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INTRODUCTION
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Every year, dams, highways, ports, urban improvements, mines, pipelines and petrochemical plants, industrial and other such development projects globally displace about 10 million people. In India alone involuntary resettlement is estimated to have affected about 50 million people in the last five decades. The sheer magnitude of the numbers involved is mind-boggling. Experiences show that most people who are forced to relocate often end up worse off than before. Three-fourths of those displaced in India over five decades still face an uncertain future.

The history of resettlement is not a happy one. Experience, however, suggests that problems arising from resettlement are not insurmountable. The examples of successful resettlement are not unknown. The fact is that much can be done to put project-affected people back on track and soften the impact of displacement. This however, is possible if those responsible for managing resettlement handle the operations in a humane way, with full understanding of the issues involved.

The Upper Krishna Project is the biggest resettlement project in India and one of the biggest in the world. The two dams, constructed across the river Krishna near Narayanpur and Alamatti, have submerged 201 villages and a town Bagalkot. About 400,000 people have displaced and about 80,000 families have dislocated. Such large displacement has taken place for multi-purpose irrigation and generates power. Dam and resettlement is inevitable process of the development model of the ‘Nation’. Involuntary resettlement of people creates, socio-economic, psycho-cultural and health related problems.
The problem

What happens to people at involuntary resettlement?

To identify the magnitude of the resettlement, the present study would be looked into the problems aroused due to displacement and resettlement of Upper Krishna Project. The study would be focused on socio-economic implications, psycho-cultural implications, settlement implications, health implications and resettlement and rehabilitation implications. To search all the implications of displacement and resettlement of people, there should be some objectives.

Objectives of Present Study

The main objective of the study is to make a systematic analysis with anthropological interpretation of resettlement implications; some of objectives are given below as follows:

- To study the socio-economic background of resettled people.
- To highlight the problems of resettled people.
- To examine settlement pattern is a reflection of social structure.
- To evaluate economic conditions of resettled people.
- To analyze the resettlement and rehabilitation policy of Upper Krishna Project.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Review of literature makes researcher to understand the area of study and it will provide details about some of concepts, models and theories, which guides researcher to locate his problem in the research, that matter some of studies have considered and examined and finally identified their adequacies. These are the guiding factors to carryout research. Thus, Enakshi Ganguly Thukral analyzed the effects of development-induced displacement especially in the area of river valley projects. The topic of her book Big Dams Displaced People: Rivers of Sorrow, Rivers of Change itself depicts a clear picture of her observation. It can be verified in the light of her statement: “Silent Valley, Tehri, Ichampalli,
Suvernarekha, Koel-Karo, Bodhghat, Polavaram - these harbingers of progress began to be viewed as temples of doom spelling disaster for man and nature. The rivers destined to bring change became the rivers of sorrow. People were no longer willing to pay the price of progress. They began to ask: Who pays the price? Who benefits?"1

Thukral has further given a brief exposure of how the social structure of those displaced, got dismantled. She writes: "Any involuntary dislocation, be it due to natural cause, political unrest or developmental projects, is bound to be painful. But while in the case of displacement due to natural calamities and political unrest, there is a possibility of being able to return to the original place of domicile and to restore, to some extent, one's original way of life. In the case of project related displacement, this possibility does not exist. Persons who are uprooted and rehabilitated in another place have to undergo the entire process of re-socialization and adjustment in an unfamiliar environment. Traditional social relations and community networks break down leading to physical and psychological stress. It also leads to economic disruption, often resulting in impoverishment and insecurity. Inadequate and unplanned resettlement, with little or no share in the benefits from the projects further increases the misery of those affected. A hostile host population in the new area only serves to aggravate the trauma. Fall out in the form of alcoholism, gambling, prostitution, and even increased morbidity, is not unknown."2

Michael Cernea³ by going beyond economic factors, attempted to study social, psychological, cultural and health parameters. He identified eight areas of impoverishment risks after studying displacement cases all over the world. These impoverishment risks are:

Landless: Expropriation of land removes the main foundation upon which people's productive systems; commercial activities and livelihood are constructed. This
is the principal form of de-capitalization and pauperization of the displaced people, as they lose both physical and man-made capital.

