

Migration in Malda District: An analysis towards a better inclusion of Internal Migrants

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ABSTRACT

There exist a strong relationship between migration and balanced development of a country like India. In India, the people freely move in terms of permanently or temporarily from one place to another for the betterment of their opportunity of livelihood in individual and family level. Internal migration not only involves much poorer segments, its impacts on the economy as a whole, on sending and receiving regions. It seems that the migrants and their family members have been lagging behind the inclusion in economic and social mainstream and policy initiative throughout the history. In this context, the present paper examines the nature of migration in Malda District, West Bengal and the social and economic inclusion of migrants and their family members, based on Census of India, NSSO household level data and field survey through household scheduled. The detailed study shows that the major cause of migration in the district is to search work/employment and most of the migrant from agricultural sector. Due to the implementation of various govt. initiatives the number of migrants has increased by 40% from 1991 to 2001. While, the migration of unskilled labour has also increased for the same time, due to low productivity and proper agricultural infrastructure at the area of origin. Migration has been going parallel to the growth and development. But, it should have flexible for households and individuals as well as economies and societies. It is required to be facilitated through a proper development strategy and a coherent policy.

1. Introduction

Free movement is a fundamental right of the citizens of India and internal movements are not restricted (Sultana, 2018). The Constitution states-

"All citizens shall have the right (...) to move freely throughout the territory of India; to reside and settle in any part of the territory of India".

---Article 19(1)(d) and Article 19(1)(e), Part III, Fundamental Rights, The Constitution of India, 1950.

Internal migrants, those who move within national boundaries - are several times more crucial in terms of the numbers involved compared to those who move across countries. But it fails to receive the attention as international migration receives from researchers, international organizations and funding agencies. According to the UNDP Human Development Report 2009, the number of those who moved across the states of regions within their countries was nearly four times larger (740 million) than those who moved internationally (214 million). In Asia, Africa, and Latin America, approximately 40 percent of urban growth is happened due to internal migration from rural to urban areas (UNESCO/ UN-HABITAT, 2012).

In India for instance, about 60 percent of the growth in the urban population is due to natural increase, while rural-urban migration has contributed to about 20 percent of the increase in urban population (HPEC, 2011). Migration and urbanization are an integral part of economic development and societal transformation. Historical experience has shown that it cannot

be stopped. Migration, especially internal migration, contributes significantly to the growth of Indian cities. The rising contribution of cities to India's GDP would not be possible without migration and migrant workers.

The Economic Survey 2017 has indicated that Indians are much more migratory than it was generally believed. The 2011 Census, rail traffic data and changes in population in different age categories show that migration is much larger than what has been argued by using traditional sources of data like the National Sample Survey (NSS) and the population census.

As recorded in the last Census 2011, India's total population, counted at 1.21 billion. Internal migrants in India constitute a large population, about 309 million or 30 percent of the population (Census of India, 2011). And in more recent estimates by NSSO 2007-08, 326 million or 28.5 percent of the population migrants internally within the country. The figure rose to 453.6 million in 2011, showing an addition of 139 million, an average of about 14 million migrating every year. This is against the figure of 82 million migrants added during 1991-2001, mean that the decadal growth in migration has gone up from 35.5% during 1991-2001 to 44.2% during 2001-11.

Migrants seem to invisible key actors of demographic change, socially dynamic, culturally innovative and economically prosperous societies. An independent study examining the economic contribution of circular migrants based on major migrant employing sectors in India shows that they contribute 10 percent to the national GDP (Deshingkar and Akter, 2009). India has experienced notable economic growth during the last two-three decades. The 2000s was the best ever decade for Indian macroeconomic performance with a growth rate of

income per capita (Net State Domestic Product) 6.1% per annual and almost all the major states recorded higher growth performance (Kumar and Subramanian, 2011). With the faster growth of manufacturing and service sector and Foreign Direct Investment, some states of India have also been getting a wide demographic window of opportunity.

Despite having high growth of all states, inter-state inequality in terms of income per capita is still high (Chandrasekhar and Ghosh, 2012). That inequality influences the proportion of internal migration, including interstate migration, as it was in previous decades (Mistri, 2015). According to the neoclassical framework (Harris-Todaro 1970 and Todaro 1976), it is also expected that the window of migration will provide an opportunity to laborers in backward regions and remote rural areas to shift rapidly to growing regions and dynamic urban centers in the hope of improving their economic well-being and sustaining a better livelihood. However, such a dramatic improvement did not take place for workers in the developing countries in Asia. (Sengupta, 2013).

About 326 million (NSSO 2007-2008), or nearly 30 percent of the total population are internal migrants are excluded from the economic, cultural, social and political life of society and are often treated as second-class citizens. It is argued that short-term employment opportunities created under NREGA in the rural area reduce seasonal and distress migration, but the result does not reflect much improved in reducing rural to urban flow (Mahapatro, 2011).

Various problems are faced by migrants in all circumstances. Some of these are lack of formal residency rights, lack of identity proof, lack of political representation, inadequate housing, low-paid, insecure or hazardous work, extreme vulnerability of women and children to trafficking and sex exploitation, exclusion from state-provided services such as health and education and discrimination based on ethnicity, religion, class or gender and so on (UNESCO, 2013).

