

1 **POLICY PAPER**

2 **INEQUALITY, INJUSTICE AND INDIA'S FORGOTTEN PEOPLE**

3
4
5 **ABSTRACT**

6 It is the Boston Consulting Group's 15th annual report called '*Winning the Growth Game: Global*
7 *Wealth 2015*' that has been extensively reported by the media persons in India. This report came
8 just one year after the Global Wealth Databook 2014 from Credit Suisse wherein the picture of
9 global inequality is presented in a more accurate and comprehensive manner. It is undisputed
10 that over time there has been a significant decline in poverty in India. However, the same is not
11 true about inequality. Has inequality declined with the same rate as the decline in poverty in
12 India? As per the official data collected on all parameters of development in India the tribals are
13 straggling way behind in terms of income, health, education, nutrition, infrastructure and
14 governance. Tribals in India have been the receivers of injustices throughout the process of
15 development. To exemplify, among 65 to 70 million people displaced during the development
16 process in India 40 per cent are tribals. In India, more than 90 per cent of total coal and above 50
17 per cent of minerals and dams are located in the tribal regions, yet these areas have remained the
18 least developed. In paradox to economic theory, many developed districts in India include
19 pockets of intense backwardness. The paper argues that in India the tribals have remained
20 excluded from the list of beneficiaries in the development process. The paper also discusses the
21 process of marginalization of tribal in the developmental process and towards the end gives some
22 recommendations.

23 **Keywords**

24 Forest, Poverty, Tribal, development, displacement, marginalization, exclusion

25
26
27
28 **1. INTRODUCTION**

29 Global Wealth Databook reveals some startling facts. The richest 1 per cent of Indians today own
30 nearly half (49 per cent) of India's personal wealth [1]. The rest of us 99 per cent are left to share
31 the remainder among ourselves [1]. And, in the remainder, the top 10 per cent of Indians own
32 about 74 per cent or almost three-quarters of total wealth. Bottom 90 per cent of the remainder
33 hold only about 26 per cent or only a quarter of the total wealth. Worldwide, of the 20 per cent
34 poorest people, one in four is an Indian. As per a popular view, India should not be worried
35 about inequality, as it is a normal progression of economic development. In an urban area
36 expanding industries lead to the proliferation of economic activities in its 'zone of influence', that
37 for some years increases inequality in income and development, but after reaching the threshold,
38 this inequality gradually declines, forming an inverted 'U' of Kuznets Curve [2]. This view fits
39 in a famous phrase of John F. Kennedy, "a rising tide lifts all boats". In a paper published in the
40 Economic and Political Weekly, the author has suggested that to get an accurate picture of
41 regional inequalities one needs to go beyond just States and district levels, or need to inspect
42 sub-district or block levels [3]. At both, these levels can be found an overwhelming
43 concentration of tribal population as well as rampant backwardness.

44 No doubt India has witnessed a marked drop in the poverty rate in recent times. However, the
45 same is not the case with inequality. Can we say that along with poverty, inequality has also
46 experienced a decline? The answer is a definite 'no'. As per the official data collected on all
47 parameters of development in India the tribals are straggling way behind in terms of income,
48 health, education, nutrition, infrastructure and governance. Tribals in India have been the
49 receivers of injustices throughout the process of development. To exemplify, among 65 to 70
50 million people displaced during the development process in India 40 per cent are tribal [57]. In
51 India, more than 90 per cent of total coal and above 50 per cent of minerals and dams are located
52 in the tribal regions, yet these areas have remained the least developed. In paradox to economic
53 theory, many developed districts in India include pockets of intense backwardness [2; 4; 6].

54 Many of the districts in India have both: most developed and most undeveloped sub-districts [3].
55 In a data collected for 92 districts and their sub-districts, it suggested that these sub-districts were
56 listed in both, top 20 per cent and bottom 20 per cent of India's sub-districts [3; 2]. To
57 exemplify, in the developed districts like Thane, Vadodara, Ranchi, Vishakhapatnam and Raipur
58 have both, some most developed and some least developed sub-districts [1]. To further illustrate,
59 the districts Korba and Raigarh (Chhattisgarh); Valsad (Gujrat); PashchimiSingbhum and

60 PurbiSinghbhum (Jharkhand); Kendujhar, Koraput and Mayurbhanj (Odisha) have a combination
61 of both: the most industrialised as well as most underdeveloped sub-districts [4]. Surprisingly,
62 these underdeveloped sub-districts are formidably 'tribal'. It's clear then that the tribals have been
63 neglected in the process of development [4; 5; 6].

64 Inequality creates the acute perception of injustice, even economists at the traditionally free-
65 market fundamentalist International Monetary Fund, Andrew G. Berg and Jonathan D. Ostry,
66 have recently argued that "inequality can also be destructive to growth by amplifying the risk of
67 crisis or making it difficult for the poor to invest in education" [1]. They conclude: "reduced
68 inequality and sustained growth may thus be two sides of the same coin" [1].

