

Developing Kham: A Way Forward

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This essay examines the current state of economic development and environmental degradation on the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau, focusing primarily on the nomadic area of Zhidou County (Sanjiangyuan region), Yushu Prefecture, Qinghai Province. Current initiatives from the provincial government, though well intentioned, are missing key elements in order to develop the region and maintain the preservation and conservation of the unique biodiversity and culture of the Three Rivers Region. This essay will examine, in brief, the history of development in Western China and Tibetan nomadic areas, and provide recommendations based upon existing practices by Chinese development agencies (both government and civilian), local herding communities, and the primary foreign organization working in the area, Plateau Perspectives.

This paper proposes that a movement away from the term “sustainable development” to “organic development” is needed in the Kham regions of the Tibetan Plateau. This primarily would take place through the use of nomadic traditional ecological knowledge (TEK), education initiatives, and local and provincial government cooperation—all areas largely ignored or mismanaged by past foreign and local efforts. The term “organic development” refers a development process that is not a) limited by the current discourse on economic and environmental issues surrounding the Qinghai Plateau region; b) attempts to join current methods with a more adaptive dynamic model, allowing for c) the establishment of a development system that works outside of the traditional power structure as multiple participants work together to address the real and felt needs of their community—at the village, township, and prefectural level.

The Impact on Commercial Activity of Road Construction in the Annapurna Conservation Area, Nepal

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The Annapurna Conservation Area Project (ACAP) established the first and largest conservation area in Nepal in 1986 in an area recognized for its rich biological and cultural diversity. Even as the Annapurna Conservation Area (ACA) has developed into the premier trekking destination in Nepal, it continues to be globally recognized for its innovations in protected area management, particularly in its utilization of multiple land use principles that combine environmental protection and conservation with sustainable community development. Programs to enhance the living standards of the local people are woven into a framework of sound resource management.

To date, the absence of a road connection has been seen as a barrier to economic development in the region. In the mid-1990s construction was started on roads following

the Kali Gandaki and Marsyandi river valleys towards the district headquarters of Jomsom (Mustang) and Chame (Manang): communities within the ACA. A national priority of Nepal's Three Year Interim Plan (2007/08-2009/10) was to connect ten district headquarters, including Jomsom and Chame, to the national road network. Construction has been moving in fits and starts, but large sections of the roads are now complete. An even grander vision has been proposed: to extend the road to Jomsom northwards connecting with a spur which already links Upper Mustang with Chinese highway G219, with this Kali Gandaki Highway serving as a key connection for future trade between India and China.

Elsewhere in the Himalayas increased road access has led to substantial economic, social, cultural, demographic, institutional, and environmental impacts—both positive and negative. The character and extent of commercial activity has adapted to the new environment of greater ease of access, reduced costs, fresh competition, the shifting of population demographics, and changing visitor profiles.

This paper reviews current issues related to the road construction in the ACA region. Already, as sections of the road which have been completed, transportation is more efficient and the cost of commodities has decreased, land prices have increased, and investment patterns have changed. However, local protests over the routing of the road and the resultant loss of business have disrupted construction for periods of months. Once the road connections are complete even more substantial changes will occur in those communities along the routes and in the region generally. By focussing on the commercial structure in four communities in the ACA region: Manang, Ranipauwa (Muktinath), Jomsom and Tatopani, the paper provides an assessment of the commercial changes which may be anticipated.

Surviving on Margins: Dilemmas of a Himalayan Primitive Tribe- Bhuxas over Developmental Paradigms in Globalizing India

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The Bhuxas are a primitive tribal group inhabiting the foothills of central Himalayan region of northern India. This tribal group cohabits the Himalayan foothills and its malaria infested jungles along with the Tharu tribe in Indian Himalayas, whereas Tharus are well spread from India to Nepal. , the population of these Bhoxas is distributed over the commissionaires of Kumaun and Garhwal in the newly created province of Uttarakhand in Indian Union and also in the district of Bullandshahar in Uttarpradesh .The Bhoxa tribe has a history of origin-believing in the /migration to this habitat dating back to Muslim occupation of northern India in mediaeval period.

This group is listed as one among 76 primitive tribal groups in India and is on the Government list of priorities for upliftment and welfare. Somehow govt. schemes towards this have been unsuccessful and marginal in effect for the tribe.

This tribe is showing signs of distress and panics in a fast changing world where they feel incapable of coping with changing times and survive and protect their identity and culture. Their fear is that ‘we will not last long and be lost forever by next generation.’ Land alienation in the hands of new migrants after Indian independence and now due to the pressures of new industrial economy, growing urbanization in this age of globalization has increased and compounded new stresses related to their survival, growth and development. Identity crisis has generated feeling of self depreciation and low self esteem for survival in fast changing times. As one of their prominent leader articulated their concern: ‘we have a little hope of surviving in future as we will soon be lost in oblivion’ as a separate community. This low self confidence in their capacity and culture has become real cause of concern. There is a sense of panic looming in their eyes as they find themselves helpless and incapable in coping with dominant culture and new economy which is engulfing their traditional modes of subsistence and way of life. Sense of dejection and apathy towards manual work has accentuated habits of drinking, which has emerged as a major cause of physical and emotional degeneration of the tribe as a whole in the state of Uttarakhand.

An ethnographic study along with the socio-economic survey of every Bhuxa householder (7000) in Garhwal region was undertaken in 2005 and 2007 and plethora of problems relating to subsistence, education, health and hygiene, land alienation, increasing demand on tribal land for industrial production and commercial agriculture were explored. Paper aims to highlight some basic issues related to fear and concerns of this tribal group related to survival and sustenance, effects of skewed developmental priorities of governmental policies with the increasing inroads of private money in the region. This paper also reports and analyses causes and effects of growing economic and political marginalization on this primitive tribal group and it also strives to explore solutions.

Social and Economic Policies for Reducing Horizontal Inequalities in Post-Conflict Nepal

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Using data of 1990s and early years of the new millennium, the study presented unequal development outcomes across different cultural groups that have offered an opportunity to Maoists to sensitise and mobilize excluded caste and ethnic groups for violent conflict in Nepal during 1996 - 2006. The decade-long conflict comes to an end with the signing of the comprehensive peace accord in 2006. However, the post-conflict situation is highly

volatile. Therefore, in order to prevent from the relapse of conflict, the state has to end exclusion and reduce inequalities implementing pro-excluded groups policies.

In quest for such policies the paper makes a modest attempt for looking into the reasons for unequal development outcomes. It found that the root of the unequal development outcomes lies in the discrimination and inequality in political, economic, social and cultural dimensions.

