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Aims and Scope

APF Command and Staff College is established to enhance the professionalism of mid-level officers of Armed Police Force Nepal. Journal of APF Command and Staff College (JAPFSC) is an annual peer-reviewed journal launched by APF Command and Staff College, Kathmandu, Nepal since 2018. Journal is one of the most-important sources of producing and disseminating the knowledge to the related subjects. In order to be scientific, knowledge must be (1) systematic, (2) methodical, (3) general, and (4) critical. The journal will be an impetus for carrying recent theoretical, conceptual, methodological and new paradigms of security, development, and peace studies. The journal welcomes original, academic and research from multi- and interdisciplinary perspectives. Professors, academics, researchers, policy makers and students may see learning opportunity and will highly benefited from the research based articles included in the journal.

Call for Paper

Every year there will be announcement of **Call for Paper** and the last date of paper submission will be by the end of September of the following year. After receiving the evaluation report, it will be sent to the author for its revision. Finally the author will submit his/her paper to the research committee. The Editor- in- Chief has right to accept or reject the articles for publication. The author has to acknowledge to the organization or institution if the research has been financially supported by them. The authors receive three copies of the issue in which their article appears. The audiences are suggested to go through www.nepjol.info for reading the papers published in this journal.

It aims to identify the areas of research which are as follows: national and regional security, national integration, national and international law, peace, development, planning, foreign policy, ecology, environment and climate change along with global commons (but not limited to :).

The research article should have more than 5,000 words; 3,000 words for book review and research notes; and 300 words for abstract including five keywords. The research work should be based on global research methodology. After receiving the research papers, it will be first consulted by the editor-in-chief and then it will be sent to the expert(s) for evaluating the paper. The last date of paper submission will be by the end of September of the following year. The authors will not be charged any fee for publishing their articles. Views expressed in the articles are purely personal and the academic opinion of the authors and are not necessarily endorsed by APF Command and Staff College and Editorial Board. The editorial board reserves right to edit, moderate or reject the article submitted.

Editorial

The Editorial Board is pleased to publish and disseminate the “*Journal of APF Command and Staff College*”, Volume 4, Issue 1, 2021. We believe that the contributions by the authors in this issue reflect conceptual, theoretical and empirical research works in their respective fields. The researches have been confined to ethos of security, development and peace spectrum. It encompasses articles from scholars, researchers and practitioners aligning it with contemporary issues and security related dynamics of modern era. Professors, academics, researchers, policy makers and students may seize learning opportunity and will highly be benefited from the articles included in the journal. The editorial board reserves the right to edit, moderate or reject the article submitted.

The articles included in this journal are mostly research based. Views expressed in the articles are purely personal and academic opinion of the authors and are not necessarily endorsed by APF Command and Staff College and the Editorial Board. We would like to express sincere thanks to all the contributors for their respective inputs.

The Editorial Board

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MESSAGE

Inspector General of Armed Police Force, Nepal

I am extremely delighted to know that APF Command and Staff College is publishing its pioneer *Journal of APF Command and Staff College* (Volume 4, Issue 1, 2021) on the auspicious occasion of graduation ceremony of 5th APF Command and Staff Course.

Establishment of APF Command and Staff College is a milestone to develop the career of the mid-level officers to meet the challenges of global commons. In addition, the college has been providing a platform to examine the wider spectrum of security management, human security challenges, terrorism, leadership issues, disaster management, border management and non-traditional security paradigms of 21st century. The efforts to publish academic journal reflect its endeavor to produce the professional officers for future leadership. This effort will definitely pave a way to establish the college as a center of excellence for professional courses.

Understanding the different dimensions of peace, security and development along with strategic thoughts is essential to achieve the organizational goals. Leadership quality, managerial skill and empirical knowledge are the major criteria to be a competent and successful leader that can only be enhanced through the high level of professional courses. I believe that the academic knowledge and the professional skills acquired by the student officers of APF Command and Staff College will definitely help to achieve the national motto of “Prosperous Nepal and Happy Nepali”.

The Journal publication is a challenging task for which a team work squint essential. The college has realized that the academic journal plays an important role for disseminating the knowledge of various parts of nature and human beings to the students, researchers and academics. Hence, I firmly believe, the journal will become the mirror of the institution.

Finally, I would like to express my sincere thanks to the members of the Editorial Boards, anonymous reviewers, article contributors and all helping hands and hope the College will keep continue to follow the same academic activity in future, too.

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Understanding Intelligence Studies

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Abstract

Article History

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Keywords

Intelligence, human intelligence, strategic intelligence, tourism and pandemic.

This paper contributes to the understanding of varieties of concept of intelligence and its application in broad academic and non-academic fields. This paper is an attempt to show that human's intelligence is a very important construct that is constantly being used to apply skills, knowledge and ideas in the fields of social, cultural, political, religious, spiritual, crisis, war and peace environment. The study of Intelligence teaches about the ways to get knowledge to become capable and to further enable individual, groups, and institutions to solve the problems for maintaining sustainability. The term Intelligence has a wide application and is used from micro to the macro level encompassing person, group, and the system. Furthermore, this construct is widely accepted and applied in wider area of health to military intelligence and also used in understanding emotional, cultural, and spiritual intelligence. Thus, the author considers that the study of various forms of intelligence could be an important contribution for the academic as well as the applied worlds.

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Introduction

The term intelligence is originated from a Latin word that originally meant to perceive, comprehend and was linked to several general abilities of the person that will ultimately help one to survive or adjust in the environment. Thus, intelligence is not a new topic to study and also not only confined with psychological inquiry and its measurement. Even after decades of studies and variety of definitions based on theories and psychometric measurements, experts still continue to listen to the classic tale of four blind men and an elephant to understand intelligence. However, people who have seriously started to understand intelligence were not psychologists or educators as many considered them to be but actually are philosophers like Plato of ancient-Greek who 'linked people's intelligence to blocks of wax, differing in size, hardness, moistness, and purity' (Cianciolo & Stenberg, 2004).

In the very beginning, Intelligence Studies came out from psychological studies. Psychologists have developed number of theories which are unique on their own. Though this study has been highlighted by many psychologists, the present author has visited the theory of Gardner, Bandura, and Sternberg. Studies on intelligence have been expanded in diversified areas and their various related agencies are recognized by many organizations. Realizing the importance, many disciplinarians have applied the 'intelligence' studies in various academic fields. The objective of writing this paper is to highlight the importance of intelligence in the academia which will be useful in understanding intelligence and its applications in difficult times for the solution.

Interestingly, in the course of studying intelligence, some people raise the questions of whether intelligence is same as the terminologies like intelligentsia, intellectual and diligent. Intelligence has been defined in many ways as per the differences in the capacity of understanding, self-awareness, learning emotional knowledge, reasoning, planning, creativity, critical thinking, problem-solving, adapting and adjusting. Generally, it can be described as the ability to perceive or infer information, and to retain it as knowledge to be applied towards adaptive behaviors within an environmental context (Dumper, Jenkins, Lacombe, Lovett, & Perimutter, n.d.).

More recently, the Triarchic theory (1985) has been updated and renamed as the "Theory of Successful Intelligence" by Sternberg (1978, 2003). One way to seek understanding of intelligence is to simply define what it is. Intelligence is an individual's assessment of success in life by the individual's own (idiographic) standards and within the individual's sociocultural context. Success is achieved by using combinations of analytical, creative, and practical intelligence. Sternberg (1986) purports two principal classifications of definition of intelligence - the "operational" definition and the "real" definition. Operational intelligence is measurable while the Real intelligence is the one that inquires the true nature of the thing being defined. Numerous theories of intelligence has been derived on the basis of plethora of definitions of intelligence.

Anthropologist Ulf Hannerz (1992, p.140; in Trembath, 2017) pondered this in his book *Cultural Complexity: Studies in the Social Organization of Meaning*, way back in 1992, before the current climate of distrust in experts was heated. Hannerz lays out what he (and others upon the home he draws) see as the difference between the intelligentsia, who are discipline experts, and intellectuals, who are the critical thinkers who transcend disciplinary bounds. The intelligentsia solve problems within the paradigm they have been trained with. Intellectuals also aim to solve problems by processing ideas and meanings, but are more likely to draw them from multiple disciplines.

Hannerz describes the role of the intellectual in detail. According to his description, it is the business of intellectuals to carry on traffic between different levels of meaning within a culture, to translate between abstract and concrete, to make the implicit and the certain questionable, to move ideas which usually thrive on separateness, to seize on inconsistency, and to establish channels between different modes of giving meanings external shape (Hannerz, 1992, p.140; in Trembath, 2017). An intellectual is a person who engages in works by intellect including critical thinking and reading, research, writing, and human self-reflection about society...artistic or creative output, such as writing, composing, music, painting and so on (Intellectual, n.d.).

The intelligentsia is a status class of educated people engaged in the complex mental labors that critiques, guides, and leads in shaping the culture and politics of their society. As a status class, the intelligentsia includes artists, teachers and academics, writers, and the *hommes de lettres* (Raymond 1983, p. 170). The definition of diligent is hard working and done with painstaking effort. An example of diligent is worker who always stays late to get projects done on deadline (“Your Dictionary,” n.d.). For psychologists, the primary goal of the study of intelligence was to find the difference in abilities, measure it and when possible to increase it with different biological, psychological and social means. The term intelligentsia, intellectual, and diligence are linked to general and specific abilities.

Moving slightly from the die-hard psychometric notion of intelligence, Sternberg (1986) developed a triarchic theory of intelligence which comprises three types of intelligence commonly known as practical intelligence, creative intelligence, and analytical intelligence, producing transformative insights and technologies require what Sternberg (1996) calls “successful intelligence”. Creative intelligence is required to formulate ideas and solutions to problems. Analytical intelligence is required to solve problems and to evaluate the quality of ideas. And lastly, Practical intelligence is needed to apply the ideas in an effective way, says Sternberg, intelligence is the balance among these three ways of thinking. It means knowing how and when to use these aspects of successful intelligence rather than just having them (p.128; in Repko, 2012, p.39). Early research tended to view intelligence narrowly as the ability to solve problems in the academic settings, there is now increasing consensus that intelligence may be displayed in places other than the classroom (Sternberg & Detterman, 1986; in Ang et al., 2007). The interest in ‘real world’ intelligence includes intelligence that focuses on specific content domains such as social intelligence (Thorndike & Stein, 1937; in Ang et al., 2007) and practical intelligence (Sternberg et al., 2000; in Ang et al., 2007).

Studies in intelligence will be useful to the students of all disciplines. Although this area has been predominated by psychology, at present, the study of intelligence has been expanded to the new fields of security, conflict management, international relations, cross cultural studies, strategic studies, religion, business studies, tourism, information, communication and technologies. It is studied now through plural-disciplinarian perspectives that sheds more lights on its importance in not only understanding humans' ability but also collecting of information and the capacity to solve the problems and expanding from individual level from everyday life to family, culture, religion, education, safety, security, business for increasing knowledge, ability, decision making with policy and planning. The term intelligence is a kind of survival strategy of human beings. This paper highlights that the intelligence study should not be confined to only one subject because the literatures show that it has sufficient scopes in various levels and aspects of humans' behavior in relation to variety of purpose and settings. This study includes introduction, theoretical approaches, diversified areas of intelligence studies, review and methods, intelligence studies in Nepal and conclusion.

Review and methods

Aiming to offer a comprehensive reference for readers from different disciplines, this article accumulates profound knowledge of intelligence in a better way. The primary provocation of this research is an output of author's wide-ranging insights and experiences that came from various academic positions in Nepal Army and Armed Police Force. As a scholastic achievement, author completed Strategic Studies at NESAS (Near East South Asia), USA and taught at Nepalese Military Academy for 11 years, at Army Command and Staff College for 20 years and at the Department of Conflict, Peace and Development Studies, TU for 12 years.

Procedurally, this study has fallen in descriptive research design approach and followed umbrella review. Review is defined as 'to view, inspect, or examine a second time or again' (Oxford English Dictionary, 2008; in Grant & Booth, 2009, p. 92, 107). Reviewed articles can cover wide subject matter at various level of completeness and comprehensiveness based on analysis of literature that may include research findings (Grant & Booth, 2009, p.97). Review papers provide platforms for new conceptual frameworks, reveal inconsistencies in the extant body of research, diverse the results, and generally give other scholars a "state of art" snapshot of a domain often written by topic experts (Bem, 1995; in Palmatier, Houston, and Hulland, 2018). Umbrella review refers to compiling evidences from multiple reviews into one accessible usable document. It focuses on broad conditions or problems for which there are competing interventions and highlights reviews that address these interventions and their results (Grant & Booth, 2009, p.95). This research is essentially exploratory (preliminary research for clarifying the nature of the problem to be solved), and therefore, the methods employed in this study are primarily qualitative. Exploratory research can add quality and insightful information and is vital to the study. In order to get the information, the author collected the secondary sources from Google Search. Basically, research based books, journal articles and newspaper articles on intelligence studies also became the major sources in this study.

Multiple intelligence theories

Among researchers who have identified various types of intelligence, Gardner's (1993; in Vaughan, 2002) pioneering work on multiple intelligence is multifaceted. His research indicates that different kinds of intelligence develop relatively independently to each other, and proficiency in one area does not imply proficiency in the other. It is Cattell (1963) who proposed a theory of intelligence that divided general intelligence into two components: (1) crystallized intelligence; and (2) fluid intelligence. Crystallized intelligence is acquired and is the ability to retrieve it. Fluid intelligence encompasses the ability to see complex relationships and solve problems (Cattell, 1963; in Pal, Pal, & Tourani, 2004). In course of studying intelligence, Gardner (1983) developed a multiple intelligence theory under which he categorized eight different intelligences which are: linguistic intelligence, logical- mathematical intelligence, musical intelligence, bodily kinesthetic intelligence, spatial intelligence, interpersonal intelligence, intrapersonal intelligence, and naturalist intelligence.

Major intelligence theories are broadly grouped into four main types: (1) psychometric theories; (2) cognitive theories; (3) cognitive- contextual theories; and (4) biological theories. Psychometric theories are derived from studying individual differences in their performance on cognitive tests. Questions about the structure of human intelligence, including the importance of general intelligence, have dominated the psychometric theories. Cognitive theories are derived from studying the processes involved in an intelligence performance. These processes range from the very simple (e.g. inspection time) to the fairly complex intelligence (e.g. Working memory). Cognitive- contextual theories emphasize processes that demonstrate intelligence within a particular context (such as a cultural environment). Major theories include Sternberg's triarchic theory, Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences, and Piaget's theory of development. Biological theories emphasize the relationship between intelligence, the brain and its functions (Gardner, 2011). In this study the author has incorporated all the above mentioned four intelligence theories covering the form of intelligence, individual and competencies; intelligence studies in diverse areas (emotional intelligence, cultural intelligence, spiritual intelligence, tourism and artificial intelligence, Military intelligence, and pandemic and intelligence); intelligence around the world and intelligence studies in Nepal.

Intelligence, individual and competencies

In this sub-topic, the author discusses the concept of intelligence being applied in other human functioning areas that directly or indirectly raise the qualities of the individual while dealing with other people, ideas, and settings. Considering the success of intelligence quotient (IQ) and its application in human quest for control over self, other, and the larger group, new vocabularies with a range of quotients-along with IQ, Emotional Quotient (EQ), Cultural Quotient (CQ), Adversity Quotient (AQ), Positive Quotient (PQ) and Spiritual Quotient (SQ) have emerged. The IQ is a quantitative or statistical representation of an individual's score on a standardized intelligence test (Jeffery, Deluca, & Caplan, 2011). EQ is the ability to understand, use and manage one's own emotions in

positive ways to relieve stress, communicate effectively, empathize with others, overcome challenges and defuse conflict (Segal, Smith, Robinson, & Shubin, 2019). Meanwhile, CQ is a term used in business, education, government and academic research. It can be understood as the capability to relate and work effectively across various cultural groups. Originally the term was developed by Christopher Earley (2002) and Earley and Soon Ang (2003). Later on, Soon Ang and Linn Van Dyne worked on a scale development of the CQ construct as a researched-based way of measuring and predicting inter cultural performance.

Psychologists indicate that life success depends 20% on IQ and 80% on EQ and AQ, collectively known as “3Q”. EQ means abilities to perceive access and manage the emotions of one’s self and of others, including identifying emotions (Diffen, n.d.) Positive intelligence is an indication how well your mind acts in your best interest. (Meier, 2012). SQ is defined as the intelligence with which we address and solve problems of meaning and value, the intelligence with which we can place our actions and our lives in wider, richer, meaning giving context, the intelligence with which we can assess that one course of action or one life-path that is more meaningful than any other (Chippendale, 2001).

IQ is the minimum level of ability that one needs to get a job, but AQ is how you will be successful over time. AQ involves flexibility, curiosity, courage, resilience and problem-solving skills (Murray, 2019). EQ is defined as an individual’s ability to identify, evaluate, control, and express emotions. People with high EQ usually make great leaders and team players because of their ability to understand, empathize, and connect with the people around them. IQ is a score derived from one of the several standardized tests designed to assess an individual’s intelligence (Diffen, n.d.). One of the functions of IQ test and the measured level is to determine academic abilities and identify individuals with off-the-chart intelligence or mental challenges. EQ is a better indicator of success in the workplace and is used to identify leaders, good team players, and people who best work by them. (Diffen, n.d.)

Intelligence studies in diverse areas

When intelligence studies became very popular in the academia, scholars of different disciplines made efforts to highlight the significance of intelligence studies in numerous fields that attracted many interdisciplinary researchers.

Emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence includes the ability to be self-aware of one’s emotional state, to make meaning of emotional reactions, and to regulate and manage emotional reactions (Mayer & Salovey, 1990). Exploration of the meaning and measurement of emotional intelligence has been of intensifying interest in the educated communities.

Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2004) identified four primary components related to emotional intelligence: 1) perception of emotions, 2) facilitating thought processes through

the use of emotion, 3) emotional understanding, and 4) the ability to effectively manage emotions. Emotional intelligence is positively correlated with positive social relationships with others and negatively associated with aggression and violence towards others. Higher emotional intelligence suggests someone less likely to engage in personally self-destructive, violent, or addictive behaviors (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2004). Goleman (1995; in Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004) suggested five dimensions of emotional intelligence that include: 1) self-identification of emotions; 2) Handling emotions in an appropriate manner; 3) Using emotions in an appropriate and productive manner; 4) ability to understand the emotions of others; and 5) Ability to develop effective relationships. Goleman's list specifically incorporated the aspects of relationship in addition to the dimensions similar to those described by Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2004).

Emotional regulation can occur at different levels of consciousness and the mechanism of regulation will match the consciousness level. Basic emotional orientation will be enacted at a non-conscious level of emotional regulation. At a low level of consciousness, the mechanism will be characterized by both an open acceptance of the flow of emotion as well as an ability to view the situation from a perspective that disposes the emergence of both appropriate and effective emotions. At the highest level of consciousness, emotions are managed through keen self-observation and moral aplomb (Mayer & Salovey, 1995).

Recently, researchers have promoted the idea that our notion of intelligence should be expanded to include EQ which has generally been defined as the ability to perceive, understand and manage one's emotion (Salovey, Hsee, & Mayer, 1993; Salovey & Mayer 1990; in Ciarrochi, Amy, & Chan, 2000). The notion of EI was first introduced by Salovey and Mayer in 1990 and since then has become enormously popular. Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined EI as the ability to appraise, express, and regulate emotions (in self and others), and the ability to utilize emotions (e.g., to harness emotions to solve problems). Emotional intelligence is the best predictor of success in life, redefining what it means to be smart (Time, 1995), and that EI will confer '... an advantage in any domain in life, whether in romance and intimate relationships or picking up the unspoken rules that govern success in organizational politics' (Goleman, 1995, p.36; in Ciarrochi et al., 2000). Goleman's (1995; in Voughan, 2002, p.18) research on emotional intelligence, based primarily on intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence, indicates that success in many areas of life depends on emotional skills as much as on cognitive capacities. Emotional intelligence includes self-awareness and self-control, as well as the ability to get along well with others. The major areas of emotional intelligence are: emotion perception regulation understanding and utilization. In addition, Gardner (1993; in Voughan, 2002) discussed kinesthetic intelligence that enables a person to use the body in highly differentiated and skilled ways, such as dance or athletes; musical intelligence necessary for all different kinds of musical aptitude; intrapersonal intelligence that implies awareness of one's own thoughts and feelings; and interpersonal intelligence that enables us to relate to others empathetically (Voughan, 2002). Emotional intelligence implies an ability to listen to communicate, to accept feedback, and to emphasize with different points of view.

Cultural intelligence

CQ is an ability to adapt to new cultural settings. It is defined as a multifaceted competency consisting of cultural knowledge, the practice of mindfulness, and the repertoire of behavioral skills (Thomas & Inkson, 2004, pp.182-183; in Crowne, 2013). It is considered a capability that allows individuals to understand and act appropriately across a wide range of cultures (Thomas, 2006; in Crowne, 2013). According to Early and Mosakowski (2004), CQ is ‘an outsider’s seemingly natural ability to interpret someone’s unfamiliar and ambiguous gestures the way that a person’s compatriots would. CQ has 3 key components i.e., Head, Body and Heart. (1) Head is the knowledge and understanding that an individual dealing with people from different cultural group need good CQ. This can be achieved by observation, comprehension of the meaning and symbols, and the context. Knowledge and understanding of what and how behavior is being constructed, represented and shared socially can be an important asset while communicating with cultural group. (2) Body means translating cultural information into visible actions that is observable to cultural group. Gesture and body language always carries a specific meaning, significant in each culture. (3) Heart or having a high CQ. To gain a high CQ, one needs to be self-assured, confident and always learning to improve the multicultural skills to deal with new cultural situations. Cultural intelligence is widely researched and practiced in business and organizational areas where success is always linked to effective and appropriate communication and understanding of culture.

Individual intelligence, emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence are the perfect combination for personal and organizational success. All intelligence in fierce competitive organizational, socio-cultural, and political world complements each other. A person with high level CQ can appropriately understand the cultural belief, values, and behavioral patterns and with EQ can skillfully relate emotionally in their interpersonal communication and finally with moderate or high level of cognitive ability (IQ) can deal with successfully with person or group.

Spiritual intelligence

Wigglesworth (2014) defines spiritual intelligence as “the ability to act with wisdom and compassion, while maintaining inner and outer peace, regardless of the circumstances” (Wagglesworth, 2014). King & DeCicco (2009) have defined spiritual intelligence as a set of adaptive mental capacities based on non-material and transcendent aspects of reality, specifically those that: “...contribute to the awareness, integration, and adaptive application of the nonmaterial and transcendent aspects of one’s existence, leading to such outcomes as deep existential reflection, enhancement of meaning, recognition of transcendent self, and mastery of spiritual states”(Koenig, McCullough, & Larson, 2000). Kumar and Mehta defined spiritual intelligence as the capacity of an individual to possess a socially relevant purpose in life by understanding “self “ and having a high degree of conscience, compassion and commitment to human values” (2011). King further proposes four core abilities or capacities of spiritual intelligence: (1) Critical Existential Thinking; (2) Personal Meaning Production; (3) Transcendental Awareness; and (4) Conscious State Expansion (King & DeCicco, 2009).

Vaughan (2002) describes spiritual intelligence as concerned with the inner life of mind and spirit and its relationship to being in the world. Spiritual intelligence implies a capacity for a deep understanding of existential questions and insight into multiple levels of consciousness. Spiritual intelligence also implies awareness of spirit as the ground of being or as the creative life

force of evolution. If the evolution of life from stardust to mineral, vegetable, animal, and human existence implies some form of intelligence rather than being a purely random process, it might be called spiritual. Spiritual intelligence emerges as consciousness evolves into an ever-deepening awareness of matter, life, body, soul, and spirit.

SQ is one of the several types of intelligence that calls for multiple ways of knowing and for the integration of the inner life of mind and spirit with the outer life of work in the world. It is a capacity for developing meaning, vision and value. Spiritual intelligence is more than individual mental ability. It appears to connect the personal to the transpersonal and the self to spirit. Spiritual intelligence is also defined in relation to self-actualization and WHO (2001) has pointed out the importance of spiritual intelligence in mental health in addition to the physical, mental and social dimensions. The predictive role of spiritual intelligence has been emphasized not only in improving mental health, but as an important factor in the process of treating mental health conditions (Elkins et al., 1988).

Spirituality exists in the hearts and minds of men and women everywhere, within religious traditions and independently of tradition. However, the term ultimate concern can be interpreted in many different ways. Spirituality, like emotion, has varying degree of depth and expression. It may be conscious or unconscious, developed or undeveloped, healthy or pathological, naive or sophisticated, beneficial or dangerously distorted (Vaughan, 2002, p.17). Frances Vaughan (2002) offers the following description: Spiritual is concerned with the inner life of mind and spirit and its relationship to being in the world. Some current definitions of spirituality can be summarized as follows: (a) Spirituality involves the highest levels of any of the developmental lines, for example, cognitive, moral, emotional, and interpersonal; (b) spirituality is itself a separate developmental line; (c) spirituality is an attitude (such as openness to love) at any stage; and (d) spirituality involves peak experiences not stages. An integral perspective would presumably include all these different views, and others as well (Wilber, 2000; in Vaughan, 2002, p.17).

Tourism and artificial intelligence

AI is transforming our lifestyle intending to mimic human intelligence by a computer/machine in solving various issues. Initially, AI was designed to overcome simpler problems like winning a chess game, language recognition, image retrieval, among others. With the technological advancements, AI is getting increasingly sophisticated at doing what humans do, but more efficiently, rapidly, and at a lower cost in solving complex problems. AI in healthcare provides an upper hand undoubtedly over traditional analytics and clinical decision making techniques. In computer science, AI, sometimes called machine intelligence, is intelligence demonstrated by machines, in

contrast to the natural intelligence displayed by humans and animals. In the previous literature of tourism, artificial intelligence is mainly used to estimate tourist arrivals and forecasting the economic development in the future (Claveria & Torra, 2014; Stalidis et al., 2015; Asadi et al., 2016), Machine learning (ML) algorithms, a subset of AI, can detect patterns from huge complex datasets to become more precise and accurate as they interact with training data, allowing humans to gain unprecedented insights into early detection of diseases, drug discovery, diagnostics, healthcare processes, treatment variability, and patient outcomes (Jianj, Jianj, & Zhi, 2017; in Dananjayan, & Raj, 2020).

Currently the focus has shifted to technological applications in tourism and new sectors in tourism such as smart tourism (Genç, 2020). Early approaches to intelligent systems in tourism mostly focused on expert systems providing support for tourism industry professionals (Hruschka & Mazanec, 1990; Loban, 1997; in Gretzel, 2011, p. 759). Nowadays, intelligent systems in tourism are typically envisioned as fully autonomous travel counselors or concierges that have the ability to determine user preferences and anticipate user needs while having a large and at the same time specialized knowledge repository at their fingertips and continuously evaluate their suggestions based on feedback received from their users (Venturini & Ricci, 2006; in Gretzel, 2011). Intelligent systems in tourism are also developed to provide functions traditionally offered by tour operators and travel guides, such as travel planning/scheduling tasks, navigation and interpretation (Kramer, Modsching, & ten Hagen, 2007; in Gretzel, 2011).

Smart tourism is defined as a new social, cultural and economic activity where people move to other countries and places outside of their daily environment for a personal or professional aim (UNWTO, 2015; in Genç, 2020). Like smart city applications, smart tourism has rapidly become an important economic activity that is capable of promoting local development and other industries in the region (Ren, 2013; in Genç, 2020). The activity of smart tourism is connected to technological infrastructure, promotion of Wi-Fi, development of mobile applications, a new understanding of management as well as taking a new attitude for data collection and analysis (Gretzel et al., 2015). The name “smart” and “intelligence” was used interchangeably in the previous literature, denoting the same meaning that consists of wide use of technological entities despite essential differences between the terms of smart tourism and intelligence tourism (Li et al., 2017 in Genç, 2020) which was started after 2011 (Zhu, Zhang, & Li, 2014; in Genç, 2020).

Military intelligence

Intelligence activities, defined as including the process of data collection and knowledge analysis for decision making by the military and governmental hierarchies, are perceived as serving three goals: (a) evaluation of the rival’s capabilities and intentions; (b) enhancing the capability of the military by increasing effectiveness of its weapon systems and reducing the effectiveness of rival’s weapon systems; (c) intelligence superiority yields an advantage over the rival, particularly with respect to deterrence and preemption. From time immemorial intelligence has been a key factor in security planning, as shown notably

by the biblical story of the twelve spies and Sun Tz'u's treatise *The Art of War*. Most definitions of military intelligence share three components: processed information, time relevancy and policy-making decisions. Scholars agree that military intelligence aims at ensuring national security during peace and war times and should be based on governmental (or military) agency (see in detail Clark, 2007; in Pecht & Tishler, 2011, p.3).

Intelligence study invites another aspect which is known as strategic intelligence and strategic intelligence analysis. There are three levels in this intelligence study: strategic, tactical (operational, or combat) and counter intelligence. Among these three levels, the strategic intelligence includes information about the capabilities and intentions of foreign countries. In strategic intelligence, information is needed to formulate policy and military plans at the international and national policy levels. Strategic intelligence encompasses aggregation of different types of intelligentsia that creates synergy in an organization's intelligence and knowledge management to facilitate acquisition of valuable information of that play a crucial role in organizational decision making process (Study Mosse, 2015).

Sociological intelligence is useful to a military intelligence system because sociological concepts are keys to understanding a region's stability, military capability and foreign policy (Richelson, 1999). The importance of sociological intelligence has been demonstrated most prominently in recent conflicts in the former Yugoslavia, Africa, Russia, and Middle East. Espionage is a process of obtaining military, political, commercial or other secret information by means of spies, secret agents or illegal monitoring devices. Espionage is sometimes distinguished from the broader category of intelligence gathering by its aggressive nature and its illegality (Espionage, 2017)

Strategic intelligence analysis as a "specific form of research that addresses any issue at a level of breadth and detail necessary to describe threats, risks, and opportunities in a way that helps to determine programs and policies" (McDowell, 2009; in Olsen, 2009). As such, strategic intelligence analysis is distinctly different from, but complementary to tactical or operational intelligence analysis, which are focused on specific targets or individuals and support the day-to-day activities or operational line units (Oleson, 2009).

Tactical intelligence is information required by military field commanders so they can make plan for, if necessary conduct for operations. Military intelligence is a military discipline that uses information collection and analysis approaches to provide guidance and direction to assist commanders in their decisions. Areas of study may include the operational environment, hostile, friendly and neutral forces, the civilian population in an area of combat operations, and other broader areas of interest (SetonHall University, 2011/2012)

Security intelligence capacities are directed to a variety of aims, all of which involve the constitution of various types of security networks. Networks are constituted by the media that link its various nodes, that is, by the various exchanges, movements, or flows of information, goods and services that connect its otherwise isolated or segmented points. In terms of information flows, the development of ICTs (information and communication

technologies) has been instrumental in opening new communication channels between previously isolated agents (Dupont, 2004; in Lippert & O'Conner, 2006). In the context of security networks, we define security intelligence as a process that includes the coercive or covert acquisition of data about security issues, events, and responses. Data are singularities or events - they exhibit qualities that are independent of their relation to other things and qualities (Shields et al., 2002, p.143; in Lippert & O'Conner, 2006, p.53). Security data represent the everyday /every-night experiences and routines (Smith, 1999; in Lippert & O'Conner, 2006) and informal decision-making capacities of security agents within local communities of practice. In a security intelligence network, nodes are constituted and connected by the medium of intelligence. Through its dissemination, security intelligence is used to both authorize and direct security to the benefit of security stakeholders (Shearing & Wood, 2000, in Lippert & O'Conner, 2006).

Among the major issues, some of concern are: centralization vs. decentralization of intelligence agencies; advantage and disadvantages of inter- and outer- military intelligence efforts, and the level of redundancy among the various security agencies. Pecht and Tishler (2011, FN.7) view that all the intelligence agencies are one entity. The main benefits of military intelligence can be classified under three main headings: the evaluation effect, the operational effect, and the relative effect. The evaluation effect is influenced by two attributes: (a) the degree of uncertainty - the decision maker's conservatism and (b) intelligence process or intelligence efficiency. The operational effect is characterized by the knowledge collection which enhances the capability of the country's military that analyses or evaluates on effectiveness of weapon systems used technically that requires technical intelligence. The relative effect is based on how the country has intelligence superiority over the rival and its consequences are the leader show the willingness to enter into a conflict (Pecht & Tishler, 2011). Intelligence activities are conducted at all levels, from tactical to strategic, in peace time, the period of transition to war, and during a war itself (IBP, 2016).

Pandemic and intelligence

There was a pneumonia case with an unknown cause detected on 17 November, 2019 in Wuhan, a city of Hubei province of China. The first case of coronavirus infection in human was identified on 31 December, 2019 in Wuhan. Therefore, to control the infection, the central government of China imposed a lockdown in Wuhan and other cities of Hubei on 23 January, 2020. However, the virus spreads rapidly from Wuhan to other cities of China and crossed its national borders; hence, WHO declared Public Health Emergency of International Concern (PHEIC) on 30 January, 2020. Similarly, on 11 February, 2020, WHO announced that the disease caused by novel coronavirus would be named COVID-19. Following the best practices, the name of the disease was chosen to avoid inaccuracy and stigma; therefore, the name COVID-19 did not refer to a geographical location, an animal, an individual or group of people. On 11 March 2020, COVID-19 was declared as pandemic outbreak throughout the world by WHO. Wuhan, China lifted the lockdown on 8 April 2020; however, it dramatically spread globally and the virus infected many people in the world. As of September 21, 2020, the latest data of WHO (2020) shows that the

corona virus pandemic confirmed cases are 30,905,162 including 958,703 deaths. Likewise, in the case of Nepal, the confirmed cases recorded till September 21, 2020 as per Worldometer (2020) are 65,276 including 427 death cases and 47,238 recovered so far.

A ‘pandemic’ is when a disease becomes widely prevalent across a country or multiple countries. The preference to use ‘pandemic’ is for multiple country disease outbreaks, and to use ‘epidemic’ is for single country or country sub-region outbreaks. The MERS outbreak is considered an epidemic, whereas the two SARS outbreaks were considered pandemics. Pandemic is the form of epidemic that spreads through human population affecting large numbers of people, major part of a nation, entire nation, a continent or a part of the entire world (Samal, 2014, p.165). The COVID-19 pandemic emerged into a world that was seeing rapid developments in artificial intelligence (AI) based on big data, computational power and neural networks. In recent years, the gaze of AI researchers has increasingly turned to applications in healthcare. The COVID-19 pandemic has presented numerous challenges to virtually every section of society in all geographic locations (Hu, Jacob, & Stoyanov, 2020).

During the recent global urgency, scientists, healthcare experts, and clinicians around the globe keep on searching for a new technology to support in tackling the COVID-19 pandemic. They used technologies like AI, Internet of Things (IoT) Big Data and Machine Learning to fight and look ahead against the new disease. They believed that AI is one of such technology which can easily track the spread of the virus, identify the high risk patients, and is useful in controlling this infection in real time. AI will be helpful to fight this virus by population screening, medical help, notification, and suggestions about the infection control (Bai, Hsieh, Xiong et al,2020; Hu, Gejin, & xiom 2020; in Vaishya, Javaid, & Haleem, 2020).The physician is not only focused on the treatment of the patient, but also the control of disease with the AI application. Major symptoms and test analysis are done with the help of AI with the highest accuracy. Vaishya, Javaid, & Haleem (2020) have identified seven significant applications of AI for Covid-19 pandemic which are as follows: Early detection and diagnosis of the infection; Monitoring and treatment; Contact tracing of the individuals; Projection of cases and mortality; Development of drugs and vaccines; Reducing the workload of health workers; and Preventions of the disease.

People of the 21st century live in a wired world and despite being geographically dispersed, they are connected by technology. Within a click of their mouse or a touch of their finger, they access information on social media such as Twitter, Facebook, WhatsApp, and Instagram inter alia, which are also vehicles for fake news and disinformation (Larson, 2018; in Gowreesunkar, 2020). A number of social media platform and famous international companies including Google, Amazon, YouTube and Twitter, attended a meeting in early February hosted by the World Health Organization, at Facebook’s offices. The aim was to fight the “infodemic” of rumors, myths and misinformation related to COVID-19. Following the meeting, numerous platform responded by setting up system in an attempt to spread correct information. Google launched and SOS Alert system which makes WHO coronavirus resources more easily accessible when “coronavirus” is searched by using Google.

In the digital age, the time needed to analyze access and communicate information cannot compete with the instantaneous spreading of misinformation on social media platforms. Societies and communities worldwide should therefore avoid spreading rumors on social media; erroneous and misleading information cause panic and instigate communal bias. It is not the time to discuss region and religion of the COVID- 19 pandemic, rather it is the time to join hands and collectively fight it as one community and one identity (Gowreesunkar, 2020). YouTube has added a banner redirecting users to the WHO web portal on all videos that discuss COVID- 19. Facebook has additionally launched a “Community Help” feature where people can volunteer to donate to fundraisers. It has also banded ads and listings for medical-grade face masks, and has given the WHO unlimited free ad space. Snapchat worked with WHO to create filters that display facts on how to stay safe and social distance. These filters include reminders to wash your hands, cover your face when you sneeze and stay home. WhatsApp has worked with WHO to create a Health Alert system that is designed to answer question from the public about COVID- 19 and provides prompt, reliable and official information 24 hours a day and worldwide. This feature has been made available in all six of United Nations languages. The WHO also launched a similar system with Viber (Gowreesunkar, 2020).

The Pandemic Health Plan provides a framework for collecting the information required to support decision making about COVID-19. The Pandemic Health Plan is designed to inform decisions on adjusting the measures in place to suppress the spread of COVID-19 in Australia. Both intelligence and surveillance were used for getting readiness to adjust restrictions and the outcome of changes that they made. The plan includes four broad intelligence inputs known as Epidemiological situation (monitoring number of cases, ages, severity, source of acquisition where they are located, and changes over time); Public health system capacity (monitoring how fast cases are detected and isolated, and contacts are traced and quarantined to reduce transmission); Health care system capacity (with lower cases numbers, the opportunity to resume more normal health care activities); Community acceptance and adherence (effectiveness of measures depends on the community understanding , accepting and following public health advice and the plan includes how well the public is adhering to health guidance including community attitudes, transport and traffic movements, and movement data) (Australian Government, Department of Health, 2020).

WHO has distinguished between quarantine and isolation on 18 March, 2020 where governments use quarantines to stop the spread of contagious diseases. Quarantines are for people or groups who don't have symptoms but were exposed to the sickness; keep them away from others so they don't unknowingly infect anyone. Similarly, isolation is used to separate ill or infected persons from those who are healthy and restrict their movement to prevent spread of contagious diseases. Isolated patients are treated in a hospital setting and receive medical care as need. Quarantines may be used during;

- Outbreaks: When there's a sudden rise in the number of cases of a disease.
- Epidemics: Similar to outbreaks, but generally considered larger and more wide spread.
- Pandemics: Larger than epidemics, generally global in nature and affect more people (Medical Laboratory Technologist, 2020).

Dananjayan and Raj (2020) argue that both basic and applied research are essential to accelerate the potential of AI models. The clinical management of COVID-19 has spanned various stages including anticipation, early detection, containment and mitigation, together aiming towards eventual eradication (Hu et al., 2020). There are three parameters to understand in order to assess the magnitude of the risk posed by this novel coronavirus; Transmission Rate (R_0)-number of newly infected people from a single case; Case Fatality Rate (CFR)-percent of cases that result in death; determine whether asymptomatic transmission is possible.

Based on Chinese Newspaper, social media and other digital platform data, Hua & Shaw (2020, in press; in Djalante, Shaw, & De Wit, 2020, p.4) analyzed the timeline of key actions taken by the government and people over three months in five different phases: the very early phase (up to 31st of December, 2019), the investigation phase (up to 20th January), the early identification phase (up to 31st of January), the criticism, agony and depression phase (up to 14 February), lastly the positive and curative control phase (up to 29th February). The factors included strong governance, strict regulation, strong community vigilance, and citizen participation, wise use of big data and digital technologies. The other countries excluding China took dramatically different approaches in managing the pandemic. The variation is marked by prior experiences and preparation, early reinforcement of strict vigilance, testing and isolation, late law enforcement, strong vs. weak public awareness, self-restraint, commitments, and other factors. Some aspects of risk perception, awareness and response is a cultural issue, and powerfully linked to the socio-economic structure of the country and community (Djalante et al., 2020).

This crisis is different from many others because information about the pandemic has been widely available via governments, international organizations such as the World Health Organization, and academic institutions such as John Hopkins University. The IC's analytical role is critical now given the vast amount of information openly available and the need to help policymakers sort through and understand the data, draw conclusions, and make appropriate decisions. With today's technical tools to analyze and make sense of large quantities of data, Open Source Intelligence (OSINT) is more important than ever (Flynn, 2020). The key issue is determining the accuracy of all this data. Human Intelligence HUMINT, the type of intelligence derived from human sources, is critical to the analysis and interpretation of all this openly available data. In most cases, only a human source can tell you the future plans and intentions of leaders and adversaries, and whether and when they are lying, which is particularly important in this crisis. For instance, when the Chinese government and its leaders make pronouncements about the number of cases in China or the extent of the spread, a human source can put this in perspective and highlight any discrepancies (Flynn, 2020).

