

*Social Science Perspectives on Childbirth and Reproduction*

# **BALOCH MIDWIVES**

**CONTESTING GLOBAL PERCEPTIONS OF  
MIDWIFERY IN BALOCHISTAN, PAKISTAN**

Fouziyha Towghi



# Baloch Midwives

This book is the first major ethnography of Baloch midwives in Pakistan. Drawing on long-term ethnographic research in Balochistan province, it shows how dhīnabogs/dheenabogs (Baloch midwives ranging in age from about 30 to 80) and their dhīnabogirī (midwifery) aid women and their kin through labor and postpartum recovery.

Its chapters show how Baloch midwives' forms and ethics of care have persisted, despite nearly two centuries of British colonial policies and the subsequent disparaging official views regarding South Asian Indigenous midwives, commonly known as dāīs, in both postcolonial India and Pakistan. Through their continued presence and effective uses of their traditional medicine, Baloch midwives contain, mediate, and offer a powerful critique of women's iatrogenic suffering caused by unnecessary biomedical interventions. Through a nuanced analysis of Baloch midwives' ethical approach to caring for women, and their responses to the exigencies of women's health, this book demonstrates why over a century of state efforts to modernize and biomedicalize childbirth practices have failed to convince the majority of Baloch women in Balochistan to give birth in hospitals. They instead prefer home births and the midwifery care from the dhīnabogs whom they trust.

This book will not only be of interest to scholars and students in anthropology, medical humanities, public health, sociology, gender and women's studies, gender and medical history, South Asia studies, and global health studies, but also to those in the midwifery and the nursing profession. It will also be of interest to non-academic readers wishing to learn about midwives in South Asia and anyone interested in reading about traditional medicine and midwives who practice outside of European and North American cultural contexts.

**Fouzieyha Towghi** is a medical anthropologist and an honorary academic in the School of Archaeology and Anthropology, Australian National University, and the recipient of the 2015 Rudolph Virchow Professional Award from the Society for Medical Anthropology for her 2014 article, "Normalizing Off-Label Experiments and the Pharmaceuticalization of Homebirths in Pakistan." Drawing from over ten years of ethnographic research, her scholarship has focused on the politics of reproduction, medicine, science, and biomedical technologies and their implications for women's health and lives in South Asia.

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I dedicate this book to my mother and father, Hasineh and Malek Towghi, for their unconditional love and for teaching me my mother tongue, Balochi, without which I could not “hear” the Baloch women and midwives to learn of their dignified life and to write this book.

In memory of Begu, her daughter Mehnaz,  
and my late aunt Hoosnia, a Baloch midwife in Sindh.



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# A Note on Balochi to English Translation and Transliteration

All translations from Balochi to English and from Urdu to English are mine. On translations and transliteration of Balochi, I also consulted my father, Dr. Malek Towghi, who is a native speaker of Balochi, Urdu, and Farsi and who also has full professional proficiency in Arabic and English. The transliteration system adopted in this book is based on the list of the ALA-LC (American Library Association—Library of Congress) rules. I have done this for Arabic, Balochi, Farsi/Persian, and Urdu words. Historically, Balochistan has been spelled “Baluchistan.” However, the Baloch and Baloch scholars consider “Baloch” a more accurate transliteration of the ethnonym, and in 1990, the Balochistan provincial government in Pakistan declared “Baloch” the official English spelling which since has been accepted the standard spelling in Pakistan. I use this spelling in this book. Baloch refers to the people, Balochi to the language, and Balochistan to the region.

# Abbreviations

<b>AMTSL</b>	active management of the third stage of labor
<b>BHU</b>	basic health units
<b>CHW</b>	community health worker
<b>CMW</b>	community midwife
<b>DHO</b>	district health officer
<b>DHQH</b>	district headquarter hospital
<b>EmOC</b>	emergency obstetric care
<b>FPHW</b>	family planning healthcare worker/FPHCW in some regions of Pakistan
<b>FIGO</b>	International Federation of Gynecology and Obstetrics
<b>HRC</b>	Human Rights Council
<b>HRW</b>	Human Rights Watch
<b>LHV</b>	lady health visitor
<b>LHW</b>	lady health worker
<b>LMO</b>	lady medical officer
<b>LNHO</b>	League of Nations Health Organization
<b>MBBS</b>	Bachelor of Medicine, Bachelor of Surgery
<b>MCHC</b>	Maternal Child Health Centre
<b>MDG</b>	Millennium Development Goals
<b>MMR</b>	maternal mortality ratio
<b>MS</b>	medical superintendent
<b>NGO</b>	nongovernmental organization
<b>NWHP</b>	National Women's Health Project
<b>PHC</b>	primary healthcare
<b>PPH</b>	postpartum hemorrhage
<b>RHC</b>	rural health center
<b>SBA</b>	skilled birth attendant
<b>SDG</b>	Sustainable Development Goals
<b>TBA</b>	traditional birth attendant
<b>TTBA</b>	trained traditional birth attendant
<b>UN</b>	United Nations

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<b>UNICEF</b>	United Nations Children's Fund
<b>USAID</b>	United States Agency for International Development
<b>VFPW</b>	village family planning health worker
<b>WHO</b>	World Health Organization
<b>WHP</b>	Women's Health Project

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# Introduction

I tell them that Allāh will take care of the birth and bring the child safely into the world. Allāh is the bringer.

