



1 **Brief Communication: Vehicles for development or disaster? The new Silk Route, landslides and**
2 **geopolitics in Nepal.**

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7

8 **Abstract**

9

10 The “One Belt, One Road” (OBOR) policy launched in 2013, one of China’s most ambitious foreign
11 investment and policy initiatives, portends significant changes in the social, cultural and critically, the
12 physical landscape of Nepal, which became a signatory in May 2017. The small, mountainous nation is
13 sandwiched between the massive Indian and Chinese economies and the roads that link these two signify
14 vehicles of change. There are plans for expanding several major trunk roads to pass from Tibet to India
15 along existing routes that are already being impacted by increased trade, and the recent landslide victory
16 of the left alliance (Communist and Maoists Centre) auger greater openness toward China. Rural villages
17 adjacent to these trunks will undoubtedly continue to tie into these roads via a network of poorly-
18 constructed feeder (rural) roads which are likely to increase environmental, economic and human risks
19 associated with roadside landslides. This commentary elaborates on the above issues based on research
20 on the occurrence of roads and landslides in Nepal with recommendations for improved road governance.

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22

23 **Introduction**

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26 investment and policy initiatives, portends significant changes in the social, cultural and critically, the
27 physical landscape of Nepal, which became a signatory in May 2017. The small, mountainous nation is
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33 feeder (rural) roads which are likely to increase environmental, economic and human risks associated with
34 roadside landslides.

35

36 As geopolitics between the two superpowers play out on Nepal’s soils, hills and rivers - who will win, who
37 will lose? Does this new development link rural mountain communities to economic development
38 opportunities, better health care and education options, and increased social networks? Or will the new
39 roads through its fragile mountains create hazards such as landslides and damaged terraces while spurning
40 unplanned satellite roads? Will Nepal rise to the challenge of establishing safeguards to ensure that
41 promised benefits outweigh the losses as it transitions to the newly established decentralized federal
42 governance system? This commentary elaborates on the above questions based on research on the
43 occurrence of roads and landslides in Nepal with recommendations for improved road governance.

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45

46 **Background**

47 Whether supporting the state strategy of “integration, or national unity” (i.e., the East-West Highway; **Figure**
48 **1**), by encouraging trade and population migration (i.e. movement of populations from the hills to the Terai
49 in the 1950s), or as a geo-political play-off between Nepal’s megaliths China and India, road construction



50 in Nepal has always been closely linked to nation-building and geopolitics (Rankin et al, 2017; The
51 Economist, December 23, 2017). In other words, socio-politics impact road construction as much as roads
52 impact socio-economics and environments (Murton, 2016). Dating back to the Rana period around the turn
53 of the 20th century, the absence of roads linking Nepal and India was a strategy to hold the British at bay
54 by deliberately controlling access, while the first roads around the Kathmandu valley constructed in the
55 1920s were considered key to ensuring supplies and consolidation of power for the elite (Rankin et al.,
56 2017). Subsequent regimes, notably during King Mahendra's reign (1955-1972), leveraged cold war
57 tensions to Nepal's advantage by playing off India/USA and China/U.S.S.R. poles to obtain development
58 benefits from both sides (Rankin et al., 2017).

59

60 Until recently and with a few exceptions (notably the Arniko Highway linking China to Kathmandu), India
61 has dominated most of Nepal's road infrastructure development, carefully guarding hydropower resources
62 and its water tower upon which Northern Indians depend for irrigation and drinking water. Then came the
63 devastating Gorkha earthquake [M 7.8] in April 2015, precipitating the signature of the long awaited National
64 Constitution and a consequent Indian petrol blockade, (a complex combination of India's discontent with
65 the new federal system and ethnic sympathies with India). The 5-month long petrol crisis opened a door
66 for Nepal to look elsewhere for new trade routes, especially to its neighbor in the north (The Economist,
67 December 23, 2017). China was also enjoying considerably good relations with Nepal after providing
68 massive humanitarian assistance during the earthquake.

