

A Study on the Impact of Industrial Displacement on People in Odisha

Sabyasachi Behera^{1,*}

Abstract

Distinct segments of society respond differently to displacement brought on by development, and it also has a different influence on people's lives. Development initiatives supporting health, education, and income might be seen as participatory if they do not leave most of their people in a poorer situation. However, the bulk of development projects work in the exact opposite way, leaving the majority of project-affected households to fend for themselves with shoddy rehabilitation programmes that are unsuitable, poorly implemented, and poorly planned. Due to rising land demand brought on by trade liberalisation and globalisation, displaced people have been evicted from their homes and forced to give up their possessions and means of subsistence, adding to their misery. The aim of this work is to study the impact of industrial displacement on the people of Odisha.

Keywords: Development, displacement, industrial, people, relocation

INTRODUCTION

Modern society often experiences upheaval and animosity as a result of development. For the sake of progress and prosperity, individuals often have to abandon their own homeland. That is right; you might describe it as a movement of necessity. Specifically, this phenomenon is linked to the development of infrastructure (such as airports, factories, cities, dams, mines, etc.).

Displacement is seen as inevitable when developing “greater good” enterprises and infrastructure, including dams, mines, highways, and power plants. There is no political neutrality when it comes to displacement. As a result of competing worldviews, this issue arises [1]. On the one hand, there is the value system of traditional cultures, where ties to the land and to one's community take precedence over monetary gain. On the other hand is the ideology of industrialization as development, which prioritises the needs of the market over short-term financial gain. Some people believe the state has always looked out for the best interests of big business. The modern state has been a tool of massive industrialization that has disconnected people from their own resources. Large-scale projects in Odisha, including factories, mines, dams, and even wildlife sanctuaries, are the main cause of population displacement there in off-shore economic zones and military bases. In our relentless pursuit of ever-greater quantities and rates of progress, we often fail to remember those who are left behind and made to bear the brunt

of our haste. Liberalization, privatisation, and globalisation policies have all contributed to the current wave of relocations. Globalisation is not a recent occurrence; it can be traced back to imperialism and the quest for greater markets and basic products by western nations. It has been noted that relocation is seldom a choice but rather an obligatory event.

Population displacement, whether voluntary or involuntary, has been an integral aspect of progress, just like it was during the era of powerfully

*Author for Correspondence

Sabyasachi Behera

E-mail: sabyasachibehera1980@gmail.com

¹Scholar, Department of Law, Sambalpur University Malipada, Fatak Budharaja Sambalpur, Odisha, India

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migrating races of civilization. Once again, the strong migrant races of civilization have inhabited the lush lowlands, forcing the weaker indigenous peoples to the mountains, where the soil is poorer and the climate is harsher. In the early days of human civilization, tribes were the primary victims of forcible relocation, and this phenomenon was seen all throughout the planet [2].

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Ramanathan (2011), the colonial Land Acquisition Act of 1894 legalised forced land acquisition in India [3]. The provision of “public interest” was included, along with the “emergency” clause that gave the state broad authority to seize property for its purpose [4]. The eminent domain concept of state authority, upon which these actions are based, gives state needs precedence over private ones, justifying this priority by using “the common good of the nation” as a reason to take private property for public use.

The theory of eminent domain grants the state the right to seize privately owned or publicly used property in exchange for fair compensation. Moreover, the individuals who were uprooted and deprived of their assets never had a say in how much they would be compensated. Instead, the government bureaucracy always made the call. Thus, in most instances, compensating efforts failed to alleviate the negative effects of displacement on host communities. Approximately, 40 million people have been forced to relocate due to dam building, according to estimates by N. C. Saxena (former secretary, Ministry of Rural Development [MoRD], Government of India) [5].

In some areas of India, residents have pushed back firmly against the ongoing land acquisition process for various infrastructure projects [6–9]. Large-scale dam opponents are concerned about the project’s potential negative effects on society, the economy, and the environment, as well as its purported advantages. While allowing for state intervention, the theory of eminent domain also pledges to cover these expenses via programmes of relocation and rehabilitation. Despite the state’s promises to relocate and rehabilitate displaced communities as part of a compensation policy, numerous studies on the Sardar Sarovar Dam project have found that this has not happened [10–13]. The building of big dams resulted in the greatest number of relocations, especially in Odisha [14].

Resettlement restricts the extent to which people and communities are physically relocated. However, the goal of rehabilitation is to lessen the blow of relocation. To clarify, what is the meaning of rehabilitation? Furthermore, how does it lessen the ill effects of relocation? Rehabilitation refers to providing services, such as financial compensation, that equip the displaced community to rebuild and thrive in its new home. It aims to reduce the time and effort needed to address relocation’s social and cultural costs by generating employment and housing options. Planning for development projects often starts with the assumption that relocation will occur. Included in this focus is preparation for rehabilitation, which is often seen as a lengthy process but, in the long run, will help to reduce the monetary and psychological toll of uprooting. In addition, the resettlement and rehabilitation policy’s compensating measures sometimes fell short of reaching everyone who needed them. Those more highly educated and socially or politically connected are paid more than their less privileged counterparts from groups like tribes, Dalits, and peasant communities. What this means for an individual’s capacity to deal with the immediate effects of relocation and how that person adapts to life in the new colony is not to be underestimated [15].