Joblessness: Loss of wage employment occurs both in urban displacement and in rural areas, and those loosing jobs are landless laborers, enterprise or service workers, artisans and small businessmen. But creating new jobs is difficult and requires substantial investments. Resulting unemployment or underemployment among resettles lingers long after physical relocation.

Homelessness: Loss of housing and shelter may be only temporary for many displaces, but for some homelessness remains a chronic condition. In a broader cultural sense, homelessness is also placelessness, loss of a group cultural space and identity or cultural impoverishment.

Marginalization: It occurs when families lose economic power and slide on a downward mobility path; middle-income farm households do not become landless, but become small landholders; small shopkeepers and craftsmen are downsized and slip below poverty thresholds. Relative marginalization may often begin long before the actual displacement; for instance, when land are condemned for future flooding and are implicitly devalued, new public and private infrastructure investments are prohibited, and the expansion of social services is undercut.

Increased Morbidity and Mortality: Serious decrease in health levels result from displacement caused social stress, insecurity, and psychological traumas, and outbreak of relocation related diseases. Unsafe water supply and poor sewerage systems heighten vulnerability to epidemics. The weakest of the demographic segment - infants, children and the elderly - are affected the most.

Food Insecurity: Forced uprooting increases the risk that people will fall into chronic undernourishment and food insecurity, defined as calorie-protein intake levels below the minimum necessity for normal growth and work.
Loss of Access to Common Property: Loss of access to common property assets belonging to communities that are relocated represents a major form of income and livelihood deterioration. Typically such lost resources remain uncompensated by the government relocation schemes.

Social Disintegration: It tears apart the social fabric and the existing patterns of social organization. Production systems are dismantled, kinship group and family systems are often scattered, local labour markets are disrupted, and people's cultural identity is put at risk. Life sustaining informal social network of mutual help among people, local voluntary associations, self-organized service arrangements etc. are dispersed and rendered inactive. This unraveling represents a massive loss of social capital incurred by the uprooted people, yet a loss that remains unquantified and uncompensated. Such elusive disintegration process undermines livelihoods in ways unaccounted for by planners.

An overview of the eight areas of impoverishment clearly indicates that Cernea has put up brain storming efforts to analyze the problem. However, except for social disintegration, the remaining seven areas that he mentioned can be placed in the formal or informal economic sphere.

Studies by anthropologists have shown that some problems are peculiar to projects that necessitate resettlement, say: Hari Mohan Mathur. In his words: "Involuntary resettlement leads to increased stress, both psychological and socio-cultural and also heightens morbidity mortality. Hazards to health are a common experience for those being resettled and of those with whom they come in contact in the process of resettlement. People who move take pathologies with them and the people among whom they settle are exposed to them and vice versa. One unfortunate outcome is the feeling of alienation, helplessness and powerlessness that overtakes the displaced. This stems from the way in which
the people are uprooted from homes and occupations and brought to question their own values and behaviour, and the authority of their leaders. Such feelings persists for a long time".4

Highlighting the effect of resettlement on the socio-cultural lives of the women Thukral says: "Dislocation and relocation in another area, unless very carefully executed, means a breakdown in community network. Since the dependence of women on men is greater, breakdown of this network creates tremendous insecurity and trauma, which the women experience more than the men who are relatively more mobile. Even collection of fodder and fuel or water is often not a purely economic activity. It is an opportunity to socialize and exchange confidences and news. In other words, they have a social relevance. If these activities stop, the social life is also altered. We found that in the villages along the Narmada, one of the worries voiced by the women was regarding the marriage of their daughters. Some were worried that they will never see them once they move to a new area. Others said they were finding it hard to get their children married because 'the other party does not know where we will be.' Some even find people reluctant to social and community networks, is the increase in social evils like alcoholism, prostitution and gambling as a fall out of displacement. This increase in social problem is bound to bear directly on the lives and the status of the women and on the violence inflicted on them. Loss of self-esteem or fall in status of the men, especially in their own eyes, is often manifested in increased violence against women and children.5

Thukral by highlighting the health aspects of the females of the resettlement areas says that, "even under normal conditions the mortality rate among females is higher than that among men. Given this fact, there is all likelihood that if there is an increase in morbidity induced by displacement, the first to be hit will be the displaced women. Similarly the nutritional and health status of the women, which
is lower than the males even under normal circumstances, is bound to proportionately go down in the even of an overall decrease in the health status induced by displacement. In some of the resettled villages of the SSP (Sardar Sarovar Project) the per capital intake of calories has shown a fairly significant drop. This is due to the low yields and poor employment opportunities in the resettlement area."