69

70 **New trends paving the way for Nepal's roads**

71

72 The One Belt, One Road (OBOR) initiative was launched in 2013 by the Government of China with the aim
73 to connect major Eurasian economies through infrastructure, trade and investment. It is intended to revive
74 the land and maritime Silk Road via a trade and infrastructure network spanning 60+ countries across East
75 Asia, Western Europe and Africa. It consists of massive investments in roads, railways, ports and other
76 infrastructure and provides significant opportunities for signatory countries to increase their economic
77 development. The land-based part of the initiative passes through some extraordinarily mountainous terrain
78 in countries such as China itself, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Iran, Armenia, Bulgaria, and Nepal and the hotly
79 contested Kashmir region of Pakistan (The Economic Times, 2017). Infrastructure in such mountainous
80 terrain warrants special attention to ensure that construction does not cause environmental harm or
81 aggravate disaster risks such as landslides and flooding.

82

83 Although large national roads are generally constructed with proper engineering standards, many satellite
84 roads that spring up in rural mountain areas of the Himalayas to feed into larger national roads lack proper
85 design and cause significant environmental damage while straining local resources. Much of this expansion
86 is due to weak planning and a lack of environmental management capacity. The question is whether the
87 OBOR program will improve or worsen this outlook.

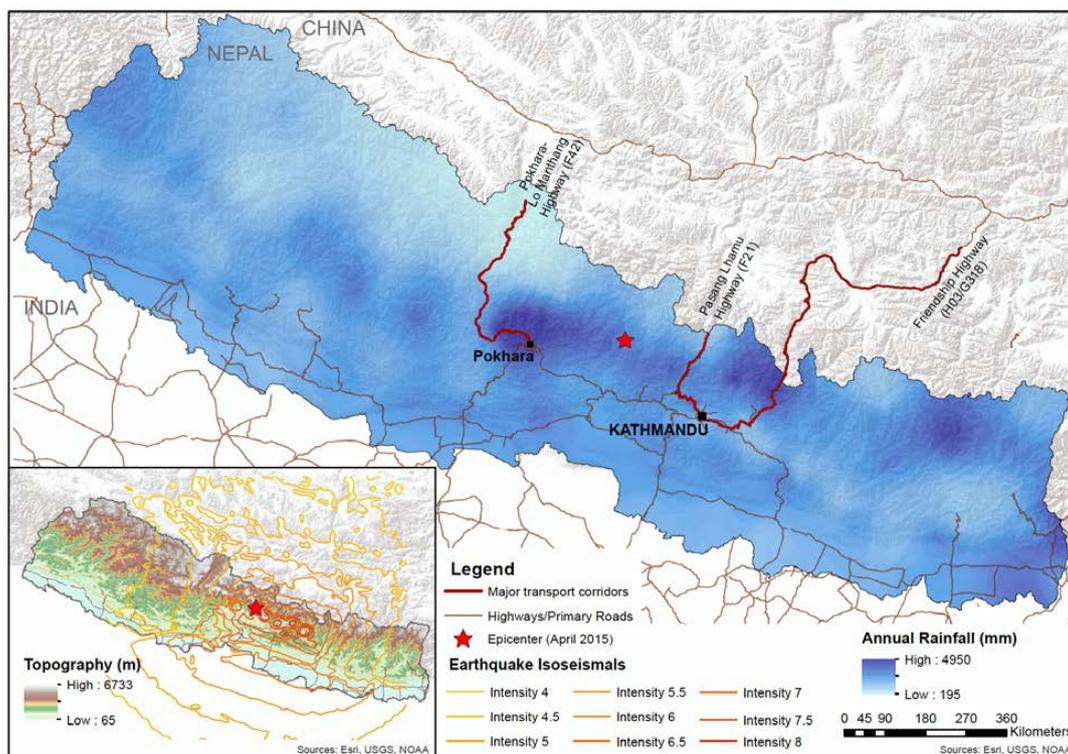
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89 The Nepali road network has expanded from 4,740 km in 1998 to 12,494 km in 2014, of which 6,369 km
90 were blacktop, 4,174 km were earthen and 1,924 km were gravel roads (DoR, 2015). This represents an
91 11% annual increase in rural earthen road construction alone (World Bank, 2016). Such rapid road
92 construction throughout the country, but particularly in the high and mountain areas, is placing increasing
93 pressure on extremely fragile ecosystems. This situation is worsening due to the intensifying rainfall during
94 the monsoon, attributed to climate change (Bharti et al., 2016), which has led to a higher occurrence of
95 landslides, especially in the middle and lower hills (*Siwaliks*).

