource on governmental anti-human trafficking efforts. Using the TIP, the Department of State (DOS) places each country into one of three tiers. These tiers are based on a government’s efforts to comply with the “minimum standards for the elimination of trafficking,” (which can be found in Section 108 of the Trafficking Victims Protection Act (TVPA). Laos is a Tier 2 country, which means that its government does not fully comply with the TVPA’s minimum standards, but is making significant efforts to bring itself into compliance with those standards.⁴

According to the U.S. Department of State’s report, Laos is increasingly a transit country for Vietnamese and Chinese women who are subjected to sex trafficking and forced labor in neighboring countries, particularly Thailand. The report goes on to explain that some Vietnamese and Chinese women are also subjected to forced prostitution in Laos, usually in close proximity to casinos or Special Economic Zones, reportedly to meet the demand of Asian tourists.⁵ However, the issue of sex trafficking of Lao women and girls within the country remains a problem, which creates a bigger problem for the already high risk women and children of the IDP camps.
According to the DOS the keys to success for the Laotian Government to stop trafficking in persons are to:

1. Increase their efforts in identifying Lao citizens who have been trafficked within the country and prosecuting the perpetrators of these offenses.
2. Demonstrate greater efforts to combat the trafficking complicity of public officials, especially on the local level, through the criminal prosecution of officials involved in trafficking crimes.
3. Develop monitoring mechanisms for labor recruiters tasked with processing work permits and contracts to prevent the trafficking of migrant workers.
4. Implement formal victim identification procedures and train police and border officials to systematically identify trafficking victims, particularly among migrants returning from Thailand.
5. Increase resources and vocational trainings to support victims, including male victims, in reintegration after returning to their home communities.
6. Develop a victims’ protection framework and raise awareness of options for legal redress available to victims to increase the number of victims willing to testify or assist in investigations.
7. Approve memoranda of understanding with NGOs and international organizations in a timelier manner.
8. Reduce the demand for sex tourism by promulgating awareness and enforcing criminal penalties.
9. Sustain progress on the proposed national database system on trafficking cases.
10. Consider allocating a portion of the budget specifically for anti-trafficking activities.
11. Continue to develop a comprehensive anti-trafficking law.6

Related Criminal Activity and the Spread of Amphetamine Type Stimulants (ATS)

Figure 11-1 depicts the vulnerable regions of Laos. Virtually the entire eastern portion of the country is impoverished, which makes it susceptible to drug farming. Although there have been general increases in rural income, incomes in former opium poppy growing villages are rising more slowly than non-opium poppy growing villages.
According to United Nations Office on Drug and Crime (UNODC), fifty percent of former opium poppy farmers could revert back to growing it for lack of alternatives and other opportunities. But opium is no longer the main problem in Laos – it has decreased 81% since 1998. The real problem is Amphetamine Type Stimulants (ATS) and, as depicted in the charts below (Figure 11-2), it has caused the violent crime rate to surge by 85% (Figure 11-3).
All of this indicates that transnational organized crime groups have targeted Laos for trafficking and marketing illegal substances that generate massive profits. Drug related criminal activity also raises the risk of increased corruption and challenges the rule of law. Certain situations also exist where transnational organized criminal activities are fueled by strife, instabilities and insecurities in other regions.⁹

![Drug Related Crime](image)

*Drug Related Crime*¹⁰

**Figure 11-2.**

![Estimated ATS Usage](image)

*Estimated ATS Usage*¹¹

**Figure 11-3**
In conclusion, this article has highlighted some of the issues and limitations of the country of Laos as it pertains to IDP and/or refugee operations. This article also has discussed some unique challenges as it pertains to crime, human trafficking and other illegal activities that would pose a threat to IDP or refugee operations if they had to be conducted by U.S. and coalition forces in this region. U.S. military units potentially deploying to the region will benefit greatly from knowing the complexities of the operational environment and must be prepared to deal with these issues once they are committed to the area of operations.

Endnotes

1 http://www.usaid.gov/laos
2 http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ei/bgn/2770.htm
3 Handbook for the Protection of Internally Displaced Persons (Ch 3)
5 Ibid.
6 Ibid.
8 Ibid.
9 Ibid.
10 Ibid.
11 Ibid.

Bibliography


Chapter 12

LAOS

MAJ Gary Ward and MAJ Nick Francois, U.S. Army

The sense of security that people have is just as important to them as the food and water they consume on a daily basis. United States Military Forces and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) have been striving to work together to improve countries that have been hit by devastating conditions due to floods, earthquakes, typhoons, and other conditions that cause people to become Internally Displaced Persons (IDP). Providing an adequate food distribution and security plan for Laos is a priority, which will help to reduce the high level of malnutrition.

The country of Laos, located in the Southeast Asia, is a small, landlocked, and mountainous country. The first united Lao Kingdom known as Lan Xang was founded in 1353 and included much of modern Thailand.\textsuperscript{1} Laos gained full independence as a constitutional monarchy in 1954.\textsuperscript{2} In 1975, Communist forces took control of the government, ending a six-century-old monarchy and instituting a strict socialist regime. The enforced political control as well as the worsening economic conditions forced many Lao people to seek refuge in other countries. About 10 percent of the Lao population left the country to seek refuge after 1975. From among them, about 250,000 went to the United States.\textsuperscript{3} By the end of 1997, 27,600 Lao refugees returned to Laos: 3,500 from China, and the rest from Thailand. Since coming to power, the communist government imposed a command economy system, replacing the private sector with state enterprises and cooperatives. The Lao Government began decentralizing control and encouraging private enterprise in the mid-1980s, and the country began opening up to the world in the 1990s.\textsuperscript{4} However, Laos today remains one of the poorest and least developed countries in the world.
The population of Laos is 6,319,848 with a total area of 236,800 square kilometers and the total land is 230,800 square kilometers. Laos is compared in size to the state of Utah. The capital city of Laos is Vientiane with a population of 248,692. Laos has had some unrest in the early 2000s; in a recent publication (Political Risk Calculated by Country Watch) Laos was rated a 5 out of 10 pertaining to security and crime (the degree to which a country has security mechanisms that ensures safety of citizens and ensures law and order, without resorting to extra-judicial measures). The Lao People’s Democratic republic is a Communist state and the Lao People’s Revolutionary Party (LPRP) is the only political party allowed in the nation. The government’s human rights record is very poor and serious abuses continue. Security Forces in Laos are known to arbitrarily arrest, detain, and abuse suspects, especially ones suspected of “anti-government” activities. The judiciary is not independent of the executive and legislative branches of government. A lengthy pretrial detention is not uncommon and often detention is the norm.

In the past, the government of Laos has lacked comprehensive policies in many areas such as anti-drug/anti-narcotics, internally displaced persons, and food security in distribution centers. The country’s current opium eradication policy has led to a significant decline in opium cultivation but has failed to produce alternative agriculture products, which has resulted in the loss of income for many communities. The country’s internally displaced persons policy has worsened food security in places where resources and services are inadequate for the population. The government of Laos had set policy objectives for economic development and poverty eradication that should significantly improve the national food security situation. Until recently, however, the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry had only one policy document that directly addressed food security: the Food Security Strategy, adopted in 2000 and running until 2010. The purpose of this policy was to increase agriculture production of crops to reduce the malnutrition level in the population but the policy failed to address food security.

In 2008, Laos established a nutrition policy. The Government of Lao PDR has recently developed a National Nutrition Policy with the support of UN agencies including Food Agriculture Organization (FAO), World Health Organization (WHO), United Nations Children’s Emergency Fund (UNICEF) and World Food Program (WFO). This policy should reduce levels of malnutrition within the country.
USAID is helping improve economic policy in Laos and supporting the country's efforts to transition to free markets in order to reduce its dependency on foreign assistance. In the aggregate, the 2013 rice output (including the main wet and the ongoing secondary dry seasons), is estimated by FAO at 3.5 million tons, similar to last year's bumper output. During the monsoon season flooding occurs in parts of the country. The country is expected to remain more-or-less self-sufficient in rice. However, some 280,000 tons of maize are likely to be exported during the 2014 marketing year (January/December).

The Lao economy remains dependent on external demand for its natural resources in order to provide essential services to their people. The latest available official data indicate that the overall national year-on-year consumer price inflation in December 2013 was 6.7 percent. World Food Program will continue to build partner capacity of the government of Laos in order to improve their food distribution capabilities, but food production and distribution will continue to be an issue in this country.

Approximately 90 percent of the rural people derive their income from agricultural sector. According to the FAO/WFP Crop and Food Security Assessment Mission (CFSAM) 2009 report, vulnerability and food insecurity is caused mainly by localized shocks. Laos will have to continue to receive foreign assistance in order to provide essential services for their people. Food distribution issues exist at the low-income level, especially for ethnic groups living in remote areas. As a result, these children are often malnourished and extremely vulnerable to various diseases. Despite steady economic growth over the last 15 years, Lao PDR continues to have very high chronic malnutrition rates: nearly every second child under the age of five in Lao PDR is chronically malnourished and every fifth rural child is severely stunted.
Figure 12-3

Because 73.2% of the population is living beneath the poverty line, it is essential that the economy of Laos continue to improve.\textsuperscript{14} In addition, with life expectancy at 37.0 years, vaccinations are a major issue that has to be addressed.\textsuperscript{15}

Figure 12-4

Laotian citizens receive aid from a UNHCR center
In conclusion, Laos is continuing efforts to expand relations with neighboring countries as well as with the Western countries. It has improved relations with France, Germany, Australia, and Japan. The United States and Laos has engaged in a multi-million-dollar program of crop substitution and integrated rural development. In addition, Laos has participated in United States-sponsored narcotics training programs and has strengthened law enforcement measures to tackle the problems. For military units potentially deploying to the region, it is crucial that they understand the dynamics of the country and its struggle to establish a strong food security and distribution plan for the people of Laos. Having this awareness will facilitate planning efforts and will ensure that coordination and collaboration with the personnel of Laos serves the purpose intended.

Endnotes

2 Ibid.
3 Ibid.
4 Ibid.
5 Ibid.
6 Ibid.
8 Ibid.
10 Ibid.
11 Ibid.
12 Ibid.
13 World Food Programme. Lao PDR overview, online at April 14).
15 Ibid.
"Governments that block the aspirations of their people, that steal or are corrupt, that oppress and torture or that deny freedom of expression and human rights should bear in mind that they will find it increasingly hard to escape the judgment of their own people, or where warranted, the reach of international law."

- William Hague

Imagine the regional environment, Southeast Asia, which is comprised of many different nations many of whom are scattered across the Indian Ocean, the South China Sea, and the Pacific Ocean. Each of these nations has a very distinct and proud culture dating back generations. Couple this cultural mix with an ever-increasing ethnic identity infused with religious beliefs and troubled governance and the underpinnings of conflict begin to arise. Making matters worse, the population explosion typically identified with developing nations creates an immense strain on precious natural resources and diminishing economic opportunities. The conditions are primed for instability but a few key factors maintain the balance: the ability of the government to properly meet the needs of its people in terms of economic opportunities, protection of human rights, and ensuring that its people can flourish within the country with a reasonable expectation that basic needs will be met in terms of protection from internal/external aggression and manmade or natural disasters.