69

70 2. FOREST-POVERTY RELATIONSHIP IN TRIBAL REGIONS OF INDIA

71 There is a close relationship between forests- tribal and poverty [7; 8; 9; 10, 11; 12; 13].
72 Approximately one-fourth of the world's poor and 90% of the poorest rely significantly on
73 forests for their livelihoods [14; 15; 16]. Forest biodiversity, via NTFPs, plays an important role
74 in affecting poverty issues for marginalized, forest-dependent communities, particularly tribal [7;
75 8; 17]. NTFPs contribute to livelihood outcomes, including food security, health and well being,
76 and income [18]. These resources are critical for the socially and economically most
77 marginalized people, who are the main actors in NTFP extraction and may provide them with the
78 only source of personal income [19].

79 India state of forest report [20], presents the data on forest cover and shows that the total forest
80 cover in country is about 78.29 million ha, constituting 23.81 per cent of the geographical area of
81 the country, out of which 12.06 % is very dense forest (more than 70% crown density), 46.35 %
82 is moderately dense forest (40% to 70% crown density), and the remaining 41.59 % is open
83 forest (10% to 40% crown density). Report further states that in country Forest cover has more or
84 less stabilized since the 1980s [21; 22; 23; 24; 25; 26; 27]. The enactment of proactive forest
85 conservation policies and Acts, for example, India's Forest Conservation Act, 1980, and changes
86 in management approaches from 'timber' to 'forest ecosystem' during the last few decades have
87 curbed deforestation and promoted conservation and sustainable management of the forest.

88 However, the decline of natural forest due to several factors, what Rai and Soni 2019 [9; also see
89 10; 11] called “power, greed and politics”, remains a major concern of forest management.

90 India has a huge population (275 million to 350 million) living close to the forest, around 1.73
91 lakh villages in rural India located in and around forests, with their livelihoods critically linked to
92 the forest ecosystem [10; 15; 22; 23]. Therefore, with such a huge population and extensive
93 dependence pattern, any overexploitation and unsustainable harvest practice can potentially
94 degrade forest [11]. Study on forest-poverty relationships [for example 9; 10; 11; 12] shows that
95 a significant percentage of India’s tribal population lives in these forest-fringe regions. Further
96 studies suggests [for example 27; 28; 29; 30; 31; 32] that these tribal communities not just
97 collect forest products for their own consumption but also for commercial sale, the income from
98 these forest products for households living in and around forest constitutes 40 to 60 per cent of
99 their total income.

100 Hence these income generation activities provide employment opportunities to the poor
101 households and make forests an important contributor to the rural economy in the forested
102 landscapes in the country [9; 10, 11]. The penury, dependency on forest and lack of any other
103 alternative employment opportunity in these forest fringe areas opportunities often make these
104 people resort to over-exploitation of forest resources [11; 33]. The collection of firewood for
105 sale in the market, though it is illegal, is also rampant in many parts of the forest fringe areas of
106 the country and constitutes the source of livelihood for 11 % of the population [34]. However,
107 many other forest products have been sustainably harvested by forest dwellers for many years,
108 and are a constant source of livelihood for local communities [11]. Agriculture and livestock are
109 two other major sources of livelihoods in the forest fringe areas, which in turn depend
110 extensively on the forest for various inputs [10]. Open grazing in the forest is the conventional
111 rearing practices for local communities and this has an adverse impact on growing stock as well
112 as regeneration capacity of the forest when there is overgrazing due to increasing livestock.
113 ICFRE (2001) [35] estimates suggest that India’s forest support 270 million cattle for grazing
114 against its carrying capacity of 30 million. The incidence of grazing is estimated to be affecting
115 78 % of India’s forests of which 18 % are highly affected with the remaining 31% and 29 %
116 medium and low respectively [15; 22]. The large livestock population also results in a huge
117 collection of tree fodder, which affects the forest quality adversely. The annual requirement of

118 dry and green fodder is estimated to be 569 MT and 1025 MT respectively against the
119 availability of 385 MT and 356 MT [36]. This explains the pressure on India's forest from the
120 livestock sector and its contribution to the state of degradation of forests in human-dominated
121 landscapes of the country.

122 Agricultural systems in the forested regions also inextricably related to the forest ecosystem.
123 Farmers collect many important materials from the forest for agricultural implements and
124 fencing the agricultural fields, leaf litter for manure, herbs, and medicinal plants to deal with
125 pests and so on. The agriculture in India is predominantly subsistence and crop production highly
126 vulnerable due to weather conditions and wildlife attack. Shifting cultivation that is still being
127 practised in some regions of the country contributes to forest degradation. With increased crop
128 cycles and declining fallow period in shifting cultivation practices in recent decades the impact
129 of traditional agricultural practice is more severe. Different estimates for the area under shifting
130 cultivation ranges from 5 million ha to 11.6 million ha involving 3 to 26 million people in 16
131 different states in the country [22]. The practice is more prominent in northeastern states.

132

133 3. INDIAN FORESTS, RURAL POOR AND TRIBAL SOCIETY

134 As we have already discussed in previous paragraphs, India has the largest number of poor in the
135 world, many of whom depend directly or indirectly on forests for a living [37; 38]. Poverty, as
136 well as large and expanding human and livestock populations, puts unrelenting pressure on the
137 forests of India [38]. The consequence is severe degradation of the country's forest resources
138 [38]. Agricultural intensification in India has impacted positively in many ways, particularly by
139 reducing pressure on marginal forest lands. On the other hand, India's fast-growing population,
140 urbanization and industrialisation are putting tremendous pressure on forest ecosystem [39]. The
141 continue increasing human and livestock population, poverty and shrinking natural resource base
142 are responsible for the tremendous pressure on existing land and forest cover [39]. The major
143 problem in India is not the forest-related laws and policy, rather its implementation on the
144 ground. Though India has well-defined and well-articulated forest policies it lacks a proper
145 strategy to meet the demands for forest and its products from the forest ecosystem
146 [39].