The study found that there are severe Horizontal Inequalities - inequalities between different caste and ethnic groups in economic, social, cultural and political dimensions, of Nepal and that the inequities are further growing on several fronts. The social and economic situation of excluded caste and ethnic groups such as Dalits (oppressed peoples), Janajatis (indigenous peoples) and Muslims is same as before or even worsening. Although poverty rate decreased for all the broad caste and ethnic groups, the rate of decrease was low for excluded groups and higher for castes like Brahmin/Chhetri and Newar. Similarly, the rate of increase in literacy rate of the excluded groups was less than that of other groups. In particular, the proportion of graduates from Janajati was higher in 1991 than 2001. Moreover, the political system despite the restoration of democracy in 1990 was not inclusive and was ruled generally by Brahmin/Chhetri and Newar, hardly giving any leeway for power sharing until the formation of Constituent Assembly in April 2008.

The constitution of Nepal 1990 and interim constitution of 2007 has been much progressive for ending cultural discrimination, and the government also made effort to implement pro-poor policies to reduce socio-economic inequality between some excluded groups such as Dalits and others. Such policies have received further prominence after 2006 April Janandolan (people's movement). In fact, the current constituent assembly is very much inclusive with women holding 33 percent seats, and Janajatis have seats in proportion to their share in total population. But Dalits still need for a fair representation. However, social and economic inequality is still prevailing and needs a redress for long lasting peace.

The paper offers policy suggestions to reduce such inequalities. Some of the key policies include: provide decent employment opportunity to the members, especially youths, of the excluded caste and ethnic groups; (ii) invest in the agriculture where the poor and excluded work; (iii) increase workfare programmes targeting the poor and excluded; (iv) improve excluded groups' access to resources including land; (v) improve access to basic services for the poor and excluded; (vi) implement effectively the policies and provisions made for ending cultural discrimination; and more importantly (vii) ensure fair presentation and effective participation of the poor and excluded so as to govern their destiny by themselves. The fair representation and effective participation requires state transformation, however, it can be sustainable when it is followed with a transformation of society where in all the citizens respect the rights of others before claiming for theirs.

Greening Historic Core for the Mitigation of Urban Environmental Problems of the Kathmandu Valley

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Urban environmental problems have become one of the most daunting problems. Improper solid waste management, increasing traffic congestions, deteriorating urban infrastructures, noise and air pollution are perhaps the most discernable problems that are causing detrimental impact on the public health and living condition of the valley. While the entire valley is facing the problem of degrading urban environmental condition, historic cores of the valley which houses several historic and pilgrimage sites including world heritage sites, have become more vulnerable than ever given its physical and cultural setting, changing socio economic condition. This situation calls for proactive, innovative and unique measures in order to mitigate such environmental problems. There have been a lot of efforts from both government and non governmental sectors to improve and upgrade the environment of Kathmandu which did produce some good results yet most of those big-budget programs failed to reach out to the local communities and many of such programs focused only on upgrading environment without properly addressing prevailing socio cultural context of the historic core. While such big-budget program are essential, given the economic condition, cultural setting and historical importance of the city core, a cost effective, yet innovative programs will more effective which focuses on the bottom up approach and encompasses local community and direct stake holders.

Therefore the paper intends open a discourse on how we can be effective on mitigating such environmental problems of the historic core. The paper proposes some of greening methods which would help mitigate most of the environmental problems and improve overall physical as well as cultural environment of the historic core. The greening methods will include but not limited to, a) plantation in public urban spaces including big public squares to local “bahals” “chowks” and “nanis”¹, b) encourage, introduce and follow green pavement techniques on public open spaces c) revamping “saga”² by with alternative uses and d) encouraging urban agriculture techniques. There are direct and indirect benefits of these techniques. The direct benefits are more physical benefits. These techniques will help reduce *Heat Island Effect*³, will improve ground water table, improving physical and aesthetical environments, delay and reduce runoff rate and volume and prevents downstream flooding as well as reduce loads on sewage system. While indirect benefits will be more cultural and economical benefits. Improvement of physical and environmental condition and cultural settings; not only increases the property value but it will equally be beneficial for tourism development. Thus it will help improve both local as well as national economy.

¹ *Bhals*, *chowks* and *nanis* are courtyards found in historic urban core of the Kathmandu Valley.

² *Saga*-is a dump yard found in traditional settlements of the Kathmandu valley.

³ An urban area remains significantly warmer than its surrounding rural area. This phenomenon is called *Heat Island Effect*.

In the implementation part, a local community, local guthi, local clubs can be involved with the necessary financial and administrative supports from the governmental and non-governmental sectors. As most of the green development techniques are very intuitive and do not require high level of technical expertise, we can expect an effective outcome if we involve the local communities properly. Most of the communities in historic areas are still pretty homogenous, both socially and culturally and most importantly most of these urban spaces are still in use many social cultural and religious events. Therefore, developing and encouraging sense of ownership and sense of identity will also be easy which will further help in successful implementation of the program.

At present, the whole world is facing the problems of global warming and many environmental problems. Therefore, greening the historic core of the Kathmandu will also be an effort toward mitigating this global crisis. Moreover, this program will set up precedence for several other historic settlements which are facing identical problems as that of the Kathmandu valley. For the final paper, relevant journals, articles and other publications will be reviewed to develop in-depth understanding of the subject matters and details on each of planning and implementation strategies will be outlined accordingly.

Benefit Estimation of Water Quality Improvements in the Bagmati River: Choice Experiments

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In this paper we use choice experiments and estimate the benefits of improving water quality in the Bagmati River in Kathmandu. Water quality of the Bagmati has direct impact on health, environment, ecology and development of the Kathmandu valley. Only a few known studies have been conducted focusing exclusively on benefits of improvements in quality of water in the Bagmati River. We identify and use important attributes of river water quality including cost under different management scenario to estimate willingness to pay and willingness to contribute for river water quality improvements. We also calculate compensating surplus for different level of water quality improvements. Society's preference over payment and funding mechanism for the cleanup program are also identified. Benefit estimation, households' preferences on payment and funding mechanism for the cleanup program is expected to give valuable input for policy implications, especially in the context of government initiation for the long term Bagmati River management program such as Bagmati Action Plan.

Development Issues in the Indus River Basin: The Limitations of the Indus Waters Treaty (1960) and Ongoing Ecological Consequences

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The Indus River Basin is a critical watershed area with a population of over 100 million people. It includes territory in Pakistan, India, Afghanistan, and China and crosses three disputed international borders (Afghanistan-Pakistan, India-Pakistan, India-China).