In the absence of proofs of identity and residence, internal migrants are always unable to claim social protection entitlements and remain excluded from government-sponsored schemes and programmers (UNISCO, 2013). Children face interruption of regular schooling, adversely affecting their human capital formation and contributing to the inter-generational transmission of poverty (UNESCO 2013). Further, migrants are negatively described as a "burden" to society, discouraged from settling down and excluded from urban planning initiatives. Most internal migrants are denied basic rights, yet internal migration is given very low priority by the government in policy and practice, partly due to a serious knowledge gap on its extent, nature, and magnitude.

The economic and social inclusion of internal migrants in India aims to provide an overview of existing innovative practices that increase the inclusion of internal migrants in society and act as a living document that would inspire and assist professionals and governments officials in their attempts to facilitate the social inclusion of migrants. UNESCO wishes to increase visibility and recognition of the internal migration phenomenon in India,

2. Objectives

The present study undertakes with the view to the analysis of the following objectives.

1. To analyze the present nature and Pattern of internal migration in Malda District, West Bengal.
2. To study the extent of economic and social inclusion of migrants and their family members.

3. Database and Methodology

The present study has been undertaken to the assessed economic and social inclusion of internal migrant in Malda District, West Bengal. It will also look the nature, trends, and determinants of internal migration of the district. The present study is basically a theoretical study based on secondary data, are collected mainly from the Census of India Migration 'D' table. And the five-year migration surveys conducted by the National Sample Survey Office (NSSO). The information are also collected from various government reports, previous literature etc. The Census of India is the main source of information on migration. Till 1961. Currently, it provides data on migration collecting information mainly on the migration causes, age, and sex of the migrants, reasons, and duration of migration place of destination and origin, migration by place of birth and migration by place of the last residence etc. Concerning education, income, consumption and the other activities of the migrant's information from NSS has been considered. It also provides data about migrant remittance.

The primary data on various information about migration are collected through a scheduled household survey conducted in mainly Bamangola and Habibpur blocks from May to June 2017. The total number of 100 migrant's household has been selected for the survey from said two blocks through purposive sampling techniques. The reason for selection of these blocks is that former one has ranked high among the total blocks in terms of HDI, Agricultural productivity, area under irrigation, workforce participation rate, literacy rate etc. and later one has ranked lowest in terms of aforesaid criterion.

4. The Study Area: Malda District

As per the selection of study area, Malda District of West Bengal is a concern. Malda District is one of the extreme lower levels of development in terms of economy, education, health, and nutrition, sanitation and so on in one hand and Scheduled Tribe and Schedule Caste population comprises a significant portion of the District on the other hand. Habibpur and Bamangola Blocks in Malda are the more tribal and scheduled caste dominated Blocks. Due to having lower economic and social development a significant portion of people of the district migrated to another district of states throughout the year. Therefore the magnitude of internal migration i.e. out-migration is quite high and prominent in the district.