96



97 The Government of Nepal (GoN) is committed to supporting implementation of the OBOR Initiative (The
98 Wire, July 11, 2017). This participation has opened up new opportunities in multiple fields including trade,
99 connectivity, physical infrastructure development, tourism and investment. Subsequently, GoN has initiated
100 opening borders with China through several improved strategic highways (The Economist, December 23,
101 2017) (Figure 1).
102



103
104 Figure 1. Hazards and Roads in Nepal. As Nepal and China negotiate the redevelopment of trans-
105 Himalaya trade routes, the impact of monsoonal rainfall and earthquake hazards must be considered.
106 While national strategic roads will be designed with these hazards in mind, poorly engineered rural feeder
107 roads that seek to connect poor villages to the resources that will come with the road may increase the
108 risk of economic loss and loss of life. Bioengineering provides a more sustainable solution that can
109 reduce these losses .
110

111
112 These would link the country, with its northern neighbor through highly fragile mountain regions via several
113 key frontier points. The three most heavily used routes currently are (Murton, 2016) :

- 114 i. Rasuwa region: Kerung – Dhunche - Galchi (50 km; Rasuwa District), with Rasuwagadhi
115 becoming a major cross border entry point.
 - 116 ii. Arniko Highway: Kodari - Dolalghat - Kathmandu (40 km; Sindhupalchowk District), an
117 earlier border point, currently highly damaged due to the 2015 earthquakes.
 - 118 iii. Mustang: Korala – Upper Mustang – Jomsom – Beni/Pokhara (158 km; Mustang District),
119 in process of opening up to vehicular transportation.
- 120



121 Discussions are ongoing with regards to which of these roads will be upgraded to handle more traffic and
122 trade. There are early indications that the government will prioritize the Rasuwa road for connectivity to
123 China, while the Mustang corridor road is also being upgraded for cross border trade due to its proximity to
124 the road network that will be extended on the Tibet /China side. Thus these are the three road corridors
125 and its satellite road sections, which are likely to be used as pilot sites in Nepal. China is obviously keen to
126 expand its trade routes through Nepal to India, the question is what will be the consequences –both positive
127 and negative – in Nepal?

128

129 **Landslides and roads – what is the evidence?**

130

131 In 1979, Peter Laban was commissioned by the United Nations Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO)
132 to document the number of landslides and their origin as either natural or human-induced. The study was
133 part of the first comprehensive natural resource reconnaissance inventory for the whole country (1977 –
134 1979) by FAO and the Department of Soil and Water Conservation of the Ministry of Forests. It was
135 triggered by increasing international attention and debate on the origin of flooding in India, with especially
136 India pointing to Nepali farmers' inappropriate terracing practices and government neglect as the root
137 causes of land degradation and landslides (Eckholm, 1975; Blaikie et al., 1980). The origin of landslides
138 thus became a hot political issue.

139 The “Theory of Himalaya Degradation” (Eckholm, 1975) was subsequently discredited, backed by the
140 Laban/FAO study which documented that 74% of all landslides were due to natural causes, such as river
141 undercutting of steep mountain slopes and other natural mountain landscape building processes, with 26%
142 being human-induced. However, the study also stated that while the overall density of landslides
143 associated with roads was low (5%), roads represented at that time, a very small proportion of total land
144 area. However, Laban warned that as the road network continued to expand, the number of landslides will,
145 *“increase drastically in the near future, especially if more careful construction methods are not undertaken”*
146 (Laban, 1979: iv) and that this increase will affect the nation's development.

147 In the quest for constructing roads quickly, the question is whether Laban's predictions have become a
148 reality, and in an environment more complex than could have been imagined at the time. In the period
149 between 1978 and 2005, there was a six-fold increase in landslide fatalities (from 20 to 120 on average per
150 year, the average for the last five years is 152 deaths per year (DesInventar, 2017). According to several
151 studies, drivers of this increased mortality is a deadly combination of an increase in poorly constructed
152 roads with more intense monsoon rains, possibly linked to climate change (Petley et al, 2007).