Cities reliant on water from the Indus basin include Karachi, Islamabad, Lahore, Peshawar, Kabul, Simla, Srinagar, Jammu, Amritsar, and Chandigarh. The Indus Waters Treaty (1960) is a landmark in international law. The treaty was created to resolve important issues left over from the partition of South Asia following independence in 1947. The foremost goal of the treaty was conflict reduction and in this sense the treaty has proven successful. However, the treaty has important limitations which need to be addressed. The treaty has two major flaws in that only two of the four countries located in the basin are parties to the treaty and that the treaty does not address the issue of sustainable use of the water within India and Pakistan. This paper argues that it is necessary to develop a successor treaty that includes Afghanistan and China as well as India and Pakistan. A new treaty will also need to expand beyond the issue on conflict reduction and address the issue of the sustainable use of the water. The population of the basin is projected to grow substantially over the next few decades while the amount of water declines as global warming affects the snowfall patterns in the high Himalayan mountains.

An Assessment of the Potential Impacts of Dietary Norms in Food Consumption Structure and Expenditure in Nepal

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The World Health Organization's (WHO) global strategy on diet (WHO 2004) emphasizing the consumption of healthy foods in order to combat the growing burden of non-communicable diseases. The strategy is based on the available scientific evidence on the relationship of diet, nutrition, physical activity to chronic diseases (WHO 2003). After long consultation, WHO/FAO have specific dietary recommendations regarding desirable dietary consumption for a particular country. The WHO also recognizes that nutrition-related chronic diseases are increasingly occurring in the developing countries. Following the dietary recommendations of WHO is likely to involve major changes in the food habits for the population, with increased or decreased consumption depending on food, country, and population (Srinivasan et al. 2006). While health consideration is important, consumer choice can be influenced by food tastes and habits, so that, in most population groups, consumption tends to be imbalanced compared with nutritional recommendations (Conforti and D'Amicis 2000).

This paper attempts to assess the potential impacts of the adoption of nutritional norms on the consumption structure and expenditure. In other words, what would happen to food

consumption structure and expenditure if population changes from their actual food consumption pattern to one that meets nutritional recommendations as defined by WHO? An answer is provided by comparing the actual average food pattern of the Nepalese population with one obtained through Linear Programming (LP). The data source for this paper is the Nepal Living Standard Survey II (NLSS) conducted by the Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) from April 2003 to April 2004. The available data includes 3912 households across the country and 68 food items both in terms of expenditure and physical amount. Based on these data, unit values of foods was calculated and used as a proxy for the price vector. Food composition data have taken from FAO Food and Nutrition Series (1997).

The main insight provided by this paper is that the adoption of Recommended Daily Allowances (RDAs) is likely to increase expenditure on food in Nepal. About 50% increase in food consumption expenditure to meet RDAs and more than 100% increase in expenditure to meet RDAs and actual food habits could not be a reliable solution for Nepali people. The adoption of RDAs and food habits could imbalance the average food consumption patterns. The exclusion of major foods such as rice, corn, some vegetables and fruits, and inclusion of relatively inappropriate amount of milk, yogurt, and fish in the optimal solution shows inconsistency with actual food habits.

This paper shows that the consumption of food without meeting RDAs is mainly influenced by the income level rather than the nutritional criteria. This means lower level of nutrition consumption is mainly dominated by their low per capita income. Compared to the actual consumption expenditure, consumption pattern obtained from LP model to meet RDAs needs more expenditure than actual expenditure. It seems that in some community, people cannot minimize their consumption expenditure and meet RDAs by changing consumption patterns in a given price vectors. However, food expenditure minimization including RDAs and food habits constraints could be only feasible in high income societies.

Geographic Disparity in Access to Healthcare in Nepal

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Purpose: Since the 1970s, it has become increasingly clear that geography plays a significant role in determining individuals' access to needed health services. However, this work has been conducted on population served by private sectors in developed countries. The extent to which geographic disparities exists among poor population in developing countries that are constrained by economic decline and the factors that contribute to such disparities are currently unknown. We use data from a national sample of women in Nepal to quantify the magnitude and predictors of geographic disparities in use of healthcare services among these women.

Methods: We used data from the Demographic and Health Survey Nepal 2006 (DHS Nepal 2006), the national study of population and health containing information on PSU level geographic variables. We aggregated women (sample N=10,793) up to their PSU of residence, and used weights to obtain weighted mean unadjusted probabilities of health service use separately for each PSUs. We then estimated weighted logistic regression models using individual characteristics (health need and sociodemographic characteristics) and empowerment variables (education, wealth). We then added health resources and development variables. From each model we obtained the weighted mean adjusted probabilities of health service use. We used these probabilities to construct a GIS map to graphically represent changes in, and the statistical significance of, probability of service use conditional upon women characteristics, and availability of health resources.

Results: Controlling for need and other covariates, women in our sample displayed statistically significant variation in probabilities of access to health services, ranging between 0.14 (in PSU 4301) and 0.76 (in PSU 2403). Controlling for health resources and development variables exacerbated the range of differences between women residing in different PSUs.

Implications: Women in Nepal display over 5-fold variations in probabilities of access to health services. Such variation can be explained neither by health need, nor by individual characteristics. Attention to the intrinsic development practice and healthcare policies is necessary to determine if these variations are reflective of variations in quality of care available to these women.

Preparing Communities for Disaster Management: Myths and Challenges

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The Himalayan state of Nepal is at high risk of natural disasters. People's vulnerability to disasters like flood, landslides, flash floods and snow avalanches acquire alarming proportions due to chronic poverty, involuntary migration, and unplanned settlements. Attention of Nation State and International Non Government Organizations (INGOs) has been diverted towards planning for disaster prevention and preparing local communities in developing the capacities.

This paper is derived from an empirical study carried out in the year 2007 to assess the programs aiming to strengthen community resilience to disasters in three districts of Nepal viz. Rupandehi, Makwanpur and Sarlahi. The overall objective of the evaluation was to reflect on the role of INGOs and their accountability, to document the learning for future initiatives, to use the findings in promoting good practices in Disaster Risk

Reduction (DRR), and finally to assess the value of these initiatives in formulating a long term strategy of integrating DRR in national development.

The data was collected through Participatory Ethnographic Method (PEM) where the ethnographic insights were validated through people's participation in the interpretation of social-economic and political data.