Thukral also raised the problems of women in her paper. She says: "The women are responsible for collecting food, fuel, fodder and water in most of rural India. It is an arduous task even in normal circumstances, given the present condition of deforestation and environmental degradation. They were particularly anxious about how these needs would be met after displacement. Experiences show that their fears are not ill founded. In Singrauli, the women complained that life prior to displacement was hard, but there was water available from the river and fuel and fodder could be got from the forest. Now, the dam had monopolized the water, which in any case was too polluted to be used, and mining operations had taken over the forest. Even the wells had been polluted by coal and cement dust and gravel. Since no alternative sanitation facilities had been provided, their lives were made all the more complex."

Thukral mentions the gender insensitivity in case of Land Acquisition Act of India. She writes: "Land Acquisition Act 1948, the main law of acquisition reveals a gender bias which seems to reinforce the existing situation of women’s lack of ownership of land and property. Similar lack of gender sensitivity is present in almost all the policies and plans that govern rehabilitation and resettlement."

Comparing the plight of resettlement between tribal and the general people, L.K. Mahapatra says: "As to why the tribal displaces may be more impoverishment prone, facing more acute, often more long-standing impact of displacement than
the non-tribal population, has been bought out forcefully and clearly by the Working Group on Development of Scheduled Tribes during the Seventh Five-Year Plan. The most important difference relates to the cultural aspects of life. While the kinship of the general population is spread far and wide, this is not true of the tribal groups whose habitation may be confined only to certain specific areas. Any unsettlement in the case of the latter, therefore, deals a far more crushing blow to their socio-cultural life than in case of the former. Secondly, on account of low educational level and a tradition of a life of comparative exclusiveness and isolation, the Scheduled Tribes find adjustment more difficult in an alien location. The third important reason is that the tribal depend for their living including trade, profession and calling on roots and fruits, minor forest produce, forest raw material, games and birds and the natural surrounding, far more than the general population. Finally, the Scheduled Tribe being economically the weakest of all communities finds it harder than others to settle on new avocations on a different site of settlement. The tribesman does not get any compensation for the land resources he was most often not recognized as the lawful owner in his individual capacity. Besides, being unfamiliar with the money economy and with handling whatever money he gets as compensation, invariably and literally money slips through his fingers in no time. This is not the fate of the general population under displacement."

Mahapatra, by advocating the rights of the tribal oustees further says: "The Constitution of India provides for special protection from exploitation and social justice, and promotion of educational and economic interests of the weaker sections, and in particular, of the Scheduled Tribe and the Scheduled Castes. Through reservation of educational opportunities, political representation and jobs, it has been sought to secure them compensatory privileges and opportunities for development leg of decades, if not of centuries. Hence, on the same analogy,
the tribal oustees deserve compensatory development inputs, opportunities and avenues before and after displacement. What is sometime known as 'positive discrimination' or 'affirmative action' will not only help raise the tribal oustees from impoverishment of all type, but also will enable them to sustain themselves above impoverishment risks in future. What is, however, to be noted that the project-caused impoverishment should be ameliorated and countered with project-added compensatory development irrespective of, and in addition to, the compensatory privileges and opportunities due to the tribal oustees, qua tribal, scheduled tribe."

"All the efforts to gauge and mitigate the problem of involuntary resettlement became null and void in the absence of a concrete record of the number of the persons affected and their whereabouts." Fernandes says: "Some scholars thought that it was not possible to evolve a new people oriented policy without first knowing ground reality. When, therefore, they made an effort to assess the situation of displacement and rehabilitation in their own states, they realized that till now the country lacks the data base on displacement and rehabilitation."