147

148 Since independence, India has experienced three policy phases i.e. industrial forestry, social
149 forestry and protection and, now after looking at tremendous pressure and demand on forest
150 resources India should provide a balance of all these three policy phases. Majority of tribal
151 population in India i.e. more than 68 million [39], lives in forest areas and constitutes the most
152 disadvantaged section of society based on income, literacy, health and lack of access to
153 technical, economic and social services [1].

154 Although India is the seventh-largest country in the world, it holds only 1.8 per cent of the
155 world's forests [39]. But the pressures on those forests are extremely high. India's large and
156 rapidly growing human and livestock populations (one billion and 450 million, respectively) are
157 the heaviest contributors to the unabated degradation of India's forest resources [39]. If we see
158 the recent data it clearly shows that world's largest number of poor live in India, many of whom
159 depend directly or indirectly on the country's forest resources for a living [39]. Shrinking
160 common property resource areas, which declined by 30 to 50 per cent between 1950 and 1980
161 [40], also contributed to increased pressure on the land and forests by the landless. Add to these
162 factors the country's steady increase in demand for industrial wood products, and one would
163 expect to see a rapid decline in India's forest resources.

164 Forests are an important gift of nature for the well being of mankind. Forests constitute some of
165 the richest natural resources. In India, a large section of the population still depends on the forest
166 for their existence. It was estimated that forests constitute an important source of livelihood for
167 more than 375 million people directly and indirectly [39]. Poverty in rural India is generally
168 linked to inadequate arable land [41] or its low productivity [13]. Naturally, in the case of weaker
169 sections, that too in the absence of land, forest-related livelihoods become important [13].
170 Collection from forests such as fuelwood and Non-Timber Wood Products (NTWSs) and their
171 contribution to per capita income in rural areas particularly for marginalized communities living
172 adjacent to forests largely remain unaccounted and unnoticed. Tribal women are major actors in
173 the forestry sector throughout the developing world. Most widely recognised is that women (and
174 children) are the primary collectors of fuel and fodder for home consumption and for sale in
175 urban markets. This alone gives women a major role in managing and conserving these forest
176 resources.

177

178 **4. DISPLACEMENTS OF THE TRIBALS IN THE NAME OF DEVELOPMENT**

179 Displacement of tribal communities in the name of development-related projects is one of the
180 most social disruptive processes happening all over the country [13 pages 6923; 42 pages 33].
181 Studies [for example 43] suggests that Tribal community constitute about 8 per cent of the
182 country's total population, and 40 per cent of these total tribal population have been displaced by
183 large dams since independence. Cernea's (2015) [44] study further suggests that these displaced
184 tribal populations get 'no' or the 'least' benefits from these development projects. Rather, Rai
185 and Soni (2018) [13] study further suggests that 'their living conditions deteriorate as a result of
186 this displacement' [13 pages 6923]. Our records suggest that the situation of resettled and
187 rehabilitated people, who have lost their life and livelihood due to large scale development
188 projects, is dismal, and, Nilsen concludes his study by stating that, 'this is the main reason why
189 development-induced displacement more often than not entails impoverishment [43 page 102].

190 Our experience further suggests that the development related large scale projects directly and
191 indirectly benefited other sections of the society, particularly Politician, contractors, project
192 officers, urban and elite classes, State, landlords and bureaucrats etc. The destitute of the
193 marginal group, particularly Tribal peasants stand in stark contrast to the enrichment of the
194 groups, the capitalist elite farmers, as a result of the construction of mega dams [43 page 103].

195 Cernea (2015) [44] study on 'displacement due to large dams' shows that around 16 to 38
196 million people displaced only due to large dams and half of them are tribal. Further study
197 suggests that:

198 (1) due to Hirakund dam (1948-57) 249 villages in Sambalpur district (Orissa) and 36 villages in
199 Raigarh district (Chhattisgarh), in total 22,144 families or a population of 1.1 lakh, families
200 displaced where the tribal population alone constituted 18.3 per cent of the total affected people
201 [42; 45].

202 (2) due to Bargi dam (1974-90), 162 villages in the three districts of Madhya Pradesh affected
203 namely Mandla, Seoni and Jabalpur, out of which 82 villages were completely submerged [42].
204 Here out of the total displaced population, tribal alone constituted 43 per cent [2];

205 (3) Sardar Sarovar Dam displaced total 45,000 families from 192 villages of Madhya Pradesh, 33
206 of Maharashtra, and 19 of Gujarat [42]. Out of the total population here around 56 per cent
207 population that was affected was tribal population [44; 46]

208 (4) In Orissa, because of Ib river dam project around 80,000 tribal population have been
209 displaced [47 pages 95]

210 (5) In Chhatisgarh, due to 10 major dam projects and 38 medium dam projects, a total of 511
211 villages were affected negatively [48].