The paper underlines some of the challenges emerging from the grassroots such as conceptualizing the notion of 'community,' sustaining people's committees, integrating indigenous people, gender concerns, resource sharing, mobilizing the youth, locating the indigenous knowledge, issues of communication, replicability and scaling up of programs. Comparative issues of citizenship, civil rights and governance have been discussed along contested structural and cultural terrains. Through anthropological insights, the study suggests for further inputs into policies concerning development experiences in Nepal.

The Impact of Microfinance and Remittances on the Lives of Nepali People

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The income from microfinance and remittances helps poor people address their basic needs. This research focuses on how microfinance and remittances are affecting the lives of Nepali people. Some specific questions for this research are: 1) How do people use income generated by migration and microfinance for their livelihood? 2) Are they using money mainly for consumption or investing it to generate more money? 3) What are some characteristics of those who use money for consumption and production sector? 4) What is the proportion of such people? 5) What factors help them to make decisions about spending on consumption and production?

This quantitative research is based on data derived from Nepal Living Standard Survey 2003/04. The survey was conducted by Central Bureau of Statistics, Nepal and supported by the World Bank and DFID (UK Department for International Development). The NLSS survey has followed the World Bank's Living Standards Measurement Survey (LSMS) methodology, which the World Bank previously applied in more than 50 development countries.

This is on-going research. This research will find out important information about the consumption and investment behavior of people. It will also find out factors behind making such decisions and background information about people who consumed most and who invest most. The decision making information of people is closely tied with current microfinance/remittance policy and the situation of the country. Such information is relevant for sustainability of the microfinance and remittance sector. The research will

come up with conclusions and recommendations which will be helpful to microfinance and remittance policy.

Remittance to Nepal from Foreign Employment: Changes and Implications

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Foreign employment has increasingly been a major source of income for households in Nepal with important implications for the development and socioeconomic structure of the country. The facts that gross national product grew and poverty declined in the country during the 1990s and early 2000s, for example, have been attributed to soaring remittance from foreign employment. Given that certain groups are more likely than others to go abroad for employment, it also has an impact on how resources are distributed and how various socioeconomic and demographic groups relate with each other.

Using data from the 1995/96 and 2003/2004 waves of the Nepal Living Standard Survey (NLSS), this paper examines how large a role remittance is playing in the household economy nationwide, how different socioeconomic and demographic groups have benefitted from it, and how it is changing over time. The analysis will be both horizontal across groups and temporal over time. Since remittance constitutes one of the various sources of income for households, appropriate reference and comparison will be made to the overall income level of households. Findings will be valuable for researchers and policymakers to systematically understand the extensiveness of this increasingly important issue at a macro scale and apply it to analyze and devise policies affecting the economic, political, and social structure of society. While the analysis will not capture more recent changes marking further acceleration in foreign employment, the findings will be contextualized to draw more specific policy implications for the present day political economy of Nepal.

Towards a South Asian Common Currency: Evidence from Macroeconomic Shocks

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My paper empirically assesses suitability of the South Asian common currency by testing for symmetry of underlying shocks, following Mundell's (1961) seminal work-- a key precondition for the formation of a successful monetary union is that member countries faces similar types of shocks for coordinated macroeconomic policy response, and hence paving the way for a currency union. I apply structural vector auto regression (SVAR) approach to determine the nature of shocks affecting the South Asian nations and find out

whether the SAARC forms an optimal currency area (OCA). Through this econometric methodology, two series of exogenous shocks namely demand and supply shocks, for each country are obtained, and the pair-wise correlation matrix of the demand and supply shocks is computed. Apart from obtaining important information about the symmetry and asymmetry of shocks, the paper compares the response of the economies to the shocks in terms of magnitude and speed of adjustment. This is important because having huge symmetric shocks and slow adjustment process affects relative international competitiveness among countries as they cannot use exchange rate as a tool to correct disequilibrium in the balance of payment. The paper examines the size and speed of adjustment through the impulse response function (IRF).

The results obtained through SVAR models suggest that the SAARC is not an OCA as macroeconomic shocks are quite heterogeneous. The correlation results show that the contemporaneous shocks are not perfectly and strongly symmetric among the countries. An immediate enforcement of a monetary union in the SAARC would cause a huge cost to the member countries as their economies have to undergo a costly adjustment process amid asymmetric shocks to bring their respective balance of payments (BOPs) into equilibrium. In particular, an immediate adoption of single currency can be ruled out. The paper argues that the SAARC countries should enhance economic integration, further liberalize trade so that patterns of shocks would turn to be symmetric overtime.

Indo-Nepal Open International Border: Challenges and Management

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The Indo-Nepal international border is the only one in the Indian subcontinent which facilitates mutual friendship between the two nations as well as the two societies across. Both social relations and political linkages with mutual commitments of support and sustainability exist across the border. Mutual dependence of the two societies is equally acknowledgeable. A similar scene of emotions and cordial feelings is observed among the borderers from Pithoragarh in Uttarakhand to Naxalbari, Pashupati market in West Bengal and even further northward at Dentam in Sikkim. Besides national feelings, people prefer regional affiliations and support each other on that basis. The mountainous people of India or Nepal affiliate and support their cross border counterparts. Same is the scene in the hilly areas. However spatial disparities in development among the different geographical regions have lead to diversity in demography, lifestyle, occupational structure and economic development. Spatial disparities are also prominent from west to east in all the three ecological zones in both India and Nepal.

The narrations in this paper are based on a personal survey of the border area, which was organised to find out **the relevance of this open international border along with strategic development for its better / effective management**. Almost 900 respondents were interviewed for this purpose. A part of this work, which is in context of the eastern and western sectors of the border i.e. West Bengal & Sikkim and Pithoragarh zones, is

discussed in this paper. These two areas were repeatedly observed in the years 2006 & 2007. Besides the interviews, personal observations as well as discussions with locals / people who cross the border for their individual needs or as retail customer, businessmen, labours, academicians / researchers, servicemen, facilitators like transporters, hoteliers etc., security personnel and customs & excise people were equally emphasized to strengthen / support / verify the responses further.

A huge number of people cross the border daily, weekly and seasonally. The cross border movement in these areas is enough to prove the importance of this open border. The border may be called as the **Life Line** for the people, living in remote / rural / acute accessible areas. Efforts to record the magnitude of the movement across the border were made during the survey. The number and causes of cross border movement at few of the points are summarized below in Table 1 – 3 A & B.