Consider Indonesia, a country made up of islands located at a key crossroad in Southeast Asia. The total area of the country is approximately 1.9 million square kilometers, which includes land area and surrounding waterways constituting their exclusive economic zone. The most populous cities area located on the island of Java, where its capital city Jakarta is also found. Indonesia touches the Indian Ocean, is located within the Straits of Malacca, reaches east to the Pacific Ocean, and is located within close proximity to Australia to its southeast. This location makes it a focal point for persons transiting anywhere from the continent of Asia proper (India, Bangladesh), the Philippine islands, or China, towards Australia or New Zealand in the search for safety, and economic opportunities.
Figure 13-1

It is important to note that Indonesia is not a signatory to the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees or the 1967 Protocol. The Indonesian government authorizes UNHCR to carry out its refugee protection mandate in the country as per terms defined in the September 2010 Regulation of the Director General of Immigration. This Regulation ensures that while refugees and asylum seekers have no formal legal status, they are granted access to UNHCR for registration and allowed to stay temporarily in the country pending the determination of refugee status and the identification of durable solutions.

The lack of a legal status, along with legal instruments that deny refugees and illegal immigrants access to economic, health, or education resources within Indonesia, creates an environment in which those persons who enter the country illegally will be instantly marginalized. The sheer volume of refugees moving to or through Indonesia, straining the already limited resources that the government reserves for its citizens sets the conditions for detention/imprisonment to be used as a tool to deter and control the amount of illegal immigrants and refugees that find themselves caught by authorities. This system of internment has swelled the prison population with migrants and asylum seekers. According to the UNHCR, more than 2,000 refugees or asylum seekers are found within the country's penal system. Some 1,000 were released in 2013 with UNHCR intervention, which drew attention to the needs of the women, children, and elderly population which constitute the most vulnerable demographic.
Further efforts to address the needs of the growing refugee population are enhanced by implementing partner Church World Service (CWS) and operational partners, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) and Jesuit Refugee Service (JRS), on detention issues, community housing programs, and travel arrangements for the resettlement and voluntary repatriation of refugees and the assisted voluntary return of asylum seekers and others of concern, ensuring the avoidance of non-refoulement. These NGOs also work to address auxiliary support functions like education, health services, and reconstruction of documentation. They help ensure paperwork is completed so that those stateless persons obtain personal identification papers/IDs. The UNHCR also interfaces with the Indonesian government to ensure that the appropriate ministries have a hand in facilitating NGO support, i.e., the Ministry of Education supports the JRS in ensuring a measure of educational support and number of NGO support personnel are enabled to enter the country to assist the UNHCR’s efforts in providing schooling for the school aged refugees.

The UNHCR provides the mandated protection to refugees and asylum-seekers in a number of urban locations through registration efforts, documentation and processing for resettlement, and repatriation. To improve the protection environment, the organization will support the capacity of local authorities. It will also assist those with specific protection needs, though funding shortfalls limit the number of people likely to benefit.

When considering military options available to support HA within Indonesia, it is necessary to evaluate existing agreements of the country. Understanding that Indonesia is not a signatory to the 1951 convention or the 1979 protocol should not deter efforts in establishing working relationships with the HN forces or government entities. Although they have not formally agreed to the documents, this does not mean the country does not honor the principles and framework that constitute both accords. Indonesia is not a...
country with excess wealth and economic resources, so their policy on supporting their refugee population is drafted so that minimal adverse effects are imposed on their own citizens. Not signing does not mean the country ignores basic human rights. Always keep in mind, Indonesia has the world's fourth largest population (it is the world’s largest Muslim population) at almost 238,500,000 people scattered across three time zones. The government must balance care for a refugee population against looking after the well-being of its own citizens.

![Natural disaster victim is loaded onto an ambulance for medical care](image)

**Figure 13-3**

Another consideration is that there is no current Status of Forces Agreement (SOFA) with Indonesia. This means that there may be substantial delays in executing bilateral training events or HA operations within the country until legal/sovereignty issues have worked themselves out. The SOFA is key in ensuring U.S. forces operating within the country have certain protections against prosecution by the host country. In recent years the relationship between the U.S. and Indonesia has drastically improved. The current administration has done much to increase economic, military, and political partnerships. The U.S. President's early years within the country and the realization of the strategic importance of the country has driven policy and social approval between both countries. The U.S. stance on closer political and military ties has not come without some criticism. This is because of Indonesia's history of human rights abuses dating back to the 1990s when the military and security forces attacked into the Timor-Leste region and conducted mass killings that eventually ended with the fall of the Indonesian President in 1998.
Another consideration to bear in mind is that Indonesia is a member of ASEAN. This organization of nations is politically and economically driven and was seen as a way to counter communism and spur the economic growth of its members. In some cases, the political and economic interests of countries will not always align; however, when it comes to HA operations and response, every nation shares the same challenges and has the same goals.

Understanding the primary NGO to work with when establishing operations within the country is critical. Army units below division may not have direct contact with UNHCR personnel. Therefore, leveraging USAID in identifying the areas of greatest need and resources already on the ground will assist units in prioritizing efforts. Liaison with USAID personnel can be accomplished through implementing a Civil-Military Operations Center (CMOC), or more preferable to the NGO, direct contact with the U.S. Embassy or consular office. USAID maintains a repository of information on NGOs operating in the area and can help assist units in identifying additional NGOs with specific capabilities/competencies that should be brought into the country. By using the embassy as a meeting place, the country team can also be leveraged to help influence the HN to allow identified NGOs into the country as each operates within the nation with the consent of the HN government.
Upon completion of the initial unit assessment, it may be deemed necessary that the threat to HA operations is too great, or for some reason, the natural or manmade disaster has rendered getting to the impacted area is too difficult for the NGOs to do alone. Information such as this should and must be shared at meetings with the NGOs’ liaison officer, or passed through USAID so that efforts can be coordinated with military forces to save lives, alleviate suffering, or provide security. This sharing of unclassified information both protects the NGO personnel, reduces risk for military, and ensures maximum effectiveness in the delivery of humanitarian assistance to refugees in a secured humanitarian space. The CMOC or the embassy is an appropriate venue for such a meeting, given it does not expose NGOs to increased risk by being on a military base, and does not damage their impartiality in the minds of the populous.

A coordination center where NGOs can get update information⁶

Figure 13-5

HA operations are basically included in the range of missions under the stability operations framework. As such, various tasks, objectives, and MOE/MOP can be tied to HA as they are planned, resourced and executed. LOEs inherent to stability operations do not have to be mutually exclusive. Tasks from LOEs may be shared depending on the variables found in Indonesia specifically.

In the figure below (An integrated approach to stability operations), stability tasks are listed that would be found in the range of military operations.
Humanitarian assistance (HA) operations are included in the stability sector regarding the restoration of essential services. Conducting HA operations entails nearly all of the stability tasks and would be required in contingency operations. In order to ensure the safety of U.S. forces, NGOs, and the refugee population, it is paramount to ensure a measure of security is establish within the humanitarian space.

Next is ensuring that some level of civil control is established. Even if the only rule of law is military control, a sense of justice and fairness is required so that the population perceives the authority as competent, responsive, and impartial (preferably civil control is exerted by HN forces/agencies). Supporting refugee populations and conducting HA operations inherently lends support to governance. By effectively meeting the basic needs of a migrant, vulnerable population, military forces are demonstrating how governments can employ forces to manage, protect, and support the needs of its citizens (or assist citizens of another country).

Lastly, the durable solutions of HA operations are aimed at having the instruments, processes, and infrastructure put into effect by military forces be self-sustaining. Military planners should look to bolster the capacity of the nearby HN educational, medical, economic, and subsistence (agriculture) sectors so that the impact of having large concentrations of refugees/IDPs does not create such a strain that other problems arise (such as human trafficking, gender based violence, local inflation, crowded schools, etc.). These efforts could include the construction of additional schools in the vicinity of the camps or the local town, training (or identifying previously trained refugee nurses/doctor, mechanics) to work in the camp or local area, etc. Establishing camp locations where the refugee population has a part in administration is a step in that effort and goes hand in hand in supporting the economic infrastructure development.

Military forces looking to establish a humanitarian space must coordinate closely with the HN government in order to identify suitable areas in which to construct camps, support facilities and assess the surrounding lands for potential signs of adverse actors or conditions that would interrupt HA operations.

The layout of the camp in terms of space and various areas for separating the different groups of people should be dependent on the composition of personnel on the ground (METT-C). However, based on an estimate of the total population, it is possible to
project the amount of women, children, elderly, and single males within the groups. Based on these estimations, military planners/units can then use the Sphere Project handbook as a guideline for determining the amount of space per person, along with the amount of communal spaces and auxiliary structures needed to support the camp (i.e. feeding tents, medical treatment areas, water distribution, etc.).

Conducting HA operations in support of refugee population is a planning, coordination, and resource intensive process. Ensuring unity of effort exists between U.S. forces, HN government agencies, and NGOs is critical to effectively managing, protecting, and meeting the needs of the impacted populations. Particular attention must be paid to determining what international agreements and frameworks the HN has signed onto. These long standing guidelines will help planners assess how amiable the HN will be in working with military forces and NGOs to support a refugee population. Finally, military planners should know the NGOs operating in the area, or at a minimum, establish contact with the U.S. Embassy in order to help determine what other assets or organizations can be brought into a particular country to assists in HA efforts.

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Endnotes

1 Hague, Williams, from online website accessed 11 April 2014.
4 Ibid
5 Ibid.
Chapter 14

Vietnam

MAJ Felisha Brooks and MAJ Latoya James, U.S. Army

Introduction

In 2012, the Internal Displacement Monitoring Center reported that 32.4 million people were forced to flee their homes due to natural disasters that included floods, storms, and earthquakes. Asia and parts of Africa were the areas most affected with an astonishing 1.3 million persons displaced as a result of the disasters. Within the same year, 98% of all displacement was contributed to global changes, be it climate or weather-related events. Within the past five years, 81% of all displacement has occurred in Asia to include Vietnam.¹

The World Risk Index ranks countries based on their level of vulnerability to natural disasters. In 2012, twelve of the top twenty susceptible countries located in the Asia-Pacific region were identified. Every year Vietnam experiences an average of eight to ten extreme weather event and natural disasters. Out of 173 total countries, it rose from 34th in 2011 to 18th in 2012.²


Figure 14-1
Historical Background

Vietnam has a tropical monsoon type of climate, with a coastline of around 3,440km. The south monsoon season is typically from May-Sep in which the country is dominated by south to southeasterly winds. From Oct-April, the country is affected by the north monsoon with northerly to northeasterly winds dominating the country. Vietnam is composed of diverse and complex topography. Its topography ranges from mountainous in the northwest and central highlands facing the South China Sea to extensive low regions in the Red River and Mekong Deltas.