—A *dhīnabog* (Balochi midwife)

In Panjgūr, a district of Balochistan, Pakistan, despite the longstanding presence of colonial biomedicine or allopathy,<sup>1</sup> *dhīnabogs/dheenabogs* (Baloch midwives ranging in age from 35 to their 80s) remain vital in pregnancy, childbirth, and the postpartum care of Baloch women. I learned about their distinctive importance in women’s lives as I conversed with them in their homes, observing their work and interactions with women and children, accompanied them during their rounds to women’s homes, walked with them through towns, fields, and valleys, and climbed the mountains searching for wild herbs and plants. I learned from *dhīnabogs* (and from other Baloch women) about their exceptional techniques of antenatal massage, which they perform to shift and reposition the fetus both before and during delivery to ensure safe births. They discussed with me how they treated and healed childhood and adult ailments with herbs and specific herbal formulas. And I learned about the ways in which they managed reproductive emergencies. I observed the works of *kawwāsi* (expert) *dhīnabogs* whose reputations had travelled far beyond the geographic boundaries of Panjgūr district and Balochistan province, reaching Karachi and other parts of Sindh province, and as far as the Middle Eastern countries of Iran, Dubai, and Bahrain. These and other reputed *dhīnabogs* prescribed and administered *Balochī dhawā* (Balochi medicine) to aid women to avert immediate and long-term post-delivery reproductive problems. Once, during one of our numerous conversations, typically lasting three hours, one such *dhīnabog*, Lal-Bībī (all of the names of my interlocutors used throughout this book are pseudonyms), shared that her daughter had died while giving birth to her child under the care of a *lady*—referring to a lady medical officer/doctor (LMO) or a lady health

## 2 Introduction

visitor (LHV)—an auxiliary nurse who has completed an 18-month primary healthcare course in basic nursing and midwifery. During an antenatal visit at the Panjgūr District Headquarters Hospital (DHQH), Lal-Bībī's daughter was diagnosed with high blood pressure and was told to give birth in the hospital/clinic. However, in the private clinic of *a lady*, she was administered the *sūch-chin* (injection or needle)—referring to a uterotonic drug such as Pitocin/syntocinon<sup>2</sup> to speed up and force the labor and delivery of child and the placenta. (A “uterotonic” refers to a drug that stimulates cervical ripening and uterine contractions. “Cervical ripening” is the softening and gradual dilation of the cervical os, which is the opening to the cervix.) Lal-Bībī attributed her daughter's death to the *sūch-chin*. As with many other dhīnabogs, she was not entirely against the use of such injections in childbirth when necessary, though she and the other dhīnabogs preferred Balochī herbs to facilitate the birth process and to prevent potential complications during delivery and the postpartum period. However, as I met many more dhīnabogs in Panjgūr, they conveyed a consistent concern—a deep worry regarding the near-routine and overuse of uterotonic injections by the *ladyān*, or ladies, being administered to the younger generation of women (in their 20s and 30s). Since Pakistan gained independence from British rule in 1947, the term *lady* remains an official prefix in Pakistan's medical nomenclature. This term refers to different cadres of State-employed women medical workers, including lady medical officers/doctors (LMOs), lady health visitors (LHVs), and lady health workers (LHWs). In Panjgūr, Baloch women and dhīnabogs referred to them as *the lady* or in the plural as *ladyān*. I thus consider these terms to be vernacularized formations, and therefore I have italicized them throughout this book.

The dhīnabogs highlighted the unnecessary and untimely labor inductions that, from their perspective, were compromising the safety of the mother and baby. Over the course of my fieldwork (described in the next section), women and dhīnabogs narrated their observations of the links between the overuse of the *sūch-chin* in childbirth and the increasing numbers of women with problems unknown in the past, including the problem of unnecessary hysterectomies. Many women lamented, “The time of *bal-luk* [lit. “grandmother”] is no more; it is now the time of *the lady*.”

They wondered why Baloch women in Panjgūr are weaker now and their lives at greater risk around childbirth than they had ever witnessed in previous times, despite the growing use of biomedical technologies intended to support deliveries. As one dhīnabog in Panjgūr explained to me, “Women go to *the lady*, get an injection for the pain, become a little better; then it is back to the same stomach and pain. Then they return to us for care.” The injection or the pill, then, rather than easing women's aches and pains, would create more problems, sometimes resulting

in unnecessary drastic medical procedures such as hysterectomies. As my ethnographic research progressed, it became clear that the Baloch women were caught in a triangle of morbidities, infertilities, and hysterectomies that dominated their narratives about the declining Balochī or nomadic lifeways, the simultaneous rise in injection use around birth, and the problematic forces, in their words, of *Ingrezī dhawā* (English medicine, meaning modern/allopathic biomedicine) that some of the women also equated with the sedentary ways of the *shahr* (city).