Vetting information is a persistent challenge, and there long has been a debate about which type of intelligence is the most trustworthy. Back when SIGINT (Signals Intelligence or intercepted communications) was relatively new and novel, policymakers used to say that "SIGINT does not lie" and post that it was more accurate than HUMINT. However, people lie all the time. They lie on the telephone. They lie in their text message. They lie in

their correspondence. While human sources are certainly capable of lying and of reporting truthfully the things they heard that were actually lies, a human source is more likely to be able to provide context and an assessment of whether an individual or a government is telling the truth.

Certainly, street operations will be more complicated during the COVID-19 crisis. The streets of most cities are deserted when they would normally be packed with cars and pedestrians. As a case officer, one tactic is to blend into the crowd (Criminals do this too, although one would hesitate to draw this comparison). In this regard, Flynn (2020) writes, "If the past is any indicator, there will be the inevitable after- action reviews and commissions stood up to investigate what when wrong and issue policy prescriptions....the creations of new bureaucratic to ensure we get it...."

HUMINT involves the recruitment of sources, which in most cases is an essentially social activity. It is about building trusting relationships to the point that a potential source is willing to provide sensitive information beyond what his government or employer normally section. It would be very difficult-although not impossible-to developing a trusting relationship solely via Zoom or other impersonal means (Flynn 2020).

The World Health Organization sits atop, but the WHO does not have its own medical intelligence system. There are other medical surveillance programs gather information from news media, internet sites and other sources identify and warn about disease outbreaks. These efforts include the Global Public Health Intelligence Network, the Program for Monitoring- Emerging Diseases and Health Map (World Health Organization, 2020). The US intelligence community has for many years considered the possible threat of disease among the potential risks to national stability and security. For instance, then- Director of National Intelligence Dan Coats told Congress in January 2019 that a large- scale outbreak "could lead to massive rates of death and disability, severely affect the world economy, strain international resources, and increase calls on the United States for support." (Dahl, 2020).Some news accounts indicate U.S. intelligence agencies may have detected a new disease in China as early as November- even before Chinese authorities recognized the problem. These reports have been denied by US officials, but it is clear that by mid- January, the U.S. intelligence community had begun briefing the president on the outbreak (Dahl, 2020).

The work of Public Health Agency of Canada (PHAC) is supported by the Global Public Health Intelligence Network (GPHIN), a branch of PHAC that specializes in Open Source Intelligence (known as OSINT). OSINT combs through unclassified sources such as newspapers, but also searches social media posts and pictures, and employs technical tools including commercial satellite imagery. GPHIN has commissioned a project titled Internet - based Surveillance Informing Global Health Threats (INSIGHT). INSIGHT is mobilizing artificial intelligence experts and epidemiologists to refine GPHIN's ability to search automatically for keywords and other indicators that could signal a health emergency (Fyffe, 2020).

Intelligence can be one source warning of the onset of a health emergency. The World Health Organization receives notification of a serious disease outbreak from the impacted country. That country must then take the comprehensive and often painful countermeasures needed to halt further transmission. Reporting from an outbreak country is not always accurate, and the required action is not always timely (Fyffe, 2020). Canada's intelligence collection and analysis assets can contribute to three necessary government capacities as a pandemic develops. First, Canadian intelligence, and that of Five Eyes intelligence partners (the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia and New Zealand) which will provide information about the outbreak. Second, it can supply insight into whether a foreign government is taking the steps that will halt domestic and global transmission. Third, intelligence analysis will help foresee the possible geopolitical consequences of a major disease outbreak (Fyffe, 2020).

It seems there are 2 different issues related to this single article;

1. One related to human ability and social sciences. Artificial intelligence and military intelligence can be integrated into one develop a different article. This can be, if more insight and analysis is made, a seminal paper for the social scientists.
2. The other is related to machine and its use during emergencies or crisis and espionage. This more related to machine (AI) organizational espionage (country against other countries). Maoist intelligence can be included here but State level intelligence operations (Nepal army intelligence and Nepal police intelligence) are not covered in this article.

Intelligence agencies around the world

Human intelligence (HUMINT) is the intellectual capability of humans, which is marked by complex cognitive feats and high levels of motivation and self-awareness (Tirri, 2011). Through intelligence, humans possess the cognitive abilities to learn, form concepts, understand, apply logic, and reason, including the capacities to recognize patterns, plan, innovate, solve problems, make decisions, retain information, and use language to communicate. HUMINT is intelligence gathered by means of interpersonal contact, as opposed to the more technical intelligence gathering disciplines such as signals intelligence (SIGINT), imagery intelligence (IMINT) and measurement and signature intelligence. NATO defines HUMINT as "a category of intelligence derived from information collected and provided by human sources." Typical HUMINT activities consist of interrogations and conversations with persons having access to information (IC Directive, 2006; in Stottlemyre, 2015, p. 585).

In general, threat intelligence refers to the formation used by an organization to better understand past, present and future threats. The four main types of threat intelligence are: strategic, tactical, technical and operational. Strategic cyber threat intelligence is a broader term usually reserved non-technical audience (Dnsstuff.com, 2019). Cyber threat

intelligence is information about threats and threat actors that helps mitigate harmful events in cyberspace. Cyber threat intelligence sources include upon source intelligence, social media intelligence, human intelligence, technical intelligence or intelligence from the deep and dark web (CBEST, 2016).

There are many intelligence agencies around the world which are known as HUMINT, SIGINT, Communication Intelligence (COMINT) and Electronic Intelligence (ELINT) and IMINT. Among those agencies, SIGINT and ELINT are the methods an intelligence agency utilizes to target, detect, intercept, and analyze electronic signals emitted by foreign or hostile forces for both tactical and strategic intelligence purpose. COMINT and ELINT are the main subcategories of SIGINT. COMINT deals with communication signals between people or groups of people including voice, text and other forms of messaging. ELINT deals with non communication signals including telemetry from satellites missiles, remote operated vehicles including drones, radars sensors and detectors (Karaff, 2019). IMINT also pronounced as I-MINT is an intelligence gathering discipline which collects information via satellite and aerial photography. IMINT as a subset of intelligence collection management which is a subset of intelligence cycle management (Imagery Intelligence, n.d.). Imagery can be derived from visual photography, radar sensors, infrared sensors, lasers, and electro-optics. Geospatial Intelligence (GEOINT) is the analysis and visual representation of security related activities on the earth. It is produced through an integration of imagery intelligence and geospatial information (U.S. Naval War College, n.d.)

In the United States, three major disciplines of intelligence are functional, which include TECHINT, HUMINT and OSINT. TECHINT comprises technical intelligence collection systems, including IMINT, GEOINT, SIGINT, COMINT, ELINT, FISINT, and MASINT. They are used in combination with HUMINT intelligence to observe and monitor foreign government and non state actor actions and behavior. They constitute the largest portion of the US intelligence community's budget and programs (George, 2020, p. 311). OSINT involves collecting information from unclassified, publicly available sources and analyzing its significance to the US government (George, 2020, p. 308).

Counterintelligence is an activity aimed at protecting an agency's intelligence program from an opposition's intelligence service (Prunckun, 2011). It includes gathering information and conducting activities to prevent espionage, sabotage, subversion, terrorist activities, organized crime or other criminal activities, assassinations or other intelligence activities conducted for or on behalf of foreign powers, organizations or persons. Many countries will have multiple organizations such as domestic, international, and counter-terrorism. Counterintelligence could be classified into two: offensive counterintelligence and defensive counterintelligence. Offensive counterintelligence seeks to damage the long-term capability of the adversary. Defensive counterintelligence operations that succeed in breaking up a clandestine network by arresting the persons involved or by exposing their actions demonstrate that disruption is quite measurable and effective against FIS (or terrorist) if the right actions are taken (Prunckun, 2011).

Intelligence studies in Nepal

Though the study of intelligence is very popular in the international academia, “intelligence is one of the least prioritized areas in Nepal” (Bhattraï, 2020). For this study so far, in the context of Nepal is concerned, the present author encountered with three studies of intelligence carried out by Rybak, Maharjan, & Adhikari (2010), Gnawali (2016), and Shrestha (2018), and Jackson (2019) which are all academic based research. There are other three newspaper articles written by Bhattarai (2020), Gyawali (2020), and Singh (2019).

Among these studies, Rybak et al. (2010) have made attempts to deal with emotional intelligence, education and therapeutic communities of Nepal. They focused on particular group of children who have experienced great stress in their lives. This study shows I.Q. is not enough for children to succeed in their lives while emotional intelligence really matters to gain success. It is Gyawali (2016) who studied on the students of Kathmandu valley and analyzed on the relationship between intelligence and conflict management. They highlight that higher education is the professional education that teaches the students to enable them to perform the duty in a professional way. Higher education enables them to enhance the leadership capacity to lead the organization. Self- awareness, self- regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills as the components of emotional intelligence are significantly correlated with each other. Their findings show that the highest impact of motivation followed by social skills and self-awareness can be seen as top three emotional intelligence components. While studying emotional intelligence of college students at higher education in Nepal, Shrestha(2018) claims that emotions play a significant role in teaching and learning process. The author argues that mastery in subject matter does not make the teacher best in the eyes of students, rather emotional intelligence does. Emotional intelligence focuses on the person- centered professor or teacher. The students get to learn by building human development behaviors.

It is Bhattraï (2020) who wrote an article on intelligence and Nepal’s foreign policy. In this article, he writes, inputs and insights into major decisions for the intelligence community that appear to be nil in this country. Mistakes come from misinformation. It is time to focus on building apolitical institutions as a foundation of good intelligence and good decision making of all moments by bringing the most relevant global insights into the process of analysis. Gyawali (2020) in his article stresses that artificial intelligence (AI) is an essential part in the fourth industrial revolution, and Nepal still can catch up. AI can help Nepal in its quest for development and prosperity. Thanks to the better algorithms, computation capabilities, and loads of data from the magic recognition tasks better than humans. Nepal has recently started AI through Naami Nepal, NIC Nepal, Fuse Machines or Paila Technologies which are attempting the gap.

Artificial intelligence was conceptualized in 1950’s and has seen various phases. Singh (2019) in his study mentions that emotional intelligence in Nepal has long been limited by various stereotypes and is often viewed to be same as mental health and depression. The company known as My Emotion Matters claim that is not the same but they are certainly inter-related. They think that many health problems can be avoided if we are aware of identifying and managing our emotions (Singh, 2019).

Conclusion

Intelligence is an integral part of human's life. Humans with no intelligence hardly survive in their habitat. From an individual to group to an organization and institution, intelligence is adopted as a tool for sustainable solution. People living in the society are facing several problems which they take a lot of effort to come up with a solution by applying intelligence as an impetus. There are various theories of intelligence developed by psychologists suggested to apply in different situations. When intelligence studies became matured, it has been borrowed by various scholars of different disciplines such as military science, conflict studies, religion, anthropology, psychology, sociology, political science, tourism and business studies.

As a broad-spectrum, intelligence studies are found to be studied from the view point of systemic, behavioral, organizational and knowledge management perspectives. It has been used as an academic subject in the field of emotion, spirituality, cultural, strategic, pandemic, tourism, business and conflict resolution or transformation for bringing peace and stability. Though there are various types of intelligence, artificial intelligence in this 21st century has deeply influenced fields of human sphere. The symbiotic relationship between man and machine for collecting intelligence is considered as quintessential element for the solution of human's problem. Intelligence has broader field and provides vast knowledge to all human beings which is considered as a must. These days many different countries, considering the importance of intelligence, have established different intelligence agencies that play vital role of getting information in different sectors. Though intelligence have become a very popular subject across the world and the application of it is predominated by security agencies, in Nepal, intelligence studies are still at the phase of infancy in the academia. This study suggests that intelligence should be studied from interdisciplinary and integrated approaches.

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Nepal China-India Relation: A Geostrategic Perspectives

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Abstract

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This paper is an attempt to trace out the Nepal 's China-India relation in the context of dynamic changes of powerful nations of the world as well as emerging regional countries. Existing international relation of Nepal is needed tactic diplomacy to take maximum economic and technological benefits from global major powerful countries and emerging regional countries. The existing foreign relation of Nepal and future adaptive strategies have been discussed using qualitative approach. By reviewing and synthesizing ongoing initiations of present government at the global, regional and national level, paper drew the conclusion to maintain balance relation between and among the north -south two neighbors including super power of the world. Paper further emphasized to adopt among equals foreign relation strategy to take benefits from the emerging powerful countries in the Asian region.

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Introduction

Geostrategy considers in a tactical military sense, political sense and culturally defined territorial sense in terms of spatial distribution of resources, peoples and geo-physical systems. Cohen (2010) viewed that the geopolitical structure, its role and capacities as the geopolitical forces it shapes the international relation system and diplomatic tactics of any nations. Geopolitical existence of Nepal has the ability to influence world politics due to its geographical location as functioned as the turning table of east Asia and south Asia and deserves the strategic importance for the super power nations of the world. The politics and economic interest of powerful nations such as United S of America (USA), China, European Commission (EU) and India, thus, directly indirectly determine the foreign policy of Nepal by the greater involvement of powerful nations in macro and micro management. It is; therefore, Nepal's foreign relations are driven by the politics of powerful nations who perennially strive to maximize their power to achieve their national interests. Power maximization involves a combination of economic growth, military modernization and diplomacy. During periods of momentous change, it is often noticed that the status-quo powers try to prevent others from advancing to a higher level while aspiring powers seek to counter these efforts with all the resources at their disposal. Ever since the end of the Cold War, the world has been passing through a period of power transition and the center of gravity of international politics has been shifted to Asia because of the economic and military prowess of the two aspiring powers i.e. China and India. In this context, the US, as a status quo power, is perceived to be pursuing a twin policy of diplomacy of cooperation and containment to deal with them. China and India, on the other hand, given their geographic constraints have been trying to sustain their rise by developing cooperative and friendly relations with their neighbors i.e. Nepal, as well as cooperating with each other at the global level. But as they are located in the same region, there is also competition between the two for resources and strategic influence (Pant and Rie, 2018).

This race for power maximization among nations has implications for the Himalayan states Nepal and Bhutan due the strategic location as they are situated at the meeting point of East Asia and South Asia. The Himalayas have long been a natural barrier between Indian and Chinese civilizations which are great civilizations of Asian region. Both civilizations have treated it as their protector against external and mutual threats. However, the myth of Himalayas as the natural protector proved wrong when China and India fought a war in October 1962. The invention and application of modern technology brought about a new but peculiar scenario that led to significant change in the nature of warfare. Thus, the concept of security was redefined with the changing needs and demands of global politics. Following the success of anti-colonial movement in China and independence of India, the Himalayan region drew the attention of major powers from other continent(s), who were involved in ideological rivalry. This caused concern for both China and India. Given their geographical proximity, both countries integrated their part/portion of the Himalayas as their natural frontier. This resulted in competition for extension of influence in the proximate neighborhoods for strategic advantage. Both are looking for solutions on the disputed borders, make unilateral claims on certain parts as their exclusive zone of influence. A sense of competition and mutual suspicion has intensified further to control

the Himalayan frontier in both countries and military infrastructure developments in Tibet. India is the only major power located in the south of Tibet and it can be implied that the military build-up in Tibet is possibly targeted (Dixit,2010).

Regarding the rising influences and interest of China and India on Nepalese politics with their direct and indirect involvement in macro and micro level management of daily business of government, this paper has an attempt to discuss the impacts and opportunities in Nepalese political economy from the emerging diplomatic relations of north and south neighbors as well as westerns by intensively reviewing the available literature on international relation, diplomatic tactic and existing foreign policy of Nepal.

Nepal's foreign policy

The diversification of Nepal's foreign policy in the early 1960s was an attempt to ensure regime security and its territorial integrity against perceived threat from its neighbors and also to reduced its dependency with India. The external powers took advantages of it and motivated partly because of their own interest to have a foothold in this geostrategic location. However, geography of Nepal remains a constant and a major determinant of nation foreign policy. Further, there have been occasions when some Nepali leaders misread the development in the region and beyond, and tried to use external powers against regional actors.

Nepal has its relationship with the Western countries to meet its developmental needs. In the past, this had also enabled to counter balance India's influence. Until the early 1970s, the US was the top foreign aid donor to Nepal. In the post-Cold War period, the US influence on Nepal's domestic politics was diminished as it shifted its focus to other regions of the world. Nepal further caught US direct interventions due to the rise of India and China as the emerging powers. Now a days the influence of US on Nepalese politics is channeled through Indian strategies because US considers India as a representative to control the influence of China in Asian region. This strategy has been functioned especially after Maoist insurgency in Nepal. The US tried to help the king in his anti-Maoist counter insurgency operations. While the political situation changed in 2005 and favored the democratic forces, the US gradually came to recognize (reluctantly until 2009) India's efforts towards peace initiatives and political stability in Nepal. Thus, US considers India as a reliable partner in South Asia onward 2012 and it enunciated it rebalance policy towards Asia. Since the third Indo-US strategic dialogue in 2011 it was more pronouncedly sought to partner with India to address common challenges in the region. The Himalayas are strategically important for countries like Nepal and Bhutan. These small states act as partial geographical buffers between India and China separated by hundreds of miles and they are also more dependent on their southern neighbor India for easy access to sea for trade with other countries. It is therefore, between these two big emerging power countries Nepal has been attracted the greater attention of the external powers (Nayak,2012).

Historically, Nepal has remained a strategic location for big powers since the Cold War. It has also always figured prominently in the regional power politics centered around the Himalayan region. In return, Nepal took advantages from major/external powers by their presence on its territory to counter balance the influences of its two neighbors and also to secure its territorial integrity. Despite that Nepal's foreign policy is mostly focused on maintaining balance between its two bigger neighbors. As regards the US; it has never been a direct threat to Nepal, but Nepal expects it not to pressurize Kathmandu over the Tibet issue. Ever since the beginning of diplomatic relations between Nepal and the US, the latter has been mostly considered as protector of the former in case of any kind of military threat and political interference from China and India. Regarding this, Nepalese elites are supposed that the US will never be able to ignore Nepal's geopolitical location due to China and India factors. China also cannot neglect Nepal as long as the Tibet issue and its border disputes. Nepal's strategic location makes it natural for external powers to take interest in its domestic as well as foreign policy. It is also considerable for the sense of insecurity from the neighbors and occasional uneasy relations with them. It is, therefore, the 10years long spell of Maoist insurgency and the prolonged periods of political uncertainty of Nepal were attracted the attention of external powers for many years. Nepal has assumed even greater salience for extra-regional powers, particularly the US, the UK, and the European Union since the Jana Andolan-II initiated the difficult process of political transition in Nepal from monarchy to democratic republic (Sigdel,2018).

Amidst tumultuous political developments in Nepal, these powers have made efforts to secure their strategic objectives, which might have also, directly or indirectly influenced the political transition. However, their interests in Nepal do not make their engagement a one-sided affair. It is also true that Nepal needed their support to overcome its economic challenges, particularly when India as a dominant partner in Nepalese economy was not in a position to deliver by itself. At a strategic level also, Nepal has been seeking the support of external powers to neutralize the interference of its neighbors in its internal affairs ever since its formation as a sovereign entity. Some observers in Nepal note that for Kathmandu, US influence could be used to counter undue outside influence on the part of India and China.

China's approach to South Asia

While the Chinese approach to South Asia has been largely centered around India and Pakistan. Later, Nepal has begun to figure prominently in its foreign policy outlook. This region gets special attention in Chinese policy for its perineal friendship and trusted ally. Pakistan, as well as its global economic competitor India both are located in South Asia. Ever since the economic reforms in 1991, India has been emerging as a global competitor for China. A series of successful tests on Inter Continental Ballistic Missiles (ICBMs) by India had raised eyebrows in China among scholars and top leaders about Indian technological progress and, thus China has recognized India as an important factor in Asian politics. Further, the 2005 India-US civil nuclear deal, its pro-active foreign policy in international forums and military modernization have placed India at the center-stage of global affairs. In view of the competition for influence between the two at the regional and

global levels, it is logical that China wants to keep India tied up in internal and regional matters in order to hamper its global ambitions. Ideologically, also the world's largest democracy, i.e., India is located in this region and China perceives that democratic forces (the US, India and Japan) led by the US, are ganging up against it. As a result, China has made major shifts in its foreign policy towards South Asia since 2000. This was visible after 2005, as China became increasingly concerned about India's expanding strategic ties with the US. The presence of Tibetan refugees in India also added the concerns. In fact, Chinese President Hu Jintao, during his visit to Delhi in March 2012 had discussed the possibilities of India participating in any Western containment strategy with regard to rebalancing role in the Asia Pacific region. Chinese leadership has refocused its attention on increasing its influence in the South Asian neighborhood vis-à-vis with a view to balance perceived American strategy to contain China by strengthening its partnership with India. China is thus continuing its policy of endearing itself to the South Asian countries. China as regularly sent political, economic, military and academic delegations to India's neighboring nations (Donnell,2018).

China's nepal policy

China is in favor of a powerful, stable and neutral government in Kathmandu with no matter of ideology. Due to people-centric diplomacy in Nepal, it seems China does not want any confrontation at this moment in this region. For the time being, China prefers to concentrate on developmental programs in its western region.

In the short-term, China wants to continue its diplomatic engagement in Nepal as part of the comprehensive partnership policy at various levels to keep external forces away from the Tibetan refugees' issue. For its long-term benefit Beijing will expand its economic engagement and people to-people relations with Nepal. Moreover, Chinese policy towards Nepal is expected to acquire greater importance in the coming days both because of the twin factors of Tibet and India, and its official emphasis on external periphery.

Geographically, Nepal locates as the southern gateway to Tibet and has closer economic and cultural linkages with Tibet than China since times immemorial. For China, Nepal is a geographic and cultural buffer between Tibet and Tibetan refugees living in India. Beijing fears that Nepal can use by other powers as a frontline state to challenge China's security interests. It suspects that the CIA of US and Indian intelligence agencies(RAW) support Tibetan refugees who are trying to cross into China and Himalayan Mountain range not only always provides a natural defense against infiltration. Some Chinese analysts are in agreement with Maoist leaders that the US agenda in Nepal is basically designed to encircle China. Wang Hongwei, a Chinese expert on Nepal, believes that India and the US are using Nepalese territory to act against China. Expressing China's security concerns, in May 2001, the Chinese ambassador to Kathmandu confirmed that China had a vital interest in securing its strategic southern border by nurturing a credible relationship with Nepal. Tang Jiaxuan, former Foreign Minister of China commented on the deepening political crisis and the role of external forces in Nepal and he mentioned that Beijing has always stuck to the approach of non-intervention towards Nepal's inside affairs, fully respecting

any model of national development that the Nepalese people chose. Recently the visit of Chinese president Xi Jinping in Nepal further inspired to interconnect with China in the counter balance with India in terms of Nepal's physical infrastructure development and being a beneficiaries from the Belt Road Initiative(BRI) or Silk Road mission of worldwide market connection for Chinese goods. This initiation of China clearly indicates to size down the political influence of India on Nepalese political economy. The active involvement of current Chinese Ambassador in ruling party internal dispute settlement also shows the high interest of China to make determinant roles on Nepalese politics for minimizing the role and influence of India and western countries. Some analysts also suggest that even if China does not expressly mention the role of external forces in Nepal, it is insecure about India's leverage in Nepal as well as the influence of the United States, the United Kingdom, and the European Union. Therefore, China always looks for a credible nationalist force in Nepal, amenable to its influence, for political stability. It also consistently emphasizes that the government of Nepal must stick to the one- China policy and should not allow Tibetans to indulge in any kind of anti- China activities (Ghimire, 2012). China sees Nepal as a strategic location for its geo-political objectives in South Asia. In Chinese strategic perception, Nepal can be utilized by regional powers like India if China fails to maintain or institutionalize strong relationship with Nepal.

Besides, the Chinese experts believe that Nepal is crucial from Beijing's security perspective because of the frequent protest movements and vulnerable conditions in Tibet. In Chinese calculation, having good relations with Nepal can help it to curb Tibetan movements and keep a vigilant eye on the Tibetan protests and activities. Thus, Tibet factor remains primary security issue for China in Nepal and possibility for greater trade and commercial contacts with Nepal has also been the principal objectives of China's recent policy towards Nepal. Trade has continued to expand between China and Nepal over the years, but importantly, China has also inked vital hydro power plant projects with Nepal. For example, China has recently signed a \$1.6 billion agreement to develop the hydro power plant in Nepal which is of almost 760-Mega Watt, known as West Seti project. This is vital from China's perspective as to be the principal country in Nepal's hydro power and water projects till recently. In short, the Chinese policy towards Nepal consists of both political and economic objectives, targeted at larger South Asian politics and goals. In return, Nepal has equally shown greater support and affiliation with China in the broader South Asian politics. This further clarifies that Nepal's open support for China's application for observer status in SAARC. However, this should take seriously by Nepal due to a neighboring South Asian country, and China shares larger security and political interests with Nepal.

From the economic point of view, overall, China is the second largest trading partner of Nepal after India. Therefore, China's policy towards Nepal has been different from its policies towards the other South Asian countries. China also has three major strategic interests in Nepal: (i) containing Tibetan refugees in the south of the Himalayas and controlling their anti-China activities; (ii) neutralising India's influence in Nepal and setting up a pro-China regime in Kathmandu, for which China has scaled up its engagement in recent years and has also taken soft diplomatic measures, i.e. people-to-people contacts, cultural relations, scholarships for students, economic aid and spread of Chinese Confucianism by setting up Confucius Institutes in Nepal; and (iii) investing in strategically important infrastructure projects like airports and important highways (Muni,2011).

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India toward Nepal

There are historical reasons that explain the dynamics of the Nepal–India bilateral relationship. To maintain a sphere of influence, India needs sufficient soft power, as well as hard power, along with the confidence to act. Pande (2011) argued that managing a sphere of influence is not only a function of telling others what to do but being able to expend resources that deny space to competitors. The former Prime Minister of Nepal Kirti Nidhi Bista said that India made him (PM Bista) lose his temper because during those times when India was economically insignificant, it still had undue demands over Nepal. A combination of economic limitations, India's political manipulation, Chinese inroads, and the outreach of extra-regional powers to Nepal gradually increased its desire to diversify relations. Such ambitions have been the central element of successive governments in Nepal, leading to increased friction with India (Shrestha,2014).

Indeed, the nature of India-Nepal relations has always been a mixed bag. Due to its provisions and protocols, the 1950 treaty quickly became controversial and set the conflictive tone of the bilateral relationship. The provisions of the 1950 Indo-Nepal Peace and Friendship Treaty (1950 Treaty: Article 5, Letter of Exchange: Article 2, Indo-Nepal Security Cooperation Agreement, 1965: Article 5), constrained Nepal as an ally and a state under India's security umbrella. In 1988, King Birendra's decision to purchase anti-aircraft guns from China prompted then Indian Foreign Secretary to warn Nepal of its existential uncertainty. Over the years, the incompatibility between the two countries only worsened in various domains (Rajan,2018).

Implications for India

China's active outreach to Nepal in recent years has been partly prompted by India's increasing force posturing along its border, which, in the first place, was in response to China's activities along the border. Interestingly, the timing of former PM Manmohan Singh's government considering border-force enhancement for defensive purposes roughly coincided with the spike in China's interest in Nepal, which further increased after the Tibetan protests during the Beijing Olympics in 2008. Some argue that the evolving Indo-US relationship also played its part. China's engagement in

Nepal is either directly correlated with India's action vis-à-vis China, or completely independent of the same. In either scenario, India's strategy to keep Nepal's engagement with China to a minimum is no longer a viable option (Orton,2010).

In the case of an India–China war, it is uncertain whether Nepal will take India's side as per the spirit of the 1950 treaty (as well as subsequent treaties), given Nepal's reluctance to do so in the past. While, on paper, Nepal remains an ally of India, it has constitutionally asserted that its foreign policy is based on the Charter of the United Nations, non-alignment, principles of Panchsheel (and) international law. Major parties have often reiterated this, and the overall national spirit reflects Nepal's desire to remain neutral, as it did during the Doklam standoff in mid-2017 (Donnell,2018).

Moreover, the sheer scale of China's plan and its economic clout is shifting the tide of global order. The US position in Latin America increasingly resembles India's current situation vis-à-vis Nepal. So much so that Panama, once considered to be America's "colony," has now ended its relations with Taiwan upon Beijing's request. El Salvador has done the same. Now, the 60th annual meeting of Inter-American Development Bank, headquartered in Washington D.C., is going to be held in Chengdu, China. The bank's board made this decision despite several warnings from then Secretary of State Rex Tillerson.

Finally, India's stance on Oli's government puts it in an undue negative light. PM of both countries had established a relationship of trust, negotiating some important agreements during their visits. The agreement on the historically controversial Arun III hydel project, and their cooperation in revitalizing BIMSTEC (or the Bay of Bengal Initiative for Multi-Sectoral Technical and Economic Cooperation), are some of the indicators of Nepal's good intentions regarding India.

Opportunity

The Chinese engagement in Nepal goes beyond the political domain. At a meeting between the then Defense Minister and the Deputy Commander of the PLA, Lieutenant General Ma Xiaotian, held in Kathmandu in December 2008 and signed an agreement on military assistance worth US\$ 2.6 million, which was discussed in September 2008, for the modernization of the NA. That was the first such military assistance to the Maoist government. Beijing had keenly supported the Maoist government's proposal to integrate some 19,000 Maoist guerrillas into the Nepalese Army. China announced a one-time grant of \$20 million, for the rehabilitation of former Maoist combatants. Chinese reiterated their keenness to provide military modernization assistance to Nepal. During the then Chinese Army Chief General Chen Bingde's visit to Nepal and China signed an agreement for providing military aid to the tune of US\$7.7 million to the Nepalese Army in an effort towards deepening the military relations. China's engagement with the Nepalese Army, which has been traditionally close to the Indian and the US Armies, "underlines that China has no 'favorites' on the Nepalese political landscape and has only 'interests' and Beijing will advance its interests no matter who it has to deal with or what it takes.

China's wooing of Nepal as a new strategic partner has been confirmed by various Chinese officials. Foreign Minister Yang Jiechi said that China would prefer to work with Nepal on the basis of 'strategic partnership, comprehensive partnership of cooperation' and the two countries agreed to further strengthen political and economic ties. Exchange of high-level visits; cooperation in trade and investment, agriculture, transportation, information technology, infrastructure development, hydropower construction and poverty alleviation; cooperation in areas of security, education, human resource development, tourism and cultural exchanges; cooperation between the CPC and various political parties of Nepal; and close coordination and cooperation on major global issues like global financial crisis, climate change, energy, food security border security have been identified for the partnership area for Nepal and China (Sigdel,2018).

The Trans-Himalayan Railway

China and Nepal have agreed to "intensify implementation of the MoU on Cooperation under the BRI to enhance connectivity, which includes ports, roads, railways, aviation and communications in the framework of the Trans-Himalayan Multi-Dimensional Connectivity Network. India poses a legitimate question: Is the trans-Himalayan railway up to Kathmandu economically viable, since several costly tunnels are needed before the railway reaches the lower mountains and plains? India might be overplaying the risk.

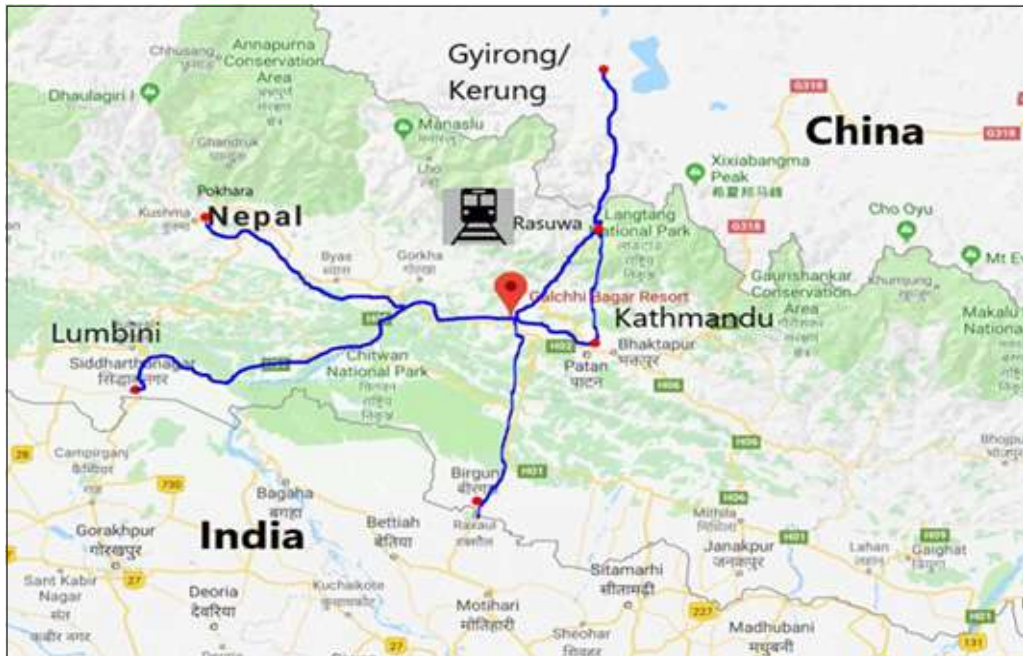
First, excluding Kathmandu, the Chinese Qinghai-Tibet railway already fully operational up to Shigatse (Xigaze) is expected to soon reach the Nepal border (Rasuwagadi) in Kerung (Gyirong). From Kerung it will be a 100-km-long railway to Kathmandu. A combined transportation system of rail and truck via that route reduces the journey substantially; China has already started sending cargoes on freight train from Lanzhou to Kathmandu via Shigatse, where the merchandise is loaded on trucks. The whole journey takes only 10 days, much less than the 35 days it takes through the maritime route via Kolkata. A Chinese railway in Kerung can thus elevate Sino-Nepal trade and commerce (Map-1).



The planned extension of the Qinghai-Tibet railway to Kerung (Gyirong) and into Nepal.

Source: Author's own, based on Google Maps.

Second, the economic viability of the Kerung–Raxaul (India) route is uncertain, with India emphasizing its own centrality in the project and China planning to reach out to the Gangetic plains via Nepal. For its part, Nepal views the Chinese railway as an opportunity to bring Chinese pilgrims and tourists to Lumbini, the birthplace of the Buddha, and to the popular valley of Pokhara. Nepal is equally eager about the prospects of being road-connected with Myanmar and Thailand through BIMSTEC as it is with the BRI on the northern front. Therefore, India may want to institutionalize the current approach, which seems to be in the best interest of both) map-2).



The way forward

The recent joint communiqués between India and Nepal seem to have all the right words and tone for a constructive move forward in their bilateral relations. Immediately after the successive visits of Modi and Oli to Nepal, there has been unprecedented progress in several areas. For instance, a joint inspection team visited the bordering areas prone to flooding, something that has not happened in the past. Similarly, contrary to expectations, the joint Eminent Persons Group (EPG) has finalized their recommendations on the revision of the 1950 treaty, however, the finalized EPG report has not been submitted yet. PM Modi is not ready to accept the EPG report till now. Another joint meeting has agreed to finalize modalities to implement the grand project of water connectivity, and India is willing to provide financial and technical support. The Nepal government wants ships to enter Nepali waters. The MoU on the Raxaul–Kathmandu railway has also been well-received.

However, despite generous announcements, India continues to send mixed signals. First, in terms of the land and air connectivity, the response has been sluggish: the gap between

providing access to Vizag Port and new air routes to Nepal is two years. Nepal's request to access India's west ports is at a nascent stage and will take some more years. Second, while Modi has hit all the right chords in his talks. India is still unwilling to cooperate on power trade with Nepal in the way Nepal would to provide electricity at lower rates. The message that Nepal remains India's "client state" will not be helpful to the aims of working towards a higher level of cooperation. India must formulate an integrated approach towards Nepal to reflect the current reality.

Regarding China's inroads into Nepal, an option for India would be to defend the status quo by attempting to block Nepal's options to diversify its cooperation with neighbors, through projects such as the infrastructure development by Chinese investment. However, such a policy is bound to fail because Nepal is determined to take advantage of cooperation opportunities with foreign partners, including China. Addressing the issue of external interference. Foreign Ministry of Nepal tries to draw a clear boundary line, stating that internal matters would never be the issues in a bilateral discussion with India, China and others.

China is winning hearts and minds in Nepal through generous strategic charity. After the 19th Party Congress, it will continue to "use economic diplomacy as the foundation of its foreign policy. Therefore, the way forward for India would be to depart from its exclusively traditional security angle and be proactive with innovative strategies and policies. The first step is to identify the major cause of Nepal's behavior towards India. Why has the Nepali establishment consistently resisted India while being so welcoming to China? This is a particularly crucial question, since Nepal has growing trade deficits with both countries. Second, India must introduce new economic, developmental and infrastructure initiatives with Nepal that will not only bring tangible benefits to Nepali citizens but also address the vulnerabilities that will emerge in Nepal as the country engages with China. However, India tries to deliver on its promises comes from its awareness of India's own need to keep Nepal closer to itself than China.

As things are, Nepal cannot dispense with its reliance on India. India is and will remain vital for the country in many ways. However, Nepal is now a member of China's massive BRI, which puts India in a difficult position. New Delhi has found itself utterly unprepared to deal with an assertive Chinese foreign policy under Xi Jinping. India must figure out where it stands vis-à-vis Nepal and what is the way for forward in the short, medium and long term, given the shifting regional and global structure, technological breakthroughs, as well as new threats such as terrorism. Nepal, for its part, has lived through a historic political transformation but continues to face huge challenges in terms of managing its population and economy; remittance makes up to about 30 percent of the country's GDP and mostly originates in the Gulf. There is an increasingly strong Nepali diaspora in many parts of the world. Therefore, India and Nepal must figure out in what new ways they can move forward in the best interest of both parties.

Analysts are not entirely accurate in their apprehensions about Nepal's independent foreign relations. A strongly sovereign Nepal is beneficial, not detrimental, to India's

security. Nepal shares a 1,400-km-long border with the Tibetan Autonomous region of China, perhaps the only section in the Himalayas where there are no security threats. In a way, Nepal has helped India avoid the need to deploy thousands of troops and military hardware to this extra 1,400 km for its force posturing. India has had to do so along the 4,000 km China border, which too has not deterred China from building infrastructure on contested land Doklam being a case in point. Emphasizing Nepal's sovereign status and independent policy choices, and helping Nepal exercise these is in India's interest. Similarly, there are concerns in some quarters of Kathmandu about the possible trilateral or 2+1 cooperation, that Nepal's sovereign interests are being undermined in the India–China deals. It will help build trust if India manages to translate its good will into meaningful action.

As long as the principles of non-interference and peaceful co-existence are respected and a high level of political engagement is pursued, there will increasing cooperation in Modi's initiatives, which would have been impossible just a year ago. be bonhomie and cooperation between the leaders of India and Nepal. At the same time, it will assuage China's unease about its security in Nepal. Disregarding India's traditional muscular diplomacy, PM Modi seems to have been following this line of cooperative diplomacy.

Conclusion

Nepal's international relations and foreign policy have shaped by its geospatial context and links between India and China in different political as well as economic nodes in which diverse and dense global political economic networks are regulated by USA, China, India and European Union. Both China and India are emerging and want to catch up the westerns including other developed countries. Where USA wants to show leadership by offering technological help to the emerging economies through its Millennium Challenge Corporation (MCC) agenda under the Indo-Pacific Strategy in Asian countries. It is, therefore, the ongoing political, economic and military strategies of powerful nations including both China and India, Nepal has to adopt among equals diplomatic relation and to take maximum economic and technological benefits from global major and emerging regional powers through domestic territory-based exercises of unified national power. Thus, Nepal has to be followed world balance foreign relation strategy in the face of dynamic changes in the 21st century i.e. global century.

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Governance for Human Security: Response to COVID-19 Pandemic in Morang District, Nepal

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Abstract

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This study is focused to probe the impacts of COVID-19 pandemic and human security-oriented response in Nepal. Particularly Morang district is purposefully selected as the area of study. Qualitative meta-analysis and semi-structured telephone interview were the methods utilized for the qualitative data collection. The response mechanism adopted can be made further influential through minor adjustments as public always look forward to receiving extra effective responses during emergencies. Local levels have been doing their best with limited resources, where some are capable of mobilizing additional resources. Good practices relating to economic decision-making and implementation by all three levels of governments can amplify the vibes of responses posing positivity in the fighters at the frontline during the fight against non-traditional adversary such as COVID-19 pandemic.

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Introduction

The pandemic situation we experienced was hardly in our imagination. Planes stopped flying, ships stopped sailing, and vehicles forgot rounding. The world was locked due to the ongoing pandemic of coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19). The COVID-19 is caused by severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) which was first identified in Wuhan city, Hubei, China, in December 2019 (MoHP, 2020a; WHO, 2020b). World Health Organization (WHO) recognized the COVID-19 as a pandemic on 11 March 2020 (MoHP, 2020a; WHO, 2020a). The infectious disease proliferated so fast that it travelled to most of the countries around the globe within few weeks. This created an environment of terror to the public and tension to the states. Consequently, Nepal could not remain apart. A student, aged 31, returned to Kathmandu on 9 January 2020 who was tested and found COVID-19 positive was the first case in Nepal (Shrestha et al., 2020). With the intention of preventing the outbreak of pandemic, country-wide lockdown came into effect on 24 March 2020 in Nepal (OPMCM, 2020b). By the end of August 2020, period of this study, total number of positive cases reached 25,406,588 including 850,878 deaths in the world. In the same period, there were 39460 positive cases and 228 deaths in Nepal (MoHP, 2020b).