Vietnam is susceptible to many different types of natural disasters, “both hydro-meteorological, such as flood, storm, drought and heavy rainfall and geophysical, such as landslides and to a lesser extent, earthquakes.” It is estimated that more than 70% of the population is vulnerable to these natural hazards. The devastation from the disasters affects a vast number of social and economic sectors of the country to include agriculture, industries, energy, education, and health, to name a few. Natural disasters and climate change have greatly ravished Vietnam’s prosperity. “The United Nations Office for Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) estimated that over the last 30 years, natural disasters have contributed to Vietnam losing an average of $257 million per year.” The moderate on-set of climate change which includes rising sea levels increases the frequency of the hazards and consequent disaster risk.

Trends

Although Vietnam has always been prone to unfavorable weather, climate change is directly contributing to worsen the hazards. In its 2009 report, the United Nations Environment Program argues that the recent climate change in Vietnam is beyond the level of natural change. It contends that in the past 50 years temperatures have increased from 0.05 to 0.20 degrees Celsius and sea level has risen from 2 to 4 cm per decade.
In the past 15 years, the country has experienced severe floods that are caused by a combination of factors, including deforestation and typhoons. In 2000 and 2001, the worst floods in recent history killed more than 500 people, many of them children. Significant amounts of farmland were submerged for months hindering the land’s ability to produce any crop.\textsuperscript{12}

All coastal areas in Asia are facing an increasing range of environmental stress to the lengths that it now presents a danger to the resiliency of both human and socio-economic coastal systems.\textsuperscript{13} Sea levels are projected to increase to the point in which their effects “inundate low lying areas, drown coastal marshes and wetlands, erode beaches, exacerbate flooding and increase the salinity of rivers, bays and aquifers.”\textsuperscript{14} The initial effects of the increased sea levels will create storm surges with intense tropical storms that will torment the coastal regions and create more wind and flood damage.\textsuperscript{15}

Vietnam Disaster Profile

\textbf{Figure 14-3}

Figure 14-3 shows the different types of disasters that have occurred over the last twenty years in terms of number of data cards or reported events. Flood is the most
reported with 48% of the total data cards or records. Following floods, the most reported events are hailstorms (20%), storms (13%) and flash floods (7%). Cyclones (typhoons), landslides, heavy rain and other events combined account for 12% of the reported events in the historical disaster database for this period.\textsuperscript{17}

State of Preparedness

To minimize the consequences of natural disasters, it is necessary to make accurate weather forecasts and release early warnings to help the communities prepare for hazardous weather. Unfortunately in the past, these two tasks have not been conducted efficiently by the Vietnam government. Vietnam’s forecasting ability has been poor. The forecast in 2008 described the weather as “slight rain” when it was actually the heaviest downpour Vietnam had experienced in four decades.\textsuperscript{18} However, over the last six years Vietnam has made strides to build resiliency and mitigate the impact of climate change.

To address some of these issues, Vietnam communities have begun to take measures that address the issues of recently increased natural disasters. First, communities have received training to “develop their own preparedness strategies and to integrate disaster risk management (DRM) into their communes’ socio-economic development plans.”\textsuperscript{19} Secondly, communities have implemented new and better engineering standards for rural roads and irrigation infrastructure which increases their safety and improves their livelihood. Third, programs such as, Agricultural Risk Management Information System (ARMIS), have been established to assist farmers in improving productivity and enhancing resilience to droughts, floods, erosion, and heat. Fourth, structural risk reduction measures for dams, reservoirs and evacuation bridges have been implemented to help minimize adverse effects from disasters. Last to be noted, the meteorological sector has enhanced its forecasting abilities. Their improvements have provided more accurate forecasts of hazardous weather in order to give adequate time for people to react. However, abnormal weather events such as whirlwinds and hailstorms are still a continuous challenge for the weather sector to predict.\textsuperscript{20}

United States Government Sources of Humanitarian Support and Capabilities

With the increased influx of natural disasters in Vietnam, humanitarian aid is paramount. The United States Government (USG) has dedicated several of its agencies to assist the country with managing their devastation. The United States Army Corps of Engineers (USACE), a U.S. federal agency under the Department of Defense, was established June 1775 and is one of the world’s largest public engineering agencies. The USACE is typically associated with dams, canals and flood protection support efforts within the United States. However, it also is involved in a myriad of public works support throughout the world. The USACE mission is to deliver vital public and military engineering services: partnering in peace and war to strengthen our Nation’s security, energize the economy and reduce risks from disasters.\textsuperscript{21} USACE conducts its emergency response activities under two basic authorities — the Flood Control and Coastal Emergency Act and the Stafford Disaster Relief and Emergency Assistance Act.\textsuperscript{22} The USACE provides assistance for flood emergency preparation, flood fighting,
repair and restoration of flood control works damaged or destroyed by a flood, or emergency water supplies. Assistance may also include providing technical assistance, equipment, sandbags, pumps, or other material for an imminent or actual emergency.

It has been mentioned that improving dykes with a wide cross section to protect against extreme flooding in Vietnam is impossible. However, the Vietnamese government has identified that widening the covering of upstream forests is a fundamental method of reducing the severity of floods. The USACE has the capability of channelization of major streams. Stream channelization describes any activity that moves, straightens, shortens, cuts off, diverts, or fills a stream channel, whether natural or previously altered. Such activities include the widening, narrowing, straightening, or lining of a stream channel that alters the amount and speed of the water flowing through the channel. Although an expensive project, stream channelization in Vietnam will greatly assist with flood control, by constructing larger and deeper channel for streams so that flooding beyond those limits will be minimal or nonexistent.

Two other governmental agencies that play an integral role in humanitarian support to Vietnam communities during times of extreme natural disasters are the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) and the Office of Foreign Disaster Assistance (OFDA). In response to the Vietnam flooding, USAID’s Office of U.S. Foreign Disaster Assistance (USAID/OFDA) supported the distribution of emergency relief supplies—including life jackets, water filters, blankets, and mosquito nets—to more than 3,000 people and local search-and-rescue teams in three southern provinces. USAID/OFDA regional advisor has deployed to flood-affected areas to assess humanitarian needs and determine appropriate response activities. In addition to emergency relief supplies provided by USAID/OFDA, it is important to also mention USAID Flood Early Warning Project. Both agencies have been working with the Government of Vietnam since 2004 to enhance their capacity in disaster management and early warning processes. The project will enhance the ability for central-level decision makers and provincial-level disaster managers to forecast flood events, assess their likely impacts, and reach those at risk with meaningful warning messages. This particular project has improved the accuracy and timeliness of flood forecasting and early warning systems, which benefits an estimated 4.4 million people in 10 provinces of central Vietnam.
A girl demonstrates how to properly put on a USAID/OFDA-provided life jacket after flooding affected communities across Vietnam in September and October 2011.  

Figure 14-4

Analysis of International Governmental Organizations (IGOs)/Non-governmental Organizations (NGOs) in Vietnam

While the natural disasters illuminate the need for humanitarian support, it is justifiable to mention the roles of International Government Organizations (IGOs) and Non-Governmental Organization (NGOs) that have provided humanitarian assistance to Vietnam. One of the main IGOs operating in Vietnam is the World Bank. Established in 1944, the “World Bank is a vital source of financial and technical assistance to developing countries around the world.” It has launched several major humanitarian projects such as, the Disaster Risk Management Project, in efforts to support the Vietnam populace and their socio-economic status. As previously mentioned, Vietnam has lacked early warning measures and has had issues with their forecasting capabilities. The Disaster Risk Management Project “has helped improve the disaster early-warning and forecasting capacity for the Southern hydrometeorology authority and also improved the planning capacity for integrated disaster risk management at both national and provincial level.” Another project orchestrated by the World Bank that is still advancing is the Safer Commune Plans. An estimated 210,000 Vietnamese citizens in 30 communes have benefited from this plan and it has proven its effectiveness via the 2009, 2010, and 2011 typhoons and floods. The Safer Commune Plan has upgraded “10 disaster protection structures and 320 public services including health care facilities, schools and public services infrastructures.”

Not only have IGOs contributed to the humanitarian aid of Vietnam, but also NGOs. Two non-governmental organizations that have operated in Vietnam during the time of natural disasters are the Vietnam Red Cross and the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies. On October 03, 2013, the Vietnam Red Cross
(VNRC) Headquarters decided to release VND (Vietnamese Dong) 5 billion (approx. USD 240,000) from its emergency response fund to support the essential needs of the affected population in six provinces of Thanh Hoa, Nghe An, Ha Tinh, Quang Binh, Quang Tri, Thua Thien – Hue, adding up to the previous in-kind support of 1,200 household kits and 1,845,000 water filtration tablets.\(^3\) International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies have provided relief and financial assistance to families affected by flash flooding in Vietnam. The team visited the two severely affected districts of Tuong Duong and Ky Son. In Tuong Duong, the Red Cross distributed 200 household kits along with approximately 3,000 US dollars (VND 63 million).\(^3\)

![Families in the Tuong Duong District of Nghe An Province receive household kits from the Red Cross. About 400 families received these kits that are designed to replace basic items that were lost in the floods. Trung Nghia/Viet Nam Red Cross.\(^4\)](image)

**Figure 14-5**

**Conclusion**

In conclusion, being situated in a tropical monsoon region, Vietnam suffers from alarming and costly natural disasters every year. More seriously, the abnormality of weather and the levels of devastation have increased considerably over recent years. To address this issue, various support agencies which include USG agencies, IGOs, and NGOs have provided various forms of humanitarian aid to assist Vietnam in their struggle to better protect their safety and livelihoods.

While the humanitarian agencies are key drivers in the nation regaining its stability and consequentially, maintaining its socio-economic growth, U.S. military forces who may deploy to the region must have a clear understanding of the country of Vietnam and its unique challenges. In the future, relations between the United States and Vietnam may
continue to get stronger and it is not out of the realm of possibility that members of the U.S. military may, once again, find themselves returning to Vietnam. This time, however, their role may be vastly different and oriented on Humanitarian Assistance rather than combat operations.

Endnotes

3 Source data adapted from The World Bank, “Vietnam: Disaster Risk Management Project Helping Vietnam improve capacity for disaster risk management, reduce vulnerability to flood and storm hazards; and increase the efficiency of post-disaster recovery,” The World Bank, (accessed April 16, 2014).
6 Ibid.
7 Source: Data from QT Long, (accessed April 14, 2014).
8 Oanh Luong Nhu, et al., 2.
9 Ibid.
12 Ibid.
14 Ibid.
15 Ibid.
16 Source: Data adapted from Oanh Luong Nhu, et al., 3.
18 Ibid.
19 Ibid.
22 Ibid.
23 Ibid.
24 Ibid.
25 Total Disaster Risk Management (accessed April 18, 2014).
26 United States Environmental Protection Agency
27 Ibid.
29 Ibid.
31 Ibid.
32 Ibid.
33 Source data adapted from USAID from the American People Official Page
34 The World Bank, (accessed April 18, 2004)
35 Ibid.
36 Ibid.
37 Ibid.
38 International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (accessed April 18, 2014).
39 Ibid.
40 Source data adapted from International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (accessed April 18, 2014).
Chapter 15

The Philippines

MAJ Marshal Kai Hammel, U.S. Army

Army logistics planners must be aware of the unique challenges when conducting stability operations in non-conflict environments. These operations include humanitarian efforts in support of a foreign national government and other organizations like North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) or the United Nations (UN). This paper will focus on how the United States Army can support humanitarian assistance operations in the Philippines, specifically when working with internally displaced persons (IDPs).