In today’s conversation on development, property rights continue to play a highly important role. North argues that inefficient property rights continue because influential constituencies would be offended if effective regulations were passed that went against their interests [16]. He believed that since these institutions provide difficulties for the elites, they are kept weak and ineffective. Involuntary dispossession has been pervasive in several industries, including industry, mining, dams, and agriculture, throughout the neo-liberal growth period. Megaprojects like the Sardar Sarovar Dam on the Narmada River are predicted to uproot up to 1 lakh people in India. The bulk of people who were

displaced have not been able to find new means of income thanks to the development projects due to their very nature [17].

Displacement thus has two effects. On the one hand, it causes land disputes, but on the other, it represents a fundamental change in state policy in favour of a market-oriented approach. Not only the immediately displaced but also the host communities are impacted by the displacement process.

Academicians are split into two major schools of thinking about displacement difficulties. The reformist-managerial viewpoint is represented by one school of thought, while the radical-movementist perspective is represented by another school. The “radical-movementist” camp is openly critical of the mainstream development paradigm and advocates for alternative development paradigms, in contrast to the “reformist-managerial” camp, which neither analyses nor challenges its underlying premises [18]. The first viewpoint talks about displacement as a natural byproduct of economic growth. It suggests that in order to start development efforts, some individuals must be relocated. On the “reformist” end of the spectrum, Cernea (2003) [19] and Ganguly-Scrase and Lahiri-Dutt (2016) [20] have been working on a model for proper resettlement of the displaced that takes into account the difficulties that individuals confront while trying to restart their economic lives. According to Ganguly-Scrase and Lahiri-Dutt (2016) [21], he sees displacement as a “pathology of induced development”, but he also acknowledges the need for projects that result in significant social benefits and the fact that these initiatives will always, in some cases, result in the displacement of people. The second strategy talks about the legalisation of forced relocation. Highlighting that large-scale development initiatives aim to bolster the state's authority and, in some cases, require it to exert its power over individuals and communities.

Impact of relocation on livelihood: An analysis of the private capital in Odisha, which is unable to speak for or defend the interests of the vast majority of the population. The displacement has intensified throughout the neo-liberal period. Instead of being a state-driven theft of land, it is now controlled by market forces. Displacement has changed direction throughout the age of market liberalisation.

There were many expectations among the underprivileged after India's independence from centuries of foreign control. Even the first Prime Minister of India, Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, urged the construction of a number of development institutions, such as dams and industrial projects, to boost the nation's economy. Since the country's independence, property has been purchased from individuals, particularly farmers, in order to grow towns and cities by converting agricultural land into non-agricultural land [22]. Since India's independence, growth has been centred on the building of dams, which has resulted in the displacement of about 44,182 people [23]. In terms of total displacement, this number reached up to 21,300,000 between 1951 and 1990.

The Durgapur Steel Plant in West Bengal is where the first known relocation in India after Independence occurred in the 1960s. Nearly 33,000 people are said to have been uprooted [24]. This first industrial displacement was followed by a displacement in Odisha brought on by the mining of Bolani iron ores. Up until 2000, the relocation of people in India due to dams had an impact on close to 40 million people. The displacement effort was in action during its early phase under the guise of public sector-oriented growth. As the liberalisation phase began to take hold, this search for displacement shifted into a private need for land. The post-independence development goal of India included nationalist and socialist economic principles, which had a negative impact on tribal people's quality of life [25]. At the beginning of the twentieth century, there was a rapid shift from country to urban life, which was characterised by social disarticulation and the marginalisation of several generations. When India gained its independence, displacement was only caused by indigenous economic growth, but it is now also caused by transnational economic development.

Loss of land, which serves as a crucial point of economic, social, and cultural reference, is the main cause of displacement [26]. The effects of displacement on people's livelihoods persist for a long time.

In order to provide for their fundamental needs, it destroys people's immediate sources of support and leaves them penniless. In comparison to pre-displacement income, the average per-capita income drops to less than 50% following displacement. From a variety of angles, the relocation has had an impact on how the general population lives. It is crucial that we understand how relocation affects livelihoods.

DISPLACEMENT

When people are displaced, they are uprooted from their long-term home, farmland, water supply, livestock, social and cultural networks, and way of life. The inhabitants are uprooted from their traditional habitats, complete with arable land, natural resources, water, animal resources, and a thriving social order.

When a community grows, it sometimes necessitates moving to new locations. Development is necessary since people's demands on society are always on the rise. In the past, growth rarely resulted in significant population shifts. Fewer individuals were uprooted than usual. There were a select few who were able to reintegrate into society after having their property taken away for the building of roads, schools, hospitals, canals, and other developmental works.