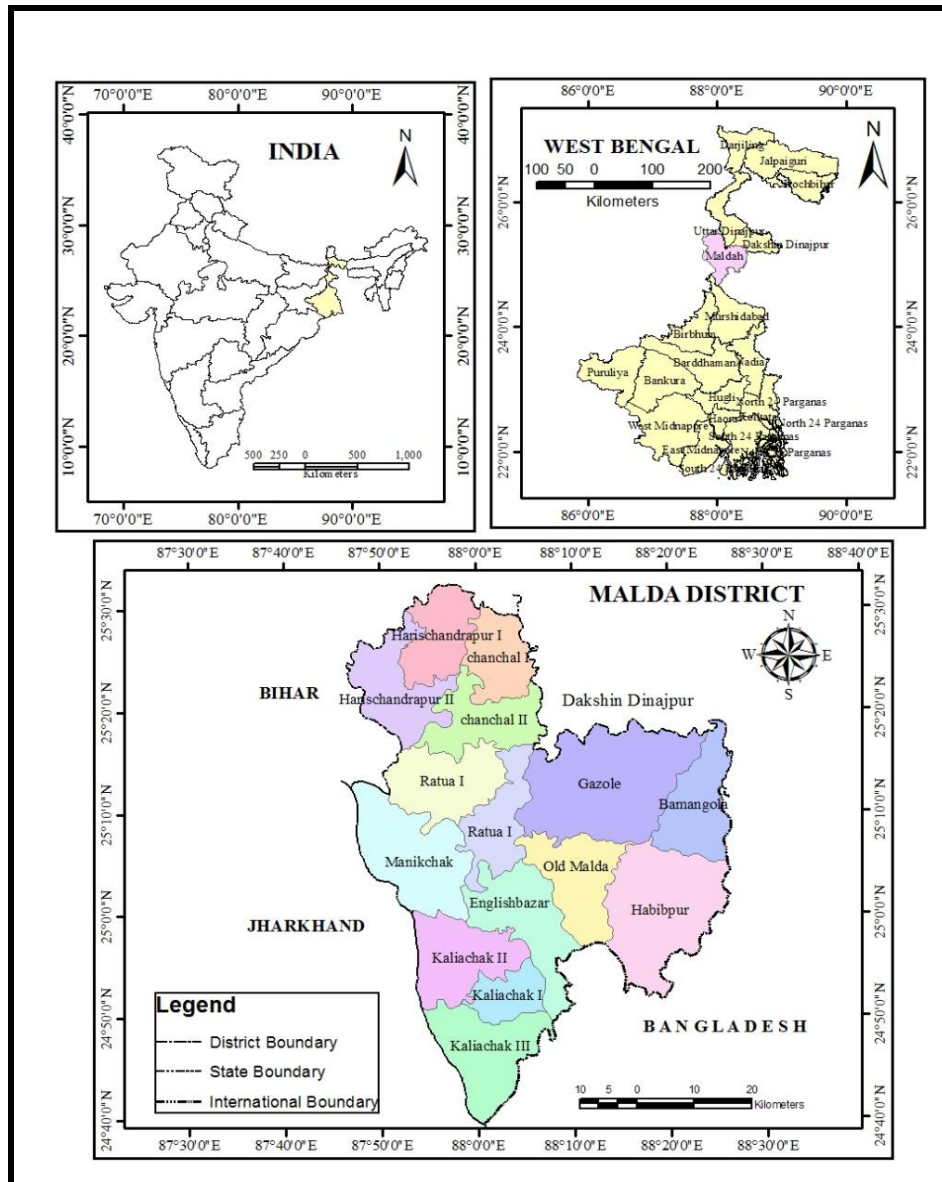


Figure 1: Location of Malda District

The study incorporates Bamangola and Habibpur Blocks in Malda District. These two Blocks are situated at the north-eastern part of the district namely in Barind region. The average elevation of the block is about 26 meter from mean sea level. The middle part of the block is highly elevated and elevation decreases towards eastern and western part of the block. The overall topography of the block is undulating plain or it can say wave like topography. Two minor rivers from north to south direction are flowing in the block. One is River Punarbhaba in the eastern portion of the block, flowing along international boundary with Bangladesh and another is River Tangan in western portion is flowing along with the western boundary of the block. Except for the floodplain areas of two rivers, the upper portion of soil is relatively less fertile of the block due to the presence of lateritic soil in subsurface areas. Due to the low productivity of agricultural and monoculture type of agriculture poor economy is existence over the years. Therefore off season out-migration is a regular phenomenon in these areas as well as in the district.

5. Nature and Extent of Internal Migration

Nature of internal migration in India

Historical connection

India has experienced a long history of migration through the emergence of human civilization in Harappa and Mohenjo-Daro. Aryans migrated from Persia to northwestern India around 2000 B.C. From 326 B.C. to around 200 B.C., the Mauryan Empire emerged as India’s first imperial power and ruled it with a highly centralized and hierarchical administration. From 320 A.D. to 550 A.D., most of north India was ruled by the Gupta Empire. Both Mauryas and Guptas were of indigenous origin. Then the Islamic imperial power, the Mughals, ruled the Indian subcontinent. Beginning in 1526, they came from central Asia and affected and ruled most parts of India till the mid19th century. India’s present economy and polity have roots in the period of more than two hundred years of British domination. During this period a large number of people from England came and settled in various parts of India.

In 1947, during the partition of India, large populations moved from India to Pakistan and vice versa. Many Muslim residents of former British India chose to migrate to Pakistan,

formally divided into East Pakistan and West Pakistan (the former is now Bangladesh after it got independence in 1971), while Hindus and Sikhs residents of Pakistan moved in the opposite direction.

In recent time, India has received migrants from the neighbouring countries like Bangladesh, Pakistan, Nepal and Sri Lanka. Instances of illegal migration to India for better livelihood and sometimes forced by political instability in source countries have occupied the serious concern of administration.

6. Types of migration

Internal migrants play a vital role in sustaining and building India's economy, but their contribution remains unrecognized due to lack of data. Short-term migrants, including seasonal/circular migrants, are inadequately captured in macro datasets such as the Census and National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO). Migration in India is primarily of two types:

- a) *Long-term migration*, resulting in the relocation of an individual or household.
- b) *Short-term or seasonal/ circular migration*, involving back and forth movement between a source and destination.

Estimates of short-term migrants vary from 15 million (NSSO 2007–2008) to 100 million (Deshingkar and Akter 2009). Most short-term migrants belong to socioeconomically deprived groups, such as Scheduled Castes or Scheduled Tribes, having negligible educational attainment, limited assets and resource deficits (UNESCO, 2012). Migrants do not constitute a homogenous category, and migrants are differentiated according to gender, class, ethnicity, language, and religion. Women constitute an overwhelming majority of migrants, 70.7 percent of internal migrants as per Census 2001, and 80 percent of total internal migrants as per NSSO (2007-08). Projections indicate that internal migrants may increase in number to approximately 400million in Census 2011 (Rajan, 2013). This far exceeds the estimates of Indian emigrants i.e. 11.4million (The World Bank, 2011). Further, internal migration remains grossly underestimated due to empirical and conceptual difficulties in measurement. About 30 percent of internal migrants in India belong to the youth category in the 15-29 years age group (Rajan, 2013; Census, 2001). Child migrants are estimated at approximately 15 million (Daniel, 2011; Smita, 2011).