Emphasizing on the importance of policy planning David Marsden says: "Baseline surveys are important for a number of reasons. They should provide an accurate record of who the project affected person are, how they gain their livelihoods, but they also create the boundaries of entitlement by delineating all those who are eligible for benefits, and by definition, excluding all others. In the Indian context where illegal and/or unauthorized encroachment is a major issue, such boundaries of entitlement allow the cost of resettlement and rehabilitation action plan to be more accurately gauged. Prior to 1990, there were very few socio-economic base-line surveys undertaken. Concerned departments had little clear idea of the numbers of people involved; it was assumed that they would be dealt with in an adhoc way as and when necessary. There was little specialist
expertise in R & R; engineers working out of personnel and/or public relations/external affairs unit deal with the problems. The problems associated with unclear boundaries in earlier projects are now surfacing, as entitlement claims from individuals (both legitimate and illegitimate) are lodged."

Thukral adds: "Arriving at an estimate of the magnitude of the problem is even more difficult in the absence of adequate data. The various estimates available seem to be based largely on surmises and conjecture. Fernandes, Das and Rao have estimated the number of persons displaced in the last four decade at 18 million. Mankodi states that although no reliable statistics are available, the number of displaced could be anywhere between 2 and more than 20 million. Another estimate puts the number of persons affected directly or indirectly by irrigation projects alone over the past 40 years at 20 million, of whom only 25% have been rehabilitated. However, these estimates exclude a very large section of the affected population: those who are not directly affected due to the acquisition of their lands, but indirectly, due to the changes in the land-use pattern, as a consequence of the project. These persons too are often forced to leave the area after having lost their source of livelihood or their access to the biomass resources on which they depended. Thus, they too are thereby displaced. Whether the project is major, or small, the attitude of the authorities towards the affected is the same - apathetic and negligent. Since very little effort is made to involve the oustees, they remain ignorant and uninformed about the project and their future. The land surveys are incomplete and more often than not inaccurate, as the estimates of the numbers affected.""

The problem becomes more chronic in the light of the fact that there is total communication gap between the project authorities and the project affected persons. Enakshi Ganguly Thukral and Mridula Singh assert: "The attitude of the authorities towards the oustees is apathetic, to say the least. Our finding
clearly indicates that the level of information among the potential oustees about the dam, the submergence and rehabilitation was low. The authorities had made little effort to communicate the rehabilitation provisions to the people. The situation improved slightly after the movement against the dam under the banner of Narmada Bachao Andolan gained momentum. Until 1989, the situation had not changed much. None of the government officials visited villages to explain anything. The oustees were not aware of the policy as a whole.14

Highlighting on the lacunae of policy planning in India, Cemea says: "Worst consequence of displacement - impoverishment and violation of basic human rights - happen most frequently when national resettlement policy guidelines are absent, when, consequently, equitable action strategies for socio-economic re-establishment are not pursued, and there is no independent professional monitoring and evaluation of outcomes. Indeed, the planning approach that had produced programs resulting in many people resettled but only in few 'rehabilitated' has not proven it wise enough and effective enough to prevent impoverishment. The key to sound resettlement is to adopt a people-centered development policy, not a property - compensation policy."15

Mahapatra focuses the problem of compensation entitlement by narrating the case of Sardar Sarovar Dam. He says: "At Sardar Sarovar one comes across a peculiar phenomenon of some houses or lands so located that when the reservoir is full, one cannot reach them without passage through the reservoir. The situation may be exceptional, as the people are not literally displaced: but they deserve no less consideration."16

Narrating the lacunae of land compensation, Thukral opines: "The Nagarjuna Sagar oustees told us that they have been promised Land for Land, along with irrigation facilities and house plots. However, as per the rules, they receive only five acres of dry land. This was not in the command area that they
were not entitled to irrigation facilities from the project that took away their land. The Hirakud oustees found that their rehabilitation sites were a distance away, badly connected and totally unprepared for resettlement. It is estimated that no more than 11% of the oustees decided to settle in these camps. The others preferred to find their own alternatives.\textsuperscript{17}

By emphasizing on compensation package, Michael M. Cernea says: “Sometimes borrowing agencies propose cash compensation only, in lieu of resettlement facilities. Experience with the resettlement of large population tends to show that the payment of cash compensation alone is often a very inadequate strategy for dealing with the displaced. In some instances; the entire compensation has been used for immediate consumption purpose, leaving the displaced with nothing to replace their lost income-generating assets and opportunities.”\textsuperscript{18}