Huge irrigation and hydroelectric facilities, as well as industrial and mining complexes, are now under construction. As a result, the scale of movement has shifted. It is believed that megaprojects would force the relocation of hundreds of communities over enormous areas. There is no turning back for the uprooted population. Basically, everyone in town is affected. It forces out people of all educational levels, physical abilities, socioeconomic backgrounds, and states of health. It threatens the means by which people of all ages and socioeconomic backgrounds make a living. Researchers found that evacuees often end up economically and socially worse off as a result of their experience of relocation. Nothing, it is claimed, is more upsetting than being asked to transfer over to a profession that the family has never exercised before, and nothing is more traumatic than being uprooted from a location where it has lived for generations and moved to a place where it may be a total stranger. Around 7 lakh people have been relocated, another 15 lakh have lost their productive land without being physically moved, and over 10 lakh have been negatively impacted without losing either their house or land (indirectly affected) in Odisha, according to conservative estimates [27].

Displacement, ecological shifts, and environmental deterioration have followed every stage of development, from industrial to that of emerging nations. Displacement rife with hardship and deprivation has resulted from large-scale infrastructure projects like the construction of hydropower dams, irrigation systems, and drinking water systems; the extension of the highway network; and the building of hotels, resorts, airports, ports, transmission lines, towns, sewerage systems, subways, and intercity roads. All development projects need significant tracts of land, forcing people out of their homes who usually live in the country's outlying regions and are among its poorest and most disadvantaged citizens [28].

By definition, involuntary resettlement entails the displacement of individuals without their consent. In its broadest meaning, forced relocation encompasses the loss of all pre- and post-move community links, including linkages to natural resources [29].

As a rule, large-scale development projects that force people to relocate create significant social, economic, ecological, and environmental issues. The family unit crumbles, and the ties that had been held together by generations of history and blood are broken. When families are broken up, it weakens the social fabric of a community and lessens the likelihood that its members will be able to aid one another. A devastating blow is dealt to the people's morals, ethics, outlook, and traditions. In addition to altering the character of religious devotion, this destroys the family as a productive structure. Threats to sacred sites, ancestor cemeteries, foreboding mountains, trees, and gods all undermine people's sense of safety in their own lands. It is often connected with emotional strain, the end result of which is

physical illness, emotional loss, and sometimes even death. Cultural identity has had its foundations uprooted. Because of the new environment that individuals are forced to adapt to, their whole social and cultural life cycle is altered. Disrupted families, parents who abandon their children, money fights, increased alcohol and drug use, gambling, theft, envy, and other such behaviours are the most obvious fallout from relocation [30].

The economic costs to those who lose their land and homes are substantial; development often necessitates moving people to new areas where they may find their old skills and knowledge less relevant and where there is more competition for limited resources. This can cause disruptions to their production system and the loss of assets and income. Adjustment issues and a general sense of isolation can play a role. People who are unable to adapt to their new environments may relocate to other countries in search of economic opportunities. One typical complaint is that compensation funds were frittered away on things like drinking and gambling rather than meeting social, cultural, and religious commitments. Most people in rural areas equate farmland with their sense of food safety. However, cultivable land is not always readily accessible after relocation. The compensation sum is so pitifully little that it cannot even be used to purchase a comparable piece of land to replace the one lost. So, those who have been forcibly relocated often end up living a “hand-to-mouth” life due to the long-term difficulties, poverty, and environmental harm they experience [31].

Involuntary relocation may lead to feelings of jealousy, inferiority, imitation, shame, and dissatisfaction in a person’s psychological development. The unfortunate residents are uprooted from their long-held residence. Buildings, lighting, water, sewage, infrastructure, and a thriving marketplace are all under the project’s watchful eye. On the other side, those who have been uprooted from their homes are struggling to make ends meet due to a lack of basic services such as power, running water, adequate sanitation, and medical care, all of which contribute to a climate of anger and resentment against project personnel. The displaced develop an inferiority complex and a “reference group” as a result of being exposed to the bright lights of the township and the lavish lifestyles of the project’s leaders. To try to replicate it, they need a considerable quantity of money, and in their haste, they turn to debt and criminal activity like gambling, theft, and even robbery.

The health of those who are uprooted against their will suffers as a direct result. The outcome is a rise in the prevalence of infectious illnesses, dietary stress, and a generalised sense of impending doom. Although the physiological and psychological impacts of environmental change are obvious, cultural changes also have an impact on people’s health. Illness, mental illness, and accidents are often classified according to cultural norms in traditional countries. Many times, the doctor may recommend a mixture of spiritual rites and a home-brewed medical potion as part of the treatment plan. Displacement removes people from their native environment, cutting them off from their traditional sources of food, medicine, and spiritual inspiration. It is natural to worry that this will lead to a rise in disease and a dearth of effective treatment options.