Table 1. Migrants by place of birth & place of last residence of India, 2001

Category		Migrants by Place of Birth (%)	Migrants by Place of Past Residence (%)
A.	Total Population	1028610328 (100%)	1028610328 (100%)
B.	Total Migrations	29.9	30.6
B.1	Migrants within the state of enumeration	84.2	85.3
B.11	Migrants from within the districts	70.3	72.2
B.12	Migrants from other districts of the state	29.7	17.8
B.2	Migrants from other states in India	13.8	13.1
B.3	Migrants from other countries	2	1.6

Source: Table D3, Census of India 2001

Traditionally, inter-state migrants have been only a small percentage of the total migrants in India. Results from the 2011 Census are yet to be released providing data on this migration stream. However, as per the 2001 Census, inter-state migrants constitute only 13% of total migrants. The last NSS on migration

for 2007-08 shows that inter-state migrants were 11.5%, up from 10.3% in 1999-2000. Even if one uses the census percentage figure, the number of inter-state migrants would be around 18.5 million in 2011, averaging less than two million a year.

Table 2: Short-term Out-Migrants and Long-term Out-Migrants: A Comparative Profile, 2007–2008 (in percent)

Social Group	Short-Term Out-Migrants			Long-Term Out-Migrants		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
ST	20.1	3.5	18.6	6.8	2.2	6.0
SC	23.7	17.5	23.1	19.2	11.8	17.9
OBC	39.5	43.6	39.9	44.5	37.9	43.3
Others	16.7	35.4	18.4	29.5	48.0	32.8
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: NSSO 2007–2008. (Borrowed from UNESCO, 2012).

As per Census 2001, out of the 97.5 million internal migrants in the country, 53.3 million (54.7 %) moved within rural

areas. About 20.6 million persons (21.1% of the total migrants) moved from rural areas to urban areas during the last decade.

On the other hand, 6.2 million persons (6.4%) moved from urban areas to rural areas. The number of migrants who moved from one town to another during the last decade is 14.4 million,

i.e., about 14.7 percent of the total migrants. In case of about 3 percent of the migrants, the rural-urban status of the place from which they moved could not be determined.

Table 3. Migration in Malda District by Place of Birth and Place of Last Resident, 2001

States	Place of Birth		Place of Last residence		States	Place of Birth		Place of Last residence	
	No of Migrant	Percentage	No of Migrant	Percentage		No of Migrant	Percentage	No of Migrant	Percentage
Jammu & Kashmir	93	0.18	164	0.31	West Bengal	0	0	0	0
Himachal Pradesh	31	0.06	27	0.05	Jharkhand	9030	17.4	9070	16.91
Punjab	190	0.37	353	0.66	Orissa	314	0.61	292	0.54
Chandigarh	11	0.02	6	0.01	Chhatisgarh	60	0.12	108	0.2
Uttaranchal	148	0.29	133	0.25	Madhya Pradesh	133	0.26	132	0.25
Haryana	179	0.34	203	0.38	Gujarat	97	0.19	133	0.25
Delhi	210	0.4	886	1.65	Daman & Diu	0	0	2	0
Rajasthan	446	0.86	413	0.77	Dadra & N. Haveli	0	0	0	0
Uttar Pradesh	2077	4	2095	3.9	Maharashtra	155	0.3	253	0.47
Bihar	36571	70.46	37019	69	Andhra Pradesh	104	0.2	141	0.26
Sikkim	5	0.01	14	0.03	Karnataka	101	0.19	90	0.17
Arunachal Pradesh	16	0.03	20	0.04	Goa	2	0	5	0.01
Nagaland	13	0.03	29	0.05	Lakshadweep	0	0	0	0
Manipur	18	0.03	25	0.05	Kerala	117	0.23	100	0.19
Mizoram	1	0	1	0	Tamil Nadu	61	0.12	58	0.11
Tripura	138	0.27	129	0.24	Pondicherry	3	0.01	5	0.01
Meghalaya	49	0.09	30	0.06	A & N Islands	9	0.02	10	0.02
Assam	1518	2.92	1704	3.18	Total	51900	100	53650	100

Source : D Table, Census of India-2001.

In the Malda district, the nature of internal migration is quite different from the national level. According to Census 2001, total 797281 persons or near about 25 % of the total population migrated in the district. From which about 80 % are female migration. Most of the female migration is long duration basis (more than 10 years). By the stream of migration rural to rural migration is predominant in the district (82%). Female migrants are the significant contributor (69.34%) in this category. It might be happening due to marriage reason. Rural to urban migration or it is said to be labour out-migration constitute near about 5 % of the total migration. From the survey, it is revealed that majority of migrant workers are scheduled tribe and scheduled caste category. Most of which are landless or very poor economic background and very less educated.