Refugee versus IDPs

In order to understand the role that the Army can play in supporting relief operations, commanders must understand the difference between IDPs and Refugees. Refugees are individuals who have left their home country and seek asylum in a foreign country. Once designated, refugees receive special protections and the United Nations High Commission of Refugees (UNHCR) assists the host country in providing support to those individuals. However, IDPs remain in their home country and do not receive any additional protections except those that any other citizen of their country already receives. While the UNHCR and other organizations may be asked to support IPDs, the national government retains the responsibility to provide humanitarian assistance to them.

This distinction is critical when planning support operations. Refugees fall under special legal considerations, so all planning will need to be done in consultation with representatives of UNHCR. Since IDPs are citizens of the host country, issues or conflicts can be resolved at the local or county government level. The ability to work with local officials ensures quicker response times, allowing commanders to redirect limited resources as needed. Coordination, planning, and integration of relief efforts are usually less time consuming and easier when working with IDPs. On the other hand, unless it is to save life, limb, or eyesight, commanders may find themselves in legal trouble if they do not work through appropriate channels when dealing with refugees.

Background

By the end of 2012, two of the top ten refugee source countries were in the Pacific region, Myanmar and Viet Nam (number seven and nine respectively).1 While there is always a possibility that a large number of refugees may seek asylum in the Philippines, the issue of IDPs is a bigger and consistently recurring problem for the country. According to the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) World Fact Book, there are currently 454,000 displaced persons in the Philippines.2 Approximately 127,000 IDPs are due to continued fighting between the Philippine Army and the Moro Islamic Liberation Front and other separatist and terrorist groups. Natural disasters account for the remaining
327,000 IDPs. Between 2012 and 2014, there were three major typhoons and one major earthquake that affected the Philippines. IDPs from the typhoon in 2012 had not fully returned prior to the 2013 typhoon. Commanders must understand this situational dynamic. If called to support humanitarian operations, they may face situations where they will be working with individuals who have been IDPs for an extended period, not just those affected by a recent disaster.

The geography of the Philippines also poses a significant concern during the planning process. While the Philippines include over 7000 individual islands, the population of 107 million live on less than 1000 islands. Of these inhabited islands, more than half are less than 2.5 square km. Only 11 islands make up 94% of the country’s landmass (approximately the size of Arizona). Since the Philippines has the longest coastline in the world, the majority of the population lives along the coast. The Philippines averages 20 typhoons a year, have 23 active volcanoes, and lie along 2 major fault lines. While many disasters affect smaller uninhabited islands, significant damage and fatalities can occur if they strike one of the major inhabited islands especially as most individuals live along the coast. Typhoon Yolanda in 2013 left more than 6000 dead and 4.1 million IDPs. Many IDPs returned to their homes in the months after the storm; however, approximately 20,000 IDPs were still living at 56 locations a year after the typhoon.

The country does have a robust transportation infrastructure. As of 2013, it included 247 airports (87 with paved runways), 213,000 kms of roads (54,000 paved), 2 heliports, 995 km of rail, and 936 seaports (622 public and six major ports). The majority of the improved infrastructure is located on the main islands. Smaller private and public seaports provide the majority of all inter-island transport. Because of the geography of the islands, most will be damaged and will require some repair or clearing of debris before full use after a natural disaster. Addressing these issues early in the plan will allow a more effective use of limited resources.

U.S. support during Typhoon Yolanda in 2013 incorporated numerous inter-governmental agencies, private citizen donations, non-governmental organizations and the Department of Defense (DoD). The DoD contribution included elements of a marine expeditionary unit, a naval aircraft task force (12 vessels), 66 aircraft and over 1000 service members from all branches. The U.S. military supported the Philippine government and military by clearing roads, distributing more than 2400 tons of supplies, and transporting aid workers and IDPs throughout the country.
Guiuan, Samar Island. A girl sits on a jerrycan waiting for clean drinking water. The ICRC is working with Red Cross and Red Crescent partners to respond to the most urgent needs, which include water, in the aftermath of Typhoon Haiyan. ICRC / Olivier Matthys.

Figure 15-1

Future Operations

Based on the unique environmental issues that confront the Philippines on a consistent basis, it is certain another humanitarian event will happen in the future. Since the Philippines are a vital partner in the Pacific region, U.S. assistance is almost guaranteed. Military leaders must understand the challenges that they will face when confronted with humanitarian relief efforts in this part of the world.

First, while any natural disaster has the potential to create IDPs, planners must understand that there may be a significant IDP population currently residing in the affected area. Realizing that this is a possibility, logisticians must ask the right questions prior to finalizing their plans. Coordinating with USAID or the embassy country team to gather information on current IDPs will help facilitate planning for movement and the correct quantities of relief supplies for them and any newly displaced persons. While the majority of the population lives on the larger islands, consideration for supplying or transporting IDPs from smaller islands must be part of the overall plan. In the case of Typhoon Yolanda, Army forces were not the primary units conducting operations. The U.S. Navy and Marine Corps capabilities were and are the best match for this environment. Leaders must understand the capabilities that the sister services bring as well as how joint logistics planning and coordinating operates. While this coordination is normally conducted at the Joint Task Force (JTF) level, Soldiers at all levels must understand how to use all assets that will be available to support the humanitarian mission.
Moreover, damaged seaports, airports, and roads will significantly hamper distribution of supplies. Working with local governmental officials to identify and prioritize reconstruction and road clearing will provide unity of effort and speed the distribution process. Knowledge of local laws will also determine how quickly supplies will move.

In many areas of the Philippines (especially in the larger cities), there are weight restrictions for commercial vehicles. Additionally, in order to help reduce vehicle pollution and congestion, many areas limit the number of vehicles that can be on the road between 0700 and 1900 hours. A vehicle’s license plate number will determine if they can drive that vehicle that day. During Typhoon Yolanda, this restriction on trucks transporting relief supplies was not officially lifted until seven days after it made landfall. Working with the local government and relief agencies to identify these types of restraints early on will ensure they do not hamper relief efforts.

Finally, as with all types of operations, security is essential. The Philippine Red Cross stated that relief efforts were hampered by looting and theft of supplies from storage centers, ports, and convoys. Being Status of Forces Agreement (SOFA) agreement with the government of the Philippines. Being familiar with what it contains prior to deployment will identify other constraints or restrictions that may be in place. To limit modifications to the plan, commanders must work with their legal advisors to understand any restrictions or limitations on them and their Soldiers due to the SOFA.
Keys to Success

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Concern</th>
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<th>Coordinate with</th>
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<td>Embassy Country Team, BDE S2, Local Government, NGOs in region</td>
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<tr>
<td>NGOs</td>
<td>Identification and working with NGOs</td>
<td>CMOC, USAID, Embassy Country Team</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 15-2**

Conclusion

Humanitarian assistance missions are an integral part of stability operations. According to DOD directive 3000.05\textsuperscript{12}, stability operations will receive the same comparable priority as combat operations. Understanding the unique challenges the Philippines and its citizens may face during a natural disaster will better prepare military commanders to provide humanitarian assistance to IDPs. This vital mission will give the Philippine government time to rebuild essential services while providing lifesaving relief support and supplies to the local population.
Endnotes


Chapter 16

THE PHILIPPINES

MAJ Mac Echipare, MAJ Jonathan Perez, MAJ Robert Sudo, U.S. Army

DID YOU KNOW?

- Filipinos are the 4th largest migrant-population in the United States and have grown by more than 17% since 1960.¹
- Over 1.4 million Filipinos reside in the United States and more than 45% live in California (1/3 reside within Los Angeles and San Francisco).²
- In 1901, a law authorized the enlistment of 6,000 Filipinos into the U.S. military as "Philippine Scouts"; in 1913 Pvt. Jose B. Nisperos was the first Filipino awarded the Medal of Honor.³
- In 2014 6.5 million people were displaced in the Philippines due to natural disasters.⁴
- As of March 2015...127,000 people remain displaced in the Philippines due to conflict and violence.⁵

Background

The Republic of the Philippines is one of the most interesting and complex areas within the PACOM (Pacific Command) Commanders AOR (Area of Responsibility). The country consists of more than 7,100 islands spread across the Pacific Ocean with a current population of approximately 107 million people and is expected to grow to 113 million by 2025.⁶ 82% of the population is predominantly Roman Catholic followed by Muslims at 5% and Evangelical at 3%. Though Tagalog is the official language, 8 major dialects are used throughout the country (Tagalog, Cebuano, Ilocano, Hiligaynon or Ilonggo, Bicol, Waray, Pampango, and Pangasinan).⁷
The invading Japanese controlled the Philippine media, which portrayed imperial forces as helpful liberators. In reality, the Japanese were committing brutal war crimes like the Bataan Death March. This front page claims that Japanese occupation will bring peace and tranquility to the Philippines. (U.S. Air Force photo) 

Figure 16-1

Spanish, Asian and Western influences are visible within the Filipino culture as a result of colonization and liberation from multiple countries to include Spain, Japan and finally, the United States-twice. Spanish influence dates back to the 16th Century in the era of Ferdinand Magellan; a Portuguese explorer under the direction of Spain’s king. Uprisings and eventual defeat of Spanish influence ceded with U.S. assistance under the Treaty of Paris in 1898.

However, American rebellion soon grew thereafter, which sparked the American-Philippine War that lasted for approximately three years, resulting in over tens of thousands Filipino deaths (combatants and civilians). In 1902 U.S. President William Taft agreed to a general amnesty, which halted the fighting. Decades later as the nation was on the path to rebuilding its government, Japan invaded the country in its quest to expand its empire during WWII.

Again in 1944, America provided military assistance under the direction of GEN Douglas Macarthur; the Philippines declared liberation from Japanese occupation on July 4, 1945. One year later, President Harry S. Truman signed the U.S. Proclamation 2695 declaring, “Independence of the Philippines as a separate and self-governing nation...”. So, you ask yourself what is the value in U.S. and the Republic of the Philippines relationship? President Obama clearly noted the importance of an on-going alliance during his visit to the country where the two nations continued dialogue on their bi-lateral association, Obama stated, “our shared history, shared democratic values,
strong people-to-people ties, commitment to peace and stability in the Asia-Pacific region, and commitment to build prosperity for our people and the global economy.”

Introduction

To increase mission success in any military operation, it is essential for Commanders and staffs to first understand the operational environment they and their Soldiers will be working in. The country’s historical information is vital for Soldiers and leaders in understanding the intricacies of cultural influences as well as insurgencies. According to the UNHCR (United Nation High Commissioner for Refugees) the number one reason for Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) worldwide is a conflict; however, this is not the case in the Philippines. Although Philippine insurgencies date back to the 19th Century, today only one fifth of the nearly half a million IDPs are as a result of conflict primarily concentrated in the southern part of the Philippines. The remaining 400,000 have been displaced by natural-hazard related disasters to include typhoons and floods. Most recently, in November of 2013, 4.1 million people became displaced when Typhoon Haiyan reached shore, according to USAID (United States Agency for International Development).