212 (6) In Jharkhand due to Dam related projects, between 1951 to 1990, around 16, 400, 000 people
213 have been displaced and out of this 75.2% of the displaced persons were tribals [47 page 25].
214 Out of these displaced people, only 4,100,000 people have been rehabilitated and 12,300,000
215 were left without rehabilitation [47 pages 95]. Overall, 75 % people left without rehabilitation
216 [47 page 95].

217 The World Commission report 2000 shows some stunning facts on tribal displacement due to
218 dam-related projects for example: due to Curzon dam in Gujrat 100 per cent tribal population of
219 that area have been displaced; due to Maheshwar dam in Madhya Pradesh state 60 percent of
220 tribal population have been displaced; due to Chandil dam in Bihar around 87 per cent of the
221 total tribal population have been displaced; due to Keolkar dam in Bihar 88 per cent tribal
222 population have been displaced; due to Mohibajaj Sagar dam in Rajasthan around 77 per cent of
223 the total population have been displaced; due to Polbharam dam in Andhra Pradesh state around
224 53 per cent tribal population have been displaced ; due to Upper Indravati dam in Orissa around
225 90 per cent of the total tribal population have displaced; due to Ichhapalli dam in Himachal
226 Pradesh around 77 per cent of the tribal population have been displaced [56].

227 Establishment of industries is another area where the threat of the tribals' extinction has had a
228 traumatic past. The three states of India i.e. Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand and Orissa, has the
229 maximum occurrence of both natural resources as well as the displacement [44]. For example in
230 Orissa thirty-three villages (2,503, 524 acres of land) had been uprooted by the Orissa
231 government in 1954 to set up the steel plant of Rourkela, and further thirty-one villages (1,192,
232 398 acres of land) had been uprooted for the construction of Mandira dam in 1956-57 [48].

233 Recently around 400-600 villages have been uprooted in Sundergarh district of Orissa due to
234 sixty sponge iron factory, and around 20,000 tribal from 82 villages have been displaced due to
235 Utkal Alumina International Limited (UAIL) plants of kashipur in Rayagada [48].

236 Second example comes from Jharkhand: In Jharkhand state due to mining-related projects
237 2,550,000 people and due to industry related projects around 1,250,000 people have been
238 displaced; the starking fact is that Nearly 29.6 % of those displaced by mining industries are
239 tribals; Out of 1,250,000 people only 3, 75, 000 people have been rehabilitated and 8,75,000
240 have been left without rehabilitation in industry related projects and out of 2,550,000 people in
241 mining-related projects only 630,000 people have been rehabilitated and 1,920,000 were left
242 without rehabilitation [47 pages 95].

243 The third example comes from Chhattisgarh state: The highly critical issue in the recent time has
244 been Special Economic Zone Act, 2005, the aim of which was to accelerate industrialization
245 through foreign direct investments (FDI), that was supposed to provide employment
246 opportunities to a large number of people [49]. But our ground experience suggests a different
247 story; in reality, SEZ has become a tool to remove the tribals from their lands. In this region,
248 Adivasi's land has been given to big business houses for mining and other industries [50].
249 Official data suggests that 65,000 ha. the land area has already been clear for industrial and
250 mining purpose, and many Memorandum of Understandings (MOUs) have been signed for
251 further clearance. The sum total of MoUs signed in the state of Chhattisgarh alone is 745, the
252 highest in the country [50]. According to a report of Committee on Agrarian Relations about 3,
253 50, 000 tribals, or half the population of Dantewada has been displaced from the district. If we
254 look into data study suggests that since 1990 the displacement of marginalised groups of people,
255 particularly tribals, has become an additional source, as economic activity increasingly uprooted
256 people from their lands and soil [49]. In Bastar region of Chhattisgarh, before 2005, 8775 new
257 factories were established and further Memorandum of Understandings (MOUs) for an
258 investment of Rs. 17,000 crores were signed in 2005 for the proposed Tata and Essar steel plant
259 [51] Also, there were three steel plants set-up in the offing, owned by the Tata, Essar and NDMC
260 which uprooted many tribal villages [51].

261

262 Uprooting deprives of the vital sustenance of the tribal who are dependent on natural resources
263 for their survival and finally their long term sustainability is also endangered [42 pages 10]. The
264 displacement alienates the tribal from their common property resources particularly land, forests
265 and water, what Water Commission on Dam report concludes: “despite the massive investment
266 in water resource management and particularly in dams, billions of children, women and men in
267 rural areas lack access to the most basic water and sanitation services” [49].

268 Various reports on rehabilitation and resettlement of displaced people, from different evictions
269 sites, suggest that in a large number of cases about 75% of people are never resettled [for e.g. 2;
270 42; 48; 49; 51]. It has been observed that non-recognition of tribes over common property
271 resources and restrictions on their use, alienating them from the means of production, denial of
272 due entitlement of labour, distressed payment of wages, and misappropriation of funds, have kept
273 the tribal labour in the deprivation, poverty, penury, hunger and starvation [42 page 15; 13 page
274 6926).