From the household survey, it is also noticed that among the non-tribe or having land holding out migrants majority are in short time or circular in nature. Generally, they migrated during the off-crop season and after 6 to 8 month they return their home during plantation of robi or Kharif crops. The labour from Malda district is migrated to several metropolitan cities all over India. The main destination of the migrants of the surveyed regions is found to be in Delhi, Mumbai, Bangalore, Kerala, Chennai, and Goa. Migrants are mostly employed in the following subsectors: construction, domestic work, textile, brick-kilns, transportation, mines, quarries, and agriculture (Deshingkar and Akter 2009).

Table 4. Internal Migration in Malda District by Place of Last Residence, Sex, and Duration, 2001

Migratio n Streams	Sex-wise	All Durations		Less than 1 year		1-4 years		5-9 years		10-19 years		20+ years		Duration not stated	
		Persons	(%)	Persons	(%)	Persons	(%)	Persons	(%)	Persons	%	Persons	%	Persons	%
Total	Total	797281	100.00	19625	2.46	124581	15.63	131876	16.54	211672	26.55	249469	31.29	60058	7.53
	Male	167189	20.97	8177	1.03	28437	3.57	26297	3.30	35261	4.42	39365	4.94	29652	3.72
	Female	630092	79.03	11448	1.44	96144	12.06	105579	13.24	176411	22.13	210104	26.35	30406	3.81
Rural to rural	Total	656270	82.31	15213	1.91	106592	13.37	115111	14.44	183761	23.05	220844	27.70	14749	1.85
	Male	103407	12.97	5709	0.72	21565	2.70	20223	2.54	24716	3.10	26966	3.38	4228	0.53
	Female	552863	69.34	9504	1.19	85027	10.66	94888	11.90	159045	19.95	193878	24.32	10521	1.32
Rural to urban	Total	37741	4.73	1063	0.13	5811	0.73	5617	0.70	10981	1.38	12275	1.54	1994	0.25
	Male	16498	2.07	538	0.07	2370	0.30	2181	0.27	4480	0.56	5967	0.75	962	0.12
	Female	21243	2.66	525	0.07	3441	0.43	3436	0.43	6501	0.82	6308	0.79	1032	0.13
Urban to rural	Total	26225	3.29	2211	0.28	5397	0.68	5065	0.64	6909	0.87	5589	0.70	1054	0.13
	Male	9728	1.22	1450	0.18	1971	0.25	1711	0.21	2316	0.29	1716	0.22	564	0.07
	Female	16497	2.07	761	0.10	3426	0.43	3354	0.42	4593	0.58	3873	0.49	490	0.06
Urban to urban	Total	26238	3.29	709	0.09	4176	0.52	4261	0.53	7278	0.91	7346	0.92	2468	0.31
	Male	11874	1.49	331	0.04	1796	0.23	1709	0.21	3094	0.39	3711	0.47	1233	0.15
	Female	14364	1.80	378	0.05	2380	0.30	2552	0.32	4184	0.52	3635	0.46	1235	0.15

Source : D-2 Table, Census of India-2001.

7. Determinants of Migration

Several research has been done on determinants or causes of internal migration in India. Almost every research shows some common determinants of internal migration at the national level. Although there might have some deferent causes of migration at the regional or local level. People are migrated from one place to another mainly due to economic, social, religious and political factor. Causes and pattern of migration are diverse in character (Turrey, 2016). It is deeply affected by the pattern of uneven development (NCRL, 1991). Seasonal migration is also caused by inter-regional disparities, different social- economic classes and uneven developmental govt. policies. The migration of tribal population is to some extent different from mainstream migration. In addition, it is observed due to intrusion by outsiders, deforestation, settlement pattern, and displacement etc. The causes of internal migration (specifically labour out-migration) may be seen generally in the district are as follows:

- Lack of job and poverty is the main factor that forces people to move other from the district.
- Pressure on the family due to large family member resulting high dependent family members.
- Low productivity of agriculture in the region which is inadequate to sustain the proper livelihood of the people.
- More hard work and low profit in agriculture
- Limited work day in a year due to one or two crop season.
- There is no industry in the district results in low employment opportunity.
- Taking Dadon (Advance Payment) from the contractor (this system is more prominent among the tribal migrant in the district).

8. Economic and Social inclusion of the Migrants and their Families:

1. Inclusion to Economy

Most migrants are unable to access banking facilities since they do not have the necessary documentation to fulfill the Know Your Customer (KYC) requirements of banks, including proof of identity and proof of address. To remit money to families left behind, they are forced to choose informal networks (e.g. friends and relatives visiting home, hawala, informal couriers, or bus drivers) or else send money through the post office by money order, which is often expensive and less preferable (NABARD-GTZ, 2009; CMF, 2011).

According to Tumbe (2011), estimates of the domestic remittance market were roughly USD10 billion in 2007-08. With rising incomes, migrant remittances can encourage investment in human capital formation, particularly increased expenditure on health, and also to some extent education (Deshingkar and Sandi, 2012).