Baloch women and dhīnabogs spoke with me about how the uterus (*jān/body*; *zahg-dān/lit.* “child’s sac”) is damaged from the use of hormonal pills and injectable contraceptives, pointing to these drugs and to the excesses of uteronic injections as contributing to the declining health of Baloch women. While there were women who did request artificial labor inductions to force their labors to begin, there were other women who had *not* asked for the “sūch-chin” before being administered it. Women also spoke of refusing such injections. Some of them purposefully avoided visiting *a lady* because of practitioners’ *ādath* (habit) of administering artificial labor inductions and hearing accounts of women being harmed as a consequence. However, in the absence of a dhīnabog in their region, a woman might visit the private clinic of an LMO or LHV late in her pregnancy and end up with a prematurely induced birth, then eventually might find herself farther away in an urban clinic for an emergency attributed to the premature induction. Many of the dhīnabogs expressed dismay over the increasing numbers of women being subjected to labor-inducing injections largely administered by an LMO or LHV. They were also distraught by the pressures exerted on younger women during antenatal visits in the district public hospital to deliver in an LMO’s private clinic.

Dhīnabogs also spoke with me about the pressures they felt during their homebirth care from some of the birthing women and their kin to administer the labor induction with the sūch-chin. Many said that their local herbs, plants, and herbal formulas have similar functions to facilitate the labor process, but their effects were not harmful like those of the sūch-chin. If needed and available, they would use such herbs. Mostly, they refused to administer injections, though they had access to them through compounders (paramedics with a year of pharmacy training who are trained to administer injections and certain biomedicines, and also serve as vaccinators). During the time of my fieldwork (see next section), all compounders were men, generally young, in their 20s/30s. However, as the dhīnabogs often told me, in refusing to artificially induce labor “before its time,” they also risked turning some women away to seek the services of the State-sanctioned workers—the LMOs and LHVs—who would surely administer the sūch-chin to ensure that the birth would occur on site in their private clinics, and not in the district health headquarters (DHQH). For as was



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understood by *the ladyān*, when one “catches the live baby,” only then could they demand payments from the birthing woman’s family. That is, the *ladyān* would only demand a payment if the baby was delivered alive. As is more fully described in Chapter 5, a number of Baloch women said that LMOs would frequently hold back the newborn until they received the full cash payment demanded. As the narratives of Baloch women and dhīnabogs in the succeeding ethnographic chapters illustrate, this link between live births and the demands for cash payments is consistent with *the ladyān’s* avoidance or refusal to assist a woman, for example, with a potential stillbirth. They instead referred such women to a tertiary level facility in Quetta or Karachi cities, located, respectively, in the Balochistan and Sindh provinces (see Figure 0.1).

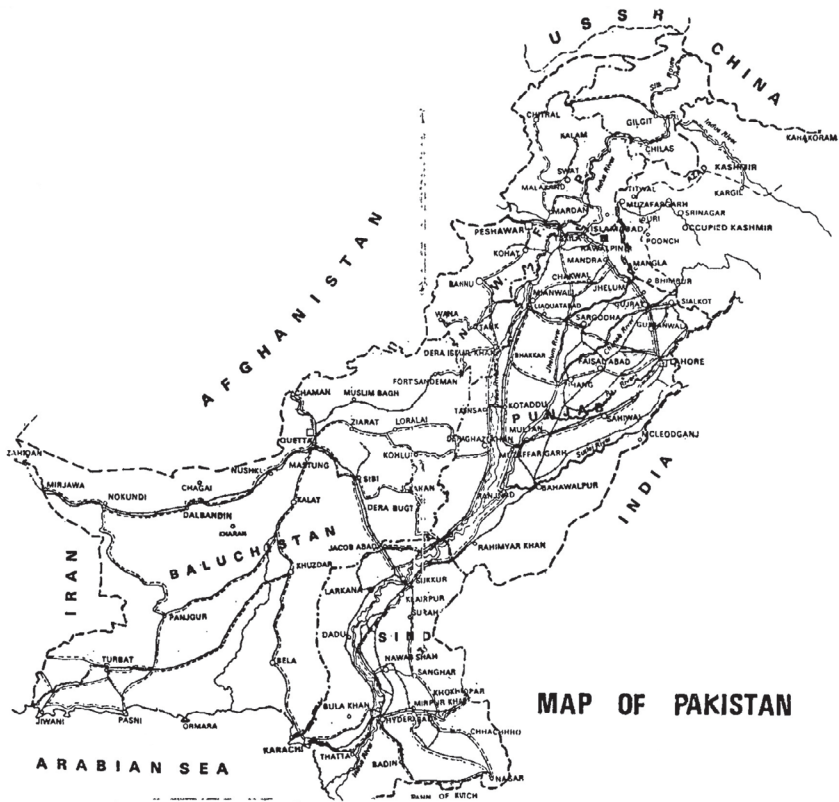


Figure 0.1 Map of Pakistan.