Mass devastation in the wake of Typhoon Haiyan, which struck the central Philippines on 8 November, impacted over 13 million people and left 4 million people displaced. IRIN/Jason Gutierrez, November 2013

Regardless of displacement purposes, the necessity for camp security and stable communications assets is critical for ensuring RESPONSIVE and EFFECTIVE humanitarian aid support. In a country that is consistently overwhelmed with natural
disasters and lacks robust digital infrastructures, the need for reliable military support is even more important. Although medical assessments, which include providing clean water and sanitation are critical upon camp establishment, so are the security aspects of protecting the populace and controlling access in and out of the campsites. These parallel efforts both decrease mortality rates and improve security and collaborative efforts amongst military and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs).

Intelligence

The Pacific Area of Operations (AO) is a densely populated area with a vast need for information to ensure that the U.S. Military is able to function effectively with the necessary resources to accomplish assigned missions. The intelligence community within the Pacific Command AOR has limits to Human Intelligence as the United States has minimal in-country presence within the vast Pacific AOR. This is a limiting factor when given a mission to support partner countries in times of conflict or natural disasters that cause displaced people.

Intelligence professionals with support from other staff sections will begin the Intelligence Preparation of the Battlefield process to better understand the environment that caused the displacement. To begin the IPB process, we identify the characteristics of the environment, establish and understand our area of operation and area of influence and identify gaps in our information. These areas are essential to get right in order to better understand the ground truth of the current situation for military planners. The military has various resources to then request/gather information for countries of which they have no stationed military presence. One such resource is the U.S. Embassy within a specific country. One such country is the Philippines, where the U.S. military pulled stationed troops by the end of 1992. These forces were on the island and able to give specific information/intelligence to allow commanders to make informed decisions. This is not the case any longer in the Philippines and the only military way to get information is through the current mil-mil and bilateral relationship between the United States and the Philippines.

Per the U.S. Department of State information, the Philippines is a partnered country since 1946. The long standing relationship between the U.S. and the Philippines is strongly rooted in their shared commitment to democracy and human rights. The 1951 U.S. – Philippine Mutual Defense Treaty was reaffirmed with the recent 2011 signing of the Manila Declaration, which provides support for a robust, balanced, and responsive security partnership. Within the last decade, the United States has provided $143 million in assistance for disaster relief and recovery efforts, most recently after the 2013 typhoons Haiyan and Yolanda that caused internal displacements.

Today’s modern age with our technical abilities has the capacity to forecast natural disasters, but the poor living conditions in many of the isolated islands within the Philippines has the propensity to cause infrastructure damages and personnel displacement. These concerns and the partnership shared with the Philippines are the
catalysts to ensure that information sharing between the Embassy and military forces in support of such a mission is essential.

An example in getting the ground truth for the aftermath of Super Typhoon Yolanda in 2013, the Department of State activated and deployed a Disaster Assistance and Response Team and Humanitarian Assistance Survey team to conduct recovery support surveys. These entities will be essential to garner information as soon as the designated unit is on the ground or prior to deployment into the country.20

Threats

The Philippines threat situation as of 2015 consists of three (3) Muslim separatist factions who have had the interests of overthrowing the democratic government of the Philippines in order to create separate Islamic states. The three groups are the Moro National Liberation Front (MNLF), the Moro Islamic Liberation Front (MILF) and the Abu Sayyaf group. The depiction below illustrates the areas of conflict as of October 08, 2012.

The Moro National Liberation Front was founded in 1971 with a goal to establish an independent Moro nation from the Philippine state by any means including attacks against the state. Within Mindanao, the population is largely composed of the followers of Islam, known as Moros or Moors. In 1989, then President Corazon Aquino formally set up the Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao (ARMM) through presidential decree. This was to set the stage for peace in the southern islands to maintain peace through a degree of self-rule. Unfortunately, violence continues after the ousting of the ARMM governor through violence. Violence ensued in 2005 and 2007 with attacks to Philippine Army in Jolo, causing nearly 60 deaths.21
The Moro Islamic Liberation Front (MILF), formed in 1981, is considered the largest Muslim rebel group whose long-term goal is to create a separate Islamic state in the southern Philippines. A current peace negotiation between the Philippine state and the MILF is being pursued to end the violence and allow for the formation of a new, larger autonomous region in Mindanao.23

The Abu Sayyaf group is the most radical of the Islamic separatist groups in the south and yet the smallest in numbers whose goal is also to create an independent Islamic state. The Philippine government refuses to have any peace talks with this group as they are viewed as criminals. The United States has placed this group in the terrorist organization category due to its ties to Osama Bin Laden’s al-Qaeda network. One attack by this group was in February 2004 against a passenger ferry killing 100 people.24

The other threat entity to the Philippine state is the Communist Party of the Philippines (CPP) and its military wing New People’s Army (NPA) who use guerilla-style warfare. This organization also aims to overthrow the government and is considered one of the oldest communist insurgencies with a total of over 40,000 deaths attributed to the CPP. The U.S. State Department has listed this group on the Foreign Terrorist Organization list.25

Displacement Caused by Threat Groups
An example of displacement as reported from the UNHCR as of April 4, 2014, the deadly fighting between the MNLF and government forces has caused over 64,600 personnel to be displaced to live in evacuation centers, transition sites, and host communities. Whereas in September of 2013, over 100,000 people were displaced due to the continued fighting between the government and these rebel groups. It was reported that over 132 people died and 10,000 homes destroyed in and around the southern island Zamboanga and Basilan province. As a result of this displacement, persons occupying these spaces became the immediate priorities of adequate and potable water, sanitation requirements and medical attention for acute respiratory infections, diarrhea, and skin disease.

IDP Camp planning

For instances as mentioned above, U.S. military planners need to understand how best to support the host government and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO) in crises that occur from conflict. The resource to help guide in developing a camp is the Sphere Project Handbook which lays out the minimum standards when supporting victims of displacement. There are five (5) key areas that are necessary to get after when supporting displacement personnel in an IDP camp. They are:

1) Common Standards to All Sectors (project management)
2) Water Supply, Sanitation and Hygiene Promotion
3) Food Security, Nutrition and Food Aid
4) Shelter, Settlement and Non-Food Items
5) Health Services

The website to find additional information is http://www.sphereproject.org/ and the book is downloadable in English, French, Spanish, Arabic and Russian; other languages are available in abstracts.

Another resource to reference regarding displaced persons is the Protection of Conflict-Induced IDPs: Assessment for Action, Protection and Early Recovery Cluster Working Groups. This resource provides a guide for displaced persons supporters to begin understanding of developing a comprehensive analysis of the affected population.

Another resource regarding camp support such as protection of displaced persons is the Protecting Persons Affected by Natural Disasters – IASC Operational Guidelines on Human Rights and Natural Disasters. This document provides guidelines on how to implement the human rights approach in a humanitarian role. This document has four main chapters that provide a guideline for this support. They are: 1) Protection of Life, Security of the Person, Physical Integrity and Dignity; 2) Protection of Rights Related to Basic Necessities of Life; 3) Protection of Other Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and 4) Protection of Other Civil and Political Rights. The IASC main web page also has other resources to consider such as the Gender Handbook for Humanitarian Action as well as the Guidelines for Gender Based Violence Interventions.
Security Concerns

Several security concerns need to be assessed when supporting displaced persons in the Philippines that are similar to most if not all IDP camps worldwide. Intelligence support from the host nation, the U.S. Embassy and local leaders will be paramount to begin to understand the overall security problem. This review should encompass any and all criminal activity, any gender based violence, threat of human trafficking, and violence to aid workers. A survey must be done to understand any threat actors within the camp and begin to separate them from the populace. Single adult males and females need to be separated from families for security as well as they are likely targets of recruitment for rebel groups and human trafficking.

Philippines Communication Infrastructure

The Philippines is a growing telecommunications hub in Southeast Asia providing data and voice communications throughout 300,000 square kilometers and 7,107 islands, which make up the Philippine archipelago. Although modern telecommunications and information technology infrastructure are vital to the growth of the Philippines, investments and policies to improve are moving at a moderate pace. Digital fiber, Voice over Internet Protocol (VoIP), and high-speed wireless broadband connect the Philippines across the globe. Internet usage has skyrocketed from 5,000,000 users in 2009 to 35,000,000 internet users in 2013. All military organizations and NGOs will coordinate with one or more telecommunication companies for leased line circuits, cellular services, and radio tower usage. The Philippines has four major telecommunication companies:

- Philippine Long Distance Telephone Company (PLDT). They are the country’s largest telecommunication company, with smaller operations in China, Europe, India, Vietnam, and the United States.
- Globe Telecom Inc. is the second largest telecommunications company.
- Digital Telecommunications Philippines.
- Bayan Telecommunications.

The telecommunications infrastructure is steadily improving and is a strong indicator of the rapid change with the evolution from landlines to mobile phones. “The Philippines, called the text message capital of the world, is the world leader in Short Messaging Service (SMS) with almost a one billion daily messages.”
Host Nation Coordination

Relief efforts in the Pacific area of responsibility alleviate most of the administrative coordination to operate communication systems, platforms, and equipment due to standing Host Nation Agreements (HNAs). Spectrum is the most important, if not critical, planning consideration when deploying units into another country. The Republic of the Philippines charges the National Telecommunications Commission (NTC) to maintain and improve a regulatory organization conducive to the overall development and provisioning of exceptional telecommunications infrastructure and services. The NTC is mandated to perform:

- Regulate installation, operation, and maintenance of radio stations both for the private and public use.
- Regulate and supervise the provisioning of public telecommunications services
- Manages the radio spectrum
- Regulates and supervises radio and television broadcast stations, cable television (CATV), and pay television.

Coordination with the PACOM country leads is critical in order to identify planning gaps within the communications realm. Spectrum allocation and clearance upon arrival into the Philippines allows rapid usage of communications systems.

Multinational Communications Interoperability Program (MCIP)

MCIP is a Pacific Command (PACOM) initiative, which serves as a multilateral, command, control, communication, and cyber (C4) program for assured interoperability, information sharing, and capacity building led by the PACOM J6, and Communications Personnel from over 20 allied and Partner Nations; the Republic of the Philippines is
active participant alongside Government Organizations, United Nations, Industry, Academia, and Host Nation Organizations. The context of the event is focused on the Humanitarian Assistance and Disaster Relief (HADR) response. Figure 5 provides a sample planning group structure to support the unity of efforts of participating nations and formulates best practices.