Policy for Inclusion to Economy

“Access to formal banking facilities for internal migrants can enable promotion of savings and safe and secure transfer of remittances. This can be achieved by linking migrants to branchless banking and business correspondents¹⁵ while incorporating flexibility in bank procedures, such as relaxing KYC norms, operating no-frills¹⁶accounts and having extended banking hours. In case of migrants themselves do not possess bank accounts at the destination, an important policy recommendation would be to target banking services in geographical areas with high out-migration, to enable families of migrants to securely receive remittances” (CMF, 2011).

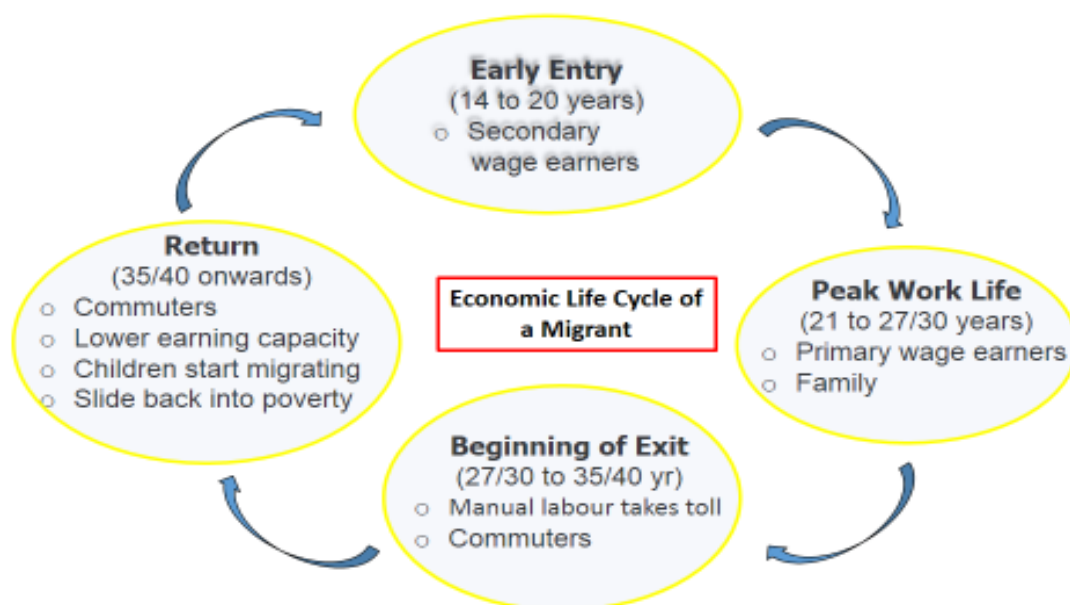


Figure 2: Economic life cycle of a migrant

There is lack of institutional and governance support to facilitate safe transfer of remittances of migrants to their left-behind families. In Malda district, it is found in the table that nearly 60 percent of migrant don't have bank account. Worst picture are found among Schedule Tribe communities. Recently

Prodhan Mantri Jaan Dhan Yojana implemented by Government of India, through which emphasis are given on financial inclusion by opening bank account of every household. Yet, many of them do not know how to use.

Table 5: Access to banking service of migrant labour by Social Category

Social Category	Schedule Caste	Scheduled Tribe	Minorities	Others	Total (average)
Migrant Household (%)	55.8	36.6	48.3	68	42.1

Source: Household Survey

2. Inclusion to Society

Seasonal migration in search of livelihoods undertaken by socially deprived groups such as the Scheduled Castes (SCs) and Scheduled Tribes (STs) and Other backward classes (OBCs), who are asset-poor and face resource and livelihood deficits (Deshingkar and Akter 2009).

Evidence reveals that migration rates are high among both, the highly educated and the least educated, with a high proportion of illiterates among seasonal migrants (UNESCO-UNICEF 2012b).

Inclusion in Education

Seasonal migrants often take their children along when they migrate for work, which negatively impacts upon the regular and continued schooling of children. This temporary discontinuation of study frequently results in they're dropping out of school altogether. In the case that migrant children take up educational the destination, they face learning difficulties based on differences in academic curricula and language, especially in the case of inter-state migration (Deshingkar and Sandi, 2012). Re-enrolment in source schools at the end of a migration cycle is rare, and when it occurs, migrant children are often readmitted in the same class owing to inflexible school procedures and lack of remedial classes to cover learning deficits. The right of migrant children to education thus remains compromised, adversely affecting their human capital formation and contributing to the inter-generational transmission of poverty.

Health risks such as malnutrition and anemia remain prevalent among migrant children and adolescent girls, resulting in stunting. Further, migrant children are often inducted as child labour at worksites and are found to be working in sectors such as construction, brick manufacture, salt making, sugar-cane harvesting, stone quarrying, plantations, fishing and rat hole mining in coal mines in the absence of crèches, early childcare services, initiatives for pre-school education and growth monitoring, migrant children miss critical inputs necessary in their early years for their physical, motor, cognitive, language, and psycho-social development.