Table - 1
Cross Border Movement Along Indo-Nepal Border:

Sample study of Naxalbari /Kakerbhitta & Sukhia Pokhari/ Pashupati Nagar, 2006-07

Duration	Daily	Weekly	Seasonal	Long Periodic	
Origin from	Average Movement through Naxalbari (Kakerbhitta) point ('000 people)				
	Nepal	1.9 – 2.65	4.0 - 5.5	100 - 150	10 - 11
	India	1.2 - 1.35	2.5 – 3.2	28 - 30	9- 10
	Average Movement through Sukhia Pokhari (Pashupati Nagar) point ('000 people)				
	Nepal	0.8 – 1.2	3 - 4	32 - 35	7- 8
	India	0.75 – 0.8	2 - 3	8 - 9	3 - 4

Source: Based on the Survey, 2006 & 2007

Table - 2
Cross Border Movement Along Indo-Nepal Border:

Sample study of Uttarakhand (India)- Pithoragarh and Udham Singh Nagar, 2007

Duration	Daily	Weekly	Seasonal	Long Periodic	
Origin from	Average Movement in Hills (Dharchula) along the border ('000)				
	Nepal	1 - 1.1	3.2 - 3.5	50 - 60	10 - 12
	India	0.4 - 0.5	1.3 – 1.5	25 - 30	2.5- 4

Average Movement in Tarai (Banbasa Point) along the border ('000)				
Nepal	4.3 - 5	7.5 - 8	125 - 150	15-20
India	1.8 - 2.5	3.3 - 4	50 - 75	6.5 - 10

Source: Based on the Survey, 2007

Table – 3 (A) & (B)
Reasons for Cross Border Movement in Uttarakhand Sector (Western sector of the Border)

(A) Cross Border Movement in Uttarakhand Sector : Daily Movement (Percentage of the people crossing the border)				
Cause	Mountains and Hills		Tarai	
	India	Nepal	India	Nepal
Domestic	4	19	6	17
Daily needs	3	18	9	8
Education	0	7	0	9
Health Facili	0	4	0	5
Commercial	16	9	13	10
Labour	19	25	17	31
Social	26	6	21	5
Tourism & Religious	17	1	23	6
Others	15	11	11	9

Source: Based on the Survey, 2007

(B) Cross Border Movement in Uttarakhand Sector : Seasonal Movement (Percentage of the people crossing the border)				
Cause	Mountains and Hills		Tarai	
	India	Nepal	India	Nepal
Agro labour	0	39	6	37
Indus. labour	7	4	32	15
Other labour	33	28	27	23
Petty business	16	1	12	0
Tourism & Religious	26	2	17	11
Others	18	6	6	14

Source: Based on the Survey, 2007

It is not necessary that the people, who are coming across the border, either from India or Nepal, belong to the same country. There may be Indians coming from Nepal or vice versa. However the aforesaid number of the people, crossing the border, shows the intensity of importance / utility of the open border. There are 22 entry/ exit points along the border. Besides the above four entry points (discussed in the tables) five more points – Raxaul, Saunoli, Nepalganj, and Jhulaaghat were also visited and it was noticed that a sufficient number of people avail the facility of open border for their personal and commercial purposes. So far as the role of the border is concerned, it is contributing to social as well as economic development of the areas and the countries.

Besides, the misuse of the border is equally being practiced at large scale. Misuse by the people, engaged in illegal business and smuggling etc. is a common practice even through the notified entry / exit posts which prove the inefficiency of the security efforts. It is also noticed that mostly these activities are flourishing with the consent of the security and custom personnel. Involvement of these people is a serious barrier on the way to effective border management. Sometimes an innocent person is badly harassed by these people in the name of customs and security checking whereas the frequent visitors, who are identified illegal business makers, are fully ignored. This has been observed at both sides of the border, especially at Raxaul, Gaurifenta, Bhairhawa (Siddharth Nagar), Kakerbhitta and the other posts, adjoining to Bihar and UP. These activities are not much more noticed in the higher altitudes, both in Uttarakhand and Sikkim. However if these activities are taking place in these two states (Uttarakhand and Sikkim) then certainly the magnitude is relatively such low that it is neither seriously noted and quoted by the respondents nor could personally be observed during the survey. The growing market of foreign goods along the border on either side is enough to indicate the roots of the cross border illegal business. **Women and child trafficking, the other important illegal trade from Nepal to India, is also flourishing just because of this open border. This trade is a joint effort of the Nepalese and Indian racketeers.** This is a serious problem, being faced by Nepal. Despite sincere efforts at government and non government levels the situation is still worst. Lot of funds from national and international agencies are made available to generate public awareness but either the agencies are not much effective or their style of working is not proper and therefore situation is more crucial than earlier. Silent consent as well as negligence of the security forces and local police is equally responsible to aggravate this problem. The border is equally safe for the criminals, who commit crimes here or there and escape across the border for shelter. Reports in print media in this regard are enough to say such misuse of this border.

Besides these adverse impacts, **there is one more problem that fair people can't move smoothly / easily across the border.** People feel humiliation because of the ill behaviour and unnecessary intervention by the border security personnel, local police, customs & excise etc. The unnecessary checks, just for nothing, hurdles smooth and easy movement and decelerate tourism between India and Nepal. Somehow this seems to be the failure of the existing border security mechanism.

The border is neither fenced nor guarded throughout the remaining length (excluding the above notified entrance / exit). Therefore the probability of misuse of border is apparently more than its positive use for the two societies.

The fair movers (includes those people crossing the border for personal purpose like religious, tourism, purchasing of daily/ domestic items, goods carrying vehicles etc.) use legal entrances whereas the unfair movers (people engaged in supply of foreign goods, smuggling, women and child traffickers, illegal migrants, terrorists & militants etc.) use both legal as well as illegal entrance routes. This border is porous to its entire length and therefore it may be crossed from anywhere. Cross border crimes, smuggling, women & child trafficking, illegal supply of foreign goods etc. are fearlessly flourishing whereas the fair movers are so badly scanned and kept under eye watch as they are criminals. This partial attitude of the security and customs' personnel is decelerating the magnitude of tourists and religious movement between India and Nepal. The unguarded length of the border may easily be misused by terrorists and illegal business makers. The problem of Naxalides and Maoism is also highly intense because of the cross border assistance between the groups in India and Nepal.

The challenges, to be addressed in order to improve and strengthen effective border management are listed as follows-

1. Ensure easy cross border movement for both people in order to support their existence and meet out personal needs at low cost, without harm to national security of either country.
2. Security strategy of the border by both India and Nepal, including guarding the remote and countryside length / parts of the border.
3. Customs and Excise strategy.
4. Prohibit illegal trade.
5. Control / prohibit women and girl trafficking.
6. Prohibit misuse of the border by anti- national activists, terrorists, international mafias etc.