Savitri Ramaiah has also out with a similar kind of observation in her study of several projects of India. She writes: “Physical reproducible assets such as quality of housing and household assets were largely dependent upon the income levels of the household. A large number of PAPs had utilized parts of their compensation to construct better quality of houses and buy household assets such as transistor, radio, tape recorder, etc. soon after resettlement. However, the ‘economic prosperity’ experienced by the PAPs immediately after resettlement could not be sustained, and therefore the ‘standard of living’ adopted by most PAPs soon after receiving compensation had declined. For example, several households were unable to afford basic maintenance of the house and repairs of electronic goods after a few years of resettlement because of inadequate finances.”\textsuperscript{19}

Mahapatra has observed on this aspect of loss of compensation money. He says: “It is usually seen that the tribal people are not always in a position to handle money in the way those well-versed with market economy do. They are
supposed to be overwhelmed with the amount of cash when compensation money comes to their hand, and are apt to indulge in conspicuous consumption and in alcohol. They are usually amenable to sharing the money with close relatives, as is the tradition in tribal society. But one thing is certainly to overtake them in the days of trauma and stress. Along with all the set ways of living, working and caring, the whole essential world is threatened along with displacement.20

Hari Mohan Mathur in a recent study of projects in Rajasthan that involve resettlement attempted to find out whether the characteristics of eight risks that make up for Cernea’s impoverishment model were all present there, too. He observed that in addition to the eight-fold model envisaged by Cernea, there exists one more in the form of ‘loss of access to basic public services’. He writes: “In addition to eight recurrent characteristics that contribute to the process of impoverishment, the study found one more equally important characteristic. This could be termed as ‘loss of access to basic public services’. It is only when the affected people move to resettlement colonies that they become aware of this loss. Even in the most isolated villages, a wide range of basic public services now exists: schools, clinics, street lights, public taps for drinking water, village-to-city transport bus service and so on. On arrival in resettlement colonies, the people discovered to their dismay that the basic services promised them before the move just do not exist. Eventually they may get those services, but when that eventually happens nobody knows. Often, it takes years before anything happens, if at all. Many services remain beyond their reach, almost forever. The new colonies have school and dispensaries buildings, but usually there are no teachers and doctors. The buildings constructed as long ago as ten years are skill lying idle in many places. This loss of basic public services, are colossal one to the poor, thus contributes further to their continuing impoverishment.”21

Agrawal highlights the transformation of the old feudalistic order of society into a new one. He adds: “The traditional feudalistic society got converted into a
new-feudalistic society on the economic basis. As a result, when the project comes, the creamy layer of the rich educated and well-informed persons, exploit the situation and manage to reap benefits. The rich and the educated landlords (belonging to higher castes groups) divided the land and recorded under the name of as many persons as possible, to become eligible for R & R benefits. In second instance, the rich and educated persons from the neighbouring villages and other talukas descended on the proposed project impact areas to buy land. Two types of rumours they spread, first if the government acquires land, it will pay less than the private market price and second, the government will not pay the compensation in time. These two rumours affected the socially and economically vulnerable who then wanted to dispose off their land. The outsiders had easy time in buying land and registered under many names. Therefore, land records alone are not adequate to identify PAPs.”

Highlighting the lacunae of Land Acquisition Act of India, Fernandes says: “Land oustees do not own individual land but depend on Common Property Resources (CPRs) for their survival. The legal system, on the contrary, recognizes only individual property. The Land Acquisition Act, 1894 makes provision only for landowners. Its criteria for compensation are market value. These criteria are irrelevant to communities depending on CPRs and other whose livelihood depends on services rendered to the village as a community. The assumption behind the present criteria that respect only individual patta is that land is only a site for agriculture and building. It is forgotten that it is the livelihood not merely of the owner but of a large number of others who depend on it, without necessarily owning it. As such it supports the owner, his servants, the village artisans, the merchants who buy the produce and a host of others. When the cycle of agriculture is disturbed, all these activities are disrupted and the livelihood of all the landless endangered. The Land Acquisition Act does not provide for such people. The same is the case with the forest and other CPRs. Forest is viewed
in today's economy almost exclusively as a raw material for consumer goods that the middle class needs, a source of profit for the industrialists and revenue for the state. The same can be said about water sources and other CPRs. It is forgotten that there are at least five interest groups with a stake in these resources. The first of them is conservationists to whom the environment is 'beautiful trees and tigers'. The second is the industrialist to whom the natural resources are a source of profit. The third is the administrator, for example the forest officer, to whom nature is essentially land to control and the fourth is the middle class to whom the CPRs are their very livelihood. A study of the Land Acquisition Act and the rest of the existing legislation show that the present legal system favours the State and the industrialists, and ignores the livelihood of the people who depend on the CPRs. Hence, the DPs of these regions are unable to begin a new life from the little compensation they get for it.”23