According to my interlocutors, the excesses of uterotonics use were not the only causes of Baloch women's declining health. When dhīnabogs, women, and elders recounted the "better" past versus the present worsening conditions of women's health and childbirth experiences, many also mentioned the social impacts on their *dhīnabogiri* (Baloch midwifery; lit. "the work of dhīnabogs") of the declining access to herbs as well as on the decreasing numbers of expert healers, including dhīnabogs, who would have specialized in myriad Balochī medicinal techniques—a point that I further discuss in Chapters 3 and 5. The ongoing drought that in 2005 had been underway for nearly seven years was also blamed for Baloch women's deteriorating health conditions, weakened bodies, and chronic illnesses. Livestock loss and the declining annual harvests were linked to women's decreasing physical strength, thereby influencing the length of time that women could bear the labor of childbirth and their postpartum recovery, as I further discuss in Chapter 4.

However, despite these shifting environmental and economic contexts, where nature was delivering fewer of some of the essential local plants from which important ingredients of herbal formulas are derived, dhīnabogs continued to search far and wide to secure the necessary ingredients of their most-used herbal formulas, including for example, Bībī-Begum, whom I introduce in Chapter 3, and other dhīnabogs such as Nāz-Bībī (also introduced in Chapter 3) who creatively improvised by capitalizing on their kin connections in Karachi to obtain the essential herbs from the *pensāri* (herbal) shops there.

Another dhīnabog, Bībī-Zarina, told me that no child or mother had ever died in her hands nor in the hands of her great-aunt, who in Bībī-Zarina's view was a "true *kawwās*," referring to an expert and "real" dhīnabog who had taught Bībī-Zarina the craft of *dhīnabogiri*. Here, Bībī-Zarina was not exactly boasting about her aunt's specialized herbal knowledge and the pre-existing publicly acknowledged competence of her midwifery—characteristics that also indicated the embodied ethical imperatives of dhīnabogiri; rather she was explicating the unpredictable outcomes of all childbirths in which *khodhrath* ("God's nature" or "the force of God") is viewed to have a central though empirically inexplicable place. This was a recurrent philosophical outlook that many dhīnabogs echoed as they identified their own dignified, assiduous care of women as "a calling"—a vocation guided by Allāh—as well as a work of necessity. Bībī-Zarina continued, "God's nature brings the child to the world. If God might bring death, then there is death [referring to the child's death]. If there is no death, then the child lives." This consciousness about the potentiality of death in and around childbirth, however, did not render dhīnabogs into passive observers of childbirth-related emergencies. These were emergencies that dhīnabogs and Baloch women referred to and linked with the inappropriate administrations of labor

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inductions and injections as they narrated to me about women's changing pregnancy, childbirth, and postnatal experiences (see Chapters 5 and 6).

### My Fieldwork Process: Methods and Materials

My analyses in this book are informed by over two years (2004–2006) of ethnographic research in Pakistan, archival research at the WHO and the United Nations headquarters in Geneva, and at the British and Wellcome-Trust libraries in London, subsequent ongoing communications and follow-up visits in Pakistan with some of my interlocutors (2010–2019), and the review of governmental and nongovernmental reports and policy documents. I also draw from my intermittent journeys in Pakistan from 1992 to 1999 and in 2003, which entailed public health work and research. A significant proportion of my ethnographic research—over 15 months—took place in Panjgūr; during this time, my field research in Pakistan also took me to the cities and towns of Khuzdār, Quetta, Karachi, Hub, Dera Bugti, Gwadar, Turbat, Peshawar, and Islamabad. My research in Panjgūr involved participant observation in hospital wards and in the contexts of midwives' work in home, community, and hospital settings and in-depth individual and group interviews and conversations with 86 midwives, approximately 200 women, four *hakīms* (physicians of Unani medicine; see next section), and a range of allopathic practitioners: women and men medical doctors, lady health visitors (LHVs), lady health workers (LHWs), and compounders; local artists, historians, politicians, government officials, social justice activists, *pensārs* (herb gatherers/sellers; pharmacists/herbalists), shop owners, and *badhoks* (herb carriers/gatherers/traveling herbalists).

I began my fieldwork to identify the implications of reproductive health and development policies and the associated national program interventions for traditional midwives and women's health in Balochistan, Pakistan. I wished to explore four interconnecting aspects: (1) How local midwives and reproductive women were negotiating the healthcare system in the context of the global safe-motherhood paradigm that viewed all births as “risky” with the intended objective of normalizing hospital births, (2) the physical and social contingencies of rural life, (3) the bioscientific rationales underlying the policies to modernize midwifery and reproductive healthcare practices, and (4) the implications of the increasing biomedicalization of childbirth for women's health and of local forms of women's reproductive health care.