Briefly the challenges which are responsible to the ineffective border management are as follows-

- 1. Corruption**
- 2. Negligence**
- 3. Inefficiency**
- 4. Ignorance**
- 5. Lack of resources**

Outcomes of the survey, summary and recommendations are mentioned in details in the full paper.

Nepali Indigenous Movements: Recommendations to create a 'fully democratic' Nepal

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The discriminatory governmental practices and social exclusion experienced by the indigenous nationalities are examined in the paper. This paper highlights the major concerns of indigenous nationalities along with the general perception of the indigenous movement based on the questionnaires and focus groups conducted as a part of a research conducted in Kathmandu, Nepal in the summer of 2008. Recommendations are presented for public policy to heed indigenous concerns and issues to create a 'fully democratic' Nepal. The findings of the research reveal that the position of indigenous leaders may not always be supported by the people they represent.

Civilian Conflict and Internal Displacement, Dimensions of Forced Migration in Nepal

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This research investigates circumstances that force people to decide to abandon their homes during civilian conflicts. Every year, millions of people leave their homes and become either refugees or internally displaced persons (IDPs) as a result of conflict. At the same time, millions of others chose to stay put and risk their lives. Existing literature on international politics tends to conclude that displacement is an obvious consequence of conflict and focuses exclusively on explaining the causes of conflict at the macro level. However, little is known at the individual level about why some people choose to stay while others choose to leave. My research is motivated by this puzzle. Specifically, I ask why some people, even when faced with extreme violence, stay put and risk their lives while others flee?

Prior research on forced migration concludes that people make a choice either to leave or stay even under highly adverse circumstances. Although convincing, this view, based on aggregate cross-national analysis, stops at pointing out that such choices are available. The present study goes beyond the existing literature on forced migration to investigate individual level choices. Which factors determine individuals' decisions to leave or stay put? I employ primary data, collected during the summer and fall of 2008 at the individual level in Nepal, to explore these questions. Evidence suggests that factors beyond the presence of conflict distinguish who flees and who stays put. This article explores various facets of those differences.

Nuclearization of the Kashmir Conflict

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The role played by the nation-states of India and Pakistan in the former princely state of Jammu and Kashmir echoes the animosity created during the Partition of 1947. The political and social upheaval that followed upon the creation of the two nation-states in 1947 has left legacies that continue to haunt the two countries. The Partition enabled the thunderous forces of violence and displacement to tear the preexisting cultural and social fabric so systematically that the process of repair hasn't even begun. I would argue that although the "Third-World" intelligentsia unceasingly complains about the manipulations and short-sightedness of British imperial cartographers and administrators, the onus of the calamity engendered on 14 and 15 August 1947 does not lie entirely on the colonial power. The failed negotiations between Indian and Pakistani nationalists who belonged to the Congress and the Muslim League, the blustering of those nationalists and the national jingoism it stimulated, and the unquenchable hatreds on both sides contributed to the brutal events of 1947. In the words of historian Uma Kaura, "the mistakes made by the Congress leadership, the frustration and bitterness of the League leadership, and the defensive diplomacy of a British Viceroy cumulatively resulted in the demand for Partition." The borders that were brutally carved by the authorities at the time of Partition have led to further brutality in the form of those riots, organized historical distortions, and cultural depletions with which the histories of independent India and Pakistan are replete. One of the legacies of the Partition is the Kashmir conflict, which is now a nuclear flashpoint. For India, Kashmir lends credibility to its secular nationalist image. For Pakistan, Kashmir represents the unfeasibility of secular nationalism and underscores the need for an Islamic theocracy in the subcontinent. In January 1948, India referred the Kashmir dispute to the United Nations. Subsequent to the declaration of the cease-fire between India and Pakistan on January 1, 1949, the state of Jammu and Kashmir was divided into two portions. The part of the state comprising the Punjabi speaking areas of Poonch, Mirpur, and Muzaffarabad, along with Gilgit and Baltistan was incorporated into Pakistan, where-as the portion of the state comprising the Kashmir Valley, Ladakh, and the large Jammu region was politically assimilated into India. Currently, a large part of Jammu and Kashmir is administered by India and a portion is administered by Pakistan. China also annexed a section of the land in 1962, through which it has built a road that links Tibet to Xiajiang. Although, separatist movements have been surfacing and resurfacing in J & K and parts of Pakistani administered Kashmir since the accession of the state to India in 1947, the attempt to create a unitary cultural identity bolstered by nationalist politics has been subverted by regional political forces, backed-up by the governments of India and Pakistan. The culturally, linguistically, and religiously diverse population of Indian and Pakistani administered Jammu and Kashmir has been unable to reach a consensus on the future of the land and the heterogeneous peoples of the state. The notion that social tensions and weaknesses can be redressed by an essential Islamic or Hindu culture ends up fortifying religious fundamentalism in communities. The strategic location of Indian-administered Jammu and Kashmir (J & K) underscores its importance for both India and Pakistan.

The state of J & K borders on China and Afghanistan. Out of a total land area of 2,22,236 square kilometers, 78,114 are under Pakistani administration, 5,180 square kilometers were handed over to China by Pakistan, 37,555 square kilometers are under Chinese administration in Leh district, and the remaining area is under Indian administration

(*Census of India, 1981*: 156). In order to make their borders impregnable, it was essential for both India and Pakistan to control the state politically and militarily.

Although Pakistan distinctly expresses its recognition of the status of J & K as disputed territory, it dithers from doing so in areas of the state under Pakistani control. Pakistan arbitrarily maintains its de facto government in Azad Kashmir.

South Asia affairs analyst Victoria Schofield (2001) astutely observes: ‘There is no question . . . of Pakistan ever agreeing to relinquish control of the area, either to form part of an independent state of Jammu and Kashmir or as an independent state in its own right.’ Therefore, advocating self-determination for the entire former princely state of Jammu and Kashmir would irreparably damage Pakistan’s political and military interests. In the age of globalization, India’s policy vis-à-vis Kashmir has been influenced by various variables. Pakistan’s formal political alignment with the United States of America motivated the Soviet Union, in the 1950s, to overtly support the Indian stance towards Kashmir.