**Figure 16-5**

Collaboration Efforts

In the midst of disasters and/or conflict in the Republic of the Philippines, it is certain that military, NGO, HN, and Government Agency must rely heavily on the toolsets available in the PACOM AOR to promote an effective and collective Common Operation Picture (COP). Due to the United States information sharing protocols, sharing data information is not always conducive. The following are capable toolsets readily available for Commanders to sync, mission command, and collaborate with supporting NGOs, HN, Governmental entities:

- All Partner’s Access Network (APAN). APAN is a web-based, non-mil network capable to foster information and knowledge sharing to any user with internet connection. APAN support BLOGs features, file sharing, collaboration through Adobe Connect, and effective, real-time situational awareness via Google Maps.\(^{35}\)
• Multinational Communication Interoperability Guide (MCIG) is a deployable database with an Internet Explorer browser-based interface. MCIG contains eight years of archived equipment specification and test results, it facilitates staff workshop planning, plus a robust search capability and result matrices.

• Mercury Spectrum Collaboration Application supports frequency requests and assignments for HA/DR Operations with Military, International Humanitarian Community (IHC) and Industry responders, allows spectrum collaboration between militaries, NGOs, IHC, and others directly to affected country spectrum managers and militaries.

• Multinational Forces Standard Operating Procedures which are shared through the Multinational Communications Interoperability Program Portal on APAN.

Communications packages

U.S. SATCOM support is available through Early Entry Communications Package (EEP). “The typical content of deployed contingency packages is decided on a case-by-case basis. This determined by mission, enemy, terrain, and weather, troops available and civilian (METT-TC). Most packages always rely on multiband SATCOM, baseband data capability, secure VTC, and secure voice while using minimal lift resources.” \(^\text{36}\) As an example, United States Army Pacific (USARPAC) SATCOM support consists of:

- Regional SATCOM Support Center (RSSC) - Pacific (Wheeler, Army Air Field, Hawaii)
- 307th Expeditionary Signal Battalion
- Phoenix Terminal operating on C, X, Ku, Ka bands.
- Joint Network Node (JNN) with Satellite Transportable Terminal (STT)
- Command Post Node (CPN) with STT
- SNAP (SIPR/NIPR Access Points) Terminals

Conclusion

A variety of cultural influences dating back to the 16th Century coupled with recurring natural disasters, the Republic of the Philippines can be a complex environment for PACOM units. Though historical insurgencies are not the predominant cause for displacement, they still cause hardship for both the national government, but most importantly the local populace. Communications support must be set in place during times of conflict or natural disasters to support the commander on the ground and local people in need. It is this combination of means and ways that heavily contribute to the ends of a peaceful of nation affluent with stability support.

Military members must take into account the national history to better understand the operational environment in order to provide REPSONSIVE and EFFECTIVE humanitarian aid support for the local citizens as well as coordinated efforts amongst NGOs. Intelligence, Security and Communications coincide together as a three-tiered...
overarching operation vital to ensuring mission success of all parties within the Republic of the Philippines.

Endnotes

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Every region in which the United States military operates is culturally diverse, and Southeast Asia is no exception. By becoming familiar with the culture in an operational environment, troops gain an understanding of the population and its expected behaviors, thus enabling improved interactions and more successful operations within the area. This article exposes some of the nuances associated with trafficking in persons and emphasizes some aspects unique to the Union of Burma, commonly referred to as “Burma.” It will introduce terms and ideas related to trafficking, discuss the manner and locations in which persons are transported through the country, explain the personnel involved, and expose some clues as to how to identify human trafficking activities. The article will conclude by identifying some helpful organizations committed to combating trafficking in persons and providing recommended courses of action in cases of suspected human trafficking.

Burma is a country in Southeast Asia which is currently under military rule and plagued by impoverished economic conditions. Human trafficking is perpetuated by extreme poverty and lack of governmental enforcement for prevention and punishment, providing conditions that perpetuate trafficking in persons. Although the Burmese government claims it is working toward eliminating the issue, the crime remains rampant in the country. The officials are working actively with the United Nations to improve the situation, but they have yet to implement effective prevention programs.

In 1989 the government of Burma changed the country’s name to the Republic of the Union of Myanmar. Although recognized by the United Nations, the United States government does not acknowledge the new title. Based on the Burmese regime’s lack of progress in establishing a fair democratic system and its disregard for human rights the United States and the United Kingdom continue to refer to the nation as “Burma.”

Background

Political and Cultural. In 1948 Burma obtained independence from the United Kingdom, and civil strife has continued among the various ethnicities. The conflicts have resulted
in more than 150,000 refugees and thousands of other citizens who are internally displaced. The incessant conflicts result in oppressed ethnicities, further perpetuating trafficking in persons. In 2011, the government shifted from military to civilian control, and the leaders are attempting to improve economic and social conditions through internal programs and international relationships.

 Trafficking. “Trafficking” and “smuggling” are two different criminal activities which are commonly misunderstood and used incorrectly in context. Whereas trafficking in persons deals directly with exploiting an individual, usually by imposing threatening or coercive means, smuggling refers only to the illegal transportation of people. In cases of smuggling, the individuals have often requested to be transported, and the act may not involve force or the threat of force.¹

 Trafficking is likely to include the movement of unwilling persons by a variety of means. It is done without the consent of the victims and involves the illegal sale of people to other individuals or organizations with the intent of exploitation. It is important to differentiate between the two terms, especially when reporting an action to an official agency.

 The U.S. Army defines trafficking in persons as “the recruitment, harboring, transportation, or obtaining of a person for labor or services, through the use of force, fraud or coercion.”² Perpetrators may deny accusations of human trafficking by claiming victim consent, but it is important to understand the activity is an illegal trade regardless of the circumstances through which the people were obtained for the purpose of exploitation.

 Human trafficking occurs worldwide, and Burma is no exception to this common tragedy. In 2011 the United States Department of State deemed Burma for the eleventh year to be in Tier 3 category in regards to human trafficking, indicating it does not meet the requirements in taking action to eradicate associated activities within its borders.³ It has since been placed on the Tier 2 watch list, and continues to be a country with minimal progress in improving conditions for trafficked persons.

 The Embassy of the Republic of the Union of Burma reports the government actively acknowledges and attempts to eliminate human trafficking. They have joined in anti-trafficking organizations, enacted laws, and implemented task forces; however, the issue remains rampant within the country.⁴ The government acknowledgement of the tragic issue is significant, but only drastic social and economic reform will strongly reduce the incidents of human trafficking.

 Locations. People are trafficked from, though, and within Burma, and trafficking occurs in and between all regions of the nation.

 Within the borders of the country, victims are most frequently captured from the rural countryside and transited toward the borders where there are industries and the transportation networks to support them. The females are typically taken from the
Ayeyarwaddy Division to the industrialized areas where they can be easily transported within the area. Most people who are moved internally are relocated to Rangoon and Mandalay to be sold into labor or sexual organizations.

In addition to the internal trafficking activity within Burma, the country is used as a throughway for humans being pushed between countries. For example, persons may be moved from China to Thailand by way of Burma.

Individuals who are imported into Burma most often arrive all across the country in the cities of Chiang Rai, Nong Khai, Udon Thani, Tak, or Ranong, while those who are deported from the country are most commonly shipped from Songkhla in the southern region. Victims are sent to neighboring nations across Southeast Asia where they are forced to serve in roles such as sexual workers, laborers, beggars, and brides. Countries in the region known to regularly receive trafficked persons from Burma include Thailand, Republic of China, Malaysia, Bangladesh, South Korea, Macau, and Pakistan.\(^5\) Human trafficking occurs worldwide and importation and deportation is not limited to only these nations.

**Contributing Factors**

Within the Burmese military organizations, there is extensive corruption and minimal emphasis on improving the inhumane climate military members exacerbate. Children are recruited and used as child soldiers, resulting in the most predominant aspect of human trafficking in Burma. As long as the military actions toward human trafficking are condoned by the government, efforts to eliminate the issue are not likely to be productive. With the military’s strong impact in the country, citizens may fear reprisal if they attempt to take action against the issue.

The Burmese economy and socioeconomic status ranks among the lowest in the world and is less than that of other countries in the region. Based on this relative and actual deprivation, the local population succumbs to the temptations to export personnel for the purpose of exploitation in an attempt to increase their personal economic well-being. Job opportunities in Burma are limited, and poverty is rampant in the nation, two situations which leave citizens with the perceived justification to participate in human sales.

Finally, there are no sanctions in place sufficient to deter human trafficking as a means for financial gain. The activity of human trafficking cannot be mitigated until the social paradigm which overlooks it is reversed. Government corruption, economic conditions, and lack of emphasis on combating human trafficking must be addressed before the issue can be resolved.
Personnel Involved

Victims

There is no restriction to the demographics of a person who can become a victim of human trafficking – women, men, and children are all susceptible to the act. Often victims are sent to perform as beggars and teenage girls are forced to work as prostitutes. Though women and children are the most vulnerable victims of human trafficking, men and boys are also exploited for various industries. Children are frequently sent to perform agricultural labor, or work in other military, labor and sex industries.6

Children who have been sold into labor in Southeast Asia perform the work assigned to them. (Photo credit: David Hatfield Photography)

Figure 17-1

Perpetrators

In Burma, human trafficking is most commonly conducted by the military. Because of this, areas occupied by large amounts of military personnel are expected to have large populations of trafficked persons.7 Child victims in use within military organizations can be more easily identified than adults who were forced into military service. Although the government has implemented programs to deter the use of children in the military, it continues to be a pervasive issue.

Parents are frequently guilty of selling their own offspring to buyers in exchange for cash to assist the family in sustaining its livelihood. Impoverished areas where survival is questionable and starvation is common contain populations of families who sell their children for the well-being of the remaining members of the family.
The indicators of human trafficking vary depending on the industry in which the victims are being used. Further, when attempting to identify trafficked persons, it is important to consider the circumstances of the individuals in relation to others within their culture. Cultural differences will account for some abnormalities in comparison to American and western norms; however, any of the conditions listed below may indicate individuals are victims.

Conditions within the home or work place

In spite of the various factors that are different from American employment standards, there are signs indicating exploitation of persons. For example, victims may be confined to an area and strictly prohibited from leaving the place of employment. Additionally, children providing sexual acts in exchange for money, individuals not being paid any money for labor, or individuals working unusual hours or employed with severe restrictions may be victims of trafficking. Other indicators include personnel who owe extraordinarily high debts which cannot be paid off, claim they are not performing the duties they were recruited to perform, or are working in abnormally secure locations.

Questionable Mental Health or Behaviour

Consistent with victims who have experienced a particularly traumatic event, victims of human trafficking may be fearful, anxious, depressed, submissive, tense, or anxious. They may also exhibit unusually fearful behaviour and avoid eye contact. Victims will be unwilling to discuss work place rules or speak about their employer because they or their families have been threatened with punishment or death.

Poor Physical Health

Victims are often physically mistreated, resulting in an obvious lack of health care, malnutrition, or signs of physical abuse such as physical restraint, confinement, or torture. It is important to compare these conditions relative to the other members of the local population to determine what is culturally acceptable.