153

154 Recent data further corroborate the link between roads and landslides in Nepal. Vuillez et al. (accepted)
155 documented land use changes in Phewa Lake watershed (Kaski District, Western Nepal) between 1979-
156 2016, resulting in an increase in roads from 23 km in 1979 to 340 km in 2016. The study was on-going
157 when an intense rainfall event (315 mm) occurred over 24 hours on July 28-29, 2015, killing nine persons
158 in the study area due to a landslide associated with a road. As a result of this event, 174 landslides were
159 recorded (as compared to 14 landslides before the event), of which 39% (N=6) were situated either at the
160 top or bottom of a road. A second study by McAdoo et al (submitted) correlates landslides mapped in
161 Sindhupalchok District before the 2015 earthquake, of which nearly twice as many are located near roads
162 than from a random distribution. These results from Nepal are corroborated by similar studies on landslides
163 and roads from other mountainous areas worldwide (Haigh, 1988; Sidle and Ziegler, 2012; Sidle et al.,
164 2014). Interestingly, earthquake generated landslides in the same district are less likely to occur near a
165 road, and match a random distribution (McAdoo et al, submitted). This is due to ridge shaking effect of
166 earthquake- versus monsoon-triggered landslides, which are more likely to be affected by anthropogenic
167 causes such as road-induced slope fragilities (Collins and Jibson, 2015).



168

169 Many of these losses are avoidable with concerted action. Good route selection, appropriate construction
170 practices (which need not be expensive) and proper maintenance regimes, especially of drains and
171 earthworks, can dramatically reduce landslide losses and be significantly more cost-effective while
172 providing livelihoods benefits. A recent cost-benefit analysis compared grey or unplanned “bulldozer” roads
173 with bioengineered mountainous roads, taking into account initial construction costs, yearly maintenance
174 costs, economic losses due to monsoon damage and income associated to the harvesting of grasses used
175 for road stabilization. Under the most conservative scenario, not accounting for above mentioned losses,
176 bio-engineered roads are more cost effective after 12 years as maintenance costs are considerably lower
177 (estimated at 5,600 USD/km for grey roads compared to 850 USD for bioengineered roads) (Vicarelli et al,
178 in prep.). When taking both losses and benefits into account, bioengineered roads cost less from the outset
179 (around 200,000 USD/km as compared to 1.2 million USD/km).

180

181 **Conclusions**

182

183 The OBOR investments will undoubtedly bring vast improvement to the quality, efficiency and safety of
184 these main roads along with accompanying hydropower schemes, however the risk posed by the feeder
185 roads must not be overlooked. On the surface, roads appear to be vital livelihood links for rural populations
186 for improved access to markets, health care, education, employment and migration. Mobility is increased
187 and rural populations have greater flexibility to adapt to harsh environmental conditions, either temporarily
188 or permanently and offer the possibility of new economic opportunities, such as tourism, ultimately reducing
189 their economic vulnerability. However, economic benefits of roads in mountainous areas are being
190 questioned and present one of the greatest anthropogenic drivers of landslides (Jaboyedoff et al., 2016),
191 presenting particular challenges of sustainability, risk and governance (Sidle and Ziegler, 2012). Since the
192 turn of the 20th century, development of the roads’ sector has been one of the country’s main priorities while
193 becoming one of the greatest underlying anthropogenic causes of landslides and fatalities. And one whose
194 impact could be significantly reduced. As the country moves toward greater decentralization of power
195 through the new federal system, there is considerable opportunity for local and national government to turn
196 the tide toward more safe and sustainable road development.

197

198 The issue of roads in Nepal is a political, not a technical issue: Nepal has some of the best bio-engineering
199 manuals and knowledge in the world, with four decades of experience and well trained technicians
200 alongside significant local knowledge of local species (of bamboo and grasses) with deep-roots for roadside
201 slope stabilization. However, the environmental and high maintenance costs of haphazard “bulldozer roads”
202 could be significantly reduced if government policies and well-established eco-engineering designs were
203 enforced, including basic standards of road grading, alignment, drainage and bio-engineering.

204

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206

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