275 The major effect of this development-induced displacement is that the Adivasis feel delude and
276 disillusioned by the State, which in turn leads to tribal unrest and rebel, in the form of lobbying
277 and Dharnas etc. Some example of tribal unrest and movement in the form of lobbying are:
278 Khedut Mazdoor Sangh Jai Adivasi Yuva Shakti in Madhya Pradesh state, Niyamgiri Suraksha
279 Samiti in Orissa state, Narmada Dharangrasta Samiti, Maharashtra Rajya Adivasi Bachao
280 Abhiyan and Sarvahara Jan Andolan in Maharashtra state, Jharkhand Disom Party, Jharkhand
281 Mukti Morcha and Adivasi Sengel Abhiyan in Jharkhand state, and Bharat Jakat Majhi Pargana
282 Mahal, a collective of some 6.4 million Santhals across West Bengal, Bihar, Jharkhand, Orissa
283 and Assam, are some of the examples of tribal outfits [13 pages 6926; 52; 42 page15]. Jharkhand
284 presents a classic case of tribal rebellious when recently around two hundred tribal villages in
285 Khunti District have put up stone plaques having provisions of PESA, 2006 inscribed on them at
286 the entrance of villages [13 pages 6927]. The movement called as ‘Pathalgadi’ or ‘Pathalgarhi’
287 movement, which declares that Gram Sabha is the sovereign authority and that the tribals do not
288 recognise Central or State Government, though they abide by the Constitution of India [13 pages
289 6927].

290 Further Rai and Soni (2018) [13] study shows that recently the Dongriya Kondh tribe of
291 Niyamgiri hills in Orissa have won the legal battle against the Vedanta group, and saved their
292 “Niyam Raja” the mountain rich in bauxite resources, which the Vedanta group wanted to
293 acquire for mining purposes [13 pages 6927].

294 5. TRIBAL INCLUSION THROUGH PARTICIPATORY GOVERNANCE

295
296 What then are the elements of a vision of development much more inclusive and empowering of
297 those left out? First, the pattern and idea of development need to change. The current pattern of
298 development and growth is not inclusive. Rather instead of jobless growth or only GDP growth,
299 our focus should be more on inclusive growth. For example, if we compare the industry or
300 service sector with the enterprise sector we can say that the faster growth for the Micro, Small
301 and Medium Enterprises segment will generate more per capita income and employment
302 opportunities and is, therefore, more inclusive than growth largely driven by extractive industries
303 or the service sector [53].

304 Further, if we look into the current status of India’s forest ecosystem and poverty, the study
305 suggests that the poorest regions of India are also the most eco-fragile [53]. Looking at the
306 current ecosystem status if we want to improve the status of tribal through their increased per
307 capita income we need to offer them a range of sustainable livelihoods including income from
308 agriculture, forest and forest products. Forest and forest products, particularly Non-wood forest
309 products, which is estimated to run into several million dollars, of which only a minuscule
310 fraction accrues to the tribal communities, can create many opportunities including huge income-
311 generation and biodiversity conservation in tribal-dominated forest areas of the country.

312 Along with this we also need to consider the rights of the tribal people and the complete
313 restructuring of their relationship with the land and forest. Further, the focus should be given on
314 improving health and education facilities in backward districts. Globally, India spends among the
315 lowest share of its national income on public provision of health and education [53]. Health and
316 education are the sectors in most urgent need of State reforms. We need to equip our most
317 marginalised tribal people with the skills demanded by a rapidly changing economy.

318 The most important thing that this marginalized section of the society and excluded regions need
319 is 'just participatory governance', where Panchayati Raj institutions, including the gram sabha,
320 can be empowered and activated for participation and also "last citizens" can be involved in
321 decisions that affect their lives, such as taking their consent while acquiring land for an avowed
322 public purpose [see 54; 55; 56].

323 Under capitalism, inequality does not decline automatically. In a country like India, the 'Kuznets
324 Curve' remains mere daydreaming if the right programmes and policies are not in place [1]. Take
325 the example of the developed world: for example in the case of Europe and America inequality
326 did decline when the appropriate policy framework was adopted during the so-called golden age
327 of capitalism in the mid-20th Century decades saw the emergence of
328 what economist and diplomat John Kenneth Galbraith termed "countervailing power" [1]. And it
329 is the unravelling of this balancing power and a shift towards free-market fundamentalism that
330 led to the rise in inequality after 1980 [1].

331 In India sustainability has to be at the core of our development strategy. State and policymakers
332 in India should recognize the dire need of redefining the core meaning of reforms so as to make
333 the reforms pro-poor rather than pro-corporate. Without these reforms, inequality in India will
334 continue to accelerate and create critical situations, threatening the very survival of the delicate
335 fabric of Indian democracy.