The COVID-19 pandemic abruptly hit the world impacting almost every aspect (CCSA, 2020). Businesses, industries and markets were closed disrupting people's daily life. Similarly, tourism industry was devastated (Ulak, 2020). Due to the lockdown and restrictions, people lost their employment and livelihoods to force them in poverty. This pandemic situation reduced people's capacity to afford food (Pereira & Oliveira, 2020; United Nations, 2020). At this period, people faced challenges to access healthcare facilities, threats to physical integrity and economic insecurity. Health system remained one of the hardly impacted aspect due to COVID-19 pandemic (Dwinantoaji & DW, 2020; Legido-Quigley et al., 2020). This infectious disease ultimately became one of the non-traditional challenge to human security (Dwinantoaji & DW, 2020; Kandel et al., 2020).

As Nepal began to come across the infections, the government introduced response mechanisms which have been novel to all tri-tired governments. Though the response to COVID-19 is still ongoing, the lessons learnt during the practices can be beneficial to enhance the response mechanisms in coming days. Thus, this study entitled 'Governance for human security: Response to COVID-19 pandemic in Morang district' aims to explore the impact of COVID-19 pandemic and human security-oriented governance. For the cause, case of response to COVID-19 pandemic in Morang district is purposefully taken for the study. The objectives of the study are to examine the federal pattern of response on the issue of human security in Morang district, and to examine the human security issue during the pandemic response in Nepal.

Methodology

This is an empirical paper which incorporates learnings from the involvements of the frontliners in the fight against the COVID-19 pandemic. My personal experiences as the member of the District Security Committee (DSC) Morang are largely fused during arguments since I was posted as the Battalion Commander of Armed Police Force, Nepal Morang from the 2nd August 2019 to 2nd August 2020 that is the initial terrifying period of pandemic. Qualitative meta-analysis of the selected papers massively used to rationalize the outcome of the qualitative data through telephone interview. The interview schedule was semi-structured with most open-ended questions. Morang district as the area of the study was chosen purposefully since the researcher was amongst the frontliners during COVID-19 pandemic. Respondents of the telephone interview, total fifteen in number, were the Mayors/Chairpersons or Deputy Mayors/Deputy Chairpersons of the local levels, political leaders, journalist, Chairperson of the trade association and member of DSC Morang.

Nearly sixty percent of the local levels that is ten out of seventeen in Morang were randomly sampled for the interview. Sampling was done to make fifty percent number of rural municipalities. The sampled local levels were Belbari, Biratnagar, Rangeli, Ratuwamai, Sundarharaicha, Budiganga, Dhanpalthan, Gramthan, Jahada and Miklajung. Among them, fifty percent of the respondents were randomly sampled deputies of the local levels namely Biratnagar, Budiganga, Dhanpalthan, Jahada and Miklajung. District chiefs of two main political parties in Morang were purposively samples for the interview. One chairperson out of three associations of trade and commerce in Morang was randomly sampled. President of Federation of Nepali Journalists (FNJ) Morang was also purposively sampled for the telephone interview. Similarly, a member of DSC Morang was purposively sampled for the interview as he was the only remaining members since other members including the researcher were already transferred.

Human security: Neglected question in academic inquiry in Nepal

‘Security’ as an extensively debated notion is an intricate term to describe. It is not only physical idea but also incorporeal and insubstantial in nature. Existence of security apparatus in many instances does not entail being secured, and sense of security prevails even in the absence of such machinery. Explaining evolving concept of security, Jovanović and Burbiel (2014) opines that the vague concept of security is differently interpreted across and within different societies and cultures, institutions, domains of human activity and academic disciplines. From time immemorial, state-centric concept of security continued overseeing the whole system of statecraft. Territorial integrity, sovereignty and non-interference within the state boundary received traditional security priority. Studying the non-traditional security challenges in different countries, Jovanović et al. (2016) found the challenges such as religious violence, organized crime and cyber-attacks, natural hazards and climate change are common. Here, we see the shifting security paradigm from state to individual.

Highlighting the everchanging security pattern, Hameiri and Jones (2015) argued that security governance today is a loose concept. Governance of non-traditional security threats is neither wholly national nor supranational: it is best described and analyzed as 'spatial'. Prevalence of asymmetric and non-traditional security challenges started bothering human more than those weapon-centric disputes. Time and tides of generations brought 'human being' in the hub of governance naming the conception 'human security' approach.

Eventually, Dr. Mahbub ul Haq as the Special Advisor to United Nations Development Program (UNDP) led the crafting of human development report and officially instituted the concept of human security through Human Development Report, 1994 (Upreti et al., 2013). As per the report, the concept of security has been narrowly construed as the territorial security from external invasion, or defending national interests, or safeguarding from the threat of a nuclear holocaust (UNDP, 1994, p. 22). Security has always been heavily associated with the state than people. Exemplifying the day-to-day human security worries, UNDP (1994) observed ordinary people needing security every day. Security for many of them meant protecting from the threat of disease, hunger, unemployment, crime, social conflict, political repression, and environmental hazards (p. 22). Here, people need protection from these threats which is the goal of human security. Furthermore, the report elaborates human security as the protection of people from chronic threats as hunger, disease, repression, and from disruptions in the patterns of daily life (UNDP, 1994, p. 23).

Subsequently, the concept of human security received global preference. The 2000 UN Millennium Summit made an initiative of an independent Commission for Human Security. According to the report of the Commission on Human Security presented in 2003, definition of human security

is to protect the vital core of all human lives in ways that enhance human freedoms and human fulfilment. It means protecting fundamental freedoms-freedoms that are the essence of life. It means protecting people from critical (severe) and pervasive (widespread) threats and situations. It means using processes that build on people's strengths and aspirations. It means creating political, social, environmental, economic, military and cultural systems that together give people the building blocks of survival, livelihood and dignity (Commission on Human Security, 2003, p. 4).

Highlighting on human security, Commission on Human Security (2003) claims that the concept of human security incorporating non-traditional security threats complements the concept of traditional security that is 'state security'. The concerns of human security are the individual and the community rather than the state, which entails protecting and empowering people simultaneously. Formerly, UNDP (1994) focused on two major components of the human security. First is freedom from fear and the other is freedom from want. These are the two freedoms of President Roosevelt's four freedoms. As per the concept of human security, freedom from fear encompasses using all possible means to protect the people from any form of physical violence. Secondly, freedom of want comprehends economic and social wellbeing of the people by ending poverty and

empowering them to live peaceful and healthy life with dignity. The threats to human security can be incorporated under seven main categories: economic security, food security, health security, environmental security, personal security, community security and political security.

During the study, obtaining academic research papers on human security matters regarding Nepal was indeed arduous. Nevertheless, limited profound dialogues initiated by some scholars are praiseworthy. Writing on the status of human security, Khatiwada (2013) opines that poverty upshot of economic insecurity has been the cause and the result of weak human security condition in Nepal. He further emphasizes on participatory and inclusive development process for the elevation of people's life thus addressing human security. Social protection as the matter of human security keeps pace in Nepal which should be focused more on the disadvantaged people though it is needed for all (KC & Upreti, 2013). Similarly, Ghale and Bishokarma (2013) itemized hunger and food as the significant aspect of human security which is also the part of psychological wellbeing. They recommended Government of Nepal (GoN) to adapt such policy as to ensure food security so that peace can prevail. Likewise, Adhikari (2013) found significant levels of health insecurity in the health sector of Nepal. Health as the substantial factor of human security requires tremendous priority and efforts. Raising another important issue, Upreti (2013) reveals that there are obvious climate change risks that can impact on human security and livelihood of Nepali people. Then after, discussing human security challenges caused by natural and human-made environmental insecurities in Nepal, Khawas (2014) claimed that particularly eastern Nepal is more vulnerable.

Officially, we find few occurrences of the term 'human security' in the endorsed papers. Inclusion of the term alone is insufficient, rather it needs to be imposed through the enforceable strategies. Going to the Constitution of Nepal, Article 51 specifies 'to guarantee the overall human security system' under the policies of the state relating to national unity and national security (Constitution of Nepal, 2015). Similarly, Schedule five of the Constitution enlisted traditional security apparatus on the federal power. Underlyingly, Schedule 6 booked health services, very essential non-traditional security concern, within the list of state power, while Schedule 7 mixes up some non-traditional security matters on the joint part of federation and state power. We can find most of the non-traditional security matters on the responsibility of local levels in Schedule 8 and 9. Later, National Security Policy (2016) placed 'attainment of all-round human security...' among the bases for guiding the National Security Policy of Nepal. At the same time, 'to prioritize human security and to guarantee Nepali people's freedoms from threats and poverty' is included among the working policies in the security policy.

The evolving concept of human security has somehow in progress of poking the way of behaving in Nepal and South Asia as well. South Asia continues fight against hunger, poverty and internal conflicts. Thus, human security becomes more concerned for the region. On this regard, Bhattarai (2013) seems less optimistic opining that human security in South Asia is debated much and implemented less, consequently the region remains most vulnerable. Unlikely, Lahiry (2020) observes the changing narrative of security from

state security to human security in South Asia. For the betterment in the region, Ashraf et al. (2016) focus on the pragmatic argument and justifiable execution of the spirit of human security. As one of the South Asian country, Pakistan similarly clashes with those threats to human security. Researching on the aspects of human security in Pakistan, Sayed (2014) recommended the adoption of human security in actual practice. These days, terror of crime and socioeconomic deficiency are found to be major concerns of human security and people want these daily problems to be solved through policy revision (Zia-ur-Rehman et al., 2014).

Predictably, we can take the case of ‘ten-years long Maoist armed conflict’ as an instance to look upon for what we have done to ensure ‘freedom from fear’ – a prerequisite component of human security. If we probe into the armed conflict, it was also a fight to guarantee ‘freedom of want’ – another component. Today after years, the issue of socioeconomic upliftment remains similar. Unfortunately, the 2015 Earthquake hit Nepal which was an anticipated non-traditional security threat. It is already late 2020 and we are struggling for regaining and reconstruction. Its not just the state, credit or shame equally goes to the academia for commission or omission as pathfinder through the products of rigorous researches on the contemporary issues. However, the concept of human security was introduced long ago, we are lagging behind debating and internalizing its spirit. On this regard, Upreti et al. (2013) encourages reorienting Nepali development plans and policies towards the human security perspective. Likewise, Khatiwada (2013) suggests policy makers in Nepal to incorporate human security into poverty reduction strategies so as to identify risk and vulnerability factors and integrate them into poverty analysis. In conclusion, what we observe in South Asia including Nepal is ongoing surficial arguments rather than factual academic inquiry on the threats to human security we have been encountering today. These challenges to human security will remain unresolved unless we choose to be rational and argumentative during our academic studies.

COVID-19 pandemic in Nepal: A non-traditional adversary of 21st century

The world is terribly affected by the COVID-19 pandemic in many ways and so does Nepal. This unprecedented pandemic outbreak of corona virus disease compels the international community to seriously think about non-traditional security threats we are susceptible to. I observe COVID-19 as ‘a non-traditional enemy of 21st century’ meaning COVID-19 is just one of those anticipated or unanticipated non-traditional security challenges. The world may face severer threat to human security of any nature in future.

Identically, Hameiri and Jones (2015) claimed that the infectious disease has been frequently posing dangerous security threat on a global scale. Discussing on the influenza epidemic, they further argued that non-traditional security issues like this easily cross borders (Hameiri & Jones, 2015; Shafi et al., 2020). Ignited from the Chinese city Wuhan, COVID-19 has reached almost every corner of the globe in very short span of time infecting above twenty-five million and killing more than eight hundred thousand. Dangerously, the statistics goes on increasing and effects too. Studying on the disastrous impact of the pandemic, researchers have usefully shown that such public health issues are

almost invariably rapidly spreading which have the potential ability to proliferate around the world, threatening the global economy (Hameiri & Jones, 2015, p. 124). On top of all, Shafi et al. (2020) claimed that the COVID-19 has created health, economic, political, and social challenges worldwide. Naming the pandemic an ‘invisible, elusive and the advancing enemy’, they opine that corona virus has erected the utmost threat to security for human survival, for which neither individuals nor nations were prepared. Agreeingly, Elbe (2018) describes that infectious diseases have linked health and human security together. Factually, infectious diseases like Spanish flue, SARS, plague, influenza pandemic, Ebola and COVID-19 are now known as horrifying threats to human security. Currently, we have been witnessing the petrifying impacts of the corona virus disease in most of the countries of the world including Nepal.

Presently, Nepal has been fronting the snowballing figure of the infections and deaths due to COVID-19 pandemic. By the end of August 2020, total COVID-19 positive cases were 39460 within the seven months of the detection of first case in Nepal. Among those cases, 45.1 percent were still active, 54.3 percent were recovered and 0.6 percent that is 228 were death cases (MoHP, 2020b).

Morang district: Gateway and state capital of Province No 1

Morang is the second most populous district after Kathmandu with 965,370 population which includes 466,712 male and 498,658 female making 520 density of population per square kilometer (Central Bureau of Statistics, 2011). In addition to the permanent residents of Morang, many people have been dwelling in the district since larger part of the Morang-Sunsari industrial corridor lies in Morang. The district is getting dense as it has been declared as the state capital of Province No 1. With such density of population, Morang remains fifth with 1626 infected case (66.7% male, 33.3% female) in the list of five most infected districts following Kathmandu (total 4522, male 67.8%, female 32.2%), Parsa (total 2309, male 77.6%, female 22.4%), Rautahat (total 1856, male 91.1%, female 8.1%) and Sarlahi (total 1811, male 84.8%, female 15.2%) in Nepal (MoHP, 2020c). Among the infected individuals in Morang, above thirty-three percent are the female becoming the top among those five districts in female mortality rate.

The table 1 below shows the local level-wise distribution of the infected people in Morang. As expected, Biratnagar metropolitan as the furthestmost crowded city in the district has the highest number of infected people of 1069. It is also at the top on the list with 9 deaths due to COVID-19 among those infected persons. Similarly, Rangeli municipality comes at the second position. In spite of being a rural municipality, Budiganga surprisingly possess third place of COVID-19 infections. Kanepokhari has the lowest number of infections sharing the position of single digit infection with Kerabari, Jahada and Gramthan rural municipalities.

Table 1: Local level-wise status of COVID-19 in Morang district as of 31 August 2020

S.N.	Local levels	Infections			Deaths		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1.	Biratnagar Metropolitan 657	412	1069	6	3	9	
2.	Rangeli Municipality 83	41	124	1	-	1	
3.	Budiganga Rural Municipality	74	15	89	1	1	2
4.	Ratuwamai Municipality	77	1	78	-	-	-
5.	Sunbarasi Municipality 59	6	65	1	-	1	
6.	Katahari Rural Municipality	20	21	41	1	-	1
7.	Sundarharaicha Municipality	28	11	39	-	-	-
8.	Dhanpalthan Rural Municipality	22	9	31	-	-	-
9.	Belbari Municipality 13	9	22	-	1	1	
10.	Letang Municipality 11	3	14	1	-	1	
11.	Patharisanischare Municipality	12	2	14	1	-	1
12.	Urlabari Municipality 4	6	10	-	-	-	
13.	Miklajung Rural Municipality	10	-	10	-	-	-
14.	Gramthan Rural Municipality	6	1	7	-	-	-
15.	Jahada Rural Municipality	4	3	7	-	-	-
16.	Kerabari Rural Municipality	3	1	4	-	-	-
17.	Kanepokhari Rural Municipality	2	-	2	-	-	-
	Total	1085	541	1626	11	5	16

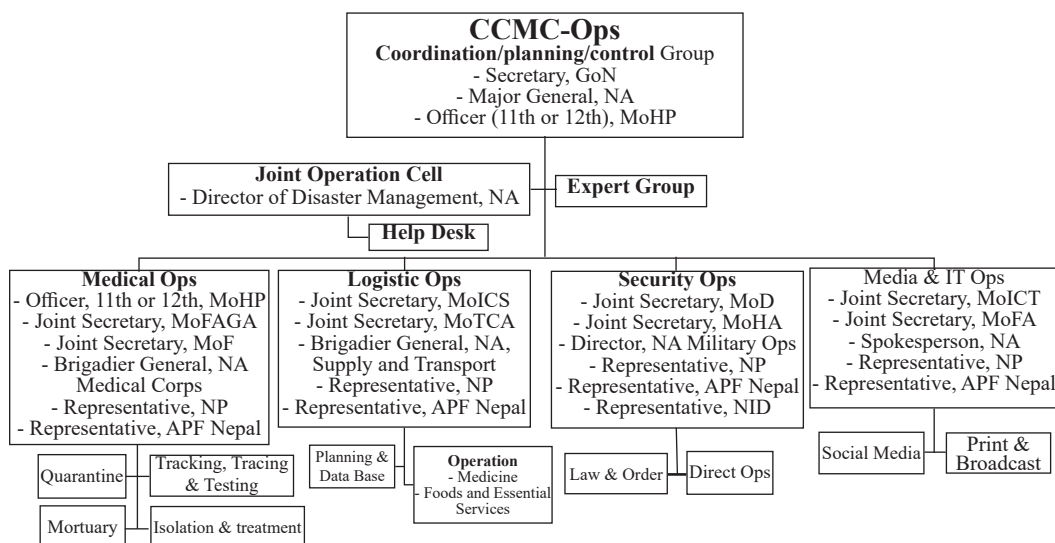
Source: District Administration Office, Morang

As the subtitle expresses, Rani border point in Morang district has been the gateway of the province since it remains one of the entry and exit points in all time decisions of governments of Nepal and India (“Govt Decides to Open Only 10 Border Points,” 2020). As per the data received from Armed Police Force Nepal No. 3 Battalion Headquarters Kankalini Morang, more than five thousand eight hundred Nepalis formally entered Nepal since the GoN decided to close the Nepal-India border. Among them, some were from Morang, whereas most of them were from other districts. As in all the bordering districts, Holding Centers are being operated in Morang district where these incoming Nepalis are provided with lodging and fooding before dispatching them to their respective local levels. During the same period, 6548 Indians left Nepal through Rani checkpoint. At the same time, 7508 individuals were quarantined in various quarantine centers in Morang (APF Nepal Morang, 2020). Most of them are the people coming from abroad. During this period, only 1362 infected persons were kept in the isolation centers because of insufficiency of beds.

Mechanism for responding COVID-19 in Nepal

On 1 March 2020, GoN officially responded to the possible outbreak of COVID-19 pandemic by forming an eleven-member ‘High level coordination committee for the prevention and control of novel corona disease’ coordinated by the Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Defense Ishwar Pokharel (OPMCM, 2020a). The committee was mandated to perform necessary action in order to prevent and control the novel corona disease. Later, on 22 March 2020, cabinet decided to enforce lockdown all over Nepal and close border points from 24 March 2020 as per the Infectious Disease Act, 1964. After a week later, cabinet decided to respond the pandemic through an institutionalized mechanism. For responding the COVID-19 through prevention, control and treatment in rapid, managed and coordinated way COVID-19 Crisis Management Center (CCMC) was constituted on 29 March 2020. Through the same decision, the government formed the High-level Direction Committee under the leadership of Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Defense. Other members of the Direction Committee are Minister of Home Affairs, Minister of Federal Affairs and General Administration, Minister of Health and Population, Minister of Industry, Commerce and Supply, and Minister of Finance. There is a facilitation committee led by the Chief Secretary of the GoN includes Chief of Army Staff, Secretary, Ministry of Home Affairs, Inspector General of Nepal Police, Inspector General of Armed Police Force Nepal, and Chief Investigation Director, National Investigation Department.

Figure 1: Organogram of COVID-19 Crisis Management Center in the Federation



Source: (OPMCM, 2020b)

As presented in the organogram in figure 1, CCMC in the center is coordinated by the Secretary of Office of Prime Minister and Council of Ministers. It has tried to incorporate inputs from subject matter experts when required. There is a joint operation cell accompanied by a help desk to address the public concerns. Here, CCMC has four major sections. First is Medical Operation looking after health-related matters like quarantine,

isolation, tracking, tracing, testing, treatment, mortuary and so on. Second is Logistic Operations that is responsible for supply of essential goods and services. Third one is Security Operations dedicated to maintain law and order, and to resolve other security related issues. Forth and the last is Media and Information Technology Operations accountable for handling media-related activities.

On 6 April 2020, government decided to provide additional responsibilities to some ministers. Seven federal ministers were appointed as the coordinators for seven provinces in order to speed up the campaign against COVID-19 (OPMCM, 2020b). Similarly, CCMC is coordinated by respective Chief Minister at the province level, where other members are Minister of Social Development, Minister of Internal Affairs and Law, Minister of Economic Affairs and Planning, Principal Secretary, Provincial chiefs of Nepali Army, Nepal Police, Armed Police Force Nepal and National investigation Department, and Head of the local level where the Office of Chief Minister and Council of Ministers is located.

At the district level, CCMC is coordinated by the Chief District Officer, which incorporates District Coordination Officer, Members of District Security Committee (District Chiefs of Nepali Army, Nepal Police, Armed Police Force Nepal, National Investigation Department and Assistant Chief District Officer), and Chief of government hospital located in the district headquarters as the members. The chief of District Coordination Committee and the district presidents of Federations of Municipalities and Rural Municipalities are within the advisory group of the CCMC. Similarly, local level CCMC at the lowest level but with the highest significance is composed of Head of the local level, Chief Administrative Officer, Health Coordinator and Representatives of security forces as the members.

In the last week of March 2020, Ministry of Health and Population finalized the a binding document which sets standards for the quarantine centers. The Quarantine operation and management criteria (2020) constituted a 'Quarantine operation and management committee' in the leadership of Assistant Chief District Officer includes Officer representatives from security forces, Medical superintendent of the District Hospital, Representative of Nepal Red Cross, Respective Ward Chairperson, Officer representative of Office of Division Urban Development (If not available, technical representative from local level), and Officer representative of Health Office as member secretary. The Ministry of Internal Affairs and Law of Province No 1 initiated the concept of preparing a 'Holding Area' near to the Nepal-India border for the returnees from India anticipating the mass influx. It became a wonderful concept to minimize the risk of infection by holding the returnees for sometimes before they can be registered and managed in their respective local levels. The federal government later prepared similar action plan for the returnees from third countries. The Joint action plan for the management of the returnees from India (2020) formed the 'Holding Area Operation Committee', which involves Assistant Chief District Officer/Officer representative, Officer representative from Nepali Army, Officer representative from Nepal Police, Officer representative from Armed Police Force Nepal, Officer representative from National Investigation Department, Officer/Doctor representative from Health Office and Chief Administrative Officer/Respective Ward Chairperson as the members.

Human security-oriented governance during COVID-19 pandemic: From the sense of the frontliners

Presenting the policy brief on the impact of COVID-19 in the South-East Asia in this July, United Nations (2020) claims that most of the countries in the subregion responded the pandemic swiftly. It was observed that there was huge impact on health and economy despite the limited spread of the corona virus in comparison with other parts of the world. Lack of essential medical supplies and access to health services to the people living in poverty became common to the affected countries (Caballero-Anthony, 2008). Violence against women and children during the pandemic also remained amongst the issues to be timely addressed. If we talk about the pandemic-hit areas, exceptions can hardly be traced. Let's accept that COVID-19 has somersaulted the world (CCSA, 2020). Millions have lost their livelihoods forcing them to live poor life. The rights of the vulnerable people including women and children are jeopardized (CCSA, 2020; Majee, 2020). Children have been missing their life-saving scheduled vaccinations and education is interrupted. While presenting the statistical perspectives on how the COVID-19 is changing the world, Committee for the Coordination of Statistical Activities (CCSA) claimed that human development has been severely obstructed, and conclusively stated that "the COVID-19 pandemic is not just a health crisis, but also a humanitarian and development crisis that is threatening to leave deep social, economic and political scars for years to come" (CCSA, 2020, p. 44).

Scholars agreeingly conclude that good security governance during the response phase of pandemic plays vital role on ensuring human security. Security governance practices need to be focusing on the enhancing freedom from fear and want. For this, state capacity alone can hardly be pivotal aspect for effectively controlling the spread of COVID-19 infections in order to reinstate normalcy. Excluding very few exceptions, Khorram-Manesh et al. (2020) found infections of corona virus has spread to all countries irrespective of their high or low prosperity, rather higher risk for more prosperous nations to be infected by COVID-19 and consequently higher death rates was observed discarding some exceptions. Human security-oriented response requires wide-ranging activities to address widespread implications of the pandemic. Responses need to be extensive enough to handle assorted impacts of the COVID-19 detrimental to social protection (Summerton, 2020). Discussing on the response approaches during pandemic, Caballero-Anthony (2008) opines that such threats are reinforced by a more holistic approach that is human security approach as our numerous initiatives will remain inadequate. Allison and Taylor (2017) found civil society influencing non-traditional security governance during the emergencies like pandemic.

As Nepal is the new federal state, governments at all levels of the state are exercising federalism through learning by doing. During this novel federal practice, novel corona virus abruptly hit the world and subsequently Nepal. The elected people's representatives as the three-tier governments have been responding the COVID-19 pandemic. Most of the local levels formulated local coordination mechanism for the management of resources so that they were able to immediately distribute the relief items to the indigent people. Some local levels practiced the coordination mechanism even at the Ward level. Most of the

local levels instantly prepared quarantine centers after the request of at least twenty-bed quarantine by district level CCMC. Good example of anticipation of the situation can be taken from the preparation of isolation center by Belbari, Rangeli and Sundarharaicha municipalities in the initial days of pandemic. Subsequently, we observed volunteer agencies, groups and individuals coming forward to share hand in hand with local levels for the relief of the poor population.

After imposing lockdown in the country, essential goods and services were given free access of production and transportation as well. All the interviewees observed one of the good practices that no passes were required for the vehicles used for essential goods and services. Most of the interviewees liked the initial response of the federal government to the COVID-19 pandemic throughout the country with the formation of various mechanisms at all levels of the state. Some local levels tactfully adopted the strategy of identifying the areas under the risk of infection which made them response smoothly. Some of the respondents opine that such strategy might have lessened the possibility of mass outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic as well. Some of the interviewees highly commended the establishment of 'COVID-19 Treatment Center' in Biratnagar, preparation of quarantine centers in Tandi and Gothgaon, and response to pandemic outbreak in Bhulke, Udayapur by the government of Province No 1. Almost all the respondents explained about the problems they faced at the ground regarding insufficient beds in the quarantine and isolation centers, for which federal and state governments should manage or provide local levels resources required to manage.

The Constitution provides the specialized health facilities on the list of federal power, evidently, we observe the referral and specialized hospitals in federation. During the telephone interview, almost all interviewees stated that there would be possibilities of more smooth functioning of the Central Direction Committee if it were constituted in the leadership of the line ministry that is Ministry of Health. This is a health emergency and flowless operational activities can be expected from the mechanism already in place for health facilities, and importantly these mechanisms will always be waiting for the orders from own channel. Health facilities always become inadequate in this type of disastrous conditions even in the countries with good health system (Font et al., 2020). Today, Nepal has been facing terrible paucity of the health facilities and services. In order to cope with such status quo, some interviewees stated that state must formulate the legal provision to use all kinds of health system, be it public or private, in case of emergencies. Similarly, many of the interviewees underlined that there should be such legally binding provision that all the people's representatives from federation, state and local levels must be in the respective electoral constituents in such pandemic situations.

All the interviewees are together imputing the Nepal-India open border as the main reason behind burning infection in Morang. Proper management of the open border in such emergency situation has been one of the prioritized worries of all the interviewees and the public as well. They experienced that dedicated border security force of Nepal namely Armed Police Force Nepal has critical shortfall of resources including lesser numbers of personnel contrasting the porousness of the Nepal-India border.

However, there was the obligation of formulating the response policies rapidly, some of the respondents opine that the policies could have been more action-oriented if it was formulated through ‘bottom-up approach’ as the local levels are facing the problems on the ground. This approach would have given a sense of applied coordination and provided the local levels a space for pragmatic planning. During the telephone interview, most of the respondents emphasized on inclusion of the deputies of within the local level CCMC. As per the ‘Direction on formulation of annual plan and budget at local level, 2018’, deputy of the local level is the important member of the Source Estimates and Boundary Setting Committee, and coordinator of the ‘Committee on Budget and Program Formulation’, ‘Local Revenue Consulting Committee’ and ‘Project Implementation Monitoring and Supervision Committee’ (MoFALD, 2018). In this context, inclusion of the deputy head of the local level in CCMC seems essential for effective decision-making process. During the interview, it was revealed that some of the heads of the local levels invited the deputies in the meetings of the CCMC, but some intentionally took advantage of the absence of their opposing deputies.

Insecurity for person and community

Lockdown and physical distancing have hit vulnerable populations (United Nations, 2020) imposing personal and community insecurity in various forms. We have been witnessing people losing their work and livelihoods, consequently stressing them for survival. As a result, number of self-physical violence has increased (DPO Morang, 2020). Suffering from the traumatic pandemic situation, people have been harming themselves and others. It was experienced that returnees are imposing risk of virus infection. Locals repeatedly made oral complaints of returnees and Indian workers trafficking through Nepal-India border. This creates hazards to others and the persons being trafficked as well. Likewise, the cases of domestic and gender-based violence are going up during COVID-19 pandemic (Wenham et al., 2020).

As the Vice-Chairperson and the Coordinator of Judicial Committee of Rural Municipalities, some of the respondents experienced the scrambling number of domestic violence and rape. Due to the restriction, returnees are gathered from abroad and cities adding the number of unemployed persons at homes. Staying at home demanding for good food items, women cannot afford for they lack food, or they lack money to buy and importantly they are fatigued of working for those stuffs at home. Some of the interviewees witnessed the elected female people’s representatives being the victims of domestic violence at their homes since they are repeatedly going out of the homes in the response to COVID-19 related issues. In such crisis, protection of vulnerable people and groups remains overlooked. Chances of unwanted labour and child labour cannot be denied for the sake of fulfilling basics. Importantly, possibility of identity-based tensions in relief distribution was experienced. Those identities were particularly political, ethnic and religious in nature. Black marketing and adulteration of food items were other bothering issues. Hossain and Islam (2020) found similar kinds of threats to human security erupted due to COVID-19 in South Asia.

Food insecurity: An anticipated fear of hunger

Due to the lockdown and restrictions for long, scarcity of food items was observed. Taking advantage of such crisis, sudden hike of the price added extra sufferings to the general public. Most of the interviewees observed that shopkeepers in the countryside were unethically selling date expired food stuffs. The people already living in the poverty can feel the nightmare of anticipated fear of hunger in pandemic situation. During the COVID-19 pandemic, agriculture and food are most impacted facets of daily life (CCSA, 2020). At this high time, effect of the virus has been for long period. Restrictions have lowered agricultural activities, and at the same time there is serious shortage of required pesticides and fertilizer. This will lead to low productivity which will ultimately threatens food security. Dealing such condition, encouraging policy for home gardening and urban agriculture is found as the good practice in response to the COVID-19 in India (Lal, 2020).

Food is fundamental basis for human security (Ghale & Bishokarma, 2013). Losing jobs due to the COVID-19 pandemic may increase poverty and food insecurity levels. People's ability to afford adequate food has been reduced due to the pandemic (United Nations, 2020). For providing food security, many states have been practicing incentives for the production and distribution of food to socially and economically vulnerable groups (Pereira & Oliveira, 2020). It is observed that at least one foodbank was established in each local level to support the indigent people by the informal groups like youth clubs and associations. These foodbanks received significant support from the industrialists, businesspersons, agencies and individuals ("Food bank for indigent family," 2020; "Food bank in Biratchowk," 2020). Most of the respondents agreed that food distribution to the affected families during the lockdown has been observed as one of the best practices of local levels.

COVID-19 pandemic and health insecurity.

During the COVID-19 pandemic, health related issues have been the threatening challenges for almost all states of the world. Regarding the fears for the human security, generally health comes first (Adhikari, 2013). Nepal as the progressing country has been encountering the paucity of medical supplies, stuffs for testing, and at the top of all budgetary capacity to ensure access to public health services. As experienced, epidemic is among major human security challenges in Nepal (Khawas, 2014). The COVID-19 pandemic has changed the pattern of our behaviour and thinking concerning health facilities. Emerging non-traditional issues compels to consider health not just a medical worry but also a security concern (Caballero-Anthony, 2008). Currently, outbreak of the corona virus has exposed a range of health-related issues like poor hygiene, feeble sanitation, malnutrition, lack of medicines, missing life-saving vaccines, feared health-workers and lack of access to basic healthcare as well. No matter how resilient health system a country has, COVID-19 has hardly hit (Dwinantoaji & DW, 2020). Of course, if one possesses better arrangements, revival and recovery will be relatively faster. That's why, resilient healthcare system has been necessity of the day in the run of response against the COVID-19 (Legido-Quigley et al., 2020). Assessing health security capacity and upgrading timely will be beneficial at the time of pandemic. Evidences illustrate that health security capacity of the state has direct correlation with the impact of response (Kandel et al., 2020).

Essential goods and services: Least prioritized, must required

As time passes, definition of essential goods and services is expanded to include more comprehensive items in the list. The things which were additional facilities yesterday are essential today due to the changing pattern of human life. Significant disturbances were repeatedly reported even though freedom of movement for the people of essential goods and services was allowed during the lockdown and restrictions. For instance, poultry farmers were distressed and complaining frequently that transportation of the basic supplies including feeds was recurrently disturbed due to the lockdown (Poudel, 2020). During the lockdown, it was experienced that the supply chain was disrupted (CCSA, 2020). People were forced to take risk of infection to purchase their items of everyday use which include indispensable clothing, home accessories and appliances including kitchen to bathroom items, and healthcare equipment, goods and services in addition to the basic need for survival. Services like telecommunication, television and internet play significant part for stress management of the people containing at homes during pandemic. We also observed during the COVID-19 pandemic food production and distribution chains were negatively affected consequently reducing the poor people's access to food, where inequalities already prevail in the society (Pereira & Oliveira, 2020).

Locked economy: Cause of unemployment and poverty

Exposing the devastating characteristics of the non-traditional threats like COVID-19 pandemic in their book, Shahar Hameiri and Lee Jones rightly claimed that “invariably rapidly spreading infectious diseases have the potential ability to proliferate around the world, threatening the global economy” (Hameiri & Jones, 2015, p. 158). We have been witnessing the locked global economy as a result of closed businesses, industries, markets and trade. Tourism industries are badly traumatized due to the COVID-19 pandemic (Ulak, 2020). Workers were locked in their places of stay even if the industries were resumed. In such situations, unemployment is expected to increase (United Nations, 2020). Workers lost their employment opportunities eventually pushing them into poverty. At this juncture, we need to remember that poverty is a threat to human security (Khatiwada, 2013). Similarly, most of the respondents experienced that lockdown has impacted not only the individual public but also the traders, businesspersons and industrialists making them deeply think about continuation of their business. Such economic situation ultimately poses implications to the national and global economy.

Discussion

Consequential challenges to human security during pandemic as discussed in the subheadings above were personal, community, health, food and economic insecurity. These threats cannot be discussed or resolved in isolation since each of these have indispensable interlinkages to other. Meaning ensuring personal security somehow requires community or health or food or economic security simultaneously. That is why ensuring human security is possible through wholistic approach.

Agreeingly, security of persons from any kind of physical harm during pandemic involves joint efforts of the individuals, community, civil society, local levels, health authority and district security mechanism. Similar combined efforts are essential to deal with the threats to community security. In dealing with such non-traditional challenges to human security, government effort alone always remains inadequate. As an example, a local journalist initiated stopping the trafficking of workers from India to Nepal in Bhediari area of Biratnagar 18. Locals, ward office, local police, Armed Police Force Nepal and local administration jointly responded to the scenario which obviously demoralized the traffickers. Avoiding identity-based partiality during distribution of the relief food items in the community is necessary in order to maintain peace which can be practiced through cooperative approach. In such pandemic condition, partialities and inequalities are expected to reduce through political solidarity and commitment to social welfare (Pereira & Oliveira, 2020).

Another significant aspect of human security is health and we observed how it is interrelated by infectious diseases like COVID-19. Health crisis can create chaos when not handled well. Today's ongoing global debate is about whether to prioritize health or economy. Policymakers and politicians may line up economy at front but inevitability of trade-offs between health and economy need to be accepted from a wellbeing perspective (Donaldson & Mitton, 2020). As mentioned earlier, the Constitution of Nepal provides intermingling health responsibility to tri-tiered governments. As the result, mix model of response as conferred in the constitution during the pandemic is being practiced. Most of the respondents of the interview foresee amendments on the system of health budget allocation during such pandemic as local levels are the understandable contact places of the day-to-day public problems. All of the heads of the local levels expect upgrading the healthcare facilities of the local governments so that they will not be waiting for the supports from province or center. Yes, the presence of elected local government proved its significance in the critical time of pandemic as agreed by all the interviewees, but interviewees other than from local levels are together with the existing health system of keeping specialized and referral facilities in the federation for its possible ineffectiveness due to over localization. So, total dependency on the decentralized response mechanism at the local level may not bring expected results and consequently infections may upsurge with subsequent high mortality rate. Presenting Italian experience, Font et al. (2020) found evidences consistence with the idea that the decentralized model may have exacerbated the effects of the pandemic. Rather, they illustrated their argument using evidence for the Covid-19 pandemic outbreak which calls for the development of coordination mechanisms at times of a health emergency. Primarily, information sharing and coordination among working agencies is required for swift response (Font et al., 2020).

As per the record of the District Police Office Morang, the number of the registered suicide cases is 68 and 136 in second and third quadrimester of the fiscal year 2076/077 BS (DPO Morang, 2020). Here, later represents the four months of lockdown when cases of suicide are doubled. During the same period, the cases of rape were 37 in the second quadrimester which increased to 54 in the first four months of lockdown period. At this point, experiences of the heads and deputies of the local level as expressed during telephone

interview are corresponding to the record. Agreeingly, the circumstances resulted from the restrictions due to the COVID-19 pandemic have been friendly for the commission of the social crimes. It also reveals that public mental health is seriously impacted during the period.

Wide-ranging impact on global economy has been the salient feature of the COVID-19 pandemic, that is a non-traditional adversary of 21st century. We observed the implications extending from individual to institution due to the locked economy. Integrated efforts of the state and non-state actors including informal groups remained impressive facilitation for responding to provide relief to the people under poverty. Food distribution to the needy people by individuals, groups, agencies and state actors has been counted among the good practices. In times of pandemic like COVID-19, nontransparent or less transparent economic decisions and implementations at all levels of government push the frontliners into public interrogation. Even the effective result-based response of the state is shaded many times due to the questions on the practices of governance. Thus, swift response mechanism needs to be accompanied by the good practices of the government.

While exercising the authorities of the CCMC at local levels, some of the deputies were completely excluded from the decision-making process just because of the constitution of the mechanism in paper. Many of the Mayors and Chairpersons of the local levels have included their deputies as the assistant coordinator of CCMC inviting their constructive inputs during planning and execution process. Since, binding documents for the local levels have provided significant and dynamic role to the deputies, they should be legally included to make the mechanism more comprehensive and efficient, and most of the interviewees are together in this regard. Most of the respondents of the interview opined that CCMC at the center could have been more effective and efficient if it were led by health ministry. Rigorous involvement of the line ministry is assumed by its lower units since this is a health emergency.

Does the Nepal-India open border really form feeble atmosphere to explode the infections of COVID-19? Six local levels of Morang are adjoining to Nepal-India border. Ratuwamai municipality shares the longest part of seventeen kilometers amongst them. Similarly, Jahada rural municipality shares fifteen kilometers, Dhanpalthan nine point two, Rangeli nine, Biratnagar eight and Sunbarsi five kilometers of total 63.2. If we see in the table 1 above, we do not find correlation between the rate of infections and the exposure to border in the local levels. For example, Jahada as the bordering local level with kilometers has significantly low rate of infections and at the same time, Rangeli has higher rate despite of narrower attachment to Nepal-India border. But, as per most of the interviewees, lesson learnt for Nepal is that we should have the adequate capacity and border security system so that border can be completely controlled during emergencies. Interviewees claimed that Morang and Parsa have mounting rate of infection because there are the busy border points for the transportation of goods from India. Dissimilarly, Rupandehi and Banke have only 1014 and 1022 infected individuals within the same period of time in spite of having similar border points.

Conclusion

Federal pattern of response is being instigated for the first time in the pandemic situation in Nepal. As experienced, 'learning by doing' was the optionless approach for all response mechanisms. At such juncture, the question is whether we are able to adapt good practices as learnt in the course of implementations. Though the initial responses including lockdown from the federal government for the containment of COVID-19 infection were appreciated, the space gained for the preparations could not be fully utilized. Consequently, lack of beds in the quarantine and isolation centers, and paucity of healthcare materials including personal protective equipment even for the frontline health workers remain bothering issues. Formation of the response mechanisms at all required levels has been an intense idea for governance, but these mechanisms can be made more efficacious and operative. The CCMC in the federation may be more practical and functional when led by the Ministry of Health since the line ministries need to be at the frontline of decision-making and implementation in such pandemic situation. Similarly, Deputy Mayor or Deputy Chairperson of the local levels are to be incorporated in the CCMC at local levels due to the lively character of the deputies provided by the policies.