Policy for Educational Inclusion

“Education provisions should be sufficiently flexible to ensure that mobile populations are not left out. The innovative policy responses and practices piloted by NGO and the government, under the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) (Education for All Movement)¹¹, should be up-scaled. This

includes the multiplication of seasonal hostels to promote the retention of children in schools in source areas; the establishment of worksite schools at the destination with systems to transfer enrolment, attendance at and credits to formal schools, and bridge courses and remedial education for return migrant children (Smita, 2008). Furthermore, the following initiatives should be up-scaled: establishing peripatetic educational volunteers who can move with the migrating families, initiating strategies for tracking children by issuing migratory cards, and making the school calendar flexible to accommodate migrant children, including in local government schools in both rural and urban areas”(UNESCO, 2012).

3. Social Security

The ADB defines social protection as the set of policies and programmes designed to reduce poverty and vulnerability by promoting efficient labour markets, diminishing people's exposure to risks, and enhancing their capacity to protect themselves against hazards and interruption/loss of income. The policies and procedures included in social protection involve five major kinds of activities: labour market policies and programmes, social insurance programmes, social assistance, micro- and area-based schemes, and child protection (ADB 2001, Appendix- 1).

According to ILO 'Social Protection' is “a set of public measures that a society provides for its members to protect them against economic and social distress caused by the absence of a substantial reduction of income from work as a result of various contingencies (sickness, maternity, employment injury, unemployment, invalidity, old age or death of the breadwinner), the provision of health care and the provision of benefits for families with children” (International Labour Office 2004, emphasis added).

Policy for Social Security

“The Public Distribution System (PDS) should be made portable to include multi-locational migrant populations. Policy discussions on the issue of improving the portability of the PDS system have been held in a small number of states, such as Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh, but action has not yet been taken due to the institutional and operational difficulties of serving a mobile population. NGOs such as Disha Foundation has started to fill this critical gap, but clearly, NGOs cannot match the scale of the government and this issue requires renewed attention” (UNESCO, 2012).....for access to food.

“Experiments in providing shelter security for internal migrants need to follow a continuum, starting from affordable rental housing to affordable private housing, with an eventual policy shift towards the provision of de facto residential rights and housing. In-situ upgradation of existing slum dwellings could be the first step towards ensuring basic services for migrants living in slums. Employers and contractors also need to play a role in securing shelter for migrant workers, and experiments with dormitory accommodation provided by employers - as undertaken in China - can serve as a useful reference” (Srivastava, 2012b).

“In order to remain accessible to new migrants, eligibility for urban shelter schemes should not be based on year-wise cut off dates for proving residency. A critical consideration is that new housing should be located close to workplaces” (UNESCO, 2012). for Access to Housing/Shelter.

“It is necessary to avoid the stigmatization of migrants as ‘carriers’ of diseases and infections and to recognize them as populations vulnerable to several health risks. Targeted interventions and outreach components can be designed for the health of internal migrants, taking into account the special vulnerability of women and children”(UNESCO, 2012)..... for access to health.

Exclusion and discrimination against migrants take place through political and administrative processes, market mechanisms and socio-economic processes, causing a gulf between migrants and locals (Bhagat, 2011).

Most social protection programmes require registration of eligible beneficiaries and issuance of beneficiary cards to them. Lacking documentary proof of identity and local residents, migrants are often unable to register themselves for social protection programmes.

4. Different Acts passed in Indian Legislation regarding internal migration

In this section some act regarding protection of internal migrant worker are mentioned below:

- Workmen’s Compensation Act (1923)
- Payment of Wages Act (1936)
- Minimum Wages Act (1948)
- Immoral Traffic (Prevention) Act (1956)
- Contract Labour (Regulation and Abolition) Act (1970)
- Bonded Labour System (Abolition) Act (1976)
- Equal Remuneration Act (1976)
- Inter-State Migrant Workmen (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act (1979)
- Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act (1986)
- Building and Other Construction Workers (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act (1996)
- Unorganised Workers Social Security Act (2008)
- Criminal Law (Amendment) Act 2013

5. Impact of Migration

However, the positive impacts of migration remain unrecognized. Migration may provide an opportunity to escape caste divisions and restrictive social norms and to work with dignity and freedom at the destination (Deshingkar and Akter 2009). Women left behind as a consequence of the migration of male members enjoy empowerment effects, with increased interaction in society, including their participation as workers and decision makers of households. Migrants bring back to the original variety of skills, innovations, and knowledge, known as ‘social remittances’, including a change in tastes, perceptions, and attitudes (for example, non-acceptance of poor employment conditions, low wages and semi-feudal labour relationships, and improved knowledge and awareness about workers rights). Majority of migrants from the district reveals that due to migration, their personal income and personal expense have increased but they do not satisfy by doing that job at the destination. Their addiction of smoking, chewing tobacco, drinking alcohol and recreation firmly increased due to having instant liquid pocket money from labour.

Remittance mainly used for consumption purposed rather than production purposes. Thus process out migration cannot improve the situation of migrants for long time. Therefore, cycle of migration does not end it continues throughout the life from one generation to next generation.