336 6. CONCLUSION

337 In India, the planning process has not been fruitful to all sections of Indian society.
338 Particularly, it has not been able to integrate the tribals in the mainstream of development. The
339 tribal people have not been made part of decision-making body while deciding on the
340 development process in the country, even at the time when development process had a direct
341 'negative' impact on the lives of the tribals. As has been already discussed the construction of
342 dams and other development projects related displacements and rehabilitation, allocation of
343 resources, cost-benefit analysis, and environmental impact assessment are some of the instances
344 where the tribals have never been given a place in decision-making body, even when such
345 projects severely affected these people. The government of India considers the development an
346 exclusive domain of administration, howbeit, in a democratic set up like India, the development

347 needs to be more 'inclusive', more 'people-oriented' and more 'participatory'. Considering the
348 fact of the historical vulnerability of tribals in India, the Constitution makers incorporated some
349 special provisions in the Constitution ensuring safety and security of these people. Article 46 of
350 the Constitution requires that 'the State shall promote with special care the educational and
351 economic interests of scheduled tribes, and shall protect them from social injustice and all forms
352 of exploitation. Sixth Schedule in the Constitution makes specific provisions for the
353 administration of tribal areas in the States of Assam, Meghalaya, Tripura and Mizoram. Not only
354 this, Article 338A, which was inserted in the Constitution later on provides for the establishment
355 of a National Commission for scheduled tribes to investigate and monitor all matters relating to
356 safeguards provided for the tribes, to inquire into specific complaints relating to their rights, to
357 participate and advice on the planning process of socio-economic development of tribes, to make
358 recommendations and to discharge such functions in relation to the protection, welfare and
359 development and advancement of the tribes etc. Despite all these safeguards in the Constitution,
360 the State has not been able to ensure and improve the socio-economic conditions of these people.
361 In reverse, the State in the guise of 'development' has led to their further marginalization.

362 Displacement and forced relocation are the products of mining, dams, bio-reserves and other
363 development-related projects. Displacement, relocation and resettlement are much more than a
364 question of sheer numbers. These are the very serious and complex issues relating to governance,
365 participation, transparency, accountability, resettlement goals and human rights. To be uprooted
366 from a place is always a painful experience for people, hence, the decision relating to
367 displacement and relocation etc. must be taken where it is indispensable.

368 The following are some of the recommendations that may be kept in mind at the time a
369 development project necessitates displacement and relocation: The displacement in the first place
370 must be unacceptable. In the cases where it becomes necessary, it must be voluntary and not
371 forceful. The consent of the affected parties must be obtained where displacement is voluntary.
372 This consent must be "free, informed prior consent". The emphasis is given on 'informed prior'
373 consent, as it is necessary for the people to have full knowledge about the necessity of the
374 project, its alternatives or unavailability, and the rationale behind the displacement. Then only
375 the people will be in the position to give voluntary consent to such a project.

376 Every time the provisions of specific legislation such as Panchayat (Extension to Scheduled
377 Areas) Act, 1996 must be complied with. Moreover, the project affected people must be such
378 placed as they can enjoy the fruits of the project. The project must leave these people in a better
379 or at least the same condition as before. Lastly, and more importantly, a National Displacement
380 and a Rehabilitation Act must be enacted in place of mere policy, and a commission in the same
381 regards must be set up.

382

383

384

385

386

387

REFERENCES

- 388 1. The Hindu, 23rd September, 2017: India's Staggering wealth gap in five charts.
389 Available:[https://www.thehindu.com/data/indias-staggering-wealth-gap-in-five-](https://www.thehindu.com/data/indias-staggering-wealth-gap-in-five-charts/article10935670.ece)
390 [charts/article10935670.ece](https://www.thehindu.com/data/indias-staggering-wealth-gap-in-five-charts/article10935670.ece)
- 391 2. The Hindu, 14th August, 2016: Tribal Alienation in an unequal India. By Mihir Shah.
392 Available:[https://www.thehindu.com/opinion/lead/mihir-shah-writes-on-tribal-alienation-](https://www.thehindu.com/opinion/lead/mihir-shah-writes-on-tribal-alienation-and-need-for-inclusive-growth/article7383721.ece)
393 [and-need-for-inclusive-growth/article7383721.ece](https://www.thehindu.com/opinion/lead/mihir-shah-writes-on-tribal-alienation-and-need-for-inclusive-growth/article7383721.ece)
- 394 3. Bakshi Sanchita, Arunish Chawla, Mihir Shah. Regional disparities in India: A moving
395 frontier. Economic & Political Weekly. 2015; L(1).
- 396 4. Roy Satyaki. Regional disparities in growth and human development in India. New Delhi,
397 2012. MPRA Paper, MPRA Paper No. 43841. Posted 17 January. 2013.
398 Available:<https://mpa.ub.uni-muenchen.de/43481/>
- 399 5. Nair KRG. Economic reforms and regional disparities in economic and social development
400 in India," New Delhi, 2004: Report of a Research Project funded by the SER Division of
401 the Planning Commission of the Government of India.
402 Available:http://planningcommission.nic.in/reports/sereport/ser/stdy_errd.pdf
- 403 6. Chowdhury Samik. Regional disparity in India- A Study of Three Decades using a
404 Comparable Database," Paper Prepared for the IARIW 33rd General Conference.
405 Rotterdam, The Netherlands, August 24-30: 2014.
406 Available:<http://www.iariw.org/papers/2014/Chowdhury2Paper.pdf>
- 407 7. Duraiappah A. Poverty and environmental degradation: A literature review and analysis.
408 CREED Working Paper Series No.8, London, International Institute for Environment and
409 Development. 1996;70.