Response to the COVID-19 pandemic at local level was found above the level of available resource with the all-round support they have been getting, yet it seems essential of resourcing local levels through adjustment on budget allocation system during pandemic like COVID-19. Involvements taught the frontliners that bottom-up approach of planning will be pragmatic to identify and analyze the real requirement at the ground. Few local levels have taken the non-traditional initiative of 'infection risk mapping' which benefitted their response in case of outbreak of the infection. All of the respondents urged to strengthen border security machinery to prevent illegal crossings during such emergencies.

Another crucial objective of the study was to probe the threats to human security experienced during the COVID-19 pandemic in Morang district. Evidences verified that pandemic situation emerged challenges to human security resulting insecurity especially to person, community, health, food and economy. At this high time, swift response of the dedicated mechanisms is exceedingly demanded. Combined efforts of state and nonstate actors may ease the fight against such threats to human security. In times of health emergencies like COVID-19 pandemic, good practices in economic decisions and executions of those decisions at all levels of government surely boost the response mechanism.

For this study, qualitative meta-analysis method with telephone interview was used to rationalize the arguments, but any specific theoretical framework was not followed. Researching to develop a theoretical framework that can be used to study human security during pandemic such as COVID-19 can lure some scholars. Human security during the disaster particularly the COVID-19 pandemic is studied but important question 'can it be generalized in the other disaster situations?' remains unanswered. For this, studying 'status of human security after the 2015 Nepal Earthquake' can be an interesting area of research. One more noteworthy issue raised during the discussion 'whether open Nepal-India border has been detrimental to COVID-19 infection control or not ?' can be another question to explore.

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**Examination Of Household Evacuation Influencing Factors In Flood Disaster:
(A Case Study of Saptari Flood in Nepal)**

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Abstract

Disaster, a serious disruption in functioning of society whether by natural or manmade cause can happen anywhere. Devastating seismic, hurricane, flood, drought and fire are major disaster. Mitigating disaster risk, prompt rescue and timely evacuation decision during such disaster can prevent loss of lives and properties. The evacuation decision is the choice of people to stay away from the area of risk. The study analyzes the people's perception of evacuation decisions in a flood disaster in the Saptari district of Nepal affected by Koshi River and other tributaries of it as a Disaster Risk Management. According to United Nations (2016), Management refers to "the organization, planning and applications of measure preparing for, responding to and recovering from disasters". From the flood-affected site, 246 people were randomly selected for this study and examined the factors influencing evacuation decision-making. The study analyzes the past experiences of the people and their perception. The study has explored that Gender, Destination of evacuation, warning condition, reasons for not evacuating, education, age, proximity to the River from residence, land ownership, the capacity of the people are the factors examined and found no any association with the people's decision on evacuation during the flood disaster in affected areas in Saptari district. These findings help the student, Disaster Risk Reduction field, Government policy makers and different actors to minimize the loss of lives and properties. The study also recommends for future research on victim's evacuation decision-making capability in different flood-prone area of Nepal.

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Introduction

Disaster can be defined as a serious disruption of the functioning of a society, causing widespread human, material, or environmental losses, which exceed the ability of the affected society to cope by using only its own resources. (UNISDR, 2009). As per causality Disasters, are natural or manmade. The major disasters are an earthquake, epidemics, flood, landslide, volcanic eruptions, gas leakage, fire, heat and glacier lake outburst etc. Climate changed, rapid urbanization, migration and environmental degradation and exposed populations to greater risks to events and their impacts (Djalante, Holley, & Carnegie, 2013; in Raikes, Smith, Jacobson, Baldwin, 2019).

The natural disasters like Earthquakes, Landslides, Floods, Hurricane etc., have become the recurring disasters all over the world. Nepal is also vulnerable to the natural and manmade disaster. Every year there is a loss of huge number of lives and property. Every year, Nepal is facing landslides, earthquakes, windstorms, hailstorms, fires, floods, droughts, and risk of glacial lake outburst floods (MOHA, 2018, p. 1). Mostly the low land part of the country has been affected by flood damaging productive agricultural fields, and causing the loss of lives and properties as well.

Due to the geographical structure, plain region of Terai are mostly affected by floods which is the most common of the natural disasters, gravely affecting the life of humans and the environment. The major floods of Kosi River in 2008 and other subsidiary Rivers have affected almost every parts of Terai region during monsoon season. During the rainy season, most of the districts of Terai are affected. Flood disaster management implies not letting the overrun of water flow suddenly and intensely in the drainage network. After the unprecedented floods of 1954, flood management works were taken up in a planned manner ... (Mohita, n.d.). Some of the major steps of flood disaster management are: (1) Flood Forecasting; (2) Reduction of Runoff; (3) Reducing Floods Peaks by Volume Reduction (Constructing Dams and Detention Basins) ; (4) Reducing Flood Levels ; (5) Protection Against Inundation (Construction of Embankment) ; and (6) Flood Plain Zoning (Mohita, n.d.) .

Nepal is part of the Himalaya-Ganga, the generic name for a high land-low land interactive system consisting of the highest mountain chain on this planet (Verghes, 1990; in Dixit, 2003). The extreme behavior of nature ranges from sudden and high intensity monsoon rain falls to shift of continental plates. More than 6,000 Rivers and streams are flowing from north to south in In the Himalaya-Ganga the variety of topographic and the climatic types contain and abundance of ecological niches harboring widely diverse species of flora and fauna. During the monsoon cloudburst, landslides, mass movements and the flash floods are common in mountain (Dixit, 2003). Among these, the snows fed perennial River basins are the Koshi, Narayani, Karnali, and Mahakali. During the monsoon (June-September), the Rivers flow increased which cause damage to the settlements, crop lands, people and livestock. The reasons of floods are natural as well as manmade (World Bank, 2012, p. 80).

These Disasters has a risk factor of potential losses in livelihoods, properties and services in a particular community or society over some specified time period. Disaster risk is the product of the possible damage caused by a hazard due to the vulnerability within a community. It should be noted that the effect of a hazard would affect communities differently (Von, 1999, P.35). The level of the coping mechanisms and resilience capacity of society depends on the risk factor. Therefore, Poor communities are in more risk than developed communities.

It is worldwide accepted that only effective disaster preparedness can reduce the impact of the disaster and risk. One of the significant components in the Disaster risk management (DRM) is an evacuation plan. It develops to ensure the safest place and protect the property and lives in danger. The negligence or unfamiliarity of the evacuation plan by people in disaster affected zone has caused many people to lose their lives. Not realizing the importance of evacuation plan people at risk could not decide either to evacuate or not even though they receive the warning message timely.

In recent years, there have been lots of efforts done by Government of Nepal to reduce the increasing risks associated with floods and other disaster. Timely evacuation of victims is an important action as a mitigation measure to decrease the amount of damage caused by floods. Rapid evacuation is an important factor as experienced in Koshi floods in year 2008 and other natural disaster in the past. Early warning system, increasing awareness, timely response and experience can prevent a huge loss of life and property.

The researcher tries to explore the perception of people about the evacuation in the flood disaster affected areas in Saptari district. In this research paper, the authors examine the essential factors influencing the decision to take evacuation by the people resided in the Saptari district and affected by the Koshi River. The factors identified are categorized in disaster risk management concepts, including risk assessment, risk information, and risk perception. Risk perception is an essential factor in deciding a flood hazard. Kaspersen et al. (1988) stated that risk is calculated based on the probability of events and magnitudes of the specific consequences, but the risk perception revealed the person's conception of risk that influences the risk, familiarity with the risk, and public responses to hazards.

Still there is a room for in-depth research on people's evacuation behaviour to identify the crucial factors that lead people to make decision. These findings from the study help policymakers, DRM planners, Social scientists, and government bodies to better understand what is happening during flood disasters with people at risk and make better evacuation plans accordingly. Golshani (2019) experienced that effective evacuation strategies are vital to alleviate the damage and fatality caused by disasters. It helps predict the public responses or their evacuation behaviour and optimize the evacuation procedure from the affected areas.

Review of literature

Sendai Framework (2015) articulates the following: the need for improved understanding of disaster risk in all its dimensions of exposure, vulnerability and hazard characteristics; the strengthening of disaster risk governance, including national platforms; accountability for disaster risk management; preparedness to “Build Back Better”; recognition of stakeholders and their roles; mobilization of risk-sensitive investment to avoid the creation of new risk; resilience of health infrastructure, cultural heritage and work-places; strengthening of international cooperation and global partnership, and risk-informed donor policies and programs, including financial support and loans from international financial institutions. There is also clear recognition of the Global Platform for Disaster Risk Reduction and the regional platforms for disaster risk reduction as mechanisms for coherence across agendas, monitoring and periodic reviews in support of UN Governance bodies.

When the flow of water increases in River canal beyond their carrying capacity, flood will occur. Flood is a great flow of water, causing overflow and inundation (Chambers, 1981 cited in Fleming & Frost, 2002, p. 1). Flood is covered with water especially in a way that causes problems. Generally, flood is unusual and rapid growth of water which occur mainly due to heavy rainfall or flash flood unable to manage excess water in its water course.

Nepal’s fragile geological conditions, topographical extremities, climatic extremities and seismic activities, population growth, poverty, illiteracy, deforestation, in proper land use changes and developmental activities such as infrastructure construction and urbanization are making it vulnerable to several natural disasters. Heavy rainfall in central and eastern regions of Nepal during 19-21 July, 1993 had disastrous consequences with heavy loss of life and property as well as damages to infrastructures by floods, landslides and debris flows. In 1993, 87 % of the total deaths of human life occurring in the country had resulted from floods and landslides. (Yogacharya, 2008, p.1).

Government of Nepal has developed various legal and institutional arrangements to develop an umbrella policy for Disaster Risk Reduction plan taking into account of the lessons learnt and experiences gained from the past experiences. In this context, recently approved and enacted Local Government Operation Act 2017 and Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Act 2017, are the latest major legal arrangements. In addition, Natural Disaster Relief Committees established from the center to the local level as per the law, various agencies and institutes of the Government of Nepal can be taken as important institutional arrangements. (MOHA, 2018, p.3). These new arrangements will help to reduce potential risks in disaster.

There are more than 6000 Rivers and streams flow with high velocity from the north towards the south in Nepal (Poudyal, 1999). During the monsoon season, heavy rainfall occur which causes destructive flood, landslide and debris flow. Unplanned settlements and physical constructions without due consideration to the natural hazards are prime reasons of aggravating destruction. Each year such types of disasters cause the losses of high number of human life and properties.

Methodology

This study concerns human behaviour using the survey method. The survey interview was structured to focus on three topics: individual information including demographic and socio-economic characteristics and experience with evacuation drills. This research aimed to examine the evacuation decision among households in flood disasters. The study explored the perception and responses of household members resided in frequently occurring of flood disasters in the Saptari district in Nepal.

The sample of 246 households has selected and field survey has been conducted during September to October 2018. The Descriptive survey method applied in this research. Sampling was selected randomly and household survey was conducted in the selected sites.

Data collection and analysis

The primary data was collected with the interview from the household survey. The interview was used to gather qualitative data about the previous experience of evacuation decision. The secondary data was collected consulting other related expertise. Reports of Nepal government bodies, national and international organisation, books, journals, research paper, magazines, newspaper and online materials were used as secondary sources of information. Qualitative data analysis has been used to interpret the results of this study. Data analysis involved the interpretation of data and analysed through use of statistical tools.

Results and discussions

The assessment survey interview was conducted in Saptari district mostly with the people in flood vulnerable area. The focused group was interviewed focusing their decision making and their perception on evacuation based on their gender, age, location, occupation, education, family type, and socio-economic status.

Demography of Saptari district

Saptari is situated at outer Terai districts in province no 2. The district covers an area of 1,363 square km. According to the census, the number of population is 639,284 which make it the 10th most populated district of Nepal (CBS, 2012). Economy is largely dependent on agriculture and remittances. Saptari is renowned for its agricultural output and is bordered on the east by the massive Koshi River.

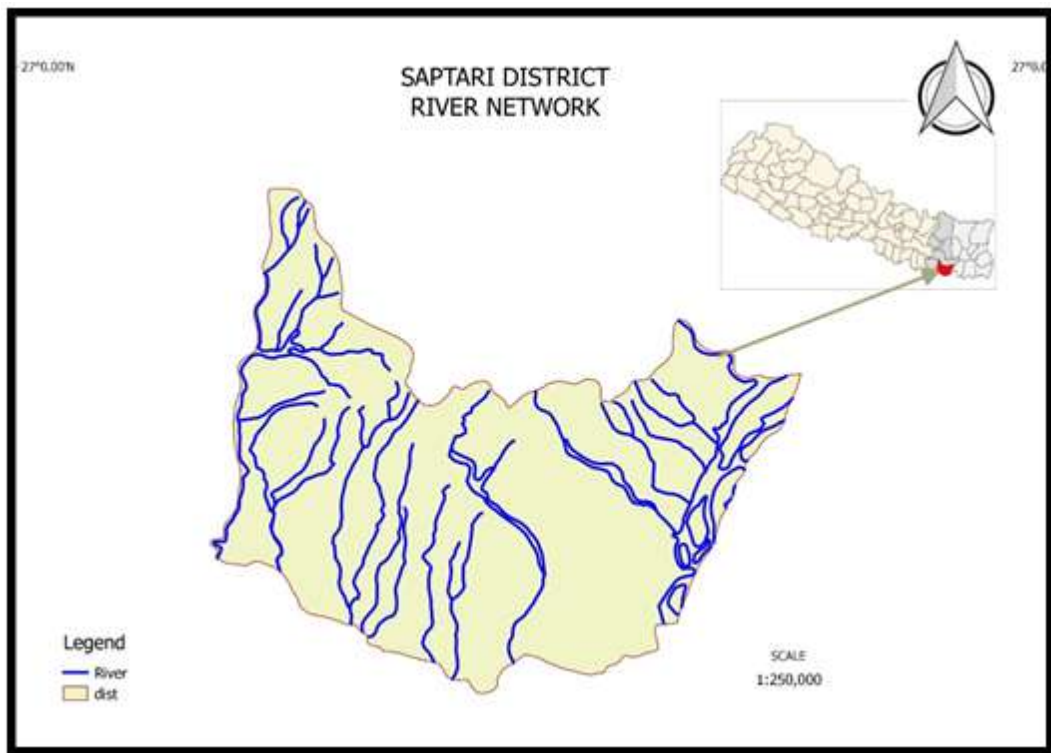


Figure 1 Study Area, Saptari District, Source:-Digitized Google Map by Researcher

Koshi is a trans-boundary River which flows through Tibet, Nepal and India. It drains the northern slopes of the Himalayas in Tibet and the southern slopes in Nepal. Koshi River is located in the eastern part and provides irrigation to the Saptrai district. The district is receiving flood from the major Koshi River and many tributaries like Sundari Khola (River), Triyuga, Mahuli, Balan, Bhutani, Khadak, Sutani, Kazara, Ghodadah, and Bhaluwahi, which brings devastating flood causing substantial financial losses and disturbs the human lives. The flash flood in Khado Rivers continuously affected the adjacent villages, Launiya, Tilathi, and other villages. These villages were taken for the study purpose. Most of the villages in Saptari district flooded every year due to heavy rainfall in the upstream mountains. The flood caused severe damage to infrastructures, standing crops and livestock. The Siwalik ranges have been heavily deforested, encroached, and deteriorating the monsoon, causing flash floods in the central-southern part of the Saptari district.

The breach of the Koshi embankment occurred during the summer flood in 2008. The flood discharge on 18 August 2008 was about $4,250 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ at the time of the breach occurred (UNESCO, 2009). The breach of the eastern embankment of the Koshi Barrage at Paschim Kusaha Village of Sunsari, created havoc for population living around Sunsari and Saptari district.

Risk perception

Table 1 summarized the risk perception among gender, influencing the evacuation decision each category's frequency displayed in the table.

Table 1 Respondents Evacuation Decision

Gender (N=246)	Evacuation Decision		Total
	Yes	No	
Male	(22) 9.4%	(213) 90.6%	(235) 100%
Female	(1) 9.1%	(10) 90.9%	(11) 100%

Source: Own Research

Out of a total of 235 male respondents, 9.4% of respondents took quick decisions to evacuate from the place of residence during a flood disaster after receiving a warning message from different sources. The rest of the male respondents (90.6%) did not seem able to make an appropriate decision regarding evacuation. The data revealed that most of the male respondents could not take the evacuation decision. Similarly, among the female respondents, 9.1% of the female decided towards the evacuation, while 90.9% could not make any decision. The majority of Males and Females in the study area could not decide for the evacuation during a flood disaster.

From a gender perspective, 95.7% Male and 4.3% of the female respondents decided to evacuate during the disaster, respectively. Comparing the data among the decision-makers during the evacuation, the majority of men can decide on evacuation in comparison to females. On the other hand, within the group of respondents not making a decision, the majority of males (95.5%) rather than females (4.5%) have a negative approach to evacuation decisions.

Information sources deciding on evacuation during flood

The warning messages have been received from either Meteorological Department or Ministry of Home Affairs (Chief District Office) or Neighbours or from Social Media, or broadcasted through different media (Mobile cell phone companies through SMS, Radio, TV, Local Government Agencies, I/NGOs) in the context of Nepal. With the coordination of Mobile cell phone companies (NTC & NCELL), Government of Nepal started disseminating warning messages through mobile phones. Other sources of communication are relatives and peoples living in upstream.

Similarly, when the water level reaches a danger level, the trained person gives signal erecting a red flag showing alertness to the people at risk. Some of the sources available to the rural people in flood-affected areas were taken for study purposes, as tabulated below.

Table 2 Information Source of flood Disaster

Trust on Information of Sources to decide for evacuation	Responses		Percent of Cases
	N	Percent	
Religious Leader	1	0.1%	0.4%
Local Leaders	218	24.5%	88.6%
Relatives	233	26.2%	94.7%
TV/Radio	14	1.6%	5.7%
Local Volunteers	164	18.4%	66.7%
Mobile Phone SMS	14	1.6%	5.7%
Flag	246	27.6%	100.0%
Total	890	100.0%	361.8%

Source: Own Research

The respondents mostly got information regarding the flood disaster from observing the flag, relatives, local authority and local leaders. The erection of the flag on the Koshi Dam is still active when the water level reaches the danger level. Out of 246 respondents, 100% believed that they observed or got the information about the erection of the flag and made a decision whether evacuate or not. A total of 94.7% of the respondents received a message from their relatives regarding the flood situation information. Similarly, 88.6% of the respondents believed that they got a warning message from the Local leaders.

Evacuation destination

It is widely known that evacuation destination can affect their decision making and the same logic can be applied to decision making regarding evacuation in an emergency caused by a Flood.

Table 3 Evacuation Destination identified

Evacuation identified by the Respondents	Destination	Responses
	N	Percent
On the Road	31	12.6%
On Embankment	119	48.4%
Nearby School	28	11.4%
Relative Houses	60	24.4%
Religious Places	2	0.8%
Government Located place	6	2.4%
Total	246	100%

Source: Own Research

Findings from the table 3 showed that out of 246 respondents, 48.4% of the respondents willing to take the shelter at the embankment during the flood. Meanwhile, 24.4% of the respondents used nearby schools and relatives house as a shelter in which the plinth level is high to prevent flooding. Similarly, 12.6% had found the nearby road a refuge during the flood if they had to evacuate.

It is imperative to gain prior knowledge or experience of evacuation places or information delivered by the authority about such plan. Families could not take the proper evacuation decision when they don't know the evacuation route and destination. The household's evacuation choice is statistically associated with the origin, destination, attitude, number of buildings and number of designated shelters. Hence, they confirmed that the evacuation destination and safe route plays a vital role in deciding on evacuation.

Reasons not to evacuate

There are various reasons not to evacuate during the flood disaster. Mostly, disabled people are not able to evacuate themselves in an emergency. Baker (1991) suggested that to understand the people's evacuation decision, it is important to know the household's perception of reasons not evacuate. The reason for not evacuation may vary so that the multi-choice responses survey was conducted. Therefore, the reasons for not taking evacuation decisions are tabulated below.

Table 4 Reasons not to evacuate during flood disaster

Reasons Not to Evacuate	Responses		Percent of Cases
	N	Percent	
Too far Evacuation Destination	177	15.4%	72.0%
Huge crowd in Evacuation Place	218	19.0%	88.6%
No access to the Evacuation Place	233	20.3%	94.7%
Not enough time to go for evacuation	200	17.4%	81.3%
Insecure or Lack of Safety	164	14.3%	66.7%
Theft of own property when leaving the house	155	13.5%	63.0%
Total	1147	100.0%	466.3%

Source: Own Research

Some of the reasons not to evacuate in the Saptari flood presented in Table 4. The table analysed the responses and cases for reasons not deciding for evacuation during the flood. The total responses (1147) and each case wise responses are presented. The percentage of cases gives the findings of each case as specified. 20.3% of the responses indicated access to the evacuation place obstructed by the flood water and unable to reach there. 19.0% of the responses found huge crowded in the evacuation sites, so they were not willing to take shelter in the crowded evacuation place. 17.4% of the responses showed that they had

no time to evacuate with their belongings. They took place in the safe areas in their own houses. Similarly other responses, 15.4% indicated evacuation place too far from their residence, 14.3% of responses came for insecurity or lack of safety in the unknown places, and 13.5% of the responses came that they could not leave their houses due to theft of their property. The majority of responses fall on no access to the evacuation sites followed by the crowded environment in evacuation places and insufficient time to prepare for the evacuation.

Other factors

The people feel secure when they did not get a real threat or warning about the flood disaster. The source of warning may be from officials, leaders and friendship through different means. The family perceived the real warning, then only they decide to evacuate. The majority of the literature concluded that the larger the perceived threat, the greater the probability of deciding on evacuation.

The old aged person and children decide to evacuate quickly(Fischer, et al., 1995, p. 35). But in the case of the Saptari district, the majority of all aged group people could not take evacuation decisions on time. The old aged, sick people cannot be evacuated at the time of flood warnings and other family members could not discard them which hampered evacuation. When an extended family is poorly organized, they couldn't decide timely.

The other factor considering for evacuation decision is based with the proximity of the respondents' residence from the nearby Rivers. Meanwhile, 92% of the respondents failed to decide regarding evacuation having their residences more than 100 m to 500 m, and 90% of the respondents seem not able to make a decision even their residents are less than 500 m from the spot. Hence, perception and belief of the inhabitants to decide evacuation play role during the flood.

94% of the respondents among the land owners and 89% of the non-landholder also did not take any decision regarding the evacuation during the flood disaster as well. It means there is no influence of landholding with the evacuation decision. They might think that they can diverged the flood water with their presence during the flood and take initiation to protect their land. The landless people have a fear of encroachment the land by others.

Another factor that showed the relation between the Disaster risk reduction (DRR) training received and their capability to make evacuation decisions. Among the DRR training received respondents, 52% answered that they took evacuation decisions while rest was unable. Similarly, from the respondents who did not receive any DRR training, 94% could not decide on evacuation. It gives the scenario that DRR training plays a vital role in deciding on the evacuation.

Conclusion

Socio-economic status, such as household income and housing type could be critical factors associated with making evacuation decisions; high-income earners are more likely to evacuate. Evacuation decision is an important component in planning. It helps in reducing the loss of lives and properties and saves substantial financial losses. Therefore, careful examination of the factors influencing the evacuation decision must be done. But the perception of peoples at risk varies from place to place, on level of risks, type, and nature of the disaster, which may vary the impacts on the people, and ultimately the evacuation decision, may vary. In this study, the authors examine the household's evacuation decision that may be influenced by different factors in households residing in the Saptari district and impacted by the flood from the Koshi River and its tributaries flowing through these areas.

The findings emerged from examining various variables Gender, Evacuation destination, reason not to take evacuation decision, education, age, distance from the spot to residents, family types, and DRR training received. The evacuation decision depends upon the individual perceptions, personnel situation, individual characteristics, and how and in what condition the information is perceived. But the individual perception also depends upon the previous experience of the disaster, which builds their capacity to assess flood risk. The reliability and validity of past warning messages from the different sources are also important in the evacuation decision-making. Most people do not believe whether forecasting because the message gives the probability of rainfall events and not the real risk that may happen. Hence, people do not take it seriously. They mostly depend upon the message received from friends and their relatives.

Similarly, the perception of individuals may vary from person to person. But in the study area, people are always at risk of flood, and every year they received flood disaster, the factors did not influence the evacuation decision making. Hence, further additional research regarding evacuation plans based on risk perception, risk information, and risk communication must be conducted in all disaster-prone areas to generalize the above results.

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Dichotomies in Understanding of Peace in Nepal

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Abstract

In Nepal, the decade long armed conflict between 1996 and 2006 has become the buzz word in most social sciences literatures. Since 2007, 'peace' has emerged as essential component of the academic courses and training manuals. Against this backdrop, this paper focuses on the understanding of "Peace" in local context of Nepal. This paper compares the various definitions of peace from western and eastern intellectual perspectives, examines the literatures on how they depict Nepal's peace process, and includes a brief history of peace studies as discipline in Nepal. Methodologically, this is a reflection based paper evolved from qualitative eclectic approach. The researcher has used axial coding and domain analysis. This paper concludes that the epistemological roots of conflict and peace studies are under-researched in Nepali context. The influence of Maoist armed conflict is very dominant in peace studies literatures which have missed to produce the comparative-historic indigenous writings on Nepal.

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Context

Nepal experienced a decade long armed conflict and ended with the comprehensive peace accord in 2006. Even after the official end of the armed conflict, Nepal observed various political instability and notable civil unrests. The diverse ethnic and minority groups have been calling for inclusion in mainstream politics which were linked to provisions of the peace agreements and constitution writing process. In 2015, in response to a long instability, Nepal became a federal state with a number of powers devolved to 753 new local governments have received several important powers; including regulating education and health care (Timalina, 2017:70). After the new constitution, Nepal's politics has become more stable. Nepal was featured for low economic growth, social inequality, limited development progress and widespread poverty over the 20 years in various literatures. Nepal's economic growth has only grown between 2 % and 4 % per year, which reached 6 % to 7 % in late 2010s until the COVID-19 pandemic hit the economy (Nepal Rastra Bank, 2020). Now the national conversation has been dominated by state restructuring around the constitutional provisions, access to basic services and civic and political participation.

Since 2007, 'peace' has emerged as essential part of the national school curriculum, university courses and the training manuals of the civil society organizations. It is evident that the concept itself is trying to serve the immediate need of the post-conflict society. Referring to the several conversations with Prof. Dr. Ramesh Raj Kunwar, former Dean at Faculties of Humanities and Social Sciences, Tribhuvan University, Nepal has 'concept' of peace in curriculum, but it has rarely captured our indigenous notion of peace. The long-rooted and historical notion of the peace in Nepali society has been undermined. He further argues the classes and scholars teaching 'peace' had hardly understood the historical pedagogical approaches and the resources from Nepali culture. Thus, it can be claimed that the epistemological roots of conflict and peace studies are under-researched in Nepali contexts and there is need of more empirical knowledge production in the discipline of peace studies (Kunwar, 2018).

These contextual information set rationale for more and better study to diagnose how the understanding of 'peace' exists in Nepal. This paper focuses to analyse understanding of peace in Nepali context.

This paper has 6 sections. The first section discusses the brief country context and introduction. The second section includes methodological approaches. The third section explains the various definitions of peace from diverse perspectives. The fourth section has analysed how 'Nepal's peace process' has been portrayed in literatures. The fifth section includes a brief paragraphs on the evolution of peace studies as a discipline in Nepal. The final section concludes the paper.

Methodology

This paper makes the case how a concept ‘peace’ has been explored in Nepal. The aim of the paper is to present the views of a wide variety of stakeholders and draws on lessons from literatures. The research paper is based on the findings of a study carried out in Nepal in 2017-2019. A major rationale behind the study was to counter the existing viewpoints that the academia and researchers are using the ‘peace’ as a new concept and mostly only linking to Maoists Armed conflict which undermines the thousands years of existence of ‘peace’ concept in Nepali societies.

Collating the observations of publications of ‘peace studies’ in Nepal, reviewing the existing curriculum of peace studies courses, and notes from more than 7 semi-structured conversations with Nepali academics and locals, this paper examines considerations in the understanding the term ‘peace’ in Nepal’s context. The researcher has used axial and emergent coding and domain analysis approach of qualitative research design to develop this paper. This is more a reflection based paper developed from qualitative eclectic approach. “Eclectic research is a strategy that tries to demonstrate that the findings from a study have construct validity (Armstrong, 1974)”, and it refers to the practice of deriving ideas, generalized knowledge, or research conclusion based on a broad and diverse range of sources (Kunwar, 2015).

Understanding of peace in diverse perspectives

“The Sanskrit verse of Vedic text, Shanti Path of Hindu scripts demands peace in the universe including the heaven or sky very nook of the cosmic space, the earth and the vegetative world, herbal world, and everywhere... (Kunwar, 2010: 299).” Ramesh Raj Kunwar (2010: 299) further quotes the Vedic verse:

“Om dyauh shantir-antariksa-m shantih,

Prithivi shantir apah shantir osa-dhyah shantih,

Vanaspatayah shantir vis-ve-devah shantih,

Brahma shanti savam shantih shantireva shantih sama shantiredhi ||”

This Vedic text reflects the understanding of peace from the oldest written script of the world. Consequently, Johan Galtung, a founder of peace studies in Europe, has, among others, defined ‘peace’ by distinguishing “positive” and “negative” peace. Galtung is one scholar highly cited in the curriculum of peace studies in Nepal, mainly in the introduction part of peace studies. Galtung (1996) defines peace from two compatible definitions:

“Peace is the absence/reduction of violence of all kinds”. and, “Peace is nonviolent and creative conflict transformation (Galtung, 1996)”.

Galtung himself explains what purposes his definitions serve. “For both definitions, in one, peace work is work to reduce violence by peaceful means. And in another, a peace study is the study of the conditions of peace work. The first definition is violence-oriented; peace being its negation. To know about peace we have to know about violence. The second definition is conflict-oriented; peace is the context for conflicts to unfold nonviolently and creatively. To know about peace we have to know about conflict and how conflicts can be transformed, both nonviolently and creatively. Obviously this latter definition is more dynamic than the former (Galtung, 1996)”.

In nutshell, the definition of peace from Galtung, “positive” peace denotes the simultaneous presence of many desirable states of mind and society, such as harmony, justice, equity, and so on. “Negative” peace has historically denoted the “absence of war” and other forms of large-scale violent human conflict (Galtung, 1969). The majority of the western scholarships on ‘peace’ connect their definitions with the nature of conflict and violence in some way or another. Here is a table which compiles multiple definitions of ‘peace’ and the concepts underlying.

Authors	Definitions of Peace	Key Words/Concepts Focused
T. Shaikh (2016)	“For me personally speaking, I felt absolutely peaceful when I’m writing or when I’m spending time with my kids To me the word “peace” means me being in alignment with what I was put on this earth to do. I feel so peaceful at those moments, and feel absolutely out of place when I’m doing something that is against my core and inner values.”	More personal feelings oriented definition. Related to intra-personal peace.
Purvi Shahpatel (2016)	Peace comes from having unity, kinship, and harmony with those around you.	This is more dealing with inter-personal relationship. Connection between person to person is very important.
Debbie Jones (in Shaikh, 2016)	Peace is when you love yourself enough to forgive others around you.	This definition tries dealing with both the intra-personal and inter-personal peace.
Kinjal Amin (in Shaikh, 2016)	My definition of peace: The first word that comes to my mind is “calm.” It’s that feeling to be able to breathe the air and tell myself, “I can do whatever I desire to do.” To me, it’s a value to	This definition has focused on individual freedom, intra-personal feeling, and inter-personal relationship.

	express myself among others' opinions without any conflict. A result of an understanding by absorbing the differences in a healthy manner is what I call peace.	
Sara Scmit (in Shaikh, 2016)	Peace will be when everything around us stops and we live in the moment.	This is more about the calmness and silence around a person. More intra-personal feeling.
Amarah Gillani (in Shaikh, 2016)	Peace means positivity.	This is referring to positivity as feeling.
R.K (in Shaikh, 2016)	To be at peace means to accept everything around you, I am never at peace as there is so much around me that needs to be changed.	This definition is more submissive and trying to adapt in the situation without changing it.
Mary Frasner (in Shaikh, 2016)	Peace is when my heart is happy.	Focusing on happiness.
International Alert (2019)	Peace is when people are able to resolve their conflicts without violence and can work together to improve the quality of their lives.	Non-violence, quality of life, and conflict resolution
Jonathan Armando (in Shaikh, 2016)	Peace can only be found in the small corners of my own self, I can look around me and think someone else will give it to me but that's not how it works.	This is more about the inner feelings.
Noor Khan (in Shaikh, 2016)	Love is peace.	Focusing on another vague concept, love.
Webster's Third New International Dictionary	Peace is initially defined as "freedom from civil clamor and confusion" and positively as "a state of public quiet." Webster's proceeds further to define (political or outer) peace positively as "a state of security or order within a community provided for by law, custom, or public opinion."	This definition focuses on the freedom, inner feelings, and law and social order.
D. P. Barash and C. Webel (2018)	Peace, like many theoretical terms, is difficult to define. Like happiness, harmony, justice, and freedom, peace is something we often recognize by its absence.	This is focusing on the binary definition as absence of war/ conflict.

Oxford for Lexico Dictionary	Freedom from disturbance; tranquility. and a state or period in which there is no war or a war has ended.	Freedom and absence of war/ conflict.
Anderson Royce (2009)	Peace is defined as a two-dimensional construct with both objective and subjective measures that must be studied within specific micro to macro contexts. This intends to create just and stable society.	Justice and social order.
Bushra Siddiqa (in Shaikh, 2016)	For me the most vital is one's inner peace. Where mind and body is relaxed and life is wonderful.	The definition focused on the inner peace and intra-personal feeling.

Source: Compiled by the Author, 2020.

The list of definitions summarizes the focus of 'peace' on intra-personal feeling, inter-personal relationships, individual freedom, love, happiness and absence of violence. Most of the definitions in the western scholarships refer to structural issues and individual human behaviour which was also the core at Galtung's defining. Whereas the oldest definition of peace from Hindu Vedic verse envision universal order, sustainable ecosystem and dignified human relations.

Similarly, the Chinese literatures are also rich and rooted of many social concepts. A Chinese philosopher Lao Tzu from 6th century BC, who is also the founder of Taoism, emphasized that military force is not the way for human beings to follow. He frequently referred to peaceful images of water or wind—both of them soft and yielding yet ultimately triumphant over such hard substances as rock or iron. The teachings of Confucius (approx. 500 BC) focus on the respect for tradition, including elders and ancestors (Barash & Webel, 2018). Lucian W. Pye (1985) argues that Confucius valued obedience and order as virtues in themselves. For Confucius, peace came from social harmony and equilibrium. One famous quote of Confucius is, "Treat your subordinates as you would like to be treated by your superiors (Pye, 1985). Similarly, Barash and Webel (2018) mention a renowned ancient Chinese philosopher, Mo Tzu (468–391 BC), who took a different perspective. Mo Tzu argued against war and in favor of all-embracing love as a universal human virtue and the highest earthly goal, yet one that is within the grasp of each of us. He said, "Those who love others will also be loved in return. Do good to others and others will do good to you. Hate people and be hated by them. Hurt them and they will hurt you. What is hard about that? (Barash & Webel, 2018)"

India also has a rich history of civilization. Emperor Ashok's life story is very interesting who established himself as a great warrior king, and renowned for abandoning his successful military campaigns in the middle of his career. The conversion of warrior king to a Buddhist monarch and devoting to the nonviolent means is remarkable incident.

Bharatbarsha has lots of mythic account of vicious civil wars in the ancient Vedic Hindu texts such as Ramayana, and Mahabharat. The teachings of Bhagvat Geeta justifies war to maintain social order. When the main warrior Arjun was reluctant to fight after seeing many of his relatives on the opposing side, the god Krishna persuaded Arjun by reminding his selfless duty.

Mahatma Gandhi has often quoted in his book *Hindha Swaraj* as a metaphor how an individual person should de-emphasize individual self in the pursuit of common public goods (Gandhi, 1938). For Gandhi, it is important to have the public goods, social order and conscious peace as target for individuals.

In Christian Old Testament, The God of Abraham, Moses, and David are frequently portrayed as bloodthirsty. The ancient Israelites were glorified as merciless warriors. The prophet Isaiah, who praised the reign of peace and many Hebrew prophets tried to portray Jewish tradition to strongly endorse peacefulness. In fact, Jewish, Christian, Islamic, and Hindu traditions all have violence components and elements in their history.

Ultimately, we can observe the diverse ways of thought process on how the scholars define the 'peace'. Some scholars or writings have tried to justify violence to bring peace, on the other hand, some literatures focuses on the feelings and peace values which can not be attained through the means of violence or discriminations. The social justice and humanism are very essential elements in many recent writings. Albert Einstein has said, "We need an essentially new way of thinking if mankind is to survive. Men must radically change their attitudes toward each other and their views of the future. Force must no longer be an instrument of politics.... Today, we do not have much time left; it is up to our generation to succeed in thinking differently. If we fail, the days of civilized humanity are numbered (Barash & Webel, 2018)."

Idea of peace and Nepal's peace process portrayed in literatures

In literatures, when talking about the peace process, Nepali youth are often targeted and perceived as instigators during conflicts, and their roles as peace-builders go unrecognized (Shrestha & Jenkins, 2019). The academic and non-academic courses have included peace and conflict resolution as an important element in post-2007 period, but often the educators lack pedagogical approaches and resources for this purpose. Majority of theories, knowledge and teaching methods in conflict and peace studies, be it at universities or in schools, are borrowed from the western scholarships. Such approaches are often not adapted to local contexts. Without knowing the local knowledge base, it's almost impossible to address the structural exclusion and conflict-affected contexts. We know that the academic and research based knowledge serve the worldview of the researcher or the geographical region or socio-cultural aspects of researched area.

In this section, the author is trying to examine what is the way of explaining ideas of peace from Nepal. For that, in this section, the author tried to explore various literatures in order to see how those literatures have portrayed peace or peace process in Nepal. Nepal has

been portrayed as rich in culture, history and civilization in multiple social literatures. The history of Nepal is also full of upheavals, conflicts, dispute resolutions, local mechanisms, indigenous practices, cultural ways of dealing with disputes and differences, and various interesting facts evolved through the civilization process of hundreds of ethnic and cultural groups. Here the author has compiled 5 examples of literatures to show how they have portrayed the peace process of Nepal. The first example is from an introductory paragraph of a material from Peace Direct:

“Known for its natural beauty and natural resource-rich and blessed with the highest peaks in the world for tourism, Nepal is often classified as a poor country working through the legacy of its decade-long internal armed conflict (1996-2006). The armed conflict claimed the lives of 17,000 people and displaced an estimated 100,000 more. The conflict was ended in 2006 when the democratic political parties and the Maoist’s brought about the end of a 240-year old monarchy and established a republic in Nepal (Peace Direct, 2020).”

There are more than 20 Nepali civil society organizations that are part of Peace Direct and referring to these literatures in their courses. The literature starts with the explanation of beautiful features of the country and then directly jumps into the 10-year-long Maoist armed conflict and its consequences to explain the peace process of Nepal.

The second example is borrowed from the concluding section of the article “Resource Conflicts and Conflict Resolution in Nepal” by Dr. Bishnu Raj Upreti.

“Though from the resource conflict point of view, Bishnu Raj Upreti claims “Resource conflicts are an inevitable part of Nepalese society. Their causes include hierarchical and patron–client social relations, the incompatibility of formal laws, conflicts of interest, perception and belief, competition over scarce resources, ambiguity over roles and responsibilities, the unwillingness of the state to respond to social, economic, political and technological changes, corruption, and bad governance. The present study analyzes resource conflicts and practices used to resolve them in Nepal... It concludes that existing, legally engineered formal conflict resolution systems are administratively complicated, expensive, elitist, heavily influenced by money and power, non-transparent, and inaccessible to the poor, and are therefore hardly adequate to address growing conflicts in Nepal. Likewise, informal systems are also distorted and inherently biased towards those with power. Modernization of existing formal conflict resolution systems is urgently needed in Nepal (Upreti, 2009).”

Upreti claims that the formal justice system in Nepal is complicated, expensive and within reach of certain higher class only. At the same time, he also criticized the informal mechanism as biased and distorted. Then he recommends modernizing the formal justice system. When he is arguing both formal and indigenous systems have drawbacks, but he is strongly lobbying for the borrowing modern-developed by westerners rather than improving the indigenous and contextual systems to remove the biasness and to increase the ownership of indigenous communities.

The third example of literature is taken from a policy brief of Nepal Institute for Policy Studies.

“Nepal passed through a decade long (1996-2006) violent conflict as a consequence of which Nepali people suffered severe threats to their state of political, social, economic, psychological and physical well being. The year 1996 marked the beginning of the armed conflict as the Communist Party of Nepal (Maoist) [CPN (Maoist)] launched the ‘People’s War’ against the state.... The Twelve-Point Agreement signed by the Seven-Party Alliance (SPA) and the CPN (Maoist), on 22 November 2005 along with the subsequent popular peaceful movement of April 2006 brought an end to the decade-long armed conflict.... Although peace process has concluded, there are many challenges threatening the longevity of peace and development. Inability of the stakeholders in forming the TRC and the Commission for Disappeared Persons, lack of financial transparency and accountability of the process, failure in being all inclusive and sensitive to issues of women, children, dalits and other minorities, disabled and ex-combatants, inability to return the many seized lands to their rightful owners are major drawbacks of the peace process that continue to threaten overall peace and prosperity of the country (Nepal Institute for Policy Studies, 2013).”