If indicators are present, it may be challenging to confirm the identification of a trafficked victim. Most victims remain in their oppressed situations because the perpetrators threaten to harm their families if they run away or do not perform to standard. Other victims may be conned into staying for other reasons. In the case of children, many of them have no family members alive to care for them, and some have even witnessed the murder of their families. In these cases, the perpetrators will convince the children it is in their best interest to remain in custody because they have no place to go if they flee.

Service members should use discretion and trust their judgment in identifying human trafficking circumstances. A combination of signs is the best indication, and the local embassy or a legitimate non-governmental organization can assist in confirming suspected cases.
Organizations fighting against Human Trafficking in Southeast Asia

As previously mentioned, the recently established civilian government of Burma is attempting to create and enforce programs to eradicate human trafficking. The organizations working toward this cause may vary as time progresses; however, as of May 2014, the organizations listed are currently among those which are actively addressing the trafficking in persons concerns in Burma.

The government of Burma maintains organizations working to eradicate human trafficking. Unfortunately, the military and select portions of civil organizations which sanction trafficking in persons may be counterproductive to the efforts of these agencies. Burma’s Ministry for Home Affairs is the primary governmental agency advocating the cessation of human trafficking. Additionally, the Ministry of Social Welfare, Relief and Resettlement offers classes to train instructors to prevent females from becoming victims, and the Ministry of Immigration and Population is focusing on preventing trafficking through international borders.

Among the many international groups which are committed to reducing the impact of human trafficking on the Burmese citizens, the United Nations Inter-Agency Project on Human Trafficking in the Greater Mekon Sub-Region (UNAIP) is an example of a legitimate organization which works to respond to cases in the region. Other organizations are set up temporarily and contribute to the efforts to eliminate factors contributing to the crimes associated with trafficking in persons.

Non-governmental Organizations (NGO) are also committed to improving conditions for oppressed citizens in the country. Most of the Burmese NGOs focus on educating and empowering women to prevent them from becoming victims. The United States Agency for International Development works in conjunction with the Burmese government’s efforts to fight the human trafficking issues. The organization established and funded programs which extensively contribute to identifying and preventing victimization in the country.9

Taking Action

The first step in combating human trafficking in an area of operations is to educate the organization regarding the presence of the issue and then train service members how to recognize trafficking indicators. Commanders should conduct annual training requirements and tailor the program based on the assigned region.

It is not advisable to contact perpetrators, local populace, or victims regarding suspicions of human trafficking. Direct contact may alert the traffickers and cause actions adverse to the cause of combating the activities. Premature action may also result in increased harm to the victims. Leaders should encourage troops to report incidents through the proper channels rather than attempting to confront the perpetrators.
The Department of State urges individuals to disregard claims discouraging identification and reporting of trafficking victims. For example, contrary to speculation that identifying victims may result in an increased number of incidents, reporting will actually assist in illustrating a more accurate number of cases. Further, issues regarding whether support programs will evoke false claims of victimization should be disregarded as it is more important to begin exposing the victims than to be concerned with fraudulent cases.

Trafficked persons are not commonly encountered in mainstream American culture; therefore, troops may have an adverse reaction if they are faced with the situation. Witnessing children and women who have been sold against their will for exploitation may dramatically impact the emotions of the Soldiers and elicit negative responses. Because the act is contrary to American cultural norms and most likely against the Soldiers' personal ethical and moral opinions, it is important to monitor reactions. As with other situations involving unfamiliar cultural experiences, the course of action to prepare troops for the experience is similar in nature. For example, leaders may begin by arranging for cultural orientation classes, then monitor the troops for abnormal emotional responses after encountering trafficked persons, and then encourage the troops to seek counseling to assist in emotionally processing and accepting the events.

Reporting

Equipping the organization with contact information and reporting instructions will enable appropriate action to be taken when signs are recognized. All members of the organization should be encouraged to be vigilant in watching for the signs, and the chain of command should encourage reporting through proper channels. As with other programs, command emphasis will result in a more successful program.

The United States Embassy in Burma is located in Rangoon. If reporting known or suspected cases of human trafficking to the embassy, contact the Political Counselor who will notify the Human Rights Officer. The Human Rights Officer is in contact with and interacts regularly with the local populace. This office is responsible for publishing the annual human trafficking report and will be able to assist leaders in taking the appropriate action. Within the United States the Department of State’s Office to Combat Trafficking in Persons is the primary point of contact for reporting.

Ultimately, any unit that deploys to Burma will face a number of challenges. Being aware of the operational environment and knowing the people and culture of the host country will greatly assist in the overall accomplishment of the unit mission.
Endnotes

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12 Although they work primarily in handling domestic cases of human trafficking, the Department of State’s Office for Combating Trafficking in Persons serves as a point of contact for reporting. They can be contacted at the following phone number: 1-888-373-7888.
Chapter 18
Burma

Major E.G. MacEachern, Canadian Army

Introduction

Burma (Myanmar)\(^1\) is the poorest country in Southeast Asia, and one of the least advanced in the world. Since winning independence in 1948, Burma has spent most of its modern history cut off from the outside world by a succession of authoritarian governments. The repressive actions of the government in response to a series of insurgencies have created the conditions for large numbers of displaced people inside Burma. At the same time, a refugee crisis exists in the surrounding countries, exacerbated by the fact that those neighbors are not signatories to the Geneva Convention on Refugees. This essay will outline the salient issues regarding refugees and internally displaced persons in Burma, in order to increase the understanding of military forces providing humanitarian assistance to that country in the years to come.

Geography and Population

Burma is located in Southeast Asia, bordered to the West by the Bay of Bengal and the Andaman Sea, to the Northwest by Bangladesh and India, and to the East by China, Laos and Thailand. Its landmass is approximately 650,000 km\(^2\), or roughly the size of Texas. The country consists of a central lowland plain, surrounded by mountain ranges that contribute to Burma’s isolation from its neighbors. The Irrawaddy River is Burma’s largest, running North-South through the central lowlands and terminating in a large delta on the Andaman Sea. Burma has a population of approximately 55 million people, split between 35% living in urban areas and the remainder in rural villages concentrated in the lowlands. Rangoon is the largest city, with a population of over 5 million.\(^2\)

Burma is one of the poorest countries on Earth. As of 2012, GDP (PPP) per capita was estimated at $1400 USD, or 204\(^{th}\) in the world’s rankings. Infant and maternal mortality are both high and life expectancy, at an average of 65.6 years, is ranked 170\(^{th}\) worldwide. Incidence of infectious disease is very high, including serious vector borne diseases such as dengue fever, malaria and Japanese encephalitis. Of particular concern within the context of refugee and IDP study is the almost complete lack of adequate healthcare for people in rural areas. While access to the country for health sector NGOs has increased in the last several years, the vast majority of refugees and IDPs have little to no sources of primary healthcare.\(^3\)

Meteorologically, Burma is classified as a tropical monsoon environment, dominated by the Bay of Bengal’s weather systems. The country is highly vulnerable to cyclones originating in the Indian Ocean, as tragically demonstrated by the case of Cyclone
Nargis. Nargis struck the Irrawaddy Delta in May 2008, rendering upwards of 2.4 million people homeless and killing over 100,000, making it one of the most deadly natural disasters in recent history.4

![Map of Burma](image)

**Figure 18-1**

Governance

Burma gained independence from British colonial rule in 1948, transitioning to an extended period of authoritarian military governance that effectively cut the country off from the outside world, especially between 1990 and 2011. During that period the governing junta ruthlessly repressed internal dissent and conducted a widespread, brutal counterinsurgency campaign against ethnically-based anti-government militias, resulting in large numbers of refugees fleeing to neighboring countries and extensive internal displacement. The government’s incapability to help its citizens and its unwillingness to accept outside aid in the aftermath of Cyclone Nargis in 2008 led the international community to consider unilateral action within the country under the
auspices of Responsibility to Protect (R2P). While this action was ultimately not taken, it clearly signalled to the government of Burma that its actions were incompatible with international norms of behavior. Since 2011, the government has enacted political and economic reforms that have, to a degree, moved the country toward democratic governance and normalized relations with its neighbors. An important indicator of this liberalizing trend was the release, in 2010, of National League for Democracy (NDL) leader Aung San Suu Kyi, after 20 years of intermittent house arrest. The willingness of the Burmese government to accept contact with the outside world was highlighted by the visit of the President of the United States in November 2012. Despite this progress and the relative liberalization of the government over the past several years, the widespread abuses of human rights by the government against the population mean that relations with the outside world and interactions with Western military forces will remain challenging for the foreseeable future.

Internally Displaced Persons

Long-term government repression and military operations against ethnically based factions have resulted in large numbers of refugees fleeing into neighboring countries, as well as extensive internal displacement. During counterinsurgency operations, Burmese government military units carried out extensive forced displacement of civilians under a program known as the Four Cuts: the cutting-off of support to insurgents in the form of food, funding, recruits and information. Government forces divided areas of responsibility into zones of complete control, contested areas and regions over which they had no control, and designated the latter as free-fire areas for military operations.

Forced displacement occurred on an exceptionally wide scale, with hundreds of thousands of people moved by the military to large relocation centers, often close to government infrastructure projects requiring their forced labor. The use of internally displaced people as forced porters for the army has been widespread. While the actions of the government are more widely known, forced displacement by insurgent actors has occurred as well, as is the common use of child soldiers by all parties to the conflicts. As of the end of 2012, there were an estimated 500,000 internally displaced people in Burma, primarily found in the South Shan, Karenni, East Pegu, Karen, Mon, and Tenasserim states.

Refugees

Burma is listed at 7th in the world for sources of refugees as of end-2012. Notably, none of the countries surrounding Burma are signatories to the 1951 Convention on Refugees and its 1967 Protocol, and as such claim limited legal responsibility to respond to the problems of refugees from Burma. In Thailand, people who have crossed the border from Burma and are in camps are classified as “temporary displaced persons fleeing fighting” instead of refugees in order to avoid the international legal issues that surround refugees and to emphasize the idea that they will return to Burma eventually. At the same time, actions by agencies from neighboring countries to
provide assistance to affected populations inside Burma are considered illegal violations of borders by the Burmese government, rendering those people caught in camps on either side of the border without assistance.

Figure 2 shows the locations of the main refugee camps found on the Burmese/Thai border. While this situation is certainly not unique to Burma and its neighbors, the scale of the problem, its long duration and the political and military complexities of the area make it especially challenging.

![Map of Refugee and IDP Camp Populations: February 2014](image)

**Figure 18-2**

**Landmines**

During the period of counterinsurgency operations in the Southeast of Burma, the Burmese government as well as armed insurgent groups made extensive use of antipersonnel landmines as well as improvised explosive devices. Within Asia, Burma is second only to Afghanistan in terms of the number of landmine victims. Most minefields are unmarked, and are situated close to population centers.
Figure 3 depicts the zones of heaviest concentration of antipersonnel mines, as well as the location of recent landmine casualties. The prevalence of landmines and IEDs in the countryside has a direct impact on the food security of vulnerable populations where they are found, as the most common victim of accidental landmines has historically been farmers.19

Conclusion

After 65 years with limited contact with the outside world, Burma is beginning to enact reforms that will increase its interaction with the global community, and in particular its neighbors in Southeast Asia. While encouraging, the pace and extent of liberalization...
unforeseeable and the country faces extraordinary challenges in overcoming decades of internal conflict. It seems likely that Western military forces will collaborate with the government and military of Burma in the future in order to address these issues. This essay has outlined some of the factors impacting refugees and internally displaced people in the region, as well as some of the features of the operational environment that make Burma such a difficult place to work.