Comment [VNO1]: Author should make sure all the cited work referenced here are of same format. No 1 and 2 does not conform to Vancouver style ought to be used. Also nos 3, 4, 6 shows author did not use the initials of the other names of the cited authors rather he used the full names which is not proper

- 410 8. Duraiappah A. Poverty and environmental degradation: A review and analysis, of the
411 nexus. *World Development*. 1998;26(12):2169-79.
- 412 9. Rai J, Soni S. Approaches to environmental decision making through human-environment
413 relationship perspectives. *Journal of Geography, Environment and Earth Science*
414 *International*. 2019;18(4):1-13.
415 Available: <https://doi.org/10.9734/JGEESI/2018/46256>
- 416 10. Rai J. Understanding Poverty-environment relationship from sustainable development
417 perspectives. *Journal of Geography, Environment and Earth Science*
418 *International*. 2019a;19(1):1-19.
419 Available : <https://doi.org/10.9734/jgeesi/2019/v19i130077>
- 420 11. Rai J. Why are narratives that place the blame for deforestation on the rural poor so
421 pervasive and so persistent?. *Journal of Geography, Environment and Earth Science*
422 *International*. 2019b;20(1):1-15.
423 Available: <https://doi.org/10.9734/jgeesi/2019/v20i130099>
- 424 12. Rai J. Displacement versus Co-existence in Human-Wildlife Conflict Zones: An
425 Overview. *Journal of Geography, Environment and Earth Science International*. 2019c;
426 19(4):1-16.
427 Available: <https://doi.org/10.9734/jgeesi/2019/v19i430093>
- 428 13. Rai J, Soni S. Development versus displacement: displacement induced marginalisation
429 and conflict with rights of the tribals. *Int. J. of Social Science and Economic Research*.
430 2018;3(12):6922-6935.
431 Retrieved from ijsser.org/more2018.php?id=486
- 432 14. World Bank 2000. *India: Alleviating Poverty through Forest Development*. Washington,
433 DC: Operations Evaluation Department, World Bank.
- 434 15. World Bank, 2006. *Unlocking opportunities for forest-dependent people in India*. Main
435 report Vol 1, Agriculture and Rural Development Sector Unit, South Asia Region. World
436 Bank, February 2006.
- 437 16. Surayya. Contribution of Forests, Microfinance, and NTFPs Marketing and Policy
438 intervention for Reducing Poverty: w.r.t. India; 2005.
- 439 17. DFID (Department for International Development). *Breaking the barriers: Women and the*
440 *elimination of world poverty*. Social Development Division Publication; 1999.
- 441 18. Falconer J. *Developing Research Frames for Non-Timber Forest Products: experience from*
442 *Ghana*. Pages 143 - 160 in M. Ruiz Pérez, and J. E. M. Arnold, eds., *Current Issues in Non-*
443 *timber Forest Products Research*. Centre for International Forestry Research, Bogor,
444 Indonesia; 1996.
- 445 19. Ros-Tonen MAF. NTFP research in the Tropenbos programme. In seminar proceedings:
446 NTFP research in the Tropenbos programme: Results and perspectives; 1999.
- 447 20. *India State Forest Report (ISFR)*; 2011.
- 448 21. Ministry of Environment and Forests. *Report of the National Forest Commission*. New
449 Delhi: Ministry of Environment and Forests, Government of India; 1999.
- 450 22. Ministry of Environment and Forests. *Report of the National Forest Commission*. New
451 Delhi: Ministry of Environment and Forests, Government of India. 2006;421.
- 452 23. Ministry of Environment and Forests. *Asia-Pacific Forestry Sector Outlook Study II: India*
453 *Country Report*. Working Paper No. APFSOS II/WP/2009/06. Bangkok: FAO. 2009;78.
- 454 24. Ministry of Environment and Forests. *Report of the National Forest Commission*. New
455 Delhi: Ministry of Environment and Forests, Government of India; 2011.