My research interests took me to Panjgūr, Balochistan, because the “*dāīs*” (the most commonly used term for traditional midwives in both India and Pakistan) there had a reputation for excellent and skillful use of medicinal plants and herbal remedies that I had learned of during my prior public health work in numerous districts of Balochistan, including Khuzdār, where

from 1997 to 1999 I worked as the co-investigator and project coordinator of the US National Institutes of Health (NIH)-funded Balochistan Safe Motherhood Initiative (BSMI) maternal-health intervention project (Towghi et al. 2000). In Khuzdār, I met two Khuzdāri Baloch midwives who told me that herbal uses for *janenī bīmārī* (women's sicknesses) were more common in Panjgūr than in Khuzdār. They both had family ties in Panjgūr, though they lived in Khuzdār and continued what I subsequently learned to be their "dhīnabogirī" work, entailing extensive uses of herbs for variety of women's and children's health ailments. One of them, affectionately called Bībī, was over 80 years of age and had practiced for most of her life in Panjgūr before she and her family moved to Khuzdār. Ironically, during that time I did not learn about the category of "dhīnabog," as I still thought that I was looking for "dāīs." Bībī's granddaughter had worked with me on the BSMI project. The granddaughter's uncle—a biomedical doctor—also had contacts with district officials in Panjgūr. Through them, I made my initial contacts with the local people in Panjgūr.

Of course, other factors also led me to do fieldwork in Panjgūr. These included my proficiency in and knowledge of the Balochī language spoken in Panjgūr and my network of contacts such as friends, family friends, and extended family members in Balochistan, Karachi, and Islamabad that enabled me to do the research despite the post-September 11, 2001, safety concerns regarding travel and research in Pakistan.

Given my prior time and work in Balochistan, I was aware that for internal travel in Panjgūr, it is crucial to hire a vehicle and a local driver who has an organic knowledge of the roads and villages situated—in some cases hidden—in the valleys or on the sides of the mountain ranges of the vast span of the Panjgūr district. I, therefore, organized a preliminary visit to Panjgūr in 2004 to set up the infrastructure of the research. I looked for a place to stay, hired a local driver, and identified a woman research assistant—an elder who would be able to accompany me in my travels across the district during my fieldwork process. I visited Islamabad, Karachi, Khuzdār, and also the Balochistan provincial headquarters of various health offices in Quetta. In Islamabad, Karachi, and Quetta, I contacted government and nongovernmental officials and policymakers involved in reproductive health care and in the promotion of the Safe Motherhood Initiative in Pakistan. While in Islamabad, I arranged interviews with officials from UNFPA, UNICEF, WHO, the Population Council, and sought permission to review archival materials that were housed in their regional offices in Pakistan. I also contacted and interviewed members of the National Safe Motherhood Alliance and the National Commission for Human Development (NCHD), which, in May 2003, had finally undertaken the task of developing a national program for training and deploying 15,000 "community" midwives (CMWs), also known as SBAs (skilled birth attendants)—a strategy that had been approved

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by the Prime Minister and the Federal Health Minister. In Chapter 4, I discuss the outcomes and implications of this program initiative for maternal health—an initiative that had not yet reached Panjgūr during the time of my fieldwork. Due to the political situation and to the events that were unfolding in Balochistan that had started in 2003 leading to the intensification of the links among military activities, foreign development aid, and large-scale government-funded development activities, including the Gwadar seaport project (described later), I decided to also interview a number of prominent Baloch political leaders, including Akbar Khan Bugti, who at the time was the *Tumandar* or *Sardhār* (head) of the Bugti tribe of Baloch people and who also served as the Governor of Balochistan province, to understand their views on the increasing role of the Pakistani military in the “development” of Balochistan.

### Dhīnabogs and Their Dhīnabogirī

Drawing on my ethnographic research in Balochistan, Pakistan, as described previously, in this book, I show how dhīnabogs and their dhīnabogirī aid women and their kin to remedy and resist the injuries of biomedicalized obstetrics. Dhīnabogs’ mediations and interruptions of the increasing “iatrogenic”<sup>3</sup> effects of biomedical interventions experienced by Baloch women in rural Balochistan signify the embodied forms and ethics of dhīnabogirī, which has persisted despite nearly two centuries of disparaging policy constructions of South Asian Indigenous midwives, commonly known as *dāīs* (Lal 1994; Ram 1998; Rozario 1998; Jeffery et al. 1989; Van Hollen 2003; Towghi 2004; Pinto 2008). British colonial and postcolonial Pakistani policy assumptions regarding the South Asian *dāī*’s character and work, which have been largely negative, are the antitheses to the forms and ethics of Baloch midwifery in Panjgūr. Dhīnabogs’ approaches to the care of mother and child are inscribed in the very meanings of the Balochī vernacular categories: *dhīnabogs*, *kawwās*, and *balluk* as detailed in Chapter 3. The ideals of dhīnabogirī are also reflected in the ways in which Baloch women and dhīnabogs constitute a *mulkī* (of one’s country) *dhīnabog* versus a *sarkārī* (government) *dāī*, as further elaborated in the succeeding pages of this Introduction and in Chapter 5. In short, “dhīnabog” is a Balochī word meaning one who assists, facilitates, and supports the woman in the labor, delivery, and postpartum process.