The effects of relocation and rehabilitation on the affected population have not been given significant attention from the outset of any developmental project to the present. As a low-priority byproduct of large-scale infrastructure projects, it has typically been dealt with in a haphazard, ad hoc fashion. Negative effects on the displaced, the host community at relocation locations, the environment, and most crucially, the construction project itself, emerge from a lack of defined goals, consistent processes, and enough resources for tackling resettlement. The issues with rehabilitation may be traced back to insufficient institutional capacity, a lack of participatory methods, and the absence of systems to track the status of implementation.

Impact of Displacement

Economic, social, cultural, political, psychological, and environmental factors all contribute to the fallout of relocation. The economic consequences of development-induced migration have been seen.

Displaced individuals are struggling with issues including homelessness and a disorienting shift in their land ownership pattern. As a result, the primary grievance against compulsory land acquisition is the forcible taking of agricultural property without adequate compensation. The forced relocation carries with it a number of possible problems, including:

Deforestation and Destruction of Land

One of the most significant kinds of dispossession caused by rural relocation is the loss of land and the modification of land-holding patterns. If land is expropriated, people will lose access to the primary resource upon which their economies, means of production, and way of life are based. That is to say, when people in Odisha lose their farmland or homestead, they also lose the means by which they provide for themselves and their families. Loss of land leads to poverty if people do not find other ways to make a living or find jobs that provide a consistent income. The threat of homelessness is felt differently by many different sorts of individuals, social groupings, and communities. The majority of land purchased by the proper government or government agencies is farmland. Because of this, the people may lose their land and their only source of income as a result of the forced relocation.

Homelessness

For others, the loss of a safe place to live is just temporary; they may soon be able to relocate. However, this is not the case for everyone who has been impacted, and many people have been left homeless for an extended period of time. Being evicted from one's home is akin to being economically dispossessed for the same reasons as being homeless. Most displaced people will eventually be able to return to their homes, but the period during which they are homeless may be extremely lengthy and terrible.

Loss of Employment

Native people no longer provide the same level of service in business or elsewhere. However, the native people who would benefit from the construction of the sector may find new employment to compensate for the lost ones. It is true that fostering economic growth is a primary motivation for the implementation of special economic zones (SEZs) in India.

Abandonment of Common Lands

In addition to the land itself, lost are any common areas, such as wells or grazing grounds, that were part of the parcel being purchased. Food insecurity, moralization, children missing out on school, etc. are all hazards that come hand in hand with relocation.

Joblessness and Financial Ruin

As a result of losing their homes, businesses, and other means of support, displaced people often fall into a state of poverty. As a result of this marginalisation, people are losing their land, their jobs, and their homes. It is proof that people have slid backwards because of the destruction of their homes, farms, and other sources of income. It happens when households are unable to totally recover their financial standing. As a result of this transformation, middle-class farming families retain their land and become small landholders rather than losing it. Even if they do not lose their homes, families that were just surviving above the poverty line often relapse into poverty and never fully recover. Agricultural households may find their farms economically unsustainable if they lose some but not all of their land to development projects like highways or canals. Although they may be granted some land, high-productivity farmers on rich soil may nonetheless be in danger of economic insolvency.

Absence of Food Security

The disappearance of arable land, sources of income, and markets for foods other than lumber all contribute to rising food insecurity. Because of relocation, food production drops and harvests are often lost, particularly during the transition from the old to the new location. Rebuilding the ability to produce food at the new location might take a significant amount of time. Food production, food availability, and food consumption patterns are all impacted by these losses. Because of this, people are unable to

ensure their basic nutritional needs are met, leading to food insecurity. The pre-monsoon season is a time of year when food insecurity is at its worst because many people who are homeless have limited access to food, and it is also when they are most likely to be relocated. Children and women, in particular, may suffer from diminished nutrition as a result of displacement-related changes to the family's food habits.

Social Disorganisation

The process of relocation may cause social disarray due to the nature of the changes it ushers in. These factors cause substantial shifts in the social composition of groups as a whole and of tribal cultures in particular. It might cause problems in their home life. There is a risk that the established systems of social control may be eroded or possibly dismantled. Therefore, societal tensions may rise. Further, there are widespread repercussions when people's social support systems break down. Individuals in low-income communities typically turn to their social networks for support in the form of informal loans, bartering of food, clothes, and durables, and shared child care, agricultural, construction, and housekeeping duties. The loss of these multifunctional, almost invisible social networks due to relocation is a hidden but significant contributor to poverty as a result of relocation [32].

Loss of Self-confidence

Individuals and communities displaced by a development project can suffer a loss of pride when faced with progress and modernization. When a town loses its sense of pride and honour, it may suffer serious economic and social setbacks.

Culture and Religious Erosion

The uprooted are in danger of losing their cultural and religious traditions as a result of their relocation. Their basic identity is threatened as they lose their cultural independence. So, their religion, marital rituals, and even their language are under siege. The religious ethos that was once intrinsically tied to their natural setting and agricultural practises is slowly disintegrating. A great deal of significance has been lost in the community celebrations.