The policy brief only discusses about the Maoist armed conflict 1996-2006 and aftermath events. The title of the policy brief reads as Nepal’s Peace Process: A Brief Overview, it fails to give examples of various ways of peace promotions, peace processes of different time period in Nepal. It also doesn’t compare the recent example of peace process with the historical one. Of course the authors are free to only include the recent one. Its better to entitle them in such a way that it reads as a case study of one particular peace process rather showing it a generalized version of peace processes in Nepal.

The fourth example is taken from the book written by Vidyadhar Mallik in 2013. The book starts with introduction which includes sections on: A country in transition; resolving the major contested issues; Scope of the book; the line of argument; and Governance for peace and development. The second section talks about the political instability in Nepal since the Maoist armed conflict. The third section discusses the peace process from 2008 to May 2012, the movements related to the ethnic and identity issues, and the politics of the dissolution of the Constituent Assembly. Another section deals with the peace process after May 2012 in Nepal. It further discusses the legacies of political instability in Nepal and the declining quality of governance including the limited progress on decentralized government and the poor economic growth. While the entire book says it aims to discuss peace, development and governance in Nepal, the book only revolves around the Maoist armed conflict, and then the successes and failures in the aftermath of post-conflict time.

The fifth example is taken from Chandra D. Bhatta’s “Antinomies of Democracy and Peace in Nepal”. Bhatta has focused on peace from democracy perspective. Though he clearly does not argue about the liberal democracy, most of his arguments are seemed to be influenced by the liberal peace theory. The summary section of his book chapter reads:

“Does the regime established on the basis of popular movement always contribute toward peacebuilding and strengthen the democratization process? If it does, what are the necessary ingredients for that? This chapter deals with the case of Nepal where frequent regime changes, by using so called popular movements, have paralyzed the country. It appears that a practice has been established wherein every comfort, discomfort, approval, disapproval or breach of law either by the state or non-state agencies are being challenged through severe street protests. Many times these acts stand antinomies to democracy. Rise of various interest groups and non-state-actors, on the other hand, have further aggravated problems as their activities are maintaining permanent nature of revolutionary political culture with strategy of what Gramsci had called the movement of war maneuvered. Professional political elites (political entrepreneurs), for their part, are found to have been exploiting state and its agencies in the name of democracy and peace. Such construction in political and social behavior poses threat to political stability. This chapter discusses the post-2006 politics and argues that regime change in Nepal has failed to work as per the spirit of popular movement which envisaged peaceful, prosperous, and politically stable Nepal. Ongoing political process, in contrast, is occupied by power politics where the agendas of ‘people’ at large are rarely discussed. Democracy, whose Nepali equivalent translation has now become Loktantra (which used to be known by the name of Prajatantra in the past) is reinforcing neo-patrimonial culture (Bhatta, 2014).”

The most of the literatures have focused on the Maoist armed conflict as a key phenomenon in Nepali history and as a generalized notion on Nepali way of peace process. Literatures either have borrowed western model of alternative dispute resolutions, or have lobbied for modernizing conflict resolution process in Nepal. They have missed to explore the success stories of our past and indigenous practices through the comparative-historic approaches and writings. It is always very important to have comparative-historic analysis for a long standing independent nation-state with rich civilization history. When the literatures, writings and scholarships focus on the recent trend only, that undermines the existence of the history, which ultimately weakens the sovereign knowledge base and the indigenous epistemological concerns. Only relying on the imported worldviews and theoretical paradigm ultimately ignores the local, cultural and historical roots.

Peace research and peace studies in Nepal

Nepal is rich in history of peace enlightenment, speeches and practices since ancient time through the presence of many saints, religious leaders, and philosophers. An enlightened intellectual Gautam Buddha was born in Nepal about 2500 years ago. From ancient time, Nepal has connection with the word “Peace”. In Bharatbarsha literatures, Nepal has been praised as the land for knowledge generation and intellectuals. If we consider the modern day education system, Nepal has very recent history of “western model education system”. That does not mean we don’t have local knowledge production system. The first university Tribhuvan University was established in 1956 AD in Kathmandu. At the beginning days,

the university was offering major conventional social sciences subjects under the faculty of social sciences. The peace study was simply a chapter or section inside larger political science discipline.

After the signing of Comprehensive Peace Accord in 2006, much academic and nonacademic peace related courses were offered in Nepal. The oldest and largest university of Nepal, Tribhuvan University started Masters in Conflict, Peace and Development Studies (CPDS), in the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences. Prof. Dr. Ramesh Raj Kunwar, the then Dean of the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences at Tribhuvan University led the curriculum development team and commenced the graduate course in 2007 as a separate peace studies department. Though, in Nepal, 'peace studies' is not a stand-alone discipline, peace has been always attached with conflict,

security, development, Buddhism, or politics. After 2009, several other academic programs were initiated at various institutions. In 2009, 'Peace and Conflict Studies' as an international semester course offered by the Norwegian organization Kulturstudier and the Oslo Metropolitan University, in partnership with Pokhara University was started. After the establishment of a new university in 2010, Mid-Western University introduced Bachelors and Masters in Conflict and Peace Studies. In 2013, Lumbini Buddhist University started School of Buddhism and Peace Studies at Bachelor's and Master's level. Nepal Armed Police Force in collaboration with Tribhuvan University started Masters in Security, Development and Peace Studies (MSDPS) in 2015 as part of the staff and command college course where Prof. Dr. Ramesh Raj Kunwar was lead and coordinator for the curriculum development team. At the moment, more than 15 academic programs teach Peace Studies as part of their courses and facilitate research activities in Nepal. If we look into the syllabus and curricula of the university courses, the main issues for peace studies and research in Nepal are concerned with armed conflict, violence, non-violence, social harmony, transitional justice, human security, human rights, gender, indigenous and ethnic issues.

Beside the academic achievements, many civil society and peace research activities were conducted in Nepal since 2001. Various researches and projects were conducted by multilateral organizations such as United Nations, World Bank, Asian Development Bank, and bilateral organizations such as JICA, GiZ, USAID, DFID. International NGOs were also involved in conducting peace research activities such as The Asia Foundation, Nepal Transition To Peace, Search for Common Ground, International Alert, and Care Nepal. Few civil societies groups are active in peace research and promoting peace studies in Nepal. The Non-violent Communication Practice Group in Kathmandu (since 2014), Peace and Conflict Studies Center (PCSC) (Since 2006), Asian Academy for Peace, Research and Development (Since 2010), Nepal Centre for Contemporary Research (NCCR) and Nepal Peacebuilding Initiative (NPI) are few examples. Peace researchers from Nepal are also active at International Peace Research Association (IPRA) and Asia-Pacific Peace Research Association (APPR) like organization. Rajib Timalsina from Tribhuvan University convened Asia-Pacific Peace Research Association Conference in 2015 where 161 peace researchers from around the globe participated and presented their research papers.

Besides all of these efforts, the understanding of the terms 'peace' and 'conflict' are found very limited. In 2018, the author was in Salyan district with graduate students of Tribhuvan University for the research field trip. The students were trying to explore how conflict and peace had been understood in the local community. Students approached almost 35 respondents in 2 days. Surprisingly, all of the respondents answered at first 'Maoist Armed conflict' when they hear the word conflict. Similarly, the respondents started to explain aftermath of Maoists Armed conflict and the political instability around the constitution drafting process in response to the question, how they had understood the term peace. The public psyche and the general publics seem influenced by the current debates of national politics. The author also has an observation notes from academia. In 2018, Prof. Dr. Ramesh Raj Kunwar and the author were in a team to conduct the entrance exam interviews for the enrollment at Tribhuvan University's masters program. Total 17 students were asked, "What do you understand by the term 'peace' in Nepali context?" Surprisingly, all the respondents replied their answers with reference to armed conflict of 1996-2006.

It was very much surprising. No respondents talked about the historical, cultural, and traditional root of conflict and peace in their society. Their influences and understanding are possibly coming from the everyday media reports, or the way they were trained by civil society organization and academic schooling. It reflects how peace is taught by many courses and trainings in Nepali community.

Conclusion

This paper has mainly three main components: analyzing the various definitions of peace, examination of the literatures depicting Nepal's peace process, and the evolution of peace studies in Nepal. Most of the definitions of oriental societies are very inclusive and broader where they envision cosmic, cosmological, nature and social order to ensure safety, justice, and happiness for both living and non-livings. In definitions from occidental part, peace denotes the simultaneous presence of many desirable states of mind and society, such as harmony, justice, equity, and so on particularly focusing on intra-personal feeling, inter-personal relationships, individual freedom, love, happiness and absence of violence. In religious perspectives, violence component has been justified to achieve peace and in post-modern writing, the focuses are on social justice and humanitarian ground to define peace.

In literatures related to conflict and peace in Nepal, youths are often presented in binary scopes: either very vulnerable who need protection, or agent of violence. Our curriculums and policies have recognized peace as an important subject matter, but there's lack of resources and trained educators. The indigenous and local cultural practices regarding to conflict and peace studies in Nepal are under-researched. Most of the publications from recent time have focused on the armed conflict 1996-2007 and the peace process in the aftermath to talk about 'peace' or 'conflict' in Nepal. The trend has already established 'Maoist armed conflict' and the 'peace process envisioned by peace accord of 2006 as the generalized version of the Nepal. Though the evolution of the idea of peace is dated back

to ancient period, the Nepali academia and peace researchers have missed to produce contextual scholarships through the comparative-historic indigenous writings. This country provides an interesting case study for peace research from the historic time. Though the peace studies in university curriculum are recent development, the understanding, maintaining and teaching of peace has been age old phenomenon. The limited perspectives to explain peace through only recent armed conflict and conflict resolution practice should be broadened to make it inclusive of Nepal's rich culture, historical upheavals, and community based age-old public insights on peace.

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Factors Affecting National Interests in the Aftermath of Post 1990 Armed Conflict in Nepal

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Abstract

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National Interest to a particular country is often shaped and prioritized by various variables including independence, distinctiveness, territorial integrity and socio-cultural determinants. Nepal's national interest depends on the security vision in the aftermath of violent conflict, development initiatives based on utilization of available natural resources and state policies for assuring inclusiveness, social cohesion and justice. Nepal experienced a ten years long armed conflict since 1996 to 2006 that affected a range of social, political and economic dimensions along with security apparatus of the country. Though the fundamental attributes of national interest such as territorial and political sovereignty and the core values remain constant, security policy and strategies are found to be evolving in the nascent democracy often shaped by the ability to identify security threats. With the aim of developing a causal relationship between national interest and security vision, security policy, identification of security threats, quantitative analysis is conducted by adopting SPSS and Karl Pearson's Correlation tools. Moreover, Nepal's new security policy has been analyzed in the aftermath of violent conflict. This paper draws the conclusion that higher the ability of political leaders to identify the security vision, the achievement of national interest is higher. This also depicts if security vision is closely linked with the political values the promotion of national interest is high. Setting the context on political change and the security strategy, it is admitted that new form of government induces additional security concern which if not identified may challenge the means of ensuring national security.

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Concept of security

Scholars in the field of political science and sociology argue that security seems to be an immanent structural element of society. Security involves a state in which the balanced physical, spiritual, psychical and material existence of an individual and the community as a whole is ensured in relation to other individuals, communities as well as to natural environment. Security relates to a particular society as well as to the international community (Grizold, 1994, p. 39).

As illustrated by Robert McNamara security and development are intrinsically linked. Security means development, security is not military hardware, though it may involve it, security is not traditional military activity, though it may encompass it, security is development and without development there can be no security.

The Palme Commission's report, *Common Security: A Blueprint for Survival* also viewed "security" as a multidimensional concept- that security must be conceived in broad terms to include economic issues as well as military threats. It stressed the linkage between common security and common prosperity (Capie & Paul 2002, p. 60).

"A national security policy serves as a common and agreed reference point for a country's decision-makers and helps them keep a reasonable degree of consistency in their day-to-day decisions. It also helps them to prioritise - to keep in mind what is important and what is less so, in terms of both security interests and security objectives. In short, an NSP provides a country's decision-makers with a common basis in their handling of and responses to information and events which represent threats, risks, challenges or opportunities to the country's security understood in a broad sense. The most important benefit of National Security Policy, in fact, may be to have reached a shared understanding on security objectives and priority interests" (Knudsen, 2012, p. 136).

There are two concepts of national security in practice; traditional concept and non-traditional or 'comprehensive' concept. Traditionally, the nation state has been the primary referent object of security. Security has been concerned with protecting territory, or advancing the national interests or core values of states. The traditional security concepts therefore, focused on external threat to the nation-state (Capie & Paul, 2002. p. 139). "To address external threats, traditional policy responses such as defense preparedness, deterrence, and military alliances have dominated approaches to achieving national security" (Capie & Paul, p. 281).

Security policy in its broader sense relates to any advance preparations against threats deriving from nature, society and relations among societies. The aim of security policy in this sense is to maintain and to protect the fundamental values of the society and to ensure security from all possible sources of threat. (Grizold, 1994.p. 44).

This paper seeks to have an idea on what are the various factors affecting national interest in post 1990 armed conflict in Nepal?; How is the national security policy formulated?;and,howisnationalsecuritypolicyaddressedthroughnationalsecuritystrategyto promote national interest?

In general this paper aims to gather an idea on how the national security policy of Nepal has been formulated and to establish the relationship between security problem identification to protect national interest. In specific, factors affecting national interest in Post 1990 armed conflict in Nepal, the policy formulation process in Nepal in reference to national security policy and identification of the internal and external security threats in post-conflict situation are the concerned areas.

Hypotheses

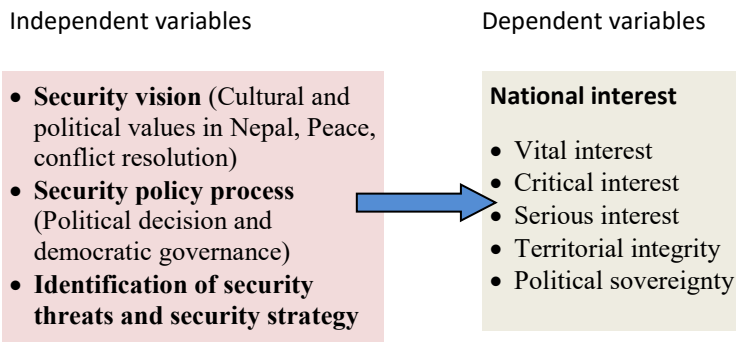
The following three hypotheses are set:

- There is a significant relationship between national interest and security vision in Nepal.
- There is a significant relationship between national interest and national security policy process.
- There is a significant relationship between protection of national interest and the identification of security threats in Nepal.

Conceptual framework and the method

National Security essentially means the state of the health of the nation within which citizens enjoy life, liberty, property and participation in the productive life of society (Dahal, 2008). Policy issue refers to the shaping of a policy in response to a problem and its injection into the process. Approval is the process by which policy passes through formal executive and legislative procedures. Policy implementation is about how policies are carried out (Sarkesian, Williams and Cimbala, 2008:170). In this context of policy issue, approval and implementation, Nepali security sector is often impacted by the frequent regime changes and lack of a concrete security policy before 2016.

According to the Article 5 (1) of Constitution of Nepal, 2015 “Safeguarding of the freedom, sovereignty, territorial integrity, nationality, independence and dignity of Nepal, the rights of the Nepalese people, border security, economic wellbeing and prosperity shall be the basic elements of the national interest of Nepal.”



Source: Developed by the author on the basis of Knudsen, 2012 and National Security Policy, Nepal, 2016

While developing this paper, exploratory research design has been used. Features of various security problems are studied and described in case of Nepal. After having information collected and processed, the findings are analyzed basically on the basis of factors promoting national interest. Causal relation between national interests, security vision, policy, strategies of security is examined.

A total of 60 respondents are taken randomly. A set of survey questionnaire is administered to the respondents comprising graduate students in conflict and peace studies who are acquainted with the national security policy process and national interest as a part of their academic courses that covers more than 10 percent of the graduate students adopting the course related to strategic studies and national security in Nepal.

Altogether 10 respondents including former ministers, government officers, political analysts, security experts, civil society members and academicians were interviewed to acquire information.

The collected data were processed and analyzed using both qualitative and quantitative techniques. Quantitative test methods such as SPSS and Karl Pearson's correlation coefficient are used to test the set hypotheses.

Armed Conflict and Security Context in Nepal

The practice of liberal economy and market based competitive democracy after democratic restoration in 1990 reflecting the institutional reform was highly ruined by intra-party conflict. The armed conflict in Nepal from 1996 to 2006 brought the country into violent stage with Monarchy-Republican, centralized-federal, Ethnicity-Caste and Hinduism-secularism as the major conflict lines.

Bhandari (2016) in the article 'Rearranging the Conflict lines' opines that federal democratic Republic Nepal declared after the amendment of Interim Constitution 2007 received new power dynamics and political players. National parliamentary parties faced splinter groups joining to regional parties 'Madhesi' and other ethnicity based parties before first CA Election. The dominance of regional sentiment over the political ideology formed a major component for intraparty conflict within MFJ, Madhes based party and the result was less representation in the Second CA. However, in the process of constitution making, 'Madhesi' identity became prominent after the sixteen point agreement among the three bigger parties along with MJF (Democratic). The sixteen point agreement though considered the document of reflection of national disaster and political crisis together, institutionalized the movement of 'Madhesi identity'.

The new constitution promulgated in the aftermath of 'Kailali incident' that expressed an unfortunate imagery of 'failed negotiation' at local level and posed threat to national security issue, created new conflict. The strategy of the movement adopted by MJF has uniqueness in the history of political movement in Nepal. First, blockade to the hill and subsequent in the Himalayan region from Terai region slowly manufactured the industry of segregation among constructed 'Madhesi' and 'Pahade'. Although 'Madhes' is purely topographical representation, the protestors tried to amalgamate the cultural and linguistic diversity in the same basket on the base of genealogy. (Bhandari, 2016)

Formulating National Security Policy and the Nepalese context

Sarkesian, Wiliams and Cimbala in the book entitled “US National Security: Policymakers, Processes & Politics” published in 2008 discuss the approaches to the study of national security. According to them “There are three major approaches to the study of national security: the concentric-circle, the elite-versus-participatory policymaking, and the systems analysis; all concentrate on the way in which policy is made.

The concentric-circle approach places the president at the center of the national security policy process. This approach shows the degree of importance of various groups as the “primary objects” of national security policy. (Sarkesian, Wiliams and Cimbala, 2008).

The elite-versus-participatory policymaking approach is based on the view that democracy’s basic dilemma is that the policy process is dominated by elites. National security policy is undertaken by elites within the national security establishment, but that elite group must in turn develop support in the broader public. On the one hand, the elites have the skill and access to information to formulate national security policy, in contrast to an uninformed public. On the other hand, for national security policy to be successful in the long run, there must be some degree of participation by the public and political will within the body politic.” (Sarkesian, Wiliams and Cimbala, 2008).

Professor of international law, Vojin Dimitrijevic, identified five characteristic features which he considers the basic elements of national security:

- ensuring the existence of the state as a political community, existence of the nation (which is not identical with the existence of a particular state) and the physical survival of its population;
- protecting territorial integrity as the basic right of the state;
- maintaining political independence as an attribute of internationally recognized national status of the state;
- ensuring quality of life;
- embedding of the “vital interest” of the state in the national security policy. (Grizold, 1994. p. 40)

Provisions of National Security Policy 2073 BS

The major provisions in National security policy 2073 BS are:

Achieve balance economic development to raise living standard of the people.

- Strengthening national unity through equality and coexistence among various religions, cultures, cast, community, origin and languages.
- Utilization of natural resources with a view to fulfilling national interests.
- Maintaining clean environment.
- System of reservation will be implemented for socially backward indigenous, Madhesi, Dalits and marginalized groups.
- Special policy will be implemented for mobilization of youth in country’s development.
- Foreign policy of Nepal will be based on Charter of the UN, Non-alignment, principle of Panchasheel, international laws and norms of world peace.
- Institutionalize peace on the basis of international norms.

Security is the multidimensional aspect that covers the range of National sovereignty, integrity and social, economic, cultural and human security.

Section 1.3 is about the need assessment of National security Policy. It includes:

- To protect sovereignty, territorial integrity, national unity, freedom and social cohesion and create the conducive environment to utilize the national resources.
- To establish the credibility that state addresses natural risks and threats.
- To increase the effectiveness of security sector by providing necessary modern technology and equipment for security mechanism and structure, make them strengthened and increase the contribution and active participation of all the concerned.
- To direct the implementation of policies adopted by the state.
- To create internal consensus among all classes, communities and sectors in the country.
- To build regional and international trust and cooperation for national security and world peace.
- To promote co-existence, tolerance and cohesion among all the religious, cultural, linguistic and territorial communities in Nepal.
- To increase the national security capacity and protect the country from communication and psychological attack by utilizing rapid development of communication and technology in the world.
- To control and defeat potential security threats and to conduct state security system in a coherent, coordinating and planned way.
- To create the situation in which national security mechanism could be mobilized in an efficient way during the time of both peace and conflict and ensure that the country as a whole endorses it.
- To achieve national objective through protection, preservation and promotion of vital national interests by addressing the potentialities and challenges; geopolitical situation; and changing international, regional and national security environment.

According to National Security Policy 2073, section 1.6 National interests, concern and security issues are enlisted as:

Issues of vital national interests

- Protection of national independence, sovereignty, territorial integrity, national unity, dignity, self-determination and people's security.
- Protection and preservation of federal democratic republic.
- National unity, social harmony and religious tolerance.
- Protection of national identity and existence.
- Protection of people's liberty and fundamental human rights.
- Sustainable peace, security and political stability.
- Conservation of environment and climate.
- Preservation of natural resources including water resource and heritage and their utilization in national interest.

- Promotion of world peace through contribution in international and regional security.
- Creation of reliable condition that the land of Nepal will not be used against any other country
- Protection of rule of law.
- Foreign policy based on UN Charter and principle of Panchasheela.

Issues concerning strategic interests

- Adoption of appropriate strategy and work procedure for the protection of issues of vital concerns
- Social development, prosperity, harmony and coherence ; and tolerable civil society
- Development of national capacity
- Development of people's living standard
- Effectiveness of good governance and public administration
- Minimization of social and economic imbalance that exists between provincial and local level
- Development and utilization of science and technology
- Appropriate security system for economic prosperity
- Control of organized crime and illegal immigration
- Minimizing and mitigating natural disaster and industrial hazards
- Mitigating extrajudicial activities and end of the bases for that
- Control and mitigate terrorism and secessionism
- Control of use of illegal arms and explosives
- Development of international and regional cooperation.

Components of national interest

National Interest to a particular country is often shaped and prioritized by various variables including independence, distinctiveness, territorial integrity and socio-cultural determinants. Nepal's national interest depends on the security vision in the aftermath of violent conflict, development initiatives based on utilization of available natural resources and state policies for assuring inclusiveness, social cohesion and justice. "Security interests of individual states should be harmonized, adjusted and linked to the interests of the whole international community." (Grizold, 1994.p.38)

Table 1: Components of National Interest

	N	Disagree %	Agree %
Current security vision and security strategy is found compatible with vital national interest	60	35	65.
Cultural and political value system in post-conflict Nepal is in accordance with initiatives promoting national unity and social cohesion	60	29.	71
Political will and leadership among parties is found to support sustainable peace and political stability	60	57	43

There are initiatives to protect human rights and people’s freedom after the promulgation of new constitution Development approach is focused on the utilization of	60	15.0000	85.00000
water and other natural resources to fulfill national interest Post-conflict governance is effective in terms of public administration	60	44.0000	56.00000
	60	55.0000	45.00000
There are not serious challenges to rule of law for promoting national interest	60	62.0000	38.00000
State policies and programs in the post-conflict situation favors inclusiveness, social cohesion and social justice	60	25.0000	75.00000
State policies and programs in the post-conflict situation favor inclusiveness, social cohesion and social justice	60	30.0000	70.00000
inclusiveness, social cohesion and social justice			

Source: Field study, 2017

The cultural and political value system in Nepal holds shifting character after ten years long armed conflict, 1996-2006 A.D.

Correlation among Security Vision, Policy Process, Threats and National Interest

The correlation matrix among the variables shows that national interest in Nepal is moderately correlated with the security vision set.

The Pearson’s correlation coefficient is .471.

Table 2: Correlations among variables

		National interest	Security vision	National security policy process	Security Threats
National Interest	Pearson Correlation	1	.471	-.087	.312
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.013	.646.	.120
	N	32	27	30	26
Security vision	Pearson Correlation	.471**	1	-.251	.367
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.013		.134	.036
	N	27	43	37	33
National Security Policy Process	Pearson Correlation	-.087**	-.251	1	.300
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.646	.134	.089	
	N	30	37	48	33
Identification of	Pearson Correlation	.312**	.367**	.300	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.120	.036	.089	
	N	26	33	33	37

Significance at 5 percent

Source: Field survey, 2017

The study shows that Pearson correlation coefficient between national interest and national security policy process is $-.087$. With this correlation among the variables, it is justified that the relationship among the variables can be further analyzed.

Security vision and national interest

According to Knudsen (2012), security vision of any country can be analyzed in terms of maintaining peace and order. The quest for peace and stability is further shaped by existing cultural and political value system of the country.

Table 3: Security vision and national interest

	Unstandardized Coefficients		
	B	T	Sig.
(Constant)	6.047	1.787	.091
Political party leaders are able to identify security vision	1.069	.756	.459
Government officers consider security vision in decision making process in Nepal	2.135	1.432	.169
Civil society leaders in Nepal have considered security vision as a core agenda in democracy	-2.006	-1.469	.159
Security vision is closely linked with political values (consensus, competition and commitment) in Nepal	3.086	1.620	.123
Security vision is closely linked with cultural diversity in Nepal	-.754	-.241	.813
Security vision has become the guiding vision while facing politically contentious issues among political actors	-1.093	-.795	.437
Policy makers consider economic capability of Nepal as driving factor of national interest	1.576	.787	.442
Military capability of Nepal is considered as prime factors for defining national interest	1.038	1.023	.320
R	41.2		
Watson	2.285		
F	1.850		

Source: Field survey, 2017

Political Party Leaders and Security Vision

The β value for ability of political party leaders in identifying security vision to promote national interest is 1.069. This shows that higher the ability of leaders to identify the security vision, the achievement of national interest is higher.

However one of the Key Informants stated that the political vision and coherence among political leaders is lacking while shaping the security vision. “A weak leadership or

excessive politics of conflict and confrontation provides a fertile ground for undue external influence. Nepal's national interest is best served by a foreign policy of friendship with all and hostility towards none" (Simkhada, 2011).

Government officer and security vision

The higher the government officers consider security vision in decision making process, the higher would be the chances for promoting national interest. The β coefficient is 2.185 and β -value is 17%.

Civil society leaders considering security vision vibrant civil society is considered as fundamental ingredient of democracy. In Nepal, the study shows that if civil society leaders consider security vision is core agenda, the promotion of national interest would be high as the β coefficient is -2.006 at β -value 16%.

Political values, cultural diversity and security vision

The political values in the aftermath of armed conflict in Nepal are often guided by consensus among the leaders, competition among the political parties. The study depicts that if security vision is closely linked with the political values the promotion of national interest is high. The cultural diversity in Nepal recognized with identity and participation in the aftermath of conflict should be closely linked with security vision for the promotion of national interest.

Similarly, the study result shows that, if security vision becomes the guiding vision while facing politically contentious issues among political actors, the chances for promoting national interest is high. The β coefficient for policy makes considering economic capability in decision making in relation to national interest is 1.576 at β -value 45%. Thus there is significant relationship between policy makes considering economic capability and achievement of national interest. Military capability if considered as prime factor in security vision, the promotion of national interest is formed in sufficient relationship.

Security Policy Process and National Interest

The public policy process in Nepal is often based on top-down approach. In this context, it is essential to examine the relationship between security policy process and the achievement of national interest.

The study result shows that if the people are aware about internal and external security threats and are clear about vulnerabilities of natural disaster, then the national interest achievement would be high.

The β coefficient on the perception of the respondents on awareness about the security policy formulation is -0.157 and β -value 92%. The study shows that if the involvement of people in security related programs and policies at security policy formulation process, dissemination of security challenges would provide significant relationship to the promotion of national interest.

The analysis further shows that if there is the public hearing process related to security policy and bureaucrats and politicians are highly engaged in policy formulation, then the achievement of national interest is higher.

“It sounds hypocritical to talk and preach about subjective concepts like sovereignty, freedom, independence, national unity, and democracy in front of starving peoples who comprise a great majority of the Nepalese population, Therefore, addressing and meeting those basic human needs of the Nepalese form the most vital national interest of Nepal” (Limbu, 2011).

Table 4: Security policy process and national interest

	Unstandardized	T	Sig.
	Coefficients		
	B		
(Constant)	19.435	2.761	.012
I know about the internal security threats in Nepal	-2.016	-.664	.514
I have idea about external security threats in Nepal	1.586	.417	.681
I am clear about potentials for serious natural disasters in Nepal	-2.650	.609	.550
I am aware about the security policy formulation	-.157	-.096	.924
I have been involved in national security related programs and activities	-.215	-.153	.880
I have read about the security challenges in newspaper	1.064	.691	.497
I have seen bureaucrats and politicians engaged in security policy formulation	-1.874	-1.472	.156
I have an experience of being engaged in public hearing process related to security policy	.438	.318	.754
I know about the legal procedures for national security decision making	.992	.610	.549
R	17.4		
Durbin Watson	2.045		
F	.468		

Source: Field survey, 2017

Almond (1956) claims that “A sound program of public opinion development in the field of national security policy would have as its main aim the creation of an attentive public competent to handle the issues of national security policy. This means in very specific terms four lines of action: (1) the introduction of problems of military policy into university curricula and the development of military scholarship in the universities to produce a leadership with a basic competence to understand the issues of security policy.

(2) The development of soundly trained military specialists in the media of communication to ensure that the issues of security policy will be rapidly and accurately transmitted throughout the significant strata of the population. (3) The training of specialists in problems of military policy in the major interest groups to ensure more responsible interest group pressures. (4) The development of scholarship in political and military affairs among the military leadership to create a homogeneous leadership capable of organizing and articulating the issues in public.”

Identification of security threats and national interest

The changing context of political and governance sector faces new trends in security challenges. Any nation-state with shifting regimes and political structures identifies new forms of security challenges not limited to the internal cases. Identification of security threats forms an important pre-condition for identifying factors promoting national interest. According to Dahal (2012, p.1) “The sources of threat can be extra-systemic (inter-state tension, cross-border terrorism, unwanted immigration, climate change, fuel and financial crises, refugees etc.) or intra-systemic (civil war, poverty trap, inequality and exclusion of citizens from ecological, social, economic and political resources).”

Table 5: Identification of security threats and national interests

	Unstandardized	T	Sig.
	Coefficients		
	B		
(Constant)	8.798	1.412	.177
New security challenges have emerged after the violent conflict	.438	.194	.849
Activities for controlling arms proliferation has become the agenda for government	.990	.777	.449
Public attitude has become more aggressive after the conflict situation in Nepal	2.805	1.596	.130
Introduction of federal system has brought unexpected threats in security context	-.231	-.161	.874
Political transitions have provided the ground for unexpected challenges to security context	-2.767	-1.363	.192
Foreign engagement in post conflict Nepal has introduced serious security concern	-.356	-.247	.808
The coordination among the security agencies is found effective while dealing with security problems	-1.531	-1.184	.254
National Security Council is effective to take decisions on security matter	2.836	2.637	.018
Inter-ministerial coordination is effective in dealing with security problems	1.243	1.087	.293
R Square	45.9		
Durbin Watson	2.290		
F	1.508		

Source: Field survey, 2017

The findings shows that after the armed conflict in Nepal, new security challenges have emerged and the identification of those challenges are significant in promoting national interest. National interest achievement is also significantly dependent on the activities controlling arms proliferation by the government.

If the public attitude becomes more aggressive, it also posits threats in national interests. In general, the post conflict situation is characterized by high expectation of people from the government and political violence is increased. Moreover, the new form of government induces additional security concern which if not identified may challenge the means of ensuring national security. The political transitions, foreign engagement in the peace process and constitution making process must be identified and analyzed in terms of achieving national interest immediate after the violent conflict.

If the coordination among security agencies and inter-ministerial coordination is effective in dealing with security problems then national interest could be met in higher degree. Dahal (2012) in relation to the loyalty of security agencies posits that "Nepal's political institutions now rest on the commitment to popular sovereignty, parliamentary supremacy and political openness. But, the political process of Nepal revolves around powerful personalities rather than institutions. The familial and dynastic succession of leadership has bred a patrimonial culture. Poor political institutionalization has blurred the boundaries between various institutions of society. From the unification days until recently there is a continuity of the state institutions, such as monarchy, Nepal Army, police, bureaucracy, tradition and law and discontinuity and fragmentation of civic institutions. Lack of a balance between the state and society created authoritarian culture in the nation. But, the security agencies of the nation have expressed absolute loyalty to those in power under all regimes-- monarchy, anarchy, oligarchy, liberals and even communist-led regime and helped to maintain the unity and security of the nation through state-orientation notion of security politics. Their preference for loyalty, discipline, patriotism and hierarchy has earned their image abroad in peace keeping missions." However, the study shows that more effectiveness in decision of National Security Council does not necessarily promote national interest.

Baral (1986, p. 1218) opines that "Nepali security policy hinges on three areas: a modest and correct Indo Nepal and Sino-Nepal relationship, internal cohesion, and the successful handling of extra-regional and regional policies for maximizing economic benefits. Nepal's assertive foreign policy of the 1950s and 1960s has shown its limits in the past decade or so and is highly unlikely to produce any result. Even if Sino-Indian relations continue to be competitive, if not characterized by intense hostility, Nepal has to deal with the two immediate neighbors with great restraint and dexterity. A relationship marked by civility may enhance the prospects of national security better than a policy of expediency. Moreover, Nepal should also be careful that no external forces play active roles on its domestic front. If Nepali power elites become too enthusiastic about averting domestic crises through their external policies without giving any consideration to their roots, the external forces may be inclined to capitalize on the situation in their own favor."

Conclusion

Nepal's national interest is dependent on security vision and national security policy. Better achievement of national interest depends on visionary political leadership, recognition of social and cultural diversity of the nation and ability to identify internal and external security threats. Moreover, effective coordination among core security agencies is the indicator for achieving national interest. The political values in the aftermath of armed conflict in Nepal are often guided by consensus among the leaders, competition among the political parties. The study depicts that if security vision is closely linked with the political values the promotion of national interest is high. The cultural diversity in Nepal recognized with identity and participation in the aftermath of conflict should be closely linked with security vision for the promotion of national interest.

Similarly, the study result shows that, if security vision becomes the guiding vision while facing politically contentious issues among political actors, the chances for promoting national interest is high.

The public policy process in Nepal is often based on top-down approach. In this context, it is essential to examine the relationship between security policy process and the achievement of national interest.

The study result shows that if the people are aware about internal and external security threats and are clear about vulnerabilities of natural disaster, then the national interest achievement would be high.

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Impact of Climate Change on Agriculture in Kavre District, Nepal

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Abstract

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This study aims to assist the impact of climate change on agriculture in Banepa municipality, as a case study to the local climatic trends and its impacts, vulnerability, and adaptation. The study was conducted among the household of ward no. one to eleven except two and six in the municipality. A questionnaire survey, field observation, in-depth interview, and focus group discussion, methods were adopted for the information collection, cross-validation with verification, and using the secondary source of the information. Monthly precipitation and monthly minimum and maximum air temperatures data of Dhulikhel station were used to study their annual and seasonal trends. Agriculture is one of the vulnerable sectors of the impact of climate change. Trend analysis of temperature and precipitation over 27 years indicates that this region is facing various weather variability. The annual mean of the minimum temperature was showing the highest (13.530C) in 2014 and the lowest (7.860C) in 2001. The trend analysis shows that the annual average minimum temperature has also been increasing per year. Drought, delay in monsoon, hailstorm, and heavy rainfall are major challenges in agriculture. The study concluded that climate change affected the negative impact on agriculture in the Banepa Municipality of Kavre. The existing local and institutional strategies are not sufficient and sustainable to cope with climatic vagaries. There is a proactive need for climate change adaptation measures to address the negative impact of climate change in agriculture to sustain the food and nutrition security in the community through institutional support and long-term agricultural policy and strategic plan.

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Background

Globally, climate change is the most extreme ecological hazard that unfavorably influences agriculture sectors than in various regions. The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC, 2013) characterized climate change refers to a change in the state of climate that can be identified by changes in the mean variability of its properties and that persists to an extended period normally decades or more. The linear trend on the global average surface temperature from 1880 to 2012 showed that the earth's surface temperature has increased by 0.85 [0.65 to 1.06]°C (IPCC, 2013). The AR5 report has revealed that the number of cold days and nights has diminished through the number of warm days and nights has increased a global scale since 1950. Climate change impact has been experienced in different sectors in Nepal including agriculture, forest and biodiversity, water resources, and energy. Nepal is one of the most vulnerable countries to climate change in the world. Moreover, changes in rainfall patterns, insufficient water supply for crops, extreme weather incidents, the spread of pests, and crop disease have been directly affecting crop production and hence on food and nutritional security. Agricultural productivity has remained stagnant or declined across the nation.

In the national context, a higher percentage of the population is engaged in agriculture. Many studies in the past show that climate change is affecting the agricultural production system in Nepal directly or indirectly. The livelihood of two-third of the labor force in rural areas of Nepal will be affected if agriculture production is adversely impacted by climate change (Pant, 2012). Although the amount of precipitation varies significantly across the country, there is a shift in monsoon periods, intense and unpredictable rainfall patterns. The temperature across the country shows tendencies towards the increasing trend. Drying of water sources, erosion, and landslides in hills and mountain regions of Nepal while flooding of cultivated lands in low-lying areas of hills and Terai regions are the direct impacts of climate change in Nepalese agriculture. Climate change and its hazards, at the present scenario of environmental crisis, have appeared as most threats especially to the small, rural farmers of the poor nation depending upon the natural climatic cycle where there is no scientific irrigation system.

The main objective of this study was to find out the impact of climate change on cereal crops in the study area. This research was conducted to study trends on change in climate and the impacts of climate variations in the major crop production systems.

The study was important and relevant. Climate change and its hazards, at the present scenario of environmental crisis, have appeared as most threats especially to the small, rural farmers of the poor nation depending upon the natural climatic cycle where there is no scientific irrigation system. Farming is one of the most sensitive sectors in response to the weather conditions of wind, rainfall, hailstorm, snowfall, drought and temperature. So, the farmers of Nepal are at high risk and the wailing of the suffered hearts started to notice as the impacts are rampant. At the same time, these farmers have also adapted some of the adaptation strategies to reduce the impacts of changing weather conditions based on their knowledge and experience. In the context of the study area, the Banepa Municipality of

various wards in Kavre has been chosen. This type of local study has not been carried till date since this is the research gap in this field, therefore, the impact of climate change on major cereals crops seems to be significant in Banepa Municipality, Kavre district, Nepal. Banepa, a municipality, and the historical town are in Kavre valley situated at about an altitude of 4,800 ft (1,500 m) above sea level in the Bagmati Zone of Nepal which is at about 25 kilometers (16 miles) east from Kathmandu. At the time of the 2011 Census, it has a population of 24,764.

Review of literature

➤ *Climate Change*

Climate change is a real, crucial and certainly a global problem over a long period of time. IPCC (2013) mentioned that if mankind continues the consumption of fossil fuels at its current level, the average temperature of the earth will rise by 6.40C and sea level will rise by 59 cm by way of the cease of the twenty-first century. Upreti (1999) described climate change as a phenomenon due to emissions of greenhouse gases from gas combustion, deforestation, urbanization, and industrialization, resulting in variants in solar energy, temperature, and precipitation. Climate change is a real hazard to many organisms in the world as it impacts all environments, which include freshwater habitat, oceans, forests, and different vegetation. Climate change impacts water sources and agriculture, and geological processes such as landslides, floods, desertification, and in long-term meals safety and human health (Malla, 2008).

Globally, the charge of warming in the Hindu Kush Himalaya region is notably higher than the average (ICIMOD, 2010). Warming has also been greater in the western part of the country than in the eastern part (Malla, 2008). Continuous warming and a rise in maximum temperature at the rate of 0.04 to 0.060C annually (MoPE, 2010). Temperatures are said to have negative impacts on cereals yield that's if temperatures increase the yield of cereals will reduce significantly. The contribution of agriculture to the GDP of Nepal exceeded 50 percent 25 years ago. It is decreasing over the years; however, it still exceeds 27 percent (NPC, 2019). An increase in temperature and CO₂ will lead to an increase in the population of pests and the severity of diseases in the presence of host plants. It increases the rate of the reproductive cycle of insects and pests. Malla (2008) recognized the increase in insect population leads to demand for more use of pesticides, which unknowingly causes lots of harm to the ecosystem as well as human society.