### Situating the Dhīnabog vis-à-vis the Dāī/TBA

Indigenous midwives all around the world were designated the category of “traditional birth attendants” or just “TBAs” due to a World Health

Organization (WHO 1978, 1979) decision in the 1970s to promote their training and incorporation into the biomedical system in order to advance primary health care (PHC). The WHO defined a “TBA” as a traditional practitioner who assists the mother during childbirth and who initially acquired her skills by delivering babies herself or through apprenticeship with other TBAs. (This was a joint WHO/UNFPA/UNICEF statement in which a TBA could also be a family TBA “designated by an extended family to attend births in that family” [WHO 1992: 4]).

Anthropologists, however, have long since recognized the inadequacy and narrowness of this definition, which has discursively configured and reified TBAs as possessing similar skills, functions, and statuses within and across communities to justify a standardized maternal child health or safe-motherhood development policy. For example, Stacey L. Pigg (1995) showed how the production of acronyms in health development discourses results in a specific form of violence, erasing in the process the variety and range of midwives and their functions in Nepal. And Brigitte Jordan (1989) observed the transformations generated by foreign-funded national TBA training programs in Mexico in the relationships between traditional midwives and the women seeking their care (see also Chawla 1994; Davis-Floyd and Sargent 1997). These anthropologists and many others have compellingly shown how the globalized usage of the term “TBA” has produced a generic, universal figure to serve the shifting requirements of national healthcare goals, thereby occluding the heterogeneity of traditional or Indigenous midwives’ medicinal work within and across nations (Towghi 2004). Often blamed for the risks experienced by women in and around modern childbirth, the heterogeneity of “TBAs” continues to elude or to “haunt” the persistent health development efforts to homogenize and instrumentally use or altogether replace them with a “new” cadre of women healthcare workers (Towghi 2018). Yet such processes of reduction or categorization are by definition incomplete and are not internalized by midwives themselves, as evidenced in this book’s ethnographic Chapters 3 to 6. Where TBAs have been blamed for problematic maternal health outcomes, in reality poverty, malnutrition, and other socio-structural factors are implicated in creating the risks that can result in maternal deaths and morbidities, as I discuss in the succeeding pages. In this context, where also healthcare facilities are often inaccessible, “dāis/TBAs” actually save lives and support women’s future well-being. In Chapter 5, I discuss dhīnabogs’ crucial roles in averting the deaths of mothers and babies in obstetric emergencies experienced by women when allopathic doctors refuse to touch the case and instead refer women to tertiary hospitals in Quetta or Karachi. Janet Chawla (2006) also observed in India the essential roles of dāis in saving the lives of women experiencing obstetric emergencies.

### But Who Is the TBA?

Whereas anthropologists have effectively deconstructed the homogenizing impacts of the category “TBA” (see for examples Davis-Floyd et al. 2001), less or no attention has been given in the literature to how the dominant South Asia category “dāī” is constructed as the universal category of the South Asian traditional midwife as in India, Pakistan, and Bangladesh. Little attention has also been given to how such categorical homogenization might obfuscate the diversity of local traditional midwives as well as the significance of their preventive and lifesaving work in and around childbirth. During my fieldwork, however, rather than finding “dāīs,” I met dhīnabogs, kawwās, and balluks, who had escaped the reifying effects of categories, acronyms, and discursive effacements (Pigg 1995), given the general absence of references to them as dāīs or as TBAs among the Baloch women in Panjgūr. I met profoundly complex subjects who were serenely enacting their understated distinct expertise and unstated ethics of care, as exemplified by Khatija and by many other dhīnabogs introduced in the succeeding pages and in Chapters 3, 5, and 6. Just like the designation “TBA,” the category of “dāī” has functioned to efface vernacular identities and a complex of local therapeutics associated with women’s medicinal work in South Asia. As I elaborate in Chapter 3, instead of the “dāī,” I discovered a *mulkī* (of one’s country or region) dhīnabog who is not called a “dāī.” Nor do biomedical practitioners know the “dhīnabogs,” as they referred to them as dāīs or as TBAs. Thus, glossed over as a dāī/TBA, the dhīnabog’s vernacular identity is written away in colonial and postcolonial maternal child health discourses. This epistemic erasure has made her presence uncertain but has also sustained her, which is precisely why I too at first, though only for a short time, could not locate the Baloch midwife—the “dhīnabog.” In Panjgūr, dhīnabogs remain present in women’s lives, mediating and offering powerful critiques of women’s iatrogenic sufferings. The dynamics of the care that they provide to women challenge the reductive and disparaging representations of dāīs/TBAs and home births, as I discuss in Chapter 4. Their philosophical outlooks and practical responses to the exigencies of childbirth and to the iatrogenic emergencies confronting Baloch women, emanating from their allopathic clinical encounters and from their subjection to biomedical technologies, counter trends in global health development interventions over the past three decades that have revived an aspect of colonial discourse that had explicitly viewed traditional midwives as “mother killers,” and the home as a site of dirt and death. On the proliferation of these views about local midwives in Asia, Africa, and Latin America, see Lefeber and Voorhoeve (1998). These authors also point to the popular belief in Indonesia of



midwives as native “death angels” and to the view of traditional midwives as directly responsible for infant and maternal deaths in India.