Loss of Political Structures

Dispossession in the political realm occurs via the process of political absorption into the so-called national polity. As a result, established political structures and processes become obsolete. People who have been uprooted are now citizens of the state and must assimilate into the political establishment.

Psychological Impact

Displacement and relocation are associated with unique cultural, economic, and technological challenges, according to the available literature. As research has shown, people who are uprooted often develop feelings of isolation, helplessness, and impotence. Individuals' initiative and ability for collective action are dampened, and social cohesiveness is impaired as a result of elevated levels of stress. Social isolation and mental illness are some possible outcomes of forced relocation.

Physical Condition Deterioration

The community's health, a sensitive measure of progress, suffers when people are uprooted. It has also been discovered that people who are relocated against their will are more likely to contract a disease and develop a serious illness. When projects do not include preventative epidemiological measures, relocation has negative consequences for health. Illnesses of poor hygiene, such as diarrhoea and dysentery, and epidemics of parasitic and vector-borne diseases, such as malaria and schistosomiasis, are only some of the direct and indirect repercussions of forcible dislocation in the absence of preventative health measures.

Effects of Displacement on People in Odisha

While it is wealthy in natural resources, the state of Odisha is otherwise quite impoverished. As a result, the state must industrialise in order to eliminate poverty and provide opportunities for unskilled

workers to find gainful employment. Industrialization in today's period of liberalisation, privatisation, and globalisation is largely focused on making use of the state's abundant natural resources. Many companies in the mineral processing industry are flocking to mineral-rich Odisha. Many people and things are harmed by these industries. There is not much potential for new jobs to be created. As a result, natural resources are depleted, and pollution levels rise. Industrialization, which includes mining operations, is widely regarded as a crucial growth strategy on a global scale. Under the watchful eye of the public sector, which rose to "commanding heights" after India's independence, the country began an industrialization programme. In a system known as a "mixed economy", the private sector was not far behind the government either.

Four decades have passed, and there has been a change in focus due to liberalisation, privatisation, and globalization. Despite the growing importance of the private sector and foreign investors relative to the governmental sector, the tactics remain the same. To directly implement the industrialization plan, it is up to the public and private sector giants of industry. Despite the shift, the state remains the enterprise's driving force and protector within a system of competitive politics and a democratic framework. It is clear that a new pattern is emerging in the development process over most of the nation, and it represents a significant risk to the ongoing industrialization. It causes massive destruction, the early shutdown of factories, and a great deal of social stress and political unrest, all of which contribute to political instability [33]. The state, eager to capitalise on the new economic changes, has begun the industrialization process, but the locals are fighting it and have a lot of worries about how it will affect them. Forces released during this procedure may provide insurmountable obstacles to industrialization, resulting in the eventual shutdown of certain facilities. The plan is scrutinised in depth, leaving the state in a difficult position. Nearly 70% of Odisha's labour force is directly or indirectly tied to the agricultural sector. With a total population of 9.78 million residents, the state's scheduled castes (SC) and scheduled tribes (ST) account for roughly 40% of the population, with the other backward castes (OBC) making up the remaining 20%. Mineral resources abound throughout the state. One third of the country's entire iron-ore resources are located there, totalling 5,428 million metric tonnes. The state is home to over one-fourth of the country's coal reserves, as well as 98–99 percent of the world's chromite and 63 percent of the world's bauxite. In addition, there is a big port at Paradip and two projected ports at Dhamra and Gopalpur, as well as 480 kilometres of coastline. The government has just begun a huge industrialization drive to spur economic growth. With a total expenditure of ₹ 1,60,000,000,000, the state government signed 43 MOUs with different corporate groups in 2005 to establish industrial units. There are still sections of the state inhabited by tribal and lower-class people; they have been pinpointed as industrially least developed, and residents there are advocating for the establishment of new businesses. According to some estimates, there are as many as 92 factories in the country making sponge iron, and they are all clustered in just six different neighbourhoods. Forty-three private enterprises have shown an interest in beginning steel mining and manufacturing. The MOU has been signed by at least eight of them, with further action on their part expected.

The construction of river dams, mining operations, and industrial projects are the primary causes of displacement in Odisha.

The government of India has funded many river dam projects due to the benefits of dams in preventing flooding, producing hydroelectric power, irrigating land, and facilitating the movement of goods and people. The contemporary industrial and urban civilization is characterised by building enormous multifunctional dams on great rivers to establish an infrastructure basis for fast economic expansion. Since the beginning of India's first five-year plan, the government has spent billions of rupees developing multifunctional dams to improve the country's agricultural economy and increase hydroelectricity [34].

Large and medium-sized industrial construction projects aim to reliably provide irrigation water for agricultural economic growth, hydroelectric power generation, and public water supply. Despite the

many benefits brought about by these projects, many people are forced to relocate, and the ecology suffers as a result of the loss of forest and farmland to rising waters.