Migration of father of a family negatively effect on the overall development of left behind children. Maximum effect imposed on education of children. The study found in response of various educational parameters like, school performance, home work and drop out of school, the result is worsen among children left behind than parent present children.

The left behind women of migrant family faced various problems due to absence of their husband like insecurity, visit the doctor when getting ill, heavy workload in farming the land etc.

Majority migrant consider that after migration and remittance, family income is increases instantly, but other economic aspects like income in agriculture, amount of land, savings and investment does not remarkably improved after migration.

The impact of out migration on local economy is widely recognized, Due to out-migration of labour, shortage of labour forces is traced, which leads to increase of wage rate in local labour market even more than migrant labour.

9. Conclusion and Policy Recommendations

Both macro-data and field studies show that seasonally migrant labour belongs to the poorest and deprived sections of society such as the Scheduled Castes (SCs) and Scheduled Tribes (STs) and Other Backward Classes (OBCs). These migrants are a product of individual and household livelihood deficits (generally due to the absence of assets) and regional resource and livelihood deficits. Migration provides subsistence to the workers and their families but exposes them to a harsh and vulnerable existence, in which working and living conditions are poor. (Srivastava, 2012)

In the process of migration not only are families, including children, uprooted from their homes year after year, they also end up disenfranchised. Families lose the benefits of state welfare – they forgo the facilities of the public distribution system in the villages and cannot access the public health system and the immunization drive for young children that take place during the migration season. A large proportion of migrant labour does not have their entitlement papers like caste certificates, election cards, BPL cards, old age pension cards and so on. In the entire process, the lives of children are adversely affected. They are forced to drop out of school or never enroll in one. One has to remember that a child out of school is an important indicator of child labour in the country.

- ✓ Many migrant workers are illiterate and face difficulties in undertaking financial transactions involving writing and filling in forms. SoLink migrant workers to financial services through branchless or mobile banking and banking correspondents (for example, FINO Money Transfer and Eko India Financial Services Pvt. Ltd., banking correspondent of State Bank of India, ICICI Bank and Yes Bank).
- ✓ handful low-cost remittance services maybe launch outside the banking sector, as such as the FINO Paytech Money Transfer system started by FINO Paytech (Financial Information Network and Operations Ltd.), as an alternative channel for banking services and a branchless banking model. Started in June 2009, it provides safe, prompt, low cost and reliable remittance services to its customers across India using technology and an extensive service delivery channel. FINO Paytech Money Transfer issues smart cards to migrants containing their personal details, including fingerprints and a photograph.
- ✓ Develop a universal national minimum social security package covering minimum wages and labour standards and incorporating portability of benefits in all government social protection schemes and public services.
- ✓ Issue temporary ration cards to migrants at the destination to enable access to subsidized food through the Public Distribution System (for example, Disha Foundation in Maharashtra).
- ✓ For the migrated children with their parents, worksite schools should be set up with the support of different worksite owners. To retain in the school some seasonal hostel may be set up in worksites. These hostels enabled children to stay back in their villages and continue their education uninterrupted when their parents migrated for work. These hostels in the home villages were functional during the months the workers migrated. With the collaboration of *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan* (SSA), an NGO, Aide et Action has set up several schools and seasonal hostel in Tamilnadu, Madhya Pradesh, and Odisha.

- ✓ Minimize the distressing nature of migration by adopting pro-poor development strategies in backward areas, including providing sustainable livelihood opportunities, increased access to land, common property resources, social and physical infrastructure and governance institutions in sending areas and strengthening programmes such as MGNREGA, food security programmes and creating opportunities for access to credit.

Revise the Inter-State Migrant Workmen(Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act (1979) including the following gaps:

- The Act applies to only migrants crossing state boundaries and, therefore, a large section of migrants are excluded from its ambit.
- It does not monitor unregistered contractors and establishments.
- It remains silent on provision for crèches, education centers for children or mobile medical units for the labourers.
- It articulates no guidelines for inter-state cooperation.
- It covers only regulation of employment and conditions of service of migrants and does not address access to the social protection of migrants, their right to the city and the special vulnerabilities of children and women migrants.
- Important provisions of the Act such as for minimum wages, displacement allowance, medical facilities and protective clothing remain unenforced.

UNESCO – UNICEF: national Workshop on Internal Migration and Human Development in India suggest the following key principles regarding the better inclusion of internal migration in India:

1. Promote positive political discourse and avoid a prejudiced, negative portrayal of internal migrants.
2. Build awareness for a better understanding of internal migrants' positive contribution to society.
3. Adopt a human rights-based approach for internal migrant inclusion in society
4. Develop gender-sensitive and age-sensitive policies and practices for internal migrants.
5. Create portability of social protection entitlements for internal migrants.
6. Upscale successful innovative practices for a better inclusion of internal migrants.
7. Revise and strengthen data collection techniques for the Census to fill knowledge gaps, especially those related to circular and seasonal migration and women's migration.
8. Mainstream internal migration into national development policy, and regional and urban planning.
9. Ensure policy coherence on internal migration and its cross-cutting impacts and
10. Ensure democratic participation of internal migrants in society.

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