The explicit political support of the Soviet Union in the Cold War era bolstered Jawaharlal Nehru’s courage, and, in 1956, Nehru reneged on his earlier ‘international commitments’ on the floor of the Indian parliament. He proclaimed the legitimacy of the accession of Kashmir to India in 1947, which ostensibly had been ratified by the Constituent Assembly of J & K in 1954. Nehru’s well thought-out strategy was deployed in full measure when the Soviet Union vetoed the demand for a plebiscite in Kashmir made at a meeting of the UN Security Council convened at Pakistan’s behest. It was in 1953 that Pakistan initiated negotiations with the USA for military assistance. Subsequent to the disintegration of the Soviet Union, India lost its powerful ally (Kodikara 1993). India’s relations with the US reeked of distrust and paranoia at the time. This worsened when senior officials in the first Clinton administration questioned the legality of the status of Kashmir as a part of the Indian Union (Battye 1993). The nonproliferation agenda of the US in South Asia actively undermined India’s proliferation strategy in the early and mid-1990s (Perkovich 1999: 318-403). Washington’s agenda was propelled by the fear that South Asia had burgeoning potential for a nuclear war in the future. Pakistan’s overt policy of abetting fanatical elements in Kashmir and Afghanistan led to its political insularity and seemingly legitimized India’s proactive approach.

The US adopted the policy of persuading both India and Pakistan to actively participate in the nonproliferation regime by agreeing to comply with the Comprehensive Test Ban Treaty (CTBT) and to an interim cap on fissile-material production (‘Interview with Strobe Talbott’, *The Hindu*, 14 January 2000).

The insurgency in J & K, which has extracted an enormous price from the people of the state, was generated by the systemic erosion of democratic and human rights, discrimination against the Muslims of the Valley, socioeconomic marginalization, relegation of the right to self-determination to the background, etc. While the rebellion may have been incited by India’s political, social, and economic tactlessness, it has been

sustained by military, political, and economic support from Pakistan. Proponents of the independence of the state of J & K are just as stridently opposed to Pakistan's administration of Azad Kashmir as they are to India's administration of J & K. During the ongoing insurgency, the Indian military has been granted *carte blanche* without an iota of accountability.

Custodial disappearances and deaths continue to occur, and official orders regarding the protection of detainees are brazenly rubbished. The introduction of other severe laws by the Government of India has made it further non-obligatory to provide any measure of accountability in the military and political proceedings in the state. Despite these highly discriminatory and unpopular measures, the support enjoyed by some of the militant organizations in the early 1990s abated by the mid-90s. Pakistan has won the disapprobation of international powers by adopting the policy of fighting proxy wars through radical Islamist groups, which has reinforced New Delhi's confidence that the internationalization of the Kashmir dispute would not get unwieldy. India also believes that the restraint it exercised during the 1998 nuclear tests has given it the reputation of a responsible nuclear power.

Despite international pressure, the India–Pakistan crisis has not been defused; on the contrary, it is highly volatile. Given their interests in South Asia, Russia and China have expressed their concern about the brinkmanship between the two countries. In order to facilitate a rapprochement, President Vladimir Putin of Russia offered to play the role of mediator between Indian Prime Minister Vajpayee and Pakistani President Musharraf at the scheduled regional summit conference in Almaty, Kazakhstan. Both Putin and the Chinese President, Jiang Zemin, held talks with Vajpayee and Musharraf in order to create a space for political negotiations. But the two heads of state continued to remain aloof and uncompromisingly condemned each other's belligerence. The one positive outcome of the summit talks, however, was the proposal of the Indian government for joint patrolling of the Line of Control (LOC) by Indian and Pakistani forces. But the Pakistani government was quick to reject this proposal and expressed the requirement for building a third-party force instead. Subsequently, the lethal and hitherto readily adopted practice of manoeuvring a dangerous situation to the limits of tolerance mellowed, due to Vajpayee's and Musharraf's judicious approach to nuclear warfare. But the simmering grievances between India and Pakistan, and the distress of the Kashmiri people remained unredressed.

The Pakistani military reinforced western concerns regarding nuclear proliferation in South Asia. In reaction to Pakistan's aggressive transgression of the LOC India exercised political tact and restraint, winning international support for its diplomacy. Washington's political volte face became apparent when it explicitly demanded that Islamabad withdraw from occupied Indian positions and maintain the legitimacy of the LOC in Kashmir. It was implicit in this demand that it saw Pakistan as the egregious aggressor.

The attempt by the US to mitigate Pakistan's aggression also implied that it would not reinforce the status quo in Kashmir (Kampani 2005: 171). Washington's incrimination of Pakistani aggression mitigated New Delhi's fear that internationalization of the Kashmir

dispute would spell unambiguous victory for Pakistan. India's strategy of diplomacy and restraint increased the international pressure on Pakistan to withdraw its forces from Indian Territory. India took recourse to limited conventional war under nuclear conditions, prior to President Clinton's March 2000 visit to New Delhi.

This issue further receded to the background during the Bush administration. The neo-conservatives in that administration zeroed in on India as a country in the Asia-Pacific region that would offset China's burgeoning economy ('US-South Asia Relations under Bush' 2001). US strategic ties with New Delhi were further consolidated in the wake of 11 September 2001, when the links between militant Islamic groups and Pakistan's military and militia forces were underscored.

As one of the consequences of the decision of the Bush administration to eliminate Al-Qaeda and its supporters in Afghanistan, Pakistan's General Pervez Musharaff found himself with no option but to sever ties with the Taliban. Following this drastically changed policy decision to withdraw political and military support from the Al-Qaeda and the Taliban, Islamabad found itself unable to draw a clear line of distinction between 'terrorists' in Afghanistan and 'freedom fighters' in Kashmir. Islamabad's quandary proved New Delhi's trump card (Chaudhuri 2001). New Delhi was able to justify its military stance vis-à-vis Pakistan in the wake of the terrorist attacks on the J & K State Assembly in the summer capital, Srinagar, in October 2001, and then the attacks on the Indian Parliament, New Delhi, a month later, in November.

New Delhi's strategy was validated by US military operations in Afghanistan, and the deployment of US forces in and around Pakistan to restrain Pakistani aggression. India was assured by the US that it would stall any attempt by Pakistan to extend the Kashmir dispute beyond local borders, which might disrupt its operations against the Al-Qaeda and the Taliban. Also, deployment of the US military in Pakistani air bases strengthened New Delhi's confidence that Islamabad would hesitate to initiate nuclear weapons use (Kampani 2002). The result of India's policy of coercive diplomacy was that the Musharraf regime was pressured by the US to take strict military action against the mercenary and militant Islamic groups bolstering the insurgency in Kashmir. New Delhi was successful in getting Islamabad to both privately and publicly renounce its support to insurgents in J & K.