➤ *Climate change impacts on agriculture*

Agriculture in Nepal is more vulnerable to climate change because 64% of the cultivated land is rain-fed and two-third of the population has agriculture-based livelihood (FAO, 2004). Climate change conditions such as rising temperatures, delayed monsoon, increased annual rainfall, and increased occurrence of intense rainfall that has already affected many rain-fed farmers in Nepal (Regmi & Adhikari, 2007). Climate change affects agriculture in several ways, including through changes in average temperatures, rainfall, and climate

extremes with an important impact on soil erosion (i.e. floods, drought) changes in pests and diseases, changes in atmospheric carbon dioxide, changes in the nutritional quality of some foods, changes in the growing season, and changes in sea level. Crop yields show a strong correlation with temperature change and with the duration of heat or cold waves and differ based on plant maturity stages during extreme weather events (Hoffmann, 2013). Crop growth and development, as well as different physiological processes, are highly influenced by climate. Land preparation, date of sowing, irrigation, harvesting, and other forms of activities are also affected by climate.

Over the past three years, the delay in monsoon season experienced in Nepal has changed the cropping pattern and crop maturity period which has delayed the planting and harvesting season by a month, which has, in turn, affected rotation practices (Dahal et al., 2011). A drought in the eastern region of Nepal decreased the rice production by 30% in 2006 and heavy flooding in the mid-Western and far. Western regions in 2006 and 2008 destroyed crops (Practical Action, 2008).

Croplands in the mountain region of Nepal are environmentally marginal and are likely to be at increased risk of land degradation and biodiversity loss as a result of climate trends. Nepalese farmers are largely poor with limited access to external resources and are likely to be particularly vulnerable to climate change. Vulnerability to climate change is closely related to poverty, as the poor are least able to respond to climatic stimuli (Olmos, 2001). Besides, biophysical features of the region further increase vulnerability.

➤ *Climate change impacts and vulnerability of soil*

Soil may be a crucial common valuable asset that directly or indirectly helps all forms of life on the planet earth. According to Reale et al. (1995) the soil is holistically described as a social good; it represents the physical, chemical, biological base of the agrarian production. The decline in agricultural productivity might also be related to influences changes in climate components have on soil quality, particularly its overall capacity to support life and suitability for sustainable alternative uses. The vulnerability of soil to climatic impact depends on each of the physical and chemical characteristics of soils. Climate is probably the main variable that influences, directly or indirectly the topsoil, and particularly the surface layer. Other surface processes are caused by the properties of the soil itself (Pla, 2002).

Acid rainfall which is an outcome of climate change with its implications of greenhouse gases adds to the acidity of the soil. In South and South-East Asia, the principal soil degradation processes associated with land-use changes include accelerated erosion by water and wind, salinization, flooding, waterlogging, and soil fertility. The pace of soil degradation issue is the highest in the mountains because of the fragile environment and the steep slopes (Acharya & Kafle, 2009). Moreover, due to rugged mountainous topography, active tectonics, and concentrated monsoon precipitation, Nepal is naturally highly vulnerable to soil erosion on slopes and flooding in the low-lands.

➤ *Climate change adaptation of agriculture*

Adaptation is the alert adjustment in natural or human-managed framework to minimize the impacts. Farmers are experiencing an increase in temperature and sporadic precipitation. They have started adjusting to climate change by using their local knowledge and practices as possible. According to Smit and Skinner (2002), adaptation on agriculture can be categorized as innovative, on-farm adjustment practices, government policy including insurance as well as diversifying household income sources as financial management strategies. The farmers who have the resources and access should be able to adapt better as compared to resource-poor marginal farmers (Esterling & Apps, 2005). Farmers can adapt to climate change to some extent by adjusting planting time and input use, by altering soil management practices as well as diversifying their farm enterprises. In South Asian countries, particularly India, Nepal, and Bangladesh, farmers are already adapting to changing conditions by using improved/hybrid seed practices (Gautam, 2008).

Climate variability and risks have continuously been a portion of agriculture, due to which farmers have created numerous ways of overseeing dangers. Traditional farming system management practices and farmers' innovations are a key element in local adaptation to climate change. While researchers and policymakers work to find solutions, local farmers have already amassed considerable experience of how to cope, based on their observation and experimentation in the field (Reid & Swiderska, 2008). So, it is very important to document the adaptation practices that have been evolved in the farmers' fields.

Materials and methods

The main purpose of this study is to reduce the impact of climate change on crops from the local level. The quantitative and qualitative, mixed-method was applied. The questionnaire survey, focus group discussion, in-depth interview, and field observation were the major tools used for this study.

For the study, nine various wards (1 to 11 except 2 and 6) of the Banepa Municipality were selected as a study area. The sample size formula available in many survey texts e.g. see Babble, 1990; Fowler, 2002 (Creswell, 2009), two hundred households were surveyed to fill up the questionnaire on a random basis with sample interval used by various researchers such as Schofield (2006), Kalton (1983) and Cochran (1977) was also used for this purpose (Dahal, 2019). The questionnaire survey was conducted with one of the household members. The sample size adopted from ward no. 1, 3, 4 and 5 was 12, 17, 17 and 26, whereas 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11 was followed by 24, 35, 29, 29, and 11 respectively.

Both primary and secondary data were the sources used for the study purpose. Firstly, the primary data has been planned to be obtained through preliminary interviews and discussions with concerned officials, experts, and local people. Secondly, semi-structured in-depth interviews with various key players and stakeholders of the selected study area were conducted. Initially, the questionnaire was prepared in English and piloted, corrected to make clearer for the respondents then translated for the local language Nepali to ease the

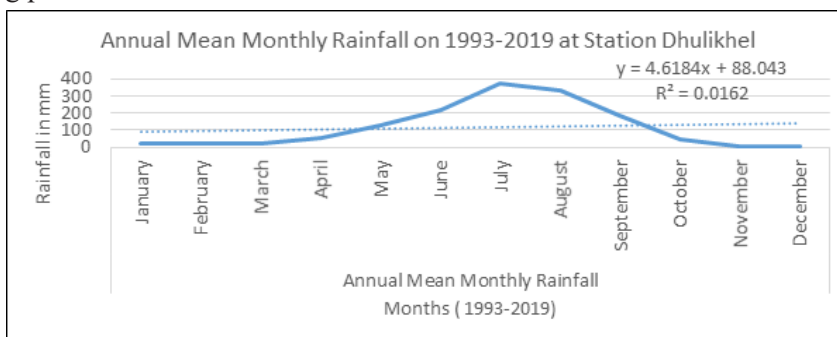
survey. After the survey, the questionnaire was translated into English for data entry and then analyzed. Other than filling the interview schedules, detailed information provided by the respondents during discussions has been planned to be recorded by taking notes. The audio recording was used and followed ethical consideration. The pilot study was conducted to ensure the readability and understandability of questionnaires, in-depth interview, and focus group discussion schedules then final data were collected. The primary source of information on a range of issues (sowing time, germination period, irrigations required, use of chemical fertilizer, harvesting time, new diseases, and weeds) was prepared to investigate the trend and effect of climate associated factors on farming.

The researcher had also collected the secondary source of information from relevant study reports, published and unpublished documents and maps were also collected from various governmental and non-governmental organizations. The climatic parameters data were obtained from the Department of Hydrology and Meteorology (DHM), Government of Nepal. In the present study, climate variables of Kavre district were taken for the study purpose. The climate variables such as temperature, rainfall were utilized to explore the relation of climate to cereal crop yields based on 27 years of records. In the present study, the data of temperature and rainfall from 1993-2019 of the Dhulikhel station was used. The data of cereal yields of Kavre district from 1993-2019 were used and were taken from the Ministry of Agriculture Livestock and Development (MoALD) was taken for the study purpose. The survey was conducted from February 26 to March 14, 2020. After collecting the qualitative and quantitative information, the researcher was analyzed and interpretation the data by using Statistical Package for Social science (SPSS 21.0 Version), and Microsoft Excel-2013. Both descriptive and analytical methods were used to analyze data.

Result and discussion

➤ Annual mean rainfall

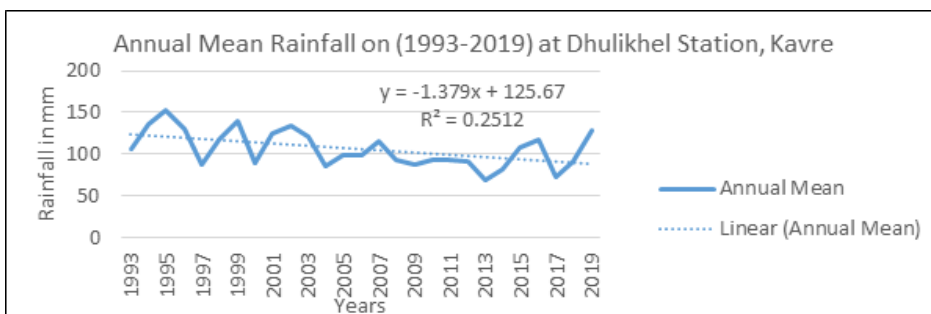
Annual mean monthly precipitation data (1993-2019) of Dhulikhel Meteorological Station was found that July and August receive the highest rainfall of 375.16 mm and 335.16 mm respectively and November and December have minimum rainfall with respective rainfall of 5.15 mm and 8.61 mm as shown in figure 1. Trend line shows the equation as $y = 4.6184x + 88.043$ and R-value as $R^2 = 0.0162$. This equation indicates an increasing pattern in rainfall.



Source: DHM, 2020

Figure 1: Average Annual Monthly Rainfall of Dhulikhel Meteorological Station

Practical Action Nepal (2009) revealed that the variation in the spatial and temporal distribution of precipitation and its trend over Nepal is due to the interaction of the complex topography with monsoon and westerly disturbances system. From computation, it was also noticed that the annual 27 years annual average mean rainfall is 106.36 mm.



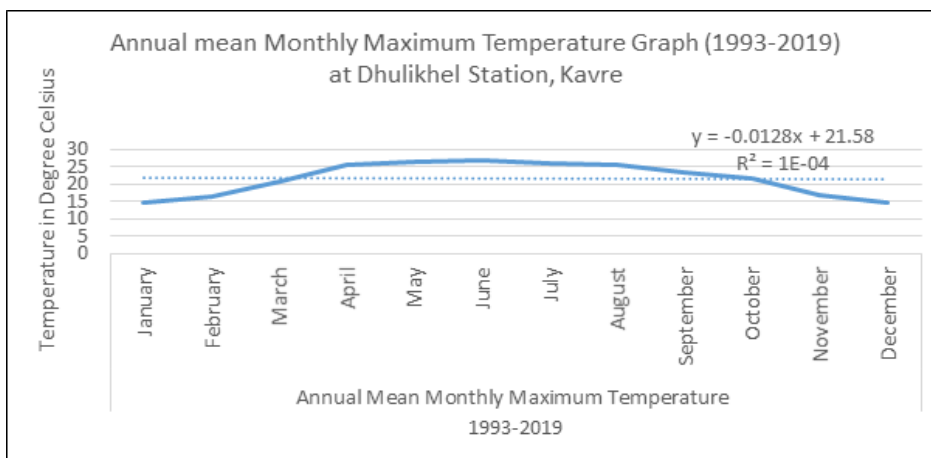
Source: DHM, 2020

Figure 2: Average Annual Rainfall Dhulikhel Meteorological Station

The average annual rainfall was fluctuating showing erratic with the maximum in 1995 i.e. 152.01 mm and minimum in 2013 i.e. 69.63 mm. The mean annual precipitation of 27 years with the trend line shows the equation as $y = -1.379x + 125.67$ and R-value as $R^2 = 0.2512$ is shown in the above (figure 2). Even the trend line showed the decreasing trend of rainfall.

➤ Annual mean maximum temperature

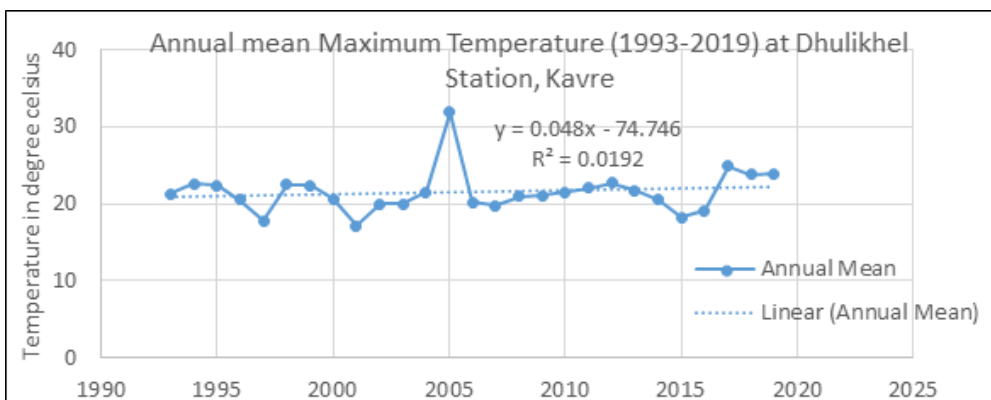
27 year mean monthly maximum temperature data (1993-2019) of Dhulikhel Meteorological station was analyzed. The monthly temperature analysis shows that the highest maximum temperature reaches its peak value of 26.74 0C in June while its lowest peak value of 14.70 0C in January was recorded. Trend line shows the equation as $y = -0.0128x + 21.58$ and R-value as $R^2 = 1E - 04$ in figure 3. This equation indicates a constant trend in the mean monthly maximum temperature.



Source: DHM, 2020

Figure 3: Average Annual Monthly Maximum Temperature of Dhulikhel Meteorological Station

From computation, it was also noticed that the annual average of monthly mean maximum temperature was 26.74 0C. Similarly, the annual mean of the maximum temperature of 27 years with a trend line of the following figure shows that maximum temperature is increasing with the equation $y = 0.048x - 74.746$, and R square value is $R^2 = 0.0192$ which is shown in a figure 4 graph.



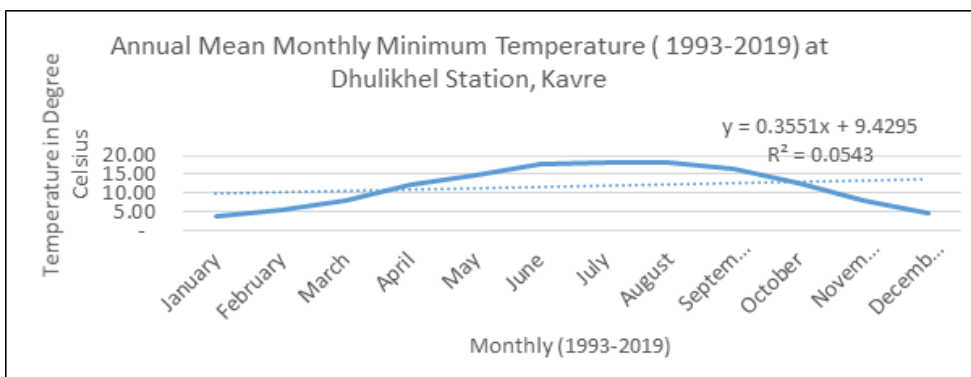
Source: DHM, 2020

Figure 4: Average Annual Maximum Temperature of Dhulikhel Meteorological Station

The annual mean of the maximum temperature was showing the highest maximum temperature in 2005 i.e. 31.840C and the lowest in 2001 i.e. 17.140C. The trend shows that the annual average maximum temperature was in an increasing trend.

➤ **Annual mean minimum temperature**

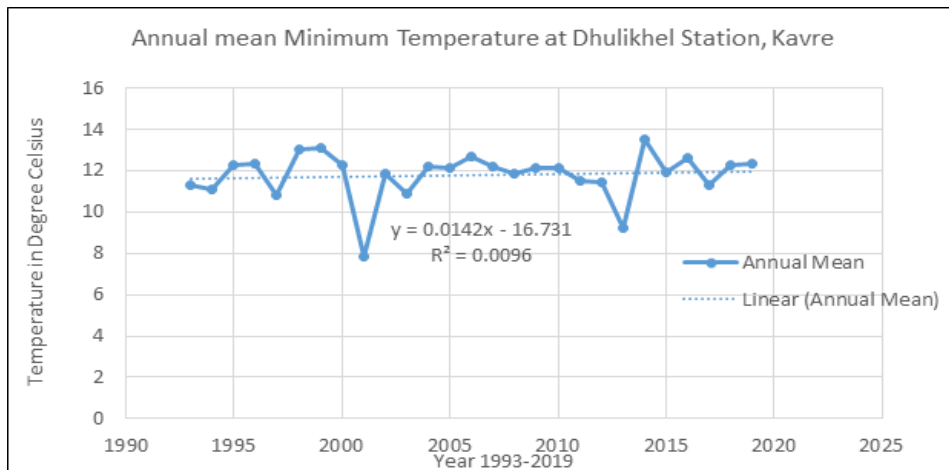
The 27 years mean monthly minimum annual air temperatures of Dhulikhel Meteorological station have been analyzed statistically. The average monthly minimum temperature reaches its highest peak value of 18.340C in August while its lowest peak value of 3.76 in January was recorded. The minimum monthly air temperature for Dhulikhel showed an increased trend however this temperature showed a tendency towards an increasing trend in figure 5.



Source: DHM, 2020

Figure 5: Average Annual Monthly Minimum Temperature of Dhulikhel Station

Similarly, the annual mean of the minimum temperature of 27 years with a trend line is shown in figure 6.



Source: DHM, 2020

Figure 6: Average Annual Minimum Temperature of Dhulikhel Station

The annual mean of the minimum temperature was showing the highest in 2014 i.e. 13.530C and the lowest in 2001 i.e. 7.860C. This analysis shows that the annual average minimum temperature was in an increasing trend.

➤ *People's perception of climate change*

Climate change is a vague subject. Different people take different for climate change. Some people do know what climate change is, some people think they know but they have not good knowledge of climate change and some people know what climate change is. Here, the household surveys were carried out to collect the community experience and perception about climate change impacts in the agricultural sector. Respondent expressed their experiences on changes in local climate and its impact on their lives. However, they are unclear about climate change and its impacts.

Perception and experience on whether they had heard about climate change and global warming were that only 13% have not heard about it and 87% have heard it directly.

➤ *People's perception towards the changes in soil*

Climate change has a major impact on soil, and changes in land use and soil can either accelerate or slow down climate change. Without healthier soil and sustainable land and soil management, we cannot tackle the climate crisis, produce enough food, and adapt to a changing climate. Soil plays a crucial role in agricultural production. The changes in rainfall patterns, along with expected changes in temperature, solar radiation, and atmospheric CO₂ concentrations, may have significant impacts on soil erosion rates. The processes involved in the impact of climate change on soil erosion by water are

complex, involving changes in rainfall amounts and intensities, the number of days of precipitation, the ratio of rain to snow, plant biomass production, plant residue decomposition rates, soil microbial activity, evapotranspiration rates, and shifts in land use necessary to accommodate a new climate regime. Even in cases where annual rainfall would decrease, system feedbacks related to decreased biomass production could lead to greater susceptibility of the soil to erode.

According to the survey, the soil of the study area was inherently fragile and prone to degradation. Wind, landslide, and water runoff causes losses of the huge amount of topsoil during the pre-monsoon and monsoon season in the study area. From survey out of 200 respondents, 59% of respondents have observed that changes in the soil while 41% do not observe the changes in the soil. The population of observed the changes in the soil is higher, they observed that the soil becomes highly acidic and hardening. In their opinion, the soil becomes erode due to the use of the high amount of chemical fertilizer and their unfriendly behavior to the environment.

➤ *Perception on trend of climate change parameters*

Concerning the perceptions of climate change, perception of change in climatic parameters like precipitation, temperature, winds/storms, fog, hailstone, cold waves, and heat waves is important.

Regarding the past and present variation in annual precipitation amount change, 11% people said that the precipitation in recent years is increasing, 76% said it is decreasing and 13% said it is the same. Similarly, regarding the variation in annual temperature, 81% replied that it is increasing, 10% decreasing and 9% felt in the same. Regarding the winds/storms change 60% said is increasing in recent years, 12% responded to its decreasing trend, 15% felt the same, and do not know by 13%. The fog occurrence was found to be increasing by 57%, decreasing by 24%, the same by 8%, and don't know by 11%. The hailstone amount pattern was found to be increasing by 28%, decreasing by 17%, the same by 43%, and don't know by 12%. Similarly, the cold waves days change was responded to as increasing by 24%, decreasing by 62%, the same by 13%, and don't know by 7%. The heatwave days were said to be increasing by 51%, decreasing by 14%, the same by 26%, and not known by the remaining percentage.

➤ *Impact of climatic change on agriculture*

According to the survey, the perception of the impact of climate change in agriculture was found that 86% of the community answered that there is the direct impact of climate change in agriculture and only 14% said that there is no impact. Similarly, the perception on the sensitivity of agricultural productivity with climate change reveals that 49% finds it sensitive, 23% finds it highly sensitive, 16% less sensitive and 12% are unknown about it.

Based on the field survey, there is a slightly change in environmental parameters in the study area. Cold and frosty days are decreasing, the rainy season is shifting and days are becoming hot. These parameters help to impact on the agricultural system of this region. According to the community of the study area, there is a change in the production system

of agriculture. The production rate of cereal crops like rice, maize, and wheat is going to slightly increase in recent years as a comparison of the previous year. The local people were not satisfied with the production of local varieties in different sectors of production so they were changing varieties of cereal crops, most of the farmers used improved seeds, chemical fertilizer, and pesticides because of this reason, production is increasing. Higher air temperature in the ripening period causes the crop to ripen faster, as a result of the carbohydrate in the plant stem and leaves cannot translocate properly, thus grain size becomes smaller and the yield becomes less. So crops require optimum air temperature. Crops can't tolerate high air, soil, and water temperature. And high temperature produces several problems in agriculture such as shortening the time of the reaping of crops, shortening the time of the germination of a seed, increase the number of pests and disease. There is a problem in the production of the cereal crops that are also not fixed. There are many problems in agricultural plants, sometimes rain deficit, sometimes heavy rain, flood, frost, and longtime drought. So it can be said that the climatic parameters are also affecting the crops in the study area.

➤ *Adaptation measures by the farmers*

The farmers have been adopting a variety of options and technologies to adapt to the impacts of climate change in agriculture. These measures include changing crop varieties, the use of improved seeds of cereal crops, changing cropping patterns, practicing intercropping systems, terracing sloping lands to halt landslide and erosion, use of chemical fertilizers, and pesticides. Imported improved varieties have high production potential but are less resistant to climatic stresses such as windstorms, hail, and rain. Farmers of this Municipality prefer the improved varieties of rice, maize, and wheat for high productivity per unit area. The improved seed has high production potentiality as compared to the local seeds.

The survey showed that in local agriculture adaptation practice, 23% of community people changing crop varieties, 96% used improved seed. Likewise, 47% of people changing cropping patterns and intercropping are done by 64%. Land management technology and terracing are followed by 58% and 53% respectively. Also, chemical fertilizer and pesticides used by large amounts of 93%, and there is no system of water harvesting.

Conclusions and recommendation

The impact of climate change is gradually becoming a matter of great concern for every country including Nepal. The impact is affecting the poor and vulnerable farmers in Nepal, most of whom are farmers working on their farms for subsistence level. The pace of soil degradation issue is the highest in the mountains of the fragile environment and the steep slopes. Moreover, due to rugged mountainous topography, active tectonics, and concentrated monsoon precipitation, Nepal. Many studies shows that, South Asian countries, particularly India, Nepal, and Bangladesh farmer's using improved seed for adaptation, the context of exchanging drought-resistant seeds and other abiotic stress-tolerant crop varieties and adopting and practicing particular soil and water management

practices for marginal areas have long been core activities of the farming communities, in this research this statement of these researchers has been tested and accepted.

This study has fulfilled the gap of research in the climate change context of cereal crops on mid- hill, Banepa Municipality of Nepal with tested the previous research. This study attempt to analyze the impact of climate change on the agriculture system of the Banepa Municipality. From the data analysis, temperature and rainfall of this region are not the same in the long range of time; the precipitation of the study area was also a decreasing trend.

The perception and experiences of the change of climatic variability reveal the fact of changing climate. Rainfall and temperature pattern is the main indicator of climate change. The average annual rainfall was recorded maximum in 1995 and a minimum in 2013. The annual mean temperature of this region is not also the same. The maximum annual mean temperature and minimum annual mean temperature are also slightly increasing. Similarly, the annual mean of maximum temperature in 2017 and 2014 recorded was highest. Farmers have experienced that the rainfall is untimely and the temperature has increased. Due to this change farmers have experienced new diseases and weeds in the field crops. The outbreak of new diseases and weeds could be the effects of climate change.

Farmers have the pursuit of different strategies to reduce the vulnerabilities of climate-related disasters. These strategies include changing crop varieties, used of improved seed, changing cropping patterns, intercropping system, land management technology, terracing, used of chemical fertilizer and pesticides. Migration, and diversification of livelihood options i.e. income. In general climate change should be considered in long term strategic planning to have the maximum adaptive capacity.

The irrigation system could be a long term solution for the untimed rainfall problem. The method of irrigation could be suggested by the concerned personnel. In the narrow fields, modern types of irrigation like drip irrigation or similar type may be in short term solutions. Further scope of research has been recommended for an integrated way through multidisciplinary research aspects in the subject of climate change to identify the in-depth impact of climate change in the case of cereal crops, water source, biodiversity, livestock and public health problems at the local and national levels with short term and long term basis.

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Role of Armed Police Force, Nepal to Protect and Promotion of Human Rights

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Abstract

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The present article reveals the role and policy of Armed Police Force Nepal in safeguarding human rights. One of the primary missions of the APF Nepal is to protect the citizens from criminal activity and criminal elements and to maintain public order. This duty includes protecting the rights of every citizen. Armed forces have the duty to protect the individual human rights of every person they encounter. This is an affirmative duty, meaning the police services cannot knowingly ignore or intentionally fail to act when a human rights violation is observed. The Armed Police Force has mandated tasks related to protection, promotion, respect and fulfillment of human rights from various aspects. The research has reached in conclusion: Human rights are moral principles or norms that describe certain standards of human behavior and are regularly protected as a legal right in municipal and international law. They are commonly understood as inalienable, universal and indivisible fundamental rights to which a person is inherently entitled simply because she or he is a human being. To achieve this objective APF Nepal has adopted zero tolerance in Human Rights violations and following national and international human rights instrument that have been adopted by Nepal.

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Introduction

It is universally accepted that every individual is entitled to certain rights, which cannot be taken away under any circumstances, and these rights together are termed as Human Rights. By definition, Human Rights are “Inalienable fundamental rights to which a person is inherently entitled simply because she or he is a human being.”(Magdalena,2004). This means they are inherent in every human being, regardless of race, color, sex, language, religion, political or another opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or another status. Human rights mainly concern relationships between individuals and the state. They control and regulate the exercise of state power over individuals, grant freedoms to individuals in relation to the state, and require states to satisfy the basic human needs of people within their jurisdiction. They are best understood as those rights expressed in international texts (or instruments) which have been agreed by states and which set out human rights standards. The most famous of these is the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1948 (Phuyal & Rai, 2010).

After World War II human rights theory and practice evolved every other decade, so it seems fit to speak of “generations” of rights. At first human rights were considered to claim for non-intervention by governments in the lives of citizens to prevent the abuse of state power. This first generation of rights came to be known as civil and political rights. Examples include the right to life; the right to freedom from torture and ill-treatment; the right to liberty; the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion; and the right to freedom of peaceful assembly. This second generation of rights came to be known as economic, social and cultural rights. These include the right to social security; the right to work; the right to education; and the right to participate in the life of the community (Sangraula, 2005).

This is where the third generation of human rights comes in. They are commonly known as “collective rights” and, as with all developments in this field. The right to live in a clean environment is known as the fourth generation of Human Rights. The history of human rights can be traced Magna Carta (1215), the petition of Rights (1628), the English Bill of Rights (1689), the French Declaration (1789), the Bill of Rights in the United States Constitution (1791), the first Geneva Convention (1864), UNO, UDHR, (Robertson, 1972).

International Human Rights Laws (IHRL) are the body of international law designed to promote and protect human rights at international, regional and domestic levels. As a form of international law, international human rights law is primarily made up of treaties, agreements between states intended to have binding legal effect between the parties that have agreed to them; and customary international law, rules of law derived from the consistent conduct of states acting out of the belief that the law required them to act that way. Other international human rights instruments contribute to the implementation, understanding and development of international human rights law and have been recognized as a source of political obligation. International human rights law is a specific classification of public international law; it is composed of a series of international hu

man rights treaties, customary international law, general principle and other treaties that emerged since 1945 conferring legal form on inherent human rights. It is also called post-war law, which emerged in the middle of the 20th century as a response to the atrocities and horrors committed under Nazism during the Second World War (Amnesty International, 1998).

Security forces and human rights

Security is related to the protection of life, liberty and property of citizens and protection of the country's sovereignty as well as territorial integrity from external and internal threats. After the end of Cold War, the trend of conflict in the world has changed from inter-state to intra-state. (Fukuyama (2018) stated that the obligation to respect universal human rights has been voluntarily undertaken by most countries around the world, and rightly so. But all liberal democracies are built on top of states, whose jurisdiction is limited by their territorial reach. No state can take on an unlimited obligation to protect people outside its jurisdiction, and it is far from clear that the world would be better off if all states tried to do so. Democracy means that the people are sovereign, but if there is no way of delimiting who the people are, they cannot exercise democratic choice.

Armed Forces with the duty to conduct different operations should also be empowered with human rights knowledge for them to be able to adhere to human rights principles while conducting their missions or operation. Government power is implemented on behalf of its people and the government agencies such as the armed forces are obligated by the constitution with the responsibility of exercising their power within the confine of the law and seek to ensure during performance of their duties they implement the constitutional principles and values. The implementation of human rights attributes to growth of a country's democracy and development. The right to liberty and security is non-derogable and enshrined in numerous regional and international systems of protection of human rights. Human rights and security are meant to be complementary, hence inseparable. In the absence of human rights in any society, then insecurity is inevitable.

The United Nations General Assembly adopted a resolution on December 17, 1979 that all security personnel shall respect and protect human dignity and uphold the human rights of all persons as well it applies to the armed forces, they have to abide by the international conventions against torture and other cruel punishments, principles of international cooperation in the detention, arrest, extraditions and punishment against humanity. There also must ensure that the members of the Armed Forces enjoy the basic human rights and fundamental freedoms in the context of their service. A soldier whose human rights are protected by the State is likely to be more disciplined and operationally effective, and also less likely to violate the human rights of others.

Literature Review

Human rights are rights inherent to all human beings. They define relationships between individuals and power structures, especially the State. Human rights delimit State power

and, at the same time, require States to take positive measures ensuring an environment that enables all people to enjoy their human rights. History in the past 250 years has been shaped by the struggle to create such an environment(ohchr.org, 2018).

The constitution prohibits torture and the newly enacted criminal code criminalizes torture and enumerates punishment for torture. The Torture Compensation Act provides for compensation for victims of torture. According to human rights activists and legal experts, police resorted to severe abuse, primarily beatings, to force confessions. Local human rights NGO Advocacy Forum (AF) reported no evidence of major changes in police abuse trends across the country, but AF stated that police increasingly complied with the courts' demand for preliminary medical checks of detainees (U.S. Embassy Nepal, 2018).

When violations of HRs are involved, dispassionate inquiries are ordered and in cases in which persons are found guilty, strong penal action is taken. To monitor HRs observance and expedite the investigations in HRs violations, a Human Rights Cell was created in 1992, i.e., even before the establishment of the NHRC. The nodal officer of the Cell at the Force HRs attends to all correspondence with the NHRC and NGOs and furnish factual position to all concerned. He maintains close liaison with state nodal officers to collect information regularly about cases against the force personnel (Singh, 2003).

The new cycle of protests has opened up new political spaces for human rights based resistance by indigenous and peasant communities, social-environmental activists and social movements. These groups are at the forefront of the forces of resistance against resource extraction in Latin America and are increasingly looking towards human rights institutions, discourses and practices to provide a means to contest the unjust capitalist structures that are causing the social ecological destruction of the planet (Raftopoulos, 2017).

While individuals do not lose their human rights when they enter the armed forces, states can limit their enjoyment of human rights due to requirements related to the characteristics of military life. The particularities of military life that are used to justify restrictions on the exercise of human rights in the barracks are often related to preserving order and discipline in the military; establishing the political neutrality of the armed forces; maintaining operational effectiveness; protecting classified information; orders; and maintaining the hierarchical structure of the organization (OSCE/ODIHR, 2008).

A complex relationship exists between the repression of defenders and their defence of human rights; in some cases, repression triggers new forms of mobilisation and activism. The tactics and strategies that defenders use to manage their own security and to respond to risk are diverse, creative and highly adapted to local contexts. As some have observed, there is sometimes a gap between what defenders do and how transnational actors understand and support them, which can lead to ineffective protection and support measures (Bennetta, Ingletonb, , Nahc, & Savage, 2015).

Technological innovations do not only benefit law enforcement. They also enhance the visibility of police misconduct that hitherto has been difficult, if not impossible, to establish. Police stations are subject to monitoring, both inside and outside interview rooms. There is also increasing CCTV monitoring in urban inner city precincts that inevitably capture video evidence of police going about their work. In 2010, a Queensland Police officer was sentenced to nine months imprisonment after a violent assault on three people in his custody was recorded (Calligeros, 2010).

Methodology

The study follows a qualitative approach. The study analysis is based on a review and examination of information gathered from a variety of primary and secondary sources. For the primary data, the Human Rights section of APF, Nepal Headquarter was consulted to understand the focus on human rights specific training being conducted in APF Nepal. The APF Human Rights Booklet, 2019, Armed Police Act and Regulation, the Journal published by Human Rights Commission, ICRC and UN documents have been taken as major sources of secondary data. Data collected from various sources have been presented, described and interpreted.

Armed Police Force Nepal and Human rights

The Government of Nepal established Armed Police Force, Nepal under Ministry of Home Affairs as a paramilitary security agency during the Maoist insurgency. After the agreement between Government and the Maoist, APF focused on public order management along with its other mandated task.

The fundamental ethos of the Armed Police Force Nepal is Peace, Security and Commitment. Some of the human rights related mandates of APF are the following (Armed police Act, 2001).

- a) Control any ongoing or would be armed conflict within the country,
- b) Control any ongoing or would be armed rebellion or separatist activities within the country,
- c) Control any ongoing or would be terrorist activities within the country,
- d) Control any ongoing or would be riot within the country,
- e) Assist in rendering relief to natural calamity or epidemic victims,
- f) Rescue any citizen or else from hostage captivity or in the event of occurrence of heinous and serious crimes or unrest of grave nature or of anticipation,

In the initial phase of the Maoist insurgency in Nepal, the lack of knowledge and deteriorated security situation of country led security forces to commit of human rights violation. The values of human rights were not established and not publicized among all members of the security force at that time. Due to those reasons some activities occurred. But after the realization the importance of human rights and obligation, the human right situation improved hereinafter.

APF, Nepal continuous to contribute soldiers in peacekeeping efforts under the coveted blue flag of the United Nations for global peace and security as a whole. It has been constantly involved in various peacekeeping missions since 2002 as a member of the FPU contingent (Armed Police Force Nepal, 2020). APF, Nepal taking part in some of the most difficult operations on several occasions and suffered casualties in the service of the UN. Likewise professional excellence of the APF, Nepal troops have won universal appraisal.

APF, Nepal is a law enforcement agency of Nepal, so it has the prime responsibility of protection and promotion of human rights. Since its inception APF is following the norms and values of international human rights. For adopting the norms and values of human right, for making the APF member trained, aware and responsible towards the human rights and for monitoring evaluating, mentoring, guiding and punishing the culprit of human rights, APF, Nepal has established a Human Rights Cell in headquarter. The Central Human Rights Cell in APF headquarters has been active since 2003 (APF Human rights Manual, 2018).

There is a central Human Right Cell in Headquarters and Provincial Human Right Cell in Regional Brigade established in 2003. For the protection and promotion of the human rights of women, there are central and regional gender cells in headquarter and Provincial Brigade of APF Nepal. All the members of APF are formally or informally trained on the fundamental principle of human rights. They are aware of role and responsibility in regard to the promotion and protection of human rights. APF used forces in disadvantaged they have to follow the standard of human rights law and international humanitarian law. For making them aware APF Nepal Human Rights Cell is performing its activities as a mentor, monitor, evaluator and corrector there are Seven Human Rights Cells in the Brigade level respectively.

Promotion and protection of Human Rights is a multidimensional task. Only an agency can't perform a complete task regarding human rights which is achieved through a joint effort. For the successful accomplishment multiple stakeholders together should work for such a task. APF Nepal does cooperate and coordinate with various agencies for betterment of human rights in Nepal. The following are the function of Human Rights Cell in APF.

1. Information sharing and strategic advice to IGP on the matter of human rights.
2. Circulation of policy, guideline and directives to subordinate units.
3. Departmental punishment to APF personnel who were convicted as Human Rights violators.
4. Coordinate with all national and international stakeholders working in the field of human rights.
5. Guide, monitor and support the Human Rights Cell of APF Brigade level in each Province.
6. Monitor, investigate and respond upon human rights issues within organization.
7. Conduction of human rights related training and orientation classes.
8. Response to the allegation against APF Nepal during the performance of its man dated task.

APF, Nepal protection and promotion of human rights

Nepal ratified approximately two dozen international treaties concerning human rights. However, it is still difficult to know whether international human rights treaties are directly applied in domestic law. Human rights are an issue of universal concern (Timilsena, 2015). Nepal is proceeding ahead with a plan for the sake of protection and respect of Human Rights. Planning, policy and guideline are prepared and implemented strictly in personnel, professional and operational activities for respect of human rights. APF's policies for protection of human rights are listed below:

1. Conduct of human rights training and awareness program to APF members
2. Respect, protect, promote and fulfill the standard of human rights
3. Publish of human rights booklet for APF Personnel.
4. Provide regular guidelines and directives to the APF personnel.
5. Includes of human rights curriculum in all basic and advanced APF training.
6. Adopt Zero tolerance policy against human rights violators of APF members.
7. Includes human rights related question for FPU selection exam to ensure the knowledge of human rights.
8. Provide awareness program to local people about human rights principle
9. Implication of international human rights standard, value and principle
10. Train officials on HR Cell and upgrade the physical infrastructure of the cell.
11. Conduct advance training related to IHL/IHRL
12. Focus on promotion and protection of human rights in personal and professional.
13. Sensitize officials on crowd behavior, conflict resolution, stress management,
14. Enlighten. all APF Nepal's personnel on gender discrimination issue .
15. Control crime and gender violence in society.
16. Respect and protect the rights of detainees.
17. Follow the due process while using force and while arresting the suspect.

Role of APF Nepal to respect, protect and fulfillment of human rights

During the unrest if Nepal Police could not control the situation, then APF Nepal is mobilized by the District Security Committee to maintain the peace and order. The situation may require arrest to use of force. During operationalization mandated task following sensitive and human rights related activities may conduct by APF, Nepal.

(a) Arrest: Article 8 of UDHR, 1948 guaranteed that “No one shall be subjected to arbitrary arrest, detention or exile” likewise ICCPR, 1966 also followed the same spirit against arbitrary arrest. Article 20 Constitution of Nepal clearly mentioned that “no person shall be detained without being informed of the ground for such an arrest”. It is the act of apprehending a person for the alleged commission of an offence or by the action of an authority. Suspicious person shall be arrested only on reasonable grounds after issuing the warrant paper and he should be submitted as soon as possible to responsible authority. According to section 24(2) of APF Act , 2058 incorporated that if any suspected person may be in a house, land, place or vehicle the responsible Armed Police Officer may search

and arrest and submit to the local police as soon as possible. The APF Nepal has legal authority to make arrest but does not have power to detain or interrogate. Rule 163 of APF Rule clearly mentioned the Arrest notice to suspect or offender. So all members of APF are trained and aware about existing law and human rights of suspects or offenders during arrest.

(b) Use of Force: The local administration Act, 2028 has explained about the use of force and firearms in riot control and other emergency situations to maintain peace and order. Section 6(2) of Local Administration Act 2028 mentioned that if the Chief District Officer (CDO) reveals that any serious disorder has been occurred or to be occurred, and he/ she thinks that it is not possible to control it only with the assistance of the police in such place under his/her jurisdiction, he/she may request to local or nearest Armed Police Force Nepal or Nepal Army as per the situation demand. Minimal force shall be used as a last resort. The proper rule of use of force shall be adopted while managing riot or mob. Armed police Force Nepal follows the rule mentioned in section 1 of Local Administration Act, 2028 if crowd or mob may take violent or destructive activity and there is a possibility of disorder from such activities and if it goes beyond the control the security forces first persuade to maintain peace and if peace could not be maintained may cause to use baton (Lathi charge), tear gas, water cannon, blank fire as per necessity based on the situation, to maintain peace and order. If it is not possible to maintain peace it deems necessary to open fire to issue a warning to the crowd with all clarity before opening the fire; if the mob is not dispersed after such warning it becomes necessary to give order to open fire below the knee as a last resort. APF Nepal follows the principle of proportionality, legality, accountability, necessity to maintain peace and order.

(c) Search: While searching any person, vehicle, place or house, due process of informing, no harm, search in presence of the responsible person shall be followed. Due respect to elders, children and women shall be followed. Ladies officers shall be employed for searching women. Civil Criminal Procedure Code, 2074 clearly mentioned about search procedure.

(d) Punishment, Torture and Inhuman Treatment: Unlawful punishment, torture and inhuman treatment to any suspects are completely prohibited while performing duty of controlling and investigating any crime. All APF Nepal members are directed not to commit physical and mental torture at any cost. APF follow the article 5 of UDHR which mentioned that no one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.