Over 3.80 lakh people in Odisha have been forced to relocate due to the construction of 70 large and minor dams (Table 1) [35].

Table 1. Degree of displacement in Odisha from 1951.

Type of project	No. of villages displaced	No. of families displaced	Percentage (%) of displaced families	Land acquired (Hectares)	Percentage (%) of land acquired
Mines	79	3,143	3.87	2,427.03	0.39
Industries	113	10,704	13.19	21,963	3.52
Thermal power	73	2,426	2.99	3,155.31	0.51
Irrigation and hydel power (dam)	1,181	64,903	79.95	595,918.6	95.58
Total	1,446	81,176	100	623,463.9	100

Source: www.desorissa.nic.in

Mining not only separates indigenous people from their natural environment, but it also introduces them to a new way of life that is unfamiliar, complex, and competitive. They have a very hard time adapting to the radical shift. It upends their fundamental cultural beliefs and introduces them to the norms of a vast and alien world. However, while developing the rehabilitation and resettlement package, firms seldom take into account these seemingly intangible issues. They are prepared to pay a premium for a piece of land or building that meets their needs. This is why locals in India usually have strong feelings about mining ventures [36].

To make ends meet, some of them have uprooted and moved away from their families. Those who have remained in and around mining communities have fallen into abject poverty.

From 1950 to 2000, Odisha undertook many large-scale projects, including the Rourkela Steel Plant, NALCO (Angul), NALCO (Damanjodi), the Ordinance Plant (Saintala), and HAL (Sunabeda), which together displaced 13,049 people over 143 villages. 950 households have been uprooted due to the Kalinga Nagar industrial complex, which includes MESCO, Neelachal Steel, Jindal Stainless Steel, Rohit Ferro Alloys, Visha Steel, and Tata Steel. While fast economic expansion makes industrialization a necessity, this progress should not come at the expense of forcibly uprooting people from their homes and communities. The social and cultural identities of the uprooted are likewise shattered by such upheaval. These communities' socioeconomic statuses should be given top consideration from the earliest stages of project design.

Semi-voluntary, via the exploitative purchase of land by non-tribal entities, and willingly, through selling their own property, land acquisition by the state government has also contributed to the displacement of tribes.

People were relocated throughout the time of the emperors as well, when their projects required them to move communities.

When most countries in the developing world finally gained independence in the middle of the twentieth century, they had no choice but to try to usher in an industrial revolution by harnessing their rivers in order to irrigate crops and feed their rapidly expanding populations. This, of course, caused a lot of people to move as the countries built new roads, railroads, ports, power plants, industries, dams, and so on.

Influence of Displacement on People in Odisha

- i. The Land Acquisition Act is not precisely defined to ensure that human needs are met. It simply establishes that the landowners will get payment. However, they depended on public resources, including forests, rivers, common land, ponds, grazing fields, and quarries. There was no possibility of compensation or a substitute for such shared assets for a very long time after people were displaced.
- ii. The compensation for landowners was inadequate, incomplete, and often not given at all. The owners of the property will not be able to use these funds for redevelopment. Sixty percent of the land the NALCO facility in Damanjodi bought belonged to the tribe and included common property resources essential to the tribe's survival. They have compensated an average of ₹ 2700 per acre for the little private land they had, compared to ₹ 25,000 per acre in Angul for another NALCO facility.
- iii. There is an overall lack of patriotism. Families that had been uprooted once often found themselves uprooted again and again for new construction projects. These people are the ones who ultimately foot the bill for national development.
- iv. In the event of any mineral-based initiatives, it is the tribal people who would suffer the most from relocation, despite the fact that minerals are most readily accessible in tribal regions [37].
- v. When people are uprooted, they often find themselves in a position of poverty and isolation. As a result of being uprooted from their homes, many people face eight different forms of marginalisation, including but not limited to homelessness, joblessness, hunger, a lack of education, and so on. On the whole, projects tend to contract out expert labour to other parties. Those who have been uprooted are provided with low-paying, low-skill positions. There would have been plenty of opportunities for them to get into skilled professions if they had received the training they needed.
- vi. It is not always easy to correctly predict how much land will be needed for a project. The government reflexively accepts the request of the project authority without first determining the precise need for land. Therefore, more land is purchased than is necessary. However, even if there is less fertile and bare ground available in the vicinity, it is not uncommon for the project to be allocated fertile land.
- vii. The government makes decisions on projects and their locations without consulting the individuals who will be affected by them. Suddenly, people started getting their information from the media. We are talking about psychological harassment here.
- viii. Those who have been uprooted from their homes suffer from economic, cultural, social, political, and psychological deprivation. When forest-dwelling tribes are forced out of their homes, they lose access to the forest that provides their only means of subsistence.
- ix. Despite the fact that relocation causes joblessness and homelessness, it affects the sentiment and social attitude of women and children, causes children to stop attending school and become child labor, and causes men to reduce their joblessness by gossiping and drinking; these factors do not prevent people from being displaced. For example, mothers may have to resort to selling their bodies to support their families. The rates of spousal violence, hunger, and TB all rise as a result. This leads to a rise in morbidity and moral decay among the relocating population, as well as physical and mental disorders.
- x. After independence, when developmental initiatives were launched to improve people's standard of living, no one had a firm plan in place for relocating them. Specifically, the government directive in question governed the legality of land purchases. It was supposed to go towards compensating landowners for their losses. No one in charge of the project or in government seemed to care about the displaced people's feelings. Currently, there is a proliferation of social groups that advocate on behalf of the displaced before policymakers and project managers. As a result of these concerns, policies in this area are becoming increasingly focused on the well-being of the individuals affected by them. Although well-intentioned, the aspirations of policymakers are often frustrated by the irrationality and corruption of those charged with carrying out the policy in question [38].