Debashish Mukherji adds to this: “The Land Acquisition Act, 1894 is the single piece of legislation that governs the takeover of land for projects. Activities opined that this law remains heavily biased in favour of the state, allowing it to acquire land anywhere and every where, ‘in the public interest,’ providing only cash compensation. The compensation in each area is decided according to the market rate at which land is being registered. But all land deals involve both ‘white and black’ money. The compensation amounts to just the white money! It is impossible to purchase alternative land elsewhere with the meager sum they get. With Nehru's emphasis on factories and dams, those who question the need to acquire land, or the extent of compensation given, were made to feel that they were traitors. The attitude of policy makers is that since the project is in the interest of the nation, those affected should be willing to sacrifice. Since the law provides for only cash compensation, the project affected people should be grateful for whatever they are given in additional!”24
Mahapatra has given some useful tips for land compensation by citing the experiences of Orissa. He says: "Hence, if market value of land is ought to be determined on basis of the actual sale deed in the locality within three years prior to the notification for acquisition of land for the project, land will be grossly undervalued. There was another basis, which was sounder. The Government of Orissa evolved the principal of determination of price of land where sale statistics are not available. The net annual profit the peasant derives from the land is taken as the 'letting value'. As per the decision of the High Court of Orissa in the case of the State of Orissa versus Bharat Charan Nayak, it was considered 'safe' to pay 16 to 20 years net annual produce, and it should not, in any case, be less than 16 times. The net annual produce is arrived at by deducting 50% of gross income towards the cost of cultivation. This is a more dependable and less objectionable mode of arriving at the market price, which may be the basis for compensation.25

Thukral writes: "Given the growing needs of our society, it is true that not all projects can be brought to a halt. But it has become imperative to put much more thought into the planning process so that displacement is kept to the absolute minimum and, if possible, avoided. Special efforts have thus to be made to prepare the prospective oustees. Their involvement from the outset in the planning of their resettlement, providing them with more information about the dam, showing them the site etc., are all-important ways of preparing them for the nature of change. Appropriate resettlement, apart from preparing them psychologically for the displacement, would ensure that they play a part in their own destiny. Along with preparing the oustees for displacement, an equal effort needs to be made to prepare the host population so as to protect the oustees from the hostility they usually face in their new environs. It is important that the host population not views the new entrants as a threat but be willing, instead, to share the available resources with them. Many displaced people have had a
bitter experience with their hosts. In case of Pong dam oustees resettled in Rajasthan, for instance, were harassed, beaten up and their lands grabbed, many of them were even murdered. As a result, many of the resettlers returned to Himachal Pradesh."28

**Hypothesis**

The study included of some research questions, which are given below in the form of hypothesis as:

- Do displacement and resettlement of people dismantles social structure?
- Does involuntary resettlement make people to lose socio-economic and cultural life?
- Does resettlement of people bring change in society?
- Does resettlement of people creates socio-economic and psychophysical problems?
- Did resettlement and rehabilitation policy of UKP helps people to gain economic and social life?

**Methodology**

To carry out a systematic study of involuntary resettlement the Upper Krishna Project selected, which is situated in Karnataka. The study area is confined to Bagalkot district and among the resettlement colonies of Bilgi taluk for in-depth study Honnihal resettlement colony selected. According to anthropological tradition a selected resettlement colony of Honnihal has studied and some of methods have used to get information regarding resettled people are, observation, participant, observation, use of census schedule (both structured and unstructured), in-depth interview, Focused Group Discussion (FGD) are used for the collection of primary data.