(e) Detention: APF Nepal has legal authority to make arrests but does not have powers to detain or interrogate. Arrested persons should be handed over to responsible authorities as soon as possible and they should not be detained in APF custody. Rule 163 of APF Rule 2072 clearly mentioned about the handover of the arrested person to the local police. APF Nepal respects the right of life, liberty, and security of person which is mentioned in the international human rights instrument and municipal law.

(f) Other: APF members have to respect the human right on a personal level. In their personal activities, all members are sensitive and dutiful to respect human rights. As social beings in individual capacity and incapacity of APF personnel they have to follow the standard of the international human rights law. APF, Nepal should mainly focus on respect, protecting, fulfilling and promoting the human rights of people. People have their own right which should not be violated or waived out by the security force. Rights of women, children, minorities, migrated and disabilities should be respected and protected.

Conclusion

APF Nepal is one of the vital security agencies of Nepal which has shown its competency during the armed conflict in Nepal by adopting the principle of use of force. It is performing its mandated task with a human rights friendly environment. Human rights are moral principles or norms that describe certain standards of human behavior and are regularly protected as legal rights in municipal and international law. They are commonly understood as inalienable, universal and indivisible fundamental rights to which a person is inherently entitled simply because she or he is a human being. Human rights are inherent in all human beings regardless of their nation, location, language, religion, ethnic origin or other status. They are applicable everywhere and at every time in the sense of being universal and they are egalitarian in the sense of being the same for everyone. They require empathy and the rule of law and impose an obligation on persons to respect the human rights of others. So the armed force Nepal is sensitive to protect, promote, respect and fulfillment of human rights while performing its duties. Recourse to force in performing internal security missions must be commensurate with the needs for enforcement. The armed forces will take due care to avoid injury to civilians or their property. The use of the armed forces should be on the basis of proportionality, legitimacy, accountability and necessity.

The government also must ensure that the members of the Armed Forces enjoy the basic human rights and fundamental freedoms in the context of their service. A soldier whose human rights are protected by the State is likely to be more disciplined and operationally effective, and also less likely to violate the human rights of others.

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Mountain Disasters and Rescue Mechanism in Nepal

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Abstract

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Geographically, Nepal is divided into three regions, namely; the Terai, the hills, and the mountains. Nepal is prone to many types of disasters due to the various causes and one of the main causes is its geographic setting. Some disasters and hazards are prevalent to all over the country, some are area specific. Mountain and high altitude hazards are unique in nature and have distinct features and they pose several challenges for the rescue and relief operations. Disasters in mountain regions of Nepal have multi-dimensional effects on human life, property and the environment. The paper analyzes the mountain disasters, their nature and their impacts. It also focuses on the institutional as well as legal arrangements regarding disaster rescue. For this purpose, a qualitative descriptive and analytical method is applied to achieve the desired objectives of the study. This paper depends upon the secondary source of data available in several works of literature; journal articles, books, news articles, government reports, and websites. The paper finds that the frequencies of mountain disasters are low in comparison to other parts of Nepal, but they are diverse and complex. There are institutional and legal mechanisms for disaster risk reduction, but they are not adequate to respond mountain disasters effectively. All security agencies along with private sectors involving in mountain search and rescue operations do not have sufficient mountain-specific rescue units, training, and logistics.

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Introduction

Nepal, due to its geography, geological position, and the impact of climate change, is exposed to the multiple hazards creating multitude of disasters throughout the country claiming large number of lives and significant economic loss every year. Further intensification is done by the unplanned and rapid urbanization, environmental degradation, variations in nature and type of disaster and inadequate understanding of disaster risk management (MoHA 2019).

The Himalayan Region or high mountain region is characterized by inclement climatic and rugged topographic conditions. The Himalayan region of Nepal is one of the most hazard-prone because of its steep terrain, high seismicity, fragile geological formation, and intense and highly variable precipitation, this region is especially vulnerable to GLOF, landslides, avalanches, and earthquakes. Currently, natural hazards in the mountain are increasing in magnitude and frequency, a trend driven partly by climate change. While some of the factors in exposure and vulnerability are physical and environmental, other factors are socioeconomic, such as poverty, human settlement and habitat, lack of preparedness, susceptibility, and adaptive capacity (Nepal DRR Portal, 2020).

Mountain Disasters are not only the threat to the local people and properties, but also to the tourists. More and more groups of people visit the mountainous areas for expedition, trekking, exploration and research work because of the curiosity towards nature. With increase in the number of visitors to Nepal especially the adventure enthusiasts, invention of new adventure sports and opening of new areas for tourism activities in the remote areas of the country, the challenges to mitigate the disaster risks have also augmented quantitatively and qualitatively. In recent years, other incidents like high altitude sickness in mountains frequently occur beside natural disasters.

Search and Rescue activities are “part of a complex emergency system that emerges to respond to disasters, which are lifesaving activities during disasters” (Dynes & Quarantelli, 1980). In Nepal, limited trained personnel from the Security forces namely Nepal Army, Nepal Police and Armed Police Force, Nepal are conducting search and rescue operations. They mobilize in all parts of Nepal as the major responder of disaster rescue but high mountain areas have many challenges for effective search and rescue operations. The Government of Nepal has developed the minimum level SAR capacity from the trained security personnel. In mountain region, security agencies, private helicopter companies and volunteer organizations are carrying out the rescue operations (MoHA, 2017).

The high vulnerability of Nepal to disasters needs the continuous preparedness and planning. Disaster preparedness provides a platform to design effective, realistic and coordinated planning, reduces duplication of efforts and increase the overall effectiveness of National mechanism and response efforts. Disaster preparedness activities embedded with risk reduction measures can prevent disaster situations and also result in saving maximum lives and livelihoods during any disaster situation, enabling the affected population to get back to normalcy within a short time period. Search and rescue activities are an integral part of the preparedness and it is necessary to examine the national capacity and procedures on preparedness and response.

Review of literature

John (1980) defined disaster as “a part of the environmental process that is of greater than expected frequency and magnitude and causes major human hardship with significant damage”. Generally, a disaster is viewed as “an extreme event that arises when a hazard agent intersects with a social system”. Technically, then, disasters are events that take place as part of normal environmental processes; they are not the principal focus of study. “Disasters bring serious disruption of the functioning of a community or a society involving widespread human, material, economic or environmental losses and impacts, which exceeds the ability of the affected community to cope using its own resources” (UNISDR, 2009).

“Everyday community social functions and social institutions are suddenly interrupted, many organizations cease operating or operate in a reduced manner, local officials are unable to complete their usual work tasks, most aid comes from distant areas, nonlocal mass media outlets cover the crisis, and high-ranking government officials and organizations become involved” (Quarantelli, 2008). The Gorkha earthquake in Nepal certainly meets all of the above characteristics. While vulnerability represents the social factors of disaster risk, hazard can be explained as the biophysical component of disaster risk. Disaster risk is typically considered a function of hazard and vulnerability.

“The Hindu Kush Himalayan region is highly vulnerable to earthquake and water-induced disasters. This fragile mountain region is under tremendous stress of climate change and land use degradation that accelerated flash flood, river-line flood, erosion, wet mass movement during monsoon period and drought in non-monsoon period. Particular focus is required to understand the emerging risks as a result of climatic and land use changes and other a wide range of drivers contributing to increasing disaster risk in the region and to analyze the responses to disaster risks and disaster events” (Sahay, Gupta & Menon 2016). The devastating Gorkha Earthquake of 7.6 Richter scale having the epicenter occurred near Barpak village of Gorkha district on 25 April 2015 had severely affected 14 districts and another 31 districts affected to varying extents (MoHA, 2015). Among the affected districts, most of the districts were mountainous where search and rescue operations were challenging due to the geographical feature which were remote, rural and hilly areas. It was basically because of the lack of road network, transport resources, and adverse weather condition.

Loss of life and damage to properties has been frequently observed in Nepal where climate change is considered a trigger for high mountain avalanches and lake outbursts. Nine major GLOF were recorded between 1935 and 1985 (Nyaupane & Chhetri, 2009).

The outburst of the moraine-dammed Dig Tsho lake in 1985 in the Everest region, resulted in an extensive damage to tourist infrastructure and killed five people (Vuichard & Zimmermann, 1987). Heavy snow during Fall 1995 caused deaths in many tourist locations, for example, 28 people were killed in Gokyo Valley in the Everest region in the avalanches of November 9 and 10. Similarly, seven people in Kanchanjunga and five in

Annapurna region died because of avalanches. Landslide and debris flow of November 9 swept away houses and 15 people in Bagarchhap in Manang district. On 25 March, 2001, five individuals returning from the Annapurna Base Camp were swept away by debris flow induced by snow avalanche (MoHA, 2015).

Wildner & Paal (2015), “Compared with hazard in an urban setting, the hazard in mountain areas may occur in an austere environment that presents additional challenges to the rescue team, such as geographical isolation, exposure to weather extremes, dangerous or difficult terrain, communication difficulties including limited or absent mobile network or radio connections, the need to rely on mountain rescue extrication techniques such as application of ropes or pulleys, limited human resources and equipment, and specific injuries and illness, for example accidental hypothermia”.

Wikiwand (2020), “Mountain search and rescue refers to activities that occur in a mountainous environment, although the term is sometimes also used to apply to search and rescue in other wilderness environments. This tends to include mountains with technical rope access issues, snow, avalanches, ice, crevasses, glaciers, alpine environments and high altitudes. The difficult and remote nature of the terrain in which mountain rescue often occurs has resulted in the development of a number of specific pieces of equipment and techniques. Helicopters are often used to quickly extract casualties, and search dogs may be deployed to find a casualty”.

NCDPS (2020), “Mountain Rescue Teams provide support to local emergency management or emergency services agencies by assisting in the location of missing persons, lost/overdue hikers, persons with cognitive impairments who have wandered from caretakers, or any individual that is reported as a lost or injured and whereabouts are unknown”.

Pilemalm, Stenberg, & Granberg (2013) indicate that “mountain rescue mostly occurs in remote areas where there are few communication tools, and away from public security force. It will take some time to get the conditions after receiving alarm. The terrain is complex, and it is hard to rescue. As the terrain in mountainous areas are full of gullies, the altitude is high and the slopes are steep, it is not easy to locate the correct site of incident and get to know the condition of the targets in a timely manner. At night, in particular, visibility is low. It’s more difficult to find the people in dangers in the comparatively short time. This makes mountain rescue operations even more difficult.

At the same time, mountain incident sites are constantly accompanied with dangerous conditions such as explosions, rolling stones, avalanches, landslides, floods, and thunderstorms. Rescue team cannot accurately predict danger during the rescue operations. Freezing weather and cold have all made the rescue efforts difficult, and is a unique challenge to mountain emergency. Communication is also not smooth. It is hard to coordinate and command. It’s hard to know the level of injury and the status of illness of the people in trap. Due to some complex factors at incident site, rescue team members can hardly contact the trapped people rescued, leading to delayed emergency response”.

Firth et al. (2008) published “a retrospective study on the mortality on Mt. Everest between 1921 and 2006. During the study period, 125 of 8030 climbers and 67 of 6108 Sherpas died, meaning 1.6 percent of all climbers and 1.1 percent of Sherpas climbing above base camp did not return home. The difficulty of rescues at extreme altitude undoubtedly increases mortality compared with lower altitude”.

According to MoHA (2015), “Under Nepal Risk Reduction Consortium’s five flagship priority areas, Flagship 2 is focused on Emergency Preparedness and Response. As part of its commitment to strengthening overall disaster preparedness and the disaster response system in Nepal, the Government has formulated a National Strategic Action Plan on Search and Rescue Capacity. It is aimed to be operational and applicable in the urban as well as rural setting in a scalable manner”.

Kunwar (2016) provides a review on the concepts of safety, security and surety in tourism and the repercussions that risk, vulnerability, crisis, disaster, hazard, emergency and political turbulence can pose upon the industry. The article aims not just to prioritize the impacts of disasters on tourism but also aims to focus upon the issues of crisis management, disaster management and new marketing approaches for revival of tourism which comparatively are the less touched upon issues in the context of Nepal. The concept of tourism decision making is also studied here in the light of various theories. The article also discusses on the cultural dimension of tourist decision making and crisis management in relation with national culture and some theoretical orientation of crisis management in relevance to tourism.

Skinner (2018) highlighted on “the widespread international coverage of an insurance scam in Nepal that involves some helicopter companies, private hospitals and trekking agencies has hurt the country’s image abroad, and impacted an industry just recovering from the 2015 earthquake. It is reported that some trek organizers, hospitals and helicopter companies in Nepal has been creating fake rescue of tourists in mountain region, or sometimes deliberately made them sick, so that they could collect and share insurance compensation”.

“Insurance watchdog Traveler claimed its own investigations showed that 35% of the 1,600 helicopter rescues in Nepal this year were fraudulent, costing up to \$4 million” (Skinner, 2018). The company said it had intercepted and stopped 160 of the claims. The cost was serious enough for some international travel insurers to give the Nepal government till September to do something about it. Reacting to the ultimatum, the Ministry of Culture, Tourism and Civil Aviation formed a fact-finding committee to investigate how insurance companies had been defrauded with fake medical bills and fake rescues.

In the areas of mountain disaster and rescue mechanism in Nepal, the area is largely remained untouched. The various researchers studied about the Disaster and disaster management in Nepal but most of literatures have left the area of mountain disasters and rescue in Nepal. All the aspects prescribed and advocated by various intellectuals are not specific for Nepalese context. The research is focused to find out some actual scenario

on the topic of mountain disasters and national rescue mechanism. In the disaster prone countries like Nepal, the research on mountain disasters and rescue is less than adequate. Therefore, further researches on this aspect are essential.

Methodology

The design of this paper is qualitative which is conducted in descriptive and analytical form. It is based on a review and examination of information gathered from a variety of secondary sources including Journal articles, books, government reports, policy papers, Acts and regulations, guidelines, websites, books and newspaper articles. Collected data is analyzed and interpreted in a meaningful way.

While exploring the issues of mountain disasters and rescue, it is tried to explain the disaster profile of Nepal in brief, types and nature of mountain disaster in Nepal, institutional and legal arrangements on mountain search and rescue. Data collected from secondary source has been analyzed by descriptive method. Different data found in literature has been used to find out the actual scenario of mountain disasters as well as rescue mechanism in Nepal. Facts and figures also has been used for better analysis of the study. The paper fully considers the ethical issues.

Findings and discussion

Mountain disasters in Nepal

The mountain region is highly vulnerable to flash floods, landslides, droughts, GLOFs, Avalanches and earthquakes, because of its unique geology, steep terrain, intense seasonal precipitation, and high seismicity, a truly multi-hazard environment (MoHA, 2019). The context of hazard and disaster is particularly relevant in a mountainous setting like the Himalayan region, where primary and secondary hazards are closely interrelated. Primary hazards may be geophysical or hydrometeorology (e.g., landslides), and trigger secondary hazards, such as landslide dams and subsequent outburst floods. For example, the 2015 Nepal earthquake resulted in landslides and avalanches. Some frequently occurring hazards in mountain regions are discussed here:

Landslide: Landslide is one of the very common natural hazards in the hilly and mountain region of Nepal. Both natural and human factors such as steep slopes, fragile geology, high intensity of rainfall, deforestation, unplanned human settlements are the major causes of landslide. The risk of landslide is further exacerbated by anthropogenic activities like improper land use, encroachment into vulnerable land slopes and unplanned development activities such as construction of roads and irrigation canals without proper protection measures in the vulnerable mountain belt. "The hilly districts of Nepal located in the Siwalik, Mahabharat range, Mid-land, and also fore and higher Himalayas are more susceptible to landslide because of steep topography and fragile ecosystem" (Nepal DRR Portal, 2020)

Glacial Lake Outburst Floods (GLOF): The impact of climate change on Himalayan glaciers has increasingly become the subject of public and scientific debate. “Climate change has been contributing to glacial retreat and expansion of lakes, thereby increasing Glacial Lake Outburst Flood (GLOF) risk. Nepal has witnessed 24 GLOF events till date” (Bajracharya, 2010). “Glacial lakes in Nepal face a huge risk of Glacial Lake Outburst Flood due to the ongoing effects of climate change leading to the considerable amount of snow and glacier melt thus weakening the natural barriers holding these high altitude glacial lakes. About 14 such glacier lake outburst floods have been experienced between 1935 and 1991. A GLOF of 1985 caused a 10 m to 15 m high surge of water and debris to flood down the Bhoite Koshi and Dudh Koshi Rivers for 90 kilometers which swept away a hydropower plant” (MoHA, 2015).

Earthquake: “Nepal on a regular interval witnesses earthquake along the major active faults in east-west alignment. Historical data and ongoing seismological studies have clearly indicated that the entire region of Nepal is prone to earthquake and it lies in the active seismic zone V. It has also pointed out that Siwalik, lesser Himalaya and frontal part of the Higher Himalaya are the most vulnerable zones. Historical data has shown that the country witnessed three major earthquakes in 20th century namely Bihar-Nepal earthquake (1934), Bajhang earthquake (1980) and Udayapur earthquake (1988). According to Global Report on Disaster Risk, Nepal ranks the 11th position in terms of earthquake risk as earthquakes have often occurred in Nepal”(MoHA, 2019).

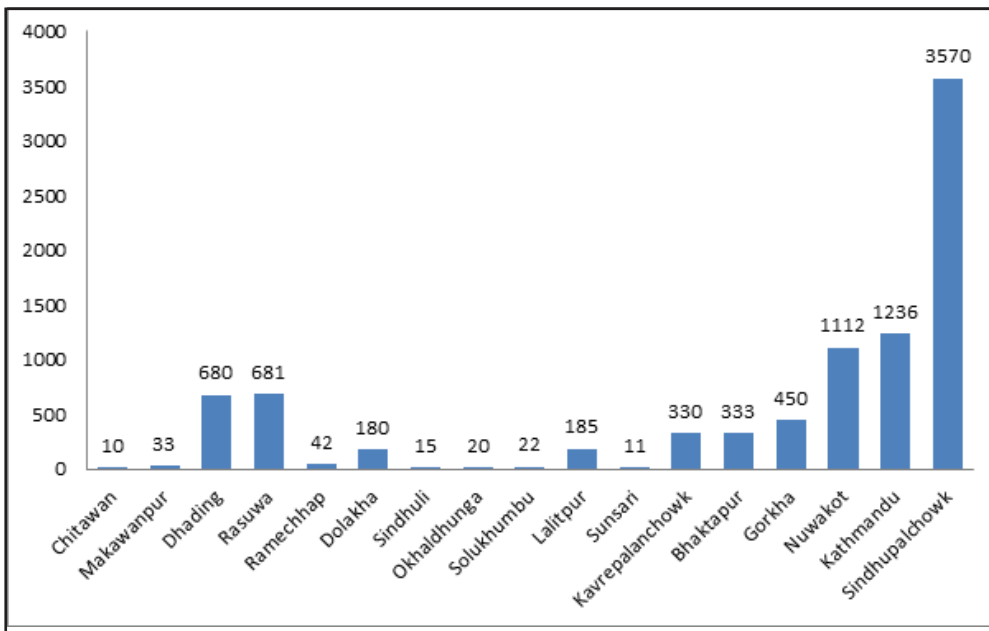


Figure 1: Fatalities due to Gorkha Earthquake 2015

Source: NEOC, 2020

Figure 1 compresses the table and shows the number of deaths due to the earthquake 2015. It only shows the badly affected districts. X and Y axis represents the name of

district and number of deaths respectively. If we see closely; Sindhupalchowk, Solukhumbu, Dhading, Rasuwa, Ramechhap, Dolakha- which are either gateway or destination for High Altitude were badly affected. The physical damage and collapsed buildings, hotel and infrastructure had affected the transaction of tourists.

Avalanche: “Avalanches are a rapid movement of snow and debris flowing down through the slope or flanks of mountains. It can be triggered by natural factors like slopes, thickness of snow or human activity. The high mountainous region having the rugged and steep slopes topographically is susceptible to avalanche. The northern part of Nepal is covered with high mountains where avalanche is very common and sometimes it claims the life of human being as well” (MoHA, 2019).

Table 1: Avalanches and its impact on human in Nepal (from 2012-2019)

District	Incident Date	Total Death	Missing People	Injured
Gorkha	9/23/2012	9	3	13
Darchula	1/18/2013	0	0	0
Dolpa	2/12/2013	2	0	0
Bajhang	5/17/2013	0	7	0
Bajhang	6/21/2013	1	0	0
Manang	9/29/2013	2	1	0
Solukhumbu	10/16/2013	3	0	0
Solukhumbu	4/18/2014	13	3	7
Taplejung	5/20/2014	0	3	0
Manang	1/3/2015	1	0	1
Gorkha	3/1/2015	0	0	0
Jumla	3/4/2015	0	1	1
Dolpa	3/12/2017	1	1	0
Dhading	1/27/2019	2	0	0
Dolpa	2/8/2019	1	0	0
Manang	3/8/2019	2	0	0
Dolpa	3/31/2019	3	0	0
Rukum East	5/2/2019	0	0	1
Dolpa	6/5/2019	0	1	0
Total		40	20	23

Source: NEOC, 2020

The table 1 presents the impacts of avalanches in mountain region of Nepal from 2012 to 2019. We can trace on remarkable fact that from the above data, 48.19 % of total victims face the spontaneous death, 24% go missing and 27% get badly injured due to the avalanche.

Acute mountain sickness or High Altitude Sickness: “Acute Mountain Sickness is a particularly important medical consideration while trekking in high Himalayas of Nepal. High altitude sickness means the effect of altitude on those who ascend too rapidly to elevations above 3000 to 10,000 ft. The occurrence of AMS is dependent upon the elevation, the rate of ascent, and individual susceptibility” (Guide in Himalaya, 2020).

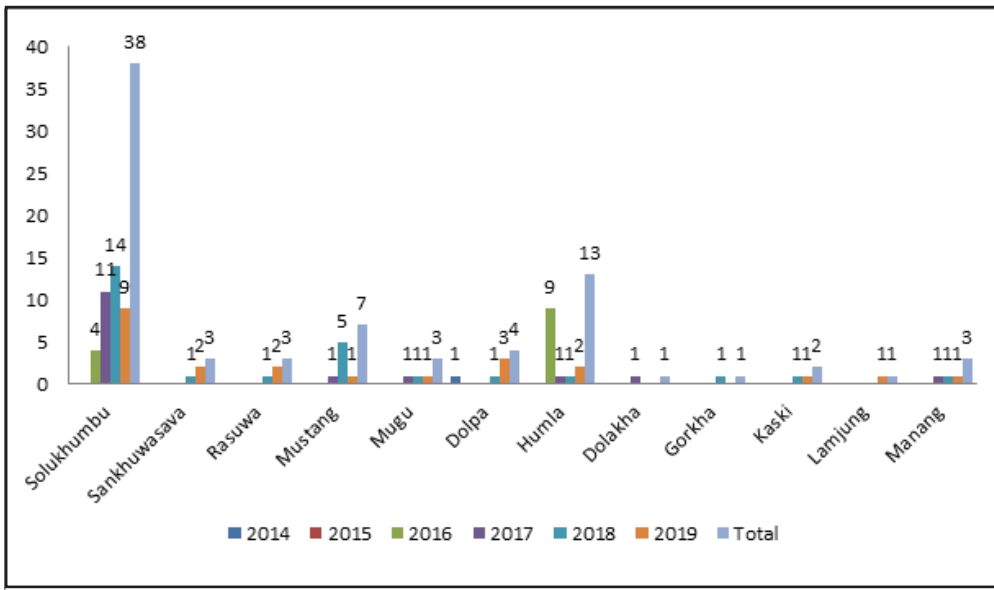


Figure 2: Deaths due to Acute Mountain Sickness (2014-2019)

Source: NEOC, 2020

The above graph shows the number of deaths due to the high altitude sickness. Solukhumbu has highest number of cases because it lies around the Khumbu region, which is regarded as one of the most visit places in Nepal and the transaction of tourist is always high. Lamjung, Manang, Mustang, Kaski are in Annapurna Conservation area, the flow of inland and foreign tourist is very high. It has several touristic destinations. That’s why the frequency of death is significant. Year 2015 and 2016 have very low number of casualties, might be because of less flow of tourist, because there was mega earthquake in 2015.

Aircraft Accidents in Mountain Region: Having a mountainous terrain, Nepal has sketchy records when it comes to aircraft accidents. Most of the aircraft accidents were took place in the mountain regions and rescuers faced many challenges due to the difficult terrain and adverse weather. Regmi, Kitada, Dudhiya & Maharjan (2017) indicate that “The development of hazardous weather over the region may be attributed to a previously unanticipated large-scale easterly gravity current over the middle hills of the Nepal

Himalaya. The gravity current originated from the central high Himalayan mountainous region located northeast of the Kathmandu valley and traveled more than 200 km, reaching the foothills of the western Nepal Himalaya”.

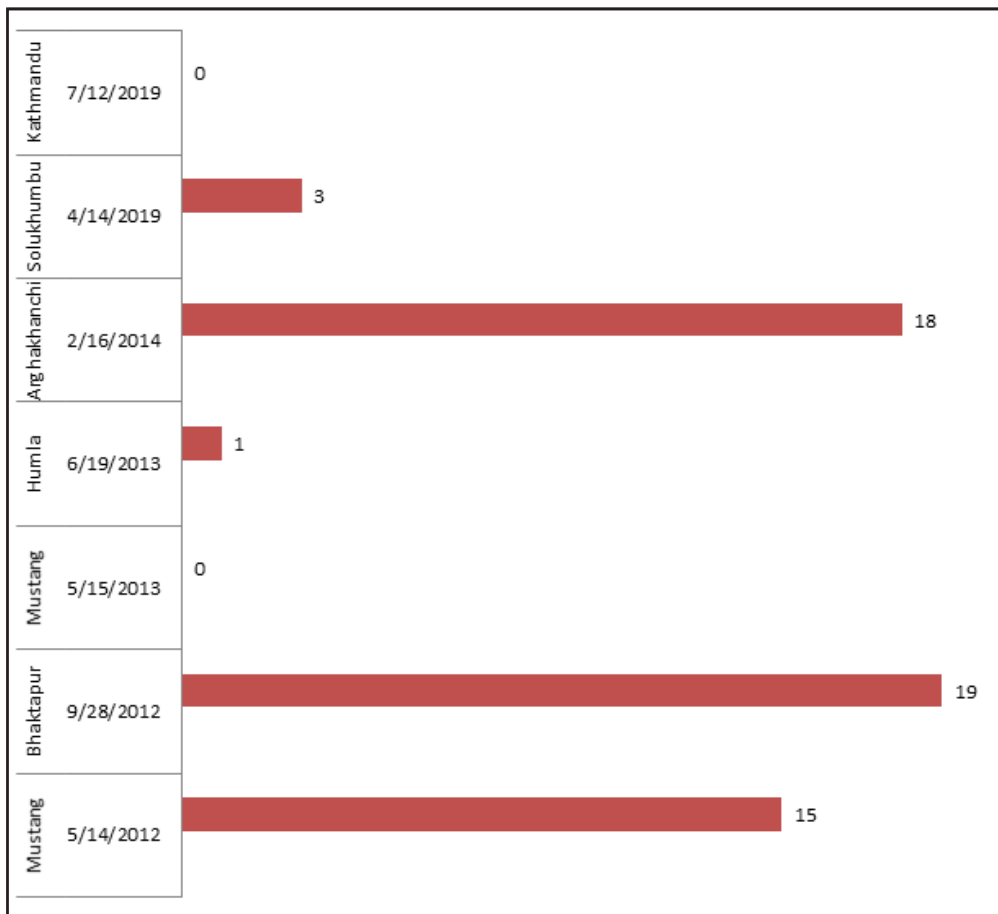


Figure 3: Aircraft accidents in mountain region

Source: MoHA, 2019

In figure 3, The horizontal graph gives the graphical presentation. The OX axis and OY axis represents the number of deaths and Year & Districts respectively. Human error as well as the difficult topography, bad weather and the practice of flying old aircraft for a long time have also their role in the increasing number of air crashes.

Mountain Disaster Rescue in Context of Nepal

Mountain Rescue relates to SAR operations specifically in rugged and mountainous terrain. Qualified and experienced trekkers/mountaineers do this type of search, aided by ground navigation and air support. These are among the most challenging of SAR operation.

Over the past several years, dedicated personnel at security forces and in partnership with some NGOs, Government of Nepal has developed minimal Search and Rescue

capacity in the country. Personnel from the Nepal Army, Nepal Police and APF, Likewise, the units of all security forces are located at all districts but most of them are located at the district headquarters. Besides security agencies, private helicopter companies and volunteer agencies are also conducting mountain search and rescue operations.

Legal Arrangements

In Nepal, Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Act, 2017 includes all phases of disaster management activities. It provides the basis for the operation of Search and Rescue activities for disaster response. Search and Rescue activities for disaster response are also covered by the DRRM Regulations 2019, Local Government Operations Act, 2017, National Policy on Disaster Risk Reduction, 2018, National Strategic Action Plan on Disaster Risk Reduction 2018-2030, National Strategic Action Plan on Search and Rescue, 2014 and National Disaster Response Framework, 2019 etc. Among them, Tourist Search, Rescue, Medication and Monitoring Guidelines 2018 is focused on the rescue of tourists from mountain hazards.

Tourist Search, Rescue, Medication and Monitoring Guidelines 2018: Major provisions Ministry of Culture, Tourism and Civil Aviation has framed the 'Tourist Search, Rescue, Medication and Monitoring Guidelines- 2018' to coordinate and conduct tourist search and rescue operations effectively. The guideline is implemented with the goal of systematizing the search and rescue of tourists in case of natural disasters and other incidents. The purpose of the guideline is also to lessen the impact of such disasters as far as possible.

According to the guideline, in case of search and rescue of tourist, the concerned agency (the company granted license from the department that causes to operate trekking, expedition, rafting or such other adventure activities) shall have the primary obligation to search and rescue. If the agency itself cannot carry out the search and rescue operation, it should notify the Tourist Police and the Department of Tourism at the earliest along with the name, nationality, passport number and other details of the tourist caught up in disaster. The guideline also has provision of a Tourist SAR Directorate Committee (MoCTCA, 2018).

Table 2: Tourist Search and Rescue Directorate Committee

S.N.	Agency	Responsibility	Reference
1.	Director General, DoT	Coordinator	
2.	Representative, MoHA	Member	Gazetted II
3.	Representative, MoHP	Member	Gazetted II
4.	Representative, Nepal Tourism Board	Member	Director
5.	Representative Civil Aviation Authority	Member	Dy. Director
6.	President, Nepal Mountaineering Association	Member	
7.	President, Himalayan Rescue Association.	Member	
8.	Head, Tourist Police	Member	
9.	Director, Mountaineering Section, DoT	Member- Secretary	

Source: MoCTCA, 2018

Figure 5 illustrates the government structure on disaster risk reduction, response framework and procedures during disasters of large scales which are equally applicable for the mountain rescue operations.

Nepali Army: Nepali Army (NA) has been playing the role of the major response actor in disaster management since the past and on many occasions also an active leading role in times of emergency response. The Government of Nepal has given NA the responsibility of the first response actor in Search and Rescue (SAR) operations during a disaster NA has an organized and disciplined structure, its own aviation service for air rescue, communication system, transport system, health services and the capacity to conduct basic SAR activities. **Dedicated units for disaster search and rescue:** Nepal army has Directorate of Disaster Management under the Director General of Military Operations. Under the directorate there are two disaster management battalions fully committed in disaster management role. No. 1 Disaster Management battalion is in Sundariljal, Kathmandu and No. 2 Disaster Management Battalion is located in Rasauli, Chitawan. Recently Disaster Management Training School is established to conduct different level trainings in disaster and emergency management. Besides that Nepal Army Aviation, Army Medical Corps, Combat Engineers, Signals and Ranger and Special Forces are other components of the Nepal Army playing crucial role in disaster response operations. Infantry Units deployed in all districts of Nepal are also committed to support local governments on humanitarian assistance and disaster response operations. Two MI 17 helicopters are placed on active service since 2015 for Disaster rescue operations. High Altitude and Mountain Warfare School (HAMWS) is conducting mountain search and rescue operations. Special force units under No. 10 Brigade (Special Forces) are also mobilizing for mountain SAR Operations (DMHA, 2017).

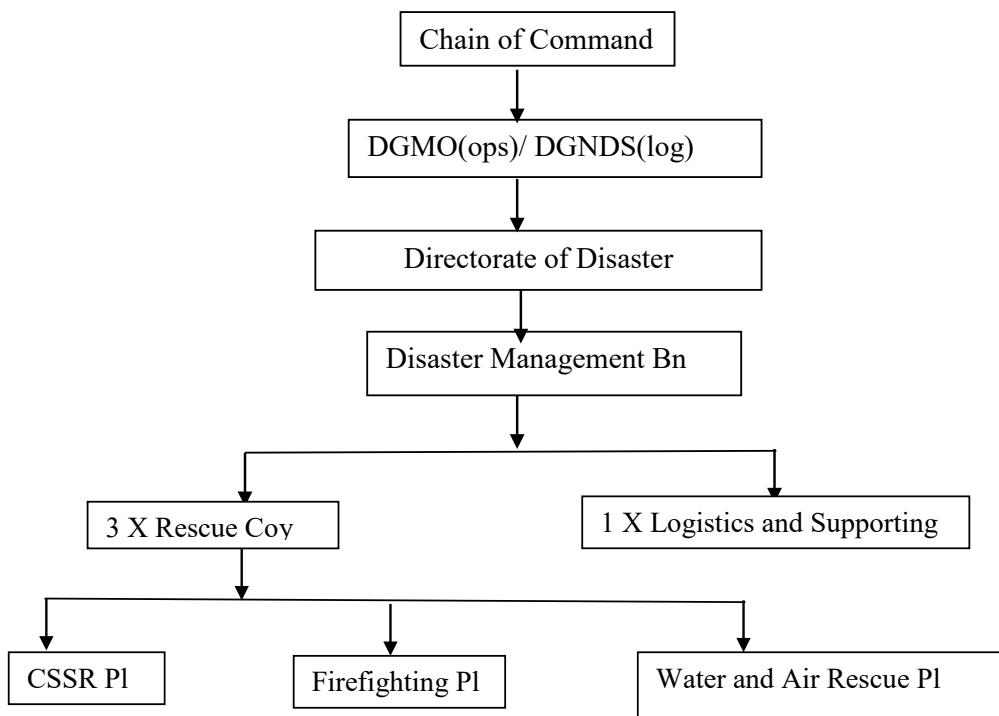


Figure 6: Command Structure of NA Disaster Management.

Source: Directorate of Disaster Management, 2020

Armed Police Force, Nepal

The Armed Police Force, Nepal (APF, Nepal) was established as per the Armed Police Force Act, 2058. Among its roles, the significant and mandated task is to support in the search, rescue and relief management of the victims of disaster and epidemic (APF, Nepal, 2058).

Dedicated units for disaster search and rescue: In 2011, Disaster Management Training Center, now Disaster Management Training School (DMTS) was established in Kurintar, Chitwan. The objective of establishing the disaster management training center is to produce skilled and professional human resource for search and rescue & to enhance the capacity of APF, Nepal in disaster rescue operations as well as other fields of disaster risk reduction. After restructure of the organization, now APF, Nepal has its presence in all districts of Nepal. It has also positioned its SAR teams in all Provinces under each Brigades with basic rescue equipments which are conducting SAR operations in mountain regions also. In 2019, GoN has approved the establishment of High Altitude and Mountain Rescue Training School. It is establish in Manang district. The human resource required for the school has recently approved. The School is aimed to train APF personnel for high altitude and mountain rescue operations.

Table 3: Units of APF, Nepal in A Category remote/mountain districts.

S.N.	District	Unit	Approved no. of personnel
1.	Taplejung	No. 1 Coy	160
2.	Sankhuwasabha	No. 4 Coy	160
3.	Solukhumbu	Dependent Coy	141
4.	Dolakha	No. 18 Coy	160
5.	Dhading	Dependent Coy	141
6.	Gorkha	No. 29 Coy	160
7.	Baglung	Dependent Coy	141
8.	Manang	No. 32 Coy	160
9.	Mustang	No. 33 Coy	160
10.	Humla	No. 44 Coy	160
11.	Mugu	No. 45 Coy	160
12.	Dolpa	No. 46 Coy	160
13.	Kalikot	Dependent Coy	160
14.	Jumla	No. 33 Bn	621
15.	Jajarkot	Dependent Coy	141
16.	Rukum East	Dependent Coy	141
17.	Rukum West	No. 47 Coy	160
18.	Rolpa	Dependent Coy	141
19.	Ahham	No. 49 Coy	160
20.	Bajhang	Dependent Coy	141
21.	Bajura	Dependent Coy	141
22.	Darchula	No. 44 Bn & No. 50 Coy	621 & 160

Source: APF, Nepal Operations and Border Security Department, 2020

Table 3 illustrates the deployment of APF, Nepal units in ‘A’ Category remote mountain districts with approved strength. They have basic capacity to carry out ground and light rescue operations.

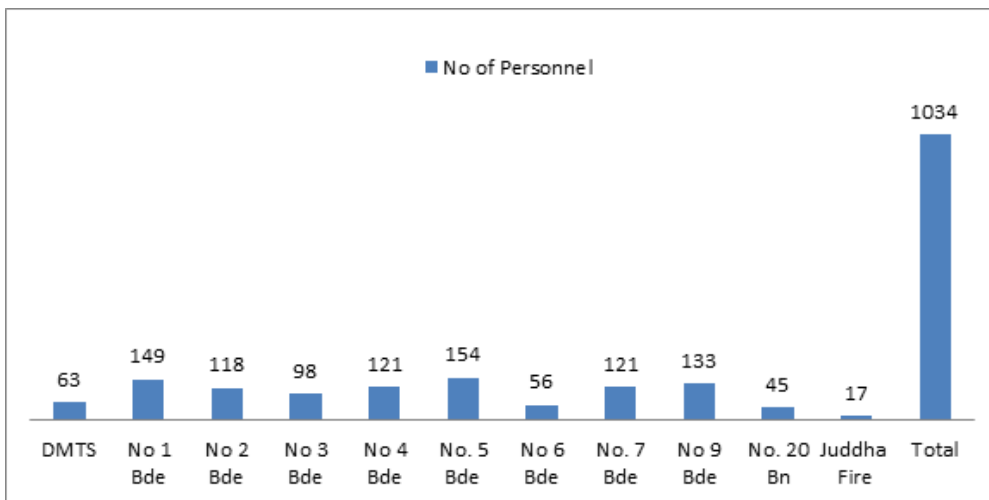


Figure7: Deployment of APF SAR teams in different units.

Source: APF, Nepal Disaster Management Section, 2020

Figure 7 indicates the deployment of SAR teams of APF, Nepal in different units and areas of Nepal, as of 15 May, 2020. These SAR teams are trained from DMTS, Kurintar and they have basic skills of CSSR, Rope rescue, MFR, Water Rescue etc.

Table 4: Total number of Rescue Equipment Set in APF, Nepal

S.N.	Equipment Type	No. of Set
1.	CSSR	56
2.	Fire Fighting	32
3.	Rope Rescue	26
4.	Deep Diving	25
5.	Rescue Raft	25
6.	MFR	4
7.	Dead Body Management	4
8.	Life Detecting Equipment	4
9.	Heavy Equipment	13

Source: APF, Nepal Disaster Management Section, 2020

Table 4 illustrates the available rescue equipment sets in APF, Nepal which are basic in nature and suitable for light to medium level SAR operations.

Nepal Police: Disaster Management is one of the major responsibilities that Nepal Police (NP) is mandated to work for. The Police act and Police regulation regarding the duty and responsibility state that every police unit has to be mobilized for disaster management (Nepal Police, 2012). Other national laws and policies also include the role of Nepal Police in search and rescue operations. NP has been traditionally performing the role of the first responder in time of an emergency. It has its presence all over the Nepal including mountain region.

Dedicated units for disaster search and rescue: Disaster Management Division was established as specialized police unit to work in the area of SAR operations on 2069/10/21 having a Senior Superintendent of Police as an in-charge. There are eight SAR police units, including Regional Police Disaster Management Task Force with total 1322 manpower in Nepal Police with the mandate to work solely in the field of Disaster Risk Reduction and Management (Nepal Police, 2020). There are no specialized mountain search and rescue units in Nepal Police, though Tourist police unit at Nepal Tourism Board deals with operations to tourist search and rescue activities.

Table 5: Disaster Management Units of Nepal Police

Name of Office	District/Location
Disaster Management Division	Kathmandu/samakhushi
1 No. State Disaster Management Company	Jhapa/chandragadhi
2 No. State Disaster Management Company	Parsa/Birgunj
3 No. State Disaster Management Company	Makwanpur/Hetauda
Gandaki State Disaster Management Company	Baglung
5 No. State Disaster Management Company	Dang/Tulshipur
Karnali State Disaster Management Company	Jumla
Far-West State Disaster Management Company	Kanchanpur

Source: Nepal Police Disaster Management Division, 2020

Private/ Civil Agencies: Privately owned helicopter companies and volunteer organizations like Himalayan Rescue Association are mainly working for the mountain search and rescue. The Himalayan Rescue Association has been contributing to prevent deaths from Acute Mountain Sickness. Currently it runs aid posts in the Solukhumbu and Manang. It also mobilizes volunteer doctors to provide medical services to the trekkers (HRA, 2020).