The Indian administration decided that in the event deterrence measures failed, the Indian army would have to fight a limited conventional war under nuclear conditions. The possibility of fighting a war has driven the Indian government to contemplate a nuclear response to Pakistan's deployment of nuclear weapons (see Chengappa 2000). But Indian leaders have threatened Islamabad with punitive measures if Pakistan resorts to nuclear-weapons use (Tellis 2001: 251-475). India and Pakistan routinely brandish their nuclear capabilities to intimidate each other. The two countries have also resorted to direct nuclear signalling through ballistic-missile tests. Such strategies emphasize the military and political volatility in South Asia. Pakistan's nuclear arsenal has given its military the prowess it requires to exploit the disgruntlement of the Muslim population of the Kashmir Valley.

India's cautious stance is however dictated by multiple factors. Its primary concern is that a limited war will not enable it to accomplish substantive political or military objectives; that such a war might spin out of control and would be impossible to cease according to the wishes of the administration and the military; that India might find itself in disfavour with and spurned by the international community, and that a war might beef up nuclear armament. The impending menace of precipitative nuclearization has been one of the many factors underlining the necessity to maintain a quasi-stable regime in the South Asian region (Kampani 2005: 177).

Pakistan's explicit aiding and abetting of insurgents in Kashmir has created misgiving about its strategies, and enabled India to prevent UN mediation. New Delhi managed to diminish the threat of internationalization of the Kashmir dispute in 2001–02 by threatening a nuclear exchange unless the US intervened to prevent Pakistan from fomenting cross-border terrorism (ibid.: 178). The insurgency in Kashmir, India and Pakistan's ideological differences and their political intransigence could result in the eruption of a future crisis. The atmosphere of paranoia and mistrust is exacerbated by the frightening attempts of Hindu fundamentalist groups to rewrite Indian history and the recasting of Pakistani history by Islamist organizations: efforts to radically redefine Indian and Pakistani societies in the light of ritualistic Hinduism and Islam, respectively.

In the wake of Benazir Bhutto's assassination in December 2007, the politically chaotic climate of Pakistan, the belligerence of the military, and the tenacious control of fundamentalist forces basking in the glories of a misplaced religious fervour, can India and Pakistan produce visionary leaders capable of looking beyond the expediency of warfare, conventional or otherwise? Preparing to lead the new coalition government in Pakistan, co-chairperson of the Pakistan People's Party and Benazir's widower, Asif Ali Zardari, condemned the distrustful atmosphere created in the Indian subcontinent by the Kashmir imbroglio. While underwriting the importance of fostering amicable relations between the two countries, Zardari said that the Kashmir conflict could be placed in a state of temporary suspension, for future generations to resolve. In the age of globalization, will the besieged populace of the state of Jammu and Kashmir remain beholden to a leadership that doles out crumbs to them while dividing the spoils amongst themselves?

Son Preference and Gender Bias: Emerging Skewed Demographic Trend in Uttarakhand Himalaya, India

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Our field studies during last one decade in Uttarakhand Himalayas have observed that on-going transition from subsistence to cash economy is contributing to a marginalization of

female labour . Today, in those communities where farming is losing its importance and is substituted by incomes from salaried employment of men, there the sex ratio has gone negative. In those remote parts of the state where new opportunities for salaried employment are few and far between, and male migration is low, there the sex- ratio is invariably balanced. In another international study, it has been observed that those areas in hill districts have positive child- sex ratio which has a high proportion of joint families, 'traditional' lifestyle together with continued dependence on agricultural production based on joint male and female labour, both for subsistence and for the market as well. However, this study failed to note the fact that balanced sex ratio remains intact in those communities where historically tradition of son preference was absent and folk customs like bride price, polyandry, remarriage and divorce of women were traditional customs, all these customs are not preferred social mores in traditional Caste Hindu society.

Our study also observes that new economic trends like increasing remittances of money seems to have inflated demands for dowry, resulting in very high costs for marrying off daughters, that the lower survival rate of female child is associated to deep seated cultural biases against female sex particularly for second daughter. Improved education has improved awareness of sex- selective birthing through new technology along with the adoption of small family norms, giving impetus to son preference to the extent that it has become cause for concern for skewed sex ratio in Himalayan region which otherwise were known for balanced sex- ratio. With the growth and spread of new economy, female education, sex determination technology, increased availability of cash and mobility has given wider social tolerance to the newly emerging trend of missing girl child.

IMPACTS OF INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY ON PROSTITUTION (a scenario of conservative societies)

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Introduction: Information Technology (Internet / World Wide Web) is a blessing for some and adds quality to life of many but on the other hand it has a darker side too which is often not revealed and the shimmering facade of this technology hides the grizzlier side. Today the internet has become a part of our lives, changing lives in a lot of ways. The users of internet belong to almost every age group in developed/developing countries, going online almost every day, and the web is used extensively for school, work, socializing/meeting new people, e-commerce, health-care, tourism, business etc.

Unfortunately, with all the blessings it has a darker side too. The Internet web has become a venue for facilitating high-risk sexual behavior; in particular, to seek out sex partners and has been shown to be associated with high-risk sexual behaviors, such as an increase in number of sexual partners and an increase in unconventional sexual methods (such as anal sex, bonded sex, animal sex etc) which can increase the risk of contracting and transmitting sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) including HIV and AIDS.

Research Problem: The impact of IT on the changing sexual behaviors is gaining momentum. The Internet is becoming an important platform for meeting sex partners and planning participation in risky sexual behavior. The problem is widespread, the popularity of bars, sex clubs, bathhouses suggesting that the Internet is contributing to an overall increase in sexual activity among population. Increasing evidence also confirms that youth, women, transgender individuals, and couples seeking couples use the Internet for connecting with sex partners.

Research Objectives:

- 1) To explore/evaluate the impact of internet/ World Wide Web in contributing to prostitution.
- 2) To find out the impact of the same on conservative societies such as Pakistan.
- 3) To explore how internet has become an aid in “flourishing prostitution” in Pakistan.

Methodology: Using Qualitative Sociological analysis, I will provide intellectual coherence to my methodology. Conducting an extensive research study using internet / World Wide Web, electronic material and data as a tool and source, and then published material to familiarize myself with the issue.

Besides Internet / World Wide Web, My other sources of information and research study will include primary sources with people who use technology to further their ‘wares.’ My emphasis will be to find out how they use this tool as an aid directly or indirectly.