In the secondary sources, we have an example of books and literature. The books written by the anthropologist and sociologists are the prime source of secondary data. Report of planning and implication of several projects are also used.
Resettlement colony of Honnihal has surveyed for getting the basic information of the entire households, for this census schedule has used. Specific information has collected with scheduled and all the castes have involved in the interview. From each caste some of elders have selected for Focus Group Discussion, each group contained 6-8 persons. There were 10 Focus Group Discussion conducted. In-depth interview have been conducted for all caste's some elder persons including male and female. Middle aged persons and young persons have interviewed. Researcher has visited the field twice. More than 6 months of stay in Honnihal resettlement colony made the researcher to understand the people and their problems in holistic perspective. The fieldwork was conducted during October to December 2005 and March to June 2006.

Present study has adopted, Qualitative method along with quantitative method. The raw data collected from the field were then codified. Some of quantitative data have been used for making tables and rest of qualitative data has analysed with the content analysis. The personal dairy of researcher has the great importance in anthropological research, which was used in the analysis of the data.

Limitations of the Study

• The study is limited to one village.
• Lack of Government records of Honnihal before displacement.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework to handle the issues of displacement and resettlement has always derived its impetus from the political economy model. The exploitative role of the state in relation to the marginalized local communities has been highlighted. In addition to this anthropologists have been greatly benefited by two important theoretical models to handle the issues of displacement and resettlement. There are the temporal models of resettlement
phases by Scudder. Scudder identified four stages through which a resettlement process generally undergoes. The first stage is characterized by general planning, initial infrastructure development and settler recruitment. The second stage is a traditional one in which the resettled people are averse to any risk taking. Third stage is economic and social development. Final is handling the responsibility on second generation.

Michael Cernea's Risk and reconstructive model mainly discussed eight major risk factors or sub-process associated with the total process of displacement as found in different geographical and cultural space. Though Cernea was quite clear that all these sub-process might not be present in a specific case, he identified them as general risk factors. Some of the risk factors might be quite pronounced in one case where as the other might be absent all together. However, Cernea’s model is silent on certain significant areas, which are quite vulnerable in case of displacement. They are education, community life, leadership, the rituals and community festivals, which provide meaning of existence the relocation and re-emergence of new identity, neighbourhood relations.

The eight headings of R & R model of Cernea as 1) Landlessness 2) Joblessness 3) Homelessness 4) Marginalizations 5) Increased morbidity 6) Food insecurity 7) Loss of access to restoration of community assets and services 8) Social disarticulation to networks and community rebuild.

Involuntary resettlement, as generally described, consists of two sets of process, distinct but related: The first process involves displacement of people and dismantling of their patterns of economic and social organizations. The second process refers to resettlement at a different location and reconstruction of their livelihood and social networks. Each set of this process has its own content, dynamics, logistics and demands on people and institutions. Resettlement then refers both to the processes of physical relocation of those
displaced and to their socio-economic reestablishment as family/household micro-units and as larger communities (Cernea: 2005; and IFC: 2002). This is the definition followed in the present research study.

In India, the widely prevalent terminology is 'resettlement' and 'rehabilitation'. The term resettlement is used in a restricted sense to imply mere physical relocation of displaced people. For the restoration of lost economic and social abilities, the term used is rehabilitation. There are some who prefer the term rehabilitation and resettlement to the more popular usage 'resettlement' and rehabilitation'. Then there are still others who use neither of these terms, preferring 'relief and rehabilitation' to mean the same thing.

Definition made in the National Policy of R & R are “Displaced family” means any tenure holder, tenant, Government lessee or owner of other property, who on account of acquisition of his land including plot in the abadi or other property in the affected zone for the purpose of the project, has been displaced for such land or other property.

“Family” means project affected and Family consisting of such persons, his or her spouse, minor sons, unmarried daughters, minor brothers or unmarried sisters, father, mother, mother and other members residing with him and dependent on him for their livelihood.

“Project affected family” means a family/person whose place of residence or other properties or source of livelihood are substantially affected by the process of acquisition of land for the project and who has been residing continuously for a period of not less than three years preceding the date of declaration of the affected zone or practicing any trade, occupation or vocation continuously for a period of not less than three years in the affected zone, preceding the date of declaration of the affected zone.
Notes


10. Ibid. 4.