MoCTCA (2018), In 2018, 3 helicopter companies, 4 hospitals and 8 trekking organization charged for 'fake rescue case' by an investigating committee formed by the government. The committee found that there had been 1,300 helicopter rescues in the first five months of 2018, costing insurers more than \$6.5 million. These cases indicate that the private

agencies are more focused on profit making by fake insurance claims.

According to Tourist Search, Rescue, Medication and Monitoring Guidelines 2018, helicopter companies, travel and tour operators, hospitals and insurance companies need to submit details of rescue flights, medical treatment and insurance bills to the Tourist Search and Rescue Committee, Tourist Police and Department of Tourism. Currently, 10 helicopter companies are operating in Nepal. These companies have 33 helicopters of different capacities. All these helicopters are of 4-6 seats capacity (Aviationnepal, 2020).

Table 6: List of Private Helicopter companies with air assets

S.N.	Company Name	No. of Helicopters
1.	Air Dynasty owns	5
2.	Shree Airlines owns	7
3.	Simrik Air owns	4
4.	Prabhu helicopter owns	5
5.	Summit helicopter owns	3
6.	Heli Everest	2
7.	Manang Air	2
8.	Mountain helicopters	2
9.	Kailash helicopters	2
10.	Altitude Air	1

Source: Aviationnepal, 2020

Table 6 lists the name of private helicopter companies and air assets owned by them, as of 2019.

Conclusions

Located in the central of the Himalaya range, Nepal is one of the most disaster-prone countries in the world due to its topography and climatic condition. Mountains are also attractive tourist destinations. Every year thousands of tourists flock to the mountains for recreational activities. Associated with these activities and various hazards, the mountain region is becoming a hotspot for disasters that claim loss of life, property, and environment. The mountain region is a uniquely challenging environment for Search and Rescue operations; it differs from any other region in Nepal, and it requires a similarly unique approach for SAR operations.

There are several categories of SAR, depending primarily on geography or terrain, but the general concept is the same- emergency teams are dispatched to locate, assist, and rescue people in crises. Search and Rescue begins once the type of crisis or area of distress is identified. To carry out effective and efficient search and rescue operations, a thorough understanding, the type and nature of crises is crucial. Further, search and rescue is also

an integral part of overall crisis management, Search, rescue, and evacuation in mountain regions are among the most challenging tasks. There are few SAR units in the mountain region in comparison to other areas. Long distances increase response times and make logistics and maintenance both more expensive and more complicated. Some legal and institutional arrangements are set up for the mountain search and rescue but they are not sufficient and effective.

Hence utmost skill, training, and expertise are needed for those responsible for the task. This is not the responsibility of the Government alone and requires a multi-sectoral effort. It will lead to more lives saved while facing future disasters. In this regard, Nepal should increase its capacity and adopt models and good practices from other countries that are the pioneers of mountain search and rescue. Specialized training based on international standards should be conducted, that is conducive to Nepal's condition and environment on a long-term basis. The roles of the rescue agencies must be made explicit and should not be left ambiguous to avoid confusion and unethical acts like a fake rescue. Once responsibilities are assigned, suitable organizational changes should be effected and adequate resources must be allocated.

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Issues in Border Security of Nepal

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Abstract

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Cross border is a major threat to the internal and external security of Nepal. To maintain peace and security and neutralize illicit trade, smuggling, and cross-border crimes, the Government of Nepal has deployed Security forces at the border. The Indo-Nepal border comparatively is challenging due to its open border status. This paper analyses the field issues faced by security personnel at border areas of Nepal. The study uses both primary and secondary data for analysis and interpretation. The findings show geographical problems, socio-economic similarities, operational problems, border laws, values, and ethics. These issues are faced by security forces daily. The study outcome suggests a need for a collaborative approach of stakeholders on strengthening border security.

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Introduction

'Border' has been a central part since the starting of the civilization of human beings, demarcation of the border for hunting, later on for cultivation, and so on are some examples. But the border got academic attention only in the late 90s. Brady (2014) "a loosely defined field of 'border studies' has been around since Frederick Jackson Turner (1893/1920) argued for the significance of the frontier and Herbert Eugene Bolton (1921) published *The Spanish Borderlands: A Chronicle of Old Florida and the Southwest*". Shrestha (2003) defined the concept of the border as "an independent nation has its own defined and demarcated boundaries, a permanent population, own strong and independent government and are also capable of conducting international relations beyond its borders". Shrestha further highlighted the importance of border with national security "for an independent country failing to protect its boundary is equal to failure in protecting its national security". Border Security in time of transformation (2010) has also explained the 'border' mixing with national security "The terrorist attack on 2011 transformed American and international conception of borders control as borders are viewed as a potential point of entry for world terrorists". Border security is always a critical issue that covers the multi-dimensional aspect of economic, social, cultural, and security. When borders are not regulated and protected the country plunges into a mess of conflict, crises, and smuggling that in the long run would lead to no less than a catastrophe. Different countries have adopted different systems of managing their borders. Nepal has a long history of its existence. Nepal has a controlled border system with China in its 1751km length and an open border with India in 1414km (K.C., 2019). "The borders of Nepal have been unguarded and vacant for years. Quite inadequate efforts have been made by the center to develop infrastructure facilities to secure borders" (Jha, 2007). Additionally, K.C. focused on the geographical significance of the land of Nepal and focused on the feasibility of cross border crime that might affect the internal security of Nepal. Shrestha (2003) as well believed the open border with India has accounted for opportunities and threats to Nepal. Nepal and India both have established border security forces. Security forces aim to stop smuggling, prevent criminals from passing from the border, prevent the transaction of fake currency, prevent the girl from trafficking and prevent the flow of arms and ammunition (K.C.2019). Despite the deployment of security forces by both the countries, numbers of cross borders issues have been accounted for. Socio-economic, cultural, demographic, population, and religion are complex in the border areas. Sometimes, the inadequate policy measures, as well as the overlapping jurisdiction among security agencies, have created a vacuum in security delivery. In the end, all these variables have a direct relationship with the performance appraisal of security forces. Thus this study is closely focused on identifying the problems experienced by security forces in the border areas.

Literature review

A number of theories define the concept of territory. Kautilya's Saptang theory of the state has defined the seven elements of the state. The nature of Janapada defined in the Arthashastra indicates that both territory and population are intended to be covered by this

expression (Kaur, 2010). Grotius(1615) as a Natural-law theorist has explained the concept of territory “human beings would be free to travel on it and engage in mutual exchange”, consent theorist, John Locke (1689) defending the naturalist theorist argues “individuals can acquire property in land and other external material objects by ‘mixing their labor’ with it and thereby improving it” he then argued, “the difficulties that would be attendant on such an arrangement could only be solved by creating a jurisdictional authority to govern such people and protect their rights”. Locke has highlighted the jurisdictional power required to govern that land with authority. Montevideo Convention on the Rights and Duties of States (as cited in Grotenhuis, 2016) Article 1 reads: ‘The state as a person of international law should possess the following qualifications: a) a permanent population; b) a defined territory; c) government; and d) capacity to enter into relations with the other states’. The concept of territory in this convention is found to be the mix of Naturalist, Constant, Ethnographic, and Nationalist theories. This convention has established the relationship between the border concept and the responsibility of the state. He further highlighted the relationship of the state towards the people as a “rational contractor” to provide security, justice, and social service. It amplifies the duty of the state in securing the border of the state. Borders are the vulnerable points, it has a strategic concern. Some writers have defined the border as ‘a source of terrorism and counter-terrorism” (Carrol & Gorawantschy, 2017), The ripple effect of terrorism as an “exchange of international problems” has been the center point of their definition.

The border security has been defined as an issue of National security with a major focus on territorial integrity, “Border management is a state primary responsibility as failure to protect its boundary is equal to failure in protecting national security” (Shrestha, 2003). “Border management seeks to secure the state first and then maintain interstate relations” (Bhardwaj,2012). Nepal shares a border with China and India. “Indo-Nepal border as an open and porous border which has both positive and negative implication” Shrestha (2003), Due to lack of education and poverty southern border of Nepal has been a fertile region for cross border crime “unemployment in youth in terai contributes to increment of crime” Tharda (2011). Reckless has characterized the border environment as “smuggling is the main character of Border” (1967). Nepal border has been facing crime, natural disasters, and bilateral issues with its bordering neighbors. Center for Strategic and International Studies (2010) has highlighted the necessity of “trained border police”, “sufficient modern equipment” and “compatible bureaucratic relationship” for smooth and professional border security. Similarly, Harlon and Herbert (2019) have highlighted the causes of poor border security as “Weak presence of the state, the dearth of economic opportunity, and strong border ties among the local communities”. In the Nepali context, these three major elements are lacking proper attention from the government side. The integration among government agencies is a crucial part of border management. The British and American experience has highlighted the importance of “information system integration to both operational and strategic border security success” (Coyne, 2015). Coyne further explained “screening at borders, document identification, information sharing” as a solution to fulfill the gap in border security information system integration. Harlon and Herbert, “Such environments have led to the development of illicit trade in the border zone”. After the Mumbai attack in 2008, the recommendation of the group of ministers on

reforming national security came out, and SSB was declared as a border guarding force. Whereas in Nepal, after peace talks between the government of Nepal and Maoist in 2005 Armed police force was declared as a border security force (Border Security in time of transformation, 2010). In spite of such deployment in borderlines, the numbers of crimes along the border have been reported. The actual reason behind the cause should be dug out, and there is a strong need for research to identify the problems of border security forces in the border area.

Methodology

The core objective of this research paper is to identify the field problems faced by security forces deployed in border areas of Nepal. For this purpose, the research followed a qualitative approach. The primary data is based on observation, interviews with security officers, and customs officers. Secondary data are collected from articles, published writings, books, online search engines.

Border security scenario

Every country in the world has established competent security forces for its internal and external security. In the context of Nepal, there are four security forces engaging in internal and external security. The army is responsible for external security unless assigned by the government of Nepal. Nepal Police, Armed Police Force, Nepal (APF), and National Investigation department are then engaged in internal security. Furthermore, the Armed Police Force is mandated with border security. The official deployments of APF in border areas come to the year 2063/12/27 BS. Before the deployment of APF, the Nepal army was deployed in the border area. With the ambition of controlling revenue leakage in the district of Terai and in order to protect border pillars, to safeguard the life of the people of the border, reduce trans-border crime, APF along with Nepal police have played a crucial role in border enforcement and revenue control. Despite the deployment of security forces in the borderline and tightening the regulation procedure at checkpoints, smuggling as well as the illegal cross border has increased (K.C., 2019).

Indo-Nepal frontier is open in nature which has been posed as a serious challenge due to the unregulated and undocumented movement of people. The border covers around 1800 km from east-south to west. Security personnel deployed at bordering states it's a most difficult task due to zigzag terrain, large swaths of land and marginal villages attached with no man's land on both sides. Due to zigzag and blended no man's land it is extremely difficult to nab fugitives and smugglers. Most probably they hide in villages across no man's land (Yadav, 2020).

The encroachment problems have not been solved and border people share feelings of insecurity. Security forces express dissatisfaction due to the problems they have been facing on the borders. These problems directly have a negative correlation with performance. The decrease in problem increases performance.

Deployment of security forces

Deployment of security forces is the major indicator of border security. As one of the major principles of “Deterrence”, the deployment of forces creates deterrence in the border and it grows confidence at the site. Armed Police Force Nepal is a specialized border security force of Nepal. Though Nepal Police is also deployed in the border area, their role is to support the Armed Police Force. Nepal Army has established border security directorates for the collection of information. The National Investigation Department is also playing a role in collecting, synthesizing and analyzing information related to national security along with border security. The total strength of SSB India is 94000 where 45000 personnel are deployed on Indo- Nepal border. Similarly, out of 37 thousand APF personnel of Nepal, 22000 are deployed in border areas comprising 59% of the total strength that are dedicated to border security. Though the Government of Nepal has optimally deployed its forces, comparatively Nepal has deployed less number of forces in both Indian and Chinese border areas. Border security requires equipment, tools, and gadgets for screening, surveillance, identification, navigation, observation, and monitoring. The absence of these has caused lapses in security (Yadav, 2020). In Armed Police Force’s report “Less human resources at the border, insufficient office infrastructure, lack of technological equipment, insufficient customs office” are regarded as the major challenges for border security. India has deployed a border patrol force (Seema Surakshya Bal) on entire Indo-Nepal borders establishing its post in about 3 Km gap whereas APF has been able to establish its post in every 15-kilometer distance. The physical condition of barrack, equipment and information technologies are lacking in both APF and SSB. Both border guarding forces experience similar problems like border crimes, smuggling, and natural disasters and these problems either flow from India to Nepal or Nepal to India (Paudel, 2020).

Socio-cultural similarities

Most of the people residing in border areas share similar identities and social structures. The Indo-Nepal border has similar cultural and religious ties. Due to fewer population and settlement at the Nepal China border, the problem doesn’t exist as compared to the indo-Nepal border. People sharing the same religion, culture, tradition, affinity is challenging in politically segregated areas. Security forces point out socio-cultural similarities as a catalytic factor for cross border crime. Due to similarity in cultural and religious tolerance and uniformity in mindset, people adopt to follow the same way of life. Most of the people at borderline are engaged in smuggling of goods and contraband, smuggling of narcotics, illegal transportation of arms, fake currency transportation which become the living pattern of their life. It has been difficult for security forces to nab these activities due to social protection which has spiked the crime rate. People from both sides are motivated due to easy learning and both countries’ legal jurisdiction. Furthermore, Socio-culture also attracts violation of customs rules and regulations as people from Nepal purchase huge amounts of goods from India stating cultural and religious purposes like marriage, spiritual offerings, festivals, etc. Custom law only allows for purchasing goods for household purposes. Due to these problems Nepalese security forces have to face massive problems which resulted in discussion, quarrel and confrontation. Most people tend to violate custom law on socio-cultural grounds.

Border law

Border law is a prerequisite to regulate open border situations between countries having open borders between them. Nepal sandwiched between two big giants China in the North and India in the South shares an open border with India. An open border is a threat to the peace and security of the nation importing criminal activities like money laundering, human trafficking, drug smuggling, and arms trafficking, etc, which culminates a vicious criminal cycle in the country. Despite the open border with India, Nepal does not have specific border laws to regulate and manage such border issues. It is using the mandates of the Armed Police Force (APF) and Nepal Police as a primary border security instrument. The Constitution of Nepal, 2072, and the National Security Policy of Nepal have paved the way towards foreign policy and diplomacy. They have proposed the Panchasheel principle as a directive to maintain the relation between the two countries. But still, there are not any specific ground rules to address border-related issues. Similarly, the overlapping responsibilities of APF and Nepal Police are imposing obstacles in the smooth functioning of border security.

Operational problems

Operation is the act of functioning or the fact of being active or in effect. The operations of SF at border areas are patrolling, securing border pillars, conducting a search of vehicles, surveillance, protecting and safeguarding the life of people and civic actions. Without the active participation of other stakeholders, operational success cannot be achieved. “SF faces lack of active cooperation, co-ordinations and assistance from local levels which reduces operational success]” (Yadav, 2020).

Due to lack of information sharing, lack of healthy relations, with other stakeholders like local government, local police, local governmental offices, and civil society, counterparts may bring a hindrance to the security system. There is a necessity for both covert and overt intelligence to achieve operational goals. An APF officer states, “We need to be dependent on others for intelligence for which we require additional budget”. Information regarding illegal arms possession, drug smuggling, illicit trade, fake currency can only be achieved from covert intelligence (Paudel, 2020). Hence, operational problems raising security challenges are inadequate information sharing, lack of active intelligence agents, lack of cooperation, lack of societal support.

Geography

The terrain of Nepal is diverse consisting of Himalayan, Hilly, and Terai regions with 14, 68, and 15 percent of the total area respectively. Nepal shares its international border in all diverse geographical locations. It is one of the unique terrains of the world which have geographical differences from 60m to 8848 m from sea level. The high Himalayan demarks Nepal- China boundary and it is declared as a demilitarized zone that covers 20 km inside from boundary by Nepal-China boundary treaty of 21 March 1960 (Shrestha, 2003). It is one of the peaceful and regulated borders with very few security posts. “Due to its high

altitude, the government of Nepal has not been able to establish adequate checkpoints. There are only 6 Border outposts in Nepal- China frontier. The high altitude, rugged terrains are the major problems faced by security personnel in this region. Also, transporting necessary logistics and equipment is costly as airlift is required. There is no man-made boundary demarcation on land as indicated in the boundary treaties except for boundary pillars” (Kansakar, 2000). The geographical feature at the border area has encouraged people to crime which is a huge problem for SF to deter.

Ecology

The border area of Nepal ranges from 60 m datum level to 8848m high altitude. Nepal- China border area lies in high altitude so due to extreme cold temperature only a few border security posts. Some of the posts needed to be shifted to low altitudes during winter seasons due to a massive temperature below -15 degrees Celsius or more. However, the government of Nepal has added 2 new security posts in Darchula district due to border dispute and has planned to add 6 APF posts in the northern border. SF states lack the necessary apparatus to adopt in cold temperatures. However, in the Indo-Nepal border area, there are 119 security posts to date and the weather is considered to be evergreen. Temperatures range 15 -20 degrees Celsius in the winter season and rise up to 50 degrees Celsius in summer seasons. “Due to flood, No Man’s land is inundated, extreme cold at the cold season and extremely hot at summer seasons are ecological problems faced by SF in border-deployment” (Paudel, 2020).

Values and ethics

Smuggling is one of the major problems in most of the borders of the world. Somehow, Smuggling has been a means of additional warning to border enforcement agencies. Nepalese security forces at the frontier are also alleged with corruption, bribe, and nexus with smugglers. Smuggling has become the profession of the bordering population.

Others problems

Field visits and direct interviews with security personnel brought up different problems faced by SF in their day-to-day operation. Open borders and a homogenous society have been a prime challenge. Growing Nepalese dependency on the Indian market and fewer customs offices in the borderline are independent factors of SF problems. People choose cheap commodities and due to the high tax rate in Nepal, people choose to purchase from India. An APF constable deployed in Raxaul, Indo-Nepal border state, it is difficult to stop all pedestrians who have consumed goods from the Indian market. The Custom Act clearly mentions tax-free for house appliances and nominal goods. Due to this provision, the Indian big market near the Indo-Nepal border is a major shopping zone for Nepalese people. Besides this, SF faces threat, physical attacks from smugglers, and tuskers. In the year 2020, Due to the corona virus outbreak, both countries impose a border restriction to curb the virus. As a result, in more than 17 places many Indian people demanded to get entry to Nepal and physically attacked APF men and vandalize duty posts which resulted

in a confrontation. The following are other problems faced by SF in border deployment.

- Attack from Indian smugglers.
- Unnecessary debate and clash with Nepalese citizens.
- The baseless allegation to SF. (Demoralization).
- Encroachment Issue.
- Stagnation and enmity.
- Low morale and motivating factors.
- Lack of proper intelligence.

Conclusion

Borders of the world are compared to be porous and fertile for illicit trade, smuggling and organized crime. Nepal, Located between two economically and politically powerful nations, India and China are vulnerable to cross-border crime which has weakened national security. In order to keep peace, security, and prosperity in Nepal, the security forces of the nation must be strengthened. Understaffed, insufficient resources, lack of morale and motivation, incentives and unclear plan and policy are a hindrance for border security in Nepal. The government of Nepal needs to take necessary steps in the proliferation of border security which require policy formation, diplomatic collaborative plans, technological adaptation, operational cooperation, human resources inventory, collaborative engagement, and institutional reforms. All the concerned authorities should realize the need for investment in security as par with international standards. Now it is time to improve Security forces capacity by empowering necessary infrastructure, training, and resources.

The practice of compensation and reward management, incorporating ethics and values, and adapting the technology apparatus should be institutionalized. The catalyst factors like poverty, unemployment, population growth, technological advancement, and capital market are encouraging border crimes. Security forces of the country should be more active and courageous to deter border crimes by producing skilled manpower and the formation of adequate policy. The multi-sector engagement with concerned stakeholders needs to have cooperated for better management. Furthermore, to achieve deep insight into the subject matter further research needs to be done.

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Intelligence in the National Security Enterprise: An Introduction

Roger Z. George

Washington DC, United States: Georgetown University Press. February 2020. Pp. xvii+328.
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Intelligence is one of the major aspects of national security decision-making. The last 50 years witnessed a significant growth of intelligence agencies. The United States of America has the largest and most complex intelligence system in the world. At present, the US intelligence system employs more than one hundred thousand people in sixteen intelligence agencies and spends more than USD 70 billion annually. The rumors and failures in its activities, i.e. illegal domestic spying, controversial covert action, a shock of terrorist attack, a faulty prediction of weapons of mass destruction dragged the US intelligence mission in controversy in the homeland and overseas. The underlying questions, i.e. why intelligence fails? Who is responsible for intelligence failure and its consequences? What is the relationship between the Intelligence Community and policy decision makers? are matters for strategic intervention are serious concerns and interests for strategic, political and academic communities across the world. In this background, the book *'Intelligence in the National Security Enterprise: An Introduction'* by Roger Z. George, a former CIA analyst, and professor of intelligence and national security offers a descriptive and analytical view towards the critical role of the US intelligence community within the wider national security decision-making and political process.

The book provides a clear explanation of the expanding US national security enterprise (NSE), in which intelligence operates and distinguishes among a range of intelligence functions that contribute to the National Security Enterprise. Moreover, the book enables an in-depth analysis of how intelligence serves the policymakers. With a brief description of what intelligence is and what intelligence agencies do, a three hundred forty-four-page book is divided into eleven chapters and each chapter begins with relevant quotes on intelligence that captures readers to continue concentration throughout the contents of the specific chapter.

The first chapter *'how to use the book'* explains the overall outline of the book. It is dedicated to the scope of intelligence in the United States and across the world. The beginning quote *'keep giving me things that make me think'* by Henry Kissinger to Richard Helms, Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) director, awakens readers to critically contemplate on what information is required for a strategic thinker (Page, 1). Kissinger's

single line statement clarifies a symbiotic relationship between intelligence and policy communities analyzing how the US national security policy is conducted through in a more detailed description of how intelligence contributes to the development of such policies.

Indicating the role of intelligence in US National security decision making, chapter two primarily deals on *'what is Intelligence'* and elaborates major terminologies connected to intelligence collection, types, and analysis. The use of three intelligence disciplines, technical intelligence (TECHINT) and human intelligence (HUMINT), and open-source intelligence (OSINT) is taken as main source classified and unclassified information for analysts to detect significant international security developments. Further, the intelligence cycle is emphasized in a stepwise sequence of intelligence work from the collection, processing, analysis, evaluation, dissemination, and policy consumption. The institutionalization of intelligence support to senior policymakers in the United States is regarded as a major contribution of The National Security Act of 1947 that made an understandable provision of expansion of national security council beyond the president's diplomatic and military advisers to include the Director of Central Intelligence (DCI) as president's key intelligence adviser.

The article (2) of the US constitution has given full authority to the president for unparalleled control over national security. The main emphasis of third chapter is *'National Security Enterprise'* and chapter unlocks discussion around the way of national security policy is made in the United States and how intelligence fits into that decision making process with the historical background of establishment of the national security structures i.e. Joint Chiefs of Staff, National Security Advisor, State Department, Department of Defense, Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI), Department of Homeland Security (DHS), Treasury Department, Commerce Department, Economic Department. In addition, the evolution of the national security system over the past half-century and establishment of various mechanisms of intelligence during the tenure of various presidents were also discussed. With attention-grabbing the role of the National Security advisor is presented and the author locates the role of position as *'an advocate vs. honest broker'*(Page 41).

Chapter four discusses *'Intelligence Community'* with an ample description. Discussing eight DoD and eight non-DoD members of the Intelligence community, the author in this chapter highlights the various types of information and role of every intelligence agency in terms of providing the best available information to the nation's senior civilians and military decision-makers (Page 52). In addition, with detailed explanation of the Intelligence Community, the author gives a reasonable explanation of why and how Director of National Intelligence (DNI) became central position with the intelligence reform and terrorism prevention Act of 2004 in the aftermath of September 11, 2001 terrorists' attacks.

With detailed illustration and explanation of the intelligence cycle (page 84), chapter five—*'Intelligence Cycle Policy Support'*—postulates insights on theoretical and practical aspects of intelligence work. It clearly illustrates the 'cyclic relationship' among

the collectors, analysts, and policymakers in the intelligence system (page, 86). Also, intelligence collection constraints, analysts' priority, and precision in policy decisions discussed with various past events. Placed at the center of the cycle, analysts' role is taken very critical to create proper meaning through raw data collected by various intelligence agencies across the world.

Chapter six deals explicitly on the role of '*strategic intelligence*' in the US Mission along with its collection and analysis process. Categorizing the level of intelligence, the author outlines three types of intelligence, i.e. basic, current and strategic (Page, 112). Out of these three categories, strategic intelligence is labeled as high-priority and the result of longer-term dynamic assessment of the international political and security environment and geostrategic priority for the country. Also, the author indicates a great shift on strategic issues from the period of cold war to present days and discuss the challenges faced by policy makers and National Intelligence Council (NIC). The challenges with modern security trends or factors that alter the international conditions in which the United States policy makers must operate also given great emphasis. National Intelligence Estimates (NIES) process and products is the central charm of the chapter. It imparts knowledge on how the publication of unclassified strategic assessment by NIC becomes helpful to senior US leaders to think main trends and uncertainties might shape the world over the next 20 years as well as to plan for US longer term intelligence priorities. The examples of various global trend reports over the different periods of time (1997, 2001, 2004, 2008, 2012, and 2017) make the chapter more stimulating to readers. The example of the failure case of NIE in Iraq's Weapon of Mass Destruction (WMD) program in 2002 helps readers to believe to what extent strategic intelligence is relevant and how it impacts on overall policy making in detail.

Chapter seven is focused on '*challenges of warnings*' and begins with former CIA director John McCone's quote '*successful warning is essentially a two-fold process; if warning is to be effective, not only must the alert be given, but the consumer of intelligence must accept the fact that he has in fact been warned*' (page, 145). In line with the quote, chapter deliberates on the concept of warning, including how it conducted and organized along with a strong emphasis on the Intelligence Community's enduring responsibility to provide warning of threats to the United States and its interests abroad. What characteristics qualify strategic warning, how it is different from tactical warning and philosophy of warning intoxicate readers to follow the chapter thoroughly. A brief examination of cases Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor in 1941, North Korean invasion of South Korea in 1950, Cuban missile crisis of 1962, Israeli six-days war against Arab States in 1967, Egyptian attack on Israel in 1973, Soviet invasion of Afghanistan of 1979, Iraqi invasion of Kuwait in 1990, Breakup of the Soviet Union and Yugoslavia and Al-Qaeda attack in 2001 are used to identify lessons to be learned from past warning cases. The overall discussion of various cases helps readers to understand successes and failures of warning in great details. Even in the situation where policymakers are warned, sometimes surprise happens in the real world, which is perfectly reviewed. The chapter concludes with an examination of how the warning function has been organized in the US in the past and how recent practices have been shifting the burden of warning from specialized warning staff to every analyst.

Invisible mission of direct policy support provided to virtually every major national security agency in the US government is chapter eight '*Intelligence Support as Policy Enabler*'. Author illustrates how intelligence supports policymakers with information and analysis relevant to their decisions without intending to favor or oppose them. The precise understanding of the President's Daily Brief (PDB) and the process behind it is a unique feature of this chapter. It also describes specialized types of intelligence support to policymakers engaged in ongoing international negotiations, crisis management, and counter terrorism efforts.

The primary focus of chapter nine is on the special and controversial intelligence mission of '*covert action as policy support*', acknowledged as '*a policy instrument*'. It further discusses how covert actions are authorized and monitored by both the executive and legislative branches and what makes covert action success and failure. Review of covert action, using historical as well as more recent operations—1953 Coup in Iran, the 1961 Bay of Pigs Fiasco, the 1986 Iran-Contra Operation, US covert mission in Afghanistan from 1980–88—to illustrate the benefits, costs, and risks of such activities make chapter interesting. Also, the chapter makes readers realize how national security policy and intelligence are even more linked and less distinct than usual.

Chapter Ten '*Challenges of Intelligence-Policy relationship*' discusses various tests and trials of the intelligence and policy nexus. Roger offers a strong indication of critical and repeated difficult relationships between intelligence and policy making process in the US's experience. The risks of "politicization" of intelligence have been discussed thoroughly. The Bush administration's manipulation and misuse of intelligence during the war in Iraq and the tussle experienced between intelligence and leadership has been publicized as an example.

The last and concluding chapter '*Intelligence and American Democracy*' reveals an uneasy belief between the intelligence community and ordinary citizens, termed as 'controversial and problematic' (page, 265). An adequate description and analysis of executive, legislative, and judicial oversight mechanism within the framework of US Constitution and federal law where the writer examines challenges and catastrophes experienced in selective cases i.e. Vietnam War protests of the 1960s and 1970s and intelligence abuse or violation on Americans' civil liberties that occurred during the Nixon administration. demonstrating various cases of the violation of democratic principles in its efforts as well as pose the challenge to safeguard national security, chapter offers clear understanding on the discourse of privacy and security evolving in the United states from the cold war era to modern days. Also, the author talks about some of the legal provisions and oversights the practice of intelligence. The major legal provisions—United States National Security Act of 1947, Central Intelligence Agency Act of 1949, Intelligence Oversight Act of 1980, Foreign Intelligence Surveillance Act (FISA) of 1978 etc.—clearly indicate the FBI's legal compliance with law-enforcement methods for intelligence collection within the US territory. However, the CIA and other foreign intelligence agencies are free to use less savory and top-secret collection methods overseas. Shortening on-going debate and the dilemma of balancing security and protecting citizens' privacy under the American Democracy, Roger concludes the volume.

The book undoubtedly touches on the evolution of each intelligence agency and the responsibility of these organizations. The most fascinating aspect of the book is the author's in-depth explanation of NSE with a detailed description of the intelligence community and the range of intelligence functions that contribute to the top civil and military leadership of the United States. It is no doubt, the microscopic analysis of various incidents of intelligence failure indicates the author's thirty-year CIA expertise and more than a decade of teaching experiences. The theoretical and practical combination is helpful for the readers to understand the '*overt and covert*' reality of intelligence. Apart from the use of complex disciplinary jargon and the repetition of the various examples across the different chapters for different understanding purposes, the book is well organized and clearly written. It has a sufficient number of excerpts, figures to assist the reader in navigating the diverse concepts and cases presented. Furthermore, a glossary at the end of the book and links to primary-source documents and suggestions for further readings following each chapter allows the readers to explore a given topic to a greater depth than would a cumulative bibliography. Thus, the volume succeeds in advancing a call for a more practical approach to strengthening the relationship between intelligence and policy community as well as inter-agency coordination and collaboration among existing sixteen intelligence agencies.

The balance insights on overall concepts; what intelligence is and what the intelligence community does, what is the relationship between intelligence and policy community, along with the detailed examination of the existing intelligence support system of the United States make this book very relevant to policy and practitioners. The book is completely US-centric. In order to learn in-depth insights of the intelligence empire across the world, it is a gateway but not the perfect solution for the rest of the world. Examples and cases discussed throughout the book are also based on intelligence missions carried out by Intelligence agencies within and outside of the United States. To some aspect, that is challenging and less concerning to non-American readers. The book itself is a result of the author's preoccupied thinking of security enterprise in the US and it demands basic knowledge of US political history on readers as foundation to digest this book perfectly. Non-American readers and people with limited understanding of the security field can criticize the author for two main reasons. First, the use of complex disciplinary jargon throughout the book. Second, the repetition of a few examples across the different chapters for making clarity on intelligence cycle different purposes.

The comprehensive understanding of the complex Intelligence system is almost impossible. However, the reviewer has succeeded to build a fair understanding of US national security enterprise and intelligence community work in policy cycle. In the eyes of the reviewer, 'the book' offers academic and real world insights-both in theory and practice of the US' intelligence community and their work across the world, which is rarely observed in other volumes of national security. Being a former CIA analyst, the author is ideally balancing transparency and privacy of overseas covert action in the book. At the same time, the author maintained the United States' national interest first and he equally does justice for overseas readers by providing clear insights of intelligence failure in various US missions. As an honest admission, the author completes the factors affecting US intelligence failures abroad as failure of Intelligence Community to

predict events timely, failure of policy community to notice intelligence warnings adequately and communication gap between intelligence officers and policy officials. This book educates readers on the role of each and every individual in the intelligence cycle. By and large, intelligence is not only a matter of the politico-military realm. Beyond the framework of national security and foreign policy, the scope of intelligence is broad and taken as an effective measure of domestic policy and human security. Despite publishing this book in the form of a textbook for security students, the book is advantageous to civilians, military, and policymakers interested in intelligence and national security across the world. In the context of Nepal, the reviewer realized this book is valuable for faculties and graduate level students of security, international relations and conflict studies programs. Apart from teaching and learning purposes, the book is equally beneficial for and Nepalese strategic thinkers, military and other law enforcement agencies officers, intelligence community members, and top-brass policymakers to re-think, realize and improve neglected and less-prioritized intelligence systems of Nepal.

Chiranjibi Bhandari

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Every Vote Counts: The Story of India's Elections

Navin Chawla

New Delhi, India: Harper Collins Publishers,

2019. P ix+ 362

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The book *Every Vote Counts* is an attempt to analyze the election process in India and how the Election Commission despite of all hurdles successfully manages to conduct these polls. The author argues that muscle and money power is becoming influential in Indian elections and so is the role played by social media. Author presents first hand experiences as Chief Election Commissioner going from one state to another in the vast nation to depict the enormous challenges to conduct polls at various stages in India. This book gives a clear picture of the credible electoral system being the core of democracy. It highlights the central role of Election Commissions as being fiercely independent bodies. The chapters in the book include a kaleidoscopic account of the efficiency of the electoral machine – the subject of study in management schools globally. The most important aspect of the book is that it shows how remarkable it is that the Indian elections always have been held on time without delay. The book helps all the ignorant citizens who don't realize the importance and power of their own votes. The author did not find any information available on how Indian elections had been conducted earlier so wanting to help researchers and the future Chief Election Commissioners (CECs), he wanted to offer his acquired experience as CEC to contribute towards the history and well-functioning of the institution through this book.

The author studied at the Lawrence school Sanawar, India. He was appointed the Chief Election Commissioner (CEC) of India and he supervised the General Election of 2009.

The main focus of the reviewer of this book is to introduce to the readers about the Indian elections in short. The review will highlight the electoral process with its major difficulties and strategies used to over-come it. It signifies importance issues of trans-gender and the demand to recognize them as a separate entity. The introduction of EVMs is also significant achievement in the General Elections of 2009.

As a researcher, I feel, the Indian elections are not so fair and all the political parties are busy with their own self-interests to win. For Indians, the polls come as festivals once in 5 years. The language is very lucid and clear but on several occasions, I wish, the book had inculcated more interesting events. And the language could also have been fun at times.

This book is entirely about the General Elections of 2009 in India. There were 714 million voters. For the first time 556 women contested the polls. The book elaborates on the difficulties in the smooth operation of the election. It was the EC's main purpose to ensure transparency and fairness to the voters, political parties and contestants therefore the commission employed many new measures that were not used in the past. Firstly, they decided on the use of enhanced mobile connectivity to cover over half a million polling stations. Different states had their own difficult set of hurdles. Elections are the most visible and action part of Indian democracy. For instance, Andhra Pradesh alone had forty five million voters more than the population of Canada.

The polling stations ensured quick service for physically challenged people and senior citizens. The money power also played its role. Huge sums of money was seized by police. The police officials worked vigilantly and tactfully to ensure honest elections.

Another important state was Assam, according to the author. It is here where the mighty Brahmaputra river cuts through the middle of the state and it becomes very difficult during the monsoon season. The most crucial problem for Assam has been the doubtful voters. Another issue was of the security management which was required weeks before the election. All licensed arms were to be deposited in the allotted vaults till the time of the election.

Elections in Chattisgarh and Jharkhand were also the most difficult states for the electoral process. Chattisgarh is a home to a large tribal population. The predominant problem was that it had come under the influence of the Naxalite insurgents. Even in Jharkhand the Maoist has a huge dominance. The capital had its own set of problems, according to Mr. Chawla. In Delhi, there were double checks to see the matching photographs with the voters ID.

Haryana has excellent communication network so the elections were easy despite of the unbearable hot months. People helped one another with shamiyanas and drinking water.

Himachal Pradesh is a peaceful state. But in the remote villages and hills the villagers had to walk around 20 km through rugged snowbound terrain to reach to the nearest polling station. The officials were transported in helicopters and polling materials were sent in frequent sorties.

Mr. Chawla in the book lucidly mentions that in Karnataka, a rich state, had problems not of poverty but of wealth. A lot of unauthorized cash and liquor was seized. The most amount of wealth seized was from mining barons. Money played a huge role in this state so the security forces worked very hard round the clock to catch the corruption at the root level so the state could have free and fair elections.

Kerala with its literate population was the easiest in the polling stations. People queued up in lines obediently according to their names and the process ran smoothly. There was one problem the state faced was that the election rule did not permit overseas voting. It only allows the resident of the state to vote.

Madhya Pradesh is a large state so the elections were very complex. There were Maoist affected areas here too that needed to be dealt with high security personnel.

Punjab shares international boundary with Pakistan. Elections in Punjab needed special vigilance so that it could run impartially. Problems discussed in this book is about money and muscle power.

Muscle power indicates that many contestants began to rely on musclemen and local gangs to persuade and force people to attend the election rallies. The book also highlights the hidden facts about paid news. Newspapers demand money in exchange for a good coverage during election time. The role of social media in elections also played a huge role. Social media covers various platforms through which a user can create, share and curate content. Social media with its capability to network and share information with each other is the biggest and most powerful weapon nowadays. The use of EVM electronic voting machine is also an important achievement according to the author of this book.

The most interesting aspect of the book is the Naxalite factor in elections and how the jawans loyally faced every challenge for providing security to the people of those states affected by Naxal violence. There were many killed along with the journalist. According to the writer as he himself being the CEC says that the Maoist threat was the greatest internal security problem India currently faces. Analysing facts, the author Mr. Chawla says that there were many urban pockets who provided the Maoist weapon and shelter. The target of the Maoist party are the security forces as by killing them they could loot their weapons.

The Maoists would block the roads by felling trees which would slow the movement and then fiercely attack the security forces. The CEC requested for helicopters from the air force as travel by land was a big threat for the jawans and the people involved in the polls. The Maoists managed to kill 10 para-military troops and looted their explosives in Odhisa. In Jharkhand, 6 BSF personal were killed in a landmine blasts.

Another hallmark of the book are the suggestive issues Mr Chawla has presented:- He said elimination of money and muscle power is very important for fair elections. Another very sound area is bribery and candidates with criminal records have to be traced and immediate action needs be taken to disqualify. He highlights the importance of transparency of funds that comes into the political parties and where they are spent. The commission emphasized on making bribery in elections as a cognizable offence .The CEC was very watchful of various bodies registering as political parties and receiving funds and not participating in elections. Lastly the commission also suggested that there should be constitutional protection regarding removal of the CEC.

I would recommend this book to student officers of APF as well as other readers of this Journal as this gives a clear picture of how difficult it is to conduct polls in the largest democracy of the world. I recommend this book to everyone who would be interested to know about the Indian elections and gain insight on the voters' experiences during the election time. The police force always has to give up their lives to safeguard free and secure

elections. I would rate this book as 5 on the scale of 1-5 as it clearly illustrates every angle in simple language and makes me salute the police forces without which this complex general election cannot go off peacefully. New factors such as money and muscle power, use of social media techniques by contestants, even forming of new political parties just for getting donations have to be studied minutely as this has enormous ramifications. As a reviewer of this book, I agree to the viewpoints of the author and his first-hand experience indulging himself amidst the Indian electoral process. His insightful journey enables the readers to understand the nitty-gritty of the world's largest democratic elections.

Comparison cannot be made with elections in Nepal because of the sheer number of voters in India and the large number of polling booths that need to be set-up in India. One single state of UP itself has more voters than the whole of Nepal. However, there is enough scope to draw lessons for other South Asian nations.

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Suggestive Reading:

Roy, P. & Sopariwala, D. (2019). *The Verdict: Decoding India's Elections*. Penguin Publishing

Quraishi, S.Y. (2019). *The Great March of Democracy: Seven Decades of India's Election*. Penguin Publishing

Sharma, R. (2019). *Democracy on the Road*. Allan lane Publishing

Author Guidelines

Manuscripts should be typed double-space on A4 sized paper with a 4cm margin on all four sides. The author should underline nothing except words which are to be italicized. Notes and references should be typed double-space on separate pages which should be included at the end of the articles. The researcher will be required to use parentheses or author date system or in text citation. In case, if it is required, the text should refer to notes numbered consecutively throughout the article using raised numbers which should be mentioned at the end of the text before references. The means footnotes must be avoided. The citations and references should be based on the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, Sixth Edition, 2009, Washington, DC. APA method. For example (The mentioned below are pseudonym,) in text citation, there should be: (Egger, 2013,p.17); Egger (2013) and at the end of sentences (p.15); Indentation and Ellipses must be followed: ... one paragraph of sentences in single space at the center with italic... (Published date and page no.). . The researchers are also suggested to used ampersand (&) in text citation and in reference in between the two or more authors.

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