- xi. Exposure to an increased risk of prostitution and child labour as a result of relocation. They are the ones who take the most damage. When the breadwinner of the household receives monetary compensation, he is free to spend it however he sees fit. The loss of access to forest-based income sources was devastating, but they were left with few other options. As a result, women are occasionally forced into prostitution, and children are often forced into working as child labourers to help provide for the family.
- xii. *Marital complications*: The groom's family demands a high rate at the time of marriage, assuming that the displaced families will have enough money to pay for dowry, but in reality, the compensation amount has been spent on drinking and fun by the head of the family.
- xiii. Because women no longer contribute financially to the household, they are often sexually harassed and objectified. That is why they are targets of sexual harassment.
- xiv. Blasting is a dangerous process that is necessary in the mining sector for mineral exploration. The homes in the resettlement colony all have holes in the walls from the blasting. As the men labour in the mines, the women and children live in constant terror of the explosions.
- xv. Damage to forests in the past has left women without access to wild herbs that formerly treated a variety of illnesses for free. But when they were uprooted, they did not have enough money to buy even the most basic over-the-counter medicines.
- xvi. *Decline in finances*: Prior to mass migration, women were commonplace in agricultural labour and animal caregiving roles within families, communities, and societies so that they could have a voice in family decisions without feeling intimidated. But now that her income has dropped and been disturbed, she has to rely on her husband and son for all of her financial needs, which has diminished her status in the family [39].

In the wake of population shifts and land grabs, widespread poverty has wreaked havoc on formerly harmonious family relationships, leading to increased hostility and friction.

DISCUSSION

Ramanathan (2011) asserts that the Land purchase Act of 1894 during the colonial era in India served to legalize the practice of compulsory land purchase [40]. The inclusion of the "public interest" provision, alongside the "emergency" clause granting the state extensive powers to appropriate property, has been documented [41]. The utilization of eminent domain, a principle of governmental authority, serves as the foundation for these activities. It grants priority to the requirements of the state above private interests, rationalizing this preference by invoking the notion of "the common good of the nation" as a justification for appropriating private land for public use.

The concept of eminent domain confers upon the government the authority to appropriate privately held or publicly utilized property, provided that just compensation is provided in return. Furthermore, the individuals who were displaced and had their possessions taken away did not have any input or control over the amount of compensation they would get. However, the decision was consistently taken by the government bureaucracy. Therefore, it can be observed that in the majority of cases, attempts to provide compensation were ineffective in mitigating the adverse impacts of displacement on the communities hosting the displaced individuals. According to Negi and Ganguly (2011), figures provided by NC Saxena, a former secretary of the Ministry of Rural Development (MoRD) in the Government of India, suggest that almost 40 million individuals have been compelled to undergo relocation as a consequence of dam construction [42].

Residents in certain regions of India have demonstrated strong resistance towards the ongoing process of land acquisition for diverse infrastructure projects [43–46]. Critics of the large-scale dam project express apprehension regarding its potential adverse impacts on various aspects of society, the economy, and the environment, alongside the stated benefits it claims to offer. While accommodating governmental action, the idea of eminent domain also commits to addressing these costs through relocation and rehabilitation programs. Contrary to the assurances made by the state regarding the relocation and rehabilitation of displaced communities as a component of a compensation policy,

multiple scholarly investigations focusing on the Sardar Sarovar Dam project have revealed that the implementation of such measures has been lacking [47–50]. The construction of large dams has led to a significant number of displacements, particularly in the state of Odisha [51].

The process of resettlement imposes limitations on the degree to which individuals and communities are physically displaced. Nevertheless, the primary objective of rehabilitation is to mitigate the adverse effects of relocation. Rehabilitation includes the provision of various services, including financial compensation, aimed at equipping the displaced community with the necessary resources to rebuild and flourish within their new environment. The primary objective of this initiative is to minimize the temporal and physical exertion required to mitigate the social and cultural ramifications associated with moving. This will be achieved through the creation of employment opportunities and the provision of housing alternatives. Moreover, it is worth noting that the compensatory measures associated with the resettlement and rehabilitation strategy occasionally failed to adequately reach all individuals in need of assistance. Individuals with higher levels of education and stronger social or political affiliations tend to receive more remuneration compared to individuals from marginalized groups such as tribes, Dalits, and peasant communities. The significance of this phenomenon on an individual's ability to cope with the immediate consequences of relocation and their subsequent adjustment to life in the new settlement should not be undervalued [52].