In contrast, I learned about the enduring trust and respect that dhīnabogs have among their people in the 21<sup>st</sup> century because of their dhīnabogirī skills; many are considered kawwās (experts) in their craft, highly experienced in their dhīnabogirī, including herbalism. They are also regarded with esteem for their postpartum care of mother and child and for consciously avoiding unnecessary vaginal examinations. Women and their kin turn to them in search of good and dignified care. As communicated to me, a dhīnabog lacking the expected dhīnabogirī skills cannot be respected; she therefore cannot be entrusted with one’s body (or the care of one’s daughter, granddaughter, daughter-in-law, or niece in and around childbirth); if she cannot be entrusted, then she is not a “dhīnabog.” This social position of dhīnabogs demands a certain ethical mode of relating to women and to one’s dhīnabogirī. As understood by Baloch women and men in Panjgūr, a dhīnabog is involved in assisting women with the intimate and most private of bodily matters; this aspect of her work is further elaborated upon in Chapter 3, where I present some of the profound parallels between what I learned about the Baloch midwives in Panjgūr and the Muslim midwives of the premodern Middle East, including their consistent invocations of Allāh in and about their dhīnabogirī practices, their view of this work as a “gift from Allāh,” and the fact that for many of them, there is no boundary between the care of women in and around childbirth and the care of a deceased woman’s body.

### **Baloch Midwives Unsettle the Haunting Expectations of Hospital Births**

Throughout this book, I contrast the colonial and postcolonial discourses regarding South Asian traditional midwives to delineate how Pakistan’s health and social development policies—embedded as these are in a global universalized biomedical and human rights framework—render Baloch persons, practices, and regions as “traditional,” “rural,” and “tribal” in their connotations as “backward/outdated,” “underdeveloped,” and perpetually “anti-modern.” Aided by scholarship on hauntology, ruination, and affective infrastructure, I trace the contested “governmentality” of women and dhīnabogs (Foucault 1979; Derrida 1994; Thrift 2007; Stoler 2008; Street 2012). I argue that Baloch midwives’ approaches to their dhīnabogirī go against the grain of the historical and contemporary production of knowledge about South Asian Indigenous midwives and Baloch women. In meditating on colonial ruination, the feminist theorist and anthropologist of coloniality/colonial governance Anne Stoler (2008:



194) described the persistence of “imperial formations through material debris,” or the remnants of colonial governance and discourses that continue to degrade the material environments in which people live and their sensible and moral experiences of the world. I extend these ideas to consider the postcolonial continuity and ramifications of the “colonial debris”—the copresence of biomedicine (hospitals/clinics, personnel, injections) and the enduring or “haunting” powers of State and transnational institutional discourses about people such as the *dāīs*/TBAs—and Baloch women’s and *dhīnabogs*’ affective responses to the increasing push toward hospital births and to the iatrogenic injuries caused by inappropriate and unnecessary biomedical interventions.

Jacques Derrida (1994) introduced “hauntology” as a punning contrast to “ontology” to describe how contemporary discourses, institutions, and cultural meanings are always already haunted by past structures of meaning and material presences as if they were “ghosts” from other times and lives (Till 2005). For Baloch women, colonial medicine is not merely a ghost of the past, but a presence that is experientially part of their daily realities. As such, biomedical technologies are not only the material remnants or “imperial debris” of colonial medicine, but also persist in their postcolonial allopathic/biomedical face and legal State backing that authorize biomedical practitioners to enact unwanted, often risky medical interventions in the guise of “care” (Stoler 2008). In postcolonial studies, “hauntings” are read as presences of the past that are less about a terrifying memory or a ghost, and more about a disquieting condition that impels one into political action, or to an affective response to unjust conditions or social processes (Gordon 2008; Lincoln and Lincoln 2015). “Affect” is a form of consciousness that “primes us for action” (Thrift 2007: 221). This affective formation is produced by encounters between persons and between persons and things. *Dhīnabogs*’ affective responses—the urgency in their caregiving dispositions—were not only shaped by encountering women’s recurring iatrogenic ailments, but also were primed by their own *dhīnabogiri* experiences and by those of their foremothers of having successfully averted and managed complicated cases with Balochī *dhawā*, as *dhīnabog* Murād-Bībī described to me and as when, in Chapter 5, Fatima’s mother rhetorically proclaimed, “Where were the doctors and training then?” They understood, for instance, that pharmaceutical labor induction modifies women’s physiological status differently than when “safer” Balochī herbs are administered to assist the birth process if needed. They reached this understanding from direct observations and from the accounts of childbirths and *dhīnabogiri* that were often re-narrated in social gatherings such as the *shashigan*. The “shashigan” is the sixth postpartum day public community gathering to celebrate the formation and well-being of the *zāg-o-mās* (child-mother)

dyad, during which stories are told about childbirths and about the skillful work of dhīnabogs, past and present.