Endnotes

2 Ibid.
3 Ibid.
4 Ibid.
5 Ibid.
8 Ibid.
15 Brees, Forced Displacement of Burmese People, 5.
17 Geneva Call, Humanitarian Impact of Landmines in Burma/Myanmar.
18 Ibid.
19 Ibid.
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Chapter 19

CAMBODIA

MAJ Josef R. Wein, U.S. Army

The Pacific Ocean is twice the size of the Atlantic. Unlike the Atlantic, however, the Pacific air infrastructure is far less robust. This includes airfields, navigation aids, air traffic control, and communications infrastructure. Despite this, Cambodia has a relatively modern air infrastructure with enroute air traffic control, approach control radar services, and communications coverage. However, there are only three international airports in Cambodia, three regional airports, and eleven smaller airfields, mostly made of dirt as opposed to concrete or asphalt. The vastness of the Pacific, coupled with limited capabilities of the airfields and long distances to traverse, requires careful planning and flexible execution to conduct air mobility operations in support of a potential humanitarian crisis in Cambodia.

On a slightly separate, but equally important note, if a humanitarian, IDP, or refugee situation prompts U.S. actions, it is likely the U.S. Army will act alone. The purpose of this article is to provide some background and to serve as a preemptive explanation for why the Air Force handles matters in certain way. While it may take 24 to 48 hours for the U.S. Air Force to respond, there are plans in place for certain AF units to respond rapidly. Considering the aforementioned distances involved in the Pacific, 24 to 48 hours is a very rapid response. If you have specific requirements that will need to be airlifted in, contact the Air Mobility Liaison Officer (AMLO) embedded at the Division level. They will communicate with the AMLO at USPACOM or PACAF. They will, in turn, be in contact with Tanker/Airlift Control Center (TACC), the Air Force’s global mobility aircraft dispatch center located at Scott AFB, IL. Chances are all air mobility C2 agencies will be extremely busy, so be prepared to leave a message with the Division AMLO.

Since the air traffic control infrastructure over Cambodia is relatively modern, the problem is not getting aircraft into Cambodia, but handling them once they land. In this case, the term, Maximum on Ground or MOG becomes a major planning factor. There are two types of MOG: parking MOG and working MOG. The working MOG is the one you will be most concerned with and may adversely affect the influx of aircraft into Cambodia in support of humanitarian operations. The working MOG indicates how many aircraft can be on-loaded, off-loaded, or serviced at any given time based on space, ground support personnel presence, and handling equipment capacity. For example, during the 2010 Haiti earthquake response, following the initial U.S. arrival, the working MOG was two, meaning two aircraft could be on the ground and serviced at one time. Eventually, the working MOG increased to 20 following the arrival of more personnel and ground equipment.

For planning purposes, there are three airfields to support humanitarian operations in Cambodia; Siem Reap International (VDSR) to the North, Sihanouk International
International airports can typically support large and heavy weight classes of aircraft due to stronger concrete and asphalt surfaces. In order to maintain, 'International Airport' status with the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), the international version of the U.S. Federal Aviation Administration, there are requirements for the airport to maintain instrument approach capabilities. This capability is an absolute must to allow aircraft operations during periods of inclement weather. These international airports are best suited to conduct air mobility operations in support of a humanitarian effort.

Andersen AFB, Guam, where the 36th Contingency Response Group (CRG) is located, is the closest CRG to Cambodia. The CRG is world-wide deployable within 12 hours of notification, and can reach virtually anywhere in the world within 24 to 48 hours. It is the same sized unit that performed the port opening at Port Au Prince International Airport in Haiti following the 2010 earthquakes. This unit, like the other CRGs, has a very unique, robust capability for emergency port opening or establishing a U.S. presence at a particular base. For instance, the unit includes airfield management, aerial port and logistics capabilities, civil engineers, security forces, medical, aircraft maintenance, and communications. Although there are Contingency Response Elements located throughout the USPACOM Theater of Operations, the CRG at Guam has the most capability in the region and can react the fastest to facilitate humanitarian operations. They have the capability to get an airfield opened and running to support whatever humanitarian crisis arises.

This shows the distances from Phnom Penh (VDPP) to Siem Reap (VDSR) at 173 mi, Siem Reap to Sinaouk Int'l (VDSV) at 195 mi, and Sinaouk to Phnom Penh at 146 mi.¹

**Figure 19-1**

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If the mission dictates another airfield be used, the unit can contact the AMLO to begin work on this requirement. It is likely the AF has looked into using this airfield previously. The AMLO will refer to the GIANT Report to verify if a particular airfield can be used for mobility operations. The GIANT Report is a database of airfields and information about those airfields maintained by TACC. It is a wealth of information that will even indicate what military mobility aircraft can operate there. In lieu of having your own account to access GIANT Reports, the AMLO can provide you with whatever information you require about the airfield. This information includes instrument approaches, pavement types and strengths, ramp space, aircraft parking, and airfield contact information. The GIANT Reports will provide you with enough insight to determine whether or not the airfield you want to use is a viable, safe option.

![Map of Asia showing distances between airfields](image)

To Provide some scale and show how vast the distances are; U-Tapao Royal Thai Navy Airfield (VTBU) to Phnom Penh (VDPP) to Andersen AFB, Guam (PGUA). The distance from U-Tapao to Phnom Penh is just over 271 mi. The great circle distance from Phen to Andersen AFB is 2979 mi.²

**Figure 19-2**

Another airfield to consider as a staging location is U-Tapao Royal Thai Navy Airfield in Thailand. It is used as a staging base for Exercise COBRA GOLD, an annual exercise in the Pacific theater. The primary focus of this exercise is deployment of combat forces, but in recent years it has focused additionally on humanitarian operations. The participants in COBRA GOLD 2014 were the United States, Thailand, South Korea, Malaysia, Indonesia, and Singapore. This large scale exercise that requires the bed-down of U.S. forces and aircraft in U-Tapao. The airfield could serve as a centrally located staging base for a real-world humanitarian requirement in Cambodia. Again, due to the vastness of the Pacific, U-Tapao is an ideal base for coalition aircraft to fly in support of humanitarian operations. Staging at U-Tapao will provide air mobility crews with the capability to easily fly into Cambodia and then crew rest at U-Tapao.
One of the keys to success in humanitarian operations is to ensure those who need aid actually get it. The vastness of the Pacific, coupled with limited capabilities of the airfields, and long distances to traverse requires careful planning and flexible execution to conduct effective air mobility operations in support of a humanitarian crisis in Cambodia. In the initial stages of an operation, this support falls on the shoulders of air mobility forces as they are best equipped to respond rapidly. The unrivaled capabilities of U.S. air mobility forces, existing C2 infrastructure, airfield familiarity, contingency response capabilities, and established international partnerships are the elements the world will likely call upon in case of a humanitarian crisis in Cambodia.

This chart shows the global presence of air mobility forces.\textsuperscript{3}

\textbf{Figure 19-3}

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\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{chart.png}
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Endnotes

1 Great Circle Mapper, VDSV-VDSR-VDPP-VSDV. Date accessed, April 17, 2014
2 Great Circle Mapper, VTBU-VDPP-VGUA. Date accessed, April 17, 2014
3 SSgt James A. Stewart. 621st Contingency Response Group Mission Orientation Briefing, McGuire AFB, NJ. May 7, 2013
Appendix A

ACRONYM LIST

ADS - Automated Directives System
AFB - Air Force Base
AIDAR - USAID Acquisition Regulation
AMLO - Air Mobility Liaison Officer
AO - Area of Operation
AOC - Army Operations Center
AOR - Area of responsibility
APAN - All Partner’s Access Network
APRRN - Asia Pacific Refugee Rights Network
AR - Army Regulation
ARC - American Refugee Committee International
ARDS - Acute respiratory distress syndrome
ARMIS - Agricultural Risk Management Information System
ASEAN - Association of Southeast Asian Nations
ATS - Amphetamine Type Stimulants
BBP - Better Buying Power
BCG - Bacillus Chalmette-Guerin
BIDS - Best interest determinations
CATV - Cable television
CFR - Code of Federal Regulations
CFSAM - Crop and Food Security Assessment Mission
CIA – Central Intelligence Agency
CMO – Civil Military Operations
COP - Common Operation Picture
CPN - Command Post Node
CPP - Communist Party of the Philippines
CRG - Contingency Response Group
CWS - Church World Service
DIME – Diplomacy, Information, Military, and Economics (instruments of national power)
DOD - Department of Defense
DoS - Department of State
DRM - Disaster risk management
EEP - Early Entry Communications Package
EPI - Expanded Program on Immunization
FAO - Food Agriculture Organization
FAO/WFP – Food and agriculture Organization/ World Food Program
FAR - Federal Acquisition Regulation
FFP - Firm fixed priced
G/TIP - Office to Monitor and Combat Trafficking in Persons
GDP(PPP) Gross Domestic Product
GIANT – Airfield database showing location, capacity, and status
GSI - Global Slavery Index
H5N1 - Highly Pathogenic Asian-Origin Avian Influenza A
HA - Humanitarian assistance
HADR - Humanitarian Assistance and Disaster
HAST - Humanitarian assistance survey team
HIV/AIDS – Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
HN - Host Nation HN
HNAs - Host Nation Agreements
ICISS - Intervention and State Sovereignty
ICRC - International Committee of the Red Cross
ICRC – International Committee of the Red Cross
ID – Identification
IDP – Internally Displaced Persons
IDPs - Internally displaced people (IDPs)
IG - Immune Globulin
IGOs - International Governmental Organizations
IHC - International Humanitarian Community
ILO - International Labor Organization
INTERET - International Force for East Timor
IO - Intergovernmental Organizations
IO - International Organizations
IOM - International Organization for Migration
IRC - International Rescue Committee
IVO – In the vicinity of…
JJNN - Joint Network Node
JRS - Jesuit Refugee Service
JTF - Joint Task Force
LNO – Liaison Officer
LOE- Level of Effort
LTBI - Latent tuberculosis infection
MCIG - Multinational Communication Interoperability Guide
MCIP - Multinational Communications Interoperability Program
METF-TC – Mission, Enemy, Terrain and Weather, Troops and Support Available, Time Available, Civil Disturbance
MILF - Moro Islamic Liberation Front
MNLF - Moro National Liberation Front
MOE/MOP – Measure of effectiveness/measure of performance
MOG - Maximum on Ground
NATO – North Atlantic Treaty Organization
NDL - National League for Democracy
NGO - Non-governmental Agencies
NIPR - Non-Secure Internet Protocol Router
NPA - New People’s Army
NRC - Norwegian Refugee Council
NSAID - Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs
NTC - National Telecommunications Commission