The significance of property rights remains prominent in contemporary discussions surrounding development. According to North, the persistence of inefficient property rights might be attributed to the reluctance of prominent constituents to support the implementation of appropriate restrictions that may contradict their own interests. According to Rudi et al. (2014) [53], it is argued that these institutions pose challenges to the elites, resulting in their deliberate maintenance in a weakened and inefficient state. Involuntary dispossession has been widely observed across several sectors, such as industry, mining, dams, and agriculture, throughout the era of neo-liberal economic expansion. It is anticipated that megaprojects such as the Sardar Sarovar Dam, situated on the Narmada River in India, have the potential to displace a substantial number of individuals, estimated to be up to 1 lakh. A significant portion of individuals who have experienced displacement have had challenges in securing alternative sources of income as a result of the inherent characteristics of development projects [54]. Since achieving independence, India has experienced significant expansion with a particular focus on the construction of dams. This development strategy, however, has had the unintended consequence of displacing around 44,182 individuals [55]. The entire displacement figure throughout the period from 1951 to 1990 amounts to 21,300,000. The Durgapur Steel Plant, situated in the state of West Bengal, is historically significant since it marks the earliest recorded instance of migration in India following its independence in the 1960s. According to Liya (2018), [56] an estimated 33,000 individuals were reportedly displaced. The initial industrial displacement was then succeeded by a displacement in the state of Odisha, resulting from the mining activities pertaining to Bolani Iron Ores. The displacement of around 40 million individuals in India as a result of dam construction had significant repercussions until the year 2000. The implementation of the displacement attempt was observed during its initial stage under the pretence of expansion focused on the public sector.

Scholars are divided into two primary schools of thought regarding challenges related to displacement. The reformist-managerial approach is advocated by one school of thought, whereas the radical-movementist perspective is advocated by another school. The side referred to as “radical-movementist” expresses overt criticism against the prevailing development paradigm and actively promotes alternative paradigms of development. In contrast, the “reformist-managerial” camp neither engages in analysis nor questions the fundamental assumptions of the mainstream development paradigm [57]. The initial perspective discusses displacement as an inherent consequence of economic expansion. It is suggested that in order to initiate development endeavors, it may be necessary to relocate some persons. Within the realm of reformist perspectives, scholars such as Cernea (2003) [58] and Ganguly-Scrase and Lahiri-Dutt (2016) [59] have devoted their efforts to developing a comprehensive

framework for the effective resettlement of displaced populations. This model acknowledges the various challenges faced by individuals as they endeavor to rebuild their economic livelihoods. Ganguly-Scrase and Lahiri-Dutt (2016) [60] posit that displacement can be understood as a “pathology of induced development”. However, they also acknowledge the necessity of projects that yield substantial social advantages, even if they inevitably entail the displacement of individuals in certain instances. The second tactic pertains to the proposition of legalizing coerced displacement.

The primary factor leading to relocation is the loss of land, which holds significant importance as a fundamental aspect of economic, social, and cultural frameworks [61]. The enduring impact of displacement on individuals’ means of subsistence is a notable phenomenon. By disrupting individuals’ immediate sources of support and depleting their financial resources, it undermines their ability to meet their basic requirements. When comparing the income levels before and after displacement, it is shown that the average per-capita income experiences a decrease of more than 50%. The migration has had a significant impact on the overall lifestyle of the general population, as observed from various perspectives. Understanding the impact of relocation on livelihood is of utmost importance.

CONCLUSION

The future of the Odisha state’s industrialization depends on a thorough investigation of the local people’s opposition activities against specific industrial units. Although it is not unusual for those who have been negatively impacted by industrialization to voice their displeasure in the state, the current movements are unique in that they have forged an unprecedented unity among the tribal and backward masses against the industrial establishments and against the state government. There has been a stalemate in the fight. It now seems like we have gone too far with this answer.

Discontent with relocation is widespread, and for good reason. The solution is to improve the methods of migration and local incorporation.

- i. Even though Odisha’s proposed relocation and rehabilitation plan is better than the national strategy, it does not help the affected people as much as it should.
- ii. While the households that have been uprooted do get some financial compensation, the subject of socially relevant rehabilitation is sidestepped in the name of modernization.
- iii. The gap between the affluent and the poor is growing as a result of the displacement process brought on by development.
- iv. Those who are already at a disadvantage as a result of relocation and the lack of advantages from development initiatives will remain so under the current pattern of growth.
- v. While the rehabilitation strategy claims to help displaced people, in practise, it leads to poverty, homelessness, unemployment, hunger, the loss of community resources, and higher rates of illness and death.

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