However, as Street (2012: 53) noted following Stoler (2008), the “affective qualities of ‘imperial debris’” are not the same as the colonial nostalgia that can be brought about by colonial graveyards or by the abandoned remains of dead civilizations. The ethnography in Chapter 5 reveals that, unlike the nostalgic memory of the 80-year-old compounder (Raheem) and the 60-year-old biomedical Doctor G about the “well-functioning” British colonial medical system, Baloch women (like Zeenat) and the dhīnabogs had a different perspective on allopathy and on the “Ingrezī” (English) hospitals. Given their experiences with biomedicine, women such as Zeenat and dhīnabogs like Mah-jān and Murād-Bībī did not consider allopathy to be beneficial or see the hospital as the ideal location for births. Their views are consistent with recent social science research on women’s negative experiences of the increasing facility-based birthing in the Global South that I detail in Chapters 2 and 4. Contrary to Raheem’s and Dr. G’s sentimental appreciations of British allopathy and its “remnants” (Stoler 2008), Baloch women’s iatrogenic experiences with Ingrezī dhawā have only reinforced their perceptions of the value of their traditional Balochī medicines.

### Situating Dhīnabogiri vis-à-vis Anthropology and the Histories of Reproduction

Anthropological studies of reproduction and maternity, and historical studies of colonial medicine, have examined the embodied consequences of health-care policies and practices experienced by women and by their traditional or Indigenous midwives. Scholars have also noted how spaces of modern reproduction are increasingly manifesting not only as “zones of iatrogenesis” (see e.g. Towghi 2018: 675) but also as zones of “obstetric violence” and terror for childbearing women around the world (Sen et al. 2018; Castro and Savage 2019; Smith-Oka 2022).<sup>4</sup> This trend is echoed in the narratives of Baloch women and midwives in this book as well as confirmed in studies outlining the global escalation of unnecessary interventions during pregnancy, birth, and the early weeks of life, “risking iatrogenic harm to women and newborns” (Renfrew et al. 2014: 1129). Anthropologists have also cautioned against romanticizing TBAs (Jeffery et al. 1989; Rozario 1998). Baloch midwives in Panjgūr, however, criticized the misuses of injections in and around childbirth by *the lady* (referring to an LMO or LHV) in their private clinics along with mismanaged births by inexperienced “dāīs” who, they suggested, are not dhīnabogs, insofar as they qualified the role and its attendant expertise and practices, as is evident in the ethnographies in Chapters 3 and 5. The local narratives about the work of the dhīnabogs also pointed to the distinctions between “good” dhīnabogs, balluks, or kawwāsi dhīnabogs and an

elder woman who might occasionally assist with births. This differentiation is consistent with the status of various women who might have been involved in assisting childbirths in the premodern Middle East (discussed in Chapter 3). Baloch women's and men's narratives made it clear that it would be difficult, and against the grain of dhīnabogs' dignity and social ethics, for an unqualified "dāi" to claim herself as a dhīnabog merely by having attended the first ever and foreign-funded government TBA training program that had been initiated in Panjgūr only in 2004 (as discussed in Chapter 4). As such, then, there would be no guarantee that as a "trained TBA," she would be accepted as a dhīnabog or asked to assist women in childbirth, and even much less to provide postpartum care, as in the example of Rabia in Chapter 3. Baloch women and dhīnabogs' experiences present views that radically diverge from government and global health policy assumptions over the past three decades that have implicated the absence of hospital births and/or skilled birth attendants (SBAs)—referring to a doctor, nurse, lady health visitor (LHV/auxiliary nurse)—to be chiefly responsible for maternal mortality, leading then to the disparagement of home births and TBAs.

As the ethnography in Chapter 4 shows, Baloch women were clear about wanting to give birth at home assisted by a dhīnabog, but they were not against seeking biomedicine in cases of complications and to receive the antenatal tetanus toxoid vaccine. Antenatal visits were occasions for LMOs (lady medical officers/doctors) to pressure pregnant women to give birth in their private clinics with verbal and physical tactics of control, including premature labor inductions (Towghi 2018: 679–82). In this and other ways, Baloch women in Panjgūr are haunted by a "colonial governmentality" (Scott 1995) marked not only by postcolonial allopathic injunctions to avoid home births and the State-imagined "dāis," but also by the pervading structural inequalities, differentiated medical infrastructures, poor quality of care, and public-private asymmetries comprised of incomplete and ineffective public hospitals and the unaffordable private medical market (see Chapter 4). In Chapter 6, I engage with Scott's (1995) idea of colonial governmentality in the European colonies. Following Foucault (1979), Scott considered colonial governmentality to be undergirded by a modern political rationality distinctive from the political rationales underlying European governance in Europe. I connect this point to analyze the racialized biomedical rationales behind the justifications for the global advocacy of the universal use of misoprostol for postpartum hemorrhage (PPH) prevention in the Global South in home or community settings—meaning outside the hospital/clinic setting where one would expect a backup system to respond to an emergency caused by the biomedical intervention itself, whereas the advocacy of such a policy in North America and Europe would be considered highly risky. As Prakash (2000: 192) showed, as in Europe, governmentality in British India also developed in response to the outbreaks of epidemics and famines, representing an effort to act on