Comment [VNO2]: Include other names by adding the initial

- 456 25. Ministry of Environment and Forests. Report of the National Forest Commission. New
457 Delhi: Ministry of Environment and Forests, Government of India; 2016.
- 458 26. Ministry of Environment and Forests. Report of the National Forest Commission. New
459 Delhi: Ministry of Environment and Forests, Government of India; 2017.
- 460 27. Saha D, Sundriyal RC. Utilization of Non-Timber Forest Products in Humid Tropics:
461 Implications for Management and Livelihood. *Forest Policy and Economics*. 2012;14:28–
462 40
- 463 28. Bhattacharya P. Does NTFP Certification Assure Sustainable Harvesting and Better Benefit
464 Sharing? *Community Forestry, Orissa, India*; 2008.
- 465 29. Bhatrai NK, Chraucher J. Viability of local commercialization of non-timber forest
466 products as a strategy for promoting biodiversity conservation. *Environment and
467 Biodiversity: In the context of South Asia*. 1996;346-353.
- 468 30. Bista S, Edward WL. Collection and marketing of non-timber forest products in the far
469 western hills of Nepal. *Environmental Conservation*. 2006;33(3):244-255.
- 470 31. Campbell JY. Putting people's products first: multiple-use management for non-wood
471 forest products in India; 1988.
- 472 32. Campbell JY, Tewari DD. Increased development of non-timber forest products in India:
473 Some issues and concerns. *Unasylva-No.187- Forest Conservation and Utilization*; 1995.
- 474 33. Angelson A, Wunder S. Exploring the forest-poverty link: Key concepts, Issues, and
475 Research Implications. *Centre for International Forestry Research Occasional Paper 40*;
476 2003.
- 477 34. IPCC. *Climate Change 2007: Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability. Contribution of
478 Working Group II to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on
479 Climate Change*, M.L. Parry, O.F. Canziani, J.P. Palutikof, P.J. van der Linden and C.E.
480 Hanson, Eds., Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK. 2007;976.
- 481 35. ICFRE (Indian Council of Forestry Research and Education). *Forestry Statistics of India
482 1987-2001*. Dehradun: ICFRE. 2001;234.
- 483 36. Roy MM, Singh KA. The fodder situation in rural India: future outlook. *International
484 Forestry Review*. 2008;10(2):217–234.
- 485 37. Bahuguna VK. Forests in the economy of the rural poor: An estimation of the dependency
486 level. *Ambio*. 2000;29(3):126-129.
- 487 38. Bharath Kumar LB, Patil BL, Basavaraja H, Mundinamani SM, Mahajanashetty SB,
488 Megeri SN. Participation Behaviour of Indigenous People in Non-Timber Forest Products
489 Extraction in Western Ghats Forests. *Karnataka Journal of Agricultural Science*. 2011;
490 24(2):170–172.
- 491 39. Planning Commission's working group on Forests and Natural Resource Management,
492 2011: Report of the sub-group II on NTFP and their sustainable management in the 12th 5
493 year plan.
- 494 40. World Resource Institute Report; 2011.
- 495 41. World Bank website 2012.
496 Available:<http://www.worldbank.org/en/news/feature/2012/05/17/india-agriculture-issues-priorities>
- 497 42. Pandit RC. *Development-vs-Displacement of Tribal People in India, Problems and
498 Prospects*. Abhijeet Publication, Delhi-94; 2009.
499 ISBN: 978-93-80031-08-8.
- 500 43. Nilsen, Gunvald Alf. *Politics from below, Essays on Subalternity and Resistance in India*.
501 AAKAR BOOKS; 2017.
502 ISBN: 978-93-5002-506-2

Comment [VNO3]: Not properly referenced

Comment [VNO4]: Incomplete name

- 503 | 44. Cernea, Michael M. Impoverishment Risks, Risk Management, and Reconstruction: A
504 Model of Population Displacement and Resettlement; 2015.
505 | Available: [https://commdev.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/06/Impoverishment-Risks-Risk-](https://commdev.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/06/Impoverishment-Risks-Risk-Management-and-Reconstruction.pdf)
506 Management-and Reconstruction.pdf
507 45. Kujur JM. 'Development-induced displacement in Chhattisgarh: a case study from a tribal
508 perspective', Social Action. 2008;58.
509 46. Thakkar Himanshu. Cultural survival quarterly magazine. Displacement and development:
510 Construction of the Sardar Dam; 1999.
511 Available: [https://www.culturalsurvival.org/publications/cultural-survival-](https://www.culturalsurvival.org/publications/cultural-survival-quarterly/displacement-and-development-construction-sardar-dam)
512 quarterly/displacement-and-development-construction-sardar-dam
513 47. Ekka A, Asif M. Development-induced displacement and Rehabilitation in Jharkhand,
514 1951 to 1995: a database on its extent and nature. New Delhi: Indian Social Institute; 2000.
515 48. Somayaji Sakarama, Talwar Smriti. Development-induced Displacement, Rehabilitation
516 and Resettlement in India, Current issues and challenges. Routledge, Taylor and Francis
517 Group; 2011.
518 ISBN: 978-0-415-60080-4.
519 49. Sharma RN. 'Displacement for Special economic zones (SEZs) and real estate business', in
520 Modi, R. (ed.), Beyond relocation: the imperative of sustainable resettlement. Delhi:
521 SAGE; 2009.
522 50. CSE. Centre for Science and Environment 2011. New Delhi.
523 51. PUCL. People's Union for Civil Liberty (PUCL) Bulletin, 16 November. New Delhi;
524 2005a.
525 52. Chaturvedi P, Dalal A. Law of SEZ- national and international perspective, 1st edn. New
526 Delhi: Eastern Law House; 2008.
527 53. The Hindu, 21st April 2016: Made in India, by small enterprises.
528 Available: [https://www.thehindu.com/opinion/op-ed/made-in-india-by-small-](https://www.thehindu.com/opinion/op-ed/made-in-india-by-small-enterprises/article6446662.ece)
529 enterprises/article6446662.ece
530 54. Gopalakrishna BV. Regional disparities in human development: An empirical analysis;
531 2015.
532 | 55. Radhika P. Kumar, Priyanjali Prabhakarn ~~Dr.~~, Jain K. George, Saritha, G. Parambath.
533 Mapping Regional Disparities in Human Development- The case of erstwhile Andhra
534 Pradesh. Procedia Technology. Elsevier. Science Direct. 2016;24:1843-1850.
535 Available: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.protcy.2016.05.233>
536 56. The Report of World Commission, 2000. Dams and Development: A New Framework for
537 Decision Making, The Report of World Commission on Dams. 2000;17.
538 57. Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, Geneva; 2018.
539

Comment [VNO5]: One of the names should appear as Initial of the Author

Comment [VNO6]: Full names quoted. Use